Please cite as-

Klein, E., Astrachan, J., Kossek, E. E. 1992. Affective reactions of managers to leadership education: An exploration of the same gender effect. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 28: 102-117.

Affective Reactions to Leadership Education: An Exploration of the Same-Gender Effect

EDWARD B. KLEIN University of Cincinnati ELLEN ERNST KOSSEK Michigan State University JOSEPH H. ASTRACHAN Kennesaw State College

This study examines influences of the gender of participants and of small group leaders on the affective reactions of experienced managers attending a 1-week residential training program on leadership. A sample of 404 upper-level managers from the private and public sectors participated in eight offsite seminars held over a 3-year period. Three-month follow-up data were collected from 63% of participants. As expected, male managers were more likely than female managers to report positive affective reactions to this educational program. In addition, a "same gender" effect was found for women; the most positive affective reactions were reported by female managers with female leaders. A combination of social systems and attitude theories provides an explanation of the obtained differences. The results suggest that greater involvement of female group leaders and participants in educational programs is needed to enhance affective reactions by managers in an increasingly heterogeneous workplace.

Little research has been done on gender-related intergroup/systems issues, such as the influence of participant and leader gender on managers' affective reactions and learning. Early research on the group dynamics of managerial education overlooked gender issues, as the training tended to be conducted by male investigators on male

JOURNAL OF APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE, Vol. 28 No. 1, March 1992 102-117 © 1992 NTL Institute

102

groups led by men (Dion, 1985). As the growing number of women in middle and upper managerial ranks become involved in corporate education, gender issues pertaining to management training grow in significance. The influence of participant and leader gender on training effectiveness has been understudied, even though the literature on management education has investigated a variety of important issues, such as the value of in-house (McCauley, 1986) and offsite programs (Levinson, 1976), design considerations (Goldstein, 1980, 1986), evaluation of methods (Wexley, 1984; Wexley & Latham, 1981) and the measure of outcomes (Goldstein, 1986; Snyder, Raben, & Farr, 1980). (For a recent review on training systems issues, see Goldstein & Gillian, 1990.)

Training often reflects larger issues in society (Rioch, 1977). Therefore, as more women obtain leadership positions in organizations, workplace dynamics reflecting cultural changes will be mirrored in participants' reactions to female leaders, as well as in leaders' reactions to female managers. As a consequence, gender can no longer be ignored in assessing the learning process in management education programs.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON GENDER DYNAMICS IN RELATED SETTINGS

Although recent group dynamics research has found that the gender of the leader has an important impact on participants (Correa et al., 1988), little theory from this domain has been integrated into investigations of management education. This may be due partially to the fact that most of the experienced managers receiving leadership training and most of the educators conducting such programs were and are men. In addition, much of the training literature is grounded in industrial/organizational psychology and thus focuses on individual- (not group- or organizational-) level variables. The later levels of analysis have become increasingly important, as the demographic composition of the group attending management education programs has shifted from being predominantly male to one that is more gender balanced.

Studies of the gender dynamics at Tavistock group conferences have focused on authority relations (Colman & Geller, 1985). Descriptive investigations of these conferences suggest that males are preferred over female leaders (Beauvois, 1976). An empirical study by Reed (1979) found that men and women both report more self-perceived learning with female leaders than they do with male leaders in the same

The study was supported by a grant from the Levinson Institute. We would like to thank Clayton P. Alderfer, three reviewers from JABS, Walter N. Stone, and Steven R. Howe, whose suggestions made this a much better article, and Lorna Volk for her typing.

Edward B. Klein is a professor in the Department of Psychology at the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH.

Ellen Ernst Kossek is an assistant professor in the School of Labor and Industrial Relations at Michigan State University, East Lansing.

Joseph H. Astrachan is an associate professor in the Department of Management and Entrepreneurship at Kennesaw State College, Atlanta, GA.

role. Indeed, such self-perceived learning occurs even if members do not like women group process consultants who interpret behavior (Reed, 1981). In addition, male members' reactions to female group leaders are marked by resistance (Eskilson & Wiley, 1976) and high levels of stress (Reed, 1981).

