Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter describes the source of review of related literature. The researcher finds out some of the review of literature which could be very supportive and strengthen this study. After going through the available literature, the investigator presented some of the observations and findings of the experts in this area.

The essential aspect of a research is the review of the related literature. In the word of Good, “The key to the vast store house of published literature may open the doors to sources of significant problems and explanatory hypothesis, and provide helpful orientation for definition of the problem, background for selection of procedure, and comparative data for interpretation of results. In order to be truly creative and original, one must read extensively and critically as stimulus thinking.

For any research project to occupy a place in the development of a discipline, the researcher must be thoroughly familiar with both previous theory and research. The literature related to any problems helps the scholar to discover already known, which would enable the investigator to have a deep insight, clear prospective and a better understanding of a chosen problem. And various factors
connected to the study. So a number of books, journals, and websites were referred. In the following pages, an attempt has been made to present briefly a few of the important researchers and studies conducted abroad and in India, as they have significant bearing on the present study. The reviews of literature were confined to the Internet Websites.

The literature in any field forms the foundation upon which all future work will be built. If we fail to build upon the foundation of knowledge provided by the review of literature, the researcher might miss some works already done on the same topic. The reviews of the literature have been classified under the following headings.

1. Studies on Gender Differences and Managerial Aspirations
2. Studies on Gender Differences and Managerial Potential
3. Review of Research on Sport Leadership
4. Studies on Gender Differences and Leadership Roles

**Studies on Gender Differences and Managerial Aspirations**

Virginia Leary (1974) evaluated the barriers of managerial aspirations in women. The literature on those attitudinal barriers which may interact to inhibit the woman worker from engaging in the kinds of achievement-directed behavior necessary to ensure her promotion into managerial positions. It was found that, some of
these factors (e.g., societal sex role stereotypes and attitudes toward competency in women) are external to the woman herself but may create barriers to her job-related aspirations. Internal factors include fear of failure, low self-esteem, and role conflict as well as perceived consequences and incentives for engaging in achievement-related behaviors.

Melvin Kimmel, Dean Pruitt, Magenau Ellen, Konar-Goldband & Peter (1980) studied the effects of trust (defined as belief that the other negotiator is cooperatively motivated), aspirations, and gender on the conditions and processes leading to outcomes that jointly benefit both parties. Used 60 male and 60 female undergraduates in same sex dyads to under high aspirations, high trust produced self-consciously cooperative behavior in the form of direct information exchange; low trust produced self-consciously distributive (competitive) behavior and one form of indirect information exchange. It was found that, joint benefit was greater under higher aspirations but was not a function of trust or the interaction between trust and aspirations. Women engaged in less distributive behavior and were less interested in the task than men, especially under high aspirations.

Myron Fottler & Trevor Bain (1980) indicated that young people are generally not oriented toward managerial careers and that females are less so than are males. However, the greater career
orientation of today's students, recent changes in societal values, persistent attempts by women to obtain equality, and federal legislation expressly forbidding discrimination may have changed this situation by the late 1970s. A survey of 2112 high school seniors in the state of Alabama was conducted to investigate these issues. Results indicate that few high school seniors aspire to management careers and that sex continues to be a major discriminator. The “male managerial model” continues to be reinforced by the values and attitudes of society as reflected in its young people.

Susan Donnell, Jay Hall (1980) studied matched pairs and controlled for level of managerial achievement. And after all is said and done, we have detected a total of two overall differences between male and female managers. One of these, involving managerial work motivation, favors females: Their work motivation profiles are more “achieving” than those of their male counterparts. It was concluded that, *Women, in general, do not differ from men, in general, in the ways in which they administer the management process*. Managers themselves and their subordinates concur. It seems that the disproportionately low numbers of women in management can no longer be explained away by the contention that women practice a different brand of management from that practiced by men.
Robert Liden (1985) designed to measure female subordinate reactions to male and female managers. Eighty percent of the female subordinates in the sample showed a preference for male managers. This result was not confounded by organizationally determined manager-subordinate relationships since subordinates were not assigned to a particular manager. Further analyses suggest that this preference for male managers was caused by situational variables rather than by sex differences. Although male and female managers did not differ with respect to age, education, career orientation, and organizational commitment, male managers had significantly more experience and reported having more influence than did the female managers.

Inderrieden, Nosse & Allen (1987) compared the managerial trait profiles of health care managers with hospital administrators and managers in the general business community. It is focused on two central issues: (1) the preparedness of health care managers for managerial responsibility as compared with managers in other occupations; and (2) the impact of gender differences on the trait profiles. Results indicated that, while differences existed between the groups studied, health care managers exhibited characteristics associated with managerial success. Additionally, gender differences were evidenced, inasmuch as women had stronger managerial profiles than their male counterparts.
Brenner, Anthony Blazini & Jeffrey Greenhaus (1988) investigated race and sex differences in the work values of middle managers. An examination of work value dimensions revealed a significant race × sex interaction for extrinsic work values. White females placed more importance on extrinsic outcomes than did white males, whereas black males rated extrinsic outcomes as more important than did black females. In addition, blacks placed more importance on independence than did whites, and women placed greater emphasis on intrinsic job characteristics than did men.

Thomas Lloyd, & Suzanne Richbell (1988) evaluated the traditional image of the secretarial role as supportive and non-decision making and highlights the scope for managerial activities. Particular concern centres on whether the traditionally established occupational image discourages students with managerial aspirations from taking secretarial/clerical courses. It was concluded that, female students attending such courses, showed that the majority did express an interest in a career involving some level of management. It was discovered that while aspirations to management might be strong, these students did not display a wide knowledge of the type of activities involved in the managerial process also concluded that by supporting the inclusion of management studies within the curricula of secretarial/clerical courses.
Sultemeier, Gregoire, Spears & Downey (1989) examined managerial roles in college and university foodservice at three organizational levels. The study population included foodservice managers at National Association of College and University Food Services (NACUFS) member schools with a minimum annual budget of $3 million. The 999 managers from 80 colleges and universities who participated were categorized into three groups: assistant, associate, or director of foodservice; unit manager; and manager reporting to unit manager. Activity statements were categorized into Mintzberg's 10 managerial roles. It was found that, significant differences in importance and time demand ratings among the three managerial groups were indicated for all 10 roles. However, perceived importance and time demand of roles increased as managerial level increased with two exceptions. Disturbance handler and leader roles were rated more time consuming by lower level managers.

Charles Jackson & Wendy Hirsh (1991) discussed the women managers and career progression. Women in the UK do not achieve promotion into management as readily as men. Their careers are slower even at early career stages. This appears to be due to a range of factors including the concentration of women in support functions and in specialist roles. Women may also be less likely to put themselves forward for promotion and to suffer discrimination
through a combination of implicitly male role models, explicitly “male” selection criteria and subjective assessment methods. The trend towards defining management criteria more rigorously and assessing them less subjectively may be an important step towards promoting more women. Monitoring the retention and career progress of female employees is still undertaken only by a small minority of employers, and is a powerful step in the change process.

Melamed & Bozionelos (1992) examined the personality profiles of 132 British managers from the civil services, using the 16 PF. The data were compared to norms for the British adult population. The results suggested that managers scored higher on traits associated with intelligence, dominance, confidence, and extroversion. This pattern did not differ as a function of gender. Gender differences apparent in the general population were hardly evident among managers. Finally, the strength of traits associated with management increased as a function of the managerial grade. Yet this pattern was more distinct among men than women.

