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Exploring The Relationship Between Faculty Perceptions Of Chairperson-Faculty Member Communication Exchanges And Department Climate

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FACULTY PERCEPTIONS
OF CHAIRPERSON-FACULTY MEMBER COMMUNICATION
EXCHANGES AND DEPARTMENT CLIMATE

Jodi Hallsten

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Leadership communication has many consequences: those that affect an organization and its outcomes, and those that affect the followers. In academia, one of the most important leadership roles is that of the departmental chairperson. Through her or his communication, the academic chairperson influences nearly every aspect of departmental life for faculty, including organizational climate. In fact, it can be argued that the chairperson helps both create and sustain the department climate for faculty.

One perspective of leadership and communication posits that leadership is enacted in the dyadic communication that occurs between the leader and the follower. According to Leader Member Exchange Theory, leaders fail to treat their followers (which it calls “members”) equally, and this is enacted in their communication. “In-group” members experience more open and supportive communication from their leaders and thus have better personal and professional organizational experiences, while “out-group” members have less open and supportive communication from their leaders and thus have more negative personal and professional organizational experiences. One antecedent to in-

group and out-group communication is similarity; in many cases, the more similar individuals are to one another, the more open their communication is.

Research in the business sector has determined that leader-member communication is related to perceptions of organizational climate. However, little research has been done in higher education to understand the relationship between chairperson-faculty communication and organizational climate, nor on the role of similarity in chairperson-faculty communication. Consequently, the current study sought to understand the relationship between demographic similarity, perceptions of in-group and out-group membership, and perceptions of department climate in chairperson-faculty relationships in higher education.

Faculty in communication departments from higher education institutions across the United States participated in the current study ($n=410$). An online, 66-item survey gathered information about faculty perceptions of their in-group or out-group status, their perceptions of their departmental climate, their chairperson's ethnicity, biological sex, and sexual orientation, and their own ethnicity, biological sex, and sexual orientation to answer four research questions: What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chairperson-faculty member communication exchanges and the department climate?; Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by biological sex?; Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by ethnicity?; Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by sexual orientation?

Statistical analysis of the data revealed a significant relationship between faculty perceptions of department chairperson-faculty member communication exchanges and the department climate. Faculty perceptions did not differ significantly by biological sex,

ethnicity, or sexual orientation. The results suggest a need for further research on the topic to understand the relationship between similarity, leader-member communication, and department climate.

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OF CHAIRPERSON-FACULTY MEMBER COMMUNICATION
EXCHANGES AND DEPARTMENT CLIMATE

JODI HALLSTEN

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Fulfillment of the Requirements
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background

The study of leadership may be as old as the study of man. Modern documents reveal that researchers have been trying to define and better understand leadership for several years since Galton's 1870 publication on *Hereditary Genius*. In the last 100 years, many definitions of leadership have been offered in books, magazines, journals, and on the Internet. None of these are correct or incorrect; each just attends more closely to a different aspect of the leadership process. In this study, leadership is conceptualized as a goal-oriented process and is defined as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 1997, p. 3). In the current study, the aspect of interest is leadership communication.

Various theories have been applied in the study of the concept of leadership and how leaders communicate with their members. One such theory, the Leader Member Exchange theory (LMX), postulates that leaders do not behave or communicate similarly toward each of their followers or "members" (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) discuss LMX as a relationship-based approach to leadership, noting that differences can be seen in the communicative transactions between leaders and their

members, wherein some members receive more support, more communication, more respect, and more latitude to negotiate job-related matters than do others. Lunenburg (2010) notes that “leaders do differentiate among followers and that these differences are not random” (p. 2).

Members who experience higher quality exchanges with their leader are known as in-group members, while members who do not experience these high quality exchanges are out-group members. Benefits of in-group membership are numerous and not limited to positive perceptions of performance regardless of actual performance, greater productivity, greater job satisfaction, reduced turnover, and greater communication satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Out-group members, on the other hand, experience none of these positive benefits. They report decreased job satisfaction, a sense of unfairness, and have higher levels of turnover (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). Unfortunately for those in the out-group, LMX theory assumes that once established, group membership is an enduring experience. The manner in which leaders are perceived to communicate with their members may therefore influence the organization’s climate (Ford & Sears, 2006; Kozlowsky & Doherty, 1989) as well as the organization’s outcomes or products (Scandura & Graen, 1984).

Research shows that various factors influence leader-member communication exchanges. The similarity-exchange hypothesis suggests that when people have similar characteristics or share similar demographics, they are more likely to like each other and their interactions are therefore enhanced (Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994). In leader-member relationships, similarities often play a role in designating in-group or out-group status. As Kivlighan and Coleman (1999) explain, “the more similar leaders and

members are, the higher the exchange quality in their relationships” (p. 36). Murphy and Ensher (1999) also mention that leaders have higher quality exchanges with followers who they perceive to be more likable and to be more similar in personality to the leader. Leadership communication is therefore an important concept worth investigating as the research suggests that it influences job satisfaction and quality and ultimately member perceptions of organization climate.

Member perceptions of climate, whether accurate or inaccurate, represent reality for the members of the organization (Peterson & Spencer, 1990). So far, this phenomenon has been studied extensively in various organizations such as health care (Anderson & West, 1998), the service industry (Guzley, 1992), and in business (Koene, Vogelaar, & Soeters, 2002; Lunenburg, 2010; Rentsch, 1990). However, the relationship between leadership communication and organizational climate has yet to be explored or studied extensively in higher education.

Statement of the Problem

Leadership communication has significant consequences on individuals and organizations. LMX theory is used to explain the effect of leadership communication on the members of the organization. So far, as indicated above, considerable research has been conducted on leadership communication and its effects in a variety of settings. However, the research on this topic has been limited in higher education. More specifically, the research on leadership communication in higher education needs to be expanded and better understood from faculty member perspectives.

Although higher education has experienced tremendous growth and undergone major changes in the last decade, the concept of organizational climate remains a

consistent way to understand the ever-evolving organizational complexities of the academy. It is actually quite remarkable that despite the myriad array of formal documents, procedures, and levels of bureaucracy that characterize any organization, organizational members arrive at relatively similar perceptions; that is, one of the salient features of organizational life is the organizational climate (Moran & Volkwein, 1988; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). This climate, it can be argued, may be a result of leadership communication. Researchers regard leadership as a significant factor in the determination of organization climate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989).

In higher education, the most important leadership position is the department chair, as she or he influences nearly every aspect of departmental life, including those even beyond departmental boundaries (Czech & Forward, 2010). In fact, research suggests that the department chair is pivotal in the management of modern colleges and universities (Allen, 2003; Bowman, 2002; Czech & Forward; Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999). It is therefore fair to conclude that academic chairs may affect the academic organizational climate for those around them, particularly faculty. Through her or his communication, the chairperson helps create and sustain the department climate for faculty. It is therefore important to examine faculty perceptions of their department chair's communication and to establish the extent to which faculty perceptions of chair-faculty member communication exchanges are related to their perception of their department climate. In addition, it is essential to determine whether faculty perceptions of leadership communication and department climate differ by follower demographic factors such as biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Research indicates that faculty experiences are not all similar and often differ by group. For example, Roberts

Callister (2006) discovered in her study of higher education faculty that the relationship between gender, job satisfaction, and the intention to quit was completely mediated by departmental climate. She therefore concluded “female faculty members may be more aware of and place more value on the quality of interactions that take place within departments” (p. 374). Understanding these differences in perceptions will therefore provide a greater understanding of how faculty-chair communication influences the academy.

Purpose of the Study

Clearly, leadership communication is meaningful and important for an organization’s climate. Leadership communication appears to have documented consequences on the members of an organization. The current study focuses on examining leadership communication in higher education settings. Specifically, the study explores department chair communication as perceived by faculty and the extent to which faculty perceptions are related to their perceptions of the department climate. The study also involves an exploration of the extent to which faculty perceptions differ by biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

The data for this study include faculty self-reports, which were gathered using an online survey. Participants of this study consist of faculty who teach communication at both private and public institutions across the United States. This group of faculty was targeted because of its diversity; communication speaks to numerous different interest areas (e.g., public relations, rhetoric, mass communication, organizational communication, and more). Because of this, communication faculty are situated in many different departments in the modern academy, including communication, mass

communication, journalism, speech communication, business, English, and more. Consequently, the results of the study, while not generalizable, may apply to a broad range of faculty.

Research Questions

Little research has examined the relationship between leader communicative exchanges and organization climate in higher education settings and whether faculty perceptions differ for different subgroups of faculty, specifically by biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Given this, the research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges and the department climate?
2. Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by biological sex?
3. Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by ethnicity?
4. Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by sexual orientation?

Significance of the Study

Higher education is a unique context to study leadership because in academia leadership is generally a shared phenomenon. Such is not the case in most private business. However, this notion of shared leadership—of faculty ownership—has been fundamental to academic institutions over time. Consequently, the role of the chairperson as a leader in an academic department is “ambiguous, unclear in terms of authority” and, according to one perspective, “unable to be classified as faculty or administrator” because he or she has responsibilities to both faculty and administration

(Seagren, 1993, p. 5). Chairpersons have the opportunity to exercise leadership in their roles, but these opportunities are affected by the department, the larger structure of the institution, and even by the type of institution. For example, in some departments, faculty take turns in the “chairperson” role as they assume the administrative tasks associated with the management of departmental affairs, while in other departments the chairperson is hired not only to manage departmental administrative affairs, but also to develop a vision and align faculty efforts toward that vision, use the politics of the institution in the department’s favor, to create an environment where faculty can strengthen their professional status, to positively represent the department to internal and external constituents, and more (Seagren). Regardless of the varied leadership role in which a chairperson may be situated, he or she is an important leader within the institution and like other leaders, exerts important influence through his or her behaviors.

It is imperative, then, that higher education institutions be aware of the influence leader communication has on the members of the academy as well as its influence on organizational climate, which also impacts the academy. As past research shows, both leader-member exchanges and organization climate are directly related to employee satisfaction (Muchinsky, 1977) and retention (Vecchio & Godbel, 1984). As such, knowledge about the member perceptions of these two concepts is very essential. In fact, Leader Member Exchange theory suggests that members in an out-group would have a higher attrition rate than members in an in-group. That being the case, it is important to understand how faculty members perceive their leader’s communication and the relationship such perceptions have with perceptions of organization climate in higher education. These climate perceptions may serve to limit curricular initiatives and

research efforts, and, when negative, serve to limit faculty members' ability to achieve their career goals or mentor or support students (Rankin, 2003). Consequently, it is clearly important that these relationships be explored in institutions of higher education to help understand how positive or negative perceptions of leader communication may influence positive and negative perceptions of climates in which faculty work.

Another important area of influence by a department chairperson's leadership is organizational socialization. In the academy, organizational socialization occurs within the department in which faculty are situated, and the chair-faculty relationship plays a major role in this socialization. It even extends to the "ongoing motivation of long-term faculty and the acceptance of departmental expectations concerning teaching and scholarly activity" (Czech & Forward, 2010, p. 432). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that perceptions of higher education leader-member exchanges may have considerable consequences for the faculty that even include turnover. Overall, the results of this study will contribute significantly to the existing research on leader-member communication exchanges and organization climate.

In short, leaders in institutions of higher education have responsibilities for shaping the climate of their organizations in positive ways (Pettit & Ayers, 2010). The role of the chairperson is crucial, and chairs must be leaders capable of creating and communicating a vision and establishing an organizational climate conducive to high performance; one in which faculty members are able to achieve and feel appreciated. In order for the reader to understand leadership in higher education as it is explored in this study, the following terms, which guide the assumptions of the study, are defined.

Definition of Terms

Leadership: “A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 1997, p. 3).

Organizational Climate: “A relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other organizations: and (a) embodies members’ collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness, (b) is produced by member interaction; and (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organization’s culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior” (McMurray, 2003, p. 1).

Department Chairperson: the major officer of a department; mid-level manager within the context of a higher-education institution (Bishop, 2003). Specific titles of respondents may vary and may include but are not limited to: dean, director, and head.

Faculty Member: an instructional faculty member at a university who has no administrative title and who holds a full-time position as professor, associate professor, assistant professor, or adjunct/lecturer (Bishop, 2003).

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to faculty perceptions of their chair’s communication and their perceptions of department climate. Chairpersons’ perceptions or perceptions held by other administrative leaders are not included in this study. Moreover, though it can be safely assumed that communication influences and is also influenced by the verbal and nonverbal responses of all individuals in a conversation, the role of the faculty person in shaping communicative exchanges with their chairperson is not included in this study.

Because of the unique context of higher education, faculty of different rankings may experience chairperson leadership differently; tenured faculty may have very different perceptions of their chairperson's leadership than junior faculty seeking tenure. Although this may play an important role in leadership perceptions, it is not explored in this study.

Since faculty perceptions were gathered with a survey, the study is limited by factors that influence survey research (e.g., non-response, a low response rate, self-report that cannot be verified, the possibility that the survey will not allow subjects to express their true feelings, etc.). The study may also lack generalizability to all faculty members across all departments in a university as participants include only faculty from one academic area: the field of communication.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I introduces the study and provides an overview of the key ideas explored in the study: leadership communication and organizational climate. It also provides a statement of the problem, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, and the definitions of terms used in the study. Chapter II includes a review of the literature relevant to the study, including research on leadership, leadership communication, organizational climate, how these topics intersect, and how they have already been examined in the context of higher education. Chapter III describes the research methods used in the study and the outcome of the statistical methods applied to the research data. Chapter IV discusses the results of the study, and Chapter V summarizes the study, identifies the limitations of the study, and provides direction for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Leadership can be understood a variety of ways. One way to understand the phenomenon is to focus on it as it occurs in the relationship and communication between leaders and followers. This perspective of leadership is the transactional leadership paradigm, which asserts that leaders elicit desired behaviors in their followers by offering them resources in exchange for said behaviors. The specific transactional leadership theory driving the current research is Leader Member Exchange theory, which asserts that leadership occurs in the exchanges between leaders and followers. According to the Leader Member Exchange theory (LMX), leaders do not treat their followers or “members” equally, and this unequal treatment leads to disparate organizational experiences for employees. These experiences are perceived as positive or negative, depending on the communicative exchanges that followers have with their leaders. LMX has been studied extensively in different sectors with consistent findings supporting the theory, but it has received little attention in higher education. This identifies an area of need in research.

At this point, an inquisitive reader might wonder what causes leaders to initiate different exchanges with their followers that subsequently lead to dissimilar organizational experiences for those followers. This popular question has been examined in the scholarship on LMX, and a number of studies have examined one particular antecedent to

and characteristic of high quality leader member exchanges: the concept of similarity. Research has revealed that leaders have higher quality exchanges with those who are perceived as similar to themselves. This notion of similarity is multifaceted, and includes the specific concepts of behavioral similarity, demographic similarity, attitudinal and personality similarity, and more. While other antecedents to high quality LMX exchanges have also been studied, the interest specified in the current is this notion of similarity.

Because of the lack of understanding of LMX as it pertains to the academy, the current study focuses on LMX and similarity in higher education, specifically examining leadership as it occurs between faculty and chairpersons using a sample of faculty from communication programs in higher education. However, it does not just examine leader member exchanges between faculty and their chairs. It also studies one particular area of the faculty experience as a result of their leader-member relationship with their chairs: perceptions of organization climate. Research has demonstrated a relationship between perceptions of LMX and perceptions of climate in other sectors. It is important to better understand the nature of this relationship in higher education organizations.

In order to help the reader understand why the combined topics of similarity, leader member exchanges between chairs and faculty in higher education, and organizational climate all relate to one another and merit empirical investigation, the forthcoming pages shall review the relevant scholarly literature on these concepts.

The Concept of Leadership

“Great Man” and Trait Theories of Leadership

The earliest theories of leadership were person-centered, such as the “great man” theory, which assumed that leadership is a result of innate personality traits that only

certain individuals possess. Of course, over time, people realized that not all successful leaders were the same, so leadership became understood from a trait perspective; one could identify a leader based on his specific qualities, including personality, skills, values, or motives that differentiated them from their followers (Yukl, 2002).

Researchers tried to identify specific traits that leaders possessed, including physical traits like age, height, weight, and physical appearance, or psychological traits such as integrity and self-confidence (Stogdill, 1948). To date, however, scholarship in this area has yet to yield traits that definitively lead to leadership success (Yukl).

Behavior Theories of Leadership

Leadership research eventually moved away from trying to determine the traits that leaders possess and that followers do not possess. Rather than understanding leadership based on personality traits, researchers began to look into behavior theories of leadership which focus on the kinds of behaviors that successful leaders perform. This area of theorizing expanded the thinking about leadership from traits to include the actions of leaders towards followers in a variety of contexts (Northouse, 2007). These theories largely came out of two well-known studies: The Ohio State Leadership Studies (Halpin & Winer, 1957) and The University of Michigan Leadership Studies (Katz & Kahn, 1952). While similar in that they both investigated leadership styles, these studies differ in that the Ohio State study argued that leaders could either be high or low on task-related and relationship-building behaviors, while the Michigan study found that a leader could be strong at only task or relationship-related behaviors, but not both. That is, the Michigan study believed that a leader could engage in employee orientation behaviors but would then very likely not demonstrate production orientation behaviors; the Ohio

scholars did not perceive the two areas of behaviors as quite so mutually exclusive.

Another area of behavior leadership theory came out of research by McGregor (1966), who examined leadership based on the leader's attitudes about human nature. He classified these beliefs into two categories. Top-down or "vertical" communication, close supervision, coercive control, and management in the form of threats and punishments characterize Theory X, otherwise known as the classical scientific management approach. Those who lead with a Theory X style are guided by specific assumptions about workers; they believe that workers are unintelligent, lazy, and are motivated only by extrinsic rewards, which in this case was pay. In contrast to the Theory X approach, leadership using the Theory Y approach, also known as the Human Relations perspective, involves communication that is both vertical and horizontal, and leaders consult employees when making decisions that affect them. The assumption that guides the Theory Y approach is that people are motivated intrinsically based on the upper levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs: through self-esteem and self-actualization. The theory argues that, given the right conditions, the average employee will seek responsibility, and that the average person is remarkably self-motivated.

Interactive Theories of Leadership

While behavior theories focus on leader behaviors, interactive theories of leadership focus on the interactions between leader traits, leader behaviors, and the leadership situation. This perspective assumes that leadership is process; not a person, not a personality, and not a behavior.

One area of interactive theories examines the situation in which the leadership occurs. Situational theories propose that different situations call for different kinds of

leadership, and that effective leaders adapt their style to whatever a given situation necessitates in terms of accommodating employee needs. The most widely recognized research in this area has been conducted by Fiedler (1967), who believes that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon how well a leader's style fits a leadership situation, or how favorable a given situation is for a leader. His theory asserts that if a leader is generally accepted and respected by followers, if the task is very structured, and if the leader has a great deal of authority and power attributed to her position, the situation would be considered favorable.

Another situational theory of leadership is path-goal theory (Evans, 1970). Path-goal theory explains that leaders motivate their followers through their communication with them as the followers achieve personal and organizational goals. Leaders thus "provide information and guidance on the paths they must take to achieve their goals," which helps improve the followers' performance and satisfaction (Barge, 1994, p. 46). This is challenging; a leader must determine the leadership style that best meets followers' motivational needs, including choosing behaviors, information, and rewards that they believe will best help followers achieve their goals. Leadership is motivating when "it makes the path to the goal clear and easy to travel through coaching and direction, removing obstacles and road blocks to attaining the goal, and making the work itself more personally satisfying" (Northouse, 2013, p. 138).

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

In 1978, Burns introduced the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership in his exploration of political leadership. He claimed that in transactional leadership, leaders engage in transactions with their followers whereby resources are

offered to followers in exchange for behavior the leader desires. Contrarily, transformational leadership is based not on the compliance of followers through some kind of exchange; it instead seeks to develop followers by fulfilling higher order needs. Burns explains that “transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders” (p. 4).

