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GENDER BASED PERFORMANCE INDICATIONS DURING THE ECONOMIC CRISES AS PERCEIVED BY JUNIOR LEVEL EMPLOYEES

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THESIS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

ADVISOR
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İstanbul, April 2015

PREFACE

After 20 years of active working life, It was a bless to be a student again, in Okan University. At the end of this chapter of my life, now is the time to show my gratitude to certain people that make this chapter possible.

My thesis Coordinator, Dr. Ezgi Yıldırım Saatçi, to me, you are a source of inspiration and of course a very good friend. Thank you for all your support, motivation and understanding. My co-reader Burcu Çal, thank you for all of your efforts and your positive attitude against every obstacle. Knowing you all is the biggest chance of my life.

My loving husband Sinan and my precious daughter Yasemin, none of this would be possible without you. You are both incredible people. And I am honored to be your wife and mother. Without your support, it will be impossible to fulfill this dream. My mother Füsun and my sister Bahar, you always believed in me and stood by me. For this, I will always be thankful. And I dedicate this work for my father Bulent Dikman, I am sure, he would be so happy and proud if he had the chance to see all this, I know he is with me all the time.

In hope for a more just-society with equal opportunities for both females and males, I hope you will become inspired by this master thesis as much as I was writing it.

Emine Banu Çelebi

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ABSTRACT

GENDER BASED PERFORMANCE INDICATIONS DURING THE ECONOMIC CRISES AS PERCEIVED BY JUNIOR LEVEL EMPLOYEES

This paper investigates the role of women managers versus male associates' leading performances during the economic crises faced by the organizations through the lenses of junior level employees' perception within an integrative approach of organizational theories of leadership, gender studies and crisis management. In accordance, the research question of "Do the junior level employees perceive women to be the "better leaders" in times of crisis and men to be the "better leaders" in times of tranquility? is addressed and two hypothesis are tested to find out this relationship on the axis of favorably evaluation and recommendation for leadership positions.

By the end of the 19th century, research on leadership theories revived and a variety of approaches such as the trait, behavioral and the contingency started to form. From these approaches, the transformational and the charismatic leadership were developed. These theories shared the idea that an appealing and commonly shared vision is a leader's most important attribute (Strange and Mumford, 2002) and that this vision becomes even more important in a crisis situation (Berson et al., 2001). Furthermore, there is general agreement among theorists that charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge when a company's performance is in a state of crisis (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Yukl, 1998).

Dimension of gender differences is also included within the domain of leadership in an effort to differentiate leader form others. Although some theorists found no significant differences in the leadership styles of men and women (e.g., van Engen et al., 2001,) and disregarded the gender stereotypes other theorists like Loden (1985) argued that men have a more masculine, agentic leadership style (with traits such as competitiveness, hierarchy and power), in contrast to women who prefer a more feminine, communal leadership style (with traits such as cooperation, equality and support).

Since the end of the 20th century, the research on the gender differences literature mainly concentrated around the question of why women are not able to make it to the top with "glass ceiling" phenomenon. Many researchers describe glass ceiling as the actuality that women and minorities do get hired by firms dominated by Caucasian males but do not get promoted as fast as the Caucasian males, and when they have almost reached the top they are passed over for promotion (e.g., Arfken et al., 2004; Maume, 2004; Ridgeway, 2001).

In 2004, Ryan and Haslam went further and introduced the "glass cliff phenomenon". According to Ryan and Haslam (2007), this phenomenon explains that more and more women are breaking through the glass ceiling, but are only offered positions that are riskier than the positions offered to men. While men turn these positions down (in order not to fall short in case of failure) women accept it, and when failure does occur, they have to face the consequences and get blamed much more often than men (Ryan and Haslam, 2004).

Both leadership and management theories surround gender differences that compose the infrastructure of the research question imposed in that thesis.To examine the hypotheses, an online questionnaire was created based on the research conducted by Ryan and Haslam (2007). This was to test the perceptions of employees who have maximum 3 years of experience in their fields, and if indeed they view females to be the better leaders in times of crisis (hypothesis one).

The current study did not find any support for hypothesis that claims women as the preferred leader during the crises time. In times of crisis, the respondents were indifferent about the gender of the leader. However, this study did find support for hypothesis that claims that in times of no crisis-tranquility, males were perceived to be the more suitable and recommended leaders by the respondents.

Date : April, 2015

Keywords: Leadership, perception, glass ceiling, position, management, female, male, employee, crisis, tranquility

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Inclusion of male perspective dominated which eventually caused stereotypes, biases against women, ignorance of point of view that might be particular to women and their lives. Our current society's new order should be emphasizing equal rights and fair distribution of resources for both sexes rather than structured by and favoring men..

The field of gender and leadership has tried to assess the underrepresentation of women in management positions and the possible explanatory factors for this gender inequality (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). Some of these explanatory factors include; the obvious sexism in the work place (e.g., Schwartz, 1994), the perceived unsuitability between women's capability as a leader and the necessities of true leadership (e.g., Arvey, 1979; Schein, 1973), women's responsibilities at home and work – formarly conflicts (e.g., Schwartz, 1994) and women's fear of success (e.g., Horner, 1972).

Nevertheless, recent researches suggest that women are starting to progress in career paths and break through the glass ceiling (e.g., Dreher, 2003; Goodman et al., 2003; Ryan & Haslam, 2007). As a result of this movement, , women have gained great representation in leadership roles. For instance, according to Turkish Statistical Institute (2013) women represented just over %30 of the 24 million total labor force in Turkey.

Despite such substantial advancements, the truth remains that no country in the world, no matter how advanced, has achieved true gender equality, as equal participation in all the decision-making prosess and opportunity for education. As to date, no single sign shows that the economic conditions of women in the world, as a whole, are at parity with the conditions of men (Calas and Smircich, 2006).

Furthermore, according to the International Labor Organization (ILO) (2004), women are still the larger share (60%) of the world's working poor, i.e. those people who work but who do not earn enough to move their families above the poverty line. This is highlighting that sex/gender inequality in the context of pay, work and family

issues continues to exist, especially in the industrialized world (Calas and Smircich, 2006).

Due to the continued existence of differences, it is perceived and/or crucial to further investigate male / female contributions into organization studies, as a critical issue, and recognize it can add valuable and important contributions to the field, where traditional organization theories have still left much in vogue (Calas and Smircich, 2006).

1.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The difference between men and women was and will probably always remain to be an interesting research field for academics and practioners. As more and more women enter the workforce, the traditional workforce demographics are changing with an increasing tendency of women in leadership roles Yet, the question of whether there are fundamental differences between the leadership behaviors of men and women.

There is considerable disagreement among researchers concerning the extent to which men and women differ on characteristics associated with leadership. On one side, many studies have not find significant differences between the leadership styles of men and women claim to not remain fundamental (e.g., Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Lefkoitz, 1994; Hyde & Plant, 1995; van Engen et al., 2001). On the other side, the differences of gender related characteristics between the leadership styles are real and substantial (e.g., Gilligan, 1977; Ruble, 1983; Loden, 1985; Eagly, 1995).

At the end of the 20th century, research focus has moved from analyzing gender differences to why women are unable to make it to the top in the organizations they work for. This phenomenon according to many researchers is called the “glass ceiling” (e.g., Ridgeway, 2001; Arfken et al., 2004; Maume, 2004). Many researchers describe the glass ceiling is the actuality that women and minorities do get hired by firms dominated by Caucasian males but do not get promoted as fast as the Caucasian males, and when they have almost reached the top they are passed over for promotion.

The glass-ceiling concept could be explained by the gender role expectations and the perception that women should not act ambitiously. As is the case in the findings of

Ridgeway (2001), who states that when women do manage to get through the glass ceiling, this is considered by many to be wrong and women are heavily criticized. In 2004, Ryan and Haslam introduced the concept of the "glass cliff". The concept describes that even though more women are breaking through the glass ceiling in recent years, there is a new emerging pattern, where they are only offered higher position which are much more riskier than those positions offered to men. These risky positions can be seen as top positions offered in times of crisis when there is a lot in stake. In order to prevent themselves the shame of not succeeding, men tend to turn these positions down, while women accept them (Ryan & Haslam, 2004). However, when women face failure in these positions, they are blamed much more severely than males are (Ryan & Haslam, 2007).

According to the above mentioned concept, one could consider the glass cliff as discriminative act against women, however, it could possibly also suggest that women are perceived to be better leaders in times of crisis than men, because of their communal qualities (like; being kind, devoted and compassionate). This notion could also be supported by the fact that women are more likely to use a transformational leadership style, which is seen as one of the most effective leadership styles in times of crisis ((Eagly et al., 2003).

Today, companies are effected by politics and external factors deeply , therefore many various sizes of crises happen during the life time of a company. Crises can cause many situations where some of them are fatal for the company but some of them shows new opportunities. Seeing the benefit from the crises and acting in order to get minimum damage is the leader's main challenge today. Despite of the leadership qualities, a crises management ability is also required for today's leaders. Crises management is different than the tranquility-time management, as in crises, leaders should emphasize intuitive way of managing with the help of analytical thinking. Multi-tasking, fast thinking and fast deciding abilities are more important in crises times where taking responsibilities of the decisions and acting according to the consequences of these actions are critical.

In sum, this research contributes to leadership theories as well as crises management and gender issues specially in the dimension of the glass ceiling and the glass-cliff phenomenon. Comparative time periods are selected to assess the existence of the phenomenon towards women managers as leaders in periods when a company is performing successfully and when a company is not performing successfully.

Until now, most of the research on the topic has been performed on working businesspeople. In addition to this, the objective of this research is to study junior level employees and to test what their perceptions as well as the preferences are regarding this glass ceiling. Their results would be extremely valuable as they will be the future leaders of top companies, who could possibly reduce, if not totally eliminate, the gender inequality and the predominant gender stereotyping.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

With the notion of the glass ceiling and the glass-cliff in mind and the leadership theories, the above-mentioned reasoning creates an opportunity to test the following research question:

Will junior employees perceive women to be the "better leaders" in times of crisis and men to be the "better leaders" in times of tranquility?

In order to help find answers to the research question, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

Hypothesis 1

Compared to men, women are more favorably evaluated and more likely to be preferred for leadership positions in times of crisis as perceived by junior level employees.

Hypothesis 2

Compared to women, men are more favorably evaluated and more likely to be preferred for leadership positions in times of no crisis.

1.3 RESEARCH OUTLINE

In order to examine the research question properly, the study will be composed of several parts. Following the first chapter, introduction that gives a short insight into the research topic as well as the research objectives, question and explains the structure of this paper. The second chapter, theoretical framework examines the literature of the initial organizational behavior approaches to leadership, the leading research on the newer leadership styles, gender differences, crisis and visionary leaderships. The conceptual model and the hypothesis are also summarized within this chapter.

In the third chapter, the empirical framework is discussed. The empirical framework consists the research methodology; the research sample, research design, and research procedure are detailed here.

The fourth chapter, the results are discussed with the different types of tests conducted to give supportive evidence to accept or reject the hypotheses of the current study.

The last chapter, chapter five, presents the final discussions, conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the current study with a further study references.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section, the theoretical literature of the current study will be examined. Firstly, the proceeding literature on the initial organizational behavior approaches to leadership theory will be discussed. Thereafter, the leading research on the various leadership styles, gender differences, and crisis management and visionary leaderships will be examined. This section will conclude by presenting the research question and hypotheses.

2.1 PRINCIPLES OF LEADERSHIP THEORY

2.1.1 Leadership Theory

Leadership is mostly associated with power which is a debatable topic to be defined and measured difficultly with precision. It has been defined as "*the capacity of individuals to overcome resistance on the part of others, to exert their will, and to produce results consistent with their interests and objectives*" (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004, p828).

Leader based examples are prevalent throughout the history but only recently, from the beginning of the twentieth century, has leadership theories took its place in organizational behavior related researches For example, researchers have attempted to find out what characteristics are necessary to be good leaders and why some people are better as leaders when compared to others. Feminist analysis of the patriarchy often concentrates on issues of power too.

Some of the predominant definitions of leadership include:

- *"Leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task*": (Chemers, 2000, p:1);
- *"Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose*" (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p:281);

- "Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished" (Richards & Engle, 1986 p:206), and
- "Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement" (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004, Rauch & Behling, 1984: p 46)

Leadership literature, until the 1980s, has assumed that leaders were men with special qualities. Furthermore, most of the research in this field has been conducted by men, whose subjects were men (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004). In 1979, Kanter argued that women are rendered 'structurally powerless' in being restricted to routine, low-profile jobs, as well as facing discrimination in promotion decisions.

Similarly, as Tannen (1990) pointed out, women and men also differentiate from early childhood, in several other fields such as linguistic styles that affect the perception of power where girls are prone to have conversation focusing on relationships and bond, while boys focus on rank and position. Men thus think in tiered terms as 'one up' where the rest need to be put down. Women on the other hand, avoid putting others down which represent their restorative sides.

Due to the natural and societal references associated to women –such as home keeper, child care taker and so on- not up to1990s, women were deeply scrutinized in the leadership research. Mann (1995) similarly argues that "women are underrepresented in leadership and management roles because they are less successful in acquiring power. For example, organizations which encourage long hours of work disadvantage women with family responsibilities. Meetings are scheduled at difficult times for women, who are excluded from informal male meetings in locations such as the locker room at the gym." (p.12)

The change was inevitable that bring women in the research field after this time. In 2002, Wilson argued that "*we may be witnessing a 'feminization of management' as flatter, decentralized organization structures require skills in communication, collaboration, participation, consensus decision making, teamwork, shared*

responsibility, networking, developing others – qualities more closely associated with women than with men".

