

MSc in Service Management
Master Thesis
Supervisor: Minna Paunova
Author: Greta Vasilevskyte
Hand-in date: 01/06/2016

GENDER LEADERSHIP

EMPLOYEES' ATTITUDES TOWARDS AND PERCEPTIONS OF FEMALE & MALE LEADERS IN LITHUANIAN BUSINESSES

Number of pages and characters (including spaces):
Only elements that are included in the page count: 72 pages (~ 125000)

Copenhagen Business School
2016

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to analyse the prevailing attitudes towards male and female leaders in Lithuanian businesses and organizations. As of today, only limited number of studies researching this particular topic has been carried out. It was, therefore, decided to supplement the existing knowledge by providing a combination of both descriptive and quantitative analyses.

In this paper, a relationship between respondent's gender and his/her attitude and perception of a leader has been confirmed. In addition, the gender bias, stemming from respondents being more favourable towards leaders of the same sex when it comes to evaluation of their competences and characteristics, has been discovered and statistically proven. Despite men being perceived as more efficient, it is found out that on average female leaders do not have fewer competencies required for successful leadership. However, the data reveals that male leaders have several attributes that are more pronounced compared to overall balanced skillset of a female leader.

Both descriptive and quantitative analysis shows strong agreement with the statement that women face barriers to leadership positions. Even though agreeing with the statement, men respondents believe that it is due to internal factors, while women refer to external factors mostly. The difference in the views is statistically proven and confirmed the hypothesis of different attitude that two genders exhibit towards their leaders.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Minna Paunova for the useful comments, patience and support whilst allowing me the room to work in my own way. Furthermore, I would like to thank the participants in my survey, who have willingly shared their precious time.

I would like to thank my loved ones, who have supported me throughout the entire process, both with words of encouragement and for helping me to put the pieces together. Also, a separate and the biggest thank you goes to my parents for giving me the opportunity to have an education. I will be grateful forever.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	1
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	2
TABLE OF CONTENTS	3
LIST OF TABLES.....	4
LIST OF FIGURES	5
1. INTRODUCTION	6
1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT	7
1.1.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS	7
1.2. ASSUMPTIONS, LIMITATIONS & DELIMITATIONS.....	8
1.3. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS.....	9
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1. WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD	9
2.1.1. WOMEN IN LITHUANIAN LABOUR MARKET.....	10
2.2. ATTITUDES TOWARDS GENDER LEADERSHIP	11
2.3. EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP.....	16
2.3.1. ROLE CONGRUITY.....	20
2.4. CHALLENGES FOR ADVANCEMENT	21
2.4.1. GENDERED CAREER PATHS	21
2.4.2. ACCESS TO NETWORKS & “OLD BOYS’ CLUBS”	23
3. METHODOLOGY	25
3.1. INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH METHOD	25
3.2. DATA COLLECTION.....	26
3.2.1. SELF-ADMINISTERED ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY.....	27
3.2.2. SAMPLE	28
3.3. DATA ANALYSIS METHODS.....	31
4. RESULTS.....	35
4.1. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS	35
4.1.1. LEADER EFFECTIVENESS.....	35
4.1.2. LEADER COMPETENCIES	41
4.1.3. TRUSTING THE LEADER.....	47
4.1.4. BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP	50
4.2. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS.....	52
4.2.1. PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVENESS.....	52
4.2.2. ATTRIBUTES AND COMPETENCES.....	54
4.2.3. TRUST, PROBLEM-SOLVING AND GENDER BIAS.....	60
4.2.4. BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP	63
5. DISCUSSION	67
6. CONCLUSION	70
6.1. RECOMMENDATIONS/FUTURE RESEARCH	71
BIBLIOGRAPHY	73
APPENDIX A	77

APPENDIX B	77
APPENDIX C	78
APPENDIX D	80
APPENDIX E	81
APPENDIX F	81
APPENDIX G	81
APPENDIX H	82
APPENDIX I	82

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: IN YOUR OPINION, WHO ARE MORE EFFECTIVE LEADERS? (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	54
TABLE 2: PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVENESS - FISHER'S EXACT TEST OUTPUT (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	54
TABLE 3: LEADERS' SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES – TEST FOR NORMALITY (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	55
TABLE 4: WILCOXON SIGNED-RANK TEST – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	56
TABLE 5: WILCOXON RANKS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	56
TABLE 6: WILCOXON SIGNED-RANKS TEST OUTPUT (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	57
TABLE 7: TEST OF NORMALITY (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	58
TABLE 8: LEVENE'S TEST – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	58
TABLE 9: LEVENE'S TEST – OUTPUT (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	59
TABLE 10: TRUST AND PROBLEM-SOLVING AVERAGE SCORES (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	61
TABLE 11: GENDER BIAS – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	61
TABLE 12: GENDER BIAS – UNPAIRED T-TEST (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	62
TABLE 13: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – BINOMIAL TEST (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	63
TABLE 14: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	64
TABLE 15: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – CHI-SQUARE TEST (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	65
TABLE 16: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL / EXTERNAL CLASSIFICATION (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	66
TABLE 17: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL/EXTERNAL FACTORS CONTINGENCY TABLE (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	66
TABLE 18: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL / EXTERNAL FACTORS CHI-SQUARE TEST (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	67
TABLE 19: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE PARADIGM ASSUMPTIONS (SOURCE: SUKAMOLSON, N.D.)	77
TABLE 20: QUANTITATIVE VERSUS QUALITATIVE RESEARCH (SOURCE: XAVIER UNIVERSITY LIBRARY, 2012)	78
TABLE 21: DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES: KEY QUALITIES (SOURCE: HOLTON & DENT, 2012)	79
TABLE 22: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT MALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	80

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1: STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	9
FIGURE 2: RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	29
FIGURE 3: TYPE OF ORGANIZATION (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	30
FIGURE 4: EFFECTIVE LEADERS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	36
FIGURE 5: EFFECTIVE LEADERS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' GENDER (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	36
FIGURE 6: COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	38
FIGURE 7: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT MALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	40
FIGURE 8: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT FEMALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	41
FIGURE 9: MALE LEADERS COMPETENCES BY RESPONDENTS GENDER (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	42
FIGURE 10: FEMALE LEADERS COMPETENCES BY RESPONDENTS GENDER (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	43
FIGURE 11: LEADERS ABILITY TO MANAGE CONFLICTS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	44
FIGURE 12: LEADERS EMPATHY (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	44
FIGURE 13: LEADERS ABILITY TO CONTROL EMOTIONS (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	45
FIGURE 14: WHY MALE LEADERS ARE BETTER AT RESOLVING CHALLENGES AT WORK? (BY RESPONDENTS' GENDER) (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	46
FIGURE 15: WHY FEMALE LEADERS ARE BETTER AT RESOLVING CHALLENGES AT WORK? (BY RESPONDENTS' GENDER) (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	47
FIGURE 16: EMPLOYEES' TRUST IN THE LEADER (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	48
FIGURE 17: WHY DO YOU TRUST MALE LEADERS MORE? (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	49
FIGURE 18: WHY DO YOU TRUST FEMALE LEADERS MORE? (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	50
FIGURE 19: BARRIERS FOR ADVANCEMENT (SOURCE: AUTHOR, 2016)	51
FIGURE 20: EFFECTIVE LEADER BY GENDER – BAR CHART (SOURCE: AUTHOR USING SPSS, 2016)	53

1. INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that women achieve better results in high schools and universities, they are rarely the ones who achieve the leadership positions, whereas for the same job they receive 16.2 per cent lower pay compared to men. According to European Commission report (2014), in effect it means that today women work 59 days "for free" until they match the amount earned by men.

The much-discussed question regarding gender leadership is whether women and men behave differently in leadership roles with women being the focus of the discussion (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). The main foundation of leadership is the social interaction between leaders and their peers, supervisors and subordinates. This interaction is highly influenced by gender-role orientation and the attitudes and values linked to these roles. Women and men differ considerably when it comes to their leadership approaches. Female leaders tend to value workplace relationships more than men due to the nature of their interaction style, whereas male leaders' status and power-oriented interaction style propose that they tend to engage in a more controlling authoritative leadership approach (Merchant, 2012). Usually, people have similar beliefs about men being leaders, but different beliefs about women (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). It is suggested that women's performance is evaluated less favourably compared to the same performance of men. Moreover, the attributes that are highly relevant in upper management also merely correspond to men's characteristics rather than to women's. Thus, successful manager is seen as having a more masculine profile (Powell & Butterfield, 1979).

Since people react to leaders in terms of gender expectancies, women and men have somewhat different expectations for their own behaviour in organizational settings. As a result, according to Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), the behaviour may be influenced by the mix of self-definitions of managers that reflect their managerial and gender roles. The perceived incompatibility of female gender role and typical leader role leads to a less favourable assessment of females' (than males') potential for leadership due to leadership seen as a more stereotypic of men than women, and a less favourable assessment of the actual leadership behaviour of females

than males, as agentic behaviour is less appreciated in women than men (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The research of leadership has a long history and has undergone numerous studies (Powell & Butterfield, 1979). However, different researchers have presented different theories and results, since there is no common ground for this topic yet. It is still not clear what characteristics should be attributed to effective leader (assumed as better leaders). Do male and female leader should seek to have the same set of attributes or does it vary on gender-by-gender basis? Do men and females as employees appreciate different attributes that their male and female leaders possess?

In Lithuania, only few studies researching this particular topic (Stundžė, 2009) have been carried out. There is a lack of articles/publications with regard to gender leadership and most importantly, employees' attitudes towards it and, especially, in young and rapidly growing Lithuanian economy. Therefore, one could find it difficult to describe prevailing attitudes towards gender leadership and characteristics that these leaders need to succeed in Lithuania's organizations and businesses.

The purpose and objective of this master's thesis is to find out what are the employees' attitudes and perceptions towards gender leadership, whether there is a difference in their opinions with regard to the attributes and skills that an effective leader (representing each gender) should possess.

1.1.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

By applying relevant theory, methodologies and a review of recent findings from the research conducted in the field, the author aims to answer the following research questions:

1. *What are the attitudes of employees towards female/male leaders in Lithuanian companies?*
 - *Is there a relationship between respondent's gender and his / her attitude towards a female and a male leader?*

2. *What makes an effective and trustworthy leader according to employees?*
 - *Do men and women, as respondents, value and appreciate different attributes of their leaders?*
3. *Do women face barriers when seeking leadership positions?*
 - *If so, what specific challenges (barriers) female leaders face?*
 - *Are the results consistent between male and female respondents?*

1.2. ASSUMPTIONS, LIMITATIONS & DELIMITATIONS

In this section, the limitations and delimitations under which this work has been undertaken are presented.

First, the engagement of prospective respondents to fill in the survey is based on “snowballing” sampling, which means that the demographic characteristics of the sample may be similar. Thus, it entails the risk of being represented only by one type of group and, therefore, survey would not fully constitute a random sample. On the other hand, the research question intends to cover all Lithuanian businesses (and its employees) and not one particular company or organization, in this case making answers more diverse and allowing encompassing people from various industries and communities. It is also assumed that respondents were honest and provided reliable responses. Given the nature of the research questions, one could not fully exclude the risk of social desirability bias, or a tendency for survey participants to respond in a manner that would be viewed favourably by others. However, due to the assured anonymity of this survey, social desirability bias should be minimized (Elsesser and Lever, 2011). Yet, if present, the social desirability bias would have raised the proportion of those who reported no preference for leader’s gender, meaning that the preference for male bosses would be even larger than it is observed in this paper.

Quantitative analysis techniques that are sensitive to a smaller sample size are preferred. However, the results may be limited by the reliability of the test and sometimes can only determine correlation, but not causation. The induction of the results is performed assuming full sufficiency of the sample size, while being statistical tested against 5% significant level.

1.3. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

In this section of the thesis, its structure and the main issues of each chapter are outlined and presented. The thesis is comprised of two interconnected sections, the first part covering existing literature / theory in the field of gender leadership, while the second part covers questionnaire, empirical research, descriptive and quantitative analysis with everything being concluded by results.



FIGURE 1: STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The paper is structured in the following way. First, in Section 1 the reader is introduced to the issues of gender leadership, the reasons why this topic is chosen and answers to what questions this paper will aim to find. Also, problem statement, research questions and limitations are presented. Section 2 reviews existing literature on attitudes toward gender leadership in different settings, presents women's current situation in Lithuanian labour market as well as in the markets of other countries in the world. In particular, factors determining effective leadership are discussed together with prevailing gender stereotypes and reasons hindering women's path towards leadership positions. In section 3, the methodology is described. Results of descriptive and quantitative analyses are available in Section 4, while discussion is presented in Section 5. Section 6 concludes the paper.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. WOMEN AROUND THE WORLD

In the United States, women possess 51% of bachelor's degrees and 45% of all advanced degrees. They make up 46% of all workers and 45% of those in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations. In contrast, statistics pertaining to major leadership roles consistently show inequality: women constitute 4% of the five highest earning officers in Fortune 500 companies and 0.4% of the CEOs; 13% of senators, 14%

of congressional representatives, 10% of state governors and 2% of military officers at the level of brigadier general and rear admiral or higher. In Canada women made up 46% of the labour force, but held only 35% of managerial positions in 2001.

Similar trends are evident in European countries. In 2002, women's representation in the labour force compared to their representation among managerial and related jobs was 45% versus 31% for the UK, 48% vs. 31% for Sweden, 43% vs. 26% for the Netherlands, and 38% vs. only 21% for Italy. Moreover, women comprised 44% of the total labour force in Australia but held 35% of the managerial and related jobs in 2002. Among industrialized countries, one of the largest gender gaps was spotted in Japan, where women made up 41% of the workforce but held less than 9% of the administrative and managerial positions in 2001. These statistics show that although women represent close to half of the labour force in many industrialized countries, their representation in managerial and related jobs is generally much smaller (Lyness & Terrazas, 2006).

2.1.1. WOMEN IN LITHUANIAN LABOUR MARKET

Yet, as recently presented by Mr. Foy from Financial Times (www.ft.com), women seem to be having a higher chance in reaching leadership positions in the Eastern Europe, including the Baltics, compared to the Western Europe, North America and Canada. The global average of women holding senior positions is 22 per cent, while in Eastern Europe this figure is 35 per cent. The best performer country in the EU in this regard is Poland with 37 per cent of senior jobs held by women. They are closely followed by Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia. While EU average is 26 per cent, the UK and Germany are clearly lagging behind with just 22 per cent and 14 per cent of senior jobs held by women, respectively (Foy, 2015). However, according to the latest data from Department of Statistics of Lithuania, the situation in Lithuania is still far from perfect.

According to Department of Statistics of Lithuania (2014), there were 1,319 million employed persons in Lithuania in 2014; 647,1 thousands of the total were men and 671,9 thousand were working women. Employment rate between 15-64 year old males accounted for 66.5 per cent, while it was 64.9 per cent for females. Compared to 2013, the proportions increased by 1.8 and 2.1 percentage points, respectively.

Most of the working population are employees. In 2014, they accounted for 87.9 per cent, the self-employed - 10.8 per cent, contributing family members - 1.3 per cent of the employed population. Women are more likely than men to be employed, at the rate of 89.8 and 86 per cent each, respectively. Self-employed men amounted to 12.9 per cent and women amounted to 8.9 per cent. The private sector employed 72.4 per cent of all eligible population, while the public sector hired 27.6 per cent. There was 81.3 per cent of men in the private sector and 63.7 per cent of women employees.

In 2014, only 8.8 per cent of all employed population was in leader's positions. Yet, even though more females have higher education compared to men (310,7 thousand and 206,9 thousand, respectively), only 6.7 per cent of women (as % of all women employed) held leader positions, whereas 11.1 per cent were held by men (as % of all men employed).

2.2. ATTITUDES TOWARDS GENDER LEADERSHIP

Attitudes are powerful influences on the behaviour of people at work, since they play a crucial role in the formation of their beliefs and actions. Even though attitudes are intangible and unobservable, most of the time, people are unaware of their specific attitudes and the manner in which they affect their behaviour. Many attitudes are developed and maintained in a non-logical fashion, experientially and unsystematically, rather than as the result of rational analysis (Yost & Herbert, 1998).

Little empirical research has been conducted to examine the attitudes toward women as managers across different countries (Javalgi, et al., 2011). However, there have been researches carried out in different countries, for example, Greece, Turkey, Hong Kong, Republic of China, Chile, the USA, Pakistan and others.

One study from the University of Macedonia in Greece, which was conducted by Mihail (2006), showed that business students' attitudes toward women in management are primarily shaped by their own gender. This research, employing the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) and involving 323 undergraduate students majoring in business administration, found that male students hold relatively negative stereotypic attitudes compared to their female counterparts. Moreover, it was found that gender was by far the most prominent element responsible for the difference in attitudes. No

significant differences on other sample characteristics such as age, work experience and cooperation with female supervisor were identified. However, it is concluded that in order to have a more articulated discussion of the main sources of influence on stereotypical attitudes toward women in management, further research involving full-time employees and managers would be more beneficial.

Javalgi, Scherer, Sanchez, Rojas, Daza, Hwang, and Yan (2011) performed a research aimed at determining whether stereotypical perceptions of women as managers exist between men and women in three countries: the USA, China, and Chile. WAMS was used to investigate the attitudes of the students enrolled in degree programs in those countries. According to their findings, in all three countries, men have the lowest perception of women as managers than their respective country women counterparts. In fact, US females had the highest positive perception of women as managers, followed rather closely by Chilean females, while Chinese males had the lowest perception of women as managers.

In another study, Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Adeyemi-Bello and Sagan (2004) investigated attitudes toward women managers in the USA and Poland, an emerging economy in Eastern Europe, which is also a neighbouring country to Lithuania. The results were collected by using WAMS questionnaire, which was distributed to Polish and American professionals and students. Their findings suggest that while Poland may be an extremely challenging environment for women managers, Polish women who aspire for managerial careers are likely to find intense attitudinal barriers. Polish males are more conservative in their attitudes toward women managers than their US male counterparts are. Reszke (1990) mentioned that the discrimination of women in the labour market in Poland is spread out into three dimensions: access to employment, level of payment, and access to managerial positions. Despite prospects created in Poland due to a market based, emerging growing economy and the level of higher education that Polish women are attaining, the gap between men and women's status in the labour market still continues to exist.

Bowen, Yan Wu, Hwang, and Scherer (2007) investigated attitudes towards women managers between students and workers in the Republic of China. To gather results, they also used WAMS, which was sent out to 502 students from four different

universities in Beijing and 385 employees from the People's Bank of China (PBC). The findings of the study showed that, even though, university students and workers shared the same culture, tradition, language, and were governed by the same laws, they held different attitudes. Students believed that the most important component in their attitudes was society's acceptance of women as managers, while the most important component in workers' attitudes was the perception of women's ability to succeed as managers. Moreover, it was also found that there was a strong relationship between gender and attitudes towards women as managers. Females had much more positive, liberal, and egalitarian attitudes towards women as managers, whereas, both young male students and older male workers had the opposite attitudes towards women as managers compared to their counterparts.

In a different analysis, the study conducted by Chow (1995) in Hong Kong researched 82 middle managers of both sexes using WAMS and reported more positive attitudes towards women as managers. Although women comprised 37 per cent of Hong Kong's total workforce, they only held 20 per cent of the managerial positions (Chow, 1995). The findings showed that there was no evidence of gender differences in terms of achievement, ability, performance, or other related skills. In addition, respondents believed that equal opportunity should be given to both males and females. Chow (1995) also found that women have the capability to obtain the essential skills to be successful managers, they have the self-confidence, which is required to be a good leader, and it is socially acceptable for women to compete with men for top management positions.

Aycan, Bayazit, Berkman, and Boratav (2011) developed a new instrument for measuring Attitudes Towards Women Managers (ATWoM). Data were collected from two separate samples. The first sample of 460 white-collar full-time employees from business organizations in Turkey was supplemented by the second sample of 312 students, including senior and junior undergraduate students, MBA and executive MBA students of a mid-size university in Turkey. The findings showed that the correlation between traditional attitudes towards gender roles and attitudes towards women managers was slightly higher for students than employees. Due to the fact that students are not as experienced as employees in their work life, they have less exposure to the

variety of profiles of women managers. Therefore, they may have higher tendency to associate gender roles with managerial roles of women than employees do.

Additionally, the study in Pakistan conducted by Ali, Khan, and Munaf (2013) with 50 employees, including 25 males and 25 females, using ATWAM Scale, showed that there was no significant difference between males and females in their attitude towards women managers in Pakistan. However, additional results report that males residing in joint families have significantly negative sex-role stereotypes towards women as managers, whereas males residing in nuclear families¹ possess a neutral attitude towards women as managers. Moreover, males whose mothers were working had significant positive attitude towards woman managers as compared to males having mothers who were housewives.

In order to expand the knowledge regarding the influence of other variables on attitudes towards women managers and to explore the impact of these attitudes and the strength of its effects, additional studies have been conducted to address this issue in different countries, different by language and its culture. One study conducted by Prime, Jonsen, Carten, and Maznevski (2008) investigated perceptions of 1165 alumni from European-based executive education institutions about women and men leadership. They identified four cultural clusters: Latin (which includes France, Italy, and Spain), Germanic (which includes Germany and the Netherlands), Anglo (which includes the United Kingdom and the United States) and finally Nordic (which includes Denmark, Norway, and Sweden). To gather the results, the Cultural Perspective Questionnaire (CPQ) was used. It was found that more often the perceptions of female and male leaders vary by gender of the respondents than by their culture. It was observed that among female respondents stereotypic perceptions were often biased in favour of their own gender group and that women are more effective in these areas: consulting, providing intellectual stimulation, monitoring, planning, problem-solving, rewarding, and role-modelling. Moreover, the results also showed that females agree that men are more effective when it comes to networking and influencing upward. In comparison, male respondents believed that women's performance is superior to men's in three

¹ The part of a family that includes only the father, mother, and children – Merriam-Webster dictionary.

areas of leader behaviour: consulting, monitoring, and rewarding. Besides this, men agreed that they are more effective in these areas: influencing upward, problem-solving, providing intellectual stimulation and role-modelling.

