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Conclusion: Female Leaders Using Coercive Power Motivate Subordinates

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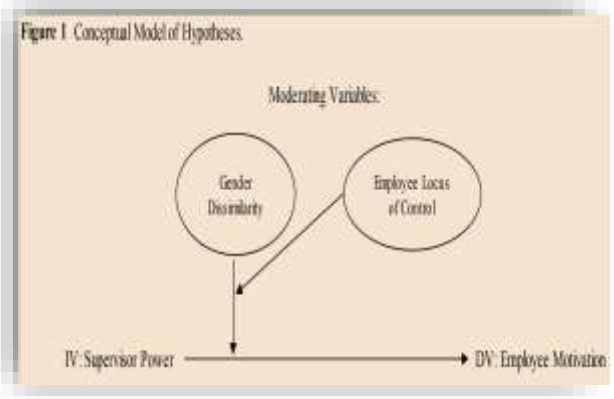
Abstract

This manuscript advances prior research (Blau, 1964; Elangovan & Xie, 1999; French & Raven, 1959; Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973; Hegtvedt, 1988; Randolph & Kemery, 2011; Zigarmi, Peyton Roberts, & Randolph, 2015) and capitalizes on supervisory skills using power dynamics within the workplace, by investigating employee effort resulting from gender dissimilar supervisor-employee dyads and employee locus of control. To offer a more focused approach, this is an evaluation specifically on reward and coercive power derived from French and Raven's (1959) five power bases. This manuscript proposes that the motivation levels of employees change, based on their locus of control and gender. There were 155 full-time professionals surveyed, this study concluded a positive relationship between the use of reward power and employee effort. Notably, the supplemental analysis indicated a positive relationship between female supervisors who exhibited coercive power and greater employee effort.

Introduction

When exhibiting power, a dyadic relationship exists between dominant and submissive parties. Five years after the introduction of French and Raven's (1959) bases of power, Blau (1964) claimed the supervisor-employee (Sup-EE) relationship was vital to an organization's success. Additional studies analyzed across various contexts were conducted to better understand the power dyad relationship in organizations. In fact, Elangovan and Xie (1999) demonstrated "clear evidence for the moderating effects of employee locus of control" (p. 370) and



further argued supervisor power had various effects on employee (EE) motivation. This meant EEs could be motivated depending on the type of power their supervisor exhibited. However, gender was not taken into account in their study. Thus, *Figure 1* hypothesizes and summarizes these Sup-EE power dyads, specifically examining reward and coercive powers. The idea of issuing rewards has been used for centuries. Children are rewarded for good behavior, athletes are rewarded for hard work, and associates are rewarded for doing a good job in the workplace. All of these rewards serve as a threshold for accomplishment and motivation. Research from Randolph and Kemery (2011) suggested supervisors attempting to motivate EEs should use reward power, resulting in EEs willing to take on more responsibility. They found a positive correlation between supervisor use of reward power and EE empowerment. While EEs are motivated through various types of rewards, Zigarmi, Peyton Roberts, and Randolph (2015) correlated the use of supervisor reward power and positive EE emotions in the workplace. Therefore, expectations are favorable for a direct correlation between the use of reward power and EE effort; however, the EE's locus of control (LOC) may moderate different results.

Table 1

Summary of the Role of Gender Studies in the Workplace

Authors	Key Points
Dobbins, G., Pence, E. Orban. J., & Sgro, J. (1983)	Found supporting evidence that gender played a significant role in the supervisor-employee dyadic relationship as related to various factors and outcomes, in a 210-participant study.
Thacker, & Ferris (1991)	Confirmed gender played a significant role when experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace.
Heilman, Block, & Martell (1995)	Revealed gender stereotypes in the managerial process and potential promotional process.
Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz (2000)	Performed extensive global investigation from various geographic regions, confirming gender was a factor in job satisfaction and work-related stress, as well as strong correlations between job satisfaction and turnover, when various types of power were exhibited.
Valentine, & Godkin (2000)	Sampled 7,733 working professionals and confirmed that a supervisor's gender influenced employee job perception.
Eagly, & Karau (2002)	Examined and confirmed gender bias towards female leaders.
Elliott, & Smith (2004)	Established that adult women continue to experience (as victims) sexual harassment, with their physical boundaries violated.
Uggen, & Blackstone (2004)	Concluded gender was a direct result of discrimination.
Akinnawo, & Fayankinnu (2010)	Confirmed occupational challenges as a result of gender dissimilarity in the workplace.
Ergeneli, Ilsev, & Karapinar (2010)	Found gender affected the work-life balance and job satisfaction relationship.
Hutchinson, & Eveline (2010)	Learned that presenting workplace bullying as a gender-neutral issue actually masked the gender-based issue.
Stainback, Ratliff, & Roscigno (2011)	Concluded that a disturbing percentage of female executives experienced sexual harassment from male subordinates.
Fayankinnu (2012)	Examined gender differences in power motivation and the imbalance between the two genders in leadership roles.
Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Keiser (2012)	Confirmed the gender of a supervisor impacted both employee turnover and employee job satisfaction.
Schuh, Hernandez Bark, Van Quaquebeke, Hossiep, Frieg, & Van Dick (2014)	Determined that discrimination existed in the workplace but the number of instances was reduced when that gender represented the numerical majority within that functional area (i.e. work group).
Calkin (2016)	Observed a need for transnational business initiatives specifically for girls to promote the demonstrated lack of gender equality from the author's research.

Within the last 20 years, self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1995) was used as a theoretical basis to study motivation. EEs who hold an intrinsic motivation, according to the SDT, will mirror behaviors of those with an internal locus of control (iLOC), regardless of gender. As *Table 1* outlines *(above)*, nearly 40 years of gender studies in the workplace, this study seeks to add to current literature by understanding the impact power has on EE

effort while validating whether gender is a factor in enhancing or mitigating EE effort. *Table 2* provides examples of power demonstrated in the workplace. It is not believed that gender is a factor in determining EE motivation. However, in 1966 Rotter began his research on LOC and various scholars have since studied it across disciplines (Curtis & Trice, 2013; Lloyd & Hastings, 2009; Mooney, Sherman, & Lo Presto, 1991), all concluding similar results. EEs with an external locus of control (eLOC) demonstrated less workplace motivation with examples including reduced accountability and procrastination (Aziz & Tariq, 2013). Therefore, this manuscript seeks to advance current research by examining why EEs with internal and external loci of control should lead to power effecting EE motivation in different manners.