Similarly, Arroba and James (1988) claimed that, women have distinctive attributes such as sensitivity, compassion, reflection and a willingness to engage with feelings that can be exploited to their best interest and advantage specifically on the leadership studies.

Overall, women saw male bosses as decisive and as team leaders, but also as insensitive. Men on the other hand, saw female bosses as considerate, open-minded and team players. When asked the question "are men more likely to inspire confidence in staff", from the whole sample 60% rejected this notion, and from the sample women only, 72% rejected this notion. From these findings, it could be suggested that women are now more likely to be promoted for their leadership and management capabilities and are less likely to be faced with discrimination purely on the grounds of sex and so-called 'feminine' traits (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004).

However, it is also important to note the difference between explicit and implicit stereotypes when researching gender biases. This research is based entirely on explicit beliefs. This means that respondents have answered the survey as how they thought they should answer it, as they were aware that there beliefs were being measured. Though their actual beliefs (implicit beliefs) might perhaps be totally different than what they answered on the survey. In this case, male respondents might have answered the survey in favor of women in management, but this could necessarily not be their real beliefs. As a result, one must also take implicit and explicit beliefs into account when concluding on researches which examine gender biases with only explicit beliefs.

2.1.2 The Trait Approach

In order to define leadership related research studies, the first known approach was the trait approach that attempt to compare leaders from non-leaders with specific focus on superior qualities. Conveyed leadership characteristics included drive, motivation, honesty, integrity, self-confidence and cognitive ability (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

The trait approach was not as effective as it thought to be as no consistent relationships were found between traits related variables and leader effectiveness, due to the difficult explanatory nature of trait definitions and their inclusions. Such as "kindness" of one study was represented as "sensitivity" in the second one each defining the trait differently and measuring it in alternative ways. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). "

2.1.3 The Behavioral Approach

The behavioral approach to leadership pioneered in the 1950s at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. This theory, in short, focused on the behavior kinds of people in leadership and identified that leadership behaviors could be grouped in two major types: consideration and initiating structure (Landy & Conte, 2004). Mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport between the supervisor and group are included by consideration (Landy & Conte, 2004). In other words, how much the leader is concerned with his/her subordinates, and the manner in which he/she treats them. Starting structure included behavior in which the supervisor organizes and defines group activities and his relation to the group (Landy & Conte, 2004). In other words, how a leader succeeds in communicating to his/her subordinates that their task must be completed.

Although the behavioral approach in Ohio State University generated hundreds of studies and represented many theories in the study of leadership, it did not solve the leadership riddle (Landy & Conte, 2004). As Yukl (1998) pointed out:

- The results were inconsistent from study to study.
- Because the studies depended on questionnaires, the measurement was subject to bias and error (e.g., the questionnaires asked respondents to recall incidents from earlier years and how many times each incident occurred).
- Responses might have been influenced by respondents' stereotypes, describing what they had been led to believe were the characteristics of successful leaders.
- Respondents might have attributed desirable behavior to leaders who were perceived as effective.

Parallel to the researches conducted at the Ohio State University, the University of Michigan also became interested in leadership behavior, however, they examined the theory from another angle, that being the dynamics of how leaders and groups interacted. The researchers found three types of leadership behavior on which effective and ineffective leaders differed. These three types of behavior according to Yukl (1998) were:

1. task-oriented behavior; managers did not perform the same work as the subordinates but instead performed coordinating activities,
2. relations-oriented behavior; managers were more considerate (like the 'consideration type' in the Ohio State University leadership research), and,
3. Participative behavior; managers supervised the whole group instead of every subordinate individually, and they acted more as a guide.

The downfall of this research on the leader behavior theory was that it depended too much on the same types of questionnaire; hence, the same behaviors were measured repeatedly, leading to the same results and no further advancements.

2.1.4 The Contingency Approach

The earlier researches in the area of leadership theories concentrated mainly on the traits or the behaviors of leaders, with paying little or no attention for the effect of situational or environmental variables. The contingency approach proposed to take into account the role of the situation in the field of leadership (Landy & Conte, 2004). Historically, Fiedler (1967) developed one of the first possible theories called the Least-preferred Coworker (LPC) Contingency Model or the Contingency Model of leadership effectiveness. The LPC Contingency Model "describes how the situation moderates the relationship between leadership effectiveness and a trait measure called the LPC" (Yukl, 1998).

In short, the LPC is the total sum of the scores rated by the leader for his least preferred coworker. A critical leader will have a low LPC score and soft leader will have a high LPC score. The scores inform a researcher whether a leader prefers to have

very interpersonal relationship with the subordinates (high LPC score), or whether a leader prefers to be very task/goal orientated (low LPC score) (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004). Table 1 summarizes the high and low LPC leader profiles as according to the findings of Fiedler (1967).

Table 1: HIGH AND LOW LPC LEADERS

The low-LPC leader	The high LPC leader
-self-esteem based on task completion -puts the task first -is hard on those who fail -considers competence a key attribute -likes details	-self-esteem based on interpersonal relations -puts people first -likes to please others -considers loyalty a key attribute -is bored with details

(Fiedler, 1967, p.41)

Eventually, the research findings allowed Fiedler (1967) to generate the argument that effectiveness is influenced by three sets of factors:

1. The extent to which the task in hand is structured.
2. The leader's position power.
3. The nature of the relationships between the leader and follower. (p☺

Despite the critiques on the model such as; the key variables, task structure, power and relationships are difficult to assess; the concept of the LPC is unusual, negatively worded and confusing; the framework does not take into account the needs of subordinates, the contingency approach theory formed a solid ground for all other contingency theories (e.g., the path-goal theory of leadership, the situational leadership theory, the cognitive resource theory). However, most of these theories were based on weak research designs, which made it hard to test the direction of causality, although causality formed the basis of the contingency approach theory (Yukl, 1998).

This current study takes the contingency approach theory into account, when assessing the perceptions of business students in regards to evaluating a male/female candidate (leader) when company is either in a crisis or no crisis. The study examines

how the situation moderates the relationship between leadership effectiveness of a male/female leader. According to what has just been said, the situation in this research is the company performance, a company which is in a crisis or not in crisis, and it is used as a moderator to test male/female leadership effectiveness.

2.1.5 Transformational Leadership Theory

In 1978, Burns' book "Leadership" created the base for transformational leadership theory. According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership is the back-and-forth between leaders and followers where each nurtures the other to higher levels of standards through motivation. The leader transforms the followers by appealing to their upright motives such as peace, trust, justice, and equality. Later in 1985, Bass further examined the notion of transformational leadership theory and stated that the transformational leader is one who uses the following behaviors to motivate followers:

- Impressing on followers the importance and implications of the tasks they are performing.
- Persuading followers to ignore self-centered strategies and concentrate on the goals of the work group or organization.
- Appealing to higher order needs such as making a contribution, having an impact, improving society through their efforts (Yukl, 1998, p.27.

The essence of transformational leadership according to Yukl (1998), is creating shared objectives, social identification (when people are proud to be part of a group and being part of that group defines who they are), and collective efficacy (when people feel they can achieve their task objectives as a team). In 1997, Bass and Avolio proposed that transformational leaders generally use one of four strategies when leading. These four strategies are

1. *Idealized influence: leaders display conviction, emphasize trust, take stands on different issues, emphasize the importance of commitment and purpose, and are aware of the ethical consequences of their decisions.*

2. *Inspirational influence: leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done.*

3. *Intellectual stimulation: leaders question old assumptions, values and beliefs; stimulate new ways of doing things, and encourage expression of ideas and reasons*

4. *Individualized consideration: leaders deal with others as individuals; consider individual needs, abilities and aspirations; listen, advice, coach and teach. (Bass & Avolio, 1997, p. 17):*

2.1.6 Charismatic Leadership Theory

A charismatic leader is defined to be the one who possess exceptional qualities which are accepted by their followers in an unconditional way with the guidance of leader's mission, visions and tactics for achievement (Willner, 1984). Charisma "is most often associated with a personal attribute of a leader that almost hypnotizes followers and compels them to identify with and emulate the leader" (Landy & Conte, 2004, p.32). "These leaders represent revolutionary social forces, and they are responsible for significant societal transformations" (House & Baetz, 1979, p: 399). In 1998, Yukl characterized charismatic leaders as follows:

- Having a strong compulsion for power
- Being absolutely confident
- Engaging in behaviors designed to affect followers
- Articulating an appealing vision Setting an example for their followers by being a role model
- Setting high goals for followers and showing faith in them to success.
- Appealing to fundamental motives of followers through stimulating speeches and writings to uplift their sense of power, affiliation, and/or achievement.

- In a study conducted by Conger and Kanungo (1987), the researchers proposed an attribution theory of charisma. They emphasized that the attribution of charisma depends on:

1. how much the status quo and the idealized future described by the leader diverge
2. in what degree new and irregular means have to be used in order to achieve this goal
3. whether there are enough resources available to make the vision realistic, and
4. whether the leader can naturally inspire his/her followers and put the vision across.

Although Conger and Kanungo' (1987) initial attribution theory of charisma did not explain the reason why followers of charismatic leaders became so devoted to their tasks at hand, in a later study Conger (1989) found the reason to be the fact that followers idolized a charismatic leader due to his/her strategic insight, self-reliance and exceptional behavior. In other words, seeing as followers want to be similar to their leaders (the people whom they idolized); they behave in certain manners just to please their leaders. Once they receive the approval, this increases the self-confidence of the follower, making them even more motivated.

2.1.7 Transformational versus Charismatic Leadership

Even though transformational and charismatic leadership may seem to be similar and connected at first sight, the deeper examinations show some significant differences. The transformational leader focuses on the improvement of the followers by boosting their self-esteem and effectiveness whereas; the charismatic style undermines the followers' strength but focuses on their personal loyalty to the leader.

As Yukl (1998) states; "the essence of charisma is being perceived as extraordinary by followers who are dependent on the leader for guidance and inspiration" whereas "the essence of transformational leadership is inspiring and empowering followers to perform effectively on their own." ……and that charismatic leaders try to uphold

authority to their followers whilst transformational leaders try to empower their followers. (Yukl, 1998 p: 42)

More extensive research is needed to be able to make solid conclusions regarding the differences between transformational versus charismatic leadership styles. For now, even though both leadership theories may differ, they clearly represent an important advance in our understanding of how leadership can be described and of how to be an effective leader (as both are associated with good performance of workgroups and organizations) (Arnold et al., 2005).

2.1.8 Social Identity Theory and Leadership

Ever since the early 1970s, research in the field of social psychology has made great advancement in the study of social cognition and intergroup relations. Social identity theory has become one of the most important research areas of this advancement. In 1972, Tajfel introduced the concept of social identity theory, to examine how people view themselves in intergroup concepts, how a system of social classifications creates and defines a person's own place in society. Tajfel (1972) defined social identity as "the individual's knowledge that he/she belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him/her of this group membership".

According to Tajfel (1972), social identity theory operates in two parts. Firstly, it defines and evaluates a person (for example, she is a female manager). These types of definitions and evaluations are made both by others and by the person themselves. Secondly, this theory prescribes appropriate behavior for them. They think and behave in characteristically "female manger" ways and this happens through social comparison (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004).

Furthermore, Tajfel (1972) states that in order to evaluate their own opinions and abilities, people not only compare themselves to others with whom they interact, but also compare their own group with similar, but distinct, out-groups. The elements used to make such comparisons are called social categorizations. Categorizations, according to Buchanan & Huczynski (2004), lead to assumptions of similarity among those who are categorized together. It minimizes the superficial differences between members of

the in-group and maximizes the differences between the in-group and out-groups (in terms of us and them). According to Tajfel and Turner (1986), the out-groups will tend to be stereotyped. Once this happens, those who are part of the in-group will have assumed social identity, and from this standpoint, they will view others.

Continuing, in 2001, Hogg examined the social identity theory in relation to leadership. He describes leadership in the following way (Hogg, 2001):

> *"Leadership is about how some individuals or cliques have disproportionate power and influence to set agenda, define identity, and mobilize people to achieve collective goals. The differential ability of some people to stamp their mark on attitudes, practices, decisions, and actions is endemic to all social groups—for example, nations, communities, organizations, committees, cliques, and families. Leaders are people who have disproportionate influence, through possession of consensual prestige or the exercise of power, or both, over the attitudes, behaviors, and destiny of group members."(Hogg, 2001, 187)*

Furthermore, Hogg (2001) proposed that three core processes exist which operate in combination to increase the influence of social identity in leadership processes. These three core processes are prototypicality, social attraction, and attribution and information processing. Prototypicality - when group membership is very strong, the perceived differences between members of the in-group leads to the minimization of the individual social categorization of self and other in-group members. As a result, a prototype is formed, and group members are influenced by and conform to the prototype. According to Hogg (2001) in leading groups, people are highly sensitive to prototypicality, as it is the basis of perception and evaluation of self and other group members and there is a clearly perceived gradient of prototypicality within the group, with some people perceived to be more prototypical than others.

This suggests that within a strong group, those who are perceived to have the most prototypical position are perceived to personify the behaviors of in-group members best, whereas the less prototypical members are perceived to conform. Hogg (2001) further states that prototypes are contextually sensitive to the in-group social comparative context. Meaning that if the context remains unchanged, the prototype will remain

unchanged and the individual with the most dominant prototype will occupy the position. Consequently, the individual with the most dominant prototype exercises influence and power over others, as a leader.