Another study that was conducted by Liff, Worrall, and Cooper (1997), explored the characteristics of men who had negative attitudes towards women managers. The research sample was 400 respondents (200 female and 200 male) from the West Midlands region of the UK. The findings of this study showed that there was a strong correlation between an increase in age and negative views. While only 5 per cent of the 30-39-year-olds were in the negative core group, this rose to 13 per cent of those in their 50s and to 18 per cent of those aged 60 and over. And the respondents who were under 30 years old made up only a small part of negative core group. Additionally, the researchers also found that there was a negative relationship between negative attitudes towards women managers and no or low-level qualifications. Only 4 per cent of those with a degree were in the negative core group, compared with 15 per cent of those with low qualifications and 17 per cent of those with no formal qualification.

As mentioned before, there is a limited research done regarding attitudes towards gender leadership in Lithuania. Most of the articles focus on leadership in general or is based on more theoretical aspect.

Mockaitis (2005) studies how cultural values affect leadership attitudes in three Baltic Sea region countries: Lithuania, Estonia and Poland. The goal of the exploratory study was to compare employee attitudes toward supervision and control, views on authority, organizational commitment, types of decisions preferred, willingness to take initiative and explore leadership styles across the three countries. The data was gathered via replication studies: for Poland – Nasierowski & Mikula (1998), Lithuania – Mockaitis (2002), while Estonian indices were based on Hofstede's (2001) estimates. The findings of the Mockaitis's (2005) study suggests that even culturally "close" countries display variations in attitudes about leadership. She found that Lithuania falls midway between Estonia and Poland on almost all Hofstede's dimensions (except the masculinity dimension). According to this research, in Estonia employees prefer democratic leader, relationships between them are less formal and it is based on interdependence and trust, whereas in Lithuania, employees prefer a leader

that is persuasive or consultative and who depends less on subordinates. The relationships between employees and leaders are likely to be more formal with the leader being given more control. In Poland, employees accept stricter supervision and there is little room for them to make mistakes as well as for initiative. Lithuania and Poland scored the highest in the masculinity dimension, which means that these two countries' gender roles are distinct and "masculine" values dominate.

Another study conducted by Toleikiene & Rybnikova (2013), which involved a sample of 300 students from one university of Lithuania, studied the question what do Lithuanian respondents expect from leadership and what conceptions of ideal leaders do they have. The findings showed that students perceive ideal leaders as being charismatic, team-oriented, human-oriented and empowering staff to get involved in decision-making. As soon as the responses were divided by gender, significant differences were found: female students imagine the ideal leader as being charismatic, due to the fact that females prefer to have communication based on good interpersonal relationships, whereas male students highlight that the ideal leader must be independent, echoing a rather masculine stereotype. However, according to Diskienė, Marčinskas, & Stankevičienė (2010), Lithuania's leaders are more orientated towards tasks at hand, which somewhat goes against one of the currently prevalent directions in modern management, where a strengthening of social management and greater orientation toward people is observed.

Overall, it is seen that as of today there is no clear framework in the existing literature allowing readers to get a clear picture of attitudes, perception and barriers that women in Lithuania face while trying to reach leadership positions. The researches that were made have significantly contributed to the general understanding of the existing situations, yet each of them being based on its distinctive assumptions, methodologies, samples and other variables.

2.3. EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

"Think manager – think male" – this global phenomenon entails the equivalency between male characteristics and managerial positions, especially among men (Balgiu, 2013). It creates obstacle for women who wish to get a leadership role, since *'all of us'*

have pre-determined expectations of leadership. It is said that *“when we are asked to evaluate someone’s leadership potential, we subconsciously compare them to our expectations. When our expectations are met, they become a projection. We attribute leadership qualities and behaviours to the person, even if they have never exhibited them”* (Brands, 2015).

There is no “One size fits all” when it comes to leaders and companies. Everyone has their own set of skills, competencies and traits that make them a good or bad, but a unique leader. According to Gill (2011; p. 9), *“leadership is showing the way and helping or inducing others to pursue it. This entails envisioning a desirable future, promoting a clear purpose or mission, supportive values and intelligent strategies, and empowering and engaging all those concerned”*. Moreover, irrespective of gender, effective leadership encompasses the creation and sustaining of a shared vision, mission or purpose and values (Gill, 2011).

However, the first definitions of leadership started to emerge in the early 1800s and they mainly have focused on male domination in society; starting from politics continuing in corporations (McEldowney, Bobrowski, & Gramberg, 2009). The initial leadership theory was derived as the “Great Man” theory, where it was thought that the personal characteristics of a great leader determined the course of history (Denmark, 1993). Subsequently, later studies, led by the great man theory, focuses on leadership trait theories describing characteristics that are determined to be critical for success. Leadership model included only male-dominated traits due to the fact that only about 4% of management roles were occupied by women during the time these studies were conducted. At that time, caring, nurturing, and relationship-building characteristics attributed to women were not seen as characteristics that had any bearing on one’s leadership ability (McEldowney, Bobrowski, & Gramberg, 2009).

Similar considerations are expressed by Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb (2011), where they propose that leader identity is created by culturally available ideologies about what it means to be a leader. They add that in most cultures the leader is a quintessentially masculine man: decisive, assertive, and independent. In addition to this, the opposite was expressed about women; as they are perceived as friendly, unselfish, caretaking – thus without the traits required for success in leadership roles.

Adair (2011; p. 46) compiled a list of twenty-five attributes that are most valuable for top levels managers, however with a remark that the list should be regarded only as an indication. Listed are the characteristics that were identified after the survey with successful chief executives in this particular order: ability to take decisions, leadership, integrity, enthusiasm, imagination, willingness to work hard, analytical ability, understanding of others, ability to spot opportunities, ability to meet unpleasant situations, ability to adapt quickly to change, willingness to take risks, enterprise, capacity to speak lucidly, astuteness, ability to administer efficiently, open-mindedness, ability to 'stick to it', willingness to work long hours, ambition, single-mindedness, capacity for lucid writing, curiosity, skill with numbers, capacity for abstract thought.

According to Eagly & Karau's (1991) meta-analysis of 54 studies on gender, female leaders are found to focus more on interpersonal matters and social aspects, while men stand out as task-oriented leaders. The authors also suggest (p. 705) *"if the cultural model of what constitutes excellent leadership would shift somewhat to incorporate greater attentiveness to personal relationships and group maintenance activities, women would probably achieve greater representation in the ranks of leaders"*. However, female leaders face double standard problem due to the inconsistency between traits attributed to women and qualities thought to be essential for leadership. Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb (2011; p. 9) write that *"women in positions of authority are thought too aggressive or not aggressive enough, and what appears assertive, self-confident, or entrepreneurial in a man often looks abrasive, arrogant, or self-promoting in a woman"*.

McEldowney, Bobrowski, & Gramberg (2009) observes the fact that researchers later reject the idea that characteristics alone are enough to explain effective leadership. It is found that leader behaviour could be taught and learned. Thus, as a result, several behaviour styles of leadership were identified, among them democratic, autocratic, and laissez - faire.

There are few studies focusing on researching the dynamics of leadership effectiveness, especially concentrating on transactional versus transformational leadership, where they come across a strong correlation between leadership effectiveness and transformational leadership (McEldowney, Bobrowski, & Gramberg,

2009). Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001; p. 787) say that leaders who use transformational leadership style *“set especially high standards for behaviour and establish themselves as role models by gaining the trust and confidence of their followers. They state future goals and develop plans to achieve them. By mentoring and empowering followers, such leaders encourage them to develop their full potential and thereby contribute more capably to their organization”*. Whereas transactional leaders are those *“who establish exchange relationships with their subordinates. Such leaders manage by clarifying subordinate responsibilities, monitoring their work, and rewarding them for meeting objectives and correcting them for failing to meet objectives”*.

Even though, earlier, the characteristics of females were not considered strong or relevant for becoming an effective leader, Eagly & Johnson (1990) obtains evidence that shows tendency for women to adopt a more democratic and participative style, while also concluding that transformational leadership are more closely than expected associated with female characteristics. They are described as friendlier, more pleasant, more interested in other people, more expressive and socially sensitive than male. In a separate analysis, Bass (1997) discovers that transformational leaders are more successful and provide better financial results than transactional leaders.

On the other hand, Bass & Avolio (1994) expresses their reasoning about females and transformational style relation from an alternative point of view. They suggest (p. 556) that *“women leaders are more likely than men to encourage participation, to enhance the self-worth of others, and to get followers to trade off their self-interests for the overall good of the organization. Women leaders may simply display qualities more in line with transformational leadership, which in turn makes them more effective in the eyes of their followers”*. Similar view is also expressed by Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), as they argue that transformational leadership focuses on *individual consideration*, whereby leaders pay more attention to the mentoring and development of their subordinates and their individual needs. Thus, this alternative point of view may have arisen from the fact that men perceive the world differently compared to women, therefore, they also communicate differently (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Even though the trait theory has often been used to explain leadership effectiveness and what constitutes a great leader, now this trait approach has fallen out of favour among leadership researches. This might be explained with the idea that leadership is not a matter of passive status or of the mere possession of some combination of traits (Judge, Ilies, Bono, & Gerhardt, 2002).

Despite the fact that women's position is improving in society, their inferiority to men due to the lack of access to positions of power continues to be one of the main barriers for professional women. Most of the literature clearly shows that women are perceived to be as caring, nurturing, friendly, indecisive and insecure, whereas men are seen as strong, active, decisive, assertive, and independent. Hence, research findings propose that our society value leaders' characteristics that are more associated with men rather those related to women.

2.3.1. ROLE CONGRUITY

One could define stereotypes as a "*representative of a society's collective knowledge of customs, myths, ideas, religions, and sciences*" (Crespi, 2003; p. 3). People develop a stereotype or a belief about a certain group based on their knowledge, which also has an effect on their social behaviour and it's prevalent in every individual.

Simply by unconsciously separating the world into two groups, one could easily imagine two very distinct categories of leaders: "males" and "females". However, in reality, the features of men and women usually overlap, but gender polarization often creates an artificial gap between the two and limits what they can do (Crespi, 2003). According to Eagly & Karau (2002), stereotypes that are linked to women and men are abundant. People are convinced that each sex has typical—and divergent—traits and behaviours. In accordance with their social role theory, the greater part of these beliefs about the sexes may be related to *communal* and *agentic* attributes. Communal characteristics, which are attributed more strongly to women, describe primarily a concern with the welfare of other people – for example, compassionate, affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturing, and gentle. In contrast, agentic characteristics, which are attributed more strongly to men, describe primarily an assertive, controlling, and confident tendency – for example, aggressive, ambitious,

dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident, and prone to act as a leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002; p. 574).

Yet, there are studies showing that qualities ascribed to men and qualities ascribed to leaders are often the same. Thus, the result of this match illustrates and confirms that masculine stereotypes depict men as being naturally granted the prerequisite qualities needed for leadership. This is particularly the contrary for female leaders, especially due to the fact that in many countries stereotypically feminine characteristics are usually not the qualities associated with successful leaders. Hence, possibly portraying female leaders as being relatively ill-suited for leadership (Prime, Carter, & Welbourne, 2009).

2.4. CHALLENGES FOR ADVANCEMENT

The following section outlines obstacles that women (might) face when trying to achieve a leadership position in a company. It is categorized into themes, gathered from different studies and researches that at the time of this work appeared to be the most prevalent.

2.4.1. GENDERED CAREER PATHS

It is believed that one of the important factors that might hinder women's path to leadership position is their commitment to family and responsibility for children care. Nowadays, a lot of women (still) remain the primary caretakers of their families and at the same time executing their duties in their workplaces (Elmuti, Jia, & Davis, 2009).

It is challenging for women to get on and stay the course of leadership on account of organizational structures and work practices, which are anticipatorily designed with men in mind. Since women have only an insignificant presence in the labour force, many organizational features accommodate men's lives and situations. These structures of organizations may prevent women from simultaneously maintaining career and family roles (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Mavin, 2001). Mavin (2001) and Elmuti, Jia, & Davis (2009) agree that women are often forced to choose between the promotion and family stability at home. Moreover, it is suggested that there is a relationship between marital status and promotion; when the rank of a married woman increases, the likelihood of

divorce grows as well. Thus, it indicates that the mismatch between family and work responsibilities together with wife's potential job transfers is the often-mentioned problems in marriages of career women (Mavin, 2001).

Denmark (1993) argues that despite the fact that women have managed to slightly advance to lead in business, academia, and a variety of other professional pursuits, they are still underrepresented in higher level positions as leaders and most often stay part of a secondary labour force with little opportunity for upward advancement. He also suggests that occupational roles taken by men focus on competitiveness and achievement-related skills, whereas women's socialization includes less promotion of leadership ability in the workforce and instead mainly promotes preparation for domestic roles as wife and mother or lower level traditional jobs in the workforce.

According to Mavin (2001), women will continue to be at a competitive disadvantage in career development until traditional male career models and approaches stay around and they are forced to withdraw themselves from their professional path. She suggests that in order to help women to have a work-life balance with career advancement possibilities, it is necessary to consider that women's experiences are differing from men and offer organizational structures that would be based on appropriate women career framework.

Reskin (1988), in her article about "*Sex Differentiation and the Devaluation of Women's Work*", expresses that men resist working with women together as equals because it undermines male dominance. She says that numerous studies document men's resistance to women entering "their" jobs; sometimes it is shown as a simple exclusion, at other times as subtle barriers that block women's advancement or simply open harassment. Men often, as a response to women's challenge in the workplace, emphasize and remind them their "natural" roles as wife, mother or sexual partner (Reskin, 1988).

To sum up, the lack of organizational structures that would be appropriate for females have forced them to become a part of the male career model. There are just a few career models that attempt to incorporate women's varying life experiences. Even though the traditional working pattern of education, full-time career, retirement is

constructed on the basis of the typical working lives of men and the single typical working pattern for modern women is non-existing, yet they are still compelled by society and organizations to comply with the traditional stereotype for male workers (Mavin, 2001). Thus, the absence of female applicable organizational structures can significantly increase the barriers for women to advance in their careers and enter the boardrooms.

2.4.2. ACCESS TO NETWORKS & “OLD BOYS’ CLUBS”

An additional challenge that women might face when reaching for leadership position is the absence of the right to enter the ‘old boys’ networks (Fitzsimmons, 2012; Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). These “Old boys’ clubs” are described as an informal system or an exclusive club formed by individuals who are close to those in power and where they support others who share similar social background and characteristics by using their position of influence (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003). According to Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb (2013; p. 12), *“informal networks can shape career trajectories by regulating access to jobs; channelling the flow of information and referrals; creating influence and reputation; supplying emotional support, feedback, political advice, and protection; and increasing the likelihood and speed of promotion”*.

Research shows that networks of men and women are structured in different ways because of systematic contrasts in men and women’s formal organizational positions and their preference to interact with others of the same sex. Furthermore, women mention that a significant obstacle for their career development is caused by the lack of access to influential co-workers with whom they could network (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011).

In addition, according to Burke (1993), *“many corporate directors are members of an ‘old boys’ network and appear to have been cut out with a cookie cutter - they are male and white”*, while the same holds for their personal networks. He says that CEOs are more comfortable with others *‘like them’*. They tend to appoint men who have similar ideas, which are easy to understand and whose behaviour is easy to predict. Therefore, women who are different in social backgrounds, demographic characteristics and communication styles have a lesser chance to be accepted into the old boys’ club.

According to Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb (2011), men's network is more informal compared to women's professional ties and men's mentors are more likely to get them promoted. Moreover, they found that high-status men usually support and provide career development opportunities to male subordinates, because they believe that they are more likely to succeed than women. Consequently, female networks produce less leadership opportunities, recognition and endorsement. They also question the idea that the differences between women and men's networks arise from women's unwillingness to undertake the instrumental activities required to establish a strong network – they may think that these actions will appear too inauthentic and overly instrumental. Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb (2011; p. 14) reveal the findings of one experiment where these fears are tested to see if they are valid: *“they rated Heidi and Howard as equally competent, but saw Howard as more likeable, genuine, and kind, and Heidi as more aggressive, self-promoting, and power-hungry. Anticipating this judgment, women may hold back from building sufficiently strong networks to support their leadership ambitions”*.

Burke (1997) investigates the idea that one of the main reasons why there is absence of women on corporate boards is because of the attitude of male CEOs and Board Chairmen, who seem to believe that women lack necessary qualifications and are fearful that women might have a women's agenda or they are just afraid to let in new and untried females on a corporate board. Also, some of the male CEOs simply indicate that they are not comfortable working with women directors.

According to few researches' conclusions, it is necessary to make qualified and professional women more visible. Moreover, other male CEOs who report positive experiences and actual benefits from having female directors on their boards need to go public with their experience in order to influence others to get more women on their boards (Burke, 1994).

To conclude: it is seen that without a doubt having a strong network is significant advantage. It may increase the speed of promotion; supply more opportunities; provide feedback, political advice, and protection. However, literature shows that mainly men are enjoying these benefits. Women have a smaller chance to get into “old boys' clubs” due to the fact that men are more comfortable around the same people as they are or, alternatively, they believe that women are less qualified per se. Yet, one thing is crucial -

as long as women are not able to establish strong networks or men keep hindering the access to those “clubs”, women are going to have a one additional barrier to overcome.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter covers the techniques that were used in this paper to explore the subject of employees' attitudes towards gender leadership in Lithuanian businesses. The research method, data collection, survey, sampling and data analysis are discussed in sections below. Moreover, this section aims to explicate, justify and reflect on the methods selected and used, upon which the analytical design of this thesis is based. The methods were selected with the objective of the study in mind, i.e. aiming to answer the research questions addressed.

3.1. INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH METHOD

In general, there are two major types of methods that can be applied in a research: *quantitative* and *qualitative* analyses. As Blaikie (2010) lays out, the difference between them is that “*quantitative methods are generally concerned with counting and measuring aspects of social life, while qualitative methods are more concerned with producing discursive descriptions and exploring social actors' meanings and interpretations*” (Blaikie, 2010; p.204). Besides this, the fundamental objective of qualitative type of method is to generalize the “*truth*” found in the samples to the population, whereas the main purpose for quantitative research is to understand a certain phenomenon (Sukamolson, n.d.).

Qualitative methods usually are usually more subjective and researchers are encouraged to explore a more holistic picture, since their aim is to investigate the causal relationships between basic elements and understand how they work as a whole (McFadzean, 2007). To put it more simply, “*researchers are collecting data that are socially constructed by their subjects. Their aim is to understand the meaning of the phenomena rather than how one element affects another*” (McFadzean, 2007; p.2). This method is suitable when it is necessary to investigate different levels of perception. It helps to understand the deep motives of behaviour and it is possible to obtain both rational and emotional evaluation of the subject tested.

There are few phenomena that actually appear in the form of “naturally” quantitative data, meaning that in most of the events that researches would like to study do not produce any quantitative data. However, it is possible to gather data that is not in a quantitative form by using quantitative methods. In order to proceed with that, it is necessary to create research tools, which would help to convert phenomena that do not naturally exist in quantitative form into quantitative data, so that it allows analysing it statistically (Sukamolson, n.d.). Examples of this are, for example, ‘quantification’ of attitudes and beliefs. In general, quantitative research focuses on measuring social reality, but since the method is quite flexible, an almost unlimited number of topics can be explored (Sukamolson, n.d.).

In this project, the quantitative research method was employed in order to collect relevant data and answer the research questions. As just mentioned, the aim of the quantitative research in this project is to quantify opinions, attitudes and behaviours and find out how the whole population feels about the topic of choice. This type of research is described as *“explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)”* (Aliaga and Gunderson, 2000 in Muijs, 2011; p.1). By using this method, it becomes possible to identify statistical relationships and to test specific hypotheses. It is also worth mentioning that participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the survey creator so that it does not influence the interpretation of the results.

3.2. DATA COLLECTION

There are many approaches to gather information for quantitative research including surveys, custom surveys, mail/e-mail/Internet surveys, telephone surveys, self-administered questionnaire surveys, omnibus surveys, structured interviews, structured observations, etc. (Blaikie, 2010; Sukamolson, n.d.) In order to collect the relevant data for this project, it was decided to employ self-administered online questionnaire survey.

3.2.1. SELF-ADMINISTERED ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

By adopting self-administered online questionnaire, respondents are recruited via Internet. These surveys are especially beneficial since respondents can answer the questions and submit their responses during a single visit to the website, thus they do not have to take the additional step of mailing their survey (and run the risk of forgetting to do so) (Sukamolson, n.d.).

Certainly, there are pros and cons of using the web-based questionnaires. The list below is compiled of the remarks that were previously mentioned by the most prominent researchers in the field (Deren, 2013; Sukamolson, n.d.; Gingery, 2011; Sincero, 2012):

Advantages:

- No cost is involved once the set-up has been completed.
- No costs to administer the survey, as respondents do it themselves.
- Respondent freedom. Respondents have more time to complete the survey and control the pace at which they do so, making it easier and more convenient for them to respond.
- Allow respondents to maintain their anonymity and reconsider their responses.
- A significant number of people will give more honest answers to questions.
- Does not require interviewer time.
- Speed and reach. A large amount of people can be reached in an extremely short period of time.
- Real-time capture of data. Responses are received in real time and can be analysed immediately.
- Ability to include videos and graphics in questions.

Disadvantages:

- Internet access is far from universal, so Internet surveys do not reflect the population as a whole.
- May take a long time to receive sufficient responses.

- Often requires follow up.
- Respondents self-select (potential bias).
- Respondent controls the survey. They might not fill it in on time or at all.
- Lack of monitoring. No one available to clarify questions or encourage respondent.