Jean Woodward, Julie Merryman & Kenneth Kirk (1993) developed to measure management aspirations and psychosocial factors, and follow-up reminder postcards were sent to 1,820 pharmacy students and recent graduates. A total of 783 questionnaires were returned. It was concluded that, management
aspiration" had a significant main effect for the creativity, management, and status work outcomes. "Sex" had a significant main effect for perceived discrimination and the creativity, employer policies, and patient care work outcomes.

Jeanette Morris (1993) described women teachers' perceptions of factors which facilitated or militated against their involvement in educational management. In-depth interviews were held with seven women, four Afro-Trinidadians and three Indo-Trinidadians. Women teachers tended not to have well-defined career plans, to defer and modify their career aspirations due to domestic responsibilities and to prefer the professional technical aspect of teaching to the administrative managerial aspect. It was concluded that, Women who were successful in administration tended to have been supported by sponsors or mentors, especially in male-dominated environments. However, women did become career ambitious later in their careers and actively sought administrative posts for a variety of reasons, so that the existing imbalance between male and female administrators is being challenged.

Lindeman & Sundvik (1994) examined the impact of height on assessments of female job applicants' managerial abilities in which 44 subjects assessed 78 subordinates in natural settings. On global evaluations, tall women were regarded, as expected, as
better managers than shorter women. On trait-type assessments, only one difference was found between the ratings of tall and short applicants.

Irene Hau-Siu Chow (1995) discussed career aspirations. The rapid economic growth and industrialization of Hong Kong has created more job opportunities for women; nearly one-in-two have jobs. Women comprised 37 per cent of Hong Kong’s total workforce, but held only 20 per cent of the managerial positions. Discusses the general working environment of women in management, wage differentials, sexual segregation, discrimination and perception and attitudes towards women as managers. Looks at the problems and difficulties encountered by women who enter management and gives recommendations for women aspiring to management positions.

Ronald Burke & Carol McKeen (1996) examined satisfactions and work experiences of managerial and professional women as a function of the gender proportions of their organizations. Gender proportion considered both the number of women and their location. Data were collected from 792 managerial and professional women using questionnaires completed anonymously. Most respondents worked in organizations with predominantly men in senior management although women were as likely as men to be present at other organizational levels. Gender proportion was found
to have only modest effects, when personal and organizational factors were controlled.

Rozier & Hersh-Cochran (1996) examined gender differences in characteristics of managers in terms of leadership roles, use of power, type of supervisory style preferred, career commitment, and work/family conflict for the female profession of physical therapy. A questionnaire sent to all members of the Private Practice and Administration Sections of the American Physical Therapy Association yielded 545 managers, 58 percent of whom were female. It was concluded that, females preferred to use a transformational supervisory style more than the men did but males used more masculine leadership traits. Females were as committed to their careers as males and reported the same work/family conflict as the men.

Phyllis Tharenou & Deborah Terry (1998) assessed the reliability and validity of the scores of a subjective measure of desired aspirations and a behavioral measure of enacted aspirations. A sample of 5,655 employees was randomly split into two halves. Principal components analysis on Sample 1, followed by confirmatory factor analysis on Sample 2, confirmed the desired and enacted scales as distinct but related measures of managerial aspirations. The desired and enacted scales had satisfactory levels of internal consistency and temporal stability over a 1-year period.
Relationships between the measures of desired and enacted managerial aspirations and both attitudinal and behavioral criteria, measured concurrently and 1 year later, provided preliminary support for convergent and discriminant validity for our sample. Desired aspirations demonstrated stronger validity than enacted aspirations.

Bahman Ebrahimi (1999) compared the motivation to manage a sample of 156 BBA and MBA students in Hong Kong. Results indicated that no significant differences between the scores of males and females on the total MSCS-H or its components, including assertiveness and competitiveness. Gender role differences are not supported by differences in managerial motivation of Hong Kong business students.

Jennifer Hargreaves (1999) evaluated recent history and development of the 'Women’s International Sports Movement', characterised as a global cultural flow which links women from different countries across the world in a common cause. Pivotal to the various groups and organisations which compose the international women's sports movement is the idea that they should cater to a global community of women, but it is argued that its original middle-class, elitist character and white, Western, educational and cultural hegemonic stance, has not changed fundamentally over the years. The result shows that if the women's
international sports movement is going to grow in strength, it needs to transform the existing sets of power relations and to involve women from under-privileged backgrounds in a process of reconstruction.

Sophia Marongiu & Bo Ekehammar (1999) examined the influence of individual (internal) and situational (external) factors on the career advancement of women and men (N = 88) in a Swedish nation-wide organization. Using, among other methods, LISREL path analyses, the results revealed that the internal factor of instrumental qualities was the major predictor of managerial advancement regardless of gender. Thus, the findings imply that the norms for managers are still quite traditional, leading both women and men to adopt an instrumental managerial style. Contrary to expectations, the impact of the external factor was not indicative of managerial aspirations or managerial group membership (attending a managerial program provided by the organization). However, women in both groups suffered more from work/family pressure than men in both groups.

Marongiu & Ekehammar (2000) examined the relationship between Person-Manager (P-M) fit and managerial advancement of women and men with, and without managerial aspirations and the P-M fit as related to managerial and non-managerial women. The P-M fit was assessed by computing the congruence between
participants’ self-rated personality profile and the perceived personality profile of a manager. Sex (men show a higher P-M fit than women), gender (the higher the individual’s masculine gender-role, the higher the P-M fit) and group (managers and managerial aspirants show a higher P-M fit than non-managerial aspirants and non-managers) hypotheses were tested. It was concluded that, there was no support for the sex difference hypothesis. However, the group and gender hypotheses were confirmed showing that managers and managerial aspirants had a higher P-M fit than non-managers and non-aspirants.

Marongiu Ivarsson & Sophia (2000) discussed the four studies examined some common explanations to the gender gap in managerial positions. Study I compared managerial aspirants with non-managerial aspirants and showed that regardless of sex, the major predictor of managerial aspirations was an internal factor consisting of instrumental ("masculine") qualities. Study II, compared women managers with women non-managers also showed that the strongest predictor of managerial emergence was the instrumental ("masculine") factor, while work/family pressure and coping style had no causal impact. Study III, examined the relationship between Person-Manager (P-M) fit and managerial advancement of women and men, showed that managers and managerial aspirants had a higher P-M fit than non-managers and
non-aspirants. However, there was no difference in P-M fit between men and women. Study IV, based on interviews with women and men with managerial aspirations, and revealed that the disadvantages experienced by women aspiring for a managerial career derive from a combination of mutually reinforcing processes in the home and at the workplace. Finally, concluded that selection factors (self-selection, organizational selection) seem to operate in a way that promotewomen who conform to an instrumental ("masculine") managerial norm. It was further concluded that in order to obtain gender equality, it is important to understand the interdependent interaction between the gender system at home and workplace.

