THE IMPACT A DIVERSITY CULTURE HAS ON THE "THINK MANAGER,

THINK MALE" STEREOTYPE: A SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

PERSPECTIVE ON GENDER STEREOTYPES IN SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

A Dissertation

by

THOMAS JOSEPH AICHER

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

August 2009

Major Subject: Kinesiology

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Approved by:

Co-Chairs of Committee,	Michael Sagas
	George B. Cunningham
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ABSTRACT

The Impact a Diversity Culture Has on the "Think Manager, Think Male" Stereotype: A

Social Identity Theory of Leadership Perspective on Gender Stereotypes in Sport

Organizations. (August 2009)

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Women in intercollegiate athletics have faced numerous challenges in breaking

through the "glass ceiling." This issue has received a plethora of attention in the

literature; however, the impact of culture on leadership stereotypes has yet to be

evaluated. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the impact a diversity

culture may or may not have on gendered leadership stereotypes.

Utilizing the social identity theory of leadership and the expectations of gender

stereotypes, I predicted men would be considered more prototypical of a sport

organization than would women. Moving forward, I argued culture would moderate this

relationship. Specifically, women would be considered more prototypical in a proactive

culture (diversity viewed as an asset), whereas men would be perceived as more

prototypical in compliant cultures (diversity viewed as a liability). Finally, when a

leader was determined as prototypical, then (s)he would be rated as more effective than

nonprototypical leaders.

A 2 (culture: compliant, proactive) by 2 (leader's sex: male, female) design was employed to determine the relationship between culture, sex and leadership prototypicality. Respondents to this research experiment included students participating in activity classes at a major Southwest University ($N = 278$). Respondents were first asked to read through two scenarios: one describing culture and the other manipulating the leader. Next, they were asked to complete a series of items to measure prototypicality and leadership effectiveness.

Results indicated the manipulation in the scenarios was successful. A majority of the respondents correctly identified the leader's sex ($N = 241$), and a proactive culture was viewed as supporting diversity when compared to a compliant culture ($F [1, 274] = 120.83, p < .001, \eta^2 = .86$). The first two hypotheses were not supported. Results indicated women were considered as prototypical as men ($F [1,238] = .04, p > .05, \eta^2 =.001$), and culture did not affect prototypicality ratings ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$). However, culture did have a significant positive relationship with leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 21, p < .01$). Prototypicality was significantly positively related to leadership effectiveness ($\beta = .54, p < .001$), thus supporting the third hypothesis.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my dissertation to my loving wife. Without her love, support, and encouragement this dissertation would not have been possible.

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First, I would like to extend my gratitude to my loving wife. Your patience and support was omnipresent and I will always be grateful. Additionally, I would like to thank my parents whose guidance, love, and support led me to this point in my life.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: THE PRESENCE OF THE "THINK MANAGER, THINK

MALE" STEREOTYPE

Managerial stereotypes may be women's largest barrier to attaining leadership

positions in sport organizations. Consistently, researchers have found managerial

stereotypes are associated with masculine characteristics (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002;

Heilmann, Block, & Martell, 1995; Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002; Schein, 1973,

1975; Sczesny, 2003; Willemsen, 2002), thereby limiting women's ability to break

through the "glass ceiling." Recently however, researchers have begun to notice women

are being rated more effectively as leaders when compared to men (Brenner,

Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989; Schein, Mueller,

Lituchy, & Liu, 1996; Schein, 2001), but this trend has mostly found a pro-gender bias

rather than a true change in the stereotypes about leaders (Jackson, Engstrom, &

Emmers-Sommer, 2007). Data indicates this trend has in fact increased the percentage

of women in leadership positions within Fortune 500 Companies (Sczesny, Bosak, Neff,

& Schyns, 2004), and the number of female managers has increased from 21% in 1976

to 46% in 1999 (Powell et al., 2002).