The aim of the thesis is to study the attitudes of Lithuanian employees towards male and female leaders. Since these attitudes do not naturally exist in quantitative form, a questionnaire that would help to perform the following task has been developed:

- to choose /pick the most important traits, skills and attribute;
- to rate/rank a number of statements ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
- to answer other questions about gender leadership;

The survey consists of 29 questions, which also includes boxes for voluntary suggestions and expression of opinions in a arbitrary way. The questions were composed and inspired by relevant articles, books and other surveys. While some of the questions were created by the author of this thesis, other questions were adapted from the existing literature. The combination of both ensured the existence of 'right' questions that are tailored for the topic of choice and once answered providing appropriate information for the researcher and thesis' leaders.

3.2.2. SAMPLE

In a small research, group of subjects are often not fully formed in accordance with the principle of randomness. However, the study is significant because the survey sample is sufficient, data is obtained without affecting respondents' opinion, and the easy filling of the questionnaire and uncomplicated questions should make them feel helpful.

The questionnaire was distributed to acquaintances that work in organizations based in Lithuania using a "snowballing" technique by means of social media source

(LinkedIn², Facebook³ and others).. They were invited to share it within their network: colleagues, friends/family and acquaintances that satisfy necessary requirements (age, location, employment experience).

The survey was open to respondents starting 18 March 2016 and until 25 April 2016. During this period, 84 people fully completed the questionnaire, where 68 per cent of respondents were women and 32 per cent of respondents were men. The age of the respondents varies from 19 to 50. The sample includes 22.6 per cent aged between 18 - 24 years, 70.2 per cent aged between 25 - 34 years, 3.6 per cent aged between 35 - 44 years and 3.6 per cent aged between 45 – 54 years. Moreover, as seen from the FIGURE 2, most of the respondents have a university degree. More precisely, 48 per cent of the respondents have a Bachelor's degree and 31 per cent have a Master's degree. The pre-university level made up 21 per cent of the sample, while 11 per cent of the respondents indicated that they have advanced vocational education and/or training and 10 per cent are high school graduates.

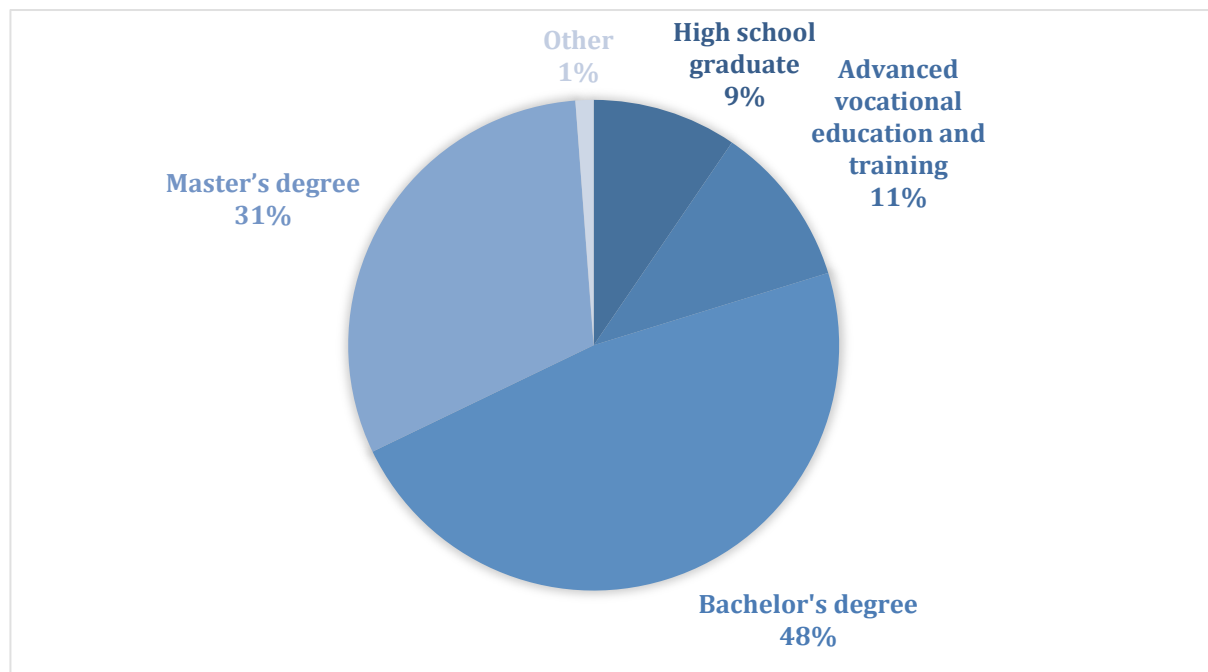


FIGURE 2: RESPONDENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION (Source: Author, 2016)

In addition to this, as shown in FIGURE 3 more than half of the respondents are currently employed in *Private sector*, which corresponds to 63 per cent of the total,

² For more information please consult: <https://www.linkedin.com/about-us>

³ For more information please consult: https://www.facebook.com/facebook/info/?tab=page_info

whereas 25 per cent of the respondents have jobs in *Public sector*. Another answers that were chosen are: *Non-governmental organization* (8%), *Not-for-profit* (1%) and *Other* (3%).

Moreover, with regard to respondents' positions at their workplace, 23 per cent indicated that they are employed as *Associates/Junior specialists*, 17 per cent as *Blue-collar workers*, 13 per cent and 12 per cent as *Managers* and *Senior Managers*, respectively. Relatively large number of respondents indicated *Other* and specified their answers in the given box. In most cases, in their comments respondents mentioned "*Specialist*", while other answers included responses such as *senior specialist*, *banker*, *expert*, and *worker-specialist (blue-collar)*. Furthermore, the work experience of the respondents varies from 1 month to 28 years and according to the calculations, the average experience in years is 6.25 years. Moreover, 68 per cent indicated that their current leader is female and 32 per cent said it is male. In addition, 49 per cent of respondents do not have a preference regarding gender of their leader, while 25 per cent would prefer male leader and only 5 per cent would like to have female leader. However, 20 per cent say that they are satisfied with their current leader.

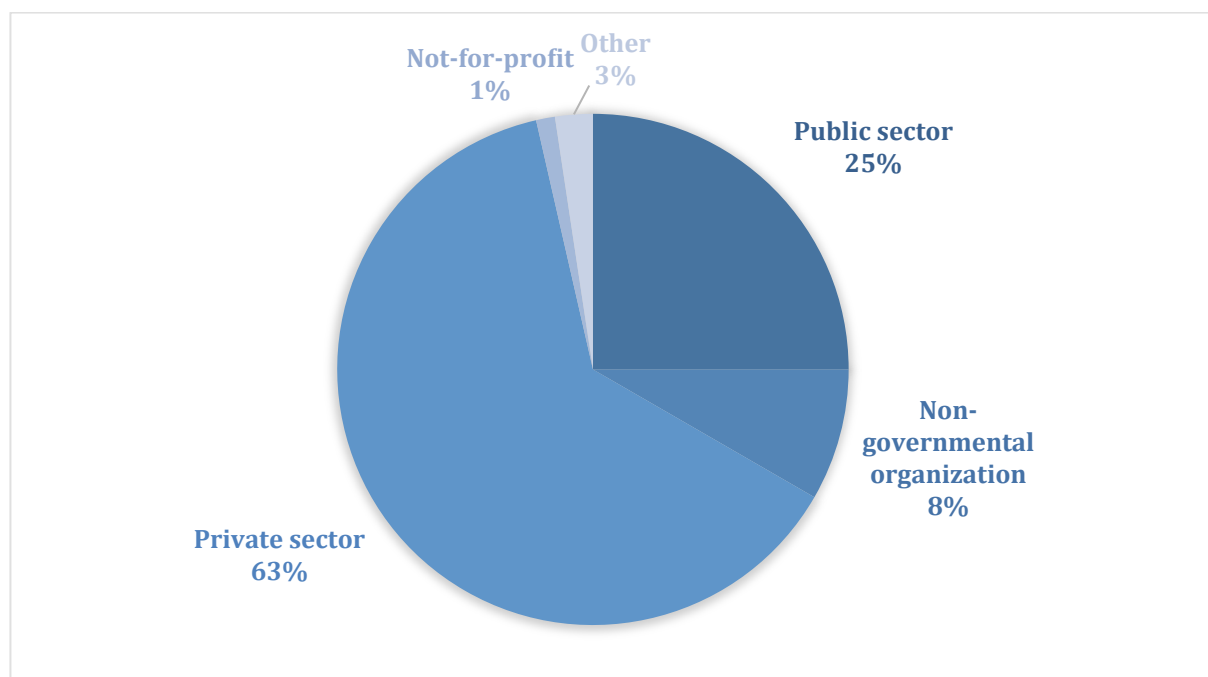


FIGURE 3: TYPE OF ORGANIZATION (Source: Author, 2016)

Hence, taking the above in consideration, a typical respondent of this questionnaire is a female aged between 25 - 34 years, most likely with a Bachelor's degree and working in a private sector as an Associate/Junior specialist. She has approximately 6.25 years of experience and her current leader is a female, but she does not have any preference towards gender of her leader anyway.

3.3. DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

In support to the descriptive analysis of this paper, the quantitative methods are applied. In order to examine hypothesis for statistical significance, several classical tests are employed (Field, 2009).

Chi-square test

One of the most widely used methods to test for independents between two variables is the Chi-square test. The null hypothesis is that the classifications/variables are independent (i.e., no relationship between them), while the alternative hypothesis is that the classifications/variables are indeed dependent (i.e., that a relationship or dependency exists). The test can also be used to test for equality of proportions between two or more groups.

The general formula for Chi-square test is:

$$X^2 = \sum_{i,j} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}} \sim \chi^2_{(r-1)(c-1)}$$

Where O stands for the observed and E stands for the expected frequency in i -th row and j -th column of the contingency table.

Several assumptions have to be fulfilled to get reliable Chi-square estimates:

- Simple random sampling;
- Independent observations;
- Large expected frequency (usually frequency of 10 observations is sufficient);
- Mutually exclusive variables.

Fisher's exact test

When one of the expected values in a contingency table is less than 5, and especially when it is less than 1, then usually the Fisher's Exact test is used. The test was initially proposed in the mid-1930s by Fisher. While Chi-square test is an approximate method, the Fisher's exact test calculates the exact probability of the table of observed cell frequencies given the following assumptions:

- The null hypothesis of independence is true;
- The marginal totals of the observed table are fixed

The null hypothesis for the test is identical to the one in Chi-square test, i.e. that there is no association between the rows and columns of the $i \times j$ table, such that the probability of a frequency being in a particular row is not influenced by being in a particular column. The alternative hypothesis, is also in line with Chi-square test, i.e. that there is an association between a particular row and column (between two cases).

Binomial test

The binomials test is one of the most straightforward statistical applications. It is an exact test used for testing whether the proportion from a dichotomous variable corresponds to the presumed population value.

For example, if the null hypothesis assumes that two outcomes are equally likely to occur, the alternative hypothesis will test whether the likelihood of a single outcome is not equal to 50%.

Unpaired T-test

When there is limited possibility to get precise overview of the whole population, the Unpaired (independent) T-test is used to compare the means between two unrelated groups (samples) on the dependent variable. Consequently, the null hypothesis in this case is that the two populations means are equal.

The following formula is used to calculate the T-statistic (Shier, 2004):

$$T = \frac{\tilde{x}_1 - \tilde{x}_2}{SE(\tilde{x}_1 - \tilde{x}_2)}$$

Where \bar{x}_1 is the sample mean and SE is the standard error of the difference between the means (as derived from the pooled standard deviation).

However, one has to be aware that the data has to fulfil the following crucial assumptions:

- Homogeneity of variance (i.e. two samples should be roughly normally distributed and should have approximately equal variances;
- Observations within sample must be independent from each other.

Levene's test

While t-test is testing for difference among the group means, the Levene's test is testing for difference among group variances, i.e. how much the values of one group vary around its mean. It tests the null hypothesis that the population variances are homoscedastic (tests for homogeneity / equality of variance). The test is usually two-sided, which means that the alternative hypothesis is that the variances of groups under analysis are different in any direction.

The Levene's Statistic is calculated in the following way (Virginia Commonwealth University):

$$F_{Levene} = \frac{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^t n_i (\bar{D}_i - \bar{D})^2}{(t-1)}}{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (D_{ij} - \bar{D}_i)^2}{(N-t)}}$$

Where,

t – number of treatments;

N – overall size of combined samples;

n_i – number of observations within treatment i ;

\bar{D}_i – average of the n_i absolute deviations;

\bar{D} – average of all N absolute deviations

D_{ij} – absolute deviation of observation j from treatment's i mean.

The Levene's test assumes that the data is obtained by taking simple random samples and that at least one of the treatments has 3 or more observations.

Wilcoxon signed-rank test

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test is the nonparametric test and it is conceptually similar to the dependent t-test. The test can be used when the same participants perform both conditions of a study, i.e. it is appropriate for analysing the data from a repeated-measures design with two conditions. It compares two sets of values / scores coming from the same participants. Consequently, the null hypothesis is that the median difference between the sets of observations is zero.

Contrary to t-test, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test does not assume normality in the data. Therefore, it can be used when this assumption has been violated and the use of the dependent t-test is inappropriate.

As the name suggest, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test ranks the absolute value of the differences between observations from smallest to largest. The smallest deviation receives a value of 1, while the next largest deviation receives a rank of 2, et cetera. The ranks of deviations (in each direction) are then summed up. The smaller of these two sums is the W test statistic. In contrast to other test statistics, the smaller the W statistic is, the less likely it is to have occurred by chance.

Besides relying on a major assumption that observations in each sample have to be comparable, the data also has to fulfil the following criteria:

- Observations have to be paired but drawn independently and randomly;
- Samples have to be dependent;
- Dependent variable must be continuous.

To perform the statistical analysis, the author of the paper uses SPSS Statistics software package. SPSS is widely used among researchers in the field, as it provides a range of statistical procedures suitable for various problems, including crosstabs, linear,

logistic and non-linear regressions, Monte Carlo simulation, geospatial analytics, and the ability to extend built-in capabilities with Python, R, or Java code.⁴

4. RESULTS

In this chapter the results of the study are presented. The descriptive analysis section aims to present the trends discovered when analysing the questionnaire responses, while in the quantitative analysis section several hypotheses will be tested for statistical significance

4.1. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

As stated in Section 3.2.2, 84 fully completed questionnaires were received. However, on separated occasions, even responses from the partially completed questionnaire can add value. Therefore, given a rather small sample size and where applicable (i.e. dichotomous questions), the analysis does not limit itself to the use of fully completed questionnaires only.

The descriptive analysis provides preliminary answers to research questions and serves a solid foundation for hypotheses testing in the quantitative part.

4.1.1. LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Every leader can be characterized by his/her own set of skills, competencies and traits that make him or her either a better leader or a worse leader. It commonly believed that leadership effectiveness depends on personality traits necessary for leading and communication, abilities acquired that help to orientate quickly in difficult situations as well as to plan activities and skills needed to inspire team members and to perform the required tasks. Moreover, education factor is important since it helps to developed communication skills, improve multitasking and many other work-related skills that can be useful in becoming and establishing yourself as a leader.

⁴ For more information, please visit: https://www.ibm.com/marketplace/cloud/statistical-analysis-and-reporting/us/en-us?S_TACT=M161007W

One for the main and fundamental questions of this work is to analyse the perception of the employees towards their leased/bosses. The analysis is initiated by asking respondents whether they believed that either men or women leader are more effective.

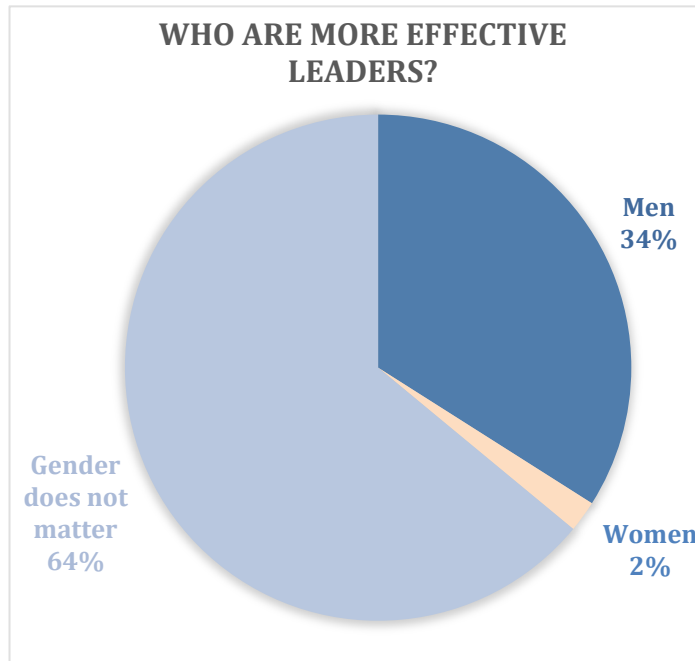


FIGURE 4: EFFECTIVE LEADERS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS (Source: Author, 2016)

According to FIGURE 4, the majority of respondents indicated that gender does not matter when it comes to being an effective leader, i.e. 64 per cent of respondents think that effective leaders can equally be both men and women. However, when one looks at the responses after having divided respondents by gender (FIGURE 5), we can see that 59 per cent of males believe that men are more effective leaders. Moreover, 41 per cent indicated that gender does not matter and

none of the male respondents thought that women are more effective leaders. When it comes to female respondents, 72 per cent of them believe that both men and women can be effective leaders. Additionally, 26 per cent of women think that men are more effective leaders, whereas only 2 per cent indicated women as more effective.

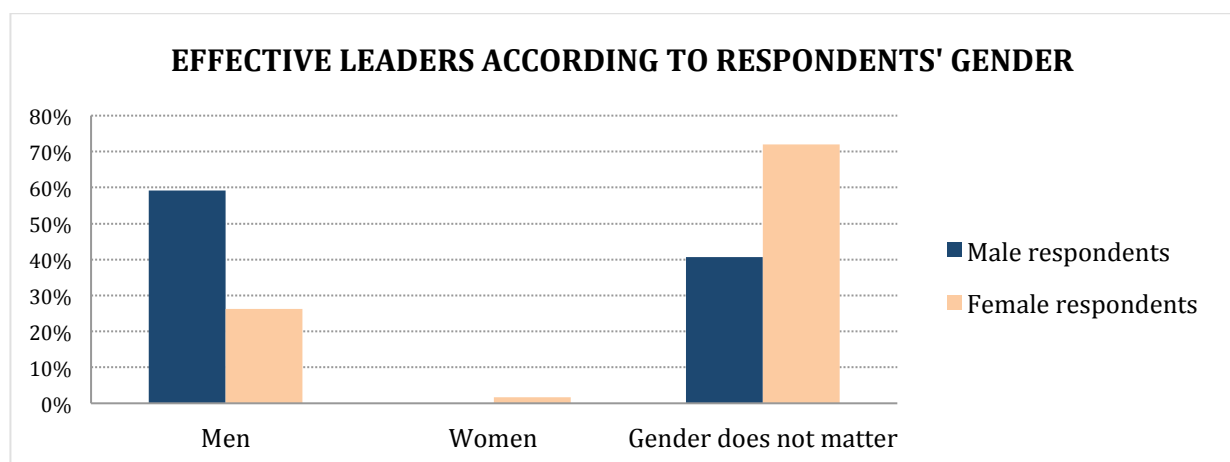


FIGURE 5: EFFECTIVE LEADERS ACCORDING TO RESPONDENTS' GENDER (Source: Author, 2016)

As an answer to the question “*what is the main factor that influences leadership effectiveness?*”, most of the respondents indicated that personality traits and acquired relevant knowledge and skills (88 per cent and 80 per cent, respectively) are the main factors that influence the effectiveness. Only 41 per cent chose education as one of the main elements. Thus, one may infer that there is a prevailing opinion in the society thinking that educational institutions do not have a significant influence on the formation of effective leaders. Moreover, few respondents indicated additional factors as “others”, namely: ability to communicate, sociability, flexibility, team, and experience.

The division of leaders’ personal characteristics revealed respondents’ views on women and men leaders and showed what features they deem appropriate for effective leaders. Respondents had the opportunity to choose personal leadership qualities for each gender from the same set of features. The goal of this method was to avoid situation when respondents would form prejudice towards the survey and would think that it is based exclusively on existing stereotypes that men and women’s personal characteristics have major differences. Respondents were also given the option to express their opinion in an arbitrary way: open-ended questions about the women and men’s leadership attributes that were not mentioned in the questionnaire.

FIGURE 6 shows the comparison of most suitable male and female leaders’ attributes chosen by respondents. Out of 21 attributes of choice, 3 are perceived as undesirable attributes (*Untrustworthiness*, *Selfishness*, *Emotionality*), while 24 are positive.

It is visible that quite a few of the same qualities when attributed to men and women exhibit a more prominent distance from one another. For example, *Tendency to take risks* – only 7 per cent of all respondents attributed this trait to women, while as many as 49 per cent of respondents chose this particular attribute as suitable to men. Overall, the top 5 characteristics that effective male leaders possess, according to all respondents, are: *Self-confidence* (86%), *Ambition* (60%), *Assertiveness* (59%), *Competency* (49%) and *Tendency to take risks* (49%). The 5 least popular attributes mentioned are: *Untrustworthiness* (1%), *Emotionality* (2%), *Humility* (4%), *Compassion* (5%), and *Selfishness* (9%). Regarding effective female leaders, the top 5 attributes they possess are: *Creativity* (57%), *Competency* (55%), *Self-confidence* (54%), *Activeness*

(43%), and *Initiative* (42%). The 5 least mentioned characteristics for women are quite similar to the ones describing male leaders: *Untrustworthiness* (3%), *Tendency to take risks* (7%), *Domination* (12%), *Humility* (13%), and *Selfishness* (13%).