Bass (1985) further developed Burns’ transformational and transactional leadership concepts when he applied them to organizational management. He largely disagreed with Burns, though, that the two leadership styles should be considered opposite of one another. He believed that the best leaders are both transactional and transformational. Still, the two scholars agreed that there are different levels of transactional leadership. For example, the kinds of transactions that leaders engage in can be very obvious, such as rewarding a political vote by providing a job, or can be more subtle, such as exchange of commitment (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Bass noted that transactional leaders have different transactions available to them to elicit compliance, such as leader “knowledge of actions subordinates must take to achieve desired personal outcomes” (Kuhnert & Lewis, p. 649).

The model of transformational and transactional leadership can actually be understood on a leadership continuum. At one end is transformational leadership; transactional leadership is in the middle of the continuum, and *lassiez faire* leadership anchors the other end. (See Figure 1 below.) This depiction is loosely based on a table by Northouse (2007, p. 180).

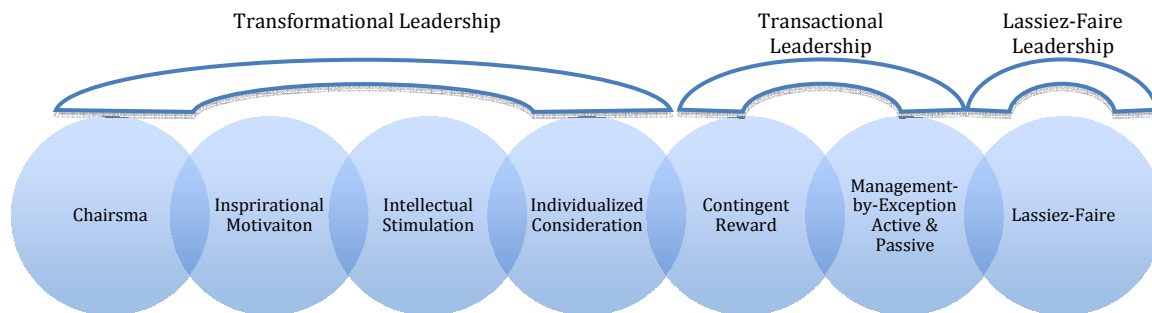


Figure 1. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Continuum

Transformational leadership is concerned with developing followers to their fullest extent, which results in improved follower performance. On the continuum between transformational and transactional leadership are the dimensions of transformational leadership. The first is charismatic leadership, which “describes leaders who act as strong role models for followers; followers identify with these leaders and want very much to emulate them” (Northouse, 2007, p. 181). Next is inspirational motivation, which describes leaders “who communicate high expectations to followers” through symbols and emotional appeals (Northouse, p. 183). This inspires followers to become committed to the shared vision of the organization. Another factor of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation, which is leadership that motivates followers to be creative and innovative and try new approaches. The last factor of transformational leadership is individualized consideration, when leaders act like coaches and listen carefully as they accommodate followers’ individual needs as they “grow through personal challenges” (Northouse, p. 183).

Transactional leadership differs from transformational leadership in that the focus of the leader differs for each. While in transformational leadership the leader seeks to develop followers to help them do more than expected, transactional leaders do not

individualize follower needs; they engage in exchanges with followers to accomplish their own goals (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

The first dimension of transactional leadership is contingent reward. Leaders engage in contingent reward behaviors when they clarify their expectations of followers and then promise rewards for meeting those expectations. The second dimension of transactional leadership is management-by-exception, which can be active or passive. A more proactive style leaders engage in is management by exception-active where the leader closely monitors followers and keeps a keen eye out for mistakes or rule violations. At that point the leader takes corrective action by engaging in transactions with followers for specific follower rewards, such as followers working longer hours in exchange for extra time away from work. Leaders engaging in management by exception-passive only take action against the follower when she or he violates the rules in such a way that it creates problems. Howell and Avolio (1993) explain that the difference between management by exception-active and passive involves the timing of the leader's intervention: active leaders proactively monitor behavior and anticipate problems so that violations do not create serious issues. Conversely, passive leaders only step in when a violation has created a real problem. Finally, the model also considers a non-leadership dimension, otherwise known as *Laissez-Faire*. This is basically the absence of leadership or leadership behaviors by an assigned leader.

As transactional theory has developed, Bass and Avolio (1994) and Bass (1998) have further refined the transactional-transformational distinction by arguing that by combining them, they encompass all leadership behaviors. They argue that an augmentation effect stipulates that transformational leadership adds to the effect of

transactional leadership. According to the augmentation effect, “transformational leadership styles build on the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers” (Bass, 1998, p. 5). Both Bass (1999) and Howell and Avolio (1993) believe that the best leadership style is both transactional and transformational; that “effective leaders often supplement transactional leadership with transformational leadership” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 756). Transactions are “at the base of transformations” (Avolio, 1999, p. 37), which suggests that without the foundation of transactional leadership, transformational effects may not be possible (Judge & Piccolo).

Clearly, in the spectrum of leadership theories, transactional leadership is related to transformational theory and has been since its development. It differs from other leadership theories because, unlike other theories, it focuses on the social exchanges between leaders and followers that elicit preferred outcomes for both the leader and the follower; it does not explain a particular leader style, behavior, trait, or situation as central to leadership. Transformative and transactional leadership relate to one another in that “transactions are at the base of transformations” (Avolio, 1999, p. 37). Judge and Piccolo (2004) cite that Bass (1985) believed that “transactional leadership results in followers meeting expectations, upon which their end of the bargain is fulfilled and they are rewarded accordingly” (p. 756). However, to motivate followers to move beyond expectations requires transformational leadership (Bass, 1998). In short, Judge and Piccolo note that without the foundation of transactional leadership, transformational effects may not be possible.

Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory

One area of theory that can be classified as both transactional and transformational is Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (VDL). Over time, this theory evolved into its current form, Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX). While LMX could also be classified as transactional or transformational, or both, the current author believes it is best classified as a transformational leadership theory.

In short, Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (VDL) recognizes and helps explain differentiated relationships between leaders and their subordinates. Early in its conceptualization it explored the differentiated relationships between leaders and followers in work units in organizations. Since then, VDL has evolved into LMX, which explores characteristics of the dyadic relationships as well as the relationship between leader-member exchanges and organizational variables.

Until the early 1970s, much research on leadership operated under the assumption that leaders behave similarly toward each of their followers, or “members.” This was known as the “average leadership style.” Attention thus focused on how leaders generally behaved toward their work groups. As research evolved, it began to examine the role of the follower in the leadership process. For example, path-goal theory examines how leaders motivate followers to achieve goals by carefully engaging in specific behaviors best suited to both follower needs and the needs of the situation. Then, in the early 1970s, in separate studies, both Evans (1970) and Graham (1973) asked leaders and followers to describe the leaders’ behavior in studies they conducted. Both studies yielded virtually no agreement between the leader behavior descriptions made by the leaders and the members. Consequently, Danserau, Cashman and Graen (1973),

sought to understand this difference in perceptions. They compared the findings of research on leadership using the traditional approaches against the findings of research that analyzed the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower. The latter, they discovered, yielded important findings that they felt could not have been detected using the traditional approach. Thus, a new way of examining leadership was born: a vertical dyad approach, otherwise known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage perspective.

The Vertical Dyad Linkage perspective, or VDL, focuses on the exchanges between a leader and member when a leader employs leadership behaviors, one of the two categories of behaviors in which Jacobs (1971) believes leaders engaged. Jacobs claimed that leaders enact two disparate roles with their followers, a supervisory role and a leadership role. The supervisory role is wholly based on the legitimate authority given to the leader to supervise the member's behavior. This authority-based relationship is based on the employment contract, whereby the member is required to yield to the authority of his superior as a condition of his employment. However, unlike the supervisory role, the leadership role involves influence outside of the realm of legitimate authority. In this role, the leader influences the member in interpersonal exchanges not related to the employment contract. The key difference identified between the supervisory role and the leadership role is in the vertical exchange between the leader and member (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). The researchers explained that leadership exchanges are a powerful source of influence and can involve valuable outcomes that supervisory exchanges cannot. Included in these are "job latitude, influence in decision making, open and honest communication, support of the member's actions, and confidence in and consideration for the member" (p. 49). The member can reciprocate by

expending time and energy, assuming more responsibility, and becoming more committed to the unit or organization. Dansereau, Graen, and Haga argue that leaders employ leadership behaviors when they give latitude to a member to negotiate his job-related matters; when leaders give members less latitude to negotiate job-related matters, they are employing supervisor behaviors.

Dansereau, Graen and Haga's 1975 research on the consequence of leadership behavior and the impact of negotiating latitude on the development of dyadic relationships also revealed evidence of in-group and out-group classifications of members based on the amount of negotiating latitude offered them by their leader and, even more, by the exchanges between them. Specifically, the researchers discovered a distribution of scores on a negotiating latitude scale revealing two nearly-equal groups: those who reported having the opportunity to negotiate job-related matters with their leader, and those who reported having less opportunity to negotiate job-related matters with their leader. The researchers labeled those with more negotiation latitude as the "in-group" and those with less negotiation latitude as the "out-group." In-group members reported receiving greater leader attention and support than out-group members, while out-group members reported experiencing the leader as a source of job problems. Their research also revealed that leaders were aware of their differentiated behavior toward members.

Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) concluded that leaders are faced with inevitable constraints on their ability to perform their job role; they do not have the time and energy to do it all. A leader "cannot devote the required time and energy to each and all of his members to ensure their optimum performance...a subset of his members can often perform the majority of the critical functions of the unit" (p. 72) through their

prescribed roles. Still, even these prescribed roles may not be enough to fulfill a unit's functions, which ultimately require the "personal commitment of a few key members to the success of the unit's mission" (p. 73). A leader must then employ leadership behaviors to elicit greater commitment on the part of the members. This is done by offering greater negotiating latitude to those members a leader feels he can depend upon and give greater responsibility to, or members of the in-group, who then receive more support and attention than others who consequently comprise the out-group. Exchanges between the former are characterized as leadership relations, while exchanges between the latter are characterized as supervisor relations.

Research on VDL continued through the 1970s. It focused on leader behavior as both the leader and the member described it, and it consistently revealed differentiated dyadic relationships within those units. Technically it was research by Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp (1982) that drove the change in reference to the theory from Vertical Dyad Linkage to Leader Member Exchange (LMX). But the evolution from VDL to LMX research can be best understood by its area of focus. Specifically, it involves research that examines the antecedents and characteristics of LMX relationships as well as research that examines the relationship between LMX and organizational variables. Together, these illustrate the true evolution into the current theory of leader member exchange.

Leader Member Exchange Relationships

Similarity. The progression of VDL research into the dyadic LMX has identified various antecedents to and characteristics of LMX relationships. One antecedent to and characteristic of LMX relationships is leader-member similarity; LMX development has

been found to share a relationship with leader and member similarity (Liden, Wayne, & Stillwell, 1993; Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994). The similarity-exchange hypothesis suggests that similarity between two individuals “enhances liking and consequently affects interactions and behavior” (Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994, p. 699). This is consistent with general research on perceived similarity, which has generally assumed that “a person who is perceived as similar to the evaluator is more attractive, so that decisions and evaluations regarding that person are biased positively” (Turban & Jones, 1988, p. 228). This is evident in LMX relationships because similarities often play a role in designating in-group or out-group status. Kivlighan and Coleman (1999) explain, “the more similar leaders and members are, the higher the exchange quality in their relationships” (p. 36).

Closely related to the similarity-exchange hypothesis is the two-stage Congruency Theory of LMX Development, which has also been supported in empirical studies of LMX (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). In the first stage, leaders and members react to each other based on their initial impressions of each other’s personal and demographic characteristics. In the second stage, the leader assesses the member’s performance and ultimately determines the quality of their exchanges. This is especially noteworthy because the model directly links the leader’s initial impressions of the member with exchange quality. Taken together with the similarity-exchange hypothesis, this would suggest that dissimilarity can forestall development of effective LMX relationships.

Bauer and Green (1996) explain that similarity is important to LMX because it leads to a good quality relationship between leader and member. As it relates to the LMX development process, leaders see “similar subordinates having high potential

because they are like themselves” and thus contribute to a “growing sense of trust in the relationship” and because they “make for more stable interpersonal relationships in general” (p. 1546). They studied personality similarity in terms of an individual’s enthusiasm and energy and concluded that “enthusiastic, energetic people should want to be around other enthusiastic, energetic people, and view them more favorably than those who differ from themselves” (p. 1996). However, while they found that similarity shared a relationship with LMX development, its relationship was indirect, and was mediated by a member’s performance. They concluded that personality similarity can be a significant influence on LMX development, but it is part of a larger picture involving performance.

Attitudinal and personality similarity were also examined by Liden, Wayne and Stillwell (1993), who found that the characteristics played an important role in LMX development. Attitudinal similarity was also found to be significantly related to the LMX quality by Phillips and Bedeian (1994). In their examination of attitudinal similarity and leader member relationships they found a positive correlation between leaders’ perceptions of attitudinal similarity and followers’ perceptions of exchange quality.

In addition to sharing attitudinal and personality, leaders and members in high-quality LMX relationships have been found to share similar values. Specifically, research has examined similarity in values within leader-member dyad exchanges and its relationship to the quality of the exchange. In 1988, Steiner sought to determine the effect of similarity between supervisor and subordinate values on leader member exchanges. He studied American and French college students in their respective countries and found that in-group members rated their supervisor’s values as more similar to their own than did out-group members, and that intrinsic values seemed to be

important in the development of leader-member exchange relationships. While the study did not test the development of actual supervisor-subordinate relationships, the researchers assert that the focus on the members' perceptions of similarity is "a legitimate part of the supervisor-subordinate relationship" (p. 617).

Following Steiner's (1988) findings, Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) also studied similarity in the area of value congruence in leader member exchange relationships. These scholars studied leaders and followers in Australian industrial and service organizations to determine if similarity of values was a precursor of leader-member exchange quality. In their initial deductive study, they learned that leader-member exchange quality is associated with similarity of values; but their follow-up study did not support their initial findings. Subsequently, they concluded that values have the potential to interfere with effective leader-member exchanges. Combined, these research studies indicate that leader and member values are an important part of LMX relationships.

Other areas of research identifying similarity as a characteristic of the LMX relationship include those examining the role of demographic characteristics and LMX status. For example, Duchon, Green and Taber (1986) found that demographic characteristics are predictive of in- or out-group status. Supporting Graen and Cashman's (1975) initial proposition that there may be systematic differences in the demographic composition of in and out groups, in their study of members of Junior Achievement companies throughout a metropolitan area, in-group members tended to be juniors and seniors, while out-group members tended to be freshmen and sophomores. They concluded that the demographic of relative status was predictive of leader member exchanges.

In addition to relative status as an area of demographic similarity in high quality LMX relationships, research by other scholars has examined the demographic of biological sex and its relationship to LMX. A solid connection between sex similarity and LMX has been established in some research (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994). Specifically, Duchon, Green and Taber (1986) found that women leaders tend to form high LMX relationships with women subordinates, while Kjeldal, Rindfleish and Sheridan (2005) also found qualitative evidence of sex similarity playing a role in LMX relationship formation.

However, other research has found no relationship between sex similarity and the formation of LMX relationships. For example, neither Lamude, Scudder, Simmons and Torres (2004) nor Bauer and Green (1996) found significance in the LMX-biological sex relationship in their research. Lamude, Scudder, Simmons and Torres studied 148 newly hired subordinates in a large financial firm to learn subordinate characteristics, their supervisors' influence techniques, subordinates' communication satisfaction with their supervisor, and the relationships between these variables and LMX. In regard to their examination of same and mixed-sex dyads, their research revealed no significant relationship between biological sex and LMX. Like Lamude and his colleagues, Bauer and Green also studied newly formed dyads. These researchers sought to discover the variables that contribute to trust and leader-member-exchange building over time. Instead of administering a one-time survey like Lamude and his colleagues did, these researchers created relationships with 311 graduating college students and studied their LMX development as they accepted new jobs. In this longitudinal study, surveys were administered before graduation, and again both 12 and 34 weeks after job entry.

Additionally, these researchers sought leader perspectives, and thus leaders were also surveyed. Their analysis of sex and quality of leader-member exchange revealed a lack of support for sex similarity and leader-member exchange development.

While research specifically associating sex similarity with LMX seems to be mixed, research not precisely studying LMX, but examining similarity, supports what would seem to be common knowledge: we like better those who are more similar to us than more different from us. General research on perceived similarity has generally assumed this exact idea; that “a person who is perceived as similar to the evaluator is more attractive, so that decisions and evaluations regarding that person are biased positively” (Turban & Jones, 1988, p. 230). Moreover, similarity in general has been related to liking (Triandis, 1959, 1960), and liking, also known as “affect,” has also been found to play a critical role in the formation of leader member exchange relationship quality (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Given that an individual’s sex is one of the first and most salient features of the person that is noticeable in any face-to-face encounter, it would seem logical that similar-sex individuals would develop a positive relationship more quickly with one another than non-similar sex individuals. Still, that a dearth of empirical evidence has yet to support a conclusive sex-similarity-LMX development relationship indicates that more research needs to be conducted in this area.

One study by Matkin and Barbuto Jr. (2008) sought to understand, among other demography, the demographic characteristic of sexual orientation similarity and LMX in institutions of higher education. This seems to be the only study examining this particular topic, and like many researchers before them, they found no support for any demographic similarity predicting higher levels of LMX.

In summary, whereas the VDL approach simply describes the differentiated leader member relationships as they exist in a work unit, LMX extends the research by explaining how the relationships develop, more closely examining antecedents to and characteristics of those relationships, and explaining the consequences of those relationships on individuals. Leader member exchanges are important not just because they personally affect the members of the dyad, but also because of their effect on organizations, a key difference that separates more-developed LMX scholarship from early VDL scholarship.

LMX and the Organization

LMX has developed from VDL through its examination of the relationship between leader member exchanges and organizational variables. Specifically, this body of research explores how differentiated leader member relationships affect or share relationships with organizational variables. In order to understand how LMX affects the organization, it is imperative to better understand the experiences of individuals in both the in and out-groups, and the subsequent consequences of high and low quality LMX relationships on individuals, as the consequences are related not only to individuals, but also to work and work-related relationships

In-group exchanges. High quality, in-group exchanges are positive and provide a myriad of benefits to those experiencing them. They have been associated with greater attention from the leader (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), including special benefits and opportunities and satisfying and interesting positions (Graen, Wakabayashi, Graen, & Graen, 1990). Supervisors tend to delegate more challenging task assignments to in-group members (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Leana, 1986), provide them with more

constructive feedback, more training (Feldman, 1986), and support them in career development (Graen et al., 1990; Yukl, 2002). Those in the in-group also participate in decision-making (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986), are given access to financial resources (Green, Anderson, & Shivers, 1996), and receive higher performance ratings (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In fact, Duarte, Goodson, and Kilch (1994) found that even when they performed poorly, high LMX members were given favorable ratings regardless of their actual performance. Research indicates that the exchange between leaders and members also influences employee turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). Additionally, Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982) found that workers are more satisfied with their jobs when they enjoy high quality in-group exchange with their leaders.

Out-group exchanges. Out-group exchanges are effectively the reverse of in-group relationships; if there are numerous benefits to high-quality LMX for members, there must therefore also be consequences to low-quality LMX for members. In short, out-group members simply do not get what in-group members get from their supervisors. Mueller and Lee (2002) characterize low-quality exchanges as “closed communication systems in which supervisors use formal authority to force members to comply with a prescribed role” (p. 226). Other research reveals that out-group members are delegated mundane tasks (Leana), are given less responsibility (Dienesch & Liden, 1986), have less influence in decision making (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989), and perceive more pay and workplace inequities (Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom, 1986). They are perceived as less dependable than in-group members and they receive less leader support in their jobs (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). For example, in one study, managers in a university

housing division provided “higher amounts of information, influence, confidence, and concern” for their members and higher responsiveness to members, which Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) called “leadership attention” (p. 70). Predictably, out-group members did not receive “leadership attention.” They also included less open and honest communication and less loyalty. Not surprisingly, out-group members also reported higher levels of turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982).