Table 2

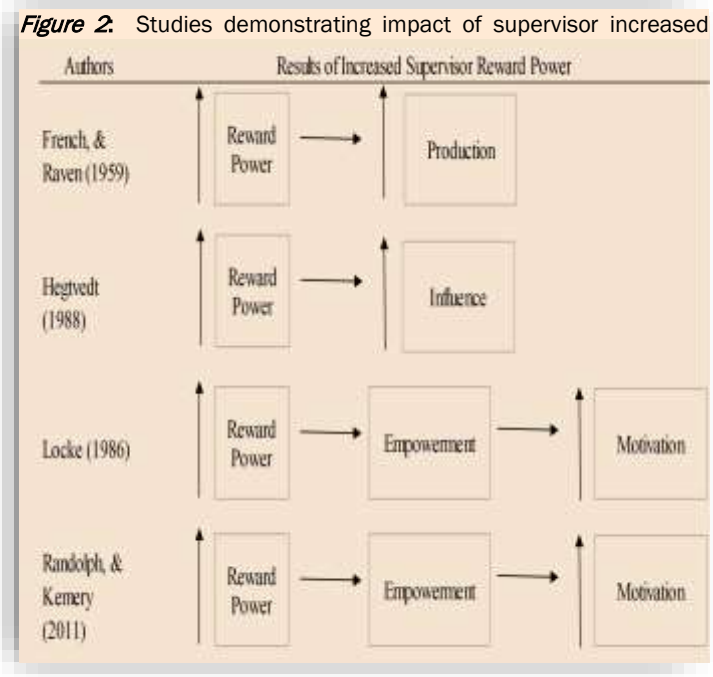
Examples of French and Raven's (1959) power dynamics in the marketplace

Type	Power Dynamic	Examples within the Marketplace
Formal	Legitimate Power	An example of legitimate power is a person within an organizational hierarchy with designated authority over others, including a manager with direct reports, a project manager with dotted-line or matrix supervision, or any person within the executive suite.
	Reward Power	Examples of using reward power include granting vacation, flexible, comp time, awarding merit increases or bonuses, promoting employees, issuing words of praise and/or encouragement, taking out someone to lunch, or otherwise publically recognizing (or privately); this power is often exhibited by a person in a position of authority.
	Coercive Power	Coercive power is removing or not granting vacation, flexible, or comp time, reducing pay or terminating employees, demoting employees, publically or privately reprimanding employees, intentionally being combative; someone exhibiting coercive power is often in a position of authority.
Informal	Expert Power	A person with expert power is the person called to fix an immediate specialized need; examples include inviting a representative from the Legal department when discussing vendor (or other external) contracts; contacting IT for technological issues, bringing in someone from Finance to forecast profitability on a potential new product/service. This power can be held at any level within the organization.
	Referent Power	A working professional with likability, carrying him or herself with charisma, confidence, and other characteristics that are attractive. This power can be held at any level within the organization.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

To describe and hypothesize the supervisor impact on EE motivation, two moderators are used analyze why the type of supervisor influence used results in enhanced or mitigated EE motivation: gender (primary) and LOC (secondary). There are two sets of hypotheses below for reward and coercive power. Additional hypotheses for each power dynamic are related to each of the moderating variables, respectively, beginning with reward power.

Figure 2: Studies demonstrating impact of supervisor increased



Research spanning six decades demonstrated the value of reward power in the workplace and its motivational effects on EEs, resulting in increased EE effort

(French & Raven, 1959; Hegtvedt, 1988; Locke, 1986; Randolph & Kemery, 2011), see *Figure 2*.

Supervisors using reward power are perceived as more influential by their EEs. Hegtvedt (1988) uncovered individuals (i.e., supervisors) were perceived as more powerful when withholding rewards. Thus, when supervisors attempted to motivate EEs (i.e., enhance effort) and demonstrated reward power, it was more influential than when coercive power was the primary means of influence. Therefore, when supervisors positively exhibit legitimate authority (i.e., reward incentives), it is expected that this type of influence will motivate EEs to increase their work effort.

Prior research (Hegtvedt, 1988; Randolph & Kemery, 2011) established that supervisors exhibiting reward power resulted in EE motivation. Supervisors providing EEs with rewards for achieving predetermined targets motivated EEs to increase their work effort. Therefore, reward power exhibited by direct supervisors will have a positive impact on EEs (Zigarmi, Roberts, & Randolph, 2015). Most EEs are motivated when supervisors influence with reward power, demonstrating a positive correlation between these two variables. Thus, the proposed hypothesis for reward power is as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Reward power positively relates to motivation.

If the supervisor using reward power is the same gender as the EE, the gender (dis)similarity in this dyadic relationship will not cause the EE's motivation to be enhanced or mitigated because of the type of power exhibited by the supervisor in this relationship. While previous research (Eagly et al., 1995) indicated a gender bias towards men in leadership roles, more recent research (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014) indicated overall meta-analysis results that "there is a nonsignificant gender difference in leadership effectiveness" (1140). Other researchers found gender roles to influence workplace expectations (Ergeneli, Ilsev, & Karapinar, 2009). To build upon existing research, this study seeks to determine why gender similarity between supervisors and EEs impacts EE motivation. Specifically, gender similarity enhances EE motivation and gender dissimilarity diminishes EE motivation. Therefore, the following is the second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Gender dissimilarity moderates reward power such that the relationship between reward power and motivation will be enhanced when dyads are gender similar and mitigated when gender dissimilar.

Regardless of the supervisor's gender using reward power, the EE's motivation is unlikely to change because of the EE's inherent form of motivation (i.e., LOC). Meaning, EEs with an iLOC have a high level of motivation not significantly impacted by external factors (Rotter, 1966). The supervisor's use of reward power will positively affect the EE's motivation or be neutralized, rather mitigated, because EEs with an iLOC are not likely to be influenced by external factors (Rotter, 1966) such as supervisor power. Scholars previously confirmed that supervisor power was a fundamental source of EE motivation and that reward power positively correlated to EEs who maintained an eLOC, and ironically, those EEs who maintained an iLOC demonstrated a reduced work effort (Elangovan & Xie, 1999). These researchers also validated EEs with an iLOC were more likely to exhibit a motivated work effort, detailed in *Table 3*.

Gender dissimilarity is an important external factor, and LOC moderates this phenomenon. Prior research confirmed moderating influences of LOC (Elangoven & Xie, 1999). If a

supervisor using reward power is not the same gender as the EE, the EE with an eLOC would be more likely to be influenced, i.e., the EE's motivation would be enhanced or mitigated