Moreover, one can see that all top 3 male attributes actually have higher value / frequency (i.e. 86%, 60%, 59%) than the most popular female attribute (57%). This potentially suggests that male leaders have more distinctive attributes than female leaders do, i.e. male leaders have several very prominent characteristics, while female leader's profile is more balanced. The next section will address this issue by applying simple quantitative analysis.

The importance of the attributes is consistent with the findings and the final list composed by Adair (2011), who identified 25 attributes that are most suitable for top-level managers.

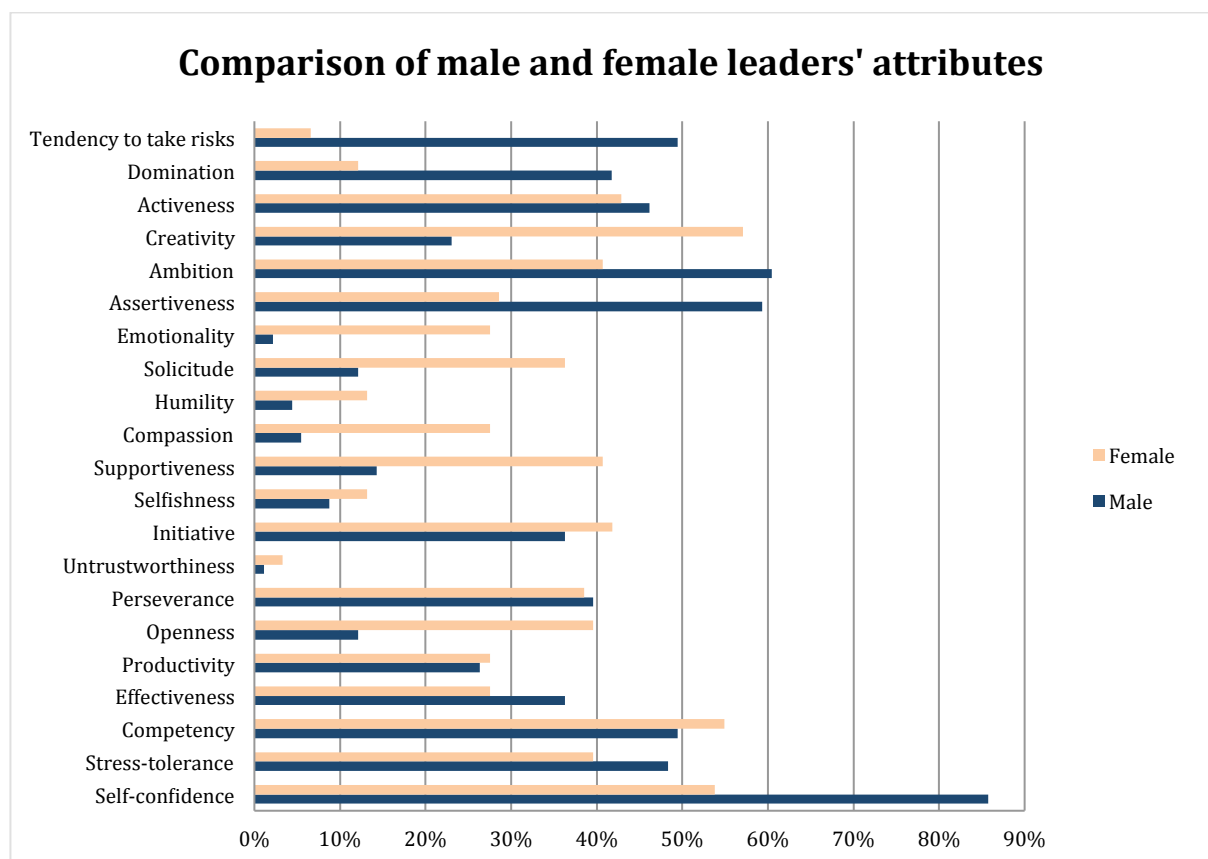


FIGURE 6: COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (Source: Author, 2016)

When looking at FIGURE 7, which shows the difference between men and women's responses about the effective attributes of *male* leaders, we can notice that men and

women respondents have a somewhat similar attitude, as a lot of respondents inclined towards *agentic* attributes. In women's opinion, the most suitable attributes that male leaders possess are: *Self-confidence* (86%), *Ambition* (58%), *Assertiveness* (54%), *Tendency to take risks* (54%), and *Activeness* (49%). Characteristics chosen the least frequently are: *Emotionality* (0%), *Untrustworthiness* (2%), *Compassion* (4%), *Humility* (5%), and *Openness* (9%). Male respondents believe that effective male leader possess these attributes: *Self-confidence* (85%), *Assertiveness* (70%), *Ambition* (67%), *Stress-tolerance* (59%), and *Competency* (59%). Looking at the least popular answers of male respondents and comparing it with female respondents, one can notice that men also think that male leaders (usually) don't possess these attributes.

If one pays closer attention to the male responses only, he would notice a rather interesting trend. While both men and women think that effective male leaders possess attributes mentioned above, however, as long as "softer" traits are concerned, it becomes visible that male respondents have better opinion about male leaders compared to women's opinion. For example, as many as 41 per cent of male respondents believe that male leaders are creative, whereas only 16 per cent of women attributed this characteristic to them. Another example can be provided by analysing the *openness* attribute, which has been chosen by 22% of male, compared to just 9 per cent that were selected by female respondents (Appendix D). It possibly suggests that men respondents tend to overvalue same sex leaders in these aspects, in which it is commonly believed that male leaders underperform compared to their female compatriots – in this case mostly "softer" traits.

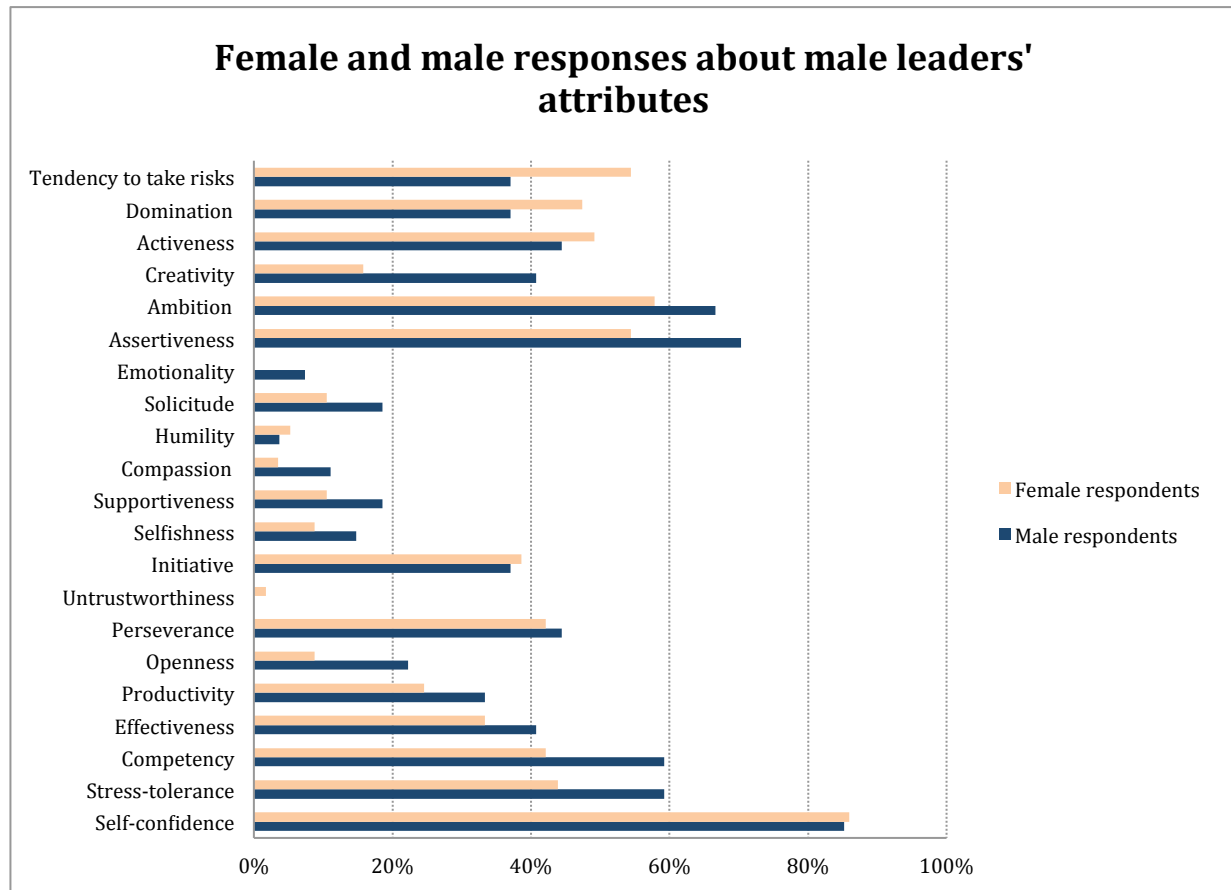


FIGURE 7: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT MALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (Source: Author, 2016)

FIGURE 8 shows female and male responses about female leaders. It is clearly visible that in order to describe female leaders, male respondents, in line with expectations, chose a lot of “softer” traits. These include: *Openness* (59%), *Creativity* (56%), *Activeness* (56%), *Supportiveness* (52%), and *Competency* (48%). Interestingly, none of the agentic attributes made it to the top 5 in male responses. Female respondents, on the other hand, believe that female leaders possess a mix of agentic and “softer” attributes: *Self-confidence* (61%), *Creativity* (60%), *Competency* (58%), *Ambition* (42%), and *Activeness/Initiative* (40%). Lastly, men and women’s opinion perfectly coincided on the 5 least popular attributes describing female leader: *Domination*, *Tendency to take risks*, *Untrustworthiness*, *Humility*, and *Selfishness*.

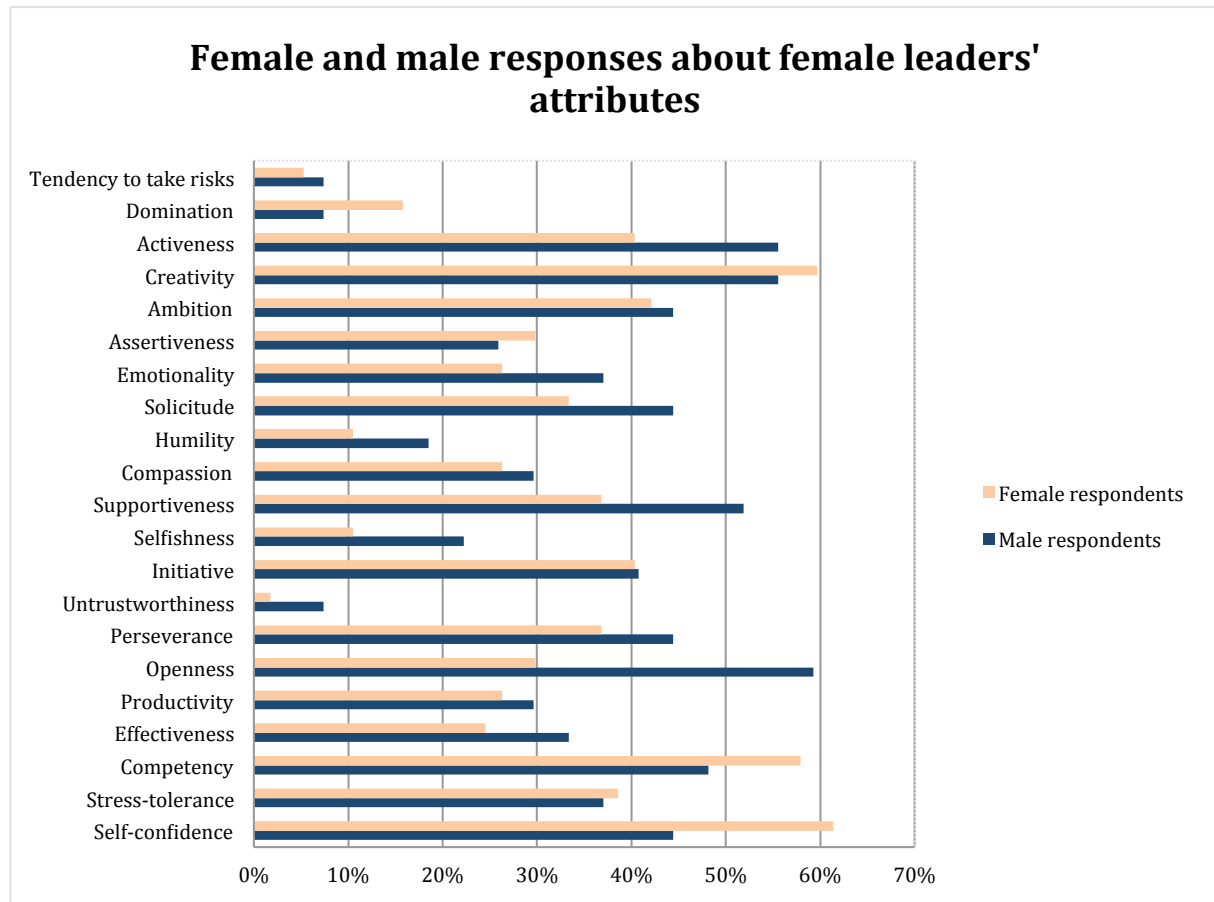


FIGURE 8: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT FEMALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (Source: Author, 2016)

Thus, when it comes to evaluation of qualities of the same and opposite sex leaders, the data shows that respondents in general are more favourable towards leaders of the same gender. While men and women tend to agree regarding most suitable attributes of a male leader, a significant disagreement regarding female qualities has been found. Men respondents, in with prevailing stereotypes, believe that female leaders are characterised by communal traits mostly, while women said that a mixture of both, communal and agentic, attributes is common to female leaders. Moreover, it is preliminary concluded that male leaders seem to have a more prominent set of skills compared to female leaders.

4.1.2. LEADER COMPETENCIES

As discussed in the literature review section, nowadays leader's competencies are mainly associated with their gender and their self-perception. In the survey,

leadership competences are accurately reflected with these 6 functions, which effective leader should be able to perform:

- Exactly instruct group or organization members;
- Organize effectively;
- Accurately and clearly formulate tasks;
- Control workflow in an effective way;
- Accurately assess situation;
- Inspire and motivate group or organization members

After respondents have been asked to evaluate leaders' competences, the results reveal that male leaders can best *accurately and clearly formulate tasks* (74%), *at the right time accurately assess situation* (64%) and *organize work effectively* (56%).

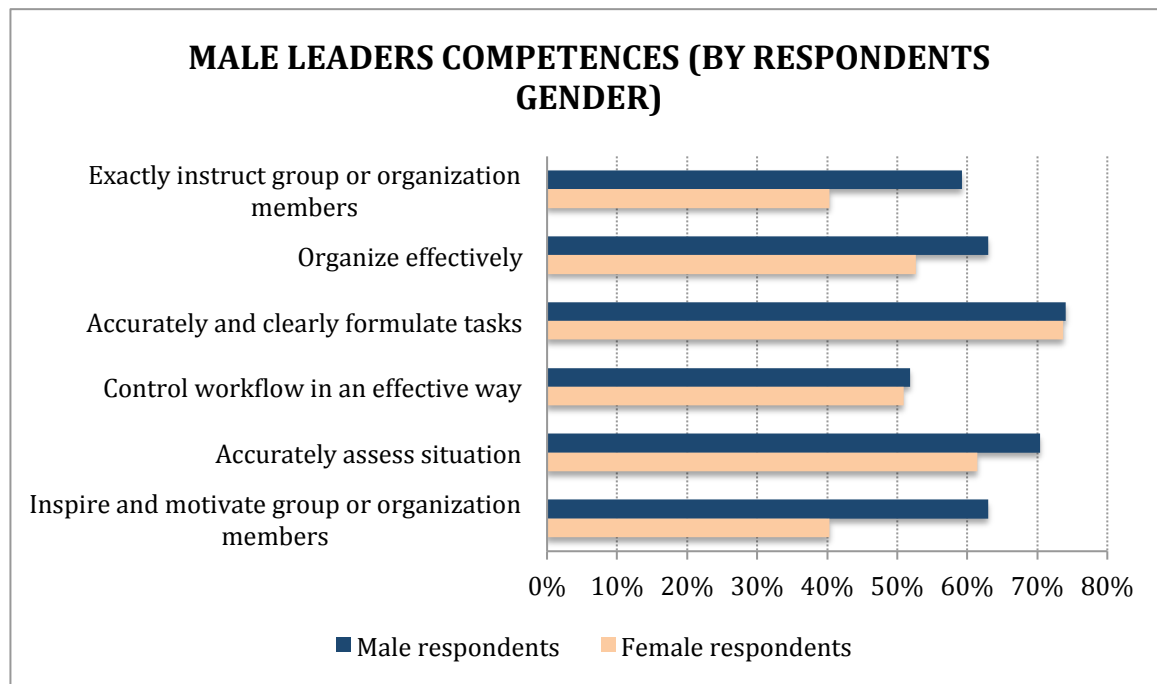


FIGURE 9: MALE LEADERS COMPETENCES BY RESPONDENTS GENDER (Source: Author, 2016)

Female leaders prosper in *inspiring and motivating group or organization members* (66%) and *organizing work effectively* (55%) as well as *accurately and clearly formulating tasks* (55%) (FIGURE 10).

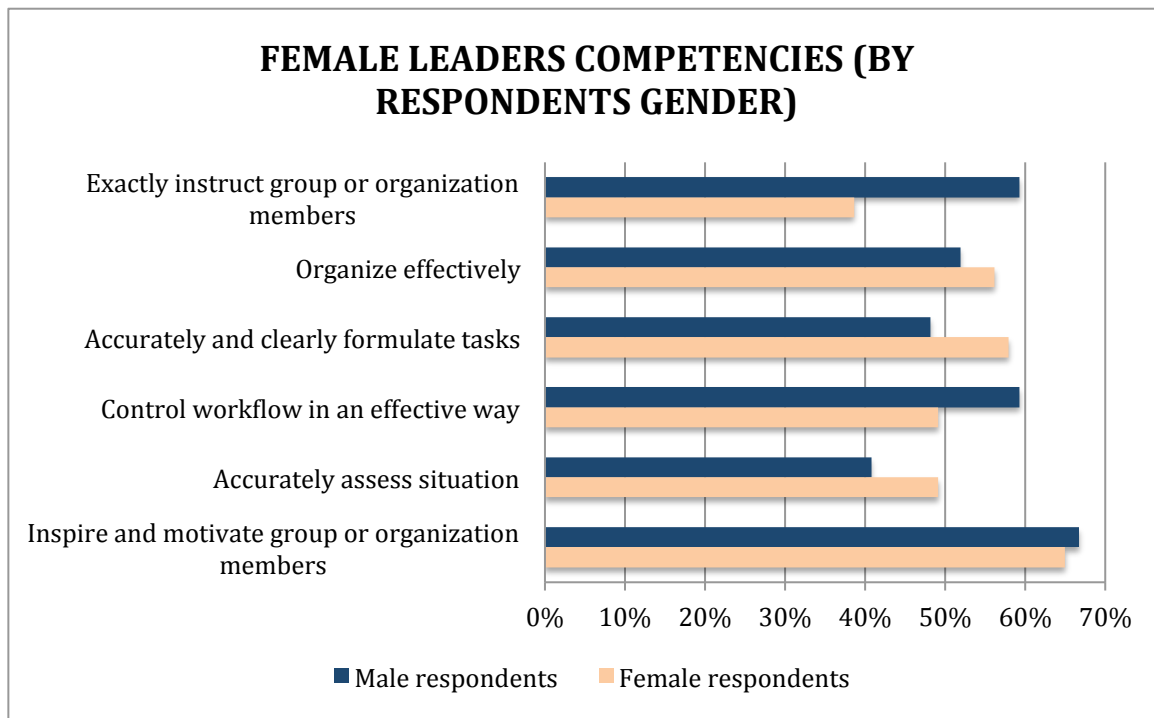


FIGURE 10: FEMALE LEADERS COMPETENCIES BY RESPONDENTS GENDER (Source: Author, 2016)

Despite a significant overlap, the discovered differences show that women still use a different leadership style compared men. Their aim is to maintain close relationship with the group, therefore, they are able to inspire and motivate them. Male leaders, who are usually characterised as being goal-oriented, are best at formulating tasks as well as allocating and delegating work.

Conflict and difficult situation management, empathy, emotions

Conflict management skills are fundamental part of leadership effectiveness as it may decide whether or not a team will enjoy working together, accept improvements, and try to develop better ways of doing daily tasks (Rashid, 2002). Being able to deal with conflicts requires specific knowledge and competencies.

When asked which leader is able to effectively manage conflicts, 44 per cent of respondents believe that female and male leaders are equally capable of effectively

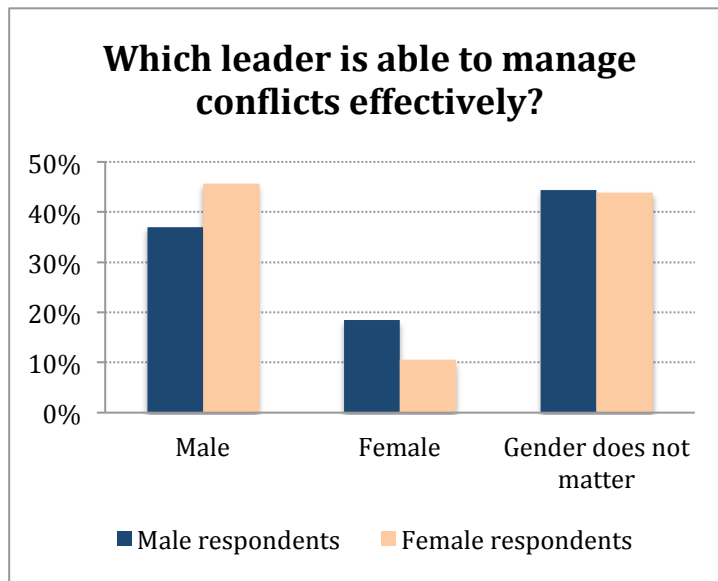


FIGURE 11: LEADERS ABILITY TO MANAGE CONFLICTS (Source: Author, 2016)

manage conflicts. However, as much as 43 per cent think that men are better at dealing with disagreements at work and only 13 per cent chose females. Moreover, interestingly enough, a larger part of women respondents compared to men think that male leaders are more effective in conflict (even though the difference is not too big at around 10 per cent).