When investigating sport organizations, a much different picture is seen. For

instance, Acosta and Carpenter's (2008) longitudinal study of women in intercollegiate

athletics has found that the percentage of women directing women's athletic programs

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has decreased from 90% in 1972 to 21.3% in 2008, and similarly, the proportion of women head coaches of women's teams has decreased from 90% to 42.4%. Whisenant's (2003, 2008) investigations into interscholastic athletics found women are underrepresented in similar areas: 14% of athletics director positions and 50% of head coaching positions for girls' teams were women (only basketball, volleyball, and softball were explored). At this time, investigations into and the number of professional sports leagues for women are limited, however, only 38% of head coaches and presidents/chairpersons are female for the WNBA (WNBA, 2009), and in the newly formed Women's Professional Soccer League, only 20% of the head coaches and general managers are female (WPS, 2009). Internationally, Shaw and Hoeber (2003) presented evidence to demonstrate women's underrepresentation in National Sport Organizations in Australia, Canada and England.

Women's underrepresentation in intercollegiate athletics has received a plethora of attention in the literature, and Cunningham and Sagas (2008) asserted this line of research has evaluated sport organizations at all three organizational levels: macro, meso, and micro. At the macro level, research focuses on the structural and institutional elements which "shape the production and reproduction of gender" (Cunningham & Sagas, 2008, p. 4). For instance, researchers have established that women receive less for the human and social capital investments at the administrator and coaching level (Cunningham & Sagas, 2002; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004). Additionally, researchers have found access and treatment discrimination in intercollegiate athletics and postulate

discrimination as another factor limiting women in leadership positions (Aicher &

Sagas, in press; Knoppers, 1992; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Stangl & Kane, 1991).

Research at the meso level centers on the organization and focuses on how the

organization contributes to the production or reproduction of gender (Cunningham &

Sagas, 2008). Four different frameworks have been utilized at the meso level: liberal

individualism, liberal structuralism, valuing differences, and post equity. Researchers

have advanced the study of gender equity within the sport context by moving beyond

liberal feminism and emphasizing the importance of sport organization's activities and

policies, and thus, illustrated the prominence of masculinity within the sport culture

(Cunningham & Sagas, 2008; Shaw & Hoeber, 2003).

Research at the micro level concentrates on the individuals within sport

organizations. At this level, researchers have indicated women leave the profession

sooner relative to men (Knoppers, Meyer, Ewing, & Forrest, 1991), and women express

less interest in becoming a head coach (Cunningham & Sagas, 2002; Cunningham,

Doherty, & Gregg, 2007). Researchers have established differences in self-efficacy

(Cunningham et al., 2007), anticipated outcomes associated with being a head coach,

and perceived support from administrators (Dixon & Sagas, 2007). Finally, women

perceive fewer opportunities in the profession (Knoppers et al., 1991), and departmental

compliance with Title IX has been linked to organizational outcomes for women (Sagas

& Batista, 2001).

At this time, one area which has received little attention in the literature is the

impact a diversity culture may have on leadership stereotypes and the perception that

women do not fit in managerial positions. Mostly, literature assessing culture's impact on leadership stereotypes has concentrated on the macro-social level and compared individualistic to collectivist cultures. For instance, Ensari & Murphy (2003) compared leadership perceptions in the United States (individualistic culture) versus Turkey (collectivist culture) and found differences in the leadership prototype. Leaders in the collectivist culture were expected to work more towards group goals, while in an individualistic society, effectiveness was based on the group's performance. Additionally, an individualistic culture focuses on the leader's ability to motivate and enhance subordinates' performance, and in a collectivistic culture, motivation is generated through peer pressure (Hofstede, 1980). Although leadership prototypes vary from one culture to another (Bass, 1990), one attribute has been found consistent: culture affects the leadership prototype and the processing of leaders' behaviors (Hanges, Lord, & Dickson, 2000; Lord, Brown, Harvey & Hall, 2001).