Mary Thornton and Pat Bricheno (2000) explored gender differences in UK primary teachers’ perceptions of their careers, through a national questionnaire survey and follow-up interviews. It was found that, female and male respondents indicated different areas of concern and influence on their careers and it was found that while reported reasons for not seeking or not achieving promotion were multifaceted, the known and experienced disproportionate promotion of men, plus the frequently traditional gender differences in work - home orientation and contextual / situational expectations, contrived to limit career development for a significant number of women.
Liben, Bigler & Krogh (2001) studied whether 6- and 11-year-old children's beliefs about job status and job interests would be affected by the gendered nature of jobs. When asked about familiar occupations, children gave higher status ratings to masculine jobs and expressed greater interest in jobs culturally associated with their own sex. To circumvent the extant confounds between job gender and job status in our culture, we also developed a new methodology in which novel jobs were portrayed with either male or female workers. It was concluded that, portrayal sex had no effect on children's own interests in these novel jobs at either age. Methodological, theoretical, and educational issues are discussed in relation to sex-role development and vocational aspirations.

Mark Moore, Bonnie Parkhouse & Alison Konrad (2001) examined the effects of organizational characteristics, philosophical support, and substantive human resource management (HRM) programs on promoting gender equality within sport management. A questionnaire was developed to collect data on philosophical support and HRM practices within sport organizations and sent to 500 collegiate and professional sport organizations in the USA; 196 respondents (39 per cent) returned their completed survey forms. It was concluded that philosophical support of top managers leads to the development of substantive HRM programs to promote gender
equality in sport management and greater female manager representation.

Irene, Chew & Weichun Zhu (2002) discussed the factors influencing managerial aspirations in international segments. Singaporean managers used to document their availability for international assignments and their international aspiration. To understand factors that affect their international aspiration, we investigated the impact of family, career, culture and host country factors and personal entrepreneurial characteristics on managers’ international aspiration and willingness to accept international assignment. Overall, results show that family, spouse and children and personal characteristics influence both the degree of willingness travel and determinants of managers’ attitude toward international assignments. Career and attitudes of spouses will likely have a significant impact on managers’ willingness to accept international assignments.

Kirchmeyer (2002) examined gender roles among midlife managers over a 4-year period and the effects of career experiences. The findings supported a conceptualization of personality as relatively enduring but still open to change. Masculinity and femininity demonstrated differential stability and absolute stability, except in the case of women’s femininity. Its magnitude decreased. At the same time, income change, promotion, and having a protege
were associated with increased masculinity and income change with increased femininity. Many of the effects were different for men and women.

Mary Landen (2002) determined the managerial aspiration in this regard might fall somewhat short of employee response. First, the psychoanalytic argument is used to make the case that individual capacity for emotion management might be limited. Furthermore, individual motivation or willingness to engage with organizational goals should not be presumed. The possibility that many individuals will have goals of their own, leading to a more instrumental orientation to organizationally mandated norms for feeling displays, is largely ignored in the emotional intelligence discourse. This affords the opportunity to explore the phenomenon at a more critical level. The question of whose identities predominate over others’ deserves attention. The final argument is that attempted such as these to shape the ways individuals experience, understand, judge and conduct themselves (Foucault 1986a, 1988, in Hall and du Gay 1996) fit neatly with the desire to commodify emotion, to turn emotion into something that can be manipulated and exchanged in the same way as other, more tangible, assets.

Phyllis Ching-Yin Yim & Michael Harris Bond (2002) compared Glass hurdles in business are cognitive reflections of the
greater difficulty faced between women to men in achieving success as managers. The social glass hurdle is the distance between one’s gender stereotype and the ratings of a successful manager; the personal glass hurdle, the distance between one’s self-assessment and the ratings of a successful manager. It examined two important reflections of these glass hurdles in Hong Kong. Results showed that students of both genders regarded the successful middle manager as more similar to the typical male than to the typical female. The relative size of this social glass hurdle did not change across their two years of training for a career in business.

Robert Patona & Linda Dempsterb (2002) discussed the managing a change from a gender perspective. The management of change has received an inordinate amount of attention. Models, tools, guidelines and inspirational diatribes abound. Likewise, gender issues in the workplace have also come under a great deal of scrutiny. From an academic standpoint the manner in which change is approached, the techniques and models employed to handle it, can be subject to varying interpretation, and acceptance, dependent upon gender. Practitioners may wish to note that change initiatives could be enhanced by ensuring the promotion of gender inclusive solution methodologies.

Gary Powell & Anthony Butterfield (2003) determined the gender, gender identify and aspirations to top management. Data
gathered by the authors from undergraduate and part-time graduate business students in 1976-1977 suggested that men were more likely than women to aspire to top management and that, consistent with traditional stereotypes of males and managers, a gender identity consisting of high masculinity and low femininity was associated with aspirations to top management. As a result of gender-related social changes, we expected the gender difference in aspirations to top management but not the importance of gender identity to have decreased over time. The collected data in 1999 from the same two populations to test these notions. In newly collected data, high masculinity (but not low femininity) was still associated with such aspirations, and men still aspired to top management positions more than women. However, the gender difference in aspirations to top management did not decrease over time.

Monique Lortie-Lussier & Natalie Rinfret (2005) determined whether a set of individual variables predicted both the objective and subjective career success of 156 women and 218 men managers in the Quebec public service. Hierarchical regressions performed separately for each gender revealed that few variables predicted both dimensions of success. The result shows that, human capital was found to be the most important predictor of objective success, salary and position level, regardless of gender.
Men’s advancement to senior management positions was facilitated by age, family situation and mentoring, while that of women was facilitated by self rated interpersonal skills. Age and self-rated interpersonal skills were the only predictors of subjective success, career satisfaction and job satisfaction, for both genders. Ambition negatively predicted career satisfaction for both genders.

Nikala Lane (2005) revealed that the role of female managers in implementing the new management techniques in sales organisations—namely, the introduction of behaviour-based management control strategies as an indicator of a possible gender dimension in more general implementation capabilities. Summarise the findings from single company and multi-company studies where the implementation capabilities of male and female field sales managers are examined. The provocative conclusion is that superior implementation capabilities are shown by female sales managers in the implementation of behaviour-based control strategies.

Eddleston, Veiga & Powell (2006) examined whether gender self-schema would explain sex differences in preferences for status-based and socioemotional career satisfiers. Data were collected from 400 managers. Female gender self-schema, represented by femininity and family role salience, completely mediated the relationship between managers’ sex and preferences for
socioemotional career satisfiers. However, male gender self-schema, represented by masculinity and career role salience, did not mediate the relationship between managers’ sex and preferences for status-based career satisfiers. It was found that, male managers regarded status-based career satisfiers as more important and socio emotional career satisfiers as less important than female managers did.

Lyness & Heilman (2006) examined relationships of gender and type of position (i.e., line or staff) to performance evaluations of 448 upper-level managers, and relationships of performance evaluations to promotions during the subsequent 2 years. Consistent with the idea that there is a greater perceived lack of fit between stereotypical attributes of women and requirements of line jobs than staff jobs, women in line jobs received lower performance ratings than women in staff jobs or men in either line or staff jobs. Moreover, promoted women had received higher performance ratings than promoted men and performance ratings were more strongly related to promotions for women than men, suggesting that women were held to stricter standards for promotion.

Sally Shaw (2006) examined gender suppression within regional sports trusts (RSTs) in New Zealand (NZ). Surveys were sent to all 17 chief executive officers of RSTs in NZ, of which ten replied. Of these, six agreed to a phone interview. The data were
transcribed and coded. It was concluded that there was evidence of gender suppression within the RSTs articulated through four organisational practices, which were: employing the “best person for the job”; the importance of gender balance; gender equity policies; and the role of external funders influencing gender relations.