Empathy, another important leadership aspect, can be defined as the ability to empathize with the feelings of others and understand others' emotions. This attribute is

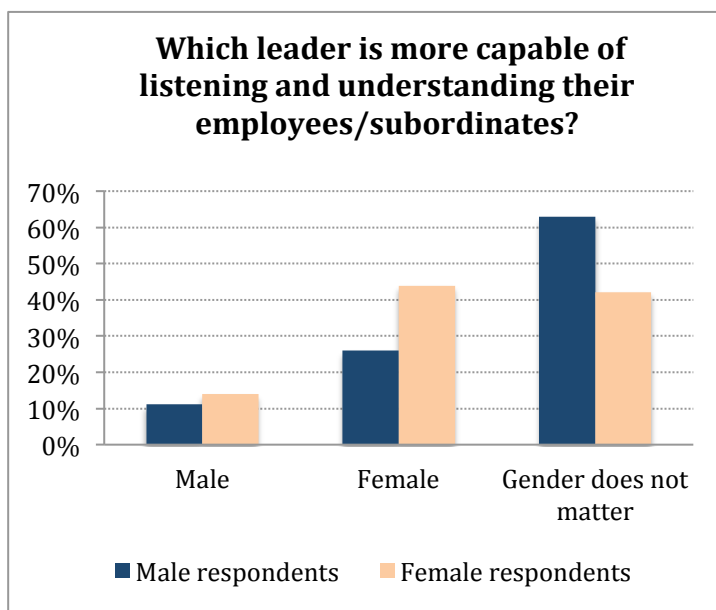


FIGURE 12: LEADERS EMPATHY (Source: Author, 2016)

usually considered exclusively as feminine characteristic. However, it is believed that depending on the situation both men and women can be equally empathetic. When asked to compare leaders of both genders, the majority of respondents said that gender does not matter when it comes to being able to listen and understand employees and subordinates. Nevertheless, as

much as 38 per cent indicated that female leaders are better 'listeners' and only 13 per cent said that male leaders are more compassionate. This is a relevant outcome, as it

possibly shows that the stereotype of women being more empathetic is slowly subsiding.

There is also a common belief that men are better at controlling their emotions, which potentially comes from the upbringing period when young boys are taught to manage their feelings. This belief is based on the attributes of gender roles acquired

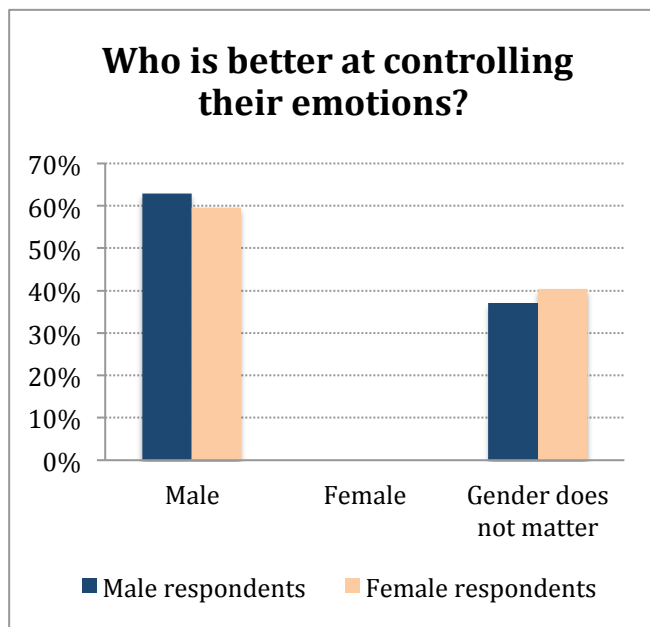


FIGURE 13: LEADERS ABILITY TO CONTROL EMOTIONS
(Source: Author, 2016)

during the process of socialization, meaning that male leaders are expected to have the ability to better control their emotions. This hypothesis is also confirmed when looking at the answers of the respondents: 61 per cent think that male leaders are better at controlling their emotions, whereas 39 per cent think that gender does not matter and none of the respondents directly selected female leaders. Additionally, even after dividing results based on

the respondents' gender, majority of men and women still believe that male leaders are better at handling their feelings. Therefore, one can conclude that the belief is still widely accepted.

Management of difficult situations is a broad concept, which encompasses conflict and complex tasks management, the orientation in situations where sudden changes of environmental factors occur. In general, it can be summarized as the ability to cope with the challenges at work. According to the questionnaire results, 55 per cent of the respondents think that it does not matter whether it's a male or female leader, whereas 36 per cent consider male leaders as being better at dealing with difficult situations in the workplace.

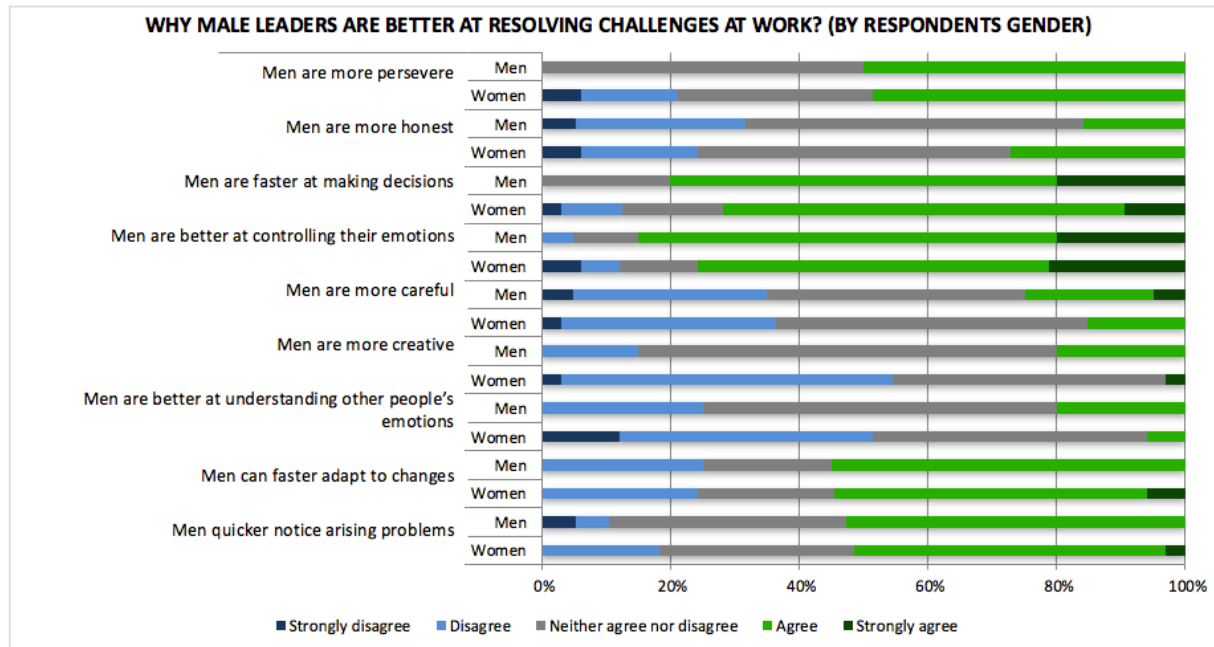


FIGURE 14: WHY MALE LEADERS ARE BETTER AT RESOLVING CHALLENGES AT WORK? (BY RESPONDENTS' GENDER) (Source: Author, 2016)

When asked why they think that male leaders can solve challenges better, majority agree that it is because they are *more persevere*, *faster at making decisions*, *better at controlling their emotions*, *can faster adapt to changes*, and *notice arising problems quicker*. However, there were statements that respondents did not have an opinion about. Half of them neither agreed nor disagreed that men are *more honest* or *more creative*. Also, people do not have an opinion about male leaders being *more careful* and *able to understanding other people's emotions better*. None of the statements proposed were obviously disagreed with.

With regard to female leaders and their ability to resolve challenges at work, most of the respondents agree that women succeed because they are *more creative*, *careful* and *better at understanding other people's emotions*. However, 63 per cent disagree with the statement that female leaders are *better at controlling their emotions*. In addition to this, respondents were indecisive when asked whether female leaders are *more persevere*, *more honest*, *faster at making decisions* and *adapting to changes*, *quicker at noticing arising problems*.

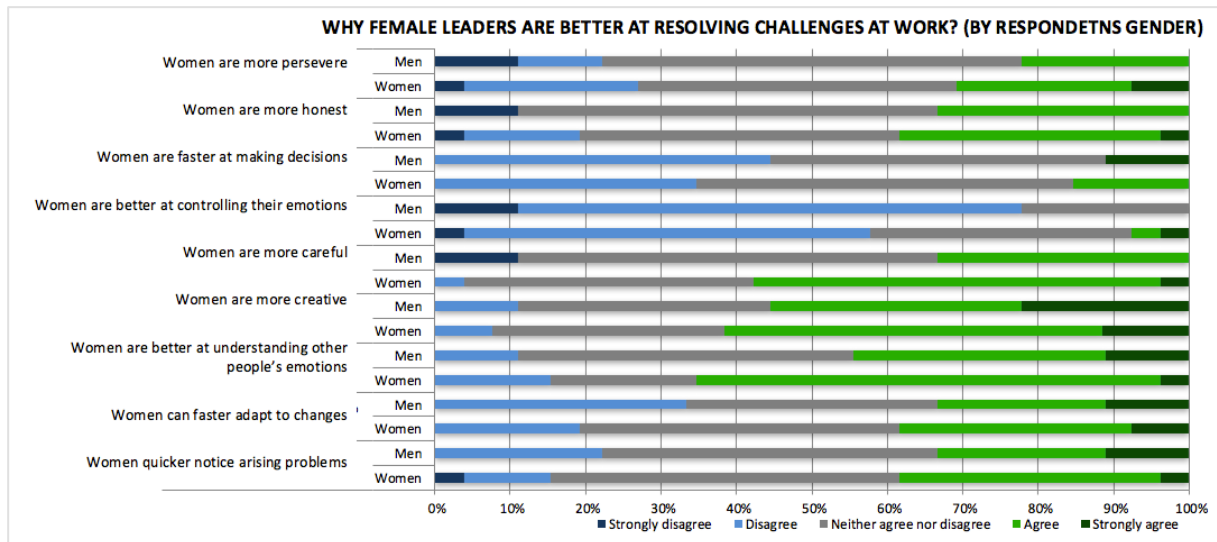


FIGURE 15: WHY FEMALE LEADERS ARE BETTER AT RESOLVING CHALLENGES AT WORK? (BY RESPONDENTS' GENDER) (Source: Author, 2016)

It is worth mentioning, that as it was the case with evaluation of leaders attributes, respondent when asked about leaders' competences have also shown tendency to assess leaders' of the same gender in more positive way than leaders of an opposite gender. Moreover, even if, for example, a male respondent chose women leader to be more competent, he would still give her lower grades compared to a woman respondent, who also believes that a female leader is more competent compared to a male leader. Thus, the possible existence of a 'gender bias' will be tested for in the quantitative analysis section.

4.1.3. TRUSTING THE LEADER

Trusting the leader that employees are following is one the most important factors, which proves leadership and organizational effectiveness, streamlines communication in the team. When a leader is trusted, teams or members of the organization work more efficiently, express more motivation and mood of colleagues is better, which overall has a positive influence on company's results (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Leader is perceived to be trusted when his/her personal characteristics meet expectations of the group members and when his/her working competence proves that he/she is worthy of the position.

According to FIGURE 16, more than half of the respondents in Lithuania (52%) say that gender does not matter when it comes to trusting the leader. As much as 42 per

cent trust men leaders better, compared to only 6 per cent of respondents who indicated that they trust women leaders more.

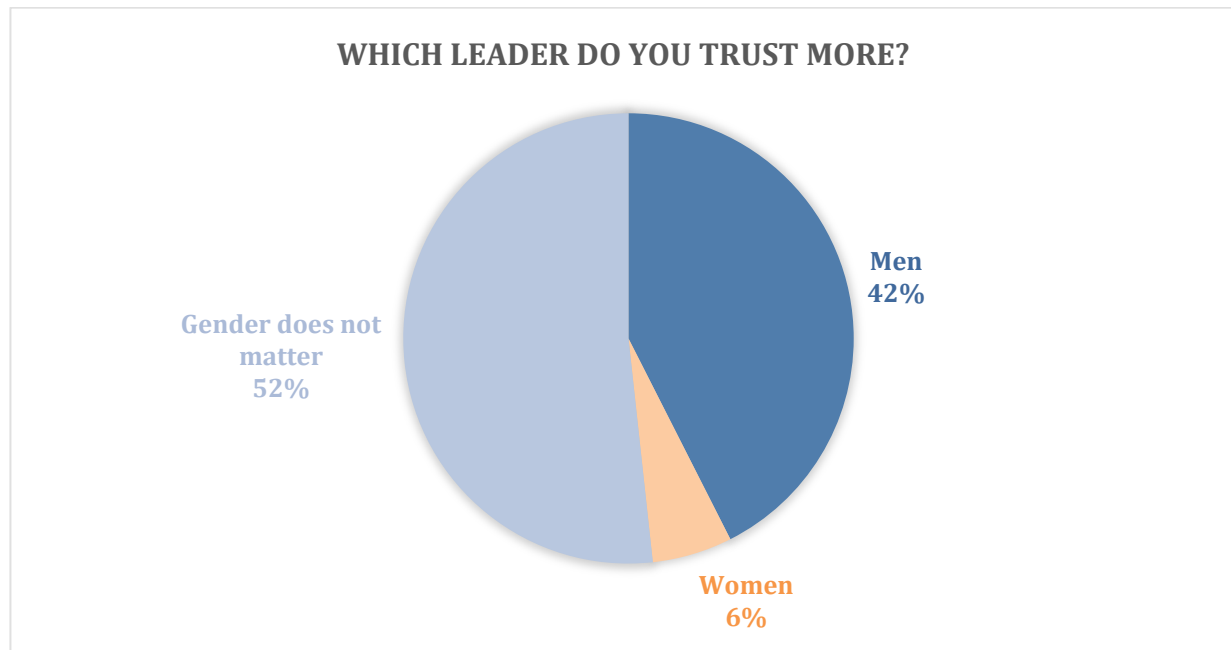


FIGURE 16: EMPLOYEES' TRUST IN THE LEADER (Source: Author, 2016)

After dividing respondents' answers based on their gender regarding trust in leadership (Appendix E), one can notice interesting distribution of results. More than half of the male respondents (59%) indicated that they trust male leaders more and, rather surprisingly, none of the male respondents have opted for the "women" option. 41 per cent of men believe that gender in this case does not matter. With regard to female respondents, more than half (58%) also indicated gender does not matter when choosing a leader to trust. However, even more surprisingly, women said that male leaders as more trustworthy compared to women leaders, 35 per cent versus 7 per cent, respectively.

A review of reasons behind respondents' choices shows that 80 per cent of all respondents agree⁵ that *men leaders are rarely guided by their emotions*. Moreover, the majority of respondents (71%) agree that *they are more self-reliant* and *they maintain their stance/opinion more assertively* (57%). Respondents also indicate that they trust male leaders due to *them being able to stabilize difficult situations quicker* (57%) and

⁵Author combines answers *agree* with *strongly agree* and *disagree* with *strongly disagree* when describing the choice of statements.

because *they are more practical* (63%). However, 50 per cent of all respondents disagree with the statement that *male leaders more often admit that they were wrong*. On the other hand, there are statements that respondents had significantly different opinion about. For example, 45 per cent of respondents disagreed with the statement that *male leaders develop more personal relationships with the co-workers*; however, the almost same amount of people neither agreed nor disagreed with this option. Same holds for the statement: *they are more aware of the feelings of others*, which received more or less the same amount of picks. Even though, most of the people *disagree* or *neither agree nor disagree* with these options, it is visible that men are more indecisive, whereas more women disagree with the latter statements. Furthermore, there are only two choices respondents neither agree nor disagree with, which are: *they themselves trust people more* (48%) and *they are more inclined to help in difficult situations* (57%).

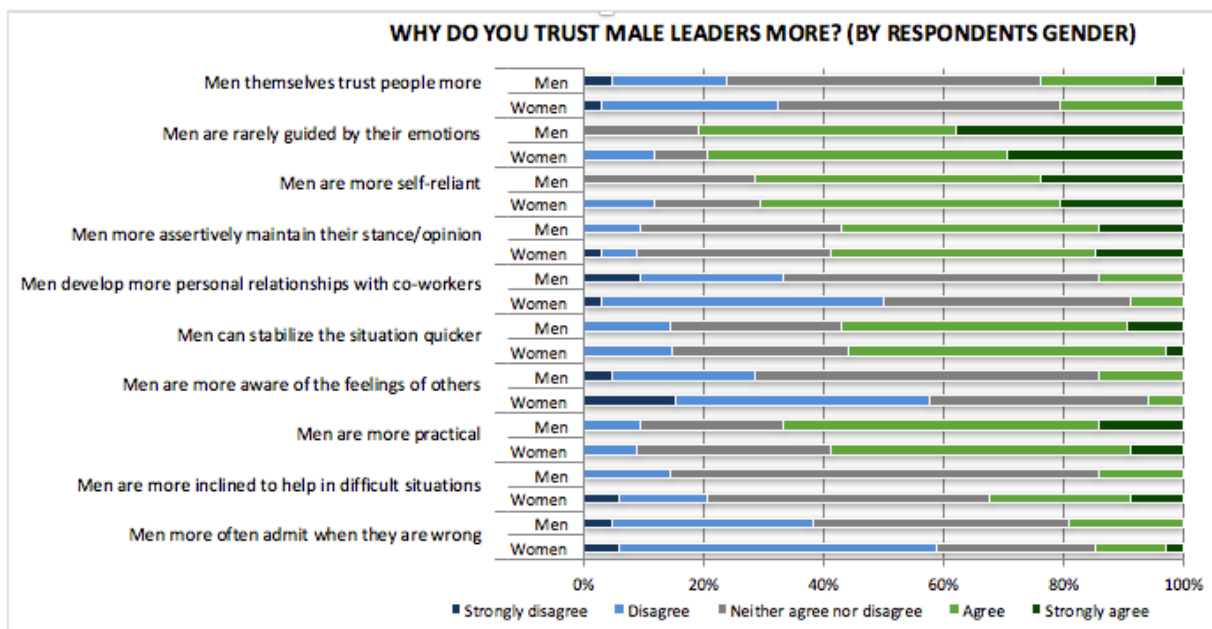


FIGURE 17: WHY DO YOU TRUST MALE LEADERS MORE? (Source: Author, 2016)

Respondents, who indicated that they trust female leaders more (FIGURE 18), say that they disagree with the statement that *females are rarely guided by their emotions* and as much as 62 per cent chose this option. However, 62 per cent of respondents agree that *they develop more personal relationships with their co-workers*. Moreover, 54 per cent of people believe that *female leaders are more aware of the feelings of others*.

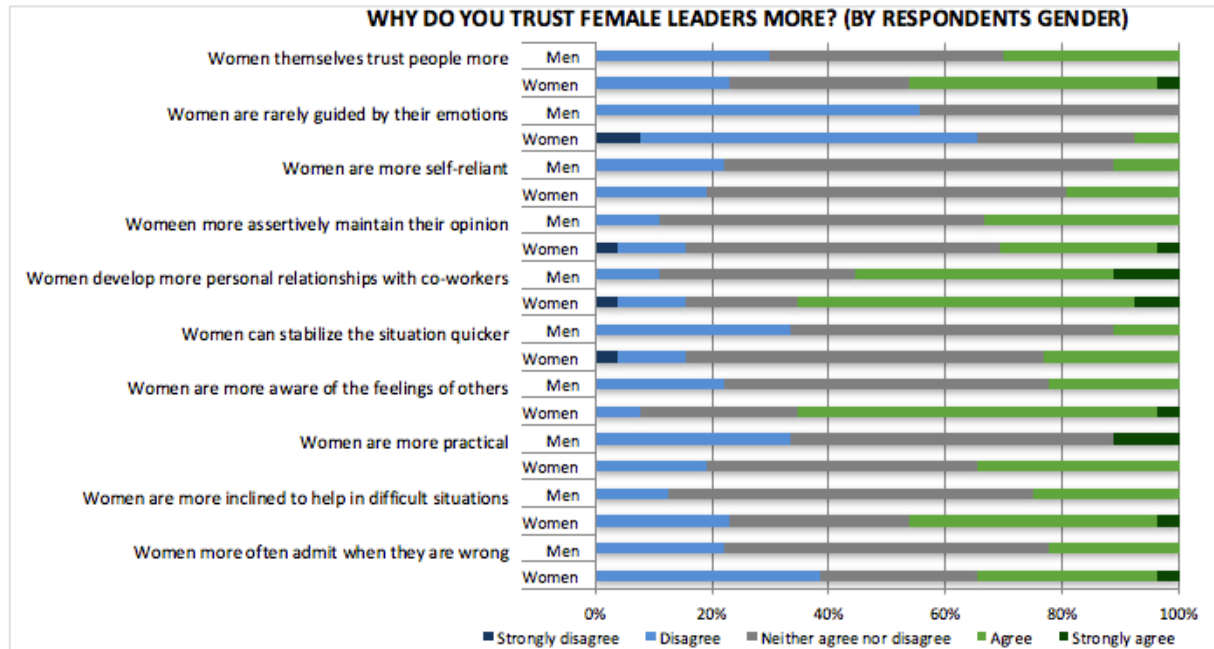


FIGURE 18: WHY DO YOU TRUST FEMALE LEADERS MORE? (Source: Author, 2016)

One interesting observation regarding trusting female leaders is that most of the respondents chose *neither agree nor disagree* in 4 out of the 10 statements and each of them accounted for over 50 per cent of responses. As follows, these are the options that people were indecisive about: *they are more self-reliant* (62%), *they more assertively maintain their stance/opinion* (54%), *they can stabilize the situation quicker* (59%) and *they are more practical* (51%). In addition to this, there are statements that did not have an obvious answer, since somewhat similar amount of respondents chose *agree* or *neither agree nor disagree*. Here are those statements: *they themselves trust people more*, *they are more inclined to help in difficult situations* and *they more often admit that they were wrong*. It is possible to see some similarity to the responses regarding trust towards male leaders based on respondents' gender, which is mentioned above. However, here it is a bit different, since it is visible that men are more indecisive, whereas more women agree with the latter statements.