Correa et al. (1988) found that members of 29 small groups at seven Tavistock group relations conferences reported more self-perceived learning from female consultants than from male consultants. The authors proposed that the novelty of a woman in authority challenged member expectations and led to more emotional reactions. Such heightened emotions focused members on the task of studying authority relations—and therefore produced more self-perceived learning, particularly from men members. A number of moderating factors contributed to the greater effectiveness of women leaders: enhanced status through appointment by a senior male director, an equal number of males and females in the group, and the task of evaluating group process, which is more ambiguous to assess.

Although little research has examined the same-gender effect in management education programs specifically, other studies consistently have found positive influences regarding gender similarity in the workplace. Research indicates that both genders feel closer to their own gender at work (Dobbins, Pence, Orban, & Sgro, 1983). Investigation also has found that same-gender mentoring relationships tend to be experienced as closer and more successful than are cross-gender ones (Ragins & McFarlin, 1989). There is a consistent, though weak, same-gender effect on performance appraisals, particularly in laboratory settings (Mobley, 1982). In a recent field study, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found that women subordinates with women superiors reported the lowest level of role ambiguity, were rated as most effective, and were liked most by their superiors. This same-gender superior-subordinate dyad effect did not occur with men (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989).

In sum, few studies on gender and affective reactions to learning are based on the educational experiences of managers. This article explores new ground by examining the impact of the gender of the small group leader and of participants on the affective reactions of experienced managers attending a 1-week residential management education seminar. The seminar is not rooted either in the T-group or in the Tavistock tradition. It teaches dynamic principles of human behavior and provides practice in applying these principles to enhance managers' leadership roles and help resolve organizational problems.

Because group relations conferences, which are held away from work in residential settings with strong sponsors (who recruit and finance committed participants), enhance member self-perceived learning about authority (Klein, Stone, Correa, Astrachan, & Kossek, 1989), so also should strongly sponsored, offsite residential leadership seminars facilitate managers' positive affective reactions to leadership education. Also, just as theoretically consistent group relations conferences provide a rich field setting for the study of people's reactions to women in authority (Greene, Morrison, & Tischler, 1979), consistently structured leadership seminars offer a similar opportunity to investigate managers' reactions to men and to women in positions of group leadership.

SETTING

Eight seminars sponsored by a national leadership institute, which were held over a 3-year period, were examined in this study. Managers from *Fortune* 500 companies and major governmental agencies participated in these offsite 1-week programs. Organizations, which paid the tuition and travel expenses, sent managers to the seminars with the expectation that they would learn about psychological aspects of leadership. Prior to attending the seminar, each participant was required to prepare a short written case examining an unresolved interpersonal/organizational problem the manager was currently facing at work.

All seminars had a consistent theoretical orientation and the exact same schedule. Seminars typically were designed for 49 managers divided into seven groups of 7 participants each. Multiple educational methods were used: lectures, small discussion groups, and personal interviews. The three daily lectures, held in a large auditorium, focused on such topics as leadership, personality development, the roles of loss and change, coping with stress, and management styles. The two daily small discussion groups reviewed attendees' cases and the lectures. Leaders provided a supportive environment to work on the unresolved cases prepared by individual participants in a group setting. A 1-hour interview with the participant's small group leader was offered toward the end of the week for discussion of work, family, and/or personal issues. Although optional, nearly all participants took advantage of this one-on-one personal interview opportunity.

HYPOTHESES

The gender of participants and small group leaders was expected to influence the affective reactions of the managers in three ways:

1. Male participants would report more positive affective reactions than would female participants. Most of the seminars' staff and participants were male, which created an educational environment embedded (Alderfer & Smith, 1982) in a larger organizational context that reflected the gender intergroup relations of the attendees' work settings.² All lecturers, most group leaders, and the overwhelming majority of the managers were males. Therefore, men should be more comfortable at the seminar and should react more positively to the training, whereas women are likely to feel less comfortable and to react less positively because of their token status (Kanter, 1977).