Social attraction – the goal of leadership is to be able to influence others. One way this can be achieved is by the social attraction process. According to Hogg (2001), the person occupying the most prototypical position possesses the ability to actively influence because he or she is socially attractive and thus able to secure compliance with suggestions and recommendations he or she makes. Therefore, the most prototypical person will be able to exercise leadership by having his or her ideas accepted more readily and more widely than ideas suggested by others (Hogg, 2001).

Attribution and information processing - attribution processes operate within groups to make sense of others' behavior. The leadership nature of prototypicality and social attraction promotes an internal attribute to essential leadership capability, or charisma (Hogg, 2001). Therefore, the conducts of a dominant prototypical member is likely to be attributed (especially in strong groups), to that persons personality rather than the prototypicality of the occupied position. Consequently, this separates the group, forming it into leaders and followers.

While exploring the glass cliff phenomenon and the explanations for the precariousness of women's leadership positions, Ryan et al. (2007) also examine the social identity theory. According to the researchers, the social identity theory advocates that the degree to which individuals will support particular explanations for group-based phenomenon is likely to be influenced by identity-based motivations. In accordance with their research, men and women display very different patterns of theorizing about gender discrimination (e.g., Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). This suggests that individuals' explanations for the existence of glass cliffs are likely to vary predictably as a function of the form and extent of their identification with their gender group and their perceptions of the status relations between men and women (Ryan et al., 2007).

For example, if women identify strongly with their gender, they should be more likely to support biased or discriminatory explanations of the glass cliff phenomenon, and reject prejudice-based explanations if they identify weakly with their gender or if

they accept the status quo (Ryan et al., 2007). However, next to this, women may also understate the real significance of the glass cliff phenomenon in order to avoid either the role of a victim or attracting criticism from those in power (e.g., Kaiser & Miller, 2001).

In contrast to women, if men identify strongly with their gender in-group and perceive male privilege to be unstable but legitimate they should be motivated to challenge discriminatory explanations (and advocate more benign ones). However, if they do not identify strongly with their gender (at least when the content of this identity is defined in "traditional" terms of male superiority) or if they question men's privileged status, they may be more likely to endorse more pernicious accounts (Ryan et al., 2007).

2.2 PRINCIPLES OF GENDER DIFFERENCES, CRISIS MANAGEMENT AND VISIONARY LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 Gender Differences

Many would agree that at the very least women suffer discrimination because of their sex, that they have specific needs, which remain negated and unsatisfied, and that the satisfaction of these needs would require a radical change in the social, economic and political order Many women at least agree that they have special needs remain unsatisfied and rejected that because of their exposure to sex discrimination and the satisfaction of these needs, social, economic and political order that would require a radical change (Mitchell and Oakley, 1986). The signs are visible that the equality for women in a male-dominated society is still a distant goal, which leads to the continued examination of this problem, and to different approaches for its understanding and resolution Signs equality of women in male-dominated society and for its understanding of the different approaches and solutions still continue examination of this issue can see why it is a distant goal (Calas and Smircich, 2006).

The difference between men and women will probably always remain an interesting research field for researchers. As more and more women enter the workforce, the traditional workforce demographics are changing, and according to Landy & Conte (2004), there is every reason to believe that the demographics of the leaders will change as well, as more women will require leadership roles. The question however remains, are there fundamental differences between the leadership behaviors of men and women?

There is considerable disagreement among researchers concerning the extent to which men and women differ on characteristics associated with leadership. Many studies have not found significant differences between the leadership styles of men and women (e.g., Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Lefkoitz, 1994; Hyde & Plant, 1995; van Engen et al., 2001). However, other studies have found that the differences between the leadership styles are real and substantial (e.g., Gilligan, 1977; Ruble, 1983; Loden, 1985; Eagly, 1995).

In 1985, Loden argued that men have a more masculine leadership style, including traits like competitiveness, hierarchy, power and the ability of making decisions based on analytical thinking, in comparison to women, who favor a more softer feminine leadership style that focuses on cooperation, equality and the ability of making decisions based on insight as well as rationality. Ruble (1983) also found that women were perceived to be kinder, more compassionate and more devoted to others than men.

The differences between men and women in regards to self and morality according to Gilligan (1977) are summarized in table 2. According to Gilligan (1977), it is important to note that these differences have a significant effect in organizational decision making in regards to safety and protection, especially in times of company crises.

Table 2: DEVELOPMENT OF SELF AND MORALITY IN MEN AND WOMEN

Men	**Women**
Define self in terms of individual achievement	Define self through relationships of care and responsibility
Images of relationships are hierarchical	Images of relationships are web-like
Seek safety in independence	Seek safety in affiliation
See conflicts of rights	See conflicts of responsibilities
Resolve conflicts by methods of fairness or balancing claims	Resolve conflicts by the method of inclusion
Think categorically	Think contextually
See aggression as source of hurt	See failure of responsibility as source of hurt

Source : Gilligan (1977) (p.47)

These basic ethical dilemmas cause conflicts of interest in decision making processes regarding to owners' desire for profits, management's desire for growth and control, workers' desire for workplace safety, and societies desire for product and process safety and environmental protection.

In another study, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) tests the perceptions of female and male managers concerning leadership skills and what it takes to be a good leader. Her results are summarized in table 3.

Table 3: FEMALE AND MALE MANAGERS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP SKILLS CHARACTERISTICS

Aspect	Female managers' perceptions	Male managers' perceptions
Communication and interpersonal skills	-relates to others on an equal level -personally approachable (can share personal information and responds humanely) -fun to be with -sensitive (has time to notice the concerns of others) -conscious of impact of own activities on others -communicates support of an other's point of view	-confident as a speaker -able to influence others -at ease with people -communicates two-way -can communicate effectively to wide audience
Working style	-creative use of others' skills (for their benefit and organization's) -busy but accessible -strong and supportive Thinks through issues and where they are leading people -develops teams in which people grow -starts with presumption that everyone wants to do a good job	-drive -clarity of purpose -gives clear direction -independent -career driven -organized
Additional personal qualities	-self-aware (comfortable with self) -good sense of how others see them -admits vulnerability -honest with own values -credibility with people in and outside the organization	-ethical values -relatively few firm views -open to ideas -cerebral -confident

Source : Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) (p.3)

Eagly's (1995) gender role theory further suggests that men and women are believed to have the traits that are necessary for the roles they generally occupy. These gender roles according to Eagly can be separated as the masculine attributes, which are named agentic, and the feminine attributes, which are called communal. Continuing, seeing as people strive to live up to their expectations, these stereotypes are likely to prove themselves to be right (Eagly et al., 2003). For this reason, women are challenged with difficulties to be able to become leaders, as they are not stereotypically perceived as leaders. Women are ought to act communal, and when they act more agentic this seems to be inappropriate and will not make them appear more qualified to be a leader (Eagly et al., 2003).

In 1990, Eagly & Johnson conducted a meta-analysis on the laboratory studies done in the period from 1961-1987 and found that women were more likely to use a more democratic and interpersonally oriented style, compared with men who were more likely to use a relatively autocratic and task-oriented leadership style. However, no such differences were found when they examined field studies. This suggested that stereotypes might have been operating in lab studies but not in real organizations. In field studies, however, Eagly & Johnson (1990) determined that democratic and participative styles are r preferred by women rather than the autocratic styles favored by men.

The newer methods for studying leadership, such as transformational, charismatic and visionary styles, brought forth another direction to the research on gender differences in leadership styles. The transformational leadership style is often seen as the feminine leadership style as it stresses on individual consideration (van Engen et al., 2001). This assumption is further confirmed by the meta-analysis confirmed by Eagly et al. (2003). From their study, they conclude that women make more use of transformational leadership style than men, and make more use of contingent rewords (which is part of the transformational leadership style). According to them, men on the other hand make more use of active and passive management by exception.

Buchanan & Huczynski (2004), further state that in leadership roles men and women use different conversational styles which can lead to misunderstandings; women tend to

listen and reflect more while men tend to talk more and give information. According to Landy & Conte (2004), it is clear that in the recent years the workplace is being transformed from one characterized by single contributors to one dominated by teams and interacting work groups. This in turn according to them suggests that people skills (e.g., communication, negotiation, conflict resolution) will become increasingly important and this would seem to favor women more as leaders. In his readings, Spector, (2006) also states that women would be more concerned with the feelings and emotional well-being of subordinates (consideration leadership style) while men would be more concerned with getting the job done (initiating structure leadership style) (Spector, 2006 p.6). Farrel (2005) argues that females are better leaders than men and when they actually go for the top they succeed better because of their female traits.

In organizations and management, gender separation and gender relations occur in roles and organizational positions, like the supportive wife/mother looks up to the commanding husband/father., in a similar way the (female) secretary is subsidiary to the (male) boss (Pringle, 1988)There are imbalances that favor men on various criteria, including salary and professional ranking. Feminist theory claims that gender roles exist in male-controlled societies and organizations, which are established by social structures and relationships that favor men (Gough, 1998). There are cultural and historical factors that build differences between men and women. Social roles are gendered and determined by a variety of social, political and economic factors, and in addition to gender and biological differences. It is generally believed that, dominant views on leadership are difficult to integrate with femininity and leadership, organizational culture and communication are constructed with a masculine subtext.

In 1993, Powell brought forward a modern approach to management theory for elaborating on the missing gaps of organizational theory that Kanter (1977) found in the 1970's. Powell claimed that three perspectives existed on the difference between female and male managers. These perspectives were:

(1) there are no variances between men and women as managers, women managers try to become like men and reject the gender stereotype.

(2) men make better managers because their early socialization experiences differ: they play more team sports than girls do (Hennig and Jardim, 1977).

(3) conventional differences between the sexes, where women in managerial roles bring out their feminine characteristics that tend to be conservative.

Besides Powell's findings, feminist researchers, such as Rosener (1990), stated that female and male leaders have variances in accordance with gender stereotypes and claimed that in modern work life, femininity is particularly needed. Furthermore, the researcher argued, along the same lines as Powell (1993), Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999), that profound variances between male and female leaders do exist; where female leaders concentrate on the relationships between people compared to men who tend to concentrate on the issues or tasks. Women use more personal power, i.e. power based on charisma and personal relations, whereas men tend to use fundamental power, i.e. power based on the organizational hierarchy and position (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Continuing, Schein's (1973) classic study concluded that both female and male top managers believed that managers adopt characteristics that were more associated with men than women. In later studies, which examined the perceptions of executive women, women have no longer described successful managers as having only masculine characteristics. Moreover, recent management theories, such as the Managerial Grid Theory, claimed that both masculine and feminine characteristics are important in a good manager. The theory suggests that the best managers are androgynous: they combine both (masculine) task-oriented style and (feminine) interpersonal styles (Powell 1993). Although the concept of androgyny has received mixed support, one aspect has been agreed upon: leadership is generally conceived in masculine terms (Goktepe and Schneier, 1988 p 29; Kruse and Wintermantel, 1986 p 175), but also feminine qualities are needed in a manager. Frankenhaeuser et al. (1989) claimed that female managers absorb masculine features; whereas men stick to the masculine style more, therefore .female managers are psychologically more androgynous than men.

The end of the 20th century has moved the focus of gender differences study to the direction of why women are unable to make it to the top and become the leaders. Many researchers described this phenomenon as the "glass ceiling'' (e.g., Ridgeway, 2001;

Arfken et al., 2004; Maume, 2004). According to the research of Maume (2004), the glass ceiling is the term for the actuality that women and minorities do get hired by firms dominated by white males but do not get promoted as fast as the white males, and when they have almost reached the top they are passed over for promotion. As mentioned above, the glass-ceiling concept could be explained by the gender role expectations and the perception that women should not act agentic. As is the case in the findings of Ridgeway (2001), who states that when women do manage to get through the glass ceiling, this is considered by many to be wrong and women are heavily criticized.

In 2004, Ryan and Haslam introduced the concept of the "glass cliff". In short, the concept describes that even though more women are breaking through the glass ceiling in recent years, there is a new emerging pattern, where they are only offered higher position, which are much more risky than those positions offered to men. In order to prevent themselves the shame of not succeeding, men tend to turn these positions down, while women accept those (Ryan & Haslam, 2004). However, when women face failure in these positions, they are blamed much more severely than males are (Ryan & Haslam, 2007).

Ryan & Haslam (2007) state that there are three explanations to the glass cliff phenomenon, these are:

1. benevolent sexism: this means that women are offered positions which seem to be extremely attractive, but are actually quite risky.
2. in-group favoritism: this means that the in-group members (old boys' network) are offered the best jobs and the out-group members (mainly women) are offered the positions the in-group members refused.
3. implicit leadership theories: seeing as women tend to have a more transformational leadership style, which is found to be extremely effective in times of crisis, and as crisis involves high risk situations, this further supports the notion of the glass cliff theory. For example, Ryan & Haslam (2007) found in their study that the participants' ideal leader in a healthy company was associated with "think manager-think male", whereas for a company in a crisis

situation, the participants associated the ideal leader as one with a lot of feminine characteristics.

2.2.2 Crisis Management

In 1988, Boal and Bryson define a crisis as "a situation where a system is required or expected to handle a situation for which existing resources, procedures, policies, structures, or mechanisms are inadequate."(p.423) Crisis has been an essential part of charismatic leadership since Weber's (1947) original definition of charismatic authority, and a great deal of research and theory has linked charisma to crisis. As Bryman (1993 p .290) suggests, there are at least two reasons why charismatic leadership should be associated with crisis. The first is that a crisis provides charismatic leaders with the opportunity to display charismatic behavior. The second explanation is that crisis changes followers' needs and attitudes, causing them to attribute charisma to their leader.