Annelies, Van Vianen Wim & Keizer (2007) focused on existing gender differences within management and within vertical career mobility. Some theoretical explanations of these differences are discussed, with behaviour and motivation theories as the base for the present study. The influence of different variables, such as outcome expectancies, perceived self-efficacy, subjective norm, work-role salience and perceived motivating job characteristics are examined. Data were gathered in two separate organizations. It is concluded then that managerial intention can be influenced by the organizational context.

Barrie Litzky & Jeffrey Greenhaus (2007) examined the relationship of gender, work factors, and non-work factors with aspirations to positions in senior management. A process model of senior management aspirations was developed and tested. Data were collected via an online survey that resulted in a sample of 368 working professionals. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyze results. It was concluded that, women were
less likely than men to desire promotion into a senior management position. Moreover, women's lower desired aspirations for promotion to senior management were due in part to the smaller degree of congruence that women perceive between personal characteristics and senior management positions and in part to the less favorable prospects for career advancement that women perceive relative to men.

Lisa Ehrich (2008) discussed some salient research relating to mentoring for women managers and explored some of the early arguments promoting mentoring for women in the light of more recent research. The result show that, from the literature, three key issues that have important implications for women in mentoring relationships are considered. These are identifying the nature and focus of mentoring relationships; managing cross-gender mentoring and negotiating the power dimension that underpins the mentoring relationship.

Mark Moore (2008) examined the effect of gender openness on female student’s representation within sport management preparation programs. A questionnaire was sent to 172 undergraduate and graduate sport management preparation programs within North America and 72 completed surveys were returned. These data were used to test confirmatory factor and structural equation models at the undergraduate (n=47) and
graduate levels (n=47). Results show that gender openness progresses sequentially and is an effect of programmatic size.

Theresa Lanta & Zur Shapira (2008) explored how managers think about expectations and aspirations by examining the semantic similarities and differences between these concepts for practicing managers and economists, the results suggesting subtle differences in how economists and managers reason about aspirations and expectations. For economists, the concept of expectations played a major role and influenced their subsequent thinking about goals and actions while managers conceptually separated factors that were controllable and uncontrollable, the concept of expectation not playing the central role for them. Implications for descriptive and prescriptive models of decision-making are discussed.

Kippist & Fitzgerald (2009) examined tensions between hybrid clinician managers' professional values and health care organisations' management objectives. Data are from interviews conducted with, and observation of, 14 managerial participants in a Cancer Therapy Unit set in a large teaching hospital in New South Wales, Australia, who participated in a Clinical Leadership Development Program. The data indicate that there are tensions experienced by members of the health care organisation when a hybrid clinician manager appears to abandon the managerial role
for the clinical role. The data also indicate that when a hybrid clinician manager takes on a managerial role other members of the health care organisation are required concomitantly to increase their clinical roles.

Knud Knudsen (2009) explored how male and female managers may regulate their workload differently in response to conflicting job-home pressures and investigated this postulated link between managers' gender and work-family conflict via their workload, based on a conceptual model and within a Scandinavian context. It is based on a large survey of Norwegian managers. The applied sample size is 2,195, with 1,740 men and 455 women. In addition to indicators of time-based work-family conflict the questionnaire contains detailed information on managers' individual background and positional characteristics. To trace direct and indirect influences of gender over different analytical stages, a step-wise regression analysis is carried out. The result demonstrated that the effect of gender on job-home tensions is mediated mainly by managers' workload, and is less related to the glass ceiling.

Xi Liua, Zhuo Chang & Ping Zhao (2009) discussed interpretation of the crisis management. Applying in-depth interviews with 22 Chinese executives, this study intends to interpret their perceptions of the four aspects of crises: causes,
consequences, caution and coping. Findings suggest that the
informants tend to blame external constituencies for frequent
adverse events experienced by Chinese enterprises and equate
crisis management with quick problem solving in which technical
protection of corporate image via effective leadership is the top
priority. Nonetheless, prescriptive lessons as presented in Western
literature do occupy a position in the minds of Chinese executives.
These lessons serve both as a counterpoint against which a
desirable mode of crisis management in China is articulated and as
a representation of personal aspiration that will remain an
ambition as long as the Chinese economy has not passed certain
hurdles in development.

**Studies on Gender Differences and Managerial Potential**

Benson Rosen & Thomas Jerdee (1974) investigated the
influence of sex-role stereotypes on evaluations of candidates for
managerial positions, 235 male undergraduate business students
evaluated job applicant forms which differed only in the male or
female name given to the applicant. Findings confirm that sex-role
stereotypes influence evaluations of applicants and selection
decisions. Male applicants were accepted more frequently than
equally qualified females, and were evaluated more favorably on
general suitability, potential for long service, and potential for
fitting in well in the organization. Also supported was the
hypothesis that job demands have differential effects on evaluations of male and female applicants. Females were given lowest acceptance rates and poorest evaluation for "demanding" managerial positions.

Alderfer & Tucker (1984) determined empirical literatures on managerial performance assessment and on upward mobility decisions in terms of intergroup theory. To do this, were review key concepts about steady states in intergroup theory and then use these propositions to increase the explanatory power that can be brought to the empirical literature. The second part described the elements of a major organizational intervention program to improve the racial equity of upward mobility decisions. Key concepts are reviewed about changing ract relations in organizations and show how the intervention program was designed directly from these ideas. The third section presents an empirical analysis of the data developed from the intervention program. This section examines the statistical properties of the measures of managerial potential developed for the intervention and traces the selection process through three phases of deliberations.

Harrison Gough (1984) evaluated the good manager scale of the California Psychological Inventory developed by L. D. Goodstein and W. J. Schrader against criteria of managerial competence and managerial interests. Managerial competence and managerial
interests were indexed by performance ratings of 200 military officers and item endorsements of 49 young bank managers, respectively. Endorsement rates by bank managers of the 206 items were contrasted with the endorsement rates for high school students, college students, and men in general on file in the author’s archives. Managerial Potential was found to be diagnostic of behavioral effectiveness, self-confidence, cognitive clarity, and goal orientation for both sexes.

Stamp Gillian (1988) described prediction of executive potential. An assessment technique, the Career Path Appreciation (CPA), was developed based on the logic of Jaques’ Stratified Systems Theory. Lower and middle level managers were assessed and followed up over periods ranging from 4 to 13 years. The result strongly suggesting that (a) development beyond the lower and middle levels of organization is heavily dependent on conceptual ability, and (b) individual development beyond lower and middle levels should focus strongly on enhancing conceptual skills, as opposed to knowledge-based instruction. These results strongly support the logic of Stratified Systems Theory.

Stankov, Fogarty & Watt (1989) examined the predictive power of a new psychometric instrument as an indicator of managerial potential ability in an Australian business setting. The new test, a complex activity which requires the performance of two
tasks presented simultaneously, measures the individual's capacity to deal with situations involving stress and high information load. The results with 27 company employees indicate that competing tasks significantly improve the predictive power of the selection process. We recommend their use in this context.

Luke Novelli (1991) investigated the 34-Item Managerial Potential Scale (MP) of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). The results of the reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) and the factor analysis (principle components, varimax rotation) suggest that the MP Scale should not be used for management selection or development due to the obtained low estimates of internal-consistency reliability and an ambiguous factor structure.