In relationships with low quality exchanges, leaders use formal authority to force members to comply with their prescribed role (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Jablin, 1982). Moreover, they perceive more pay and workplace inequities (Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom, 1986).

It would be logical to assume that given the levels of both personal and job-related support and feedback characteristic of in-group leader member exchanges, in addition to what is likely an overall enhanced job experience as a result of the members’ acceptance of greater job responsibility and a higher number of job assignments, LMX would be positively related to both perceived and real job performance. However, research on the LMX-performance relationship has been equivocal. While some scholars conclude that there is a relationship, other research findings are less clear.

In-group and out-group membership and performance. Early research into Vertical Dyad Linkage by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga examined a relationship between leader member exchange quality and perceptions of performance. They concluded that leaders perceived in-group members as more dependable than out-group members. LMX research has revealed consistent findings. For example, Liden and Graen (1980) also found a relationship between LMX and performance, as did Deluga and Perry (1994),

Bauer and Green (1996), and Janssen and Van Yperen (2004). Finally, Dockery and Steiner (1990), in their laboratory experiment of leader member exchange theory, concluded that establishing in-group exchanges with members that leaders find to be both likable and to have high ability would lead to enhanced member productivity.

All of these studies examined performance from the leader's perspective and not from objective measures of actual performance. This is important to note, as Duarte, Goodson and Kilch (1994) found that leader perceptions do not always reflect reality. That is, even when members performed poorly, they found that LMX was found to predict leaders' favorable ratings of member performance.

Outside of just perceptions of performance, Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp (1982) examined LMX and actual productivity. In their study, members situated under leaders who went through LMX training were found to be significantly more productive than members whose leaders who did not undergo LMX training. In other research on LMX and actual performance, Scandura and Graen (1984) studied employees with the same job description in a large government installation in the Midwest. Half of the employees at the installation experienced a "leadership intervention" involving a series of one-on-one, 20-30 minute conversations between the unit manager and member, while the other employees did not. Researchers then measured employee productivity, employee performance, employee attitudes, and employee perceptions of other aspects of the working relationship with their supervisors.

The researchers discovered that as the quality of the leaders' exchange relationships with the employees improved, hard productivity improved by 19%. Moreover, organizational outcomes improved as well. In fact, the improvement resulted

in an annual cost savings of over \$5 million for the company. Though this amount of savings alone makes this research uniquely interesting, it was also noteworthy because the members in the leadership intervention groups with initially poor LMX relationships were not necessarily poor performers in their work units; while they had the potential to consistently perform at higher levels, they simply “did not perceive higher performance as being worth the effort” (p. 434). After the positive LMX leadership intervention, however, this group responded more positively to new opportunities than did their colleagues. In short, the leadership intervention most benefited members having initially poor-quality exchanges. Other studies have yielded similar findings regarding positive LMX relationships and increased performance (see Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien, 1992; and Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Overall, there seem to be significant positive organizational outcomes from positive LMX relationships.

Despite these findings in support of a relationship between leader member exchanges and job performance, both on a perceptual level and on an actual level, research on LMX and performance exists which has not found a similar relationship. For example, Vecchio and Gobdel (1984) studied the effects of LMX on bank tellers. While the study yielded support for the prediction of supervisor ratings based on in-group and out-group status, it could only assert a relationship between teller accuracy and LMX. Since there are many more variables in assessing a bank teller’s performance than simply mathematical accuracy that were not measured, the researchers ultimately failed to strongly predict objective performance of members with higher quality leader exchanges. Similarly, Dunegan, Duchon, and Uhl-Bien discovered a link between LMX and performance only when a task was either very highly challenging, routine or not very

challenging. When the task was perceived as moderately challenging, they found no significant relationship between LMX and performance. They concluded that “under certain conditions, a leader may be able to control the levels of task variety” which would “thereby create situational contingencies that could act as substitutes for high-quality leader-member exchange” (p.71). This finding that situational contingencies may affect the LMX-performance relationship seems consistent with research by Rosse and Kraut (1983) who also could not establish the relationship and consequently asserted “situational influences are sufficiently powerful to override influences arising from the quality of the leader-member exchange” (p. 68).

Finally, research by Vecchio (1982) yielded no relationship between leader-member exchanges and performance. He believed that failure to predict performance “suggests that we must be cautious in drawing conclusions regarding the utility” of the leader-member exchange approach for performance measures (p. 205). He concluded that the problem was largely methodological, asserting that since the link between LMX and performance was not established, “the dyadic approach, as it is typically operationalized, may be capitalizing on correlated response errors” (p. 206). Thus, he argued, to accurately establish the LMX-performance relationship consistent with previous findings, “it is critical that dyadic research employ multiple and independent assessments of criteria variables” (p. 206). In short, Vecchio blamed the unestablished relationship on measurement problems.

While the relationship between LMX and performance may be equivocal, a body of research has found that members situated in a leader’s in-group experience greater satisfaction. That is, a relationship between LMX and job satisfaction has been

empirically determined. This research can generally be classified into two areas: job-related satisfaction and communication satisfaction.

In-group and out-group membership and satisfaction. Early vertical dyad linkage research by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) concluded that in-group members were more satisfied with their jobs than were out-group members, which is logical given the support, loyalty, and other positive characteristics of in-group leader member exchanges. Specifically, their study revealed that,

In-group members expressed more positive attitudes than those expressed by the out-group toward the intrinsic outcomes of their work, their interpersonal relations with the supervisor, their supervisor's technical competence, and the value of their job performance rewards. (pp. 69-70)

Subsequent research has been consistent with these early findings. For example, the relationship between LMX and overall job satisfaction was found by Lamude, Scudder, Simmons and Torres (2004) as a result of LMX training intervention with members who had not previously enjoyed in-group leader member exchanges in research by Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982), and also by Scandura and Graen (1984). In a 2007 study of LMX and satisfaction with nursing managers, Laschinger, Purdy, and Almost, found that:

When managers perceive that they have a positive relationship with their immediate supervisor, they are more likely to feel that their work environments empower them to accomplish their work in meaningful ways, and subsequently, experience feelings of psychological empowerment. (p. 227)

Finally, research by Vecchio and Godbel (1984) revealed that in-group LMX was associated with the propensity to quit, which one could reasonably relate to job satisfaction given that Irvine and Evans (1995) found that job satisfaction has been shown to be one of the strongest predictors of intent to leave one's job. Moreover, specific

measurement of satisfaction in Vecchio and Godbel's study was found to be associated with in-group exchanges.

Graen, Liden, and Hoel (1982) studied turnover specifically as it relates to leader member exchanges. They concluded, "it is the unique exchange that develops between a leader and member, not a leader's overall style that influences a member's decision to remain in the organization" (p. 871). LMX was also found to influence turnover in a 1985 study of registered nurses by Ferris (1985). Despite these positive findings, however, Vecchio's (1982) research on bank tellers failed to predict turnover, and later research by Vecchio, Griffeth, and Hom (1986) of 192 hospital employees found that LMX was also not predictive of employee turnover, though it was closely related to satisfaction. The researchers, however, caution that their findings on turnover may be a result of their failure to obtain data on unit membership, though they argue that other studies had similar results without unit membership data (see Ferris, 1985; Vecchio, 1982).

In addition to job satisfaction and turnover, research has also yielded evidence that LMX affects communication satisfaction. For example, supportiveness, a characteristic of in-group LMX exchanges, was linked to subordinate satisfaction with their immediate supervisor's communication (Daniels, Spiker, & Papa, 1997). Similarly, Wheelless, Wheelless, and Howard (1984) determined that another variable linked to LMX, receptivity, was related to subordinate satisfaction with their immediate supervisor's communication. Lamude, Scudder, Simmons, and Torres (2004) found that member communication satisfaction is positively related to LMX, a finding they concluded "is not surprising, given that researchers have established a relationship

between subordinates' satisfaction with immediate supervisors communication and variables linked to LMX" (p. 65).

Research by Mueller and Lee (2002) also examined the relationship between LMX and communication satisfaction. Given that high-quality LMX exchanges are more open and members are typically afforded "greater amounts of trust, confidence, attention, inside information, negotiating latitude and influence" (p. 224) while low-quality LMX exchange are more closed and do not possess the same aforementioned characteristics as high-quality LMX exchanges, the researchers sought to determine if LMX quality affected member communication satisfaction. Results determined a positive relationship; the higher the quality of LMX, the more subordinates reported higher levels of communication satisfaction with their leaders as well as in other organizational contexts. In short, LMX not only affects member's communication satisfaction with their leaders, it also affects communication satisfaction in larger group and organizational contexts. In this way, it predicts communication satisfaction across an organization (Mueller & Lee, 2002).

While unfortunate for those who experience low-quality LMX, but fortunate for those who experience high-quality LMX, Leader Member Exchange theory assumes that once it has been developed, "quality of LMX remains relatively stable" (Lee, 1999, p. 418). In general, LMX stabilizes relatively quickly after a relationship begins—which some research has found occurs as early as 2 weeks (Liden, Wayne & Stillwell, 1993) and other research has found occurs around 2 months (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975). Lee and Jablin (1995) report that the qualities of LMX (e.g., high and low) are enduring relational states. Thus, once a subordinate experiences a pattern of low or high quality

exchanges with her or his leader, that subordinate should not expect deviations from that pattern in future interactions (Lee, 1999). In short, delegation to an in-group or out-group occurs early on, and subordinates are generally permanently bound to their group.

LMX has mainly been studied in the context of the business world. Outside of that, little research exists on leader-member exchange theory. In higher education specifically, very little research has been conducted to date on leader member exchange theory. Some of the scholarship that exists has examined faculty-student relationships as leaders and members and studied the exchanges therein, while other research has been at the community college level. Overall, the academy seems to be a context into which research on leader member exchanges needs greater attention.

LMX in Higher Education

Research on LMX in higher education is severely limited. That which does exist has been undertaken mostly using very different approaches than those traditionally used in research on LMX in the business-world. Still, because they help inform us of LMX in various areas of academia, each of the studies is explained here.

LMX has been examined in academia by researchers who conceptualize the leader-member relationship between professors and students. For example, Bowler (2001) studied LMX in the relationships between professors and adult students in a non-traditional teaching environment. He operationalized LMX quality as it was revealed in student-written end-of-term teaching evaluations. Specifically, he questioned if student-teacher demographic similarity would affect LMX quality and, subsequently, instructor performance ratings. His study failed to yield any statistically significant relationship between student-teacher demographic similarity and LMX quality or teacher performance

ratings.

Another study that examined the professor-student relationship focused on undergraduate students' perceptions of their relational qualities with their instructors as reflected in their motives to communicate with them. Myers (2006), utilized the popular Leader Member Exchange 7 (LMX-7) scale as well as the Student Communication Motives scale to measure the relationships, and his study revealed that students who perceived in-group relationships with their instructors reported greater motivation to communicate with their instructors. While these two studies have clear differences, together they indicate that conceptualizing the leader-member relationship in the professor relationship in higher education is possible, it just clearly needs greater study. These two studies featured students in very different life stages and in entirely different academic programs. Obviously, further research involving a variety of students may yield entirely different results.

Like Myers (2006), Matkin and Barbuto Jr. (2008) also examined leader member exchange theory in higher education, focusing on the demographic characteristics of the leader and member. However, Matkin and Barbuto Jr. sought to discover if a leader who demonstrated higher levels of sensitivity and positive emotions to intercultural differences, and who was demographically similar to her or his follower, would produce positive exchanges with followers. Research participants included 72 leaders who supervised at least 2 permanent faculty or staff members and 255 followers. Empirical results revealed that although demographic similarity did not predict follower ratings of leader-member exchanges, intercultural difference sensitivity did.

Other research on LMX in higher education has been conducted by Johnson Hummell (2008), who sought to determine the leadership style exhibited by leaders in distance education by understanding self-reports of their leadership behaviors. She classified their leadership as possessing either leader-member exchange characteristics or transformational leadership characteristics. In a mixed-methods study, she surveyed and then later interviewed 10 online distance education leaders from select universities throughout the United States. She reported that the majority of the leaders' self-reported leadership approaches "reflected the characteristics of transformational leadership more than that of leader-member exchange" (p. 99). However, though she came to this conclusion, her characterization of LMX interactions were those that are "focused more from the top-down" and that tend not to focus on the individual (p. 99). This characterization of LMX seems exceedingly limited given the aforementioned descriptions of leader-member exchanges throughout VDL and LMX research. Moreover, Johnson-Hummell provided little evidence to support her claim in her discussion of this conclusion. Thus, though it may examine leader-member exchange theory in a university setting, this study seems to contribute little to enhancing scholarly understanding of LMX in higher education.

Additional research on LMX in higher education has been conducted at the community college level. In one study, Smith (2011) used LMX measures of leader-member relationships, combined with measures of relational leadership that examine it as part of a larger network of relationships in an organization, to understand faculty satisfaction. Cluster analysis of data from 28 full-time faculty members revealed a correlation between LMX and job satisfaction. Specifically, respondents who reported

the lowest-quality relationships with their coworkers and leaders also reported having the lowest job satisfaction, while the reverse was also true. These findings are consistent with other empirical research on LMX and job satisfaction outside of the academy, though none of the aforementioned studies on the subject were performed using similar research methods. Smith's findings provide additional evidence for what has already been established: LMX clearly affects job satisfaction. In fact, given the dearth of evidence, and especially with Smith's distinctive contribution to the literature, it would seem to be difficult to dispute this finding.

Other research on LMX in the community college setting comes from Holliday (2006), who sought to determine if similarity between a leader and member's temperament would positively affect their exchanges. Her subjects included line managers and subordinates from departments across the institution's three campuses: human resources, auxiliary services, workforce development and continuing education, information technology, central administration, the executive vice president and the vice presidents. Survey results indicated "empirical support for a relationship between personality temperament of supervisors and subordinates and LMX" (p. 108). Holliday's findings on temperament similarity and LMX are highly consistent with past non-academic research on LMX and similarity, and thus her study offers tremendous heuristic value. Taken together, these studies by Holliday and Smith, in addition to the other aforementioned studies in the academy, indicate a need for more research on leader-member exchange theory in higher education.

One reason for the limited number of studies of LMX in higher education is that leadership in higher education is entirely different than leadership in for-profit

organizations. This difference is relevant to the current research because the relationship between faculty and their chairpersons is somewhat ambiguous. It even differs by institution. While in the business sector a supervisor or leader may be an individual who has power over others, in higher education although the chairperson may be in a supervisory role, he or she does not necessarily have power over faculty per se. In fact, department chairperson power is generally not formally specified; the extent and nature of their power varies (Haddock Gould, 2000). Hecht et al. (1999) explain, “One distinctive characteristic of chairs’ role is its paradoxical nature. Department chairs are leaders, yet seldom given the scepter of undisputed authority” (p. 22). This is a result of the shared governance that guides most academic departments. “Recommendations for tenure, promotion, sabbaticals, budgets, seeking funding, and other administrative duties” while technically the chairperson’s responsibilities, “are collectively decided by members of the faculty” (Martin, 2009, p. 36).

So faculty likely do not have the same perceptions or understandings of their chairperson ‘leaders’ in a way similar to the perceptions of or understandings of leaders held by people in the non-academic organizational world. Indeed, academia lives up to its stereotype as an organization unlike any other. Like leadership roles, in some ways faculty roles in the academy are dissimilar to the roles held by subordinates in the business sector. Faculty often have the freedom and autonomy to determine what they teach and study and how to pursue each. In fact, at some institutions faculty have been found to have a tremendous amount of autonomy (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, & Riley, 1977). This autonomy includes the relationship faculty have with their administrators. Kuo (2005), in her dissertation, discovered the faculty she studied felt they had limited

opportunities to interact with each other or with administrators, though this was perfectly acceptable to some of them. It is unlikely that one could find this situation in any organization outside of the academy. The business sector finds few workers so literally isolated from others; in higher education, faculty are highly autonomous, their work is often independent of each other, and this has been perceived faculty isolation (Dressel, Johnson, & Marcus, 1971).

Given the different experiences by leaders and followers in the academy, when studied, faculty may therefore read and respond to LMX survey questions differently than non-academics simply because, as a result of the unique context in which they work, academics experience a non-traditional leadership or followership paradigm. This is important for the reader to consider as it relates to the research in this study.

In summary, a leader's relationship with the members of the organization differs for members of the in- and out-group. These differences have consequences to both member performance and member satisfaction in the organization. Members of a leader's in-group receive more information from the leader, get more support from the leader, and receive more concern from the leader. They also participate more in decision-making and have greater negotiating latitude. However, these benefits from positive exchanges with a leader come with some costs. In many cases, for these benefits, members must accept greater job responsibility and a higher number of job assignments.

In contrast to the experiences of those in the in-group, members of a leader's out-group receive none of what in-group members receive; in fact, their experience could be summarized as opposite of an in-group member's experience. Out-group members have also less negotiating latitude, experience less job clarity and possess an unclear

understanding of what a leader expects. They also experience greater job problems and have been found to be assigned to mundane tasks or tasks with less responsibility. Not surprisingly, they also perceive more pay and workplace inequities.

These perceptions of the organization as a result of in- or out-group status have been found to affect job satisfaction. Members of a leader's in-group experience greater job and communication satisfaction than members of a leader's out-group. Specifically, in-group members have been found to express more positive attitudes and a reduced propensity to quit their jobs. Moreover, in-group members are also more satisfied with their leader's communication.

In addition to group status affecting job and communication satisfaction, perception of in-group or out-group status has also been found to affect the leaders' perceptions of a member's performance. In some cases it has been found to affect their actual job performance; members of the in-group have demonstrated greater productivity on objective measures of output. However, additional variables have been found to have a moderating effect on the LMX-performance relationship. Moderators include, but are not limited to, the degree to which individuals believe an organization cares about them, otherwise known as "perceived organizational support." That is, members with positive exchanges with their leaders were more productive when their leaders had more perceived organizational support.

In summary, by now the reader should understand that subordinate location in a leaders' in-group or out-group affects numerous aforementioned areas of their work experiences, including communication satisfaction and overall job satisfaction. It even extends to peers' perceptions of their workgroups. While each area of organizational life

affected by LMX is important, both job and communication satisfaction have been related to perceptions of organizational climate. Moreover, leadership and leadership communication is directly related to organizational climate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). To understand how climate and leader-member communication are related, one first must clearly understand the concept of organizational climate.

Understanding the Climate Construct

Common assumptions about climate seem to permeate the literature to date. They have been best identified as follows:

Phenomenologically, climate is external to the individual, yet cognitively, climate is internal to the extent that it is affected by individual perceptions.

...

Climate is reality-based and thus is capable of being shared in the sense that observers or participants may agree upon the climate of an organization or group, although this consensus may be constrained by individual differences in perceptions.

...

The climate of an organization potentially impacts the behavior of the people in the system. (Woodman & King, 1978, summarizing Tagiuri, 1968, pp. 818-819)

While scholars may agree very generally on what climate is, there are multiple paradigms that represent different ideas on how to approach, define, and operationalize it.