Table 3

Summary of Dyadic Power Relationships

Authors	Participants/Scope	Key Points
Elangovan, & Xie (1999)	165 business graduate students compared self-esteem and locus of control to perceived supervisor power	* Internal LoC: Increased stress levels when Supervisors exhibited legitimate and referent power * External LoC: Lower stress levels * Participants with low self-esteem: Direct relationship between legitimate power and internal LoC and EE work effort * Participants with high self-esteem: Weak relationship
Coelho, Cunha, & Souza Meirelles (2016)	Case study. Investigated power relationship between a consultant and hiring organization	* Concluded 3 types of client-consultant relationships (dependency, autonomy, and cooperation) * Each relationship type exhibited a balance of knowledge and power
Wisker, & Claesson (2013)	Conducted focused interviews, assessments and papers. Studied dyadic relationship between graduate students and supervisors	* Supervisor learning behavior determined by discipline/background and prior personal experience of being supervised * Backgrounds provided insight into managerial behaviors
Sheu (2014)	Empirical study with questionnaire. 3rd Party acted as power source between producer and retailer	* The greater the independence, the stronger the dyadic relationship
Nyaga, Lynch, Marshall, & Ambrose (2013)	Investigated power balance between buyers and suppliers	* Adaptive behavior has significant, positive impact on performance but no significant effect on collaborative behavior * Non-mediated power has weak impact on both collaborative and adaptive behaviors * Largest impact on operational performance: quality of relationships, reputations, and expertise
Olekalns, & Smith (2013)	Researched dyadic relationship between hiring organizations and resulting degree of value (claiming vs. creating)	* Those with legitimate power claimed value * Those in lower-powered position created power

because the EE is impacted by external factors (Rotter, 1966), such as gender. The supervisor's use of reward power will positively affect the EE's motivation (Zigarmi, Roberts, & Randolph, 2015). However, if EEs unfavorably receive gender dissimilarity, it will likely result in a more decreased motivation than if the reward power only had LOC as a moderating variable. The next hypothesis expects to corroborate the findings of Elangovan and Xie (1999), and Zigarmi, Roberts, and Randolph (2015) but incorporate the addition of SDT, and include gender as a second moderating variable in measuring EE effort. The dissimilarity in gender will not result in increased motivation because reward power does not impede upon the Sup-EE dyadic relationship, and the use of this power will likely increase motivation or keep it neutral. It will not mitigate EE motivation. Therefore, the third hypothesis is as follows:

> ***Hypothesis 3**: Employee LOC and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the relationship between reward power and motivation such that the enhancement effect from gender similarity will be insignificant for employees with an iLOC and significant for employees with an eLOC.*

Research on coercive power continues to evolve. For example, Teven (2006) found EEs negatively perceived supervisors who spoke in verbally aggressive manners. Five years later, Randolph and Kemery (2011) conducted research and suggested supervisors attempting to motivate EEs should not use coercive power. Also, note EEs did not feel empowered to take on more responsibility when being influenced by coercive power. Lastly, Zigarmi, Peyton, and Roberts (2015), and Randolph (2015) reiterated the notion that supervisors displaying coercive power are more likely to produce negative feelings within their EEs, and thus, their

EEs would be less likely to put forth greater work effort. They go as far as to recommend to supervisors not to use coercive influence upon their EEs. Based on existing literature suggesting coercive power caused a decrease in work effort, the proposed hypothesis for coercive power is as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Coercive power negatively relates to motivation.

Gender incivility exists when negative behaviors (e.g., condescension) between gender dissimilar dyads are present (Hutchinson & Eveline, 2010). Moreover, supervisors or anyone in an authoritative workplace position has the ability to influence EEs through power (Zigarmi, Peyton, & Roberts, 2015). Those using coercive power intend to trigger a particular result from the EE (Thacker & Ferris, 1991). Hence, the similarity in gender will not result in decreased motivation but the use of coercive power will likely decrease motivation. The degree of coercive power used will likely positively correlate to the decrease in the EE's motivation.

Additionally, gender dyads consisting of male supervisors were more likely to exhibit coercive behavior with female subordinates than female supervisors exhibiting coercive behavior to male subordinates (Uggen & Blackstone, 2004). Specifically, a negative correlation will exist between EE motivation and supervisor coercive power. Furthermore, if the gender dissimilarity is received unfavorably by the EE, it will likely result in further decreased motivation than just the supervisor using coercive power. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Gender (dis)similarity moderates coercive power such that the relationship between coercive power and motivation will be enhanced when dyads are gender dissimilar and mitigated when dyads are gender similar.

Coercive power directly influences EE motivation (Nesler, Quigley, Aguinis, Lee, & Tedeschi, 1999; Taucen, Tamasila, & Negru-Strauti, 2016). The type of power a supervisor exhibits has a direct effect on EE motivation (Zigarmi, Peyton, & Roberts, 2015). EEs who believe outcomes are attributed to their own efforts will be motivated in a different manner (i.e., motivation will be enhanced or mitigated) than those who believe outcomes are attributed to external sources (Rotter, 1966). It has been empirically determined that coercive power positively correlated to EEs who maintained an eLOC, and those EEs who maintained an iLOC demonstrated a reduced work effort (Elangovan & Xie, 1999). Prior research (French & Raven, 1959; Nesler, Quigley, Aguinis, Lee, & Tedeschi, 1999) concluded supervisors exhibiting coercive power resulted in increased EE motivation. Supervisors influencing with coercive power do motivate some EEs to increase work effort. Consequently, the use of this power dynamic was used to increase EE motivation.

In the case with coercive power, EEs who believe outcomes are attributed to their own efforts will be motivated in a different manner (i.e., motivation will be enhanced or mitigated) than those who believe outcomes are attributed to external sources (Rotter, 1966). It has been empirically determined coercive power positively correlated to EEs who maintained an eLOC, and those EEs who maintained an iLOC demonstrated a reduced work effort (Elangovan & Xie, 1999), however, gender was not taken into consideration. If the supervisor using coercive power is the same gender as the EE, the EE's motivation will not change because of the EE's eLOC. The supervisor's use of coercive power may negatively affect the EE's motivation. The degree of coercive power used will likely positively correlate to the decrease in the EE's motivation. EEs with high motivation (i.e., iLOC) are often not impacted by external factors, unless those external factors are severe in nature.

Therefore, LOC is a moderator of gender dissimilarity as a primary moderator. Gender dissimilarity is the external factor that stimulates the direct effect from power to effort. EEs with an iLOC are less dependent on this external factor (i.e., gender), whereas EEs with an eLOC are more dependent on this external factor. For example, the supervisor's use of coercive power will negatively affect the EE's motivation. This is because EEs with low motivation (i.e., an eLOC) are likely to be negatively influenced by external factors such as supervisor power. EEs with high motivation (i.e., iLOC) are often not impacted by external factors, unless those external factors are severe in nature. Based upon their responses to external factors, coercive power used by a supervisor would cause a stronger response by EEs with an iLOC than those with an eLOC, who would feel as though the result is outside of their influence (Elangovan and Xie, 1999). Thus, coercive power may potentially change the overall anticipated trajectory of the slope. EEs with high motivation (i.e., an iLOC) are not likely to be dramatically influenced by external factors such as supervisor power (Rotter, 1966). If the supervisor using coercive power is not the same gender as the EE, the EE's motivation is likely to change because the EE inherently has a low level of motivation that is significantly impacted by external factors. The supervisor's use of coercive power will negatively affect the EE's motivation; however, the dissimilarity in the supervisor's gender is additionally likely to decrease motivational outcomes because EEs with low motivation (i.e., an eLOC) are likely influenced by external factors (e.g., supervisor power and gender). Thus, coercive power may change the overall anticipated trajectory of the slope. *Table 4* summarizes each of the hypotheses presented.