Blaney Doris, Hobson Charles, Meade Mary Ellen & Scodro Joseph (1993) evaluated managerial potential. This assessment center helps unit directors critique their own managerial strengths and weaknesses and formulate effective self-improvement plans and growth strategies. Structured activities also provide a framework for administrators to identify managerial talent and to develop potential nurse managers effectively.

Bonnie Kelinske, Brad Mayer & Kuo-Lane Chen (2001) examined the differences between 64 male and 53 female college students in their perception of various benefits of sports participation. Potential benefits of sports participation include...
moral reasoning (caring versus fairness), socialization, competition, health and fitness, and leadership traits (masculine versus feminine). It was concluded that, males perceived that sports gave them more masculine traits than what females perceived. There was no difference, however, between males and females in their perception of femininity leadership traits from sports participation.

Bruce Klemz & Thomas Gruca (2001) studied the awareness and action phases of incumbent response; there has been little research on the threat assessment phase. In this paper, we focus on the incumbent's threat assessment decision process, i.e. how task characteristics can influence the evaluation of potential entrants. In an experiment using experienced marketing managers as subjects, we examine the influence of firm dependence, decision accountability and task complexity on their information acquisition behavior while assessing potential entrants. The results provide important insights into how companies can and cannot improve managerial assessment of potential entrants.

Nuthall (2001) discussed the managerial ability and its potential improvement. Putting more effort into understanding the components of managerial ability and how a managers’ ability to perform well in each component might be improved is well overdue. As psychology is the study of people and their actions it is the obvious discipline to turn to for assistance. This paper contains a
review of the psychology of decision making from a farm management perspective, outlines what psychology offers for changing a person’s attributes, and considers the structure of a research programme aimed at developing methods for improving individual’s managerial ability.

Eagly & Karau (2002) compared the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders proposes that perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles leads to 2 forms of prejudice: (a) perceiving women less favorably than men as potential occupants of leadership roles and (b) evaluating behavior that fulfills the prescriptions of a leader role less favorably when it is enacted by a woman. One consequence is that attitudes are less positive toward female than male leaders and potential leaders. Other consequences are that it is more difficult for women to become leaders and to achieve success in leadership roles. Evidence from varied research paradigms substantiates that these consequences occur, especially in situations that heighten perceptions of incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles.

Campbell, Simpson, Stewart & Manning (2003) tested relations between extraversion and emergent leadership among men in situations that differed in potential reward availability. Four-person groups of men engaged in a Leaderless Group
Discussion (LGD) task and were randomly assigned to be evaluated by an attractive female observer, an attractive male observer, or not be evaluated. It was concluded that, more extraverted men (who are more sensitive to reward cues) should display more group leadership when being evaluated by a woman than either a man or no one. Self-and peer ratings confirmed that more extraverted men were significantly more likely to emerge as leaders, but only in the female-evaluator condition.

Borrell, Muntaner, Benach & Artazcoz (2004) analysed the association between self-reported health status and social class and to examine the role of work organisation, material standards and household labour as potential mediating factors in explaining this association. Social class position was measured with Erik Olin Wright's indicators according to ownership and control over productive assets. The dependent variable was self-reported health status. The independent variables were social class, age, psychosocial and physical working conditions, job insecurity, type of labour contract, number of hours worked per week, possession of appliances at home, as well as household labour. The findings suggest that among men, part of the association between social class positions and poor health can be accounted for psychosocial and physical working conditions and job insecurity. Among women, the association between the worker (non-owner, non-managerial,
and un-credentiated) class positions and health is substantially explained by working conditions, material well being at home and amount of household labour.

David Murphy (2006) determined global leadership potential that is being developed in Mexican companies through their management practices. Questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of 500 executives of firms that were members of the American chamber of commerce of Mexico. The response rate, with follow up mailings, was 69.4 per cent (347 questionnaires). The questionnaires gathered information about the criteria used in making executive management promotion decisions and for performance evaluation. It was concluded that, significant differences between management practices in Mexico and the US were identified. These differences may influence the ability of Mexican companies to compete in the global market place.

Jacqueline Landau (2006) examines the relationship of race and gender to managers' ratings of promotion potential for a sample of 1268 managerial and professional employees. Hierarchial regression analysis showed that controlling for age, education, tenure, salary grade, functional area, and satisfaction with career support, both race and gender were significantly related to promotion potential. Females were rated lower than males, and
Blacks and Asians were rated lower than Whites. There were no interaction effects between race and gender.

James Ike Schaapa, Yvonne Stedhama & Jeanne Yamamura (2008) analysed the gender differences in perceptions of male and female managers during strategy implementation within the Nevada casino industry. Specifically, the study explored whether male and female managers differ with respect to the relative emphasis placed on a variety of factors related to successful strategy implementation. The results of this study show that men highlighted financial rewards as motivators for effective strategy implementation whereas women did not. Similarly, men were more likely than women to believe that increased personal involvement and increased personal communication were needed to ensure greater success.

Jesse Segersa, Ilke Inceoglu, Vloeberghsb, Dave Bartramc & Erik Henderickxd (2008) discussed the potential motivators of their managerial ability. This paper conceptually links hypothesized scales of the Motivation Questionnaire (SHL 1992). A cluster analysis that was conducted to explore how many profiles can be observed when matching work motives to the protean and boundaryless careers, resulted in four motivational groups. The clusters are discussed in light of the current career literature and provide empirical support for the latest theorizing about the
protean and boundaryless career models. Managerial implications and directions for future research are offered.

Karen Lynessa & Michael Judiesch (2008) examined whether managers who were perceived to be high in work–life balance were expected to be more or less likely to advance in their careers than were less balanced, more work-focused managers. Using self ratings, peer ratings, and supervisor ratings of 9,627 managers in 33 countries, the authors examined within-source and multisource relationships with multilevel analyses. The authors generally found that managers who were rated higher in work–life balance were rated higher in career advancement potential than were managers who were rated lower in work–life balance. The authors also found 3-way interactions of work–life balance ratings, ratee gender, and gender egalitarianism in multisource analyses in which self balance ratings predicted supervisor and peer ratings of advancement potential. Work–life balance ratings were positively related to advancement potential ratings for women in high egalitarian cultures and men in low gender egalitarian cultures, but relationships were non significant for men in high egalitarian cultures and women in low egalitarian cultures.

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Van Vugt, M., & Spisak, B. R. (2008) investigated potential gender biases in the emergence of leadership in groups. Teams played a public-goods game under conditions of intra- or intergroup competition. It was found a strong preference for female leaders during intragroup competition and male leaders during
intergroup competition. Furthermore, during intragroup competition, a female leader was more instrumental than a male leader in raising group investments, but this pattern was reversed during intergroup competition. These findings suggest that particular group threats elicit specific gender-biased leader prototypes. We speculate about the evolutionary and cultural origins of these sex differences in the emergence of leadership.

Angela Henderson, Heidi Grappendorf & Laura Burton (2009) investigated the influence of attractiveness on perceptions of female athletes' potential success in managerial positions using role congruity as the theoretical framework. Using a simulated employment evaluation, participants (n=68 male, n=121 female) were asked to evaluate the resume of either an attractive female athlete or an unattractive female athlete for an entry-level management position in a sport organization. Participants evaluated the athlete on hiring recommendations, competence, and anticipated liking for the applicant. Analysis of the data indicated that attractive-looking athletes had a significant advantage over unattractive-looking athletes on all dependent measures. Athletes perceived to be unattractive were more harshly evaluated for entry-level managerial positions.