In addition to the predicted main effect, we expected the following interactions to occur:

- 2. Females who had female leaders would report more positive affective reactions than would females who had male small group leaders.
- 3. Males with male small group leaders would report more positive affective reactions than would males with female leaders.

106

These "same-gender effect" predictions were based on Allport (1954), who noted that there is an in-group bias toward the known, which is comfortable and controllable. Consistent with the research reviewed earlier, studies have found that same-gender relationships have positive influence both for men and for women in regard to performance appraisals (Mobley, 1982), mentor-protégé relationships (Ragins & McFarlin, 1989), and work relations (Dobbins et al., 1983).

METHOD

Three months after the seminar, to allow for distance and integration (Bunker & Knowles, 1967), a brief follow-up questionnaire was sent to all participants. The questionnaire was similar to one used to evaluate group training by clinicians and educators (Correa, Klein, Howe, & Stone, 1981). It was modified for busy managers based on feedback from seminar staff. The resulting 44-item questionnaire was divided into three areas: specific learning topics, overall evaluation of effectiveness, and reactions to the three educational methods.

Using a 5-point Likert-type scale, participants indicated the amount (very little, a little, a moderate amount, a lot, and a great deal) they felt they had learned about 20 topics involving management and leadership in organizations. The first 5 of the 20 topic questions were "How much do you feel you learned about managing (myself; subordinates; peers; organizations; and anxiety)?" The next 13 questions were "How much do you feel you learned about how leadership is affected by (organizational change; stage of adult development; personal power; interpersonal problems; gender; race; age; feelings; unconscious process; stress; early life experience; delegation of authority; and organizational dynamics)?" The last 2 questions were "How much did you learn about (the role of loss in the change process; the importance of open-ended questions)?"

Using the same 5-point Likert-type scale, noted above, managers also gave their reactions to the seminar on eight questions evaluating overall effectiveness:

My overall expectations were met.

The knowledge I gained helped me at work.

The knowledge gained helped me manage the relationship between my work and nonwork/family life.

The amount of overall emotional impact was (scale value inserted).

If an opportunity occurred, I would want to attend again.

The amount of overall learning for me was (scale value inserted).

If I was asked what I learned, I could recall (scale value inserted).

If a friend were thinking of attending, I believe he/she would benefit.

For each of the methods used in the program (lecture, small group discussion, and personal interview), participants ranked, on the same 5-point scale, their degree of liking, learning, verbal participation and emotional involvement, and the effectiveness of staff facilitation. Finally, participants rated how much the three methods built on

each other. In short, managers provided a 3-month evaluation of the seminar on 44 follow-up questions.

RESULTS

Of the 404 managers who attended the eight seminars, 87% were men. Each seminar had approximately 50 participants, of which 44 were men and 6 were women, on average. Most small groups had 6 men and 1 woman participant. These latter groupings were the result of an institute training decision that was based on attendance and carried out by the seminar administrator. Of the 59 small groups held at the eight seminars, 47 had a male leader and 12 had a female leader. Although there were few women participants or leaders, these ratios are similar to those of the upper management ranks of the organizations represented at the seminar. Of all attendees, 63% (253) responded to the 3-month follow-up request, a response rate consistent with those of most survey research studies on training (Klein, Correa, Howe, & Stone, 1983). Although slightly more women (67%) than men (62%) returned the questionnaire, this difference in the response rate between the genders was not significant.

Table 1 shows background characteristics of the 253 responding men and women managers. The results of chi-square and *t* tests showed that, compared to the 218 men, the 35 women were significantly more often employed in human resources and in the public sector. Women also were significantly younger, less likely to be married, and had fewer children than their male counterparts.

To enhance reliability and clarify the findings, the 44 items were subjected to a principal components cluster analysis that yielded six clusters or scales. Two scales were composed of learning topics and one scale of the overall evaluation items. There also were three method scales, one each consisting primarily of lecture, small group discussion, and personal interview items.