Table 4

Summary of Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Supported/Not Supported
1	Reward power positively relates to motivation.	Supported
2	Gender dissimilarity moderates reward power such that the relationship between reward power and motivation will be enhanced when dyads are gender similar and mitigated when gender dissimilar.	Not Supported
3	Employee locus of control and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the relationship between reward power and motivation such that the enhancement effect from gender similarity will be insignificant for employees with an internal locus of control and significant for employees with an external locus of control.	Not Supported
4	Coercive power negatively relates to motivation.	Not Supported
5	Gender (dis)similarity moderates coercive power such that the relationship between coercive power and motivation will be enhanced when dyads are gender dissimilar and mitigated when dyads are gender similar.	Not Supported
6	Employee locus of control and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the relationship between coercive power and motivation such that the enhancement effect from gender dissimilarity will be significant for employees with an external locus of control and neutralized with employees with an internal locus of control.	Not Supported

***Hypothesis 6**: Employee LOC and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the relationship between coercive power and motivation such that the enhancement effect from gender dissimilarity will be significant for EEs with an eLOC and neutralized with EEs with an iLOC.*

Methodology

Participant Sample

Data was collected using the Qualtrics' panel service, wherein 155 full-time working professionals participated in this study. The study consisted of two different surveys at two different time points, with 2-weeks between survey distributions. A quality control question was included in both surveys. After the first distribution of surveys, 315 surveys were collected and 311 of those completed surveys passed the quality control measures (98.7%). After the second distribution of surveys, 155 surveys passed the quality control measures (49% of original participant data set). The demographics of this participant pool included 65 males (41.9%) and 90 females (58.1%), ranging in age from 20 to 71 years old (mean age = 42.5 years old). Each participant identified himself or herself with the following ethnicities: 84% Caucasian, 8% of the participants indicated two or more races, 5% Asian, and 3% Hispanic/Latino. Participant education distributed as follows: 17 (11%) participants graduated from high school, 31 (20%) had some college, 28 (18%) earned a 2-year degree, 54 (35%) earned 4-year degree, and 25 (16%) had post-graduate education. Participant salaries ranged from minimum wage to an annual salary of $240,000, with a mean average salary of $54,175.

Participants were working professionals self-identified as *employees*, working under a direct manager and not self-employed. While many EEs (44.4%) indicated they worked for their current supervisors for 1-3 years, the mean average was 4.1 years (*SD* = 4.3). Their direct supervisor's gender was evenly divided: 77 males (49.7%) and 78 (50.3%) females. Participants anticipated their supervisor's age ranged from 25 to 85 years old, with a mean age of 47.6 years old. Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained for this study.

Procedure

A question to verify that participants were paying attention to the survey was inserted in both Time 1 and Time 2, reading *Please select "Strongly Disagree" to confirm that you are not randomly responding.* Both surveys contained direct reminder statements of confidentiality reading *REMINDER: Your answers are 100% confidential. Please answer honestly.* Throughout the survey process, incomplete surveys were discarded by Qualtrics. Upon survey completion, Qualtrics provided a data file to be imported and analyzed in SPSS.

Measures

Within the study, a 5-point Likert scale was employed (i.e., score of *5* indicated the participant *strongly agreed* down to a score of *1 strongly disagreed* with the statement). In total, there were two surveys measuring reward power, coercive power, EE motivation (i.e., effort), and LOC in this study. EEs self-rated the first moderating variable, gender. All participants completed demographic information, including participant, age, ethnicity, current salary, highest level of degree, job type, tenure with organization and supervisor. Surveys for EEs were given at two different time increments to mitigate causality and bias concerns.

Table 5

Reliability statistics: Cronbach's alpha for reward power

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.88	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item - Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My supervisor can... increase my pay level.	8.79	13.88	0.80	0.82
My supervisor can... influence my getting a pay raise.	8.47	13.50	0.79	0.82
My supervisor can... provide me with special benefits.	8.97	16.64	0.63	0.88
My supervisor can... influence my getting a promotion.	8.49	14.64	0.73	0.84

Table 6

Reliability statistics: Cronbach's alpha for coercive power

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.91	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item - Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My supervisor can... give me undesirable job assignments.	8.52	14.58	0.68	0.93
My supervisor can... make my work difficult for me.	8.66	13.21	0.85	0.87
My supervisor can... make things unpleasant here.	8.65	13.03	0.85	0.87
My supervisor can... make being at work distasteful.	8.74	13.39	0.83	0.88

Demographics were obtained at Time 1. Also at Time 1, internal consistencies for reward power (α = 0.88) (*Table 5*) and coercive power (α = 0.91) (*Table 6)* using Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) 16-item scales were obtained. At Time 2, EEs completed Brown and Leigh's (1996) EE effort scale (α =0.89) (*Table 7*). ILOC (α = 0.77) (*Table 8*) was measured using Spector's (1988) 16-question Likert scale. Results indicated whether the participant had an iLOC (accountable for his/her own results) with a high value or an eLOC (believed fate or chance was responsible for results) with a low value.

Table 7

Reliability statistics: Cronbach's alpha for employee effort

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.89	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item - Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Using the scale... When there's a job to be done, I devote all my energy to	16.23	7.45	0.72	0.87
Using the scale... When I do work, I do so with intensity.	16.34	7.13	0.72	0.87
Using the scale... I work at my full capacity in all of my job duties.	16.43	8.51	0.74	0.86
Using the scale... I can strive as hard as I can to be successful at my work.	16.10	7.13	0.72	0.87
Using the scale... When I work, I really exert myself to the fullest.	16.40	6.51	0.77	0.85

Results

Descriptive Statistics

These descriptive statistics are intended to summarize the data set within this study of 155 participants reporting to a direct supervisor. As previously described, the Likert scale used within each of the questionnaires had a minimum value of 1.0 and a maximum value of 5.0. The mean value for reward power scored was 2.89 (*SD* = 1.25), while the mean value scored for coercive power was 2.88 (*SD* = 1.21). The mean value scored for motivation (i.e., effort) was 4.07 (*SD* = 0.65), and lastly, the mean value scored for LOC was 3.19 (*SD* = 0.51) *(Table 9).*

Table 8

Reliability statistics: Cronbach's alpha for locus of control

Reliability statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.77	16

	Item-Total Statistics			
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item - Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Using the scale... A job is what you make of it.	48.17	59.54	0.25	0.77
Using the scale... On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.	48.35	57.59	0.40	0.76
Using the scale... If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.	48.35	55.14	0.55	0.74
Using the scale... If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.	48.34	64.68	0.05	0.78
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.*	47.46	59.99	0.38	0.76
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.*	47.45	40.48	0.39	0.76
Using the scale... Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.	48.16	58.24	0.31	0.76
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places.*	47.30	58.84	0.42	0.75
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.*	47.45	59.57	0.42	0.76
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.*	47.75	60.07	0.28	0.77
Using the scale... Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.	48.26	55.64	0.49	0.75
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.*	47.63	59.11	0.41	0.76
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.*	47.15	60.13	0.44	0.76
Using the scale... People who generally perform their jobs well get rewarded for it.	48.42	58.18	0.40	0.76
Using the scale... Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.	48.57	61.56	0.26	0.77
Please answer the following questions using the provided scale. - The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.*	47.22	58.58	0.45	0.75