Corinne Posta, Nancy DiTomaso, George Farris & Rene Cordero (2009) proposed intrapersonal, interpersonal, and
acculturation factors to help explain differences in evaluations of
the managerial potential of Chinese, Indians, and U.S. Caucasians. Using data from 1658 scientists and engineers and their managers in 24 U.S. companies. It was found that managers evaluate Indians (but not Chinese) to have less managerial potential and to be less effective at working with others than Caucasians. The absence of insecurity in Indians’ self-reported English fluency appears to be detrimental to the evaluation of their managerial potential. In contrast, Indians who report high managerial aspirations receive less harsh evaluations of their managerial potential.

María López-Gamero, José Molina-Azorína & Enrique Claver-Cortésa (2010) evaluated potential of environmental regulation and found the relationship between managerial perception and the different styles of environmental regulations – command-and-control versus voluntary norms – the mediator role of environmental management in the link between environmental regulations and competitiveness, the effect of competitiveness on financial performance, and the two-way relationship between proactive environmental management and financial performance. The results show that when environmental regulation stems from command-and-control legislation its influence on managerial perception and proactive environmental management is not significant. However, when environmental regulation stems from
voluntary norms, its effects are positive. Moreover, investment in proactive environmental management contributes to increasing the competitiveness of the firm. Cost and differentiation competitive advantage have a positive impact on financial performance.

**Review of Research on Sport Leadership**

One of the important areas of research in athletic teams is on sport leadership (e.g., Chelladurai, 1978; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978; Smitth, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979). Current research on sport leadership has tended to follow three different lines of approaches (Chelladurai, 1993). This research focuses on the leader, the member, and the situation in which they are embedded. In the multidimensional model of leadership, group performance and member satisfaction are proposed to be a function of the congruence among three states of leader behaviors required, preferred, and actual. These three states of leader behaviors are influenced by the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members.

Empirical studies based on the multidimensional model have focused on individual differences and situational factors that affect the perceived and/or preferred leader behavior, and consequences of leadership. For example, individual differences such as athletes. Gender and personality have been found to be an important antecedent of preferred leadership (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978;
Riemer & Toon, 2001) and ability of athletes was found to influence sport leadership (Liukkonen & Salminen, 1990).

Situational factors such as organizational goals, task type, and culture have been found perceived and/or preferred leader behavior (e.g., Chelladurai, 1978; Liukkonen & Salminen, 1990; Terry, 1983). As for the consequences of sport leadership, three different outcome variables have been studied: satisfaction, performance, and coach-athlete compatibility (e.g., Chelladurai, 1978; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Horne & Carron, 1985; Schliesman, 1987; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986).

Sport leadership follows the work by Smith, Smoll, and their colleagues (e.g., Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll, Smith, Curtis, & Hunt, 1978), who proposed a Mediational Model of Leadership based on the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS). The basic approach in this line of research was to assess relationships between coach’s behaviors and their players evaluative reactions, train the coaches to improve their behaviors, and evaluate the effects of these changes on a variety of player outcome measures (Chelladurai, 1993).

Their original and fundamental model included three elements: coach behaviors, player perception and recall, and player’s evaluative reactions. According to the model, player’s attitudes toward their coach and their sport experience are
mediated by their perception and recall of the coach’s behaviors. The three basic elements of coach behaviors, player perception and recall, and player’s evaluative reactions are affected by three sets of factors: coach individual difference variables, player individual difference variables, and situational factors.

Empirical studies based on CBAS have found coach’s behaviors such as general technical instruction, high loadings of reinforcement, and mistake-contingent instruction affected the attitudes toward the coach and sport and players self-esteem moderated the attitudinal responses to coaches (e.g., Smith, Zane, Smoll, & Coppel, 1983). As for the training effects on coach behavior, Smith, Smoll, and Curtiss (1979) study found that the trained group of coaches differed from the control group on both observed and perceived behaviors. Further, the athletes of the trained coaches assessed their coaches more positively than the athletes of untrained coaches. Athletes of the trained coaches also expressed higher levels of intrateam attraction than the athletes of the control group of coaches.

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978), who proposed a normative model of decision styles in coaching. The research based on this approach was centered on the extent of participation in decision making preferred by athletes and/or allowed by coaches in various situations (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985; Chelladurai, Haggerty, &
Baxter, 1989). The model consisted of three decision styles. The autocratic decision style is when the final decision is actually made by the coach, whereas the delegative decision style is when the coach delegates the authority to make the decision to one or more members.

The participative decision style is when the actual decision is made by the group, including the coach. Thus, the autocratic decision style and delegative decision style can be viewed as two extremes on a continuum, while participative decision making would be in the middle. As a coach's decision style moves from autocratic to delegative, the influence of the coach is reduced. According to the model, the use of one of the above decision style in solving a problem is contingent upon the configuration of the attributes of that problem.

Empirical studies based on Chelladurai and Haggerty's (1978) normative model of decision styles in coaching have focused on identifying the decision styles coaches used, the decision styles athletes expected their coach to use, and the problem attributes that influence coaches. Decision styles and the situational and individual variables that affect decision style choices (e.g., Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

From one perspective, the above studies are comprehensive in the sense they have included characteristics of the members, the
leader, and the situation in which both the leader and members are imbedded. However, a significant element of leader-member relations has been neglected by previous research. Given this pattern of interactions, it would be expected that both the leader and member would trust each other and the good intentions behind their behaviors. It would be particularly necessary that the athletes have a high level of trust in the leader.

However, the extant research on sport leadership has not explicitly included trust as a critical variable. However, Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978), the three states of leader behavior required, preferred, and actual must include behaviors that generate members trust in the leader. Similarly, in the normative model (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978), the level of athletes trust in coaches can be important antecedent of athletes preference in coaches decision style choices.

Studies on Gender Differences and Leadership Roles

Scott (1985) determined which variables differentiated occupational therapy leaders from nonleaders and identified factors that contributed to leadership. The subjects were 405 occupational therapists 36 to 74 years old. Some (79) were leaders in the field, and others (326) were randomly selected members of The American Occupational Therapy Association who did not occupy leadership
roles. The findings showed that a substantial portion of the leaders shared experiences in childhood, adolescence, and early adulthood that the nonleaders did not share. Leaders viewed themselves as leaders, desired leadership, and saw leadership as an appropriate activity for women. Their view of the female role was less traditional than that of nonleaders. They married much less frequently; those who did marry had fewer children. Most married leaders' husbands highly supported their wives' leadership activities.

Tischler, Morrison, Greene & Steward (1986) examined the effects of leader gender and degree of authority on work activity and group-as-a-whole defensive processes in two Tavistock-model group relations conferences. The small groups in each conference had two leaders with different degrees of explicit authority, a consultant and associate consultant. Segments of group interaction following leaders' interventions were scored for primary group activity (dependency, fight/flight, pairing or work) and individual member work. High authority leaders elicited more fight/flight than leaders with secondary authority, who in turn evoked more pairing. It was concluded that, high authority female leaders tended to evoke more fight/flight activity than the males paired with them. Groups periodically responded with dependency regardless of leader gender or authority position. Group-as-a-whole work occurred infrequently. Individual work occurred, with no significant
difference in frequency, in response to all leaders and in the midst of each group-as-a-whole defensive process.