Yukl (1998) suggests that the uncertainty and vagueness of the situation itself contributes to an increase in the leader's ability to be charismatic. The existence of a problem gives the leader the opportunity to be innovative and deviate from the status quo in creating a solution for the problem. Moreover, that a chaotic situation provides the leader with a cause for which he or she can build support from the followers (Halverson et al., 2004 p 496).

In a study conducted by Hunt et al. (1999) in an attempt to examine whether crisis-responsive leadership would be just as effective as visionary leadership in order to allow charismatic leaders to emerge, they found that crisis-responsive leadership is just good in creating charisma, as is visionary leadership but that with crisis-responsive leadership the charismatic effects wear out faster. As a result, when a crisis is resolved, a crisis-responsive leader should continue performing the same role and tie his/her management skills of a crisis to a new vision in order for the subordinates (followers) to keep on perceiving him/her as charismatic.

2.2.3 Visionary Leadership

From what has been mentioned above, it is noticeable that a clear and persuasive vision is necessary for a leader to direct an organization, and even more so for one that is facing a crisis situation. According to the findings of Nanus (1992), "there is no more powerful engine driving an organization towards excellence and long-range success than an attractive, worthwhile, and achievable vision of the future, widely shared". (Nanus 1992, p.3) Nanus (1992) defines a vision as "a realistic, credible, and attractive future" for an organization. Some authors have suggested that vision is a form of leadership (Hunt, 1991; Sashkin, 1988 p.29-31) in which a "visionary leader" alters an organizational culture to bring others to understand, accept, and carry forward his or her plans for the organization. Strange and Mumford (2002), state that a vision is "a set of beliefs about how people should act, and interact, to attain some idealized future state". (Strange and Mumford 2002 p.65) Despite its seeming importance, there is no one agreed upon definition of vision, but all researchers do perceive a vision as an idealized future.

Westley and Mintzberg (1989)(p17-18) clarify that a visionary leadership can be represented in three parts, "(1) the envisioning of an image of a desired future organizational state, which (2) when effectively articulated and communicated to followers serves (3) to empower those followers so that they can enact the vision". Yukl (2006) also focused on how a vision should be best created and constructed the following guidelines:

1. involve key stakeholders,
2. identify strategic objectives with wide appeal,
3. identify relevant elements in the old ideology,
4. link the vision to core competencies, and
5. Continually assess and refine the vision.

In contrast to what Yukl (2006) states, Strange and Mumford (2002) position that a leader develops a vision through his/her individual background, experiences and

feedback. This then establishes into a prescriptive model of how things should be and so becomes the leader's vision. In addition to this, Strange and Mumford (2002) state that a vision influences subordinates in at least five manners, these are:

1. the vision gives the company a goal and a reason for its existence,
2. a feasible vision motivates subordinates,
3. a vision also offers an identity and meaning,
4. a vision can be used as a framework and makes it easy to coordinate activities,
5. a vision offers the basis to establish organizational norms and structures.

According to Nanus (1992) (p.89), "the right vision attracts commitment and energizes people, creates meaning in workers' lives, establishes a standard of excellence, and bridges the present and the future". However, next to establishing the right vision, for a leader to be able to communicate the vision to his/her a subordinate is also extremely important. Conger (1989) found that the way a vision is structured and communicated influences the subordinates' perceptions. In his study, participants were asked to choose from two, a project with an 80 percent chance of success or a project with a 20 percent chance of failure. Although the results of both projects lead to the same outcomes, almost all participants chose the 80 percent chance of success, as the communicated vision is more powerful and appealing in its inspirational energy.

Furthermore, as Conger (1989) points out, inspirational leaders also make use of metaphors and stories in order to make their vision seem more vivacious and easier to understand. According to the study of Shamir et al. (1994), the rhetoric of charismatic leaders should refer to "the collective history, the continuity between past and present, the collective identity, the leader's similarity to the followers, identification with the followers, values and moral justifications, distant goals, the distant future and hope and faith".

2.3 RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

Before the research question and the hypothesis are presented, a summary of the theoretical framework will be given.

The difference between men and women will probably always remain an interesting research field for researchers. As more and more women enter the workforce, the traditional workforce demographics are changing, and according to Landy & Conte (2004), there is every reason to believe that the demographics of the leaders will change as well, as more women will require leadership roles. The question however remains, are there fundamental differences between the leadership behaviors of men and women, especially in times of crises?

There is considerable disagreement among researchers concerning the extent to which men and women differ on characteristics associated with leadership. Many studies have not found significant differences between the leadership styles of men and women (e.g., Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Lefkoitz, 1994; Hyde & Plant, 1995; van Engen et al., 2001). However, other studies have found that the differences between the leadership styles are real and substantial (e.g., Gilligan, 1977; Ruble, 1983; Loden, 1985; Eagly, 1995).

The end of the 20th century has moved the focus of gender differences study to the direction of why women are unable to make it to the top and become the leaders. Many researchers described this phenomenon as the "glass ceiling'' (e.g., Ridgeway, 2001; Arfken et al., 2004; Maume, 2004). According to the research of Maume (2004), the glass ceiling is the term for the actuality that women and minorities do get hired by firms dominated by white males but do not get promoted as fast as the white males, and when they have almost reached the top they are passed over for promotion. The glass-ceiling concept could be explained by the gender role expectations and the perception that women should not act agentic. As is the case in the findings of Ridgeway (2001),

who states that when women do manage to get through the glass ceiling, this is considered by many to be wrong and women are heavily criticized.

In 2004, Ryan and Haslam introduced the concept of the "glass cliff". In short, the concept describes that even though more women are breaking through the glass ceiling in recent years, there is a new emerging pattern, where they are only offered higher position, which are much more risky than those positions offered to men. In order to prevent themselves the shame of not succeeding, men tend to turn these positions down, while women accept them (Ryan & Haslam, 2004). However, when women face failure in these positions, they are blamed much more severely than males are (Ryan & Haslam, 2007).

According to the above mentioned concept, one could interpret the glass cliff as discrimination against women, however, it could possibly also suggest that women are perceived to be better leaders in times of crisis than men, because of their communal qualities (like; being kind, devoted and compassionate). This notion could also be supported by the fact that women are more likely to use a transformational leadership style, which is seen as one of the most effective leadership styles in times of crisis ((Eagly et al., 2003).

If the statement above holds, it could be of importance to managers. If indeed managers only select women to be top leaders in times of crisis because they will perform better when compared to men, this manner of perception would then rightfully be considered as discrimination against women in the workforce. However, if women are not perceived to be better leaders in times of a crisis situation, but are still selected for these risky positions, then the glass cliff theory might exist and form another point of discrimination.

In accordance with the findings of Ryan & Haslam (2007) and the literature on leadership styles and crisis, my research question will be the following:

Will junior employees perceive women to be the "better leaders" in times of crisis and men to be the "better leaders" in times of no crisis?

In order to help find answers to the research question, the following hypotheses have been formulated and are summarized in the model presented in figure 1.

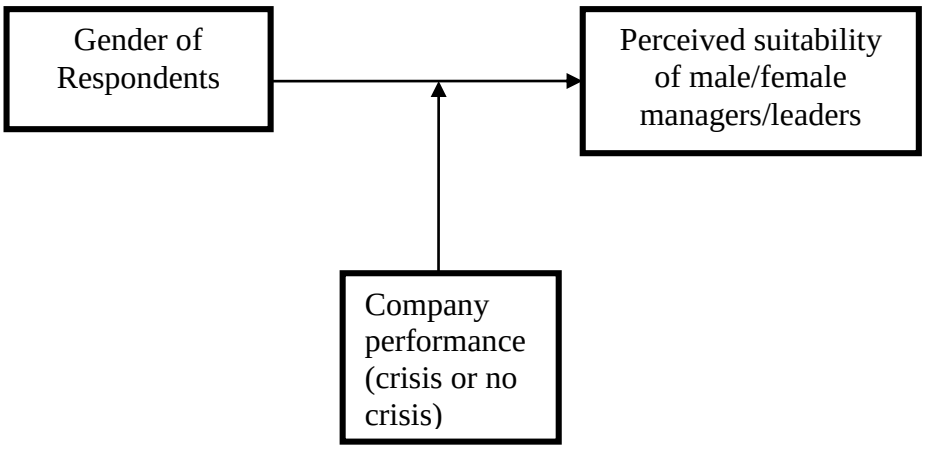
Hypothesis 1

Compared to men, women will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of crisis.

Hypothesis 2

Compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of no crisis.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



CHAPTER 3: EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter the research sample, research design, research procedure of the current study will be discussed.

3.1 METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate the hypotheses of the current study, a quantitative research is carried out. A method to explore the research question and hypotheses would be to conduct an online questionnaire to test the independent variable junior level employees' perceived suitability of male or female manager as a manager/leader and the independent variable company performance (declining: crisis situation or improving: no crisis situation) on the dependent variables. The dependent variables are the respondents' evaluation of the managers in the dimensions of (a) the managers' leadership ability and (b) the managers' suitability for the position according to the junior level employees' perception.

3.1.1 Research Sample

In total, 141 people have voluntarily participated in this experiment. All the respondents were junior employees who have less than 3 years of experience. Of the respondents 77 (55%) were female and 64 (45%) were male. The average age of the respondents was between the age group of 23 to 27 (52%).

3.1.2 Research Design

In order to test suggested the impact of company performance on the perceived suitability of a male or female manager, a (performance of company: improving or declining) × (gender of managers: male or female) are conducted using Univariate Analysis of variances on the dependent variables. This will create a two by two design. The dependent variables are the evaluations of the managers with their level of agreement with six statements (from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree).

The statements are designed to measure perceptions of:

(a) *the managers' leadership ability* (‘The manager would be a good leader’, ‘The manager has the skills and experience to lead other people’, ‘The manager has clear leadership credentials’) and

(b) *the managers' suitability for the position* (‘The manager's past experience is relevant to the position’, ‘The manager will bring the required skills to the job’, ‘The manager is suitable for this position’).

The one-factor and two-factor analysis of variance will also be used to further test the hypothesis and sub-questions. Continuing, seeing as there is a chance that the gender of respondents who have participated in the questionnaire may also have a significant effect on the outcomes, this independent variable will also be checked.

3.1.3 Research Procedure

The questionnaire, which has been created for the current study, is based on Ryan & Haslam's (2005a) measure of the class cliff phenomenon. In a later study, Ryan & Haslam (2008) describe their research procedure in the following way: In their research they collected information from 83 male and female managers attending a regional forum for business leaders hosted at a British university. They took part in the study as part of an illustrative exercise prior to a lecture on leadership. The average age of the participants was 46; 43 were female and 33 were male (and 7 did not specify their gender). At the start of the study, participants were provided with one of four versions of a seven-page questionnaire at random. The first page consisted of a job advertisement for a desirable senior management position, a financial director for a large, international firm. (Ryan & Haslam, 2008, p 530)

Participants then received information about the performance of the company in the form of a newspaper article. In the improving performance scenario, the article was entitled From Strength to Strength: Outstanding Stock Performance, and described a ‘steady increase in the company’s financial performance’, backed up by a graph showing a dramatic increase in the trading value of the company's stock over the past decade. Whereas, participants who were assigned to the declining performance scenario were presented with an article entitled Going Down: Disastrous Stock Performance,

which described a ‘steady drop in the company’s financial performance’, backed up by a graph showing a dramatic decrease in the company's stock over the past decade.

Thereafter, participants were presented with a description and photograph of two managers for the advertised position. Both these managers were highly experienced, currently holding Financial Director positions and both having earned MBAs from prestigious business schools. The photographs were chosen after pilot testing so that Managers 1 and 2 were as similar as possible on all dimensions other than gender: they were both white and of equivalent age and attractiveness. Participants were then asked to evaluate each of the managers by indicating their level of agreement with six statements (from 1, do not agree at all, to 7, agree completely). The statements were designed to measure perceptions of (a) the managers' leadership ability (‘The manager would be a good leader’, ‘The manager has the skills and experience to lead other people’, ‘The manager has clear leadership credentials’) and (b) the managers' suitability for the position (‘The manager's past experience is relevant to the position’, ‘The manager will bring the required skills to the job’, ‘The manager is suitable for this position’).

Their results showed that this study provided the first experimental evidence of the glass cliff phenomenon, and demonstrated the importance of company performance in determining the perceived suitability of male and female managers for leadership positions. The female manager was seen as significantly more appointable to a leadership position when the company's performance was declining than when its performance was improving.

The questionnaire conducted in the current study is similar to that of Ryan & Haslam's (2005a) research. However, instead of a laboratory experiment (which they have used) an online experiment by means of a questionnaire is created, where respondents will answer to one of the four versions of the questionnaire. Furthermore, instead of using businesspeople as the sample group, people who have been working in the field for a significant amount of time, this research will focus on the sample group: junior employees who have less than 3 years of experience (the future managers of companies). Next to this, it is also important to note that the researchers have gathered

their information in Britain, whereas the current study will collect the data in Turkey. Another significant difference will be the photograph of the two potential managers. The following questionnaire will not present any photographs of a male and a female manager; instead respondents will only read the identical descriptions of a female and male manager.

In accordance to what has just been mentioned above, this research will therefore have four versions to the questionnaire. That being, female manager and no crisis situation as company performance, female manager and crisis situation as company performance, male manager and no crisis situation as company performance, and lastly male manager and crisis situation as company performance.

A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In this chapter the research results of the current study will be discussed. Furthermore, the hypotheses will also be tested with the outcomes results. The data gathered in the experimental questionnaire is analyzed with the statistical program SPSS 16.0 for Windows. The level of significance is set at 10% ($p < 0.010$).