Notes. *=reversed coded.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reward Power	1.00	5.00	2.89	1.25
Coercive Power	1.00	5.00	2.88	1.21
Employee Effort	1.20	5.00	4.07	0.65
Locus of Control	1.38	4.81	3.19	0.51
Gender Similarity	0.00	1.00	0.68	0.47
Employee Age	20.00	71.00	42.48	13.08
Gender	1.00	2.00	1.58	0.50
Education	1.00	5.00	3.25	1.26
Organization Tenure	0.08	39.00	8.53	8.41
Supervisor Tenure	0.08	24.00	4.08	4.32
Salary	609.92	240,000.00	54,175.33	33739.72
Supervisor Gender	1.00	2.00	1.50	0.50
Supervisor Age	25.00	85.00	47.61	10.52

Notes. Male = 1, Female = 2. Education is 1 = high school, 2 = some college, 3 = 2-year degree, 4 = 4-year degree, 5 = post-graduate. Gender Similarity = 1, Gender Difference = 0.

Pearson Correlation

Significant Pearson correlations were found at both the 0.01 level (2-tailed) and at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). First, correlations for both reward power and coercive power were statistically significant ($r = 0.40$, $p \leq 0.01$). Additionally, EE effort and LOC were strongly correlated with reward power ($r = 0.24$, $p \leq 0.01$ and $r = 0.27$, $p \leq 0.01$), respectively. Gender similarity demonstrated a negative correlation with reward power (r=-0.18, $p \leq 0.5$). The coercive power and EE effort correlation ($r = 0.16$) indicated a positive relationship *(Table 10).*

Table 10

Correlations among reward power, coercive power, employee effort, and locus of control variables

	Reward Power	Coercive Power	Employee Effort	Locus of Control	Gender Similiarity	Employee Age	Supervisor Gender
Reward Power							
Coercive Power	0.40						
Employee Effort	0.24	0.16					
Locus of Control	0.27	0.01	0.33				
Gender Similiarity	-0.18	-0.07	-0.06	-0.10			
Employee Age	-0.06	0.04	0.10	0.04	-0.06		
Supervisor Gender	0.05	0.01	0.17	0.09	-0.06	-0.06	
Supervisor Tenure	-0.10	-0.03	0.04	-0.02	0.10	0.54	-0.18

Analytical Approach

To test the direct effect of reward power *(Hypothesis 1)* and coercive power *(Hypothesis 4)* on EE effort, hierarchical regression analysis was used. To test the moderating effect of gender

(dis)similarity (*Hypotheses 2* and *5*) and the simultaneous moderation of gender dis(similarity) and LOC (*Hypotheses 3* and *6*), Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes' (2007) PROCESS macro was used, which gives a statistical significance test of the effect of the independent variable (reward or coercive power) at various levels of the moderators. *Table 11* demonstrates the regression model summary for reward power.

Table 11

Regression model summary for reward power

Model	R	R^2	R^2_{adj}	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.17[a]	0.03	0.02	0.64	0.03	2.15	2	151	0.12
2	0.32[b]	0.10	0.08	0.62	0.07	12.37	1	150	0.00

DV: Employee effort

Notes. Tenure with supervisor, employee age, and reward power; df = degrees of freedom; *R* = multiple correlation; R^2 = squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj} = Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation

Hypothesis 1 suggested reward power was positively related to EE effort. The findings illustrated that relationship between reward power and EE effort was positive and statistically significant ($b = 0.14$, $p < .001$), lending support for *Hypothesis 1 (Table 12). Hypothesis 2* suggests that gender (dis)similarity moderates the effect of reward power on EE effort. *Hypothesis 2* was not supported, as the interaction between gender (dis)similarity and reward power on EE effort was not statistically significant ($b = 0.03$, $p = 0.77$) *(Table 15). Hypothesis 3* suggests that gender (dis)similarity moderates the effect of reward power on EE effort. *Hypothesis 3* was not supported, as the interaction between gender (dis)similarity and reward power on EE effort was not statistically significant ($b = 0.06$, $p = 0.68$).

Table 12

Regression coefficients for reward power and employee effort

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	1	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.84	0.18		21.62	0.00		
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.80	0.42	0.88	1.14
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.13	1.51	0.13	0.88	1.14
2	(Constant)	3.39	0.21		15.39	0.00		
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.99	0.33	0.88	1.14
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.15	1.79	0.08	0.88	1.14
	Reward Power	0.14	0.04	0.27	3.52	0.001	0.99	1.01

a. Dependent variable: Employee effort

Notes. *Unstandardized B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; *Sig.* = *p* value; *VIF* = variance inflation factor.

Table 13 demonstrates the regression model summary for coercive power. *Hypothesis 4*

Table 13

Regression model summary for coercive power

Model	R	R^2	R^2_{adj}	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Supervisor Tenure, Age	.17[a]	0.03	0.02	0.64	0.03	2.15	2	151	0.12
Coercive power	0.23[b]	0.05	0.04	0.64	0.03	4.09	1	150	0.05

DV: Employee effort

Notes. Age = employee age; *R*=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; df= degrees of freedom.

Table 14

Regression coefficients for coercive power and employee effort

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.84	0.18		21.62	0.00		
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.80	0.42	0.88	1.14
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.13	1.51	0.13	0.88	1.14
2	(Constant)	3.61	0.21		17.09	0.00		
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.74	0.46	0.88	1.14
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.13	1.53	0.13	0.88	1.14
	Coercive Power	0.09	0.04	0.16	2.02	0.05	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent variable: Employee effort

Notes. *Unstandardized B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; *Sig.* = *p* value; *VIF* = variance inflation factor.

Table 15

The moderating effect of gender similarity on the relationship between reward power and employee effort

Model 1

Y: Employee Effort
X: Reward Power
W: Gender Similarity
Covariates: Age, Supervisor Tenure

R	R^2	P
0.32	0.10	0.01

Model

	coeff	se	p
Constant	3.81	0.17	0.00
Reward Power	0.14	0.04	0.00
Gender Similarity	-0.04	0.11	0.72
Reward Power x Gender Similarity	0.03	0.09	0.77
Age	0.00	0.00	0.34
Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.08

Notes. *R* = multiple correlation; R^2 = squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj} = Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff* = correlation coefficient, *se* = standard error.
Gender Similarity = 1, Gender Difference = 0.

suggested that coercive power negatively related to EE motivation. Interestingly, the results suggest the opposite, as coercive power was positively related to EE effort ($b = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, *Hypothesis 4* was not supported (*Table 14*). *Hypothesis 5* suggests that LOC and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the effect of reward power on EE effort. *Hypothesis 5* was not supported, as the interaction between LOC, gender (dis)similarity, and reward power on EE effort was not statistically significant ($b = -0.09$, $p = 0.29$) (*Table 15*). *Hypothesis 6*