In early research on climate, Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) explained it from multiple perspectives. They discussed climate as both subjective, involving employee interpretation of organizational experiences, and as objective, or involving organizational conditions. This was consistent with work by Litwin and Stringer (1968), who also presented climate as involving both individual reactions and organizational conditions. The subjective and objective climate paradigms eventually led to three main approaches that began to guide research and understanding of the concept. The first approach,

known as the structural approach, perceives climate as patterns of behavior or formal activity in an organization that can be observed directly and objectively (e.g., Payne & Pugh, 1976; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). In the second approach, the perceptual approach, climate is perceived as involving cognitive and psychological perspectives of how organizational members both perceive organizational reality and feel about it (e.g., Joyce & Slocum, 1982; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

According to this approach, “organizational factors such as structure, leadership, managerial practices, and the decision processes are realities” (Sims Jr. & LaFollette, 1975), but these realities of the organization “are understood only as they are perceived by members of the organization, allowing climate to be viewed as a filter through which objective phenomena must pass” (Litwin & Stringer, p. 43). This approach remains exceedingly popular among climate researchers.

A third approach revealed in the literature is the interactive approach, which seems to build on the other two approaches. This approach contends that organization climate is the result of shared interaction between individuals who respond to their organizational situation (e.g., Joyce & Slocum, 1982; Moran & Volkwein, 1992; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Communication is a central contribution to climate in this approach (O’Driscoll & Evans, 1988). Not surprisingly, this approach is especially popular among those studying organizational communication.

In the 1980s, organizational climate research began to focus on the origins of climate in organizations (Denison, 1996). For example, one perspective is that organizations are locations of generally homogenous groups of employees with similarities in areas such as “values, goals, needs, attitudes, perceptions, or some

combination of these” which leads to individuals attaching similar meaning to organizational events (Schneider & Reichers, 1983, p. 33). As a result, “distinctive organizational climates will arise that differentiate one organization from the other” (p. 33). Considered the social constructionist approach to climate and operating in the interaction paradigm, this perspective finds that climate arises from the communicative interactions between people, because individuals “respond to, define, and interpret elements of the situation in particular ways” (p. 33). Schneider and Reichers assert that “these characteristic modes of interpretation and definition form distinct subgroup climates within organizations” (p. 33). So while organizational climate originates from both “consistencies in organizational structure and similarities among organizational members,” work group climates in the same organization may therefore vary “as a function of intense interaction patterns within groups as compared to across groups” (p. 33).

Defining Climate

A review of organizational climate literature reveals that, despite their differences, most definitions offered by researchers are variations on a similar theme. For example, Reichers and Schneider (1990) define climate as the “shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal” (p. 605, as cited in Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003). Ireland, Van Auken, and Lewis (1978), modifying a definition provided by Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1973), define organizational climate as “a set of properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by employees who work in this environment . . . assumed to be a major force in influencing behavior on the job” (p. 3). Finally, McMurray (2003) combines

definitions from the work of four groups of researchers (DeCotiis & Kays, 1980; Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Karasick, 1976; and Moran & Volkwein, 1992) and explains it as:

A relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other organizations: and (a) embodies members' collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness, (b) is produced by member interaction; and (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organization's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior. (p. 1)

Because it is both thorough and communication-focused, the McMurray definition has been modified and used as the definition for organizational climate in the current research. Specifically, the modification of this definition for purposes of the current research lies in its scope. The current research seeks to understand climate as it is held at the subcultural or work group level. That is, assuming the social constructionist paradigm and informed by scholarship on climate in higher education (see Moran & Volkwein, 1988), the current author believes that organizational climate is mostly clearly understood at the level of the work group, which is conceptualized as "the permanent or semi-permanent team to which individuals are assigned whom they identify with, and whom they interact with regularly in order to perform work-related tasks" (Anderson & West, 1998, p. 236). This is because, as Moran and Volkwein (1988) explain from their findings on climate in higher education, "climate appears to be a construct that may operate to a greater degree at the intraorganizational level than at the organizational level" (p. 377; see also Anderson & West). The definition that guides the current research is therefore as follows:

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of work groups within an organization which distinguishes it both from other work groups and other organizations: and (a) embodies work group members' collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness, (b) is produced by member interaction; and (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the work group's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior.

In the process of perceiving and interpreting organizational characteristics, organizational members create the climate (Field & Abelson, 1982). The climate then influences motivation, productivity, satisfaction, behaviors and attitudes (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Clearly, climate is significant in every organization because people behave in ways that fit the perception of their work climate (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

The Relationship Between Climate and Leadership

Early research into organizational climate identified leadership as an important variable in affecting employee perceptions of climate. In fact, some of the first research on climate manipulated leadership behavior to determine its effects on climate perceptions (Lewin, Lippitt, and White, 1939). This research was replicated by Litwin and Stringer (1968) in what became seminal research on organizational climate. In their study, the researchers created three simulated organizations in which the leader utilized a different leadership style. They discovered that the climate of each organization differed over time with different leadership styles. Some researchers (see: Albrecht, 1979; House & Rizzo, 1972) believe that many organizational climate dimensions measure the same constructs as well-known leadership factors.

The framework for climate that recognizes it at the work group level suggests that interaction between a leader and member at that level influences organizational climate perceptions more than overall organizational-level structures do. This is likely because “features, events, and processes occurring at higher levels are likely to be mediated by local leadership behaviors, given that an individual’s immediate supervisor is the most salient, tangible representative of management actions, policies, and procedures” (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547). A variety of research has found a relationship between leader-member communication and climate. One of the first studies on the two constructs was undertaken by Kozlowski and Doherty, who sought to understand the link between climate and leadership. They were examining negotiating latitude, which is the key idea in the Vertical-dyad Linkage perspective that was later re-conceptualized as in-group experiences. They hypothesized that not only would negotiating latitude be positively related to climate perceptions, but that those enjoying high negotiating latitude would show greater consensus on climate perceptions and that those perceptions would be in greater agreement with their supervisors’ climate perceptions. Studying supervisors and subordinates in a Fortune 500 manufacturing organization, they discovered positive, significant relationships supporting each of their hypotheses. They concluded that climate and leadership are indeed integrated within organizations.

Since then, many researchers have studied leadership and organizational climate, and several of those studies have specifically examined LMX and climate. However, in a large number of cases, the research was on LMX and a specific work group climate. That is, given that climate exists at the work-group level, many different work group climates can exist in a single organization. So instead of studying a climate to determine what it

is, these studies have labeled and then examined LMX and particular climates, such as climates for safety (Hoffman, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003), LMX and climates for innovation (Scott & Bruce, 1994), LMX and climates for procedural justice (Naumann & Bennett, 2000), and more. Because those studies cannot help the reader understand a need for the current research, a discussion of them is not included in this document. Unfortunately, research on LMX specifically and organizational climate in general is limited.

The small amount of research that exists on LMX and climate paints a picture of an interrelated phenomenon; LMX is positively related to organizational climate. For example, Tordera, Gonzales-Roma and Peiro (2008) found a relationship between leader-member exchanges and climate in their study of Spanish public health service employees. Similarly, Ford and Sears (2006) surveyed a total of 392 individuals employed across four different companies who worked in teams and reported to the same manager, and they, too, discovered a relationship between leader-member exchange communication and organizational climate. Specifically, the scholars determined that leader-member communication predicts perceptions of climate. Perhaps Naumann and Bennett put it best when they summarized their research by explaining that leaders are “climate engineers.”

In summary, leadership affects employee perceptions of climate. In fact, although the research on LMX and climate is limited, in the research that exists, the exchanges between leaders and members have been found to affect member perceptions of climate. Unfortunately, an understanding of the LMX-climate relationship in the way that it is understood by the research synthesized throughout previous sections of this document generally seems to be limited to the business world.

Organizational Climate in Higher Education

A myriad of research has been conducted on climate in higher education. Some of it has been studied in a way similar to those studies on climate outside of the academy, most of it has not. Interestingly, a review of the literature on academic climate yields a variety of studies that claim to, but in fact do not, examine climate in any way consistent with the dearth of research on it outside of academia. These often involve the most popular tool to assess climate in academic institutions: the Personal Assessment of the College Environment (PACE), created by Baker and Hoover (1997). The PACE seeks to assess an institution's internal environment as perceived by its faculty, and its results are compared roughly against Likert's (1967) System I-IV management styles: coercive, competitive, consultative or collaborative. The 55-item Likert-type PACE survey asks respondents to indicate their level of satisfaction of what Baker and Hoover believe are six domains of the college environment: formal influence, communication, collaboration, organizational structure, work design/technology, and student focus. While on the surface this may seem similar to organizational climate research outside of the academy, a closer examination of the PACE reveals that it is more evaluative than descriptive. Moreover, close examination of the PACE would also reveal that it actually measures job satisfaction and not climate.

One body of literature has examined leadership and climate in academia utilizing an instrument relatively similar to instruments commonly used outside of academia. It began with research in 1972, when Borrevik Jr. sought to understand organizational climate in higher education based on previous research by Halpin and Croft (1963), who had created a valid climate measurement for elementary schools. Borrevik Jr. wanted to

determine if their Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, or OCDQ, could also be used to measure climate in the academy. The 64-item 5-point Likert-type questionnaire was distributed to a random sample of 52 academic departments in a number of colleges and universities in the Northwest United States. Factor analysis revealed six domains of organizational climate in higher education similar to those discovered by Halpin and Croft. These domains included consideration, intimacy, disengagement, production emphasis, student involvement, and detachment.

The only real difference Borrevik Jr. found between climate in higher education and elementary schools was that higher education faculty members did not perceive the climate in which they existed to be as clearly defined as did faculty in elementary schools. That is, his study revealed that academic faculty members perceive the environment more from their own viewpoint than from the viewpoint of their colleagues or department chair. Ultimately, Borrevik Jr. concluded that Halpin and Croft's measure was indeed valid for higher education, and he renamed the instrument the OCDQ-HE (Higher Education).

Lewis (1991) conducted a factor analysis on the OCDQ-HE-Partial that yielded maintenance of the four original domains found in higher education: consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis. She used a 42-item form of the OCDQ-HE in her study that contained four subtests addressing the climate domains of consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis.

The consideration domain is characterized by the supportive behaviors of the chair toward faculty. While Borrevik Jr. explains that it is the chairperson's interest in trying "to do something a little extra for them in human terms" (p. 23), Lewis succinctly

summarizes it as the chairperson's supportive behavior.

The intimacy domain is characterized by social relationships among faculty. Borrevik Jr. explains that it “describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment” (p. 22). Both the consideration and intimacy dimensions are considered open climates. In open climates, “cooperation and respect exist within the faculty” as well as between the faculty and chairperson (Milhoan, 2007, p. 22; see also: Borrevik Jr., 1972; Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

The disengagement domain is related to disengaged behavior among faculty. This behavior is described as “going through the motions” in their daily tasks and is associated with a closed climate (Borrevik Jr., p. 22; see also Hoy & Miskel; Milhoan; Mosser, 2000).

The production emphasis domain is characterized by the chairperson's close supervision of faculty, and the chair is not sensitive to faculty feedback. In fact, the chairperson places the welfare of the department above the welfare of individual faculty members (Borrevik Jr.; Hoy & Miskel). Both the disengagement and production emphasis are considered closed climates. In closed climates, cooperation and respect do not exist within the faculty or between the faculty and the chairperson (Hoy & Miskel). These are organizations where administrators are perceived as inflexible, controlling, and resistant to innovation (Hoy & Miskel; Mosser).

Given its validity, a great deal of other research utilizing the OCDQ-HE has examined climate in higher education—much of it in relationship to leadership. For example, Waldenberger (1975) discovered that an open climate positively correlated with leader consideration in departments of physical education, while an increase in leader

authority negatively correlated with climate” (as cited in Mosser). In nursing departments in the academy, Edwards (1984) used the OCDQ-HE Partial to discover a significant relationship between a dean’s leadership style and nursing faculty perceptions of climate. Similarly, both Gormley and Kennerly (2010) and Zakari (2012) discovered a positive relationship between organizational commitment and the climate dimensions of consideration, production, and intimacy with academic nursing faculty. Moreover, Mosser (2000) found a relationship between the perceived leadership style of nursing chairpersons and the organizational climate in undergraduate nursing programs.

Milhoan (2007) examined academic climate and its relationship to faculty perceptions of their chair’s emotional competencies using the OCDQ-HE Partial. His study revealed a correlation between the two, but he also discovered that faculty perceived organizational climate to be more positive with female chairpersons and less positive with male chairpersons. Also using the instrument, Thomas (2007) found a similar relationship between the emotional intelligence of Chief Development Officers in higher education and the climate perceptions of their development teams.

Organizational Climate for Subgroups: Racial Minority Faculty

A large body of research has examined the climate for racial minorities in the academy. This has been such an immense topic of interest, in fact, that it has been identified as a specific climate in and of itself, even with its own set of measures. What is commonly known as the “campus racial climate” involves the experiences of both students and faculty as contributing to an organization’s perceived stance on diversity (Hurtado, 1992). Though a highly popular and very closely studied phenomenon, it is a very different phenomenon than organizational climate for racial minorities as it has been

studied and explained in the previous section of this document. In fact, the latter has received very little attention in the literature. Despite this, because of its connection to the current study, it is important to understand department organizational climate as experienced by racial minorities and not the campus racial climate.

Hagedorn and Laden (2002) argue the organizational experience of white individuals does not represent the entire population. Some research indicates that minority faculty experience “chillier climates” than white faculty. For example, in their 2009 annual survey of tenure-track faculty, the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) found significant gaps between the satisfaction of minority racial and ethnic groups and that of white faculty with some aspects of climate. For instance, they reported that all minority faculty groups except Hispanics were less likely than whites to feel that they had satisfactory personal interaction with tenured colleagues and a good fit with their departments, which the researchers considered led to perceptions of climate (Trower, 2009). It did not appear, however, that these faculty were asked to focus on departmental or campus climate, so it can be assumed that these findings include departmental climate, but are not exclusive thereof. In a different study, Hagedorn and Laden found that minority female community college faculty reported only slightly more negative perceptions of their climate than their white counterparts, which the researchers attributed to the low numbers of female minority faculty participating in the study (11%). Again, however, these findings do not seem to be exclusive to departmental climate. Similarly, Townsend (2006) examined the climate for women and minority faculty in community colleges and concluded that both groups experience a negative climate because of negative discourse about both because they do not fit the

norms of white middle and upper-class males. Taken together, these studies indicate a great need to better understand departmental climate as perceived by minority faculty.

Organizational Climate for Subgroups: Sexual Minority Faculty

A growing body of research has begun to examine sexual minority experiences in the academy. While the vast majority of the research focuses on student experiences, a very small body of research has addressed the climate for sexual minority faculty in academia. To date, this research indicates that the organizational climate in institutions of higher education is more negative than positive for sexual minority faculty, and that the consequences are significant.

In general, academia tends not to be friendly to sexual minority faculty. Following their examination of universities across the nation, Evans and Rankin (1998) concluded that, “the university suffers from its own heterosexism. Talented LGBT students, faculty and staff feel “forced” to leave the university” (p. 176). Dolan (1998) agrees. She argues that “gay, Lesbian, Bisexual, Transgendered and Queer faculty members continue to endure institutional social practices that often cause them to be misrecognized, misnamed, or misheard” (p. 45). This is consistent with national campus climate research conducted by the Policy Institute of the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force in their 2003 report “Campus Climate for Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual and Transgender People: A National Perspective.” This study revealed that, in general, all GLBT campus members, including faculty, “find that they must hide significant parts of their identity from peers and others,” and that “those who do not hide their sexual orientation or gender identity have a range of experiences including discrimination, verbal or physical harassment, and subtle or outright silencing of their sexual identities” (p. 2).

In another study of Lesbian, gay, and Bisexual education faculty members nationwide, Sears (2002) found that 30% of faculty who reported working in public institutions identified their campus climate as “intolerant” or “hostile.” Contrarily, however, faculty who reported working in private, independent institutions identified their work environments as “gay affirming” or “tolerant.” More recently, Bilimoria and Stewart (2009) sought to understand the climate for gay, Lesbian, Bisexual, and Transgendered (GLBT) individuals in science and engineering disciplines. After conducting in-depth interviews with faculty members in science and engineering who identified as GLBT, they learned that GLBT faculty perceive an overall negative climate in science and engineering disciplines. This is consistent with research by Noack (2004), who discovered a climate at Texas A&M University that was more intolerant of gay, Lesbian, and Transgendered persons than it was of racial minority individuals.

Climate inquiry for GLBT faculty in particular is important because of the consequences of a negative organizational climate on academic faculty. Bilimoria and Stewart revealed that the negative climate for GLBT faculty in the sciences left their respondents feeling “fearful” and, as a result, they intentionally avoided non-work related conversations with their coworkers, they expended a great deal of effort trying to interpret their co-workers’ cues as a consequence of their sexual orientation or as a consequence other factors, and that they felt isolated as the only gay people in their departments. This notion of isolation contributing to negative climate perceptions is actually common among sexual minority employees outside of the academy; issues of anxiety, isolation, and threat-issues have been frequently discussed in the literature (e.g., Boatwright, Gilbert, Forrest, & Ketzenberger, 1996; Croteau, 1996; Driscoll, Kelley, &

Fassinger, 1996). However, they are not uncommon in the academy, including in psychology specifically (see: Liddle, Kunkel, Kick, & Hauenstein, 1998) in student affairs (see: Croteau & Lark, 1995) and just in general (see: Sears, 2002). For example, the 104 open-ended surveys Sears analyzed from GLBT faculty across the nation revealed faculty feeling “more than a little misunderstood, angry, isolated, scrutinized, exhausted, vulnerable, lonely, self-conscious, anxious, and frustrated “ (p. 25). Similarly, faculty interviewed by Billimoria and Stewart (2009) “commented on their own relative isolation, with few or no other gay people in their departments. Some indicated that it would be nice to have more community within the university” (p. 92). Fear and isolation are just some of the consequences of faculty minority sexual orientation. Faculty experience career consequences as well.

In their study, Billimoria and Stewart’s (2009) respondents indicated experiencing consequences of their sexual orientation, which affected their careers. These include having been turned down for jobs because of their sexuality and not being offered mentoring relationships because of their sexual orientation. Evans and Rankin (1998) argue that a negative climate for GBLT persons “not only inhibits the acknowledgement and expression, of LGBT perspectives, it also affects curricular initiatives and research efforts” (p. 177). Unfortunately, because most gay and Lesbian employees do not fully disclose their sexual orientation at work, “the potential for discrimination may actually be quite higher” than what is already known (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001, p. 1246).

Summary

In conclusion, the study of leadership seems to be as old as the study of man. Research has come far from the days of the belief that leadership abilities were something

great men were born with. Still, scholars to this day seek to understand leadership to the best of their abilities because of its strong influence in all areas of life. While it can be understood a variety of ways, one particular way to understand it as it relates to the current research is as a transaction between leader and follower. This general leadership perspective proposes that leaders engage in transactions with followers, offering followers rewards for compliance with leader requests. Unlike other perspectives of leadership, this area of leadership theory does not explain a particular leader style, behavior, trait, or situation as central to leadership. Instead, it focuses on the social exchanges between leaders and followers that elicit preferred outcomes for both parties. Some scholars argue that these transactions are actually the basis of leadership that develops followers to their fullest extent. That is, they believe that if leaders seek to develop followers by fulfilling their higher order needs, otherwise known as transformational leadership, they should build upon a base of transactions; without the foundation of transactional leadership, transformational effects are not possible. In fact, Bass (1999) and Howell and Avolio (1993) believe that the best leadership style is both transactional and transformational.

One particular area of leadership theory combining the transactional and transformational approach has been examined closely in organizations. The Vertical-Dyad Linkage Approach examined relationships in the transactions that occur between leader and follower. It eventually evolved into a popular area of theorizing known as Leader Member Exchange theory (LMX). This theory assumes that leaders do not behave similarly toward each of their followers or “members.” The differences can be seen in leader-member “exchanges” or communicative transactions, where some

individuals receive more support, more communication, more respect, and more latitude to negotiate job-related matters than other individuals, who receive none of these.

Members who experience higher quality exchanges with their leader and receive these benefits are known as in-group members, while followers who experience lower-quality exchanges and do not receive these benefits become out-group members.