In addition to a macro-social level, Hogg and his colleagues (2004) suggested culture should also be analyzed at the micro-social level. Given the increase in diversity within the workforce (see Thomas, 1991, or Cunningham, 2007, for a complete list of factors contributing to the need for diversity), organizational cultures which value diversity may have a positive effect on the perceptions of women and other nontraditional leader's viability in sport organizations. Fink and Pastore (1999) outline four different management strategies which have been utilized in sport organizations to manage diversity. These management strategies may be viewed as creating a culture, which may or may not value diversity through the different policies, procedures, and

practices they engender. The benefits of properly managing diversity have been outlined in the literature (see Cunningham, 2007, for a complete review); however, to this point scant literature is available testing the different implications the cultural types may have on leaders and followers.

In this study, I focus on expanding the current leadership and diversity culture literature by evaluating the effect a diversity culture may have on leadership perceptions within an intercollegiate athletics context. This is an important contribution to the literature because sport organizations are considered a masculine organization (Shaw & Hoeber, 2003) and leadership is believed to be a masculine role (Eagly & Karau, 2002), which traditionally has been shown to be related to furthering leadership prototypes and the notion of "think manager, think male" (Schein, 1973). If a reduction in the masculine leadership prototype occurs within diversity cultures in intercollegiate athletics, then the notion of "think manager, think male" may be significantly reduced in other culture types as well. Additionally, the evaluation of individual behaviors within an organizational context may answer Cunningham and Sagas (2008) and Claringbould and Knoppers' (2008) call to examine the interconnectedness between organizational structures and individual behaviors.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: THE BACKGROUND AND EMPIRICAL

SUPPORT FOR THE SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY OF LEADERSHIP AND

DEFINING DIVERSITY CULTURE

In this literature review, I will first discuss the foundational theories for the social identity theory of leadership: social identity theory and self-categorization theory. Following, I will outline the main tenets of the social identity theory of leadership, and then build support for the theory using previous literature. Next, I will compare the social identity theory of leadership to two other implicit leadership theories: leadership categorization theory and leader-member exchange theory. I will then transition into a discussion about the diversity management literature concerning sports organizations that will be utilized to describe different diversity cultures. Finally, I will present the hypotheses which I will test in this study.

Based on social identity theory and self-categorization process, Hogg and his colleagues developed the social identity theory of leadership, thereby challenging previous leadership theories (e.g., leadership categorization theory). In the following section, I will give a brief overview of the social identity theory, the self-categorization process, and how Hogg and colleagues have enveloped these theories into the social identity theory of leadership. Following, I will present a discussion of empirical support for the social identity theory of leadership, and next will be a thorough literature review.

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory was introduced by Tajfel (1972) to explain how people conceptualize themselves in intergroup contexts, and the theory suggests that this social categorization system "creates and defines an individual's own place in society" (p. 293). He defined social identity as "the individual's knowledge that he or she belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him or her of the group membership" (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). With this knowledge, people sort themselves into identity groups based upon salient characteristics, act in accord with their salient identities, and favor contexts which bolster a positive group identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007; Hogg & Terry, 2000). Therefore, through social camparisons, the social identity theory puts forward that individuals seek to confirm or establish distinctions between in- and out-group membership motivated by a desire to increase self-esteem and reduce uncertainty (Turner, 1975).

Social identity theory focuses on intergroup relations (e.g., prejudice, discrimination, and conditions that promote different behavior types) and centers on three main foci: categorization, identification, and comparison (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Utilizing the three foci, individuals categorize themselves into a social group (e.g., man or woman), thus allowing them to identify with similar others in the group. While establishing an in-group, individuals create out-groups as a comparison group so that association with the in-group engenders positive in-group perceptions and enhances one's self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In other words, social identity theory posits

that an individual's self-concept derives from her or his membership in a social group, and includes the value and emotional significance one attributes to membership in such a group (Burns, Aboud, & Moyles, 2000). Furthermore, intergroup relationships involve competition for positive in-group identification in which members strive to protect their group identity through enhancing the positive group distinctiveness.