Table 16

The moderating effect of gender similarity on the relationship between coercive power and employee eff

Model 1

Y:	Employee Effort
X:	Coercive Power
W:	Gender Similarity
Covariates:	Age, Supervisor Tenure

R	R^2	P
0.25	0.06	0.08

Model

	coeff	se	p
Constant	3.87	0.18	0.00
Coercive Power	0.08	0.04	0.08
Gender Similarity	-0.08	0.11	0.45
Coercive Power x Gender Similarity	-0.09	0.09	0.29
Age	0.00	0.00	0.55
Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.08

Notes. R = multiple correlation; R^2 = squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj} = Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff* = correlation coefficient; *se* = standard error. Gender Similarity = 1, Gender Difference = 0.

suggests that LOC and gender (dis)similarity simultaneously moderate the effect of coercive

Table 17

The moderating effect of locus of control and gender similarity on the relationship between reward power and employee effort

Model 3

Y:	Employee Effort
X:	Reward Power
W:	Gender Similarity
Z:	Locus of Control
Covariates:	Age, Supervisor Tenure

R	R^2	P
0.40	0.16	0.00

Model

	coeff	se	p
Constant	3.83	0.17	0.00
Reward Power	0.10	0.04	0.02
Gender Similarity	-0.01	0.11	0.92
Reward Power x Gender Similarity	-0.02	0.09	0.79
Locus of Control	0.36	0.11	0.00
Reward Power x Locus of Control	-0.05	0.08	0.55
Gender Similarity x Locus of Control	0.09	0.22	0.70
Reward Power x Gender Similarity x Locus of Control	0.06	0.15	0.68
Age	0.00	0.00	0.31
Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.22

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

power on EE effort. *Tables 16* and *17* demonstrate the moderating effect of gender similarity on the relationship between employee effort and both reward and coercive power. *Hypothesis 6* was not supported, as the interaction between LOC, gender (dis)similarity, and coercive

Table 18

The moderating effect of locus of control and gender similarity on the relationship between coercive power and employee effort

Model 3

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Coercive Power			
W:	Gender Similarity			
Z:	Locus of Control			
Covariates:	Age, Supervisor Tenure	R	R^2	P
		0.42	0.17	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	3.88	0.17	0.00
	Coercive Power	0.08	0.04	0.07
	Gender Similarity	-0.04	0.11	0.73
	Coercive Power x Gender Similarity	-0.10	0.08	0.26
	Locus of Control	0.45	0.11	0.00
	Coercive Power x Locus of Control	-0.07	0.07	0.33
	Gender Similarity x Locus of Control	0.25	0.20	0.22
	Coercive Power x Gender Similarity x Locus of Control	-0.17	0.14	0.21
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.48
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.17

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

power on EE effort was not statistically significant (b = -0.17, p = 0.21) *(Table 18).*

Supplemental Analysis

Several supplemental analyses were conducted to further investigate the general research question. First, supervisor gender (male vs. female) was investigated, instead of supervisor-subordinate gender difference. Also included was EE gender as a control in the supplemental analysis. As illustrated in *Tables 19* and *20*, the interaction between reward power and supervisor gender on EE effort (b = -0.07, p = 0.41) and between coercive power and supervisor gender on EE effort (b = 0.11, p = 0.21) was not statistically significant. Second, aligning with the original hypotheses, the simultaneous moderation of iLOC and supervisor gender was investigated. Again, EE gender was identified as a control. As illustrated in *Tables 21* and *22*, the interaction between reward power, supervisor gender, and iLOC on EE effort was not statistically significant (b = 0.28, p = 0.11) and between coercive power, supervisor gender, and iLOC on EE effort (b = -0.19, p = 0.19) was not statistically significant. Interestingly, the pattern of results for the original hypotheses and the supplemental hypotheses illustrate that iLOC has a strong effect on EE effort. This is not surprising, as the correlation between the two variables is b = 0.25 (p = 0.01). This may suggest that LOC is overpowering the influence of supervisor reward power and coercive power. Thus, another simulation was run using gender differences and supervisor gender as moderating variables controlling for iLOC. As illustrated in *Tables 23* and *24*, the interaction between reward power and supervisor gender on EE effort was not statistically significant (b = -0.005, p = 0.41). However, the interaction between coercive power and supervisor gender on EE effort (b =

0.14, p = 0.09) was statistically significant, albeit at a reduced statistically significant threshold.

Table 19
Supervisor gender as moderator of reward power

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Reward Power			
W:	Supervisor Gender			
Covariates:	Age, Supervisor Tenure			
		R	R^2	P
		0.36	0.13	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	3.72	0.17	0.00
	Reward Power	0.14	0.04	0.00
	Supervisor Gender	0.21	0.10	0.04
	Reward Power x Supervisor Gender	-0.07	0.08	0.41
	Age	0.01	0.00	0.18
	Supervisor Tenure	0.03	0.02	0.04

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

Table 20
Supervisor gender as moderator of coercive power

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Coercive Power			
W:	Supervisor Gender			
Covariates:	Age, Supervisor Tenure			
		R	R^2	P
		0.29	0.09	0.02
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	3.79	0.18	0.00
	Coercive Power	0.08	0.04	0.08
	Supervisor Gender	0.20	0.10	0.05
	Coercive Power x Supervisor Gender	0.11	0.09	0.21
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.28
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.10

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

Table 21

Supervisor gender and locus of control as moderators of reward power

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Reward Power			
W:	Supervisor Gender			
Z:	Locus of Control			
Covariates:	Employee Age, Supervisor Tenure, Employee Gender	R	R^2	P
		0.45	0.20	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	3.80	0.17	0.00
	Reward Power	0.11	0.04	0.01
	Supervisor Gender	0.17	0.11	0.11
	Reward Power x Supervisor Gender	-0.21	0.09	0.76
	Locus of Control	0.42	0.12	0.00
	Reward Power x Locus of Control	-0.12	0.09	0.17
	Supervisor Gender x Locus of Control	-0.22	0.23	0.34
	Reward Power x Supervisor Gender x Locus of Control	0.28	0.17	0.11
	Age	0.01	0.00	0.19
	Supervisor Tenure	0.02	0.01	0.14

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

Table 22

Supervisor gender and locus of control as moderators of coercive power

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Coercive Power			
W:	Supervisor Gender			
Z:	Locus of Control			
Covariates:	Employee Age, Supervisor Tenure	R	R^2	P
		0.45	0.20	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	3.78	0.17	0.00
	Coercive Power	0.06	0.04	0.16
	Supervisor Gender	0.25	0.10	0.01
	Coercive Power x Supervisor Gender	0.16	0.08	0.06
	Locus of Control	0.46	0.10	0.00
	Coercive Power x Locus of Control	0.01	0.07	0.93
	Supervisor Gender x Locus of Control	-0.05	0.20	0.79
	Coercive Power x Supervisor Gender x Locus of Control	-0.19	0.14	0.19
	Age	0.01	0.00	0.20
	Supervisor Tenure	0.01	0.01	0.28