Over time, scholars have attempted to establish that which contributes to higher-quality leader-member exchanges as well as the consequences of member experiences in a leader's in-group and out-group. One antecedent of high-quality leader member exchange is similarity, and in many cases it has been found to share a positive relationship with high-quality leader member exchanges. Benefits of in-group membership are numerous and not limited to positive perceptions of performance regardless of actual performance, greater productivity, greater job satisfaction, reduced turnover, and greater communication satisfaction. Out-group members experience none of these positive benefits, and instead report decreased job satisfaction, a sense of unfairness, and higher levels of turnover. Unfortunately for those in the out-group, LMX theory assumes that once established, group membership is an enduring experience.

LMX leads to both job and communication satisfaction, and job satisfaction and communication satisfaction are directly related to organization climate. Moreover, leadership communication is directly related to organization climate. Thus, it seems logical that LMX and climate should be investigated together.

Organizational climate involves members' collective perceptions about their experiences in an organization. These perceptions are produced by interactions between members and between members and leaders. They reflect the norms and values of the

organization and ultimately influence behavior. Leaders influence climate through their exchanges with their followers. So, although an event may occur at an elevated organizational level, it is likely to be interpreted by leadership behaviors at a local level because an employee's immediate supervisor "is the most salient, tangible representative of management actions, policies and procedures" (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 547). Organizational climate is also directly related to job satisfaction.

LMX and climate have been studied at length in the business sector throughout the world. However, significantly less research has been conducted on these phenomena as they are experienced in academia. LMX research in academia is limited, which yields a tremendous gap in the research on LMX that virtually begs to be explored. Additionally, not just because of the limited scholarly findings on the topic, faculty climate perceptions should be better understood because climate can serve to limit curricular initiatives and research efforts, and when it is negative can serve to limit faculty members' ability to achieve their career goals or mentor or support students (Rankin, 2003). In general, higher education is supposed to create an environment characterized by equal access for faculty regardless of their cultural differences, and "where individuals are not just tolerated but valued" (Rankin, 2003, p. 3). In fact, many colleges and universities boast strategic plans that advocate creating "welcoming and inclusive climates that are grounded in respect, nurtured by dialogue, and evidenced by a pattern of civil interaction" (p. 3). Climate can limit curricular initiatives and research efforts, and when it is negative can serve to limit faculty members' ability to achieve their career goals or mentor or support students. So it is clearly important for institutions of higher education to know how members, specifically faculty, perceive the higher education climate.

In fact, LMX theory seems to predict that faculty who perceive leader-member interactions as positive will likely have more positive perceptions of their climate. Such a group of faculty will likely belong to the in-group. On the contrary, the out-group members are more likely to have more negative perceptions of leader-member exchanges as well as a negative perception of their organization's climate. It is therefore possible that higher educational leaders actually create situations in their communicative transactions with followers that affect their member perceptions of the institution. Similarity in characteristics or demographics plays a role in leader member exchange relationships. Specifically, demographic similarity has been found to predict LMX quality.

So, given the significance of the consequences of LMX relationships overall, and the lack of research on them in academia in general, the current research sought to focus on better understanding this phenomenon from the viewpoint of faculty. The relationship between faculty perceptions of chair-faculty member communication exchanges and their perceptions of climate were explored. Also under study was chair-faculty similarity and how that influences perceptions of the exchanges and climate. The literature on academic climate fails to provide empirically based understandings of the relationship between faculty perceptions of climate and perceptions of leadership communication as it relates to faculty-chair relationships. These understandings are valuable as they can be used to help better understand and improve academic environments in general. This is especially important to the academy given that department chairs have been described as 'leaders who create the climate for a department' (Mosser, 2000, p. 34; see also Lucas, 1994). Both faculty and chairpersons have much to benefit from when a positive climate exists.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study involved an investigation of the relationship between faculty perceptions of academic chairperson-faculty communication exchanges and the department climate. The study also explored the extent to which these perceptions differ by faculty demographics, namely biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. This chapter describes the methodological design, the survey instrumentation, participants of the study, the procedures for data collection, and the analytical methods for data analysis that were applied in this study.

Methodological Design

Perceived climate involves the cognitive images that individuals have of how an organization functions. Whether the perceptions are accurate or inaccurate, they represent reality from the perspective of the participants (Peterson & Spencer, 1990). Consequently, according to Peterson and Spencer, they shape the norms that guide behavior and expectations and “arouse motivation, causing emergent behavior, which results in various consequences for the organization such as satisfaction, productivity or performance, and retention or turnover” (Sims & LaFollette, 1975, p. 20). Most research on perceived climate thus focuses on how participants view various institutional patterns and behaviors using a survey.

Historically, climate researchers study organizational members’ perceptions of their observable experiences that are close to the surface of organizational life and

categorize them into researcher-defined dimensions (Denison, 1996; James & Jones, 1974). Subsequently, most research on organizational climate has been conducted using instruments that directly assess description and indirectly assess patterns of relationships among these descriptions (Rentsch, 1990). These results are then compared and contrasted, providing understandings of the phenomenon as it is experienced across and among groups. It is commonly believed that these quantitative measures of organizational climate are more reliable and verifiable than are subjective measures of organizational climate (Jablin, 1980).

Given this extant methodological paradigm and its consequent research practices, the current research involves the use of a quantitative survey approach. Creswell (2009) describes survey research as a numeric description of attitudes of a population through the examination of a sample of that population. Survey research assumes that “examining the relationships between and among variables is central to answering questions and hypotheses” (Creswell, p. 145). Survey research is advantageous because, as Creswell explains, it offers “rapid turnaround in data collection,” and allows a researcher to “identify attributes of a large population from a small group of individuals” (p. 146).

Survey Instrumentation

In order to assess faculty perceptions of chair-faculty member communication exchanges and perceptions of department climate, survey questions from two existing questionnaires, the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire for Academic Departments of Colleges and Universities

(OCDQ-HE Partial), originally developed by Borrevik Jr. (1972) and updated by Lewis (1991), were used.

The first part of the survey was comprised of the 42 items from OCDQ-HE Partial (Lewis, 1991). This scale measured individuals' perceptions of climate on six dimensions: consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis, involvement, and detachment.

In the original scale, research participants were asked to respond to 50 items on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (almost never occurs) to 5 (almost always occurs). Lewis revised the survey. This revised version, used in the current study, was developed from a factor analysis of the data gathered using Borrevik Jr.'s survey. The factor analysis yielded the four original domains: consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis. However, the number of items was reduced to a total of 42. In the 42-question OCDQ-HE-Partial instrument, the consideration (positive climate) dimension, characterized by perceptions of supportive behaviors of the chair toward faculty, consists of 12 questions; the intimacy (positive climate) dimension, characterized by perceptions of social relationships among faculty, consists of 9 questions; the disengagement (negative climate) dimension, characterized by perceptions of disengaged behavior among faculty, consists of 11 questions; and the production emphasis (negative climate) dimension, characterized by perceptions of the chairperson's close supervision of faculty, and revealed when faculty perceived the chairperson to place the welfare of the department above the welfare of individual faculty members, consists of 10 questions. Cronbach's alphas for the four OCDQ-HE subset climate domains have been revealed as being 0.93 for consideration, 0.84 for intimacy, 0.68 for disengagement,

and 0.71 for production emphasis (Lewis, 1991), indicating sufficient reliability on the subscales as per Green and Salkind's (2011) recommendations. Factor analysis, using varimax rotation, established construct validity. In short, the results of both Borrevik Jr.'s (1972) and Lewis' (1991) research studies demonstrate that the OCDQ-HE is a valid instrument to assess the organizational climate of academic departments.

In order to determine perceptions of chair-faculty communication, the second part of the instrument in this study included questions from the widely used LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This 7-item measure asks participants to respond to items such as "How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?" and "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?" Responses are in the form of a Likert-type 1-5 scale, where 1 represents a negative response such as "rarely," "not a bit" or "not at all" and 5 represents a positive response such as "fully," "very high" or "strongly agree." Because one question in the LMX-7 instrument could be perceived as a double-barreled question, the researcher revised it into two questions. In addition, because the construct validity of the LMX-7 has been questioned (Vecchio & Godbel, 1984), respondents were asked to respond to eight additional items from Kozlowski and Doherty's (1986) examination of in-group and out-group status. Acknowledging criticisms of the construct validity of the LMX (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Vecchio & Godbel), Kozlowski and Doherty created "a more direct measure of in-group and out-group measurement" which consisted of 13 items that "tapped content relevant to whether the respondent was a member of an in-group or an out-group" (p. 548). These items used a 7-point response format where 1 was "very much so" and 7 was "not at all" to describe subordinate relations with their supervisor. Principal-factors and reliability

analyses yielded an 8-item scale with an internal consistency reliability of .84. Again this is acceptable as per Green and Salkind (2011). The correlation between the LMX scale and these additional items was found to be .73 ($p < .001$), based on Kozlowski and Doherty's research. Kozlowski and Doherty argue that these results reveal that "both scales were tapping the same construct" (p. 548). Therefore, these eight items were added to the additional scale items measuring in-group and out-group status. However, the language of these items was modified to reflect the word "chairperson" instead of all other references to a "supervisor" in this study. Moreover, the scales were revised to reflect a 5-point Likert scale to be consistent with all other scale items.

Finally, faculty member demographic information was collected. This information included five questions about: (a) biological sex, (b) ethnicity, and (c) sexual orientation. Another question allowed faculty members to identify the type of institution at which they are employed based on the Carnegie Foundation's classifications of higher education institutions: community college, Research 1 institution, Research 2 institution, and so on. An additional three items sought information about chairperson biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Given the sensitivity of participant information, this study assured participant anonymity; faculty names were not required.

Overall, the survey used in this study included a total of 66 items measuring faculty and chairperson demographics and perceptions of department climate and chair-faculty member communication exchanges. The survey instrument was created using Select Survey, an online program designed for survey creation, deployment, and analysis.

Participants of the Study

Participants for this study were sampled from the scholarly field of communication. Faculty were recruited through the CRT-net listserv. CRT-net is the official listserv of the National Communication Association, a leading international association of educators and students associated with higher education institutions. It is the largest national organization dedicated to advancing communication scholarship and education and boasts nearly 5,000 members.

Power analysis was conducted using power tables already generated by Cohen (1988) to determine the approximate number of participants to select for the study. Cohen's tables provide the approximate number of research participants needed for 80% power for the statistical procedure at a level of significance of 0.05 and at a researcher assumed effect size (either small, medium, or large). For the purpose of this study, correlation, ANOVA, and MANOVA were applied. Based on Cohen's (1988) power analysis tables, the approximate sample size needed to achieve a power of 80% assuming a small effect size, a significance level of .05, and using a one-tailed test in this study is approximately 617.

Procedures for Data Collection

After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the proposed research, the researcher initially conducted a pilot study with a subsample of the population. This allowed the researcher "to evaluate interconnections among questions, the questionnaire, and implementation procedures" (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009, p. 228) to make sure instrument validity and reliability were not compromised by combining the 7 items from LMX-7, 42 items from OCDQ-HE, and 8

items from Kozlowski and Doherty's (1986) survey into one questionnaire for the purpose of this study.

Pilot test results revealed survey reliability and validity, at which point a listserv-based recruitment email was sent to all CRT-Net listserv members inviting faculty participation in the study. The email provided the direct link to the survey and informed the reader the survey would only be open for 2 weeks before being closed for data inspection and analysis.

When participants clicked on the hyperlink found in the email, they were directed to the Select Survey website. The opening page introduced the survey, explained the nature of the research, and provided the researcher's contact information. In fulfillment of IRB requirements, it also explained the voluntary nature of the study and informed the participants that they could discontinue participation at any time with no penalty to them. They were also made aware that they would not benefit in any way from taking the survey and that it would take them approximately 15 minutes to complete the 66-item survey. The webpage allowed participants to consent to participate in the survey by clicking on a button that took them to the actual survey. The final page thanked participants for their participation.

Analytical Methods of Data Analysis

The survey results gathered from the study were imported into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS was used to generate frequencies and descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations to understand the data more clearly. After conducting descriptive analyses on the data, additional analyses were conducted to help answer the research questions posed in the study.

For the purposes of answering research question one: What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges and the department climate?, correlation analysis was conducted. According to Field (2009), correlational analysis is applied in a case where a researcher seeks to understand the relationship between variables. For research questions two to four: Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation?, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) were applied. Field (2009) explains that ANOVA is traditionally used in research situations when more than two conditions or groups are compared for average scores on a dependent variable while at the same time avoiding a family-wise error, while MANOVA is used to understand the effect of multiple dependent variables.

Summary

Organizational climate can be perceptual in nature. That is, individuals perceive it as a set of measurable properties of an organizational environment. In research, this perspective is known as the 'perceptual approach' and involves having participants indicate the extent to which various attributes characterize their work situations. Given that the 'perceptual approach' has remained the dominant paradigm in organizational climate research, and because Leader Member Exchange research is almost universally quantitative in nature, the current study employed quantitative research methods to better understand these phenomena. Data for the study were gathered from faculty in the field of communication using an electronic survey. The survey was comprised of 66-items that were developed by combining 7 items from LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), 42 items from Lewis's (1991) OCDQ-HE, 8 items from Kozlowski and Doherty's (1986)

survey on in- and out-group membership, 6 demographic items on faculty biological sex, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and institution type and 3 demographic items on chairperson biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. Analytical techniques applied to the data gathered by way of the electronic survey included descriptive analysis, correlation, independent t-test, ANOVA and MANOVA.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between faculty perception of faculty-chair communication, departmental climate, and faculty demographics. Data were collected using an online survey. The survey was constructed using three different surveys; namely, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire for Academic Departments of Colleges and Universities (OCDQ-HE Partial) (Borrevik Jr., 1972), the Leader-Member Exchange-7 (LMX-7) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) survey. The survey also included items that assessed faculty and chairperson demographic variables of biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation.

The 42-item OCDQ-HE Partial was used to collect data about faculty members' perceptions of organizational climate. The LMX-7 included seven items used to determine perceptions of faculty-chair leadership communication. Because one question in the instrument could be perceived as a double-barreled question, the researcher revised it into two questions, and then added eight additional items from Kozlowski and Doherty's (1989) instrument designed to more directly measure in-group and out-group status, yielding 16 total items to collect data about faculty members' perceptions of chairperson-faculty leadership communication. Five additional instrument items sought faculty demographic information about their biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation, rank and the type of institution at which they were employed. An additional

three items sought information about chairperson biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation (see Table A-1 in Appendix A). Reliability analysis was conducted on each of the subscales of the modified survey (see Table 1).

Table 1

Reliability Analysis Outcomes for the Subscales of the Study Survey

Scale/Subscale	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
OCDQ-HE Partial		
Consideration	12	0.94
Intimacy	9	0.88
Disengagement	11	0.73
Production Emphasis	10	0.77
Subtotal	42	0.85
LMX-7	8	0.93
Koslowski & Doherty	8	0.80

Data gathered from the use of the online instrument were transferred into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for data analysis. SPSS was used to produce frequency tables, means, percentages, Pearson correlation, ANOVA and MANOVA in order to answer the four research questions posed in the study. An alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance. The forthcoming section reveals the results of the reliability analysis as well as the findings from the study. It begins with the reliability analysis, a descriptive profile of survey participants, and a description of participants' response to the survey items. These results are followed by a description of the results of the statistical analyses by research question.

Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the LMX, Kozlowski and Doherty items, and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire-Higher Education (Partial) items using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). (See reliability coefficients Table 1.) The LMX scale yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.93, revealing strong reliability as suggested by Creswell (2009). The 8-item Kozlowski and Doherty (1986) scale revealed a strong reliability of 0.80. Similarly, the OCDQ-HE Partial overall revealed strong reliability with a coefficient of .854. Analyses of each of the dimensions or subscales of climate in the OCDQ-HE also revealed strong reliability (consideration: 0.94; intimacy: 0.88; disengagement: 0.73; production emphasis: 0.78). All Cronbach alphas met the standard requirements of 0.70 and above as suggested by Creswell.

Descriptive Profile of the Sample

The sample in this study was drawn from communication faculty at institutions across the United States. Again, the faculty were members of the CRT-net listserv, the largest national/international association for communications educators in higher education. Of the 412 faculty who responded to the survey, 140 (34%) identified as male, 245 (60%) identified as female, and 27 (7%) did not identify a biological sex (see Table 2).

Table 2

Faculty Distribution by Biological Sex

Biological Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	140	34.0
Female	245	59.5
Missing	27	6.5
Total	412	100.0

The majority of faculty ($n = 288$ or 70%) classified themselves as tenured or in a tenure-line position, 65 (16%) reported that they were full time faculty in a non-tenure-line position, and 25 (6%) were part-time faculty in a non-tenure-line position. Thirteen (3%) participants classified themselves as Administrative/Professional (AP) or held another position, and 24 (6%) did not classify their position (see Table 3).

Table 3

Faculty Distribution by Rank

Rank	Frequency	Percent
Part-time NTT w/PhD	5	1.2
Part-time NTT No PhD	20	4.9
Full-time NTT w/PhD	23	5.6
Full-time NTT no PhD	42	10.2
TT Pre-Tenure w/PhD	117	28.4
TT Pre-Tenure No PhD	10	2.4
TT Tenured w/PhD	151	36.7
TT Tenured No PhD	10	2.4
FT AP w/PhD	1	.2
FT AP No PhD	6	1.5
Another Position	3	.7
Missing	24	5.8
Total	412	100.0

When asked about their institution, 40 (10%) faculty reported they worked at an associate granting community college or special focus institution, 53 (12.9%) reported they worked at a baccalaureate college, 153 (37%) reported they worked at a Master's granting institution, 61 (15%) reported they worked at a doctorate-granting university classified as RII, 81 (20%) reported they worked at a doctorate-granting university

classified as RI, and 24 (6%) did not identify the type of institution at which they were employed (see Table 4).

Table 4

Faculty Distribution by Institution Type

Institution Type	Frequency	Percent
Special Focus Institution	1	.2
Associate or Community College	39	9.5
Baccalaureate College	53	12.9
Master's College or University	153	37.1
Doctorate Granting University – R2	61	14.8
Doctorate Granting University – R1	81	19.7
Missing	24	5.8
Total	412	100.0

Of the participants, 337 (82%) identified as straight, 30 (7%) identified as Lesbian, gay or Bisexual, 4 (1%) identified as some other sexual orientation, and 25 (6%) chose not to identify their sexual orientation (see Table 5).

Table 5

Faculty Distribution by Sexual Orientation

Sexual Orientation	Frequency	Percent
Straight	337	81.8
Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	30	7.3
Some Other Sexual Orientation	4	1.0
Prefer Not To Answer	16	3.9
Missing	25	6.1
Total	412	100.0

Finally, participant ethnicity was as follows: 7 (2%) participants were black, 347 (84%) were white, 6 (2%) were Asian, 9 (2%) were Hispanic, 7 (2%) were bi/multi-ethnic, and 5 (1%) reported being “some other” ethnicity; 31 (8%) participants chose not to identify their ethnicity (see Table 6).

Table 6

Faculty Distribution by Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
Asian	6	1.5
Hispanic – Latino	9	2.2
Black	7	1.7
White	347	84.4
Bi/Multi-Ethnicity	7	1.7
Some Other Ethnicity	4	1.0
Missing	31	7.5
Total	411	100.0

Participants also reported on demographic information about their department chairperson. Specifically, 1 (0.2%) reported that their chairperson was intersex, 241 (58.5%) indicated their chairperson was male, 143 (34.7%) said their chairperson was female, and 27 (6.6%) participants chose not to identify their chairperson’s biological sex (see Table 7).