The scale Learning About Management and Feelings (Cronbach's alpha = .80) included the following seven learning topics: managing organizations, peers, and subordinates, role of feelings in behavior, interpersonal problems of leadership, use of personal power, and delegation of authority. The Learning About Unconscious Processes scale (alpha = .72) was made up of five learning topics: unconscious processes in organizations, managing anxiety, and the effects of gender, race, and age on leadership. The Overall Evaluation scale (alpha = .91) was composed of nine items: the eight overall evaluation items listed earlier and one item on learning about managing self.

The Lecture scale (alpha = .78) was made up of four of the five lecture items: like, learn from, emotion felt in, and staff facilitation of the lecture. In addition, three prominent learning topics highlighted in the lectures were included in this scale: management of stress, the role of loss in the process of change, and the effects of organizational change on behavior. The Small Group scale (alpha = .83) was composed of all five small group items—like, learn from, participation in, emotion felt in, and staff facilitation of the small group—and the three methods of the seminar built on

TABLE 1
Background Characteristics of Managers

Gender of Managers	ď	Years in Organization	Percentage in Human Resources	Percentage in Public Sector	Age	Percentage Married	Number of Children	
Men Women	218	12	6.2 14.9†	2.2 29.8††	41*	93††	2.2**	

*t test, $p \le .05$; **t test, $p \le .001$. $\dagger \chi^2$ test, $p \le .05$; $\dagger \dagger \chi^2$ test, $p \le .001$.

one another. The Personal Interview scale (alpha = .84) contained all five interview items: like, learn from, participation in, emotion felt in, and staff facilitation of the personal interview.

In summary, 16 of the 20 learning topics, all 8 overall evaluation of effectiveness items, and 14 of the 15 method items were contained in the six clusters used in the final analyses. In addition, a Grand scale, which combined all six subscales, was computed (alpha = .93) to measure participants' overall affective reactions.

The means, standard deviations, alphas, and correlations of the seven scales are reported in Table 2. The scales are all significantly related, with correlations ranging from .21 to .87. The managers evaluated the seminar overall as being above average (mean = 3.74). Although all three methods were rated above average, the small group discussion (3.92) was rated slightly more favorably than was the interview (3.74) or the lecture (3.74).

Table 3 shows the results of 2×2 analyses of variance for participant and small group leader gender on the seven scales. There were two main effects for gender of the leader. Participants were higher on the Personal Interview and on the Grand scales if they had one of the female rather than one of the male small group leaders. But there were no significant gender differences in the Tukey Studentized Range Test. This latter finding possibly is due to the conservative nature of the test or to the powerful interactions on the two scales, which make interpretation difficult. There also were main effects for gender of participant on the scales Learning About Unconscious Processes, Overall Evaluation, and Lecture. By Tukey tests, the 218 males were significantly higher than were the 35 female participants only on the Overall Evaluation and Lecture scales and on the Grand scale.

Table 3 shows that there are significant interactions between gender of small group leader and of participant on Learning about Management and Feelings, Small Group, Personal Interview, and Grand scales. Tukey tests were done on all statistically significant interactions. By the conservative Tukey test, only the following effects held: Female participants with female leaders were significantly higher than the other three groups on the Personal Interview scale; female participants with female leaders were significantly higher than the other three groups on the Grand scale; and female participants with male group leaders were significantly lower than the other three groups on the Grand scale.

Figure 1 presents a plot of the Grand scale interactions of overall affective reactions. Female participants with female leaders have higher Grand scale scores (3.72) than did female participants with male leaders (3.27). This latter difference is statistically significant. Male participants have similar Grand scale scores whether they have male (3.63) or female (3.58) group leaders.

DISCUSSION

The finding that the 218 men had higher scores on the Overall Evaluation, Lecture, and Grand scales than did the 35 women supports Hypothesis 1. Reflecting the embeddedness of the training, male participants appeared relaxed in the lecture and

TABLE 2
Correlations of Scales

Scale	Mean	SD	Alpha	I	2	3	4	4 5	9	
1. Learning About Management and Feelings	3.44	0.56	0.80							
2. Learning About Unconscious Processes	2.76	0.58	0.72	0.58*						
3. Overall Evaluation	3.74	9.02	0.91	0.64*	0.45*					
4. Lecture	3.72	0.55	0.78	0.44*	0.37*	0.65*				
5. Small Group	3.92	9.0	0.83	0.49*	0.37*	0.50*	0.24*			
6. Personal Interview	3.74	0.87	0.84	0.35*	0.29*	0.44	0.21*	0.46*		
7. Grand Scale (six subscales combined)	3.59	0.46	0.93	0.79*	0.67*	0.87*	0.65*	0.71*	0.65*	
NOTE: Scale values were (1) very little, (2) a little, (3) moderate amount, (4) a lot, and (5) a great deal. $*p \le .01$.	tle, (3) moder	ate amoun	t, (4) a lot, a	ınd (5) a gr	eat deal.					