4.1 UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS (INDIVIDUAL STATEMENTS OF THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES)

In order to examine the dependent variables, which are the respondents evaluation of the managers, a five point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was created to measure perceptions of (a) the potential managers' leadership ability and (b) the potential managers' suitability for the position. It is however important to note that the five point scale has been recoded (such that 0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree) as it helps having the reference category set at zero. Continuing, each of these measurements were subject to a two-way relationship (performance of company: improving, declining) × (gender of managers: masculine or feminine).

For testing each dependent variable separately a ANOVA was run, with the independent variables performance of company (declining or improving) and the gender of the manager (male or female) and the two variables age of respondent and the time it took to complete the questionnaire (duration) as the covariates. After this, the interaction of the independent variables and the covariates were checked against the six dependent, to see whether it provided any significant results. If indeed the relationship of the interactions was significant, a further analysis was conducted to measure the degree of the interaction by using a LSD post-hoc test.

1) <u>The manager would be a good leader</u>

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the manager would be a good leader and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the manager (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in Appendix 2.1.

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the manager on the dependent variable ‘manager would be a good leader’ were insignificant (p-value = 0.694). This suggests that for a respondent who is evaluating if the manager would be a good leader, the gender of the manager (male or female) and its interaction with company performance (declining or improving) does not display any significant results.

The results of the ANOVA test does show that there is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and company performance alone (p-value = 0.09) and does not show a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the gender of the candidate alone (p-value = 0.751). This result shows that of the 141 respondents who evaluated if the candidate would be a good leader, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.65 for overall company performance whereas in a crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.48 and no crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.81. This suggests that the respondents evaluated the candidates higher in a non-crisis situation of company performance than in a crisis situation when testing whether the candidate would be a good leader.

Furthermore, when examining the effects of the covariates on the dependent variable “candidate will be a good leader”, only the age of the respondent showed a significance (p-value = 0.048) and a Pearson correlation value of -0.167. This suggests that the younger the age of the respondent is, the higher they evaluate the candidate for if the candidate would be a good leader. These results can be found in Appendix 2.1.

2) The candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in Appendix 2.2.

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable ‘the candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people’ were insignificant (p-value = 0.471). This suggests that

for a respondent who is evaluating if the candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people, the gender of the candidate (male or female) and its interaction with company performance (declining or improving) does not display any significant results.

The results of the ANOVA test also shows that there is no significant relationship between the dependent variable and company performance alone (p-value = 0.353) and there is no significant relationship between the dependent variable and the gender of the candidate alone (p-value = 0.671). Furthermore, when examining the effects of the covariates on the dependent variable "the candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people", none of the covariates show a significant result. These results can be found in Appendix 2.2.

3) The candidate has clear leadership credentials

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidate has clear leadership credentials and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in Appendix 2.3.

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable 'the candidate has clear leadership credentials' were insignificant (p-value = 0.937). This suggests that for a respondent who is evaluating if the candidate has clear leadership credentials, the gender of the candidate (male or female) and its interaction with company performance (declining or improving) does not display any significant results.

The results of the ANOVA test does show that there is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and company performance alone (p-value = 0.012) and does not show a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the gender of the candidate alone (p-value = 0.303). This result shows that of the 141 respondents who evaluated if the candidate has clear leadership credentials, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.49 for overall company performance whereas in a crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.30 and no crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.67. This suggests that the respondents evaluated the candidates higher in

a non-crisis situation of company performance than in a crisis situation when testing whether the candidate has clear leadership credentials.

These results can be found in Appendix 2.3.

4) The candidates past experience is relevant to the position

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidates past experience is relevant to the position and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in Appendix 2.4.

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable 'the candidates past experience is relevant to the position' were insignificant (p-value = 0.159). This suggests that for a respondent who is evaluating if the candidates past experience is relevant to the position, the gender of the candidate (male or female) and its interaction with company performance (declining or improving) does not display any significant results.

The results of the ANOVA test also shows that there is no significant relationship between the dependent variable and company performance alone (p-value = 0.311) and there is no significant relationship between the dependent variable and the gender of the candidate alone (p-value = 0.527). Furthermore, when examining the effects of the covariates on the dependent variable "the candidates past experience is relevant to the position", none of the covariates show a significant result. These results can be found in Appendix 2.4.

5) The candidate will bring the required skills to the job

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidate will bring the required skills to the job and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in table 4.

Table 4: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS BRING THE REQUIRED SKILLS TO THE JOB

Dependent Variable: bring the required skills to the job					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4.911[a]	6	.819	1.440	.204
Intercept	98.223	1	98.223	172.803	.000
Duration	.213	1	.213	.374	.542
Age_R	.795	1	.795	1.399	.239
Comperform	.447	1	.447	.786	.377
Candidate	.009	1	.009	.015	.902
comperform * candidate	1.694	1	1.694	2.981	.087
Error	76.167	134	.568		
Total	1933.000	141			
Corrected Total	81.078	140			
a. R Squared = .061 (Adjusted R Squared = .019)					

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable 'the candidate will bring the required skills to the job' were significant (p-value = 0.087). However, this significance only shows that the means of the interaction are not all equal to one another. To further analyze this significant interaction, a LSD post-hoc test was conducted. The post-hoc test is used to test which means are significantly different from the other means. In order to conduct this LSD post-hoc test another variable was created, and was named merged. This new variable had four values: 1 = female candidate and crisis situation, 2 = male candidate and crisis situation, 3 = female candidate and no crisis situation and 4 = male candidate and no crisis situation and was tested on the dependent variable. The results of the descriptive statistics for the variable can be found in table 5, the estimated marginal means of the variable can be found in figure 2 and the results of the LSD post-hoc test can be found in table 6.

Table 5: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BRING THE REQUIRED SKILLS TO THE JOB				
Dependent Variable: bring the required skills to the job				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.47	.615	34
	Female	2.66	.765	35
	Total	2.57	.696	69
no crisis	Male	2.81	.780	32
	Female	2.57	.844	40
	Total	2.68	.819	72
Total	Male	2.64	.715	66
	Female	2.61	.804	75
	Total	2.62	.761	141

Figure 2: The candidate will bring the required skills to the job

Table 6: LSD POST-HOC TEST FOR BRING THE REQUIRED SKILLS TO THE JOB						
Multiple Comparisons						
bring the required skills to the job LSD						
(I) merge of	(J) merge of	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
female and crisis	male and crisis	.19	.183	.309	-.17	.55
	female and no crisis	.08	.176	.641	-.27	.43
	male and no crisis	-.18	.187	.334	-.55	.19
male and crisiss	female and crisis	-.19	.183	.309	-.55	.17
	female and no crisis	-.10	.177	.556	-.45	.25
	male and no crisis	-.37	.188	**.053**	-.74	.00
female and no crisis	female and crisis	-.08	.176	.641	-.43	.27
	male and crisis	.10	.177	.556	-.25	.45
	male and no crisis	-.26	.182	.149	-.62	.10
male and no crisis	female and crisis	.18	.187	.334	-.19	.55
	male and crisis	.37	.188	**.053**	.00	.74
	female and no crisis	.26	.182	.149	-.10	.62
Based on observed means. The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .576.						

The results of table 6, 7 and figure 2 shows that the mean of the male candidate and crisis situation (mean = 2.47) is significantly different (p-value = 0.053) from the mean of male and no crisis (mean = 2.81). These results indicate that when respondents are

evaluating if the candidate (male or female) will bring the required skills to the job, the presence of a crisis has an effect only on the male candidate.

Furthermore, these results also show that in a crisis situation male candidate's means are ranked lower than the overall mean by respondents when evaluating if the candidate will bring the required skills to the job. These findings suggest that male candidates are more likely to bring the required skills to the job when the company is not in a crisis situation, whereas they are less likely to bring the required skills to the job when the company is in a crisis situation.

6) The candidate is suitable for this position

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidate is suitable for this position and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in table 7

Table 7: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SUITABLE FOR THE POSITION

Dependent Variable: suitable for this position					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	9.069[a]	6	1.512	3.316	.004
Intercept	125.702	1	125.702	275.803	.000
Country	.508	1	.508	1.115	.293
duration	2.112	1	2.112	4.634	.033
Age_R	2.509	1	2.509	5.505	.020
comperform	1.254	1	1.254	2.752	.099
candidate	.113	1	.113	.248	.620
comperform * candidate	1.451	1	1.451	3.183	.077
Error	61.073	134	.456		
Total	1886.000	141			
Corrected Total	70.142	140			
a. R Squared = .129 (Adjusted R Squared = .090)					

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable 'the candidate is suitable for this position' were significant (p-value = 0.077). However, this significance only shows that the means of the interaction are not all equal to one another. To further analyze this significant interaction, a LSD post-hoc test was conducted. The post-hoc test is used to test which means are significantly different from the other means. In order to conduct

this LSD post-hoc test another variable was created, and was named merged. This new variable had four values: 1 = female candidate and crisis situation, 2 = male candidate and crisis situation, 3 = female candidate and no crisis situation and 4 = male candidate and no crisis situation and was tested on the dependent variable. The results of the descriptive statistics for the variable can be found in table 8, the estimated marginal means of the variable can be found in figure 3 and the results of the LSD post-hoc test can be found in table 8.

Table 8: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SUITABLE FOR THIS POSITION

Dependent Variable: suitable for this position

Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.44	.613	34
	Female	2.54	.741	35
	Total	2.49	.678	69
no crisis	Male	2.87	.660	32
	Female	2.52	.751	40
	Total	2.68	.728	72
Total	Male	2.65	.668	66
	Female	2.53	.741	75
	Total	2.59	.708	141

Figure 3: The candidate is suitable for this position

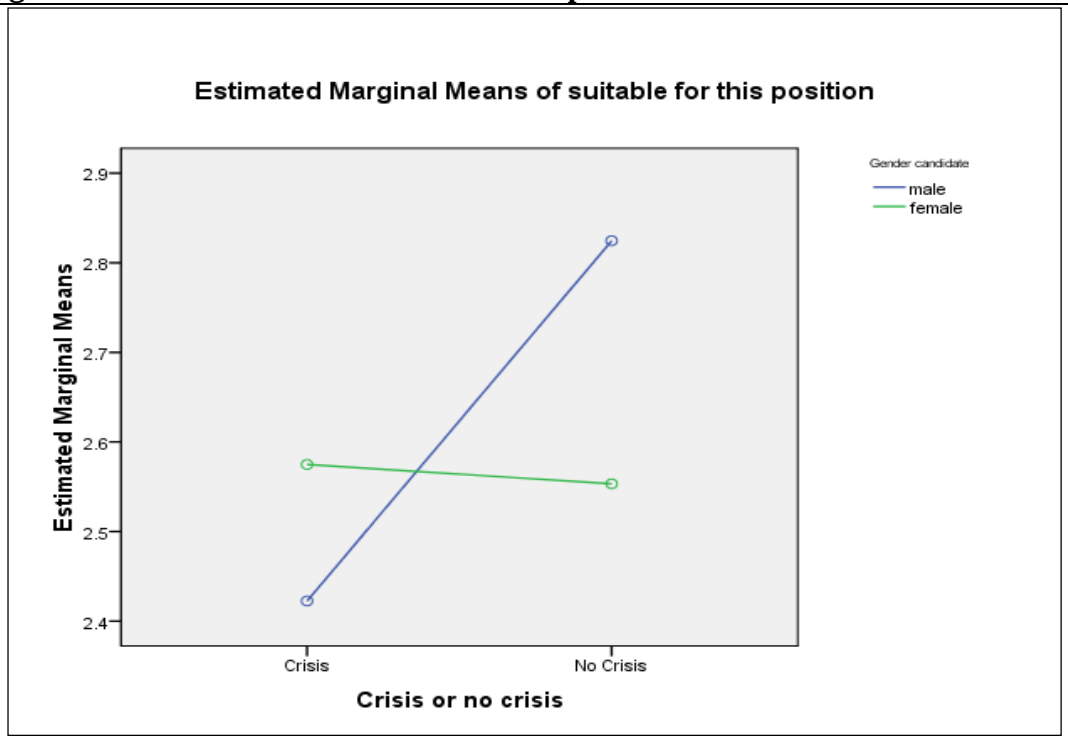


Table 9: LSD POST-HOC TEST FOR CANDIDATE IS SUITABLE FOR THE POSITION						
Multiple Comparisons						
suitable for this position LSD						
(I) merge of	(J) merge of	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
female and crisis	male and crisis	.10	.167	.545	-.23	.43
	female and no crisis	.02	.161	.912	-.30	.34
	male and no crisis	-.36*	.171	.037	-.70	-.02
male and crisis	female and crisis	-.10	.167	.545	-.43	.23
	female and no crisis	-.08	.162	.606	-.40	.24
	male and no crisis	-.46*	.173	.008	-.80	-.12
female and no crisis	female and crisis	-.02	.161	.912	-.34	.30
	male and crisis	.08	.162	.606	-.24	.40
	male and no crisis	-.38*	.166	.025	-.71	-.05
male and no crisis	female and crisis	.36*	.171	**.037**	.02	.70
	male and crisis	.46*	.173	**.008**	.12	.80
	female and no crisis	.38*	.166	**.025**	.05	.71
Based on observed means. The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .483.						
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

The results of table 8, 9 and figure 3 shows that the mean of the male candidate and no crisis situation (mean = 2.87) is significantly different from the mean of male and crisis (mean = 2.44, p-value = 0.008), the mean of female candidate and crisis (mean = 2.54, p-value = 0.037) and the mean of female candidate and no crisis (mean = 2.52, p-value = 0.025).