Table 7

Chairperson Distribution by Biological Sex

Chair Biological Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	241	58.5
Female	243	34.7
Intersex	1	.2
Missing	27	6.6
Total	412	100.0

As it relates to sexual orientation, 350 (85%) noted that their chairperson was straight, 17 (4.1%) reported that their chairperson was Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual, 1 (.2%) person indicated that their chairperson was “some other sexual orientation,” 17 (4.1%) preferred not to answer, and 27 participants chose not to identify their chairperson’s sexual orientation (see Table 8).

Table 8

Chairperson Distribution by Sexual Orientation

Chair Sexual Orientation	Frequency	Percent
Straight	350	85.0
Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	17	4.1
Some Other Sexual Orientation	1	.2
Prefer Not To Answer	17	4.1
Missing	27	6.6
Total	412	100.0

Chairpersons’ ethnicities were reported as follows: 6 (1.5%) Asian, 11 (2.7), Hispanic-Latino, 8 (1.9%) Black, 2 (.5%) Pacific Islander, 1 (.2%), American Indian/Alaskan, 342 (83.2%) White, and 6 (1.5%) were “some other ethnicity,” and 31

(7.5%) participants chose not to identify their chairperson's ethnicity (see Table 9).

Table 9

Chairperson Distribution by Ethnicity

Chair Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
Asian	6	1.5
Hispanic – Latino	11	2.7
Black	8	1.9
White	342	83.2
Bi/Multi-Ethnicity	4	1.0
Some Other Ethnicity	6	1.5
Missing	31	7.5
Total	411	100.0

The following section explains the results of each specific research question.

Research Question One

What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges and communication climate?

First, faculty responses to the survey items were examined using descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, and percentages. Response options on the first 16 items on the survey ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 referring to a more negative response (e.g., “not a bit” or “strongly disagree”) and 5 referring to a more positive response (e.g., “A great deal” or “strongly agree”). Similarly, response options on the remaining 42 items on the survey ranged from 1-5, with 1 referring to a more negative response and 5 referring to a more positive response.

On the OCDQ-HE Partial, the mean responses were examined by subscales and then for the overall scale (see Table 10). The majority of faculty rated the individual

items of this section of the survey as neutral (see Table A-1 in Appendix A).

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations on OCD-HE Partial

Subscale	M	SD
Consideration	3.18	.412
Intimacy	2.95	.376
Disengagement	3.14	.483
Production Emphasis	3.17	.591
Total	3.14	.820

The items with the highest mean asked faculty if their chair was “friendly and approachable” ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.10$) and if the chairperson listened to the faculty ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.10$), while the lowest asked if faculty morale was high ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.13$). This suggests that while individuals may feel as though their chairperson listens to them, they feel less strongly that morale in their departments is high.

For items measuring consideration (supportive behaviors by the chairperson indicating an open climate), the average score was 3.18 with a standard deviation of .41. Scores for men and women were generally the same in this dimension (see Table A-2 in Appendix A). In fact, men only scored slightly higher than women on two particular consideration dimension items: one sought to understand if faculty start projects without direction (Men: $M = 2.86$, $SD = .96$; Women: $M = 2.82$, $SD = .99$) and the other sought to understand if respondents felt that older faculty control department policy (Men: $M = 2.80$, $SD = 1.07$; Women: $M = 2.78$, $SD = 1.26$). This reveals that women find chairperson behavior slightly more supportive than men do. Scores differed by ethnicity,

however; when the ethnicity variable was transformed into “white” and “non-white,” individuals who identified as other than white had lower mean scores in this dimension than did individuals who identified as white (see Table A-4 in Appendix A). The item with the largest white/non-white difference asked faculty if their chairperson “has tact and humor.” Mean score for white respondents was 3.83 ($SD = 1.11$) while mean score for non-white respondents was 3.42 ($SD = 1.30$). This reveals that white respondents find chairperson behavior slightly more supportive than non-white respondents do. Scores based on sexual orientation were generally very similar in this dimension (see Table A-3 in Appendix A).

On the average, faculty rated the intimacy items (a measure of the social relationships among faculty, which represent an open climate) as slightly more negative than positive ($M = 2.95$, $SD = .38$). An examination of faculty responses on the individual items on the intimacy subscale shows that the mean score was highest on the item asking if faculty felt their department was friendly ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.16$) but lowest on the item asking if in their department faculty got together for events like “bowling or dancing” ($M = 2.47$, $SD = 1.18$). This suggests that even though they may not engage in social activities outside of work with their coworkers, faculty still find their coworkers to be ‘friendly’ in nature (see Table A-1 in Appendix A). In this dimension, the mean scores were different from each other by ethnicity, but when the ethnicity variable was transformed into “white” and “non-white,” some larger differences appeared. In fact, individuals who identified as anything but white had lower mean scores in every area of intimacy than did individuals who identified as white (see Table A-4 in Appendix A). Since the intimacy dimension refers to an open climate, this reveals that non-white

faculty find the climate less-open than do white faculty.

For the items measuring disengagement (relating to disengaged behaviors among faculty and representing a closed climate), the mean of faculty responses was 3.13 ($SD = .49$) (see Table 10). This time, faculty response patterns reveal lower means overall than in the other dimensions. The lowest means were found on items that asked if the “the department yields to pressure of a few students who are not representative of student opinion” ($M = 2.10, SD = .96$) and if “faculty members talk about leaving the college or university” ($M = 2.10, SD = .94$). The highest means were found on questions that asked if “the important people in this department expect others to show respect for them” ($M = 3.01, SD = 1.18$) and if “individual faculty members are always trying to win an argument” ($M = 2.96, SD = 1.18$). This reveals consistency with the other dimensions in that faculty do not perceive their departments to have a closed climate (see Table A-1 in Appendix A). Also, like the other dimensions, means on individual items were quite similar when broken down by biological sex (see Table A-2 in Appendix A) and by sexual orientation (See Table 3 in the appendix). However, unlike the other two aforementioned dimensions, when the ethnicity variable was transformed into “white” and “non-white,” individuals who identified as non-white had higher mean scores in the disengagement dimension, revealing greater feelings of disengagement in most but not all areas of disengagement than did individuals who identified as white (see Table 4 in the appendix). The only two particular items suggesting non-white individuals felt less disengagement than their white counterparts were: “faculty members approach their problems scientifically and objectively” (non-white: $M = 2.73, SD = 1.04$; white: $M = 2.84, SD = .95$) and “faculty members in this department use mannerisms that are

annoying” (non-white $M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.04$; white $M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.05$). Overall, this may suggest that non-white individuals feel a slightly greater sense of disengagement than white individuals, and that non-white individuals feel more strongly that a closed climate exists in their departments. This finding, as well as the others like it, may be a result of an overall pattern of perceptions held by non-white faculty, which, in the case of climate, tend to “vary as a function of race” (Mayhew, Gruwald, & Dey, 2006, p. 84). In fact, as it relates to department climate, especially around issues related to diversity, people from historically marginalized groups often adopt more critical views than others (Hurtado, Dey, & Trevino, 1994).

In the case of faculty response for production emphasis items, the mean rating was 3.17; the second highest mean score among the four dimensions ($SD = .59$) (see Table 10). Production emphasis serves as a measure of chairperson feedback and supervision of faculty, which represents a closed climate. Faculty responses on the individual items showed that they felt strongest about the item that asked if “the chairperson sells outsiders on the importance of her or his department” ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.12$), and they felt the least strong about the item that asked if “The faculty uses parliamentary procedures in meetings” ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.29$) (see Table A-1 in Appendix A). While the question regarding parliamentary procedures has been found reliable, implying larger meaning about climate from it alone seems dangerous; the mean score simply reflects how department meetings are managed. Overall, however, the mean scores in this area, though stronger than others, reflects that faculty in some departments find the climate more closed than open, and suggests that their chairpersons more closely supervise them than others do.

When broken down by biological sex, mean scores differed more greatly in the production emphasis dimension than in consideration and disengagement dimensions. In general, men scored higher in this dimension than did women on individual items. Those items with the greatest differences included, “Faculty members seem to thrive on difficulty—the tougher things get, the harder they work” (Men: $M = 2.89$, $SD = .94$; Women: $M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.02$) and “The chairperson puts the department’s welfare above the welfare of any faculty member in it” (Men: $M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.01$; Women: $M = 3.11$, $SD = 1.09$) (see Table A-2 in Appendix A). This might be explained by research on gender communication, which would suggest that men are more comfortable with difficulty and conflict than women are because, while growing up, they are socialized through conflict and difference (Tannen, 1991). Therefore, it may be the case that men perceive situations as difficult more than women do because, when communicating, they focus on difference and difficulty (Tannen). It may also be the case that when they do not ‘win’ in conflict situations with the chairperson, they perceive said individual to put the department welfare ahead of them.

Unlike the other three dimensions, when the ethnicity variable was transformed into “white” and “non-white,” individuals who identified as other than white did not consistently have higher mean scores in the disengagement dimension. In fact, non-white individuals responded with higher mean scores than did white individuals on nearly half—4 of the 10 items (see Table A-4 in Appendix A).

In the case of faculty responses for 16 LMX items, the mean rating was 3.25 ($SD = .83$). Faculty provided slightly more positive responses on knowing where they stood with their chairperson than on other items ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.10$). The item with the

lowest mean asked “regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?” ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.18$) (see Table 11).

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations on LMX Items

Item	M	SD
Do you know where you stand with your chairperson?	3.91	1.10
Do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?	3.80	1.17
How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?	3.53	1.26
How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?	3.68	1.15
Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	3.85	1.15
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?	3.06	1.18
I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	3.55	1.20
How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson?	3.72	1.06
Does your chairperson give you the scoop on what’s going on in the company?	3.43	1.26
Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?	3.87	1.19
Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?	2.56	1.20
Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?	1.90	1.19
Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?	2.97	1.18
Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?	2.90	1.33
Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?	2.90	1.21
Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?	2.25	1.12

These questions are different from the OCD-HE Partial, not only in their content but also in their focus. The LMX scale is focused on the leader and identifies an actual leadership behavior, while the OCDQ-HE (Partial) actually focuses on the respondent. The LMX scale responses may be explained by the fact that many administrators are not chosen because they are necessarily good leaders, but because they rise through the ranks and emerge as leaders (Hickson & Stacks, 1992). Therefore, it is possible that this particular leadership behavior, which has been identified as transformational in nature, is not engaged in by all chairpersons for reasons unknown and not within the scope of this research.

Overall, LMX mean scores were identical for straight and Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual individuals ($M = 3.26$) (see Table A-3 in Appendix A), but different when broken down by biological sex (Men: $M = 3.31$, $SD = .79$; Women: $M = 3.22$, $SD = .83$) (see Tables A-2 and A-5 in Appendix A). The item with the greatest difference in scores between men and women asked if faculty felt their chairpersons understood their problems and needs (Men: $M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.20$; Women: $M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.28$). This difference, however, is not reflected in the item that clearly asks if faculty feel they are “out” with their chairperson (Men: $M = 1.83$, $SD = 1.20$; Women: $M = 1.89$, $SD = 1.16$) (see Table A-5 in Appendix A). Given these findings, this may reveal more about the difference in biological sex between the participants and their chairpersons than about an in-group/out-group related issue. After all, only 34% of participants identified as male, while 60% identified as female, and 59% of participants reported having a male chairperson, while 35% reported having a female chairperson. This implies that the majority of female participants had a male chairperson.

When broken down by ethnicity, LMX mean scores varied tremendously across races, which is highly unreliable from which to speculate meaning because individually, each of the non-white categories represented 2% or less of the total number of participants in the study (see Tables A-6 and A-7 in Appendix A). However, like in the climate dimensions, when the ethnicity variable was transformed into “white” and “non-white,” individuals who identified as other than white yielded lower mean scores overall in LMX than did white individuals (white: $M = 3.28$, $SD = .80$; non-white: $M = 3.03$, $SD = .96$) (see Table 12).

Table 12

LMX Means and Standard Deviations for Ethnicity

Ethnicity	M	SD
White	3.28	.80
Non-White	3.03	.96

These differences, though truly minimal, reflect what we have known for a very long time: when it comes to leadership in general, culture matters (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). And research indicates that leadership perceptions are influenced by a subordinate’s race (Festekjian, Tram, Murray, Sy, & Huynh, 2013). To extract the most meaning from these numbers, it is important to place them in perspective: few racial identity differences exist among faculty and leadership in higher education. So this sample generally reflects academia as a whole: in 2011, the National Center for Educational Statistics reported that 79% of faculty are white, 6% are black, 4% are Hispanic/Latino, 9% are Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% are Native American/Alaskan native (Institute of Education Sciences, US Department of Education). As an industry,

then, academia clearly does not reflect the diversity in the US population: according to the US Census Bureau, in 2013, only 63% are white (US Census Bureau). Unfortunately, even that number is misleading, as, for example, Arab Americans are encouraged by the census to identify as “white,” and post 9/11, it is safe to say that the Arab-American “white” experience cannot be compared to the European-American “white” experience. In short, there are considerably fewer white people in the US population than are reflected in academic faculty and administrators; academia is an exceedingly white field. Taken together, then, these mean score differences simply reflect an industry with extremely low representations of non-white individuals.

In order to answer research question 1, RQ 1 (What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges and communication climate?), a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted. Faculty composite or mean scores on the LMX-7 items were correlated first against faculty perceptions of the organizational climate as measured first by the four subscales of OCD-HE Partial and then by the overall number of items on the OCD-HE Partial. The findings revealed significant and moderately positive relationship between faculty perception of their communication exchanges with their chair and each of the four dimensions of climate: consideration, $r(388) = .60, p < .001$; intimacy, $r(388) = .36, p < .001$; disengagement, $r(388) = .59, p < .001$; production emphasis, $r(388) = .63, p < .001$ and between LMX and climate as a whole: $r(388) = .66, p < .001$. (See Table 13.)

Table 13

Correlations Between LMX and OCD-HE Partial Items

Scale/Subscale	LMX
Consideration	.60 **
Intimacy	.37**
Disengagement	.60**
Production Emphasis	.63**
OCD-HE Partial Total	.67**

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The findings from the analysis reveals the relationship was strongest between LMX production emphasis and weakest for LMX and intimacy. This implies that leader communication is more notably related to perceptions of climate and faculty feelings of just going through the motions to complete their job tasks (production emphasis), and less notably related to perceptions of social relationships between the chairperson and faculty (intimacy). Of course, the results also suggest a strong and moderate relationship between LMX and the overall OCDQ-HE Partial items that measure climate. The results suggest that as perceptions of communication with their chair is more positive, faculty perceptions of the organizational climate are more positive as well.

Research Question Two

Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by biological sex?

As reported in the faculty profile or demographics section, of the faculty who responded to the survey, 34% (140) were male and 60% (245) were female, while 6.5% (27) chose not to reveal their biological sex. Though the scores were similar overall, the mean scores for male versus female on the subscales revealed the following: the mean

score on the subscale of consideration for men was 3.18 ($SD = .40$) as compared to a mean score of 3.19 ($SD = .42$) for women. In the same vein, the mean score for men on the intimacy subscale was 2.92 ($SD = .38$) for men compared to a mean of 2.96 ($SD = .37$) for women. The results reveal that on the average men rated these climate subscale items slightly lower than women.

Contrarily, male faculty rated all other areas of climate (disengagement and production emphasis) as well as LMX more higher compared to female faculty (Disengagement: Men: $M = 3.18$, $SD = .47$; Women: $M = 3.11$, $SD = .49$; Production Emphasis: Men: $M = 3.21$, $SD = .59$; Women: $M = 3.15$, $SD = .59$); and LMX: Men: $M = 3.32$, $SD = .79$; Women: $M = 3.22$, $SD = .83$). These findings suggest very slight differences in perceptions of men and women when it comes to LMX and climate; In fact, perceptions are quite similar, as noted in Table 14.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Biological Sex, LMX and Climate

Subscale/Dimension	Biological Sex	M	SD	N
Consideration	Male	3.18	.41	140
	Female	3.19	.423	245
	Total	3.18	.41	385
Intimacy	Male	2.93	.38	140
	Female	2.96	.37	245
	Total	2.95	.382	385
Disengagement	Male	3.18	.47	140
	Female	3.11	.49	245
	Total	3.14	.48	385
Production Emphasis	Male	3.21	.59	140
	Female	3.15	.59	245
	Total	3.17	.59	385
LMX	Male	3.32	.79	140
	Female	3.23	.80	245
	Total	3.26	.82	385

Further analysis was conducted by applying a one-way MANOVA to the faculty data to examine whether faculty biological sex elicits statistical significant differences in perceptions regarding the chair-faculty exchanges and organizational climate. Results from the one-way MANOVA yielded no significant difference between men and women: Wilks' $\lambda = .98$, $F(5, 379) = 1.63$, $p = .15$, partial $\eta^2 = .021$. As may be inferred by the results of the MANOVA, none of the univariate analysis yielded significant effects: LMX, $F(1, 383) = 2.35$, $p = .125$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$; consideration, $F(1, 383) = 0.23$, $p = .878$, partial $\eta^2 = .000$; intimacy, $F(1, 383) = .105$, $p = .746$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$; disengagement, $F(1, 383) = .023$, $p = .878$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$; production emphasis, $F(1, 383) = .002$, $p = .96$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$. (See Table 15.)

Table 15

Univariate Results for Faculty by Biological Sex

Scale/subscales	F	<i>p</i>	Partial Eta
Consideration	.02	.88	.00
Intimacy	.11	.75	.00
Disengagement	.39	.53	.01
Production Emphasis	.00	.96	.00
LMX-7	2.36	.13	.00

Research Question Three

Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by ethnicity?

As previously noted, the majority of the faculty who responded to the survey were white (84%), with nearly equal numbers of black, Asian, Hispanic, bi-ethnic and other ethnicity individuals (2% each), while 8% chose not to identify their ethnicity.

Descriptive analysis by faculty ethnicity is presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics About Faculty Ethnicity, LMX, and Climate

Subscale/Dimension	Your Ethnicity	M	SD	N
Consideration	Asian	3.39	1.05	6
	Hispanic-Latino	3.25	.27	9
	Black	2.96	.43	7
	White	3.19	.39	347
	Bi/Multi Ethnicity	3.07	.65	7
	Some Other Ethnicity	3.00	.91	4
Intimacy	Asian	3.50	.86	6
	Hispanic-Latino	3.04	.24	9
	Black	2.82	.20	7
	White	2.95	.38	347
	Bi/Multi Ethnicity	2.89	.35	7
	Some Other Ethnicity	2.66	.30	4
Disengagement	Asian	3.42	1.01	6
	Hispanic-Latino	3.22	.28	9
	Black	2.74	.52	7
	White	3.15	.47	347
	Bi/Multi Ethnicity	3.22	.74	7
	Some Other Ethnicity	2.91	.77	4
Production Emphasis	Asian	3.30	.99	6
	Hispanic-Latino	3.12	.45	9
	Black	2.81	.63	7
	White	3.19	.58	347
	Bi/Multi Ethnicity	3.03	.89	7
	Some Other Ethnicity	2.85	1.10	4
LMX	Asian	2.55	.58	6
	Hispanic-Latino	3.47	.91	9
	Black	2.49	.68	7
	White	3.28	.80	347
	Bi/Multi Ethnicity	3.19	1.0	7
	Some Other Ethnicity	3.52	1.33	4

Asian respondents had higher mean scores on all climate dimensions than individuals from all other races. However, they had the lowest mean score of all races on LMX ($M=2.55$). The second highest mean scores in LMX were reported by Hispanic respondents; they also reported the second highest mean scores in all climate dimensions

except production emphasis, where their scores were very similar to mean scores reported by white individuals (Hispanic: $M=3.12$; White: $M= 3.19$). This suggests that Asian and Hispanic/Latino individuals perceive their department climate as more open than individuals from all other ethnicities.