TABLE 3 2×2 Analysis of Variance for Leader Gender, Participant Gender, and Their Interaction

	Leader Gender (L)	ender (L)	Participant Gender (P	Gender (P)		L×P
	M = 47	F = 12	M = 218	F = 35	MF = 23; I	MF = 23; $MM = 179$; $FM = 39$; $FF = 12$
Scale	SSª	Means	SS	Means	SS	Means (MF; MM; FM; FF)
Learning About Management and Feelings (df 3, 239)	0.41 (1.29)	M 3.44 F 3.43	0.09	M 3.46 F 3.31	1.24 (3.72)*	3.20; 3.47; 3.39; 3.55
Learning About Unconscious Processes (df 3, 245)	0.81 (2.39)	M 2.74 F 2.80	1.27 (3.77)*	M 2.78 F 2.58	0.73 (2.16)	2.47; 2.78; 2.79; 2.83
Overall Evaluation (df 3, 240)	1.29 (3.21)	M 3.73 F 3.80	1.66 (4.13)	M 3.79 F 3.45	1.08 (2.68)	3.31; 3.79; 3.81; 3.76
Lecture (df 3, 242)	0.01	M 3.71 F 3.74	1.50 (4.94)*	M 3.75 F 3.53†	0.10 (0.32)	3.55; 3.74; 3.81; 3.50
Small Group (df 3, 246)	0.39 (0.94)	M 3.93 F 3.89	0.17 (0.41)	M 3.92 F 3.89	1.81 (4.38)*	3.76; 3.95; 3.80; 4.15
Personal Interview (df 3, 240)	7.24 (9.98)**	M 3.71 F 3.84	1.10 (1.52)	M 3.74 F 3.73	11.31 (15.58)**	3.30; 3.77; 3.63; 4.52†
Grand Scale (six subscales combined) (df 3, 222)	0.833 (4.09)*	M 3.59 F 3.61	0.26 (1.29)	M 3.62 F 3.41†	1.40 (6.87)**	3.27; 3.63; 3.58; 3.72†

a. Type IV sums of squares, F value in parentheses. * $p \le .05$; ** $p \le .01$. †Tukey's Studentized Range Test (HSD) of difference between means, $\alpha \le .05$.

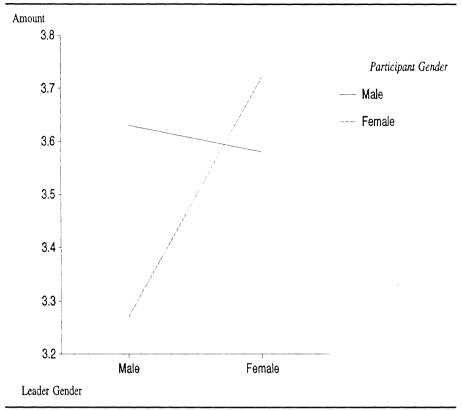


FIGURE 1: Interaction Between Gender of Participant and Leader on the Grand Overall Affective Reaction Scale

NOTE: Scale values were (1) very little, (2) a little, (3) moderate amount, (4) a lot, and (5) a great deal.

report more positive evaluations and affective reactions to the whole seminar. Women may not have been comfortable seeing men lecturing from an elevated stage, being in a large and predominately male audience, or sensing other reminders of their work settings.