These results indicate that when respondents are evaluating if the candidate (male or female) is suitable for this position, the male candidate under a no crisis situation is evaluated as significantly higher than all the other means. The female candidate is rated indifferent for company performance in both crisis and no crisis situation (this is especially visible from figure 3, which shows an almost horizontal line when evaluating the female candidate). These finding suggest that male candidates are more likely to be suitable for this job position when the company is not in a crisis situation, whereas they are less likely to be suitable for this job position when the company is in a crisis.

4.1.1 Hypothesis Testing For Univariate Analysis

In order to test for the hypotheses an ANOVA test was conducted separately, for the six dependent variables, and their interaction with the two independent variables, company performance (crisis or no crisis) and gender of the candidate (male or female). Before the hypotheses of the current study can be accepted or rejected based on the ANOVA testing, it is sensible to restate the two hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Compared to men, women will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of crisis.

Hypothesis 2: Compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of no crisis.

According to the results mentioned above, of the six dependent variables and their interaction with the two dependent variables, none of the results showed support for hypothesis one. As a results hypothesis one is rejected on the basis of these results. Continuing, of the six dependent variables and their interaction with the two dependent variables, only dependent variable five 'the candidate will bring the required skills to the job' and dependent variable six 'candidate is suitable for this position' showed support for hypothesis two. As a results hypothesis two is accepted on the basis of the two dependent variables results. Therefore, these results lead to the partial acceptance of the hypotheses, as hypothesis one is always rejected and hypothesis two is accepted for certain instances.

When examining the results of the dependent variable five 'the candidate will bring the required skills to the job' and the dependent variable six 'candidate is suitable for this position' in greater detail, the following can be concluded regarding the hypotheses testing.

The results for dependent variable five and six, on the basis of ANOVA and LSD post-hoc testing shows that when respondents are evaluating if the candidate (male or female) will 'bring the required skills to the job' and 'is suitable for this position', the effect of crisis versus no crisis is only significant for the male candidate. The rating of

the female candidate is not affected by the presence of a crisis. These findings imply that male candidates are more likely to 'bring the required skills to the job' and 'be suitable for the position' when the company is not in a crisis situation, whereas they are less likely to 'bring the required skills to the job' and 'be suitable for the position' when the company is in a crisis situation. For the above mentioned reasons, there is evidence to support hypothesis two which states that compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in a company when its performance is improving rather than declining. And as a result, reject hypothesis one.

Although the dependent variables one, two, three and four showed no significant results, and by this neither hypothesis one or two could be supported, the dependent variables one and three did show a pattern for the interaction between the company performance and the dependent variable which is somewhat in line with hypothesis two. Both these dependent variables showed that respondents were more inclined to rate a candidate (which is genderless as there was no significance for the gender of the candidate) higher when company performance was improving rather than declining. Although hypothesis two does take gender of the candidate into it, the remaining part of hypothesis two states that a candidate is more likely to be recommended when the performance of the company is improving rather than declining. Even though there is no support for hypothesis two as it does not take gender into account, it is important to note this pattern of the respondents who rate candidates higher in a no crisis situation and rate them lower in a crisis situation.

4.2 TWO-FACTOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

According to Malhotra & Birks (2003), the factor analysis is a class of procedures that are primarily used for data reduction and summarization. The goal of this procedure is to reduce a large amount of variables into a manageable number and explain the maximum amount of variance in the data. This is feasible by grouping the variables into specific *factors*, as the underlying dimensions that explain the correlations among a set of variables are named (Malhotra & Birks, 2003).

The conceptual model of the current study, based on the research conducted by Ryan & Haslam (2005a), suggests two factors: (1) the potential candidates' leadership ability and (2) the potential candidates' suitability for the position. The factor analysis will focus on verifying the grouping of the six research variables into these two factors, in order to further examine their correlations. However, before proceeding to the factor analysis of the variables measuring the respondents perceptions of the potential candidates leadership ability when the company performance is either improving or declining, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity ($p < .000$) and KMO test (KMO = .817) were used and verified that the factor analysis is feasible to be tested. These results can be found in Appendix 2.5.

Furthermore, the Principal Component method of analysis was used for determining the number of factors that explained the correlations among the variables. The Varimax Rotation that was used in order to rotate the solution indicated that of the six variables, the first three variables correlated with each other and the last three variables correlated with each other, as a result forming two factors (this is also in accordance with the theory of Ryan & Haslam, 2005a). Factor 1 was named as *Leadership Ability*, (which measured the total values of the first three variables and that divided by three) belonging to the candidates' leadership ability and factor 2 was named as *Suitability*, (which measured the total values of the last three variables and that divided by three) belonging to the candidates' suitability for the position. The results can be found in table 10.

Table 10: FACTOR LOADINGS (2 FACTORS)

Variables	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**
The candidate would be a good leader'	.802	
The candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people	.844	
The candidate has clear leadership credentials	.741	
The candidate's past experience is relevant to the position		.782
The candidate will bring the required skills to the job		.820
The candidate is suitable for this position		.781
Name of Factor	Leadership Ability	Suitability
Reliability	α = .770	α = .765
Total % of Variance Explained	**68.996 %**	

The sufficiently high values of Cronbach α in each factor indicate a high reliability of the two examined factors. The total variance explained by the two factors (68.996 %) is adequately satisfying. A more detailed explanation of these results can be found in

Appendix 2.5. The summarization of the initial 6 variables into 2 factors enables further testing of the factors in the same way as how it was conducted for the Univariate analysis for the six factors separately[1].

Two-Factor Analysis of Variance

1) Leadership Ability of the candidate

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the leadership ability of the candidate and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female)[2]. The results of the ANOVA can be found in Appendix 2.6.

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable 'the leadership ability of the candidate' were insignificant (p-value = 0.632). This suggests that for a respondent who is evaluating if the candidate has the leadership ability, the gender of the candidate (male or female) and its interaction with company performance (declining or improving) does not display any significant results.

The results of the ANOVA test does show that there is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and company performance alone (p-value = 0.015) and does not show a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the gender of the candidate alone (p-value = 0.623). This result shows that of the 141 respondents who evaluated if the candidate would be a good leader, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.6076 for overall company performance whereas in a crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.4686 and no crisis situation, they rated the candidates with a mean 2.7407. This suggests that the respondents evaluated the candidates higher in a

[1] An ANOVA test was also run to measure the interaction between one factor analysis of variance and the two independent variables, company performance, gender of candidate; however the results are not reported as the interaction showed no further contribution to the results.

[2] An ANOVA test was also run to measure the interaction between the two dependent variables and the independent variables, company performance, gender of candidate and gender of respondent (2x2x2 model) however the results are not reported as the interaction showed no significant results.

non crisis situation of company performance than in a crisis situation when testing whether the candidate has leadership ability.

Furthermore, when examining the effects of the covariates on the dependent variable "candidate has leadership ability", only the age of the respondent showed a significance (p-value = 0.065) and a Pearson correlation value of -0.171. This suggests that the younger the age of the respondent is, the higher they evaluate the candidate for if the candidate has the leadership ability. These results can be found in Appendix 2.6.

2) Suitability of the candidate

An ANOVA test was run to measure the interaction between the dependent variable the candidate is suitable for this position and the independent variables performance of company (crisis or no crisis) and the gender of the candidate (male or female). The results of the ANOVA can be found in table 11.

Table 11: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SUITABILITY					
Dependent Variable: Suitability					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4.842[a]	6	.807	2.018	.068
Intercept	90.522	1	90.522	226.311	.000
Duration	.655	1	.655	1.639	.203
Age_R	.672	1	.672	1.680	.197
Country	.887	1	.887	2.217	.139
Comperform	.799	1	.799	1.998	.160
Candidate	.071	1	.071	.178	.674
comperform * candidate	1.562	1	1.562	3.905	.050
Error	53.599	134	.400		
Total	1064.667	141			
Corrected Total	58.441	140			
a. R Squared = .083 (Adjusted R Squared = .042)					

The results of the ANOVA indicate that the interaction of company performance and the gender of the candidate on the dependent variable ‘the candidate is suitable for this position’ were significant (p-value = 0.050). However, this significance only shows that the means of the interaction are not all equal to one another. To further analyze this significant interaction, a LSD post-hoc test was conducted. The post-hoc test is used to test which means are significantly different from the other means. In order to conduct this LSD post-hoc test another variable was created, and was named merged. This new variable had four values: 1 = female candidate and crisis situation, 2 = male candidate and crisis situation, 3 = female candidate and no crisis situation and 4 = male candidate and no crisis situation and was tested on the dependent variable. The results of the descriptive statistics for the variable can be found in table 12, the estimated marginal means of the variable can be found in figure 4 and the results of the LSD post-hoc test can be found in table 13.

Table 12: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SUITABILITY				
Dependent Variable: Suitability				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Crisis	male	2.5294	.55728	34
	female	2.6571	.67391	35
	Total	2.5942	.61800	69
No Crisis	male	2.9063	.66793	32
	female	2.6167	.64737	40
	Total	2.7454	.66782	72
Total	male	2.7121	.63753	66
	female	2.6356	.65571	75
	Total	2.6714	.64609	141

Figure 4: suitability of candidate to the position

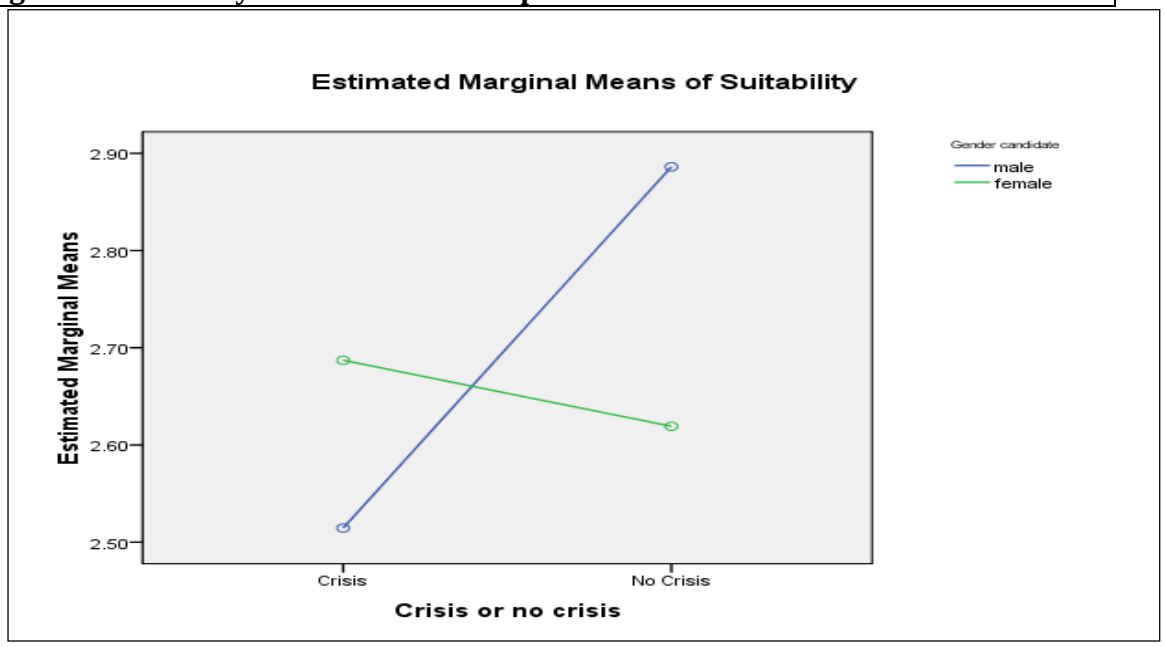


Table 13: LSD POST-HOC TEST FOR SUITABILITY OF CANDIDATE TO THE POSITION						
Multiple Comparisons						
Suitability LSD						
(I) merge of	(J) merge of	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
female and crisis	male and crisis	.1277	.15376	.408	-.1763	.4318
	female and no crisis	.0405	.14780	.785	-.2518	.3327
	male and no crisis	-.2491	.15618	.113	-.5579	.0597
male and crisis	female and crisis	-.1277	.15376	.408	-.4318	.1763
	female and no crisis	-.0873	.14895	.559	-.3818	.2073
	male and no crisis	-.3768*	.15728	.018	-.6878	-.0658
female and no crisis	female and crisis	-.0405	.14780	.785	-.3327	.2518
	male and crisis	.0873	.14895	.559	-.2073	.3818
	male and no crisis	-.2896	.15145	.058	-.5891	.0099
male and no crisis	female and crisis	.2491	.15618	.113	-.0597	.5579
	male and crisis	.3768*	.15728	**.018**	.0658	.6878
	female and no crisis	.2896	.15145	**.058**	-.0099	.5891
Based on observed means. The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .408.						
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

The results of table 13, 14 and figure 4 shows that the mean of the male candidate and no crisis situation (mean = 2.9063) is significantly different (p-value = 0.018) from the mean of male candidate and crisis (mean = 2.5294) and the mean of female candidate and no crisis (mean = 2.6167, p-value = 0.058). These results indicate that when respondents are evaluating if the candidate (male or female) is suitable for this position, the male candidate under a no crisis situation is evaluated (1) higher than a

male candidate under crisis situation and (2) higher than a female under no crisis situation. The female candidate is not affected by the presence of a crisis (this is especially visible from figure 4). Finally, there are gender effects in a crisis situation. However, in a non crisis situation, there are indeed significant differences between a male and female candidate. Overall, male candidates are significantly rated higher than female candidates.