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

Table 23

Supervisor gender as moderator of reward power, controlling for locus of control

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Reward Power			
W:	Gender Similarity			
Covariates:	Employee Age, Supervisor Tenure, Locus of Control			
		R	R^2	P
		0.36	0.16	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	2.84	0.17	0.00
	Reward Power	0.10	0.04	0.00
	Gender Similarity	-0.01	0.10	0.04
	Reward Power x Gender Similarity	0.00	0.08	0.41
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.18
	Supervisor Tenure	0.03	0.02	0.04
	Locus of Control	0.31	0.10	0.00

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

The slope differences were evaluated for the effect of coercive power on EE effort (controlling for age, tenure with supervisor, and LOC) for male versus female supervisors (*Tables 23* and *24*). The results illustrated that the positive effect of coercive power on EE effort was not

Table 24

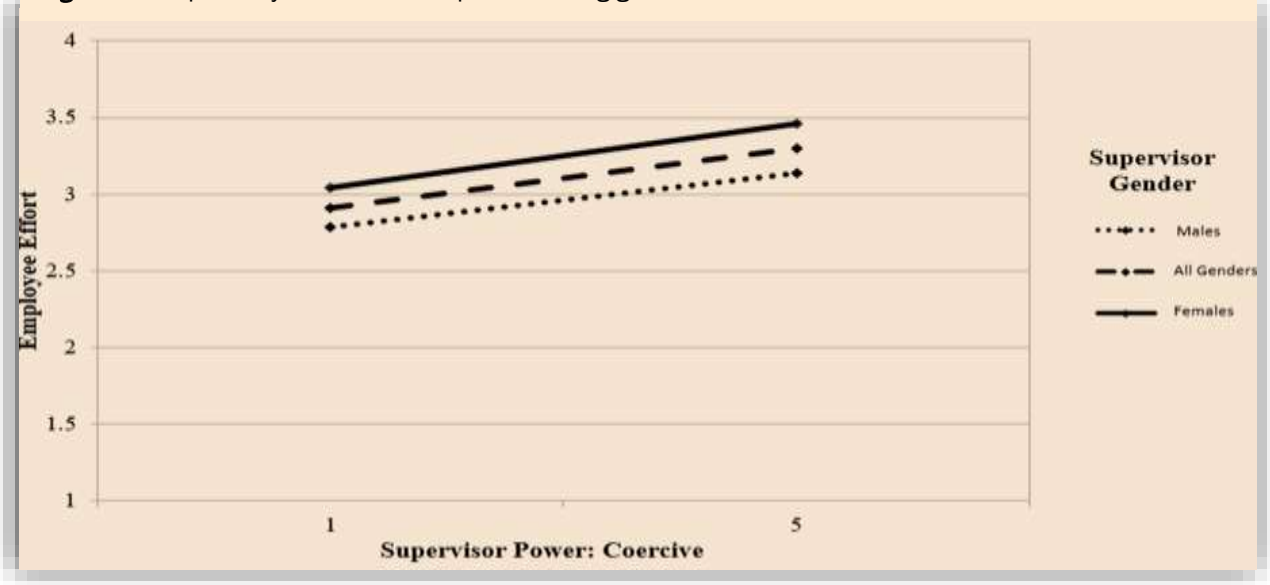
Supervisor gender as moderator of coercive power, controlling for locus of control

Y:	Employee Effort			
X:	Coercive Power			
W:	Supervisor Gender			
Covariates:	Employee Age, Supervisor Tenure, Locus of Control			
		R	R^2	P
		0.44	0.19	0.00
Model				
		coeff	se	p
	Constant	2.46	0.35	0.00
	Coercive Power	0.07	0.04	0.08
	Supervisor Gender	0.24	0.10	0.02
	Coercive Power x Supervisor Gender	0.14	0.08	0.09
	Age	0.00	0.00	0.23
	Supervisor Tenure	0.01	0.01	0.22
	Locus of Control	0.42	0.10	0.00

Notes. R=multiple correlation; R^2=squared multiple correlation; R^2_{adj}= Adjusted R Squared multiple correlation; *coeff*=correlation coefficient; *se*=standard error.

significant for male supervisors (b = -0.03, p < 0.01), which demonstrated the flattest line (least slope with slight upward trajectory) among the three lines compared (representing males, females, and all genders). However, there was positive and statistically significant results for female supervisors (b = 0.14, p = 0.09) demonstrating the strongest upward slope *(Figure 3).*

Figure 3: Slope analysis for coercive power among genders



Discussion

This study pursued working professionals to determine whether their motivation was impacted by the type of power their direct supervisor exhibited. Additionally, it sought to determine whether or not dyadic gender differences and LOC impacted EE motivation. Results proved only *Hypothesis 1* was supported — a positive relationship existed between supervisors exhibiting reward power and EE motivation. Ironically, *Hypothesis 4* was not supported but statistically significant in the opposite direction, indicating a positive relationship between supervisors exercising coercive power and EE motivation. Furthermore, the supplemental analysis suggested a positive relationship between female supervisors who displayed coercive power and increased EE effort. A summary of theoretical implications, practical implications, limitations, and future research is discussed below.

Theoretical Implications

Individuals in supervisory roles have a responsibility to their EEs, organizations, cultures, and society when demonstrating any form of power. When these supervisors know and understand which of the five power dynamics to exemplify in a given scenario (assuming they possess the ability to exemplify more than one dynamic), they have the opportunity to positively enhance the Sup-EE relationship and positively motivate the EE.

Although coercive power encompasses a negative connotation, there is a positive relationship between coercive supervisor power and EE effort. Coercive power can be a result of EE behavioral challenges. A supervisor may naturally be rewarding and create a pleasant work environment, but to be fair and just, the supervisor may have to act coercively as a reaction

to particular EE behavior. For example, the supervisor may implement strict time standards for specific EEs with absentee issues. The other EEs appreciate the fair nature of the environment, even though the supervisor is understandably obliged to exhibit coercive power to particular EEs. However, for male supervisors, this does not always result in motivated EEs.

The stereotypes for females in the workplace include being submissive, cooperative, friendly (McClelland, 1975), nonaggressive, sympathetic, and reliant on others (O'Brien, Robinson, and Taylor, 1986) as well as treasuring interpersonal relationships and communication in the workplace (Kovach, 1987). However, considering the historical nature of what female supervisors in the workplace had to overcome, and assuming that stereotypes were somewhat true, female supervisors may have used coercive power in an attempt to maintain the respect of their subordinates. This is important, as prior research suggested that supervisors attempting to motivate EEs should not use coercive power (Randolph & Kemery, 2011).