Across all dimensions of climate and LMX, individuals who identified as black had the lowest mean scores of all other individuals. Given that 342 participants indicated their chairperson was white and only 8 participants indicated their chairperson was black, it is safe to predict that most, if not all, of the black participants were reporting on relationships with white chairpersons. It has previously been established that leadership perceptions are influenced by a subordinate's race (Festekjian, Tram, Murray, Sy, & Huynh, 2013), and therefore it may be easy to infer from these results that black faculty have poorer leader-member relations with their chairpersons than their non-black counterparts. However, it is important to note the difference here is still not statistically significant and, moreover, only represents the experiences of seven individuals.

To answer RQ3 (Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by ethnicity?), a one-way MANOVA was conducted. The results revealed a statistically significant model, Wilks' $\lambda = .88$, $F(25, 1376) = 1.89$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .025$. Of the five univariate effects, however, only one univariate effect, intimacy, was significant: $F(5, 374) = 3.22$, $p = .007$, partial $\eta^2 = .041$. No other univariate effects were significant: LMX was significant, $F(5, 374) = .630$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .032$; consideration, $F(5, 374) = 1.03$, $p = .40$, partial $\eta^2 = .14$; disengagement, $F(5, 374) = 1.63$, $p = .151$, partial $\eta^2 = .21$; production emphasis, $F(5, 374) = .921$, $p = .467$, partial $\eta^2 = .12$. (See Table 17.)

Table 17

MANOVA Results for Ethnicity

Scale/subscales	F	P	Partial Eta
Consideration	1.03	.398	.014
Intimacy	3.22	.007*	.041
Disengagement	1.63	.151	.021
Production Emphasis	.921	.467	.012
LMX-7	.630	.032	.025

Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that perceptions of participants with Asian ethnicity differed regarding the intimacy dimension of climate. Otherwise, perceptions of LMX and all four dimensions of climate were not different based on ethnicity for the other groups of ethnicity and on the other subscales of climate. When compared with the other groups, the Asian participants were significantly different in their perceptions from all others (see Table 16). This suggests that those of Asian background perceive relationships with their chairpersons and their coworkers differently than those of white, black, Hispanic, and other ethnicities.

Research Question Four

Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by sexual orientation?

As previously reported, the majority of participants (82%) identified as straight, while only 7% ($n = 30$) identified as Lesbian, gay or Bisexual, and 1% ($n = 4$) identified as some other sexual orientation, and 6% ($n = 25$) chose not to identify their sexual orientation. The mean score for LMX was 3.26 ($SD = .82$), and for the climate dimensions was: consideration ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .42$); intimacy ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .38$); disengagement ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .38$); and production emphasis ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .59$). The

mean scores of all individuals for LMX as well as the four dimensions of climate were all very similar. In fact, when the data was broken down by sexual orientation, in no area were any scores considerably higher or lower than other scores, as noted in Table 18. Participants generally chose “3,” which on the instrument was “neither agree nor disagree.” This represents a fairly noncommittal answer by participants of all sexual orientations, indicating that perceptions of LMX and climate do not differ by sexual orientation.

Table 18

Mean Scores for Faculty of Sexual Orientation, Climate and LMX

Subscale/Dimension	Sexual Orientation	Mean	SD	N
LMX	Straight	3.26	.82	337
	Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	3.26	.75	30
	Some Other Sexual Orientation	3.31	1.02	4
	Prefer Not To Answer	2.93	.86	16
Consideration	Straight	3.18	.42	337
	Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	3.21	.36	30
	Some Other Sexual Orientation	3.29	.17	4
	Prefer Not To Answer	3.23	.56	16
Intimacy	Straight	2.95	.38	337
	Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	3.04	.33	30
	Some Other Sexual Orientation	2.94	.42	4
	Prefer Not To Answer	2.99	.58	16
Disengagement	Straight	2.95	.38	337
	Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	3.01	.33	30
	Some Other Sexual Orientation	2.94	.42	4
	Prefer Not To Answer	2.99	.58	16
Production Emphasis	Straight	3.18	.59	337
	Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual	3.15	.55	30
	Some Other Sexual Orientation	3.40	.57	4
	Prefer Not To Answer	3.02	.78	16

To answer RQ4 (Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by sexual orientation?), a one-way MANOVA was applied to faculty data. The results failed to reveal a statistically significant model, Wilks' $\lambda = .0968$, $F(15, 1046.654) = .968$, $p = .643$, partial $\eta^2 = .011$. As expected, none of the univariate effects were significant: LMX, $F(3, 383) = .856$, $p = .464$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$; consideration, $F(3, 383) = .20$, $p = .896$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$; intimacy, $F(3, 383) = .607$, $p = .611$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$; disengagement, $F(3, 383) = .169$, $p = .917$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$; production emphasis, $F(3, 383) = .592$, $p = .620$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$ (see Table 19).

Table 19

MANOVA Results for Sexual Orientation

Scale/subscales	F	P	Partial Eta
Consideration	.200	.896	.002
Intimacy	.607	.611	.005
Disengagement	.169	.917	.001
Production Emphasis	.592	.917	.001
LMX	.856	.464	.007

In summary, the goal of this study was to examine the relationship between faculty perception of faculty-chair communication, department climate, and faculty demographics. A nationwide survey of college and university faculty yielded 412 responses; most participants were female (60%), straight (82%), and white (84%). Statistical findings for research question 1 (What is the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges and communication climate?) revealed a significant and moderately positive relationship

between faculty perceptions of their communication exchanges with their chairperson and each of the four dimensions of climate: consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis, and between LMX and climate as a whole. The results suggest that as perceptions of communication with their chair is more positive, faculty perceptions of the organizational climate are more positive as well.

Statistical findings for research question 2 (Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by biological sex?) revealed no significant difference between men's and women's perceptions of LMX and climate. Statistical findings for research question 3 (Do faculty perceptions differ significantly by ethnicity?) revealed a slightly significant difference only between Asian faculty perceptions of LMX and the climate variable of intimacy. Finally, statistical findings for research question 4, asking "do faculty perceptions differ significantly by sexual orientation?" revealed no significant difference between straight and non-straight faculty perceptions of LMX and climate. The forthcoming chapter shall discuss these findings and provide recommendations for practice and future research.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS,
IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This investigation sought to examine leadership communication between department chairs and faculty members in the academy and how faculty perceptions of that communication are related to perceptions of their organizational climate. In addition, the study aimed to examine faculty perceptions for differences based on faculty demographics, specifically biological sex, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. A discussion follows as they relate findings to each of the research questions guiding the analyses of the data. After a presentation of a summary of the findings, discussion, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for practice and future research are provided.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

Research question one sought to understand the nature of the relationship between faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty member communication exchanges, or LMX, and the department climate. Survey results revealed faculty-chair communication exchanges were significantly correlated with each of the four dimensions of climate: consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis. The strongest relationships were between LMX and the climate dimensions of consideration, disengagement, and production emphasis ($r \geq .60$). These results suggest that faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty communication exchanges account for about

36% of the variance in their perceptions regarding the individual dimensions of climate of consideration, intimacy, and production emphasis. However, though significant, the weakest relationship was between LMX and the climate dimension of intimacy ($r = .37$). Altogether, this suggests that perceptions of leadership communication are positively correlated with faculty perceptions of departmental climate, indicating that faculty perceptions of department chair-faculty communication exchanges account for only about 14% of the variance in their perceptions regarding this dimension of climate. While these findings do not imply a causal relationship between leader communication and climate, it implies that leader communication may play some important role in all areas of the departmental climate.

Many other studies have empirically demonstrated this relationship between leader-member communication and climate. For example, Kozlowsky and Doherty (1989) found that VDL (LMX in its early conception) was positively and significantly related to climate in a manufacturing organization. In their study, the multiple correlation for LMX was .70, $R^2 = .49$, $F(8, 138) = 16.46$, $p < .001$, whereas the multiple correlation for their in-group and out-group measurement (IE) was .56, $R^2 = .31$, $F(8, 138) = 7.91$, $p < .001$. Ford and Sears (2006) also found a significantly positive relationship between LMX and climate in four different manufacturing companies located in the US and Europe. Similarly, in the academy, Mosser (2000) also found strong correlations with leadership affecting climate, though Mosser examined leadership style, which involves behavior as well as communication.

Departmental climate has a great effect on faculty. It affects faculty curricular initiatives and research efforts, which ultimately affects faculty members' ability to

achieve their career goals or mentor or support students (Rankin, 2003). It also affects faculty job satisfaction (Rankin). Consequently, it seems imperative for chairpersons to understand the importance of communication between themselves and their faculty as a part of their complicated leadership role. The findings in this study reveal a need for more research on the topic. It would therefore behoove chairpersons to understand the contexts, topics, and even particular nuances of their communication with faculty that contribute most to departmental climate.

Research question two sought to understand if faculty perceptions of LMX and climate differ significantly by biological sex. Results indicated the demographic characteristic of sex was not significantly related to perceptions of faculty-chair relationships or climate. Specifically, the results revealed that while men's and women's responses to the survey items were slightly different as noted from the descriptive analysis results, further inferential statistical analysis showed that they did not significantly differ on their perceptions of communication with their chairpersons. Additionally, the results suggest that mixed biological sex combinations did not significantly differ in the perceptions of LMX relationships or climate. Mean scores for men's and women's perceptions of LMX were very similar ($M = 3.3$ and $M = 3.2$, respectively), and mean scores for each of the dimensions of climate in many cases were nearly identical for men and women. More female faculty than male faculty participated in the current study (63%), while more participants overall reported having male chairpersons (63%). It can safely be assumed, then, that most participants in this study do not share their chairperson's biological sex. Altogether, this suggests that biological sex differences may go unnoticed as they relate to perceptions of both LMX and climate.

This finding is consistent with findings from other research examining biological sex and LMX, such as Bauer and Green (1996), who did not find biological sex to predict LMX in a study of young adults in their first jobs post graduation. Similarly, Lamude et al. (2004) did not find that middle managers in financial institutions (paired with same-sex subordinates) had higher levels of LMX than those in mixed-sex dyads.

Research in the academy is mixed in its findings of a relationship between biological sex and climate. Similar to the current study, Milhoan (2007) also found no statistically significant relationship between faculty members' gender and their perceptions of organizational climate as created by department chairpersons. Milhoan's study was across all departments in the West Virginia State Community College System, which included 10 institutions. Moreover, Matkin and Barbuto Jr. (2008) also found no relationship between biological sex and LMX in their study of faculty and chairpersons in higher education. These studies, however, are in stark contrast to research by Settles, Cortina, Malley, and Stewart (2006) who found that women academics perceive a more hostile climate than men do in general, though it is important to note that they did not examine climate as it relates to leadership communication. Additionally, they focused specifically on faculty in the natural sciences, which tends to be a more male-dominated discipline than communication (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Finally, Settles et al. examined campus climate instead of department climate. Still, national data indicate that women academics generally have negative perceptions of campus climate (Moten, Bouey, Buckley, Espinoza, Intemann, Pittman, & Schroeder, 2011). This is likely because of the persistent gap in compensation for men and women in the academy and limited family-friendly policies in academia (Moten et al.). For example, a report issued

by UCLA found that, compared to male faculty at the institution, female faculty felt less influential, rated their work environment as less collegial, viewed the evaluation process as less fair, felt less informed about academic advancement and resource negotiation, and rated the distribution of resources as less equitable (Gender Equity Committee on National Climate, 2003). National studies like this one, however, focus on all disciplines and do not examine climate at the department level nor the relationship between leadership communication and climate.

Research question three sought to understand if faculty perceptions of LMX and climate differ significantly by ethnicity. Results of survey analysis revealed a significant relationship on only one dimension, intimacy, while there were significant differences across ethnicity on the intimacy dimension of climate, the data did not reveal the same trend for the other dimensions of climate. Regarding intimacy, a closer exploration of the results reveals that perceptions expressed by one ethnic group, Asians, is responsible for this finding. Other ethnic groups did not demonstrate differences in LMX or climate perceptions as a result of their ethnicity. One reason for this finding may be the way Asians as a cultural group typically perceive leadership and their leaders. Research shows that among Asians, a wide social distance separates leaders from followers, and consequently leaders do not involve followers in decision-making (Blunt and Jones, 1997). In fact, there is little expectation for involvement. As Blunt and Jones explain, “the power and authority of the leader are accepted as right and proper” (p. 13). Therefore, it makes sense that more than the other ethnicities, Asian participants in this study found their chairpersons to demonstrate intimacy. This may be because standard leadership behaviors would be more noticeable by those who have low expectations for

these behaviors in leaders compared to others who have come to expect these kinds of leadership behaviors in their socialization.

Still, though the findings denote significance with those identified as Asian, only 6 out of 412 participants, or 1.8%, identified as Asian. It remains to be seen if there were a larger number of Asian respondents if the results would be the same. Ultimately, it would be a poor choice to generalize these findings to all faculty in the academy, or all Asian faculty in the field, let alone to generalize to a given academic field based on the number of Asians who responded to the survey. This, therefore, reveals an area needing further investigation.

Generally speaking, the results related to the influence of ethnicity on LMX and climate were likely the result of a relatively homogenous, non-diverse population of participants. About 91% of respondents identified as Caucasian, and 83% of participants reported having a Caucasian chair. This reveals a very low number of participants in a mixed-ethnicity faculty-chair relationship. This is consistent with academia in general; 79% of faculty at U.S. post-secondary institutions identify as Caucasian (Tab, Forrest Cataldi, Fahimi, Bradburn, & Zimblar, 2005). Matkin and Barbuto Jr. (2008), who also examined faculty perceptions of LMX in higher education, similarly found no relationship between demographic similarity and perceptions of LMX.

It might be of interest to note a study by McNeilly and Russ (2000), who found that supervisors and their subordinates who were demographically dissimilar to one another had less frequent communication. This suggests that perceptions of LMX might be more affected by communication between a leader and follower than their demographic similarity or dissimilarity. If this is the case, it would explain the larger part

of these findings, which seem to indicate that demographic dissimilarity between faculty and chairpersons does not affect faculty perceptions of LMX. Clearly, there could be a different variable affecting perceptions of LMX than demographic similarity. For example, Kim and Organ (1982) and Turban and Jones (1988) found that perceived similarity is more significantly related to LMX than is demographic similarity. Or another explanation may be that there is only so much one can do to communicate beyond the lack of representation in academia. That is, there is only so much leadership communication may be able to do because all the people—the majority of those in academia—who can speak to this are white. Though research on leadership in demographically diverse populations would suggest there should be differences in perceptions of leadership based on ethnicity, there is generally little difference here because academia simply is not overcoming identity differences. Unquestionably, more research needs to be done to understand better the antecedents to in-group leader-member communication both in and out of the academy.

Research question four sought to understand the influence of faculty sexual orientation on their perceptions of leader communication and department climate. Survey results reveal no significant relationship between faculty sexual orientation and perceptions of LMX and departmental climate. Again, this finding is likely because of the small number of participants who identified themselves as Lesbian, gay, Bisexual, Transgendered, or “other.” The majority, 87% of participants, identified themselves as straight, and similarly, 90% identified their chairperson as straight (refer to Table 8). This again reveals a low number of participants in mixed-sexual orientation faculty-chair relationships.

Matkin and Barbuto Jr, (2008), in their study of faculty-chair LMX relationships, also found no relationship between sexual orientation and LMX. However, this is not consistent with findings from a qualitative study by Billmoria and Stewart (2009), who found a negative climate for sexual minority faculty in the sciences. This is understandable, though, given that climate is experienced at the departmental level; every department is different and every discipline is different, and moreover, the qualitative nature of the Billmoria and Stewart study may explain their different results.

All other things being equal, it is worth noting the national political and social climate, which is becoming more accepting of sexual minorities overall. In the past 10 years, 19 states have legalized gay marriage; a sea change in attitudes that has occurred quite rapidly. Also, the *It Gets Better Project*™, a movement to inspire hope for LGBT young people facing harassment, began in 2009, the year Billmoria and Stewart published their article. This movement has since gained tremendous support and popularity worldwide. It features over 50,000 *It Gets Better* videos created not just by average people, but also by large corporations like Bayer Healthcare, universities and university presidents, like Emory University President Jim Wagner and UCLA, and movie stars and recording artists like Anne Hathaway and Ke\$ha. These videos have received more than 50 million views (itgetsbetter.org). Furthermore, *Time* magazine recently featured its first Transgendered individual on the cover, actress Laverne Cox, specifically because of her very public Transgendered sexual identity. Consequently, this general social movement could be reflected in these results; it is far more socially acceptable to be LGBT now than it has been in the past.

Conclusions

Overall, the research presented here yields thought-provoking findings that clearly demonstrate a need for further exploration. To begin, the similarity-exchange hypothesis suggests that similarity between two individuals enhances liking and affects interactions (Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994), and general research on perceived similarity asserts that we like people who we perceive as similar to us. Moreover, we know that when leaders and members are similar, they have higher quality exchanges in their relationships (Kivlighan & Coleman, 1999). Taken together, this would naturally lead one to assume that when subordinates and leaders are demographically similar, subordinates will experience in-group exchanges. However, the current research does not support this—and actually, neither does a great deal of other aforementioned research. So to understand this, perhaps we need to reconceptualize what we consider as “similar.” Perhaps “similarity” is a continuum rather than a fixed point at which one is deemed “similar” or “dissimilar” and therefore relegated to a leader’s in-group or out-group. In other words, it could be that leaders determine that members are “similar enough,” even if they are not exactly like their leaders. If this is the case, then similarity should be measured on a scale rather than as a fixed variable to really get to the notion of how it affects perceptions of leadership communication and climate.

As it relates to culture, it could easily be argued that the higher education setting is a unique organizational environment where demographic diversity is celebrated and encouraged. Whole departments exist in colleges and universities, like Women’s and Gender Studies, which recognize the fluidity of gender and are devoted to exploring research, theory, and experiences related to diverse and oppressed groups. Course

content in other departments is devoted to ideas related to diversity, with classes such as “Philosophy in Native American Literature” (Bemidji State University), “The Black Mind Today” (St. Cloud State University), “Latino/a Literature and Theory” (University of North Dakota), and “Diversity Concerns in Program Planning” (University of Illinois). In many cases, diversity is openly and heavily discussed in the academy; its value recognized and its expression encouraged. Furthermore, in many cases, college and university search committee members are required to participate in diversity training before they begin hiring faculty. In this way, individuals employed in higher education may experience increased awareness that has a subconscious but real effect on communication and relationships within the organization.

And the field of communication is ubiquitous in all of these areas, so it is not uncommon for faculty in the field of communication to address these notions in their teaching and scholarship. This is evident in communication course titles such as “Rhetoric of Race, Class and Gender” taught at Illinois State University, and in a basic Rhetoric class at the University of Iowa that includes a course unit on communicating [ethnic]. So not only might the faculty participants in this study be more open to the notion of (or more sensitive to ideas related to) diversity than are other faculty, it could be the case that a large number of colleges and universities in general across the United States share this paradigm. Of course notable exceptions have been reflected in the literature, but there are exceptions everywhere. Still, the results of this research may be representing a shift in ideas about diversity that is slowly happening across the academy.

Ultimately, the topics explored in this research are personal; touchy. Truly, the investigation sought to get at people’s motivations on complex topics like perceptions of

ethnicity, perceptions of sex, which are more fluid now than in the past, and on perceptions of sexual orientation, which is an area of strong social opinion in our society. While fixed scales are reliable in many cases, the intersection of these complex subjects requires in-depth analysis of what individuals are thinking, feeling, and perceiving. This information may arguably best gathered through in-depth interviews and not through fixed-item surveys. This recognizes one of many limitations in this study.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations of this study have been recognized.