These finding suggest that male candidates are more likely to be suitable for this job position when the company is not in a crisis situation, whereas they are less likely to be suitable for this job position when the company is in a crisis situation.

4.2.1 Hypothesis testing for Two-Factor Analysis of Variance

In order to test for the hypotheses an ANOVA test was conducted for the two new dependent variables 'leadership ability of the candidate' and 'the suitability of the candidate', and their interaction with the two independent variables, company performance (crisis or no crisis) and gender of the candidate (male or female). Before the hypotheses of the current study can be accepted or rejected based on the ANOVA testing, it is sensible to restate the two hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Compared to men, women will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of crisis.

Hypothesis 2: Compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in times of no crisis.

According to the results mentioned above, of the two new dependent variables and their interaction with the two dependent variables, none of the results showed support for hypothesis one. As a results hypothesis one is rejected on the basis of these results. Continuing, of the two new dependent variables and their interaction with the two dependent variables, only the new dependent variable 'suitability of the candidate' showed support for hypothesis two. As a results hypothesis two is accepted on the basis of the suitability dependent variable results. Therefore, these results lead to the partial

acceptance of the hypotheses, as hypothesis one is always rejected and hypothesis two is accepted for only factor two, which is the suitability of the candidate.

When examining the results of the dependent variable 'the suitability of the candidate' in greater detail, the following can be concluded regarding the hypotheses testing. The results for the dependent variable (factor 2), on the basis of ANOVA and LSD post-hoc testing shows that when respondents are evaluating if the candidate (male or female) will 'will be suitable for this position', only the male candidate is evaluated with significant results. The female candidate is rated indifferent for company performance in both crisis and no crisis situation.

These findings imply that male candidates are more likely to 'be suitable for the position' when the company is not in a crisis situation, whereas they are less likely to 'be suitable for the position' when the company is in a crisis situation. For the above mentioned reasons, there is evidence to support hypothesis two which states that compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in a company when its performance is improving rather than declining. And as a result, reject hypothesis one.

Although the other dependent variable 'candidates leadership ability' showed no significant results, and by this neither hypothesis one or two could be supported, the dependent variable did show a pattern for the interaction between the company performance and the dependent variable which is somewhat in line with hypothesis two. This dependent variable showed that respondents were more inclined to rate a candidate (which is genderless as there was no significance for the gender of the candidate) higher when company performance was improving rather than declining. Although hypothesis two does take gender of the candidate into it, the remaining part of hypothesis two states that a candidate is more likely to be recommended when the performance of the company is improving rather than declining. Even though there is no support for hypothesis two as it does not take gender into account, it is important to note this pattern of the respondents who rate candidates higher in a no crisis situation and rate them lower in a crisis situation.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

The models that were tested resulted in interesting statistical outcomes, which allowed the support or the rejection of the hypotheses. These outcomes and the impact they have on the literatures mentioned in the theoretical framework will be discussed next in more detail. Furthermore, this research will conclude with the limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies.

5.1 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to assess how students (who are currently studying business at the Erasmus University Rotterdam) perceive the leadership ability and the suitability of male and female leaders to be when the company is either in a crisis or no crisis situation. The research question and the hypotheses of the current study tried to examine if business students would perceive women to be the better leaders in times of crisis and men to be the better leaders in times of no crisis.

Until now, most of the research on the topic has been conducted on working businesspeople. In comparison to this, the objective of this research was to study business students and to test what their perceptions are regarding this glass ceiling. Their results would be extremely valuable as they will be the future leaders of top companies, who could possibly reduce, if not totally eliminate, the gender inequality and the predominant gender stereotyping.

The research question and the hypotheses were based on the theory of leadership styles, gender differences and crisis management which suggested that women are perceived to be recommended to positions when the performance of a company is declining while men are perceived to be recommended to positions when the performance of a company is improving. Before the in-depth analysis of the statistical outcomes can be discussed, a short reminder of the predominant literature for this study will be given.

According to the literature on leadership and crisis management, the transformational leadership style is often seen as the feminine leadership style as it stresses on individual consideration and clear communication (van Engen et al., 2001). Furthermore, it has come to be one of the most effective leadership styles (Eagly, 2007). The theory states that an exceptional leadership is dependent on the articulation of a feasible vision (Strange and Mumford, 2002) and that a feasible vision is necessary for a leader to direct an organization, and even more so for one that is facing a crisis situation.

According to the literature on gender differences, Ryan and Haslam (2007), explains the glass cliff phenomenon by stating that more and more women are breaking through the glass ceiling and moving up to the top, but are only offered positions that are more risky than positions offered to men. While men turn these positions down (in order not to fall short in case of failure) women accept them, and when failure does occur, they face the consequences and get blamed much more often than men (Ryan and Haslam, 2004).

One reason why women are perceived to be more suited than men to lead companies that are in crisis is because these positions are perceived (presumably with some validity) to involve more stress than positions in successful organizations (Ryan and Haslam, 2007). The reason why women get assigned to these roles may be a consequence of stereotypically associated traits with women leaders (e.g., being understanding, aware of the feelings of others, intuitive, and creative, which are traits of transformational leadership style (Schein, 1973), and traits which are suited to stress management (Lindquist et al., 1997)). However, a more subjective interpretation of this pattern would suggest that women are placed on glass cliffs simply because people are more willing to subject women to stressful situations than they are to subject men to them—perhaps again because they consider women leaders to be more 'expendable' (Ryan and Haslam, 2007).

Furthermore, Ryan & Haslam (2007) state that there are three explanations to the glass cliff phenomenon, these are:

1. benevolent sexism: this means that women are offered positions which seem to be extremely attractive, but are actually quite risky.

2. in-group favoritism: this means that the in-group members (old boys' network) are offered the best jobs and the out-group members (mainly women) are offered the positions the in-group members refused (based on the social identity theory).

3. implicit leadership theories: seeing as women tend to have a more transformational leadership style, which is found to be extremely effective in times of crisis, and as crisis involves high risk situations, this further supports the notion of the glass cliff theory. For example, Ryan & Haslam (2007) found in their study that the participants' ideal leader in a healthy company was associated with "think manager-think male", whereas for a company in a crisis situation, the participants associated the ideal leader as one with a lot of feminine characteristics.

On the basis of the above mentioned theories and the statistical outcomes of the results, the hypotheses of this study could only be partially accepted. More specifically, the study found no support for hypothesis one and it is therefore rejected, where as, the study did find support for hypothesis two and so it could be accepted. The two hypotheses of this research were:

Hypothesis 1: Compared to men, women will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in a company which is in a crisis.

Hypothesis 2: Compared to women, men will be more favorably evaluated and more likely to be recommended for leadership positions in a company which is not in a crisis.

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In line with hypothesis two, evaluations of the two candidates by respondents (the students) revealed that when company performance was not in a crisis, the male candidate was seen (a) as more suitable for the position and (b) as having more leadership ability, than an identically qualified female candidate. This finding also partially supports the glass cliff phenomenon, that being participants' ideal leader in a healthy company is associated with "think manager-think male" and that men have the luxury to not accept leadership positions which have a high risk of failure (in order not to lose face) and are therefore found in leadership positions in companies which are improving.

Furthermore, hypothesis two is further supported by theorists such as Loden (1985), who suggests that men have a more masculine leadership style, including traits like competitiveness, hierarchy, power and the ability of making decisions based on analytical thinking and Spector (2006), who suggests that men would be more concerned with getting the job done. These gender difference stereotyping suggest that male leaders seem to have better leadership ability and therefore seem to be more suitable for the position when compared to an identically qualified female candidate. The respondents of the current study may have been influenced by such stereotyping at one point and as a result evaluated the male candidate higher in times of no crisis.

Continuing, evaluations of the two candidates by respondents revealed that when company performance was in a crisis situation, the male and female candidates were seen as indifferent regarding (a) the suitability for the position and (b) as having more leadership ability and were hence not in line with hypothesis one and ultimately the research question of this current study.

According to the research of Ryan and Haslam (2005), which found clear evidence that women were preferentially selected for precarious leadership positions associated with organizations in crisis, this study provided no such evidence, as hypothesis one was never accepted. On the contrary, this research suggests that respondents are mainly indifferent about the gender of the leader when a company is in a crisis situation. The interactions between the gender of the candidate and the performance of the company indicated that both men and women were likely to be placed in (or be seen as suitable for) leadership positions that were in crisis and hence associated with an increased risk of failure.

Although the analysis of the current research is far from perfect or complete, and it is apparent that more research needs to be conducted in this area, the statistical results of this study are extremely interesting and can contribute to the research, as it has found evidence against the glass cliff phenomenon, such that both women and men are likely to be chosen to lead companies which are in crisis and risk the chance of failure. On the basis of these results the glass cliff phenomenon could possibly be seen as gender neutral. This would imply that both women and men could end up in precarious

leadership positions in a company even though the glass cliff phenomenon states that precarious positions are offered only to women and minorities, as an opportunity to break through the glass ceiling (Frazier and Hunt, 1998).

Furthermore, the results of this study could also indicate that the glass cliff phenomenon does not have to be so negative, that like men, women could also decline leadership positions in companies who are in a crisis and have the luxury to wait for a better position to come along. In essence the glass cliff might be more like a glass road, and that women need to take this opportunity to use their female qualities as transformational leaders and show their value to the organization both in times of no crisis and crisis. This, in order to prove, that they are not expendable and that their transformational leadership abilities will help subordinates and ultimately the company to perform better.

Naturally, it is not correct to decline the findings of Ryan and Haslam (2004) of the glass cliff phenomenon because this study showed no evidence to support it. Next to their results, many theorists have also pointed to the barriers and challenges that women face when trying to break through the glass ceiling. As to date, no single indicator shows that the economic conditions of women in the world, as a whole, are at parity with the conditions of men (Calas and Smircich, 2006). However, this study shines some-what positive light on the theories of leadership style and gender differences, this being that discrimination and stereotypes are perhaps reducing in effect for the future leaders (the business students) and their perceptions regarding the differences in leadership abilities of men and women leaders in crisis situations. In addition to this, the transformational leadership style which is commonly associated with females and crisis situations, may possibly also need revision in order to bring the theory up to date, as the respondents of this current study do not associate females belonging to this leadership style and also do not perceive them to perform better than male leaders in times of crisis.

Furthermore, this positive light could both be supported and not supported by the social identity theory. As the results of this study indicated that there were no significant differences in the evaluations of male and female respondents in times of crisis. This

means that in-group and out-group favoritism did not exist for both genders. Female respondents did not rank female candidates higher and male respondents did not rank male candidates higher with regards to their leadership abilities and suitability for the position. However, although no significant differences also existed in the evaluations of the male and female respondents in a no crisis situation, in-group favoritism did hold for the male student respondents, as they rated the male candidates higher, but no out-group favoritism existed for the female respondents. Meaning, female students also favored the male candidate to be a better leader in times of no crisis, like the male respondents did.

This is a very intriguing finding and could suggest alternative interpretations to the social identity theory. It may well be that females do not have as strong identification with their social group as males, or that they are not as interested in convincing others (the out-group) that their in-group is more suitable (or just as capable) for a particular situation. Furthermore, perhaps the notion of female leaders as a social identity group still needs to develop. For example, men have been in top positions for years and their social identity has been communicated and accepted in all levels for many decades (e.g. old boys' network). However, such identifications and recognitions for females are only in existence for the past two to three decades and it has not yet found its solid ground in all parts of our society. As a result, this could explain why females also opted for the male candidate as suitable for the position in a no crisis situation, instead of favoring their in-group, that being the female leader.

However, another interpretation of the social identity theory could suggest that this theory did not hold (as a whole) due to the sample group which was tested. Ryan and Haslam's (2007) findings, which supported the existence of the social identity theory and the glass cliff theory, were based on businesspeople that belonged to a social group, or have experienced what it means to belong to a social group at some point in their working life. As a result, their respondents did not have to hypothetically imagine that they were part of a social group in order to answer the questionnaire. On the contrary, the respondents in this research (the business students) had to take on fictive roles and pretend that they were part of a social group when answering the questionnaire.

As a result, if respondents (students) did not have any experience in belonging to a business social group, this might have had an effect on their rankings of the male and female candidate. For example, the results of this questionnaire could have been very different if the scenario provided in the questionnaire was closer to what a student could relate to (e.g. there is a crisis within a study association, would a male or female student belonging to that association be more suitable for solving the problem). In such a scenario, seeing as the students already have a social identity within the group, they could have been able to assess the abilities of the candidates better, as the role they would have to take on in such a scenario is closer to their real life situation.

From what has just been mentioned above, if the role the students had to take on to answer the questionnaire were indeed not relatable (ambiguous) to their own social group in reality, this could have caused the results to be as they are. That being, both female and male students (respondents) were indifferent about the male and female candidate in a crisis situation. This is because the male and female students could not hold stronger identification (in-group and out-group identification) regarding the gender of the candidate being evaluated. Furthermore, this again supports the fact that not only female students, but also the male students did not see a female candidate to be expendable, as suggested by the theory.

Lastly, one must not disregard the fact that this indifference between the male and female respondents when ranking female and male leaders was perhaps the results of explicit beliefs. There is a chance that the respondents were aware that their perceptions were being measured and as a result, the respondents could have evaluated the candidates more fairly and ethically. However, seeing as this research did not have a pre-test, to measure if this was in fact the case, no definite conclusions can be made about the respondents explicit and implicit beliefs.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

Throughout this research paper, several limitations were encountered. This section will elaborate on and explain why these limitations may have posed a threat to the results. An imposed threat means biased views that may have altered my thought

process due to other researchers' findings and this may have had an impact on the results and conclusions. The limitations of the paper include the following:

A sample size of 120 respondents (who were mainly homogeneous regarding age and country of origin) suggests that only tentative conclusion can be drawn from the present study. A larger sample size could have been more useful to assess the stability and dependability of the results. However, despite this shortcoming, the research has been able, to at least, demonstrate illustrative results in the research field.