Historically, studies demonstrated differences in how power was exhibited as a result of gender. Thus, societal expectations create an inherent struggle for female supervisors. In 2017, the #MeToo movement once again opened the door to conversations on gender equality, including in the workplace (Kovach, 2020). For example, Horner (1968) suggested that an opportunity cost existed for female leaders between power and femininity, whereas women who sought power would have to forego femininity and expect some degree of social rejection. These female leaders who continued to remain in leadership roles despite socially adverse consequences may have been a motivating factor for EEs, regardless of the type of influence used by female supervisors (Forbes, 2019). In other words, EEs were more motivated because they had female supervisors who, while having to be successful in their supervisory role, had to defeat societal stereotypes. Their EEs were able to see first-hand what female supervisors had to overcome to obtain their position within the organization and be successful.

Furthermore, McClelland's (1975) study on gender power differences revealed gender played a major role in the manner gender expressed power as a direct result of cultural norms. He argued that women maintained a high need for power, but often submitted to society's gender role expectation as a result. Because women continued to operate within the workplace in a disadvantaged position, although equally qualified, female supervisors may have felt the need to express power (i.e., behavior) differently to increase EE effort. If coercive power was exhibited, EEs would be more likely to increase effort because they knew female supervisors were motivated to be successful and take necessary actions to prove their worth (Mainiero, 1994).

Two decades later, Hegtvedt (1988) studied power specific to different genders as related to "stereotypical expectations" (p. 144). Results studying positional power, outcome equity, and status congruence indicated no differences in gender dissimilar dyads between EEs and supervisors. However, the idea of developing and initiating such a thorough examination further uncovered the ongoing question about gender and power in the workplace. To further support this argument, Kovach (1987) concluded that "women in the workplace have different problems than do men; many are still trying to cope with their traditional roles as housewives along with their roles as workers" (p. 61). Druskat (1994) studied how traditionally masculine organizations (e.g., the Roman Catholic Church) did not present work environments that promoted the transformational leadership styles of females to thrive. She surveyed nearly

6,400 subordinates in nontraditional circumstances who rated female supervisors as displaying considerably more transformational leadership traits than males. As time passed, Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2002) further examined gender and leadership; specifically, they studied whether male leadership was more effective than female leadership. They concluded that gender was not the determining factor of supervisory effectivity, but that social standards were the driving factor for the implication that males are more effective leaders. Most recently, Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of 95 studies concerning gender and leadership effectiveness, finding no differentiating leadership effectiveness between female or male supervisors, although self-ratings among these leaders revealed male supervisors rated themselves substantially higher than females. Ironically, further analysis (including other variables) exposed that female supervisors were "significantly more effective than men" (p. 1129). Similar to this study, overall results showed no significant difference between female or male supervisors exhibiting power. However, upon further examination, female supervisors demonstrated EE motivation through coercive influence.

Current literature continues to recount a difference in the perception of female leaders from a greater cultural or societal perspective, rather than the actual reported results directly from EEs. This study also found no significant difference between EEs and the gender of the supervisor exhibiting reward power. When evaluating supervisor gender and coercive power, the difference recognized was that female supervisors exhibiting coercive power were more likely to motivate EEs than male supervisors. This study further contributes to the existing body of knowledge concerning EEs' motivation as a direct effect of supervisor gender. Additionally, it introduces a specific type of power that is not traditionally associated with female characteristics, particularly in supervisory roles.

Practical Implications

This study concluded that when reward power or coercive power was exhibited by a direct supervisor over an EE, the EE was motivated. As previously discussed, EEs were more likely to enjoy working for a supervisor who exhibited reward power rather than coercive power. However, supervisors may not be concerned with their likability, knowing either influence (reward or coercive) would result in EE motivation. Results showed (a) both reward power and coercive power lead to increased effort, and (b) reward power does not have a downside. Coercive power does have a downside (e.g., decreased job satisfaction (Teven, 2006)). Therefore, organizations should give managers resources that allow them to reward as opposed to punish. Although managers may be getting the necessary effort to achieve objectives, it may have detrimental, long-term implications.

Ironically, when further analyzing coercive power, study results demonstrated a relationship between coercive power and the gender of the EE's immediate supervisor. For male supervisors, coercive power did not lead to increased EE motivation. This means that when male supervisors withhold rewards, for example, EEs are no more motivated; male supervisors who favor using coercive power should use caution. This study found that coercive power used by male supervisors does not increase EE effort. In contrast, female supervisors exhibiting coercive power positively related to EE effort, suggesting female supervisors who exercise coercive power by these same examples, increase EE effort.

Limitations and Future Research

There were a number of limitations within this study. First, all responses were based from an EE perspective, whereas a more comprehensive examination would include the direct pairing of Sup-EE dyads and include supervisor responses. As derived from the demographic portion of the survey, these EE participants have diverse backgrounds (e.g., age, work experience, education levels), all factors that contribute to self-perception. EEs should self-report effort because they know the source of their own motivation best. However, they are limited to their own perception of themselves and therefore, present one side of the assessment.

Future research comprised of both Sup-EE dyads would continue to benefit workplace conditions and EE output. Specifically including participants with direct Sup-EE reporting relationships. Particular focus could examine an EE's LOC and perception of power (Anderson, John, & Keltner, 2012). Perception of power research would provide insight and perspective 1) for supervisors to understand how they are perceived in the workplace, and 2) how subordinates view supervisor influence. It could also examine whether power distance orientation influences Sup-EE relationships. Lastly, Anderson et. al (2012) suggested future research identifying an EE's LOC, as related to the supervisor's power. Determining the subordinate's LOC and pairing it with particular types of power in additional research could further define EE motivational factors in the workplace and represent a complete dyadic relationship.

A second limitation was that surveys were distributed in two different time segments over the course of a two-week time period. While this method mitigated concerns and causality, it was not a longitudinal study tracking EE motivation or EE-Sup relationships over a significant period of time. A longitudinal study would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the EE-Sup dynamic and highlight different relationship milestones and outcomes.

A third limitation is that participants were limited to those registered within the Qualtrics panel service. These participants met the criteria for the study and were paid a nominal fee. Participants were full-time working professionals reporting to a direct supervisor. However, they may not have been fully representative of the working population. This led to a fourth limitation. All participants in this survey were categorized as EEs, whereas further research and analysis could likely demonstrate where their leader is positioned within the organizational hierarchy. Perhaps different levels of the hierarchy have less (or more) control on the degree to which they are capable of engaging in reward and/or coercive power. Future research categorizing these levels of hierarchy may provide additional insight into the Sup-EE relationship.

The fifth limitation was also a strength within the study. Because of the strong diversity within the participant group, only age and gender similarity were studied. Future research could include focused demographics. Sheu's (2014) research on workplace collaboration between multiple power sources, indicated that future research should include young professionals in the workforce. Further examination of different generations within the workforce could also prove advantageous in understanding EE-Sup relationships. In parallel to examining age, examining measurements such as career paths and/or tenure could alter the degree of EE motivation.

The last limitation is that this study focused on only two of French and Raven's (1959) five power dynamics. To present a more thorough analysis on power, French and Raven's (1959)

other three power dynamics should be investigated. Therefore, future research should include supervisors exhibiting expertise, referent, and legitimate influence on EEs to determine whether motivation will increase or decrease.

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