1. The response rate was low, yielding low statistical power. Given that, the results for the limited minority populations studied are statistically unreliable.
2. This study only sought members of the communication discipline in academia as participants. While the results may explain faculty-chair communication and climate perceptions of communication in that field, they are not generalizable to the academy as a whole nor to the business sector.
3. The instrument used to measure climate was the OCDQ-HE, which, though valid for measuring climate in post-secondary institutions, has not been used to measure climate outside of the academy. Use of a different instrument would likely have yielded different results.
4. While a dearth of research supports the claim that leaders create climate, Getzels and Guba (1957) argue that climate is a function of compatibility between the needs of the individual and the goals of the organization. If this is the case, climate is not or may not be a result of chair communication at all, which demonstrates a need for an entirely new line of research if one seeks to better understand the role of biological sex,

sexual orientation, and ethnicity in perceptions of climate and faculty-chair communication.

5. There is a sticky relationship between how academia rewards individual pursuits, like tenure and promotion, and the notion of some kind of departmental collective interests, like teamwork and collaboration. This sticky relationship might ultimately have more to do with departmental climate than faculty-chairperson communication (Milhoan, 2000).

6. This study takes into consideration only the perspectives of faculty, irrespective of the perspectives of the chairs. It remains to be seen if chairpersons would verify the same findings. That is, there is simply no way to verify whether a chair truly finds a given faculty member to be more in an in-group or out-group without asking him or her personally.

7. This study considers faculty assumptions of chairperson sexual orientation. Without verification, these assumptions are generally unreliable.

Implications of the Study and Recommendations for Practice

The findings in this study reveal that biological sex and sexual orientation do not seem to influence perceptions of faculty-chair communication or departmental climate, though ethnicity does seem to influence perceptions of leader-member communication among Asian faculty. However, the findings do support a plethora of previous research asserting a general relationship between leadership communication and climate. This suggests valuable implications.

First, we are clearly at a point in our nation's history where more attention has been directed at demographic differences between people such as their ethnicity,

biological sex, and sexual orientation and therefore more awareness has been raised regarding issues of diversity. While this is not to say that these areas are no longer sites of oppression nor important to study, it does imply that ongoing national policy changes, which most recently include the Fair Pay Act of 2009, the Hate Crimes Prevention Act of 2009, and the Department of Defense 2013 Sexual Assault Prevention Strategy designed to institute sweeping changes to the military's organizational culture, have accompanied a national paradigm change. It has, as these results would suggest, changed the workplace in such a way that individuals of different races, sexual orientations, and biological sex may have more positive perceptions of workplace communication than perhaps they did years ago. In short, it may be argued that we have come to not just accept diversity, but to embrace it so fully that it has become a natural part of organizational life, organizational communication, and organizational relationships such that we notice it less now than we ever have before. This does not imply, however, that there are no longer issues. For instance, it is important to note that the level of awareness has yet to be reflected in the demographic distributions of faculty in the academy. There clearly exists a need for continued discussion on this sensitive and important topic.

Specifically in academia, the same claim can still be made. Policies like "safe place" or "safe zone," adopted from the women's movement and now applied to LGBT individuals, are now common in higher education institutions. For women and all members of minority groups, these provide "a certain license to speak and act freely," something that was not possible in the past (Kenney, 2001). This has unquestionably changed the way people think, act, and speak, and we need to keep moving in this direction.

Also, if it is truly the case, as other research would suggest, that some academic faculty perceive a negative climate in higher education, the results of this research would imply that we need to look past faculty-chair communication to try to determine its cause. Leader communication is important in perceptions of climate, but perhaps attention should also be given to other forms of communication, such as peer communication, which may also play a role. Given the importance of organizational climate in faculty members' lives, this research reveals a great need for future examination of the faculty experience in higher education. This is just one of many recommendations for future research on this important topic.

Finally, it would behoove academia to look to LMX training. After all, LMX training by leaders led to more productive employees in Graen, Novak and Summerkamp's (1982) study. Moreover, after leaders were trained to engage in certain leadership communication behaviors with their followers, hard productivity in one organization improved by 19% resulting in an annual cost savings of over \$5 million for the company (Scandura & Graen, 1984). These outcomes were a result of more positive leader-member interactions, and resulted in more positive member attitudes, significant increases in member perceptions of leader support, and member satisfaction. This suggests that leader training can successfully improve follower experiences in an organization. Therefore leader training with department chairpersons may improve faculty perceptions of LMX and result in positive organizational and personal outcomes similar to those by Scandura and Graen (1984).

Recommendations for Future Research

The findings in this study lead the author to offer the following recommendations for further research:

1. That the study be replicated with a larger population to provide greater statistical power and subsequent validity.
2. That the study be replicated with participants from all disciplines to provide more generalizability across the academy.
3. That the study be replicated using mixed methods. This would allow the researcher to validate the quantitative findings through qualitative exploration, and also use the qualitative data to explore the quantitative findings. This would add breadth to the research by allowing the researcher to help ensure that the findings are grounded in the participant's experiences.
4. That the study be replicated using qualitative one-on-one interview methodologies. This may yield richer responses because a researcher can develop a relationship with a participant and help that person explore their feelings and, in this case, reveal complex information related to their sexual identity or other demographic characteristics and relationships with others that cannot be revealed in a closed questionnaire.

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APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table A-1

Means and Standard Deviations of Faculty Responses for All Survey items

Scale	Item	M	SD
LMX	Do you know where you stand with your chairperson?	3.93	1.09
	Do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?	3.80	1.17
	How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?	3.55	1.26
	How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?	3.70	1.13
	Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	3.88	1.13
	Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?	3.07	1.17
	I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	3.56	1.20
	How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson?	3.74	1.05
	Does your chairperson give you the “scoop” on what’s going on in the company?	3.45	1.25
	Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?	3.90	1.17
	Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?	2.58	1.20
	Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?	1.87	1.18
	Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?	2.98	1.19
	Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?	2.93	1.33
	Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?	2.89	1.21
Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?	2.26	1.13	
OCDQ (Consideration Dimension)	The chairperson has faculty members share in making decisions.	3.72	1.16
	The chairperson displays tact and humor.	3.80	1.13
	The chairperson engages in friendly jokes and comments during department meetings.	3.90	1.0
	The chairperson is friendly and approachable.	4.01	1.10
	The chairperson finds time to listen to faculty members.	3.91	1.11
	The chairperson accepts change in departmental policy or procedure.	3.65	1.15
	The morale of the faculty members is high.	3.12	1.22
	The department works as a committee of the whole.	3.23	1.22
	The chairperson changes his approach to meet new situations.	3.24	1.06
	The chairperson coaches and counsels faculty members.	3.40	1.19
	The chairperson delegates the responsibility for departmental functions among □the faculty.	3.68	1.04
The chairperson treats all faculty members as equals.	3.16	1.32	

OCDQ-HE (Intimacy Dimension)	There is a great deal of borrowing and sharing among the faculty.	3.18	1.07
	Faculty members enjoy getting together for bowling, dancing, card games, etc. □	2.47	1.17
	Close friendships are found among the department faculty.	3.34	1.12
	Everyone enjoys their associations with their colleagues in this department.	2.95	1.15
	There are periodic informal social gatherings.	3.22	1.15
	There are opportunities within the department for faculty members to get together in extra-curricular activities.	3.01	1.13
	New jokes and gags get around the department in a hurry.	2.51	1.05
	Faculty members talk to each other about their personal lives.	3.48	.98
	The department is thought of as being very friendly.	3.63	1.15
OCDQ-HE (Disengagement Dimension)	Faculty start projects without trying to decide in advance how they will develop or where they may end.	2.84	.980
	Faculty members express concern about the “deadwood” in this department.	2.89	1.15
	Scheduled appointments by faculty members are not kept.	2.79	1.22
	Faculty members talk about leaving the college or university.	2.10	.94
	Tensions between faculty factions interfere with departmental activities.	2.75	1.25
	The department yields to pressure of a few students who are not representative of student opinion.	2.02	.96
	The important people in this department expect others to show respect for them	3.01	1.18
	Older faculty members control the development of departmental policy.	2.79	1.19
	Individual faculty members are always trying to win an argument.	2.96	1.18
	Faculty members approach their problems scientifically and objectively.	2.83	.95
Faculty members in this department use mannerisms that are annoying.	2.74	1.05	
OCD-HE Partial (Production Emphasis Dimension)	The chairperson puts the department’s welfare above the welfare of any faculty member in it. □	3.22	1.07
	Faculty members recognize that there is a right and wrong way of going about department activities.	3.26	.890
	The chairperson has everything going according to schedule. □	3.15	1.03
	The chairperson encourages the use of certain uniform procedures	3.44	.980
	The chairperson is first in getting things started. □	3.13	1.07
	The chairperson sells outsiders on the importance of his department. □	3.87	1.12
	Faculty members seem to thrive on difficulty – the tougher things get, the harder they work	2.70	1.00
	Faculty members ask permission before deviating from common policies or practices.	2.95	.933
	The chairperson maintains definite standards of performance.	3.31	1.08
	The faculty uses parliamentary procedures in meetings.	2.52	1.29

Table A-2

Means and SD for OCDQ Dimensions and LMX Based on Biological Sex

		LMX	Consideration	Intimacy	Disengagement	Production Emphasis
Male	Mean	3.32	2.93	2.92	3.18	3.21
	N	140	140	140	140	140
	SD	.79	.40	.38	.47	.59
Female	Mean	3.22	3.19	2.96	3.11	3.15
	N	245	245	245	245	245
	SD	.83	.42	.37	.49	.59

Table A-3

Means and SD for OCDQ Dimensions and LMX Based on Sexual Orientation

		LMX	Consideration	Intimacy	Disengagement	Production Emphasis
Straight	Mean	3.26	3.18	2.95	3.14	3.18
	N	337	337	337	337	337
	SD	.82	.38	.38	.48	.59
Lesbian/ Gay/ Bisexual	Mean	3.26	3.21	3.04	3.15	3.14
	N	30	30	30	30	30
	SD	.75	.36	.33	.48	.55
Some Other Sexual Orientation	Mean	3.31	3.29	2.94	3.20	3.40
	N	4	4	4	4	4
	SD	1.02	.17	.41	.50	.57
Prefer Not To Answer	Mean	2.99	3.11	2.85	2.93	2.89
	N	15	15	15	15	15
	SD	.86	.31	.24	.49	.59
Total	Mean	3.25	3.18	2.95	3.13	3.17
	N	386	386	386	386	386
	SD	.82	.411	.38	.48	.59

Table A-4

Means/SD for LMX and OCDQ-HE Partial Dimensions by White/Non-white

		LMX	Consideration	Intimacy	Disengagement	Production Emphasis
White	Mean	3.27	3.19	2.95	3.14	3.18
	SD	.80	.39	.38	.47	.58
Non-White	Mean	3.02	3.09	2.94	3.04	2.97
	SD	.96	.54	.34	.61	.69

Table A-5

Individual LMX Items—Means and SD by Biological Sex

Item	Male		Female	
	M	SD	M	SD
How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson ?	3.79	1.12	3.71	1.01
Does your chairperson give you the “scoop” on what’s going on in the company?	3.56	1.14	3.40	1.29
Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?	4.0	1.18	3.85	1.19
Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?	2.54	1.20	2.60	1.21
Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?	1.83	1.18	1.89	1.16
Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?	3.0	1.31	2.98	1.29
Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?	2.94	1.16	2.93	1.34
Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?	2.99	1.17	2.83	1.23
Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?	2.24	1.19	2.28	1.11
Do you know where you stand with your chairperson?	4.01	1.11	3.89	1.07
Do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?	3.98	1.05	3.70	1.22
How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?	3.74	1.20	3.46	1.28
How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?	3.81	1.14	3.64	1.15
Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	3.94	1.10	3.85	1.14
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?	3.06	1.13	3.08	1.19
I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend	3.65	1.17	3.51	1.22

and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

Table A-6

Individual LMX Items—Means and SD by American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Hispanic/Latino and Black

Item	American Indian/ Alaskan Native		Asian		Hispanic / Latino		Black	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
	How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson ?	2.0	.	3.0	.71	3.78	.83	2.86
Does your chairperson give you the “scoop” on what’s going on in the company?	1.0	.	2.20	.84	3.56	1.24	2.29	1.50
Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?	1.0	.	2.40	1.34	4.00	1.23	3.14	1.46
Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?	4.0	.	2.0	1.00	3.00	1.41	1.43	.54
Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?	2.0	.	3.20	1.79	1.78	1.30	3.43	1.81
Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?	1.0	.	2.00	1.00	3.78	1.20	1.86	.69
Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?	1.0	.	2.20	1.30	3.56	1.59	1.29	.49
Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?	1.0	.	2.20	.84	3.33	1.41	1.20	.49
Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?	1.0	.	1.80	1.10	2.67	1.0	1.43	.54
Do you know where you stand with your chairperson?	1.63	.	2.66	.57	3.47	.91	2.48	.68
Do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?	3.42	.	3.07	.75	3.25	.27	2.90	.42
How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?	3.25	.	3.20	.0	3.04	.24	2.82	.20
How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?	2.36	.	3.11	.83	3.22	.28	2.74	.52
Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	2.10	.	2.96	.60	3.18	.45	2.81	.63
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?	1.0	.	4.0	1.0	4.11	.78	3.71	.90
I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	1.0	.	3.6	1.14	4.11	.78	3.29	1.4

Table A-7

Individual LMX Items—Means and SD by American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Hispanic/Latino and Black

Item	White		Bi/Multi Racial		Some Other Ethnicity	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson ?	3.77	1.04	3.86	1.35	3.50	1.73
Does your chairperson give you the “scoop” on what’s going on in the company?	3.50	1.21	3.14	1.22	4.0	2.0
Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?	3.94	1.14	4.14	1.47	4.25	1.5
Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?	2.59	1.17	2.14	1.47	3.5	1.92
Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?	1.82	1.12	1.14	.38	2.0	1.16
Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?	3.00	1.80	3.29	1.11	3.0	1.83
Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?	2.95	1.30	3.29	1.11	3.25	1.71
Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?	2.92	1.17	3.0	1.41	3.5	1.73
Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?	2.27	1.14	1.86	.38	3.25	1.5
Do you know where you stand with your chairperson?	3.19	1.0	3.52	1.33	3.26	.82
Do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?	3.06	.65	2.98	.91	3.18	.41
How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?	2.90	.35	2.66	.30	2.95	.38
How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?	2.85	.74	2.91	.77	3.14	.48
Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	4.5	.89	2.85	1.10	3.17	.59
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?	4.25	1.41	4.5	.58	3.93	1.08
I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	3.5	1.25	4.25	.96	3.81	1.17

APPENDIX B
PARTICIPANT REQUEST LETTER

Dear Faculty Member,

I am a doctoral student under the direction of Dr. Lydia Kyei-Blankson in the College of Education at Illinois State University. I am conducting a research study exploring faculty-chair communication and faculty perceptions of their academic departmental climate. Information gathered in this study will be used to determine how faculty perceive their departmental climate as it is related to their communication with their department chair.

I am requesting your participation in this research, which will involve you responding to an anonymous online survey consisting of about 60 questions. This should take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and optional. You will receive no compensation for participating in this research, and you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of any benefits to which you may otherwise be entitled. If you would like to be a participant in this research study, please click on the hyperlink below to be taken to the survey website.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration in this study. Your views and opinions will be very helpful in better understanding faculty-chair communication and perceptions of departmental climate.

Please don't hesitate to contact me should you have any questions. Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Jodi Hallsten

APPENDIX C
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Survey Instrument

Instructions: The first part of this questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with your department chairperson (also known as “department head”). For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by choosing one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. Do you know where you stand with your chairperson . . . [and] do you usually know how satisfied your chairperson is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5

2. How well does your chairperson understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

3. How well does your chairperson recognize your potential?

Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your chairperson has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your chairperson would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your chairperson has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

6. I have enough confidence in my chairperson that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your chairperson ?

Extremely Ineffective	Worse than Average	Average	Better than Average	Extremely Effective
1	2	3	4	5

8. Does your chairperson give you the “scoop” on what’s going on in the company

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5

9. Is your chairperson willing to listen to you?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

10. Do you confide personal information to your chairperson?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

11. Are you OUT (merely a hired hand) in your relationship with your chairperson?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

12. Does your chairperson ask you for input or advice?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

13. Are you IN (a trusted assistant) in your relationship with your chairperson?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

14. Do you give your chairperson the “scoop” on what’s going on in your work group?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

15. Does your chairperson confide personal information to you?

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
1	2	3	4	5

In the second part of this questionnaire, please indicate the degree to which the following statements reflect your experience in your academic department.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
16	The chairperson has faculty members share in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The chairperson displays tact and humor.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The chairperson engages in friendly jokes and comments during department meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
19	The chairperson is friendly and approachable.	1	2	3	4	5
20	The chairperson finds time to listen to faculty members.	1	2	3	4	5
21	The chairperson accepts change in departmental policy or procedure.	1	2	3	4	5
22	The morale of the faculty members is high.	1	2	3	4	5
23	The department works as a committee of the whole.	1	2	3	4	5
24	The chairperson changes his approach to meet new situations.	1	2	3	4	5

25	The chairperson coaches and counsels faculty members.	1	2	3	4	5
26	The chairperson delegates the responsibility for departmental functions among the faculty.	1	2	3	4	5
27	The chairperson treats all faculty members as equals.	1	2	3	4	5
28	There is a great deal of borrowing and sharing among the faculty.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Faculty members enjoy getting together for bowling, dancing, card games, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Close friendships are found among the department faculty.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Everyone enjoys their associations with their colleagues in this department.	1	2	3	4	5
32	There are periodic informal social gatherings.	1	2	3	4	5
33	There are opportunities within the department for faculty members to get together in extra-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5

34	New jokes and gags get around the department in a hurry.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Faculty members talk to each other about their personal lives.	1	2	3	4	5
36	The department is thought of as being very friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Faculty start projects without trying to decide in advance how they will develop or where they may end.	1	2	3	4	5
38	Faculty members express concern about the "deadwood" in this department.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Scheduled appointments by faculty members are not kept.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Faculty members talk about leaving the college or university.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Tensions between faculty factions interfere with departmental activities.	1	2	3	4	5
42	The department yields to pressure of a few students who are not representative of student opinion.	1	2	3	4	5

43	The important people in this department expect others to show respect for them.	1	2	3	4	5
44	Older faculty members control the development of departmental policy.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Individual faculty members are always trying to win an argument.	1	2	3	4	5
46	Faculty members approach their problems scientifically and objectively.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Faculty members in this department use mannerisms, which are annoying.	1	2	3	4	5
48	The chairperson puts the department's welfare above the welfare of any faculty member in it.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Faculty members recognize that there is a right and wrong way of going about department activities.	1	2	3	4	5
50	The chairperson has everything going according to schedule.	1	2	3	4	5
51	The chairperson encourages the use of certain uniform procedures.	1	2	3	4	5

52	The chairperson is first in getting things started.☐	1	2	3	4	5
53	The chairperson sells outsiders on the importance of his department.☐	1	2	3	4	5
54	Faculty members seem to thrive on difficulty – the tougher things get, the harder they work	1	2	3	4	5
55	Faculty members ask permission before deviating from common policies or practices.	1	2	3	4	5
56	The chairperson maintains definite standards of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
57	The faculty uses parliamentary procedures in meetings.	1	2	3	4	5

In the last part of this questionnaire, please answer the following demographic questions:

58. What is your position in the department?

Part Time Non Tenure Track Faculty or Adjunct /Lecturer w/PhD

Part Time Non Tenure Track Faculty or Adjunct / Lecturer – no PhD

Full Time Non Tenure Track Faculty or Adjunct / Lecturer w/PhD

Full Time Non Tenure Track Faculty or Adjunct / Lecturer – no PhD

Tenure Line – Pre-Tenure Faculty w/PhD

64. What is your ethnicity?

American Indian or Alaska Native	Asian	Hispanic or Latino	Black or African American	Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Is	White	Other
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65. What is your chairperson's ethnicity?

American Indian or Alaska Native	Asian	Hispanic or Latino	Black or African American	Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Is	White	Other
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