Seeing as all the data was collected by means of an online questionnaire, the ability to supervise all the respondents while they were answering the questionnaire was not there. Due to this, one can only assume that all the respondents answered the questions seriously and gave their full attention and concentration. This limitation could have been overcome if the online survey was perhaps answered in the Erasmus University laboratory.

Certain respondents have given feedback after they have answered the questionnaire, of the many, one feedback remains to be very important and could have imposed a limitation to the research. In the version where the company performance was excelling, the statement "insiders are speculating that SAP.LA will enter the Asian Market after their European success" was apparently misleading. Certain respondents felt that entering into the Asian market requires a different sort of managerial and leadership style, as the market is completely different from the European or U.S. market. Due to this, they evaluated the candidate more critical, as they were unable to identify if the candidate had experience with the Asian market and culture.

Lastly, although the current study was similar to the research conducted by Ryan and Haslam (2007), this research excluded the pictures of a male and a female candidate in the questionnaire (whereas the researchers had included these pictures in their research). This could have also imposed a limitation to the outcomes of this study and as a results made the difference to not accept hypothesis one (in their research the theorist found support for recommending female leaders in times of crisis to leadership positions).

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the present research starts to explore into the factors which contribute to the perceptions of respondents (in this case business students) in deciding a suitable leader in times of crisis, it clearly remains for future work to investigate the theories such as the glass cliff in greater depth. Below, recommendations for future researches are presented.

As mentioned in the limitations section, it would be sensible to repeat the current experiment in the Erasmus University laboratories. One could expect that by changing the location of where the questionnaire is being answered, a different type of results could be collected. According to Malhotra and Birks (2003), the advantages of a laboratory experiment is that it offers a high degree of control because it isolates the experiment in a carefully monitored environment.

In another research, the design of the questionnaire could also be changed so that it matches the original state of the questionnaire conducted by Ryan and Haslam (2007). Although the questionnaire in the current study was extremely similar to that of the researchers, there was one significant alteration. The current study excluded pictures of a mal and female candidate, whereas the study of the researchers mentioned above did not. By adding pictures of a male and female candidate, the outcome of such a questionnaire could be completely different.

Furthermore, it would also make sense to investigate into the country of origin. Although this variable showed significant results in the current study, the significance did not have an important impact on the outcomes. Seeing as 87% of the respondents came from Europe, the effect of cultural differences when answering the questionnaires was minimal. In a future research it would be interesting to control for the country of origin of the respondents. A difference in culture between a European respondent and an Asian respondent could lead to different outcomes of the results.

Although the gender of the respondents was not found to play a role in determining if male or female candidates would be perceived to be the better leaders in a company crisis situation, further investigation into the gender of the respondent is needed.

According to the social identity theory, the degree to which individuals will support particular explanations for group-based phenomenon is likely to be influenced by identity-based motivations. Men and women display very different patterns of theorizing about gender discrimination (e.g., Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). This suggests that individuals' explanations for the existence of glass cliffs are likely to vary predictably as a function of the form and extent of their identification with their gender group and their perceptions of the status relations between men and women (Ryan et al., 2007).

As mentioned in the discussion, it would also be wise to repeat the same research, however, by changing the scenario which is used in the questionnaire, in order to test for the effects of the social identity theory. Instead of presenting the respondents (students) a hypothetical scenario, where they have to imagine they are part of an organization, a scenario which is closer to their real life could bring out the existence of social identity theory (e.g. there is a crisis within a study association, would a male or female student belonging to that association be more suitable for solving the problem). As a result, male and female students could hold stronger opinions regarding the gender of the candidate being evaluated.

Continuing, future research could continue to examine the glass cliff phenomenon and the social identity theory for the discrimination of women and minorities after they have passed through the glass ceiling. Perhaps the identification of why men discriminate women and minorities for job positions on the basis of the social identity theory can explain why the glass cliff phenomenon has come to existence.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Please note: this questionnaire has four different versions. This being:

1) no crisis situation and potential candidate is male
2) no crisis situation and potential candidate is female
3) crisis situation and the potential candidate is male
4) crisis situation and the potential candidate is female

Master Thesis Questionnaire

Page one: Introduction (same for all versions)

Dear respondent, this questionnaire is a part of a master thesis research. Your cooperation will help enhance our understandings of choosing the more suitable manager/leader in company performance. Please note: the questionnaire should take you no longer than 8 minutes.

Page two: Demographics (same for all versions)

1) What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2) What is your age?

- 18-22
- 23-27
- 28-32
- 33-37

Page three: Job advertisement (same for all versions)

Please read the following:

You are a manager working at the Human Resource (HR) department of SAP.LA, a leading software multinational. One of your responsibilities is to find suitable candidates for open vacancies. In search of a desirable senior manager, you have placed the following job advertisement on job search channels.

Are you the next Senior Manager of SAP.LA?

Job requirements:

You will be managing a staff of approximately 20, which is continually growing.

You will be responsible for all areas of our business, being Sales and Service. Knowledge of Financial Management and Stock Controls are also necessary.

An attractive salary package will be negotiated with the successful applicant along with the opportunity to obtain equity in the Company.

If you are a dedicated, energetic people person who wishes to lead our team, we would like to hear from you.

Page four: Company performance (two versions: no-crisis and crisis)

Please read the following short passage taken from Business Week regarding the performance of SAP.LA.

(No-crisis version)

From Strength to Strength – the end of year financial figures for SAP.LA has shown an outstanding stock performance and a steady increase in its financial performance. The company's total turnover has increased 8% in comparison to last year's figures. Insiders are speculating that SAP.LA will enter the Asian Market after their European success.

(Crisis version)

Going Down – the end of year financial figures for SAP.LA has shown a dramatic drop in its sock and financial performance. The company's total turnover has decreased 8% in comparison to last year's figures. Insiders are speculating that SAP.LA will pull back its operations from the European market.

Page five: Male or female candidate (two versions: male applicant and female applicant)

After a tough selection process, where you have interviewed 15 applicants, you feel that one candidate could possibly be suitable for the position as the Senior Manager. Below you may find the description of this potential candidate.

(Description of male candidate)

-John Walton is highly experienced
-He is 46 years old
-He is currently holding a financial director position in a top multinational
-Has obtained a MBA degree

(Description of female candidate)

-Jane Walton is highly experienced
-She is 46 years old
-She is currently holding a financial director position in a top multinational
-Has obtained a MBA degree

Page six: Respondents evaluation of the candidate (same for all versions)

As a qualified HR recruiter, please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with the following statements regarding the candidates' leadership ability and suitability for the position.

1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree

6. the candidate would be a good leader
7. the candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people
8. the candidate has clear leadership credentials
9. the candidates past experience is relevant to the position
10. the candidate will bring the required skills to the job
11. the candidate is suitable for this position

(Note to self: 1, 2, 3 measure the candidates' leadership ability and 4, 5, 6 measure the candidates' suitability for the position)

Page seven: The end of questionnaire (same for all versions)

I thank you for your time and effort.

End of Questionnaire

APPENDIX 2

SPSS Results Output

Univariate Analysis (individual statements of the dependent variables)

2.1 The candidate would be a good leader

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: a good leader				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender Candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.44	.561	34
	Female	2.51	.853	35
	Total	2.48	.720	69
no crisis	Male	2.87	.907	32
	Female	2.75	.670	40
	Total	2.81	.781	72
Total	Male	2.65	.774	66
	Female	2.64	.765	75
	Total	2.65	.767	141

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: a good leader					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	6.983[a]	6	1.164	2.072	.061
Intercept	119.280	1	119.280	212.304	.000
Duration	.392	1	.392	.697	.405
Age_R	2.230	1	2.230	3.970	.048
comperform	3.909	1	3.909	6.957	.009
candidate	.057	1	.057	.101	.751
comperform * candidate	.087	1	.087	.156	.694
Error	75.286	134	.562		
Total	1956.000	141			
Corrected Total	82.270	140			
a. R Squared = .085 (Adjusted R Squared = .044)					

Correlations

		a good leader	Age of respondent
a good leader	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.167*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.047
	N	141.000	141
Age of respondent	Pearson Correlation	-.167*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.047	
	N	141	141.000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

2.2 The candidate has the skills and experience to lead other people

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: skills and experience to lead other people

Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.62	.652	34
	Female	2.63	.877	35
	Total	2.62	.769	69
no crisis	Male	2.88	.942	32
	Female	2.65	.770	40
	Total	2.75	.852	72
Total	Male	2.74	.810	66
	Female	2.64	.816	75
	Total	2.69	.812	141

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: skills and experience to lead other people					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4.173[a]	6	.696	1.058	.391
Intercept	121.028	1	121.028	184.091	.000
Country	.120	1	.120	.182	.670
duration	1.105	1	1.105	1.680	.197
Age_R	1.284	1	1.284	1.953	.165
comperform	.571	1	.571	.869	.353
candidate	.119	1	.119	.181	.671
comperform * candidate	.343	1	.343	.522	.471
Error	88.096	134	.657		
Total	2010.000	141			
Corrected Total	92.270	140			
a. R Squared = .045 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)					

2.3 The candidate has clear leadership credentials

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: clear leadership credentials				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.41	.701	34
	Female	2.20	.901	35
	Total	2.30	.810	69
no crisis	Male	2.78	.941	32
	Female	2.58	.813	40
	Total	2.67	.872	72
Total	Male	2.59	.841	66
	Female	2.40	.870	75
	Total	2.49	.859	141

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: clear leadership credentials					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	9.987[a]	6	1.664	2.392	.032
Intercept	83.487	1	83.487	119.974	.000
Country	2.843	1	2.843	4.086	.045
duration	.006	1	.006	.009	.927
Age_R	1.098	1	1.098	1.579	.211
comperform	4.481	1	4.481	6.440	.012
candidate	.745	1	.745	1.071	.303
comperform * candidate	.004	1	.004	.006	.937
Error	93.247	134	.696		
Total	1820.000	141			
Corrected Total	103.234	140			
a. R Squared = .097 (Adjusted R Squared = .056)					

2.4 The candidates past experience is relevant to the position

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: past experience relevant to the position				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
crisis	Male	2.68	.806	34
	Female	2.77	.973	35
	Total	2.72	.889	69
no crisis	Male	2.03	.897	32
	Female	2.75	.809	40
	Total	2.88	.855	72
Total	Male	2.85	.864	66
	Female	2.76	.883	75
	Total	2.80	.872	141

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: past experience relevant to the position					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3.175[a]	6	.529	.687	.661
Intercept	101.137	1	101.137	131.239	.000
Country	.564	1	.564	.732	.394
duration	.265	1	.265	.344	.559
Age_R	.000	1	.000	.000	.985
comperform	.799	1	.799	1.036	.311
candidate	.310	1	.310	.402	.527
comperform * candidate	1.546	1	1.546	2.006	.159
Error	103.265	134	.771		
Total	2144.000	141			
Corrected Total	106.440	140			
a. R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = -.014)					

2.5 Factor Analysis with two factors

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		**.817**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	281.115
	df	15
	Sig.	**.000**

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	3.184	53.066	53.066	3.184	53.066	53.066	2.079	34.645	34.645
2	.956	15.929	68.996	.956	15.929	68.996	2.061	34.351	**68.996**
3	.599	9.978	78.974						
4	.520	8.662	87.636						
5	.410	6.838	94.474						
6	.332	5.526	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
a good leader	.802	
skills and experience to lead other people	.844	
clear leadership credentials	.741	
past experience relevant to the position		.782
bring the required skills to the job		.820
suitable for this position		.781

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Leadership Ability

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.765	3

Factor Suitability

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.770	3

2.6 Leadership ability of the candidate

Descriptive Statistics				
Dependent Variable: Leadership_Ability				
Crisis or no crisis	Gender candidate	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Crisis	Male	2.4902	.48015	34
	Female	2.4476	.69519	35
	Total	2.4686	.59496	69
No Crisis	Male	2.8437	.83809	32
	Female	2.6583	.60618	40
	Total	2.7407	.71912	72
Total	Male	2.6616	.69551	66
	Female	2.5600	.65338	75
	Total	2.6076	.67293	141

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: Leadership_Ability					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5.518[a]	6	.920	2.129	.054
Intercept	84.737	1	84.737	196.182	.000
Duration	.284	1	.284	.658	.419
Age_R	1.500	1	1.500	3.474	.065
Country	.413	1	.413	.956	.330
comperform	2.613	1	2.613	6.051	.015
Candidate	.105	1	.105	.242	.623
comperform * candidate	.100	1	.100	.231	.632
Error	57.879	134	.432		
Total	1022.111	141			
Corrected Total	63.396	140			
a. R Squared = .087 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)					

Correlations

		Leadership_Ability	Age of respondent
Leadership_Ability	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.171*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.042
	N	141.000	141
Age of respondent	Pearson Correlation	-.171*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	
	N	141	141.000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

CURRICULUM VITAE

Emine Banu ÇELEBİ is graduated from Hacettepe University – Economics in 1993. From 1993 to 2002, she worked in various in banks in corporate marketing departments in both branches and headquarters. From 2002 to 2007, she worked in two different IT companies as a financial manager and from 2008 to today she is the CFO in Okan University. She is married and has one daughter.