4.1.4. BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP

When asked whether they agree with the statement that it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions, 79 per cent respondents said *yes* and 21 per cent said *no*. Even after dividing these answers into two genders, the majority of male and

female respondents still believe that women do really face barriers for advancement to leadership positions.

Respondents were also given a chance to choose among several proposed reasons limited women's likelihood to become a leader. Besides, respondents could also choose and/or include their own reasons why they thought that it is more difficult for women to move up to senior/leader positions.

According to FIGURE 19, the most frequently mentioned barrier is *family responsibilities that are interfering with work*; while the choice is that *women have to outperform male leaders in order to be considered effective*. Furthermore, respondents also believe that women *feel guilty for not spending enough time with family because of work*, potentially explained by priorities that women stick to. Also worth mentioning is the *absence of the work-life balance*, which can also be correlated with the previous statement of not enough time spent with family.

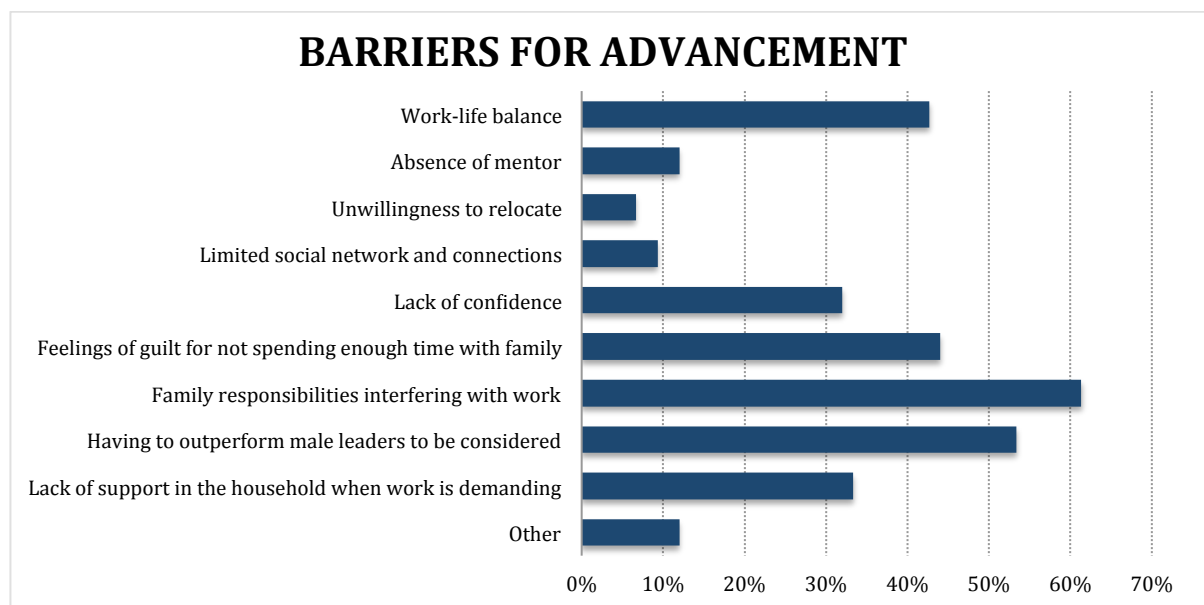


FIGURE 19: BARRIERS FOR ADVANCEMENT (Source: Author, 2016)

Moreover, the answers from free-form boxes that were filled by several respondents can be summarized and put under "*stereotype / social environment*" barrier. There, the most comments were the following: "*men in general are better leaders compared to women*", "*society's attitude/stereotypes*", "*attitude toward women as leaders is flimsy*", "*attitude that women are the weaker gender in every sense*", "*women's own logic and their approach to the environment*".

A deeper analysis of the problem is performed in the next section, where difference between men and women responses is tested for statistical significance.

4.2. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

The main purpose of the quantitative analysis in this paper is to test whether the main questions of this work as well as some of the observed trends described in descriptive part can be statistically verified.

The section is broken down into several parts, where 6 questions (hypotheses) are tested:

Hypothesis 1: *Do men and women as respondents have different opinions about whether male or female leaders are more effective?*

Hypothesis 2: *Do men leaders have a larger set of skills and attributes needed to become more effective leader than women?*

Hypothesis 3: *Do male leaders have more distinctive attributes and skills compared to female leaders?*

Hypothesis 4: *Are male and female respondents biased when evaluating skills and attributes of the same-sex leaders?*

Hypothesis 5: *Do men and women have different views on whether it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?*

Hypothesis 6: *Do men and women have different views on the reasons behind why it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?*

4.2.1. PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVENESS

One of the main questions raised in this paper is to see whether attitude towards female and male leader is similar between male and female respondents. Therefore, as a starting point, the following hypothesis is introduced:

Hypothesis 1: *Do men and women as respondents have different opinions about whether male or female leaders are more effective?*

In order to compare responses of two unpaired groups with nominal scores, both Fisher's exact test and Chi-square tests can be used. As revealed in TABLE 1, the expected count in at least one of the cells is less than five; it is therefore more appropriate to use the Fisher's test.

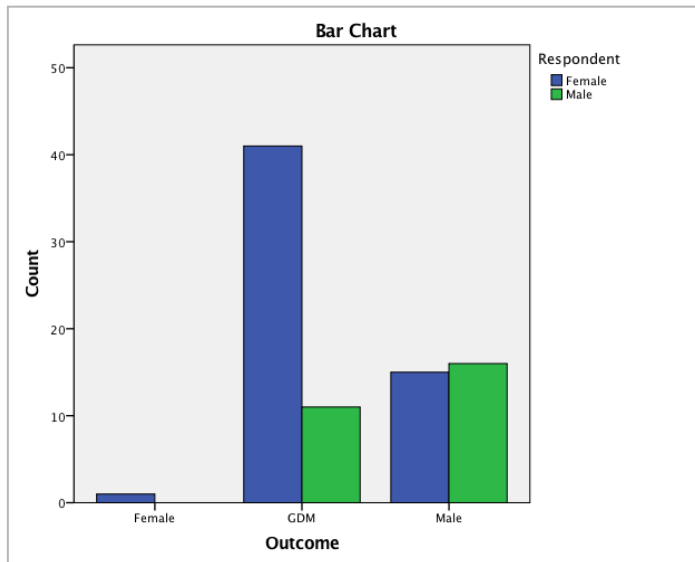


FIGURE 20: EFFECTIVE LEADER BY GENDER – BAR CHART
(Source: Author using SPSS, 2016)

FIGURE 20 (similar to FIGURE 5) provides a visual overview of the male and female responses used for the analysis. Even though "GDM" (gender does not matter) is obviously the most popular selection, male respondents seem to be more inclined towards choosing male leaders as more effective. Motivated by the figure, the aim is to see whether response from male and female respondents does significantly differ.

H₀: 'Observed' = 'Expected', i.e. there is no relationship between respondent's gender and his selection of effective leader's gender.

H_A: 'Observed' ≠ 'Expected', i.e. there is a relationship between respondent's gender and his selection of effective leader's gender.

The Fisher's test is performed on a 2x3 table, i.e. respondents' gender (male or female) against three possible outcomes (male, female and gender does not matter). As Fisher's test by hand is not feasible on a 2x3 table, the SPSS software was used. TABLE 1 shows the preliminary output.

In your opinion, who are more effective leaders?			Outcome			Total
			Female	Gender does not matter	Male	
Respondent	Female	Count	1	41	15	57
		Expected Count	.7	35.3	21.0	57.0

Male	Count	0	11	16	27
	Expected Count	.3	16.7	10.0	27.0
Total	Count	1	52	31	84
	Expected Count	1.0	52.0	31.0	84.0

TABLE 1: IN YOUR OPINION, WHO ARE MORE EFFECTIVE LEADERS? (Source: Author, 2016)

The “Expected Count” in the table above shows the scores / frequencies as if there was no difference between female and male responses. As shown, there is a distinguishable deviation, especially in the male responses’ row, by as much as 50%.

Chi-Square Tests	Value	df	Exact Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.741 ^a	2	.009
Likelihood Ratio	8.889	2	.009
Fisher's Exact Test	<u>8.466</u>		<u>.009</u>
N of Valid Cases	84		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .32.

TABLE 2: PERCEPTION OF EFFECTIVENESS - FISHER'S EXACT TEST OUTPUT (Source: Author, 2016)

The two-sided P-value of the Fisher’s exact test performed is 0.009 or 0.9%, which is substantially less than the 5% level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected and alternative maintained, meaning that men and women respondents have different opinions about whether male or female leaders are more effective. This results supports the findings of the descriptive analysis, where males’ tendency to view male leader as more effective has been also discovered.

4.2.2. ATTRIBUTES AND COMPETENCES

As was discussed in Section 4.1.1, employees in Lithuania believe that personal traits (attributes) and acquired knowledge with skills (competences) that determine effectiveness of a leader. Given that it had been previously found out that male leaders are perceived to be significantly more effective than female, consequently one should expect male leaders to have a larger/better set of attributes, knowledge and

competences than their female compatriots. Therefore, the following hypothesis has been formulated:

Hypothesis 2: *Do men leaders have a larger set of skills and attributes needed to become more effective leader than women?*

To test the hypothesis, the answers to the following questions are collected and combined by gender:

- 1) In your opinion, which 5 attributes are most suitable for female / male leaders? (21 attributes available);
- 2) In your opinion, what are female / male leaders most / best capable of? Choose 3 points. (6 skills available);

21 and 6 options were proposed to answer questions 1 and 2, respectively, meaning that the complete set of attributes and skills composes of 27 factors. It is also important to note that 3 attributes (Untrustworthiness, Selfishness, Emotionality) due to their nature were transformed into negative scores. 84 male and female respondents chose attributes and skills that are most suitable for male and female leaders. This procedure ensured that paired groups are used for the analysis.

The decision whether the paired T-test of Wilcoxon signed-rank test should be performed depends on the distribution of data. For smaller datasets the Shapiro-Wilk test can be used, while for bigger - the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality of data.

The test for normality in TABLE 3 shows that scores for female leaders are not normally distributed (P-value < 0.05), i.e. null hypothesis of normal distribution is rejected. Consequently, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, which does not assume the normality of data, is more appropriate.

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Male	.128	27	.200*	.964	27	.443
Female	.175	27	.033	.899	27	.013

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

TABLE 3: LEADERS' SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES – TEST FOR NORMALITY (Source: Author, 2016)

TABLE 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the Wilcoxon test. The negative minimum values correspond to aforementioned undesirable attributes with negative scores. For example, as many as 25 respondents mentioned that women leaders are emotional, while 9 people said that men leaders are selfish. In general, the mean value (number of picks) for male leaders is 32.9, while for female it is 30.7 out of 84 maximum possible, while 50th percentiles median is 39 and 36 for male and female leaders, respectively.

Descriptive Statistics								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Percentiles		
						25th	50th (Median)	75th
Male	27	32.85	22.60	-9.00	78.00	11.00	39.00	47.00
Female	27	30.70	20.68	-25.00	60.00	25.00	36.00	48.00

TABLE 4: WILCOXON SIGNED-RANK TEST – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (Source: Author, 2016)

As described in Section 3.3, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test ranks the absolute value of the differences between observations from smallest to largest. From the 27 factors under analysis, male leaders had higher scores than female on 16 occasions, while female leaders did better on 11. Even though the mean rank of female leaders is higher, the sum of ranks is substantially higher for male leaders.

Wilcoxon Ranks				
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Female – Male A. Female_leader < Male_leader B. Female_leader > Male_leader C. Female_leader = Male_leader	A. Negative Ranks	16	13.50	216.00
	B. Positive Ranks	11	14.73	162.00
	C. Ties	0		
	Total	27		

TABLE 5: WILCOXON RANKS (Source: Author, 2016)

The Wilcoxon test determines whether the median difference between two genders is statistically significant. Even though it is generally suggested to use two-sided test, the design of this hypothesis suggest that one-sided can be more useful.

Therefore, the alternative hypothesis tests whether the median score of male leaders is higher than the one for female leaders:

$$H_0: \widetilde{m}_m = \widetilde{m}_f$$

$$H_A: \widetilde{m}_m > \widetilde{m}_f$$

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	
	Female - Male
Z (based on positive ranks)	-.649
Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	.516
Asymp. Sig. (1-sided)	.258

TABLE 6: WILCOXON SIGNED-RANKS TEST OUTPUT (Source: Author, 2016)

TABLE 6 shows result of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Two p-value of the 1-sided test is 0.256, which is higher than 0.05 and means that the null hypothesis of no difference is maintained. Even though the mean and median values for skills and attributes of male leaders are higher compared to female, the difference is not statistically significant.

If the rejected abundance of skills and attributes that male leaders possess cannot explain their preference over female leaders, it might be that male leaders have a more pronounced set of skills that make them look more efficient. As discussed in Sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2, female leaders are perceived to be having a more balanced set of skills, while male leaders, to the contrary, tend to have more distinct features. If this is the case, the scores of male leaders would have significantly higher standard deviation, i.e. votes for their skills and attributes would be spread out widely, while females' scores would be cantered around its mean.

Hypothesis 3: *Do male leaders have more distinctive attributes and skills compared to female leaders do?*

For the analysis, the same dataset as in Hypothesis 2 is used. However, as we are no longer interested in ranking, the negativity of several attributes is revoked.

To compare whether variance of scores for both genders is statistically different, one first needs to make sure that both samples are normally distributed⁶. The Shapiro-Wilk test determines whether the data follows normal distribution or not.

Tests of Normality							
	Gender_leader	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Votes	Female	.128	27	.200*	.949	27	.206
	Male	.132	27	.200*	.950	27	.216
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.							
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

TABLE 7: TEST OF NORMALITY (Source: Author, 2016)

The Shapiro-Wilk test statistics and p-values above 0.05 in TABLE 7 reveal that data from both samples now indeed follows normal distribution, meaning that the parametric Levene's test in order to check for homogeneity of variance can be performed. Since the Levene's test is two-tailed, the alternative hypothesis tests whether variances are different, i.e. without implying that variance of male leaders is higher than the one for female.

$$H_0: \sigma_m^2 = \sigma_f^2$$

$$H_A: \sigma_m^2 \neq \sigma_f^2$$

Descriptives								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Female	27	33.67	15.16	2.92	27.67	39.67	3.00	60.00
Male	27	33.74	21.20	4.08	25.35	42.13	1.00	78.00
Total	54	33.70	18.26	2.48	28.72	38.69	1.00	78.00

TABLE 8: LEVENE'S TEST - DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (Source: Author, 2016)

Even though mean values for male and female leader are almost identical (33.74

⁶ The test for normality of data has to be repeated, as the negativity of scores has been revoked.

and 33.67; ANOVA F-value = 0.00), standard deviation is different. The 95% confidence interval for mean preliminary confirms our hypothesis that male attributes and skills are more widely spread out than female's, as it ranges from 25 to 42 compared for male, compared to 28 to 40 for female.

The results of Levene's test in are presented in TABLE 9 below. The test statistic of 4.27 is significant at 5% significance level (p-value = 0.048), meaning that variances between scores for male and female leaders are different and alternative hypothesis should be maintained. A look at descriptive statistics in TABLE 8 suggests that one can infer that male variance is higher than females, which means that men leaders have a more prominent set of skills compared to women.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.267	1	52	.048

TABLE 9: LEVENE'S TEST - OUTPUT (Source: Author, 2016)

A F-test for equality of variance might be useful to perform a one-tailed test. The following hypotheses are specified:

$$H_0: s_{Fm}^2 = s_{Ff}^2$$

$$H_A: s_{Fm}^2 > s_{Ff}^2$$

The F-test, which can also serve a robustness check to Levene's test, can be calculated in the following way:

$$F_{test} = \frac{s_m^2}{s_f^2} = \frac{21.20^2}{15.16^2} = 1.96$$

The critical value at 5% significance level for one-sided F-test is 1.94 (with degrees of freedom 26 and 26 in nominator and denominator, respectively). Since the F-value obtained is higher than the critical value, the null hypothesis is again rejected and it is concluded that male leaders have more pronounce skills and attributes than female leaders.

4.2.3. TRUST, PROBLEM-SOLVING AND GENDER BIAS

Another important aspect to analyse regarding employees' perception and attitude towards their leaders is trust and ability to resolve complex situations. The respondents not only have been asked whether they trust male or female leaders more, but also whether men and women are better at resolving challenges at work. The following questions have been raised:

- Who do you trust more as a leader and why? (10 reasons proposed)
- Why do you think male / female are better at resolving challenges at work? (9 reasons proposed)

After giving their vote for one of the leader's gender, respondents had to show their agreement or disagreement with each of the 19 reasons proposed. Certain scores from 1 ('completely disagree') to 5 ('completely agree') were allocated and the average score for leader's gender has been calculated. A separation between same sex and opposite sex votes has been made. The scores are presented in TABLE 10.

Who do you trust more as a leader and why?	Male leaders		Female leaders	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
They themselves trust people more	3,00	2,85	3,00	3,27
They are rarely guided by their emotions	4,19	3,97	2,44	2,35
They are more self-reliant	3,95	3,79	2,89	3,00
They more assertively maintain their stance/opinion	3,62	3,62	3,22	3,15
They develop more personal relationships with co-workers	2,71	2,56	3,56	3,54
They can stabilize the situation quicker	3,52	3,44	2,78	3,04
They are better aware of the feelings of others	2,81	2,33	3,00	3,62
They are more practical	3,71	3,59	2,89	3,15
They are more inclined to help in a difficult situation	3,00	3,15	3,13	3,27
They more often admit that they were wrong	2,76	2,53	3,00	3,00
Average	3,33	3,18	2,99	3,14

Why do you think male / female are better at resolving challenges at work? Respondents gender	Male leaders		Female leaders	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
They are more persevere	3,00	2,85	3,00	3,27
They are more honest	4,19	3,97	2,44	2,35
They are faster at making decisions	3,95	3,79	2,89	3,00
They are better at controlling their emotions	3,62	3,62	3,22	3,15
They are more careful	2,71	2,56	3,56	3,54
They are more creative	3,52	3,44	2,78	3,04
They are better at understanding others people's emotions	2,81	2,33	3,00	3,62
They can faster adapt to changes	3,71	3,59	2,89	3,15
They quicker notice arising problems	3,00	3,15	3,13	3,27
Average	3,39	3,26	2,99	3,15

TABLE 10: TRUST AND PROBLEM-SOLVING AVERAGE SCORES (Source: Author, 2016)

In the TABLE 10 one can see that even after selecting male as more trustful / better problem-solver, men respondents compared to women tend to value male leaders more and give them higher scores. Same holds for respondents who voted for female leaders, as there, women also gave higher scores than men. The trend potentially suggests that respondents have a tendency to overestimate abilities of the same sex leaders, i.e. existence of same gender bias.

Hypothesis 4: *Are male and female respondents biased when evaluating skills and attributes of the same-sex leaders?*

In order to check whether respondents are more inclined to overvalue leaders of the same sex, the scores in TABLE 10 are combined to produce two samples: same sex and opposite sex scores. The descriptive statistics of the dataset are presented below:

Group Statistics					
	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Average_score	Same	38	3.2579	.43161	.07002
	Opposite	38	3.0868	.45629	.07402

TABLE 11: GENDER BIAS – DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (Source: Author, 2016).

The descriptive statistics show what the mean average score of same-sex votes is 3.26, while it is 3.09 for opposite-sex choices. Since we have independent samples in

both cases (each respondent had to choose just one gender of a leader), the unpaired T-test is performed. The normality of data has been confirmed by means of Shapiro-Wilk test (Appendix H). The null and alternative hypothesis can be written in the following way:

$$H_0: \mu_{ss} = \mu_{os}$$

$$H_A: \mu_{ss} > \mu_{os}$$

Results of the independent two-sample test are presented in TABLE 12.

Independent Samples Test									
Average_score	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (1-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.031	.860	1.68	74	0.0498	.17	.10	-.03	.37
Equal variances not assumed			1.68	74	.0498	.17	.10	-.03	.37

TABLE 12: GENDER BIAS – UNPAIRED T-TEST (Source: Author, 2016)

The Levene's test for equality of variance shows that variability in two samples is about the same (p-value=0.860 and higher than 0.05). The T-statistics of 1.68 and p-value of 0.049 indicates that there is a significant difference between same sex and opposite sex scores at 5% significant level (the two-tailed test produced p-value of 0.097), i.e. the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected.

Even though there is a probability of almost 5% that the outcome was obtained by chance, one can statistically conclude that there is a gender bias present in Lithuanian labour market. This means that, for example, even if a man trusts female leaders more than a male leader, he would still perceive female leaders as less trustworthy than women who also voted for female. The gender bias issue has been previously presented by Prime, Jonsen, Carten, and Maznevski (2008), who also concluded on a preference of respondents to overvalue leaders of the same gender.