Although we did not predict a main effect for leader gender because of contradictory findings in the literature, we expected women to produce somewhat more powerful effects. We believe the effect of women discussion group leaders was not as strong as tends to be the case in the group dynamics research (Reed, 1979, 1981) because of three moderating factors. First, the participants and staff were overwhelmingly male; therefore, women leaders were in a token (Kanter, 1977) or weaker, lower-status role, which may have led to both anxiety and resistance to learning among male managers. In addition, the discussion group task was individual problem solving in a group setting, not exploring group process, which would have focused participants more explicitly on authority relations. Finally, there is less ambiguity in evaluating individual problem-solving solutions than group process, which leads group members

to judge male leaders as more successful than female leaders (Bartol & Martin, 1986; Jacobson & Effertz, 1974). These moderating factors appear to have led to similar affective reactions by participants, whether their group leader was male or female.

The same-gender effect predicted in Hypothesis 2 occurred for women participants at a statistically significant level. Females who had a female leader scored higher on five of the seven scales and significantly higher on the Personal Interview and Grand scales than did all the other groups. We think this occurred because the women felt supported by their female leaders in the intimacy of the small group and the personal interview. This is consistent with Rubin (1979), who noted the positive effects of a female interviewer on a female subject in terms of comfort and depth of response. Similarly, Reed (1981) found that female members identify with and feel empowered by female small group consultants. Consistent with the current study's findings, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found a superior-subordinate same-gender effect for female but not for male dyads in an industrial setting.

Women may have felt less able to communicate effectively with men leaders in the small group and in the very intimate personal interview. Kanter (1977) noted that if a woman is alone in a group of men (as were most women who had male leaders) she is treated as a unidimensional object. Our women participants faced such conditions in the male-led small group discussion. This likely made them feel isolated and less engaged, and therefore they did not react as positively. Also, these women likely had expectations for a more personal and helpful interview, which were disappointed, as may have been their expectations in general. Women who had men leaders had the lowest mean on the Overall Evaluation scale and (more important) had the statistically lowest mean on the Grand scale, which is the most reliable measure of overall reaction to the seminar.

The results indicate that women managers rated their experiences more positively when they had a leader of the same gender. As noted, the same-gender effect was especially strong in the personal interview. The interview allowed for individual consultation, was the single optional part of the seminar, and was the only formal individual contact that participants had with the staff during the week. Women managers apparently learned most when given an opportunity to discuss their professional/personal life privately with a member of their own gender away from the work setting. We think the women participants were more at ease with women leaders and felt more understood by them than was the case with men leaders in both the discussion group and the personal interview (Rubin, 1979). At the seminar, the first author noted that, in contrast to men leaders, some women leaders went out of their way to be helpful to women participants.

Men, being in the majority, had affective responses that were less affected by the gender of the small group leader than were those of women participants. There was no statistical support for Hypothesis 3.

An examination of the contributions of social systems theory (which focuses on gender group dynamics) and of attitude theory (which contends that individuals hold a positive view toward those who are similar) helps to more fully understand the obtained gender differences. We believe men managers, who were in the vast majority in the seminar, were in a familiar setting (like work) and consequently felt more

comfortable and reported more positive affective reactions. Both women leaders and women participants were in the minority in the larger educational system. The most positive reactions occurred for the few female participants who had a female leader. These women managers likely felt understood, supported, and comfortable with a woman leader in the intimate small group discussion and interview, thus reporting the highest affective reactions on the Personal Interview and Grand scales. Another possibility is that placing women in leadership positions provided a structural change that positively altered the climate of the seminar for these participants. Perhaps women who had women group leaders felt empowered by seeing women like themselves in positions of power.

There are a number of implications of these research findings for management education. When in a minority, women are best able to respond affectively to psychological issues in management training in an intimate educational setting where they are led by a member of their own gender. Ely (1989) found that the greater the representation of women in higher management positions, the more positive the relations between women at all levels in the organization. However, where women were less well represented, relationships were less supportive and more dysfunctionally competitive. In other words, it is important that there not be an isolated single woman in a group, which is consistent with Kanter's (1977) study of tokenism. Similarly, Astrachan (1990), in his research on mergers and acquisitions, found that an individual in an isolated group role was in the most psychologically vulnerable position. Ideally, small groups should have an equal number of male and female participants as this enhances the influence of female members (Craig & Sherif, 1986) and the authority and effectiveness of female group leaders (Correa et al., 1988).