Social identity processes are guided by two basic motivations: self-enhancement and uncertainty reduction. People strive to enhance self-esteem within the collective self-concept (a shared identity with others which is defined by group memberships creating an "us" vs. "them" mentality) in order to protect and promote the in-group's prestige and status (Abrams & Hogg, 1988; Hogg, Abrams, Otten, & Hinkle, 2004; Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Belonging to a high status or prestigious group in salient group comparisons engenders a positive effect on one's self-esteem (Hogg et al., 2004). Similarly, people strive to reduce uncertainty about their social world and their place within the social world by establishing how they and others are expected to act (Hogg, 2000). Utilizing prototypes to define social categories allows individuals to reduce the uncertainty level because prototypes describe and prescribe behavior (Hogg et al., 2004). Given this information, Hogg and Reid (2006) stated social identity theory places an emphasis on intergroup competition over prestige and status, and positive self identity is self-enhancement's motivational role.

Self-Categorization Theory

Social-categorization is social identity theory's cognitive dimensions, and specifies the operation of social categorization processes (Turner, 1985). The social-categorization process divides the social world into in- and out-groups which are cognitively represented as prototypes (Hogg, 2001). The importance of prototypes is created through time as perceptions and feelings about others change from idiosyncratic preference and personal relationship history (personal attraction) to prototypicality (social attraction; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003).

Self-categorization highlights a target group's perceived similarities and dissimilarities relevant to the situational context (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Individuals are more likely to self-categorize in a particular context if the categorization is (a) chronically and contextually accessible, (b) accounts for differences or similarities between in- and out-group members, and (c) develops an understanding for people's behaviors (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). This categorization process has three important implications: in-group members share a common influence, influential ideals and proposals are consonant with central in-group attributes, and influential people are those who are in a position to supply information about category definition (Reicher, Haslam, & Hopkins, 2005). Utilizing the categorization process, people perceive themselves and others as representations of a one-dimensional in-group or out-group prototype rather than of the idiosyncratic behaviors each individual possesses: a process defined as self-categorization (e.g., Hogg & Hains, 1996, 1998; Hogg, Hardie, & Reynolds, 1995).

Prototypes are abstract features commonly associated with category members (Cantor, Mischel, & Schwartz, 1982), which are a given category's typical or ideal example, and may include an array of information, such as physical characteristics, traits, and behaviors (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Prototypes are typically vague sets, rather than specific attributes, which capture the context-dependent group membership features, including attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and, feelings (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Oftentimes, these prototypes are representations of an ideal (an abstract set of group features) or an exemplary member (actual group members who best embody the group; Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000), which maximizes the intra-group similarities to inter-group differences ratio (Hamilton & Sherman, 1996; Hamilton, Sherman & Castelli, 2002; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; Yzerbyt, Castano, Leyens, & Paladrino, 2000; Yzerbyt, Corneille, & Estrada, 2001). Moreover, prototypes accentuate intra-group similarities and inter-group differences, and thus, demarcate numerous social stimuli into manageable social categories (Hogg & Reid, 2006). Furthermore, prototypes are stored, context specific, can change over time, and are based on group's salient characteristics (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Prototypes are not sustainable with only intra-group comparisons, but rather, are dependent on inter-group comparisons because core group members and out-group members provide relevant information about the contextual norms. To establish a norm, group members must first identify with the group in the specific context, and prototypical behaviors are identified as positively representing the group identity (Hogg & Reid, 2006; Turner, 1991). Once a group internalizes and accepts a norm, it then