In order to quantify the difference between scores obtained from the same-sex and opposite-sex respondents, the effect size can be calculated. Cohen's d test does that by taking the difference between means and dividing it by pool standard deviation.

Usually, the Cohen d is interpreted such that if it falls within 0.1-0.3 range, the effect size is small, 0.3 – 0.5 is moderate, 0.5 is large (Elsayir, 2012).

Using the values from TABLE 11, the d value can easily be calculated using the following procedure:

$$\text{Cohen's } d = \frac{\mu_{ss} - \mu_{os}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_{ss}^2 + s_{os}^2}{2}}} = \frac{3.26 - 3.09}{\sqrt{\frac{0.43^2 + 0.46^2}{2}}} = 0.39$$

Thus, the value of $d=0.39$ suggests that the effect of same-sex respondent is moderate when it comes to evaluation of skills and attributes of a leader, once more accepting our hypothesis of potential gender bias in perception of leaders skills in Lithuania.

4.2.4. BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP

As discussed in Section 4.1.4, almost all respondents agree that female leaders face challenges on their way to leadership positions. The hypothesis can be statistically tested by means of a simple binomial test:

$$H_0: p_{yes} = 0.5$$

$$H_A: p_{yes} > 0.5$$

The null hypothesis is that 50 per cent of respondents actually believe that women face no challenges for advancement, while alternative hypothesis proposes that proportion of respondents agreeing is higher than 50 per cent.

Is it more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?	N	Observed Prop.	Test Prop.	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)
Yes	67	.79	.50	.000	.000
No	18	.21			
Total	85	1.00			

TABLE 13: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – BINOMIAL TEST (Source: Author, 2016)

The descriptive statistics as well as the binomial test in TABLE 13 show that proportion of people agreeing that women face challenges when reaching leadership position is significantly higher than 50 per cent.

Is it more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?			Sex_respondent		Total
			Female	Male	
Outcome	No	Count	9	9	18
		Expected Count	12.1	5.9	18.0
	Yes	Count	48	19	67
		Expected Count	44.9	22.1	67.0
Total		Count	57	28	85
		Expected Count	57.0	28.0	85.0

TABLE 14: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP - DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (Source: Author, 2016)

However, as revealed in TABLE 14, even though men mostly agree that women face barrier to leadership, the percentage of men not agreeing is considerably higher than that of women. For comparison, 9 women and 9 men do not see any barriers for female leaders, even though the sample size of men is almost twice as little. It is, therefore, interesting to test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: *Do men and women have different views on whether it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?*

The test will reject and accept one of the following statements:

H₀: *there is no relationship between respondent's gender and his / her selection whether females face barriers to leadership;*

H_A: *there is a relationship between respondent's gender and his / her selection whether females face barriers to leadership.*

Since the expected count in each cell of contingency table is higher than 5, the Chi-Square is preferred to Fisher's exact test. Other assumptions (random sampling, independent observations and mutually exclusive variables) that need to be met for Chi-square are also fulfilled. The results of the analysis are presented in the table below.

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.008 ^a	1	.083*		
Continuity Correction ^b	2.108	1	.146		
Likelihood Ratio	2.881	1	.090		
Fisher's Exact Test				.097	.075
N of Valid Cases	85				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.93.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					
* Significant at 10% level.					

TABLE 15: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP - CHI-SQUARE TEST (Source: Author, 2016)

The two-sided p-value of 0.083 shows that the null hypothesis can only be rejected at 10% significance level. Even though the Chi-square statistic is close to be significant, the null hypothesis is maintained at 5% significance level and it is concluded that in general men and female similarly agree that female leaders face barriers on their way to leadership.

Yet, a further analysis of Section 4.1.4 suggests that men and women can have very different views on why female leaders face those challenges. When asked "*In your opinion, why is it more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?*" answers of men and women might have certain patterns. The ten proposed answers that respondents had a chance to choose were then classified into two categories: internal and external causes. While external causes are usually not under control, a female leader can to some degree influence the significance of internal factors.

It has to be noted, that several respondents have chosen "Other" option and supplied it with a written comment in the questionnaire. Out of 8 comments received, two comments were rejected as 'not-relevant'. 5 other comments were allocated to a newly created answer box called "Stereotypes / Social Environment". The last comments were deemed to be suitable to already existing "Low self-esteem" answer.

An outcome of the classification is presented in TABLE 16 below.

If yes, in your opinion, why is it more difficult for women to reach leadership positions? Classification	
Internal factors	External factors
Unwillingness to relocate	Work-life balance
Limited social network and connections	Absence of mentor
Low self-esteem	Family responsibilities interfering with work
Feelings of guilt for not spending enough time with family because of work	Need to outperform male leaders to be considered equally effective
	Lack of support in the household when work is demanding
	Stereotypes / social environment

TABLE 16: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL / EXTERNAL CLASSIFICATION (Source: Author, 2016)

Once classified, the votes for each of 10 answers were collected and later summarized in a contingency table. Overall, 231 votes were collected from women and men. TABLE 17 shows that while women allocate 72% of their votes to external cause, men attribute just 58%. Whether the difference is statistically significant can be determined by means of Chi-square test.

Factor * Gender_respondent Crosstabulation					
			Gender_respondent		Total
			Female	Male	
Factor	External	Count	125	33	158
		Expected Count	119.0	39.0	158.0
		% within Gender_respondent	71.8%	57.9%	68.4%
	Internal	Count	49	24	73
		Expected Count	55.0	18.0	73.0
		% within Gender_respondent	28.2%	42.1%	31.6%
Total	Count		174	57	231
	Expected Count		174.0	57.0	231.0
	% within Gender_respondent		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

TABLE 17: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL/EXTERNAL FACTORS CONTINGENCY TABLE (Source: Author, 2016)

Hypothesis 6: *Do men and women have different views on the reasons behind why it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?*

H₀: *there is no relationship between respondent's gender and his / her selection whether barriers that women face are due-to internal or external reasons;*

H_A: *there is a relationship between respondent's gender and his / her selection whether barriers that women face are due-to internal or external reasons.*

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.862 ^a	1	.049		
Continuity/Yates Correction ^b	3.244	1	.072		
Likelihood Ratio	3.744	1	.053		
Fisher's Exact Test				.070	.037
N of Valid Cases	231				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.01.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

TABLE 18: BARRIERS TO LEADERSHIP – INTERNAL / EXTERNAL FACTORS CHI-SQUARE TEST
(Source: Author, 2016)

The Pearson's Chi-Square statistics is 3.9, which corresponds to a p-value of 0.049, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis of no relationship at 5% significance level. In other words, men and women differently see the reasons behind why female leaders face challenges to reach leadership positions. Even though both of them agree that the causes are mostly external, men respondents, compared to women, tend to attribute substantially more to internal reasons.

One could have been careful with induction of the achieved results, as the test statistic with Yates correction gives a p-value of 0.072, which is statistically significant only at 10% level. However, as the expected frequencies in TABLE 17 are substantially higher than 10, the importance of Yates correct is rather limited.

5. DISCUSSION

The analysis was conducted based on a sample consisting of 84 fully completed questionnaires filled out by previous or current employees in Lithuanian businesses and organizations. The sample was obtained in accordance with "snowballing" principles

and it is assumed that assumptions of randomness and size sufficiency are fulfilled. The data was analysed by means of descriptive and quantitative analysis employing several statistical tests.

The attitudes towards male and female leaders in Lithuania are similar to what has been previously observed by other researchers in the field. In this paper, a relationship between respondent's gender and his/her attitude and perception of a leader has been confirmed. In line with findings of Mihail (2006), when facing a choice between two genders, respondents are more favourable towards leaders of the same sex when it comes to evaluation of their competences and characteristics.

Even though most of the respondents usually do not have strict preferences towards one of the gender, they perceive men to be more effective and better leaders compared to women. The Fisher's exact test confirmed and statistically proved the difference in effectiveness perception between men and women. While men tend to believe that male leaders are more effective, women think that gender does not influence effectiveness.

With regards to evaluation of the most suitable attributes, people indicated that effective male leaders exert the following top characteristics: self-confidence, ambition and assertiveness. Female leaders, on the other hand, excel in creativity, competency and also self-confidence. Interestingly, male leaders do not have a larger set of attributes compared to female leaders. However, it has been found out that the skills set of male leaders is more prominent (especially within agentic traits), meaning that there are specific attributes and competences that male leaders exhibit and probably therefore perceived to be more effective. This goes in line with Eagly & Karau (2002), who say that there is strong correlation between men natural characteristics (usually "agentic") and characteristics that are required to succeed as effective leaders. Female leaders' profile, on the other hand, is more balanced, yet with a slight shift towards communal or "softer" characteristics, which are perceived as less convincing by employees and subordinates. The "softer" characteristics, considered as more feminine, go in line with the transformation leadership style as unveiled by Eagly & Johnson (1990).

As far as competences are concerned, the research showed that a male leader is task-oriented and he is best at allocation of tasks and delegation of work. With regard to

female leaders, they succeed in inspiring and motivating their employees and subordinates.

The descriptive analysis also concluded that men are perceived to be better at managing work-related conflicts and handling their emotions, but less empathetic towards his employees. However, one should be careful with generalization of these findings, as in this regard, gender differences have not been tested statistically.

Asked about trustworthiness, respondents claimed that leader's gender does not influence their trust. However, it is worth pointing out, that substantially more people opted for male leaders than for female. While male leaders are trusted because they are rarely guided by their emotions and because they are self-reliant, female leaders improve their trustworthiness mainly because they are more engaged in developing personal relationships with their co-workers.

Additional descriptive and quantitative analyses on leader's ability to manage challenges and his / her trustworthiness have been performed. Each respondent not only had to choose one gender, which he / she believes is more trustworthy and is better at managing difficult situations at work, but also had to justify his / her choice by agreeing or disagreeing with proposed statements. It was found out that male leaders on general receive more 'agree' responses, once more confirming them receiving a more positive attitude compared to female leaders. However, a further look at the data hinted at existence of a potential gender bias. The gender bias could be presented as, for example, even if a man trusts female leaders more than a male leader, he would still perceive female leaders less trustworthy than women, who also opted for a female leader. The hypothesis was then confirmed by applying unpaired T-test. It was concluded, that there is a moderate effect size (relationship) of respondents' gender on his / her attitude towards same sex leaders. These results are perfectly consistent with a study carried out by ILM in 2009. The presence of gender bias has also been recently discovered by Prime, Jonsen, Carten, and Maznevski (2008).

The results of the survey showed that almost 4 of 5 respondents believe that it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions. Among others, as a reason behind the barriers, respondents frequently mentioned family responsibilities that are interfering with work and that women have to outperform male leader in order to be

considered effective. Also, many respondents claimed that women themselves feel guilty for not spending enough time with family because of work.

While generally agreeing on women having barriers to leadership, men and women have different opinions regarding factors limiting women chances to reach a senior position. Once all reasons that had been mentioned were classified into internal and external factors, it became visible that men respondents, to a higher extent than women, tend to think that female leaders face challenges seeking leadership because of the internal factors (low self-esteem, limited social network and others), i.e. factors that women have some control of. Women, on the other hand, believe that these are the external factors (stereotypes, lack of support, work-life balance and others) mostly that limit their chances to senior positions in a company. The difference in views between men and women was statistically confirmed on a 5% significant level.

Overall, the results obtained are in line with observations that were previously made by other researchers and meet expectation of the author after the literature review has been performed. The methods applied fulfilled their purpose and produced reliable, clear and, in most cases, statistically significant results.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of this paper was to analyse the prevailing attitudes towards male and female leaders in Lithuanian businesses and organizations. As of today, only limited number of studies researching this particular topic has been carried out. It was, therefore, decided to supplement the existing knowledge by providing a combination of both descriptive and quantitative analyses.

By applying relevant theory, methodologies and relying on recent findings from the research previously conducted in the field, it was found that the attitudes towards male and female leaders in Lithuania are, in general, similar to what has been previously observed by other researchers in other countries. In this paper, a relationship between respondent's gender and his / her attitude and perception of a leader has been confirmed. In addition, the gender bias, stemming from respondents being more

favourable towards leaders of the same sex when it comes to evaluation of their competences and characteristics, has been discovered and statistically proven.

Despite men being perceived as more efficient, it was found out that on average female leaders do not have fewer competencies that are required for successful leadership. However, the data revealed that male leaders have several attributes that are more pronounced compared to overall balanced skillset of a female leader. Those attributes, usually considered as “masculine”, are believed to be natural to male leaders and highly correlated with attributes that, according to respondents, are essential for successful leadership.

Consistent with other countries, employees in Lithuania perceive male leaders as more agentic, while, according to respondents, female leaders are characterized by having “softer” attributes overall. Compared to female leaders, men are perceived to be better at managing work-related conflicts and handling their emotions, but less empathetic towards their employees.

Both descriptive and quantitative analyses show strong agreement with the statement that women face barriers to leadership positions. Even though agreeing with the statement, men respondents believe that it is due to internal factors (to a higher extent than women), while women mostly refer to external factors. The difference in the views was statistically proven and once again confirmed the hypothesis of different attitudes that two genders exhibit towards their leaders.

The results obtained are vastly consistent with previous major researches in the field of gender leadership. The sample used for the data analysis provided solid foundation producing reliable results from both descriptive and quantitative analyses.

6.1. RECOMMENDATIONS/FUTURE RESEARCH

First of all, the paper can serve as a solid foundation for businesses and, especially, for their managers to assess the current situation of leaders within Lithuanian labour market. Current leaders can use the results as a guideline to improve their efficiency, trustworthiness and communication with employees. Potential future

leaders, on the other hand, can consider the findings as a benchmark that one has to stick in order to reach leadership position.

The information about attitudes towards female leaders could assist organisations and business to establish programs to support women in senior positions based on their knowledge of the prevailing attitudes in society. This study provides viewpoints about factors that impede women's access to these positions. It may also assist women in avoiding or motivating them to change the negative attitudes that they face on a way to managerial positions.

The topic of choice can be further expanded into analysis of attitudes towards male and female leaders from various perspectives. One could potentially find it useful to review the change in attitudes over time, especially analysing the changes before and after historically significant events for Lithuania's (or any other country) economy: becoming the member of the European Union, 2008-2009 financial crisis and others. Alternatively, the differences in attitudes between respondents of state-owned organization, international as well as local companies could provide interesting and, most importantly, useful results.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adair, J. (2011). Four Greatest Ideas for Leadership. In J. Adair, *100 Greatest Ideas for Effective Leadership* (pp. 45-55). Capstone Publishing Ltd.
- Ali, U., Khan, A., & Munaf, S. (2013). Attitudes toward Women in Managerial Position in Pakistan: A Comparative Study. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 3 (3), 373-377.
- Aycan, Z., Bayazit, M., Berkman, Y., & Boratav, H. B. (2011). Attitudes towards women managers: Development and validation of a new measure with Turkish samples. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* (1), 1-30.
- Balgiu, B. A. (2013). Perception of Women as Managers. The Difference of Attitudes between Employees and Non-Employees. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* (78), 330-334.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Shatter the Glass Ceiling: Women May Make Better Managers. *Human Resource Management*, 33 (4), 549-560.
- Blaikie, N. (2010). *Designing Social Research* (2nd Edition ed.). Polity Press.
- Bowen, C.-C., Wu, Y., Hwang, C.-e., & Scherer, R. F. (2007). Holding up half of the sky? Attitudes toward women as managers in the People's Republic of China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18 (2), 268-283.
- Brands, R. (2015, July 15). 'Think manager, think man' stops us seeing woman as leaders. Retrieved April 22, 2016, from The Guardian: <http://www.theguardian.com/women-in-leadership/2015/jul/15/think-manager-think-man-women-leaders-biase-workplace>
- Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly* (18), 606-632.
- Burke, R. J. (1997). Women on Corporate Boards of Directors: A Needed Resource. *Journal of Business Ethics* (16), 909-915.
- Burke, R. J. (1994). Women on Corporate Boards of Directors: Views of Canadian Chief Executive Officers. *Women in Management Review*, 9 (5), 3-10.
- Caliper Research and Development Department. (2014). *Women Leaders*. Research Paper.
- Cann, A., & Siegfried, W. (1990). Gender stereotypes and dimensions of effective leader behavior. *Sex Roles*, 23 (7), 413-419.
- Chow, I. H.-S. (1995). Career aspirations, attitudes and experiences of female managers in Hong Kong. *Women in Management Review*, 10 (1), 28-32.
- Crespi, I. (2003). *Gender socialization within the family: a study on adolescents and their parents in Great Britain*. Catholic University of Milan, Department of Sociology.
- Denmark, F. L. (1993). Women, leadership and empowerment. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 17, 343-356.
- Department of Statistics of Lithuania. (n.d.). *Population and social statistics*. Retrieved March 2016, from <http://osp.stat.gov.lt/en/temines-lenteles17>
- Deren, R. (2013, August 7). *Is an Online Survey Right For You? Advantages and Disadvantages of Different Survey Formats*. Retrieved April 21, 2016, from Fluid Surveys: <https://fluidsurveys.com/university/is-an-online-survey-right-for-you-advantages-and-disadvantages-of-different-survey-formats/>
- Diskienė, D., Marčinskas, A., & Stankevičienė, A. (2010). Leadership Attitudes in Lithuanian Business Organizations: Evidence and Perspectives. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5 (3), 283-304.

- Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The Leadership Styles of Women and Men. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57 (4), 781-797.
- Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and Leadership Style: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108 (2), 233-256.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (1991). Gender and the Emergence of Leaders: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60 (5), 685-710.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109 (3), 573-598.
- Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles: A Meta-Analysis Comparing Women and Men. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129 (4), 569-591.
- Elmuti, D., Jia, H., & Davis, H. H. (2009). Challenges Women Face in Leadership Positions and Organizational Effectiveness: An Investigation. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 8 (2), 167-187.
- Elsayir, H. A. (2012). Computation and Interpretation of Effect Size in Significance Test. *International Refereed Journal of Engineering and Science (IRJES)*, 1 (4), 27-32.
- Elsesser, K. M., & Lever, J. (2011). Does gender bias against female leaders persist? Quantitative and qualitative data from a large-scale survey. *Human Relations*, 64 (12), 1555-1578.
- Ely, R. J., Ibarra, H., & Kolb, D. M. (2011). Taking Gender Into Account: Theory and Design for Women's Leadership Development Programs. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10 (3), 474-493.
- European Commission. (2014). *Equal Pay Day: Gender Pay Gap stagnates at 16.4% across Europe*. Press Release, Brussels.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS* (3rd Edition ed.). SAGE.
- Fitzsimmons, S. R. (2012). Women on boards of directors: Why skirts in seats aren't enough. *Business Horizons*, 55 (6), 557-566.
- Foy, H. (2015, May 6). *Women in eastern Europe lead the way to senior roles*. Retrieved March 15, 2016, from Financial Times: <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/1e921f8a-e8ef-11e4-b7e8-00144feab7de.html>
- Gill, R. (2011). *Theory and Practice of Leadership* (2nd Edition ed.). Sage.
- Gingery, T. (2011, February 8). *Advantages and Disadvantages of Online Surveys*. Retrieved April 21, 2016, from Inquisium Blog: <http://survey.cvent.com/blog/market-research-design-tips-2/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-online-surveys>
- Holton, V., & Dent, F. E. (2012). *Women In Business* (1st Edition ed.). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Institute of Leadership & Management and Management Today. (2009). *Index of Leadership Trust*.
- Javalgi, R. G., Scherer, R., Sanchez, C., Rojas, L. P., Daza, V. P., Hwang, C.-e., et al. (2011). A comparative analysis of the attitudes toward women managers in China, Chile, and the USA. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 6 (3), 233-253.
- Judge, T. A., Ilies, R., Bono, J. E., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and Leadership: A Qualitative and Quantitative Review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 765-780.
- Kanopienė, V. (2006). Lyčių ekonominiai vaidmenys. *Lyčių studijos ir tyrimai*, 2, 38-44.
- Liff, S., Worrall, L., & Cooper, C. L. (1997). Attitudes to women in management: an analysis of West Midlands businesses. *Personnel Review*, 26 (3), 152-173.

- Lyness, K. S., & Terrazas, J. M. (2006). Women in Management: An Update on Their Progress and Persistent Challenges. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 21, 267-294.
- Mavin, S. (2001). Women's career in theory and practice: time for change? *Women in Management Review*, 16 (4), 183-192.
- McEldowney, R. P., Bobrowski, P., & Gramberg, A. (2009). Factors affecting the next generation of women leaders: Mapping the challenges, antecedents, and consequences of effective leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3 (2), 24-30.
- McFadzean, E. (2007). Quantitative versus Qualitative Research. Mercer. *Women's Leadership Development Survey*. Europe survey report.
- Merchant, K. (2012). *How Men And Women Differ: Gender Differences in Communication Styles, Influence Tactics, and Leadership Styles*. CMC Senior Theses.
- Mihail, D. M. (2006). Women in management: gender stereotypes and students' attitudes in Greece. *Women in Management Review*, 21 (8), 681-689.
- Mockaitis, A. I. (2005). A Cross-Cultural Study of Leadership Attitudes in Three Baltic Sea Region Countries. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1 (1), 44-63.
- Muijs, D. (2011). *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS* (2nd Edition ed.). Sage.
- Pande, R., & Ford, D. (2011, 04 07). Gender Quotas and Female Leadership: A Review. Pew Research Center. (2008). *A Paradox in Public Attitudes Men or Women: Who's the Better Leader?* Report.
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, A. D. (1979). The "Good Manager": Masculine or Androgynous? *The Academy of Management Journal*, 22 (2), 395-403.
- Prime, J. L., Carter, N. M., & Welbourne, T. M. (2009). Women "Take Care," Men "Take Charge": Managers' Stereotypic Perceptions of Women and Men Leaders. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal* (12), 25-49.
- Prime, J., Jonsen, K., Carter, N., & Maznevski, M. L. (2008). Managers' Perceptions of Women and Men Leaders: A Cross Cultural Comparison. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 8 (2), 171-210.
- Rashid, J. (2002). *Leadership Development: Conflict Management for College Student Leaders*. Report.
- Reskin, B. F. (1988). Bringing the Men Back in: Sex Differentiation and the Devaluation of Women's Work. *Gender and Society*, 2 (1), 58-81.
- Reszke, I. (1990). Women's situation in work. (B. Jedyank, Ed.) *Women in culture and society*, 1, 271-280.
- Shier, R. (2004). *Unpaired t-tests*.
- Sincero, S. M. (2012, October 16). *Online Surveys*. Retrieved April 21, 2016, from Explorable: <https://explorable.com/online-surveys>
- Statistics Solutions. (n.d.). *Assumptions of the Wilcoxon Sign Test*. Retrieved March 20, 2016, from Statistics Solutions: <http://www.statisticssolutions.com/assumptions-of-the-wilcoxon-sign-test/>
- Stundžė, L. (2009). Komunikacija ir žiniasklaida-Lytis ir organizacija: komunikacinis aspektas. *Information Sciences (Informacijos mokslai)* (49), 991-17.
- Sukamolson, S. (n.d.). *Fundamentals of quantitative research*. Academic Press.
- Toleikiene, R., & Rybnikova, I. (2013). What do Lithuanian students expect from leaders? First results of the GLOBE study in Lithuania. *Socialiniai Tyrimai (Social Research)*, 1 (30), 52-63.