Eagly Alice & Johnson Blair (1990) compared the leadership styles of women and men, and evidence is found for both the presence and absence of differences between the sexes. Investigated, namely (a) laboratory experiments and (b) assessment studies, which were defined as research that assessed the leadership styles of people not selected for occupancy of leadership roles. Consistent with stereotypic expectations about a different aspect of leadership style, the tendency to lead democratically or autocratically, women tended to adopt a more democratic or participative style and a less autocratic or directive style than did men. This sex difference appeared in all three classes of leadership studies, including those conducted in organizations. These and other findings are interpreted in terms of a social role theory of sex differences in social behavior.

Pamela Cooper & Brian Kleiner (1993) attempted to address the most successful leadership traits for a woman that has a staff composed of men, fifty percent of which would rather be working for a man. Half the respondents in a recent Gallop poll do not care if it is a man or a woman that they work for. But almost all of those who do care prefer to work for a man. It was concluded that, there is an abundance of leadership styles a woman can choose from.
She can be masculine, she can be feminine, or she can take on the best of both worlds and be androgynous.

Eagly, Karau & Makhlani (1995) determined the effectiveness of women and men who occupy leadership and managerial roles. Aggregated over the organizational and laboratory experimental studies in the sample, male and female leaders were equally effective. It was found that, men were more effective than women in roles that were defined in more masculine terms, and women were more effective than men in roles that were defined in less masculine terms. Also, men were more effective than women to the extent that leader and subordinate roles were male-dominated numerically.

Nina Toren, Alison Konrad, Izumi Yoshioka and Roger Kashlak (1997) examined and compared managerial task preferences and rating of work characteristics of women and men in management positions in the USA, Japan, Australia, Israel and Italy. The findings do not support the notion that women have a distinct leadership style, e.g. that they are more people-oriented than men, or that they differ consistently in their evaluation of various job factors, such as extrinsic versus intrinsic components. The findings sustain the argument that managerial style is not mainly determined by gender but rather by contextual factors, such as national culture, organization and occupation.
Jennifer Berdahl (1999) reviewed several theoretical traditions within the gender literature that have social psychological implications for emergent status structures for groups of varying sex compositions over time. Six models are developed with competing predictions for leadership emergence and status structures, and existing evidence is compared with model predictions. It concluded by noting that greater understanding can be reached by performing competitive tests of a variety of models, such as the ones presented in this article, and doing so by studying groups over time.

Karakowsky & Siegel (1999) examined the behavioral consequences of membership in mixed-gender work groups suggests that men are more participative and influential in task-related behavior. Drawing from elements of sociological, structural, and psychological perspectives, this study examined the effects of group gender composition and gender orientation of the group's task on patterns of emergent leadership behavior. Participants were assigned to male-dominated, female-dominated, or balanced-gender groups for the purpose of discussing and generating solutions for two business-related cases--each case emphasized either male-oriented or female-oriented expertise. The findings suggest that the proportional representation of men and women in a work group, along with the gender orientation of the group's task, can
significantly influence the level of leadership behavior exhibited in group activity.

Sebrant (1999) illuminated the situation of women working in hierarchical organizations--patriarchal systems where male values and characteristics are normative--especially when the majority of employees in the organization are female. Do organizations where women make up the majority of the work force offer specific opportunities for women? How does the predominance of women affect the social construction of gender and leader identity? These questions are examined from a feminist perspective. Two concepts, gender system and the logic of personal relationships, provide the point of departure. Empirical support is drawn from studies, primarily of health care institutions, one of them an ongoing study by the author. The conclusion is that the hierarchical system seems to be self-generating among both women and men. A more flexible and anti-authoritarian work organization gives greater opportunities for women to develop in their work and to accept leading positions.

Webster, Grusky, Podus & Young (1999) emphasized differences in leadership styles between women and men. Women have an "interactive" leadership style while men are more "directive" and "authoritative." Social network analysis is used to examine differences in eight mental health case management teams, half
formally supervised by women and half by men. The techniques used are graphical displays and measures of centrality. Results show male leaders as the most central team member for both instrumental and expressive relations. Female leaders, however, do not adhere to a single leadership style. Team centralisation also differs with gender composition of teams influencing leadership differences.

Michael Thompson (2000) examined the differences in gender between a balanced or unbalanced orientation of leadership, leadership characteristics, and the perceived effectiveness of educational leaders through subordinate responses. The ratings of 57 leaders (males = 31; females = 26) by 472 subordinate participants (males = 234; females = 238) from lower, middle, and upper management levels in secondary and postsecondary institutions. The findings suggest that any differences in the perceived effectiveness of educational leaders in the three leadership type groups are equally true for male and female leaders, and that male and female educational leaders were perceived to be equally effective in their respective organizations despite the stereotypical connotations asserted in previous research.

Anita Jacobson (2001) argued that commitment and leadership are not synonymous terms. While committed managers
may lead the process of quality using exclusively their formal authority, those who are leaders generate a kind of influence that goes further than that. It was concluded that, the multidimensional perception of leadership and upholds that only by considering the ethical dimension of leadership, together with technical and psycho-emotive ones; it is possible to explain more accurately interpersonal influences beyond the scope of power.

Martell & Desmet (2001) compared the leadership abilities between male and female. One hundred and fifty-one managers (95 men and 56 women) judged the leadership effectiveness of male and female middle managers by providing likelihood ratings for 14 categories of leader behavior. It was found that some leader behaviors were greater for male managers, whereas for other leader behaviors, the likelihood ratings were greater for female managers or were no different. Leadership ratings revealed some evidence of a same-gender bias. Providing explicit verification of managerial success had only a modest effect on gender stereotyping. The merits of adopting a probabilistic approach in examining the perception and treatment of stigmatized groups are discussed.

Grinnell (2002) extended the research on sex and leadership by examining the relation between evaluators' and leaders' sex and the sex-role stereotyping of charismatic leaders. A total of 219 students (110 men and 109 women) from a large northeastern
university rated charismatic leaders depicted in vignettes using the revised Bem Sex-Role Inventory: overall, the leaders were rated higher on masculinity than femininity. Analysis by sex of evaluator and leader showed masculinity was higher in all cases except when male charismatic leaders were evaluated by women. In this case, the results support an androgynous view, i.e., high on both masculinity and femininity.

Tracey Manning (2002) explored how gender and organizational level interact to influence ratings of leadership and work satisfaction, and argues that transformational leadership permits women to simultaneously carry out leadership and gender roles. The result show that, top managers of both sexes saw themselves as more transformational leaders, while their raters perceived them as less transformational than average for the sample. Those who were younger and at lower managerial levels were more likely to underrate themselves as leaders, while their raters viewed them as higher than average in transformational leadership.

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Van Engen (2003) compared the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership between men and women. It was found that female leaders were more transformational than male leaders and also engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors that are a component of
transactional leadership. Male leaders were generally more likely to manifest the other aspects of transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership. Although these differences between male and female leaders were small, the implications of these findings are encouraging for female leadership because other research has established that all of the aspects of leadership style on which women exceeded men relate positively to leaders’ effectiveness whereas all of the aspects on which men exceeded women have negative or null relations to effectiveness.