More women staff in leadership positions are needed in training institutes and in management education programs. Not only will this enhance female participants' affective reactions but it may also benefit the management education experiences of male participants. Some male managers have their first experience with professional women in leadership positions at training programs. Even if they have dealings with token female authority figures at work, it may be "safer" for men to experiment with new behavior toward women in authority outside their organizational setting. Men wishing to advance in an increasingly heterogeneous workplace might be aided by feeling comfortable with women as business associates. At these seminars, as in upper management in general, women often are tokens. Consequently, a staff more balanced by gender might aid male self-perceived learning (Correa et al., 1988). Also, if there were more women on staff, organizations might sponsor more women participants based on positive feedback from women attendees. In addition, with changes in the gender composition of upper management, more women will attend such educational seminars, thus changing their token status. We believe that having more women participants in management training will enhance program effectiveness for both genders; women feel included, engaged, and supported (as this current study found), and men are more open, expressive, and thoughtful (Arles, 1976).

A speculative implication, ripe for future research based on parallels to the situation of women in this study, is that minority groups attending seminars also might

experience less comfort based on an in-group bias from the majority group toward the unfamiliar (Allport, 1954). As Martin and Pettigrew (1987) suggest, organizational contexts ought to be shaped for minority inclusion. Indeed, as one report notes, 85% of new entrants to the labor force between 1985 and the year 2000 will be women, minorities, or immigrants (Hudson Institute, 1987).

Goldstein and Gillian (1990) point out that one ramification of new groups entering management is that educational issues have become more complex. Organizations should focus training on efforts to help majority members accept the growing number of women, older employees, and minorities in nontraditional roles. They also advocate designing educational programs in a way that puts women and minorities into existing management systems as opposed to developing special training programs. We believe that organizations also need to become more attuned to the impact of leader and participant gender dynamics on the training environment and its ultimate effectiveness.

In summary, management education programs could benefit from greater involvement of leaders and members who are women (as in this study) and (speculatively) from people of color. These suggestions apply to universities, to training institutes, and to organizations in general. Unfortunately, it appears that the demographic composition of the workplace has changed more quickly than have the human resource systems currently in place. With increased competition, technological developments, and the need for an educated work force, a public policy that maximizes the talent of all persons will have positive benefits for individuals, for organizations, and for the nation as a whole.

NOTES

- 1. The focus of this study evolved from learning to self-perceived learning to affective reactions of managers to educational training.
- 2. The authors' own embeddedness, paralleling some dynamics of the training institute, may have played a role in the formulation of this article. Two of the three authors are men. All three authors struggled together when developing the theory presented here. The first author is male, more senior, participated in the training as a lecturer and a group leader, and more often resisted the changes in focus of this article from learning to affective reactions. The second author, a woman, provided most of the literature about women in training, leadership, and authority. The third author did the statistical analyses. There were more direct communications between the two male authors than between either and the female author, reflecting some of the historical, comfort, affective, and gender dynamics of this study.

REFERENCES

Alderfer, C. P., & Smith, K. K. (1982). Studying intergroup relations embedded in organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 27, 35-65.

Allport, G. (1954). The nature of prejudice. Cambridge, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Arles, E. (1976). Interaction patterns and themes of male, female and mixed groups. Small Group Behavior, 7, 7-18.

Astrachan, J. H. (1990). Mergers, acquisitions and employee anxiety: A study of separation anxiety in a corporate context. New York: Praeger.