becomes a specific prototype (Hogg, et al., 2004). Contextual norms express in-group similarities, define common identities, and distance the in-group from the out-group. Additionally, prototypes are contextual norms which are adapted to the context to reduce uncertainty and regulate social perception. To do so, individuals employ prototypes to assimilate others into germane in- and out-groups, and thus, the prototypes are emphasized which leads to stereotyping (Tafjel, 1969): a process termed as depersonalization (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Depersonalization refers to change in other's perception, and does not possess the same negative connotations as deindividualization (not being treated as a person but rather as a group member) or dehumanization (one group subverts another group's identity to present it as inferior) (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000). Depersonalization perceptually differentiates groups and engenders perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and feelings, thus creating stereotypes and group norms (Hogg, 2001). Depersonalization is associated with phenomena relevant to the target group (e.g., group based inter-individual feelings and attitudes; Hogg, Hains, & Mason, 1998). In a group context, depersonalization produces normative behavior, stereotypes, ethnocentrism, positive in-group attitudes, group cohesion, collective behavior, shared norms, and mutual influence (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Social identity theory and self-categorization work together to reduce in-group members' uncertainty level and increase self-esteem based on the situational contexts which determine the most salient or important identity or the identity with the best categorical fit (Hogg & Terry, 2000). People draw from accessible categories within a

given context to determine which category permits the best fit (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Oakes & Turner, 1990). For a category to be accessible, they should be valued, important, and frequently employed aspects of the self concept and/or perceptually salient (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Thus, a category fits because it accounts for the similarities and differences based on specific context cues. This process then defines the in-group prototype as group members organize themselves into contextually appropriate prototypes (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Social Identity Theory of Leadership

Utilizing social identity theory and self-categorization theory, Hogg (2001) developed the social identity theory of leadership. Social identity affects leadership views through the notion of prototypicality, and the social identity theory of leadership directly attributes leadership categorizations to the social influence process of social identity theory. The strength of the group's saliency and a group member's identification with the group may affect leadership perceptions, leadership evaluations, and perceived leadership effectiveness (Hogg, 2001). Social identity theory of leadership's main premise is that, as group membership becomes psychologically more salient, leadership endorsement and effectiveness become products of group prototypicality (Hogg et al., 2004). In the following sections, I will discuss the social identity theory of leadership's foundations, and empirical evidence supporting the theory's assertions.

Hogg (2001) defines leadership as "how some individuals…have disproportionate power and influence to set agenda, define identity, and mobilize people

to achieve goals" (p. 188). Therefore, a leader possesses disproportionate influence over attitudes, beliefs, and vision for the group through consensual prestige or exercise of power (Hogg, 2001). In this regard, leadership is viewed as relational, in that it identifies a relationship in which individuals are able to influence others to embrace new beliefs, goals, and values as if they were their own (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Furthermore, good leadership inspires others to adopt these new ideas, values, and beliefs (Burns, 1978), and an effective leader is able to transform individual actions into group actions (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). This is comparative to charismatic (i.e., proactive, motivating, inspiring) or transformational (i.e., change-oriented, innovative, mission and vision oriented) leadership views (for examples of charismatic and transformational leadership see Bass, 1985, 1998; Burns, 1978). Finally, the social identity theory of leadership puts forward that leadership is a relational property within groups because a leader only exists when followers are present and vice versa (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003).

Prototypicality, social attraction, and information processing are three core processes which operate simultaneously to make prototypicality an increasingly influential basis of leadership processes as a function of increasing group identity salience (Hogg, 2001). Prototypicality may change over time depending on group members' saliency to the group, and may reduce the use of leadership schemas when an individual is evaluating an (in)effective leader (Hogg, 2001). Prototypicality is the basis for perception and evaluation of self and others, and group members are differentiated within the group based on prototypicality through the depersonalization process (Hogg,

1993). Group prototypicality increases trust levels towards the leader, thus allowing the leader to be more flexible, innovative, and nonconformist. Moreover, highly prototypical leaders will act in a manner to protect the group's identity in order to protect her/his own position within the group (Hogg et al., 2004).

A group member's proximity to the prototype may indicate the influence level (s)he may have within the group. Social attraction is prototype-based and implies group members like prototypical members more than non-prototypical members. Therefore, a prototypical group member may actively influence others within the group and gain acceptance of her or his ideas more readily (Hogg, 2001). This social attraction has a unilateral and consensual quality which creates a need for individuals to comply with a leader's