- Tomkiewicz, J., Frankel, R., Adeyemi-Bello, T., & Sagan, M. (2004). A Comparative Analysis of the Attitudes Toward Women Managers in the US and Poland. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 11 (2), 58-70.
- Vinnicombe, S., & Singh, V. (2003). Locks and keys to the boardroom. *Women in Management Review*, 18 (6), 325-333.
- Virginia Commonwealth University . (n.d.). *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*. Xavier University Library. (2012). Qualitative versus Quantitative Research.
- Yost, E. B., & Herbert, T. T. (1998). Attitudes toward Women as Managers (ATWAM). In T. P. Library. Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.
- Zenger, J., & Folkman, J. (2012, March 2012). *Are Women Better Leaders than Men?* . Retrieved February 7, 2016, from Harvard Business Review: <https://hbr.org/2012/03/a-study-in-leadership-women-do>

APPENDIX A

Assumptions	Questions	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological Assumption	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular apart from the researcher.	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study.
Epistemological Assumption	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched.	Researcher interacts with that being researched.
Axiological Assumption	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Rhetorical Assumption	What is the language of research?	Formal; Based on set definitions; Impersonal voice; Use of accepted quantitative words.	Informal; Evolving decisions; Personal voice; Accepted qualitative words.
Methodological Assumption	What is the process of research?	Deductive process; Cause and effect; Static design-categories isolated before study; Generalizations leading to prediction, explanation, and understanding; Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability.	Inductive process; Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors; Emerging design-categories identified during research process; Context-bound; Patterns, theories developed for understanding; Accurate and reliable through verification.

TABLE 19: QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE PARADIGM ASSUMPTIONS (Source: Sukamolson, n.d.)

APPENDIX B

Criteria	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Purpose	To understand & interpret social interactions.	To test hypotheses, look at cause & effect, & make predictions.
Group Studied	Smaller & not randomly selected.	Larger & randomly selected.
Variables	Study of the whole, not variables.	Specific variables studied
Type of Data Collected	Words, images, or objects.	Numbers and statistics.
Form of Data Collected	Qualitative data such as open- ended responses, interviews, participant observations, field notes, & reflections.	Quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured & validated data-collection instruments.
Type of Data Analysis	Identify patterns, features, themes.	Identify statistical relationships.
Objectivity and Subjectivity	Subjectivity is expected.	Objectivity is critical.
Role of Researcher	Researcher & their biases may be known to participants in the study & participant characteristics may be known to the researcher.	Researcher & their biases are not known to participants in the study & participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher (double blind studies).
Results	Particular or specialized findings that is less generalizable.	Generalizable findings that can be applied to other populations.

Scientific Method	Exploratory or bottom-up: the researcher generates a new hypothesis and theory from the data collected.	Confirmatory or top-down: the researcher tests the hypothesis and theory with the data.
View of Human Behaviour	Dynamic, situational, social, & personal.	Regular & predictable.
Most Common Research Objectives	Explore, discover, & construct.	Describe, explain, & predict.
Focus	Wide-angle lens; examines the breadth & depth of phenomena.	Narrow-angle lens; tests specific hypotheses.
Nature of Observation	Study behaviour in a natural environment.	Study behaviour under controlled conditions; isolate causal effects.
Nature of Reality	Multiple realities; subjective.	Single reality; objective.
Final Report	Narrative report with contextual description & direct quotations from research participants.	Statistical report with correlations, comparisons of means, & statistical significance of findings.

TABLE 20: QUANTITATIVE VERSUS QUALITATIVE RESEARCH (Source: Xavier University Library, 2012)

APPENDIX C

Benefits	Downsides
<p>Participative – people using this style value the involvement of others above all else. Participative leaders actively seek people's opinions, thoughts and ideas. If you use this style effectively you will undoubtedly have excellent communication skills and be regarded as someone who collaborates and seeks consensus when leading, influencing and working with others.</p> <p>Situational – if you use this style your tendency will be to analyze and evaluate the situation and then select what you believe to be the best approach to suit the prevailing circumstances. If used effectively you will be regarded as someone who is flexible, adaptable and capable.</p> <p>Visionary – this style relies to a large extent upon personal qualities – charisma, confidence and creativity are probably the most important. Visionaries are inspirational and use energy and enthusiasm to gain commitment to action. They are usually people who are articulate, confident communicators and capable of getting buy in to ideas through emotional appeal. They are often regarded as people who can paint pictures with words in order to engage with others.</p> <p>Transactional – these leaders issue orders and directions and expect them to be met. They work on the basis that people know the structures, rules, rewards and punishments and pay little regard to the emotional element of their relationships. They expect others to follow their lead. It is very much a telling</p>	<p>On the downside some people may regard you as someone who doesn't know their own mind and takes too long to make decisions. Additionally, you may be regarded as someone who worries too much about involving and collaborating with others all the time.</p> <p>If used ineffectively then you may be regarded as someone who is unpredictable and chameleon like. People like consistency so it is important for those who use this style to make sure that colleagues they are leading know them well enough to understand their behavior varies in order to get the best out of situations and people. The negative aspect of this style is mainly in the areas of structure, objectivity and data. Visionaries can overly rely on their enthusiasm and excitement about an issue and forget that some people like data, logic and structure to back up the vision. You may also be regarded as impractical and illogical.</p> <p>Overuse of this style has significant downsides not least of which is that it can be demotivating and can come across as disinterest in others – always expecting others to do it your way. This can have the effect of the leader being in a very lonely place when things go wrong and no one offers support.</p>

style, and while not universally popular in today's contemporary business world, it is a style that is useful in some situations – for instance when you are under time pressure, when safety or security are at risk and possibly when you know there is only one direction to follow. Often people who rely on this style are experts in an area and become used to others asking for their professional advice. However, giving expert advice is different from leadership. When leading you are not only giving advice but also developing relationships where inevitably emotions are involved.

Value Based – people who use this style are usually highly principled and hold strong personal values, which are used as a guide too much of how they live their lives. This style's success relies to a large extent on working with like-minded people towards a common goal. Followers of value-based leaders will know exactly what the leader stands for and will align with them.

Intuitive – this style relies on a person's instinct where they use their innate qualities and capabilities to lead others. Intuitive leaders are confident in their own ability and demonstrate self-belief based on their experience of previous success. Typically a leader who uses this style has learned much through the different experiences they have had in life. They use whole life experiences to inform their approach. Hierarchical – this type of leadership is based on authority and level in the organization. A person's status is important here, if you are senior to another person then you are the leader – there is no reference at all to what one knows only the position you hold.

The main disadvantage with this style is when people don't buy in to your ideals. Sometimes being value based can be a double-edged sword and sticking to one's principles means there's little room for flexibility. Lack of the consideration of a wider range of options can lead to being regarded as stubborn, obdurate or arrogant.

Intuitive leaders rely on their gut feel and while this is commendable in many situations sometimes it is not appropriate especially when an expert or particular course of action is required. Intuitive leaders may also find it difficult to justify and give reasons for their decisions or actions and are often heard to say 'it's just a feeling'! Sometimes it is necessary for the most senior person to take the lead and make a decision but if overly relied upon this style can become counterproductive as it is based on the premise that 'I'm the boss do as you are told.'

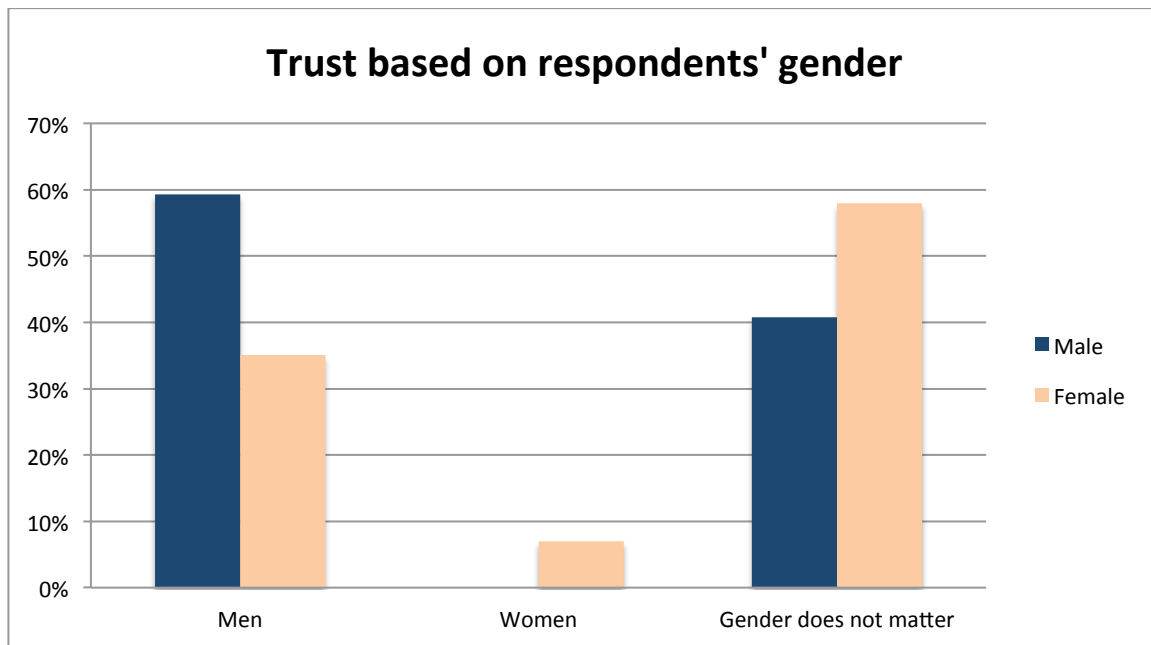
TABLE 21: DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES: KEY QUALITIES (Source: Holton & Dent, 2012)

APPENDIX D

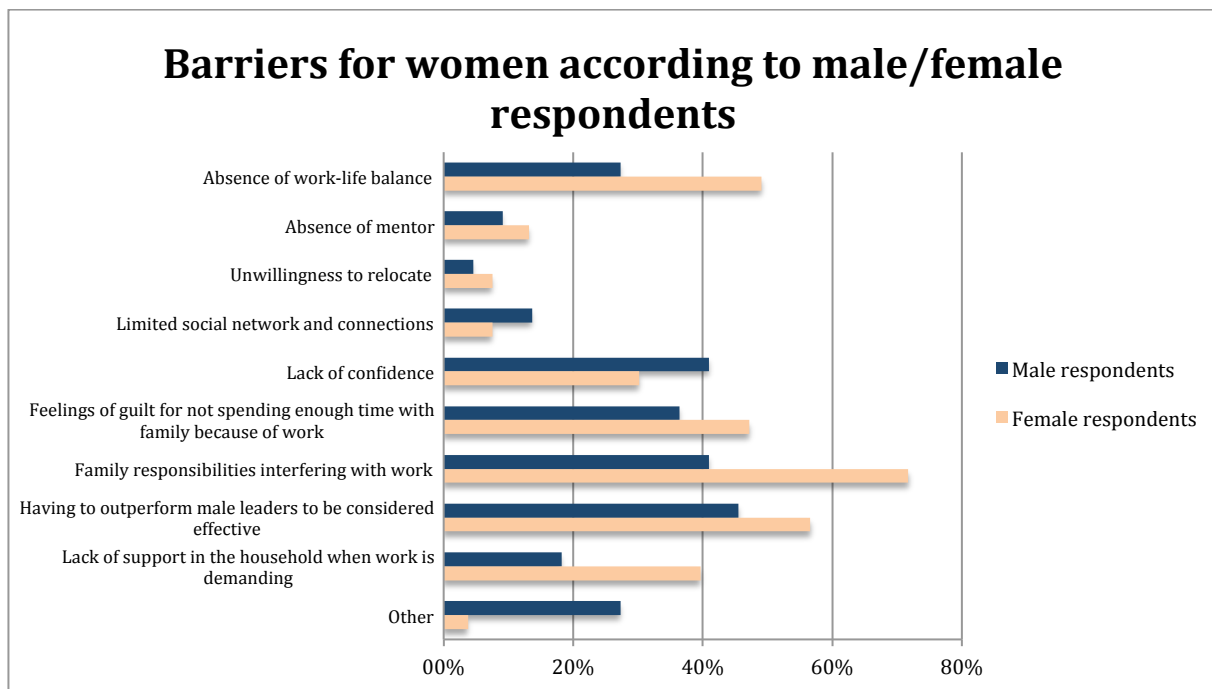
	Male respondents	Female respondents
Self-confidence	85%	86%
Stress-tolerance	59%	44%
Competency	59%	42%
Effectiveness	41%	33%
Productivity	33%	25%
Openness	22%	9%
Perseverance	44%	42%
Untrustworthiness	0%	2%
Initiative	37%	39%
Selfishness	15%	9%
Supportiveness	19%	11%
Compassion	11%	4%
Humility	4%	5%
Solicitude	19%	11%
Emotionality	7%	0%
Assertiveness	70%	54%
Ambition	67%	58%
Creativity	41%	16%
Activeness	44%	49%
Domination	37%	47%
Tendency to take risks	37%	54%

TABLE 22: FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES ABOUT MALE LEADERS' ATTRIBUTES (Source: Author, 2016)

APPENDIX E



APPENDIX F



APPENDIX G

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.074	1	.074	.000	.988
Within Groups	17934.519	52	344.895		
Total	17934.593	53			

APPENDIX H

Tests of Normality							
	Sex	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Average_score	Opposite	.094	38	.200*	.979	38	.693
	Same	.093	38	.200*	.980	38	.706
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.							
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire in English

Hello!

I am a student at Copenhagen Business School. I am in my last year and at the moment, am writing my Master's Thesis and one of the tasks is to conduct a survey. The aim of this survey is to find out what are the attitudes of Lithuanian employees towards male and female leaders.

This questionnaire is anonymous.

I would really appreciate if you could allocate 10 minutes and fill out the questionnaire.

Thus, I would like to invite you to participate in this survey and I hope that you will contribute to my Master's Thesis.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration!

First few questions are about your demographics. This data will help to compare your answers with those similar to you.

What is your education level?

- (1) ☐ High school graduate
- (2) ☐ Advanced vocational education and training
- (3) ☐ Bachelor's degree
- (4) ☐ Master's degree
- (5) ☐ Ph.D.
- (6) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

What is your age?

What is your gender?

- (1) ☐ Male
- (2) ☐ Female
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

What best describes the type of organization you are working for?

- (1) ☐ Public sector
- (3) ☐ Non-governmental organization
- (2) ☐ Private sector
- (5) ☐ Not-for-profit
- (4) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

What is the closest match for the title of your position?

- (1) ☐ Student
- (2) ☐ Intern
- (3) ☐ Entry Level
- (4) ☐ Analyst / Associate
- (5) ☐ Manager
- (6) ☐ Senior Manager
- (7) ☐ Director
- (8) ☐ Vice President
- (9) ☐ Senior Vice President
- (10) ☐ C level executive (CIO, CTO, COO, CMO, etc.)
- (11) ☐ President or CEO
- (12) ☐ Owner
- (13) ☐ Blue-collar worker
- (14) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

What is your working experience (in years/months)?

Which city are you working in?

At the moment, your supervisor is:

- (1) ☐ Vyras
- (2) ☐ Moteris
- (3) ☐ Lytis nesvarbu

Your preference regarding the gender of your supervisor:

- (1) ☐ Male
- (2) ☐ Female
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

In your opinion, who are more effective leaders?

- (1) ☐ Males
- (2) ☐ Females
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

In your opinion, what are the main factors that determine leadership effectiveness? (All choices are possible).

- (1) ☐ Education
- (2) ☐ Personality traits
- (3) ☐ Acquired relevant knowledge and skills
- (4) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

In your opinion, which leader is able to manage conflicts effectively?

- (1) ☐ Males
- (2) ☐ Females
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

In your opinion, which leader is more capable of listening and understanding their employees/subordinates?

- (1) ☐ Males
- (2) ☐ Females
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

In your opinion, who is better at controlling their emotions?

- (1) ☐ Males
- (2) ☐ Females
- (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

In your opinion, which attributes are most suitable for male leaders? Please choose at least 5.

- (1) ☐ Self-confidence
- (2) ☐ Stress-tolerance
- (3) ☐ Competency
- (4) ☐ Effectiveness
- (5) ☐ Productivity
- (6) ☐ Openness
- (7) ☐ Perseverance
- (8) ☐ Untrustworthiness
- (9) ☐ Initiative
- (10) ☐ Selfishness
- (11) ☐ Supportiveness
- (12) ☐ Compassion
- (13) ☐ Humility
- (14) ☐ Solicitude
- (15) ☐ Emotionality

- (16) ☐ Assertiveness
- (17) ☐ Ambition
- (18) ☐ Creativity
- (19) ☐ Activeness
- (20) ☐ Domination
- (21) ☐ Tendency to take risks

Please specify any important additional male traits that were not mentioned.

In your opinion, which attributes are most suitable for female leaders? Please choose at least 5.

- (1) ☐ Self-confidence
- (2) ☐ Stress-tolerance
- (3) ☐ Competency
- (4) ☐ Effectiveness
- (5) ☐ Productivity
- (6) ☐ Openness
- (7) ☐ Perseverance
- (8) ☐ Untrustworthiness
- (9) ☐ Initiative
- (10) ☐ Selfishness
- (11) ☐ Supportiveness
- (12) ☐ Compassion
- (13) ☐ Humility
- (14) ☐ Solicitude
- (15) ☐ Emotionality
- (16) ☐ Assertiveness
- (17) ☐ Ambition
- (18) ☐ Creativity
- (19) ☐ Activeness
- (20) ☐ Domination
- (21) ☐ Tendency to take risks

Please specify any important additional female traits that were not mentioned.

In your opinion, what are male leader competencies? Please choose the most suitable.

- (1) ☐ Exactly instruct group or organization members
- (2) ☐ Organize effectively
- (3) ☐ Accurately and clearly formulate tasks
- (4) ☐ Control workflow in an effective way
- (5) ☐ Accurately assess situation
- (6) ☐ Inspire and motivate group or organization members
- (7) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

In your opinion, what are female leader competencies? Please choose the most suitable.

- (1) ☐ Exactly instruct group or organization members
 (2) ☐ Organize effectively
 (3) ☐ Accurately and clearly formulate tasks
 (4) ☐ Control workflow in an effective way
 (5) ☐ Accurately assess situation
 (6) ☐ Inspire and motivate group or organization members
 (7) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

Which leader do you trust more?

- (1) ☐ Males
 (2) ☐ Females
 (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

If males, why:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
They themselves trust people more	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are rarely guided by their emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more self-reliant	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They more assertively maintain their stance/opinion	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They develop more personal relationships with co-workers	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can stabilize the situation quicker	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better aware of the feelings of others	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more practical	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more inclined to help in a difficult situation	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They more often admit when they are wrong	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

If females, why:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
--------------------------	-----------------	-----------------------------------	--------------	-----------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
They themselves trust people more	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are rarely guided by their emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more self-reliant	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They more assertively maintain their stance/opinion	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They develop more personal relationships with co-workers	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can stabilize the situation quicker	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better aware of the feelings of others	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more practical	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more inclined to help in a difficult situation	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They more often admit when they are wrong	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

In your opinion, which leaders can resolve challenges at work easier?

- (1) ☐ Males
 (2) ☐ Females
 (3) ☐ Gender does not matter

If males, why:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
They are more persevere	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more honest	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are faster at making decisions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better at controlling their emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more careful	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
They are more creative	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better at understanding other people's emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can faster adapt to changes	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They quicker notice arising problems	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

If females, why:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
They are more persevere	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more honest	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are faster at making decisions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better at controlling their emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more careful	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are more creative	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They are better at understanding other people's emotions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can faster adapt to changes	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They quicker notice arising problems	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

Do you agree with the statement that it is more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?

(1) ☐ Yes

(2) ☐ No

If yes, in your opinion, why is it more difficult for women to reach leadership positions?

(1) ☐ Absence of work-life balance

- (2) ☐ Absence of mentor
- (3) ☐ Unwillingness to relocate
- (4) ☐ Limited social network and connections
- (5) ☐ Lack of confidence
- (6) ☐ Feelings of guilt for not spending enough time with family because of work
- (7) ☐ Family responsibilities interfering with work
- (8) ☐ Having to outperform male leaders to be considered effective
- (9) ☐ Lack of support in the household when work is demanding
- (10) ☐ Other (Please specify) _____

Should you have any additional comments, please write them below in the box provided.
Your opinion is very important to me.

Thank you for your responses! Have a nice day!