- Bartol, K. M., & Martin, D. C. (1986). Women and men in task groups. In R. D. Ashmore & F. K. Del Boca (Eds.), *The social psychology of female-male relations*. New York: Academic Press.
- Beauvois, C. (1976). The family and the work group: Dilemmas for women in authority. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, City University of New York.
- Bunker, D. R., & Knowles, E. S. (1967). Comparison of behavioral changes from human relations training laboratories of different lengths. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 3, 505-523.
- Colman, A. D., & Geller, M. H. (1985). Group relations reader 2. Washington, DC: A. K. Rice Institute.
- Correa, M. E., Klein, E. B., Howe, S. R., & Stone, W. N. (1981). A bridge between training and practice: Mental health professionals learning in group relations conferences. Social Psychiatry, 16, 137-142.
- Correa, M. E., Klein, E. B., Stone, W. N., Astrachan, J. H., Kossek, E. E., & Komarraju, M. (1988). Reactions to women in authority: The impact of gender on learning at group relations conferences. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 24, 219-233.
- Craig, J. M., & Sherif, C. W. (1986). The effectiveness of men and women in problem-solving groups as a function of group gender composition. *Sex Roles*, 14, 453-466.
- Dion, K. L. (1985). Sex, gender and groups: Selected issues. In V. E. O'Leary, R. R. Unger, & B. S. Wallston (Eds.), Women, gender and social psychology. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dobbins, G. H., Pence, E. C., Orban, J. A., & Sgro, J. A. (1983). The effects of sex of the leader and sex of the subordinate on the use of organizational control policy. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32, 325-343.
- Ely, R. (1989). An intergroup perspective on relationships among professional women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Yale University.
- Eskilson, A., & Wiley, M. G. (1976). Sex composition and leadership of small groups. *Sociometry*, 39, 183-194.
- Goldstein, I. L. (1980). Training in work organizations. Annual Review of Psychology, 31, 229-279.
- Goldstein, I. L. (1986). Training in organizations: Needs assessment, development, and evaluation (2nd ed.). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Goldstein, I. L., & Gillian, P. (1990). Training system issues in the year 2000. American Psychologist, 45, 134-143.
- Greene, L. R., Morrison, T. L., & Tischler, N. G. (1979). Participants' perceptions in small and large group contexts. *Human Relations*, 32, 357-365.
- Hudson Institute. (1987). Workforce 2000: Work and workers for the twenty-first century. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- Jacobson, M. B., & Effertz, J. (1974). Sex roles and leadership perceptions of the leader and the led. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 12, 383-396.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). Some effects of proportions on group life: Skewed sex ratios and responses to token women. *Journal of Sociology*, 82, 965-990.
- Klein, E. B., Correa, M. E., Howe, S. R., & Stone, W. N. (1983). The effect of social systems on group relations training. *Social Psychiatry*, 18, 7-12.
- Klein, E. B., Stone, W. N., Correa, M. E., Astrachan, J. H., & Kossek, E. E. (1989). Dimensions of experiential learning at group relations conferences. Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, 24, 241-248.
- Levinson, H. (1976). Psychological man. Cambridge, MA: Levinson Institute.
- Martin, J., & Pettigrew, T. F. (1987). Shaping the organizational context for minority inclusion. *Journal of Social Issues*, 43, 41-78.
- McCauley, C. D. (1986). Developmental experiences in managerial work: A literature review (Tech. Rep. No. 26). Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Mobley, W. H. (1982). Supervisor and employee race and sex effects on performance appraisals: A field study of adverse impact and generalizability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 598-606.
- Ragins, B. R., & McFarlin, D. R. (1989). Mentor roles: An investigation of cross-gender mentoring relationships. Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings, pp. 58-62.
- Reed, B. G. (1979). Differential reactions by male and female group members to a group experience in the presence of male or female authority figures. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Cincinnati.

- Reed, B. G. (1981). Gender issues in training group leaders. Journal for Specialists in Group Work, 6, 161-170.
- Rioch, M. J. (1977). The A. K. Rice Group Relations Conference as a reflection of society. *Journal of Personality and Social Systems*, 1, 1-16.
- Rubin, L. (1979). Women of a certain age: The midlife search for self. New York: Harper & Row.
- Snyder, R. A., Raben, S. C., & Farr, J. L. (1980). A model for the systematic evaluation of human resource development programs. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 431-444.
- Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 402-423.
- Wexley, K. N. (1984). Personnel training. Annual Review of Psychology, 35, 519-551.
- Wexley, K. N., & Latham, G. A. (1981). Developing and training human resources in organizations. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.