Lisa Boyce & Ann Herd (2003) determined the extent of gender stereotypes held by military students for military leadership positions. The results indicate (1) continued disparity in men’s perceptions of the similarities between women and leaders, (2) support of previous findings that women recognize similarities between women and leaders, (3) senior military students possess stronger masculine gender role stereotypes of successful officers than do students with less than 1 year of service in the military academy, (4) greater experience with being led by female leaders did not affect men’s masculine gender role stereotypes of successful leaders, and (5) successful female cadet leaders perceive successful officers as having characteristics commonly ascribed to both women and men.
Steven Appelbaum, Lynda Audet, Joanne Miller (2003) examined the following three questions: Are women’s leadership styles truly different from men’s? Are these styles less likely to be effective? Is the determination of women’s effectiveness as a leader fact-based or a perception that has become a reality? Conclusions revealed: Question one: Yes, women’s leadership style is, at this point, different from men’s but men can learn from and adopt “women’s” style and use it effectively as well. In other words, effective leadership is not the exclusive domain of either gender and both can learn from the other. Question two: No, women’s styles are not at all likely to be less effective; in fact, they are more effective within the context of team-based, consensually driven organizational structures that are more prevalent in today’s world. Question three: The assessment that a woman’s leadership style is less effective than a man’s is not fact-based but rather driven, by socialization, to a perception that certainly persists. The inescapable reality is that, within the senior ranks of corporate north America (and elsewhere), women remain conspicuous by their absence.

tested using a sample from one of few forums that yields a sufficient mix of male and female leaders – US NCAA Division I women’s head basketball coaches. Results suggest neither gender outperforms the other. More importantly, finds that gender successor origin moderates the relationship between the gender of the successor and short-term organizational performance.

Sczesny & Kühnen (2004) found that previous findings are inconsistent with regard to whether men are judged as being more or less competent leaders than women. However, masculine-relative to feminine-looking persons seem to be judged consistently as more competent leaders. Can this different impact of biological sex and physical appearance be due to the disparate availability of meta-cognitive knowledge about both sources? The results of Study 1 indicated that individuals possess meta-cognitive knowledge about a possible biasing influence of persons’ biological sex, but not for their physical appearance. In Study 2, participants judged the leadership competence of a male versus female stimulus person with either masculine or feminine physical appearance.

Van Engen & Willemsen (2004) discussed on sex differences in leadership styles, published between 1987 and 2000 in peer-reviewed journals, is reviewed by means of a meta-analysis. The leadership styles examined are interpersonal, task-oriented, democratic versus autocratic, and transformational and
transactional leadership. Analysis showed that evidence for sex differences in leadership behavior is mixed, demonstrating that women tend to use more democratic and transformational leadership styles than men do, whereas no sex differences are found on the other leadership styles. It was concluded that, sex differences in leadership styles are contingent upon the context in which male and female leaders work, as both the type of organization in which the leader works and the setting of the study turn out to be moderators of sex differences in leadership styles.

Moss, Barbuto, Matkin & Chin, T. Y. (2005) examined sex differences in influence tactics with a sample of 269 followers (67 men, 202 women) at a large midwestern national insurance company who rated the downward influence tactics used by their direct supervisors. Downward influence tactics are behaviors used by leaders to gain compliance from followers. One department within the organization was identified as a source for participants in the study. Hierarchical linear modeling procedures were utilized to analyze the multiple level data (leader and follower) and to examine variables within the organization at different levels of analysis. Leader participants were asked to solicit their followers to complete an influence tactic measure, which consisted of the most reliable subscales. It was concluded that male leaders used significantly more personal appeal and consultation, so called "soft
tactics," with their followers than did female leaders. Female followers reported that their leaders (both male and female) used consultation and inspirational appeal more frequently. In contrast, male followers reported that their leaders used exchange, so called "hard tactics," more frequently.

Schmidt, Wood & Lugg (2005) explored the links among social support, gender, age, prior experience, leader/follower status, and leadership effectiveness noted in previous accounts from Antarctic stations. Data for this study were collected from volunteers involved in Australian National Antarctic Research Expeditions conducted from 1996 to 2001. At the group level the explanatory variables we examined included leadership effectiveness, gender similarity, and age similarity. At the individual level, the explanatory variables examined included age, gender, prior experience, and leader/follower status. It was concluded that, an interaction between gender and leader/follower status contributed to a significant model of variation in perceptions of social support.

Miller (2007) examined the policy and organizational implications of gender imbalance in management, which research suggests exists in the NHS. A qualitative approach with an analysis of elite interviews conducted with a non-random sample of officials involved in health policy and interviews with a random sample of
senior managers in NHS Scotland. The research formed part of a larger study, which explored the enablers and inhibitors to female career progression in various Scottish sectors. It was found that gender imbalance in management exists in the NHS. This is manifested in a masculine organizational context, leadership and policy decision-making process, which have implications for female career advancement opportunities and subsequently access to macro policy decisions.

Cuadrado, Morales & Recio (2008) attempted to test one of the explanations of the scarce representation of women in managerial positions, which appeals to the fact that women get unfavorable evaluations if they adopt male-stereotypical leadership styles. One-hundred and thirty-six undergraduate students participated in an experiment with a $2 \times 2$ design. Dependent variables were leader's competence, efficacy, and evaluation in a series of traits. It was found that, regardless of sex, the leaders were considered more competent and efficient, and were evaluated more favorably, when they adopted stereotypically feminine leadership styles.

Nyberg, Westerlund, Magnusson Hanson & Theorell (2008) investigated the relationship between managerial leadership and self-reported sickness absence/presenteeism among Swedish men and women. Five thousand one hundred and forty-one Swedish
employees, 56% of the participants in a nationally representative sample of the Swedish working population, were included in this cross-sectional questionnaire study. The leadership dimensions measured were five subscales of a standardized leadership questionnaire (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Programme): Integrity, Team integration, Inspirational leadership, Autocratic leadership, and Self-centred leadership. It was concluded that, managerial leadership was found to be relevant for the understanding of sickness absence in the Swedish working population. There were distinctive gender differences.

Anette Rohmann & Jens Rowold (2009) analyzed whether German male and female leaders differ in their leadership behavior, focusing on transactional vs transformational leadership styles. A field study in which followers were asked to evaluate their respective leaders was conducted in three different organizational contexts in Germany using questionnaires: a recreational sports club (n=183), a government agency (n=267), and a public transport services company (n=203). Additionally, students (n=518) were asked to evaluate historical world-class leaders in terms of their leadership styles after a standardized presentation of their life and leadership style using biographies, essays, and movies. Results in all four samples show that female leaders were perceived as exhibiting more transformational leadership behavior than male
leaders. Moreover, female leaders were evaluated as more effective and as producing more satisfaction than their male counterparts. Self-report data were used and leadership was assessed from the perspective of the followers.

Bruckmüller & Branscombe (2009) examined the role that (a) a gendered history of leadership and (b) stereotypes about gender and leadership play in creating the glass cliff. In Expt 1, participants who read about a company with a male history of leadership selected a male future leader for a successful organization, but chose a female future leader in times of crisis. This interaction - between company performance and gender of the preferred future leader - was eliminated for a counter-stereotypic history of female leadership. In Expt 2, stereotypically male attributes were most predictive of leader selection in a successful organization, while stereotypically female attributes were most predictive in times of crisis. Overall, results suggest that stereotypes about male leadership may be more important for the glass cliff effect than stereotypes about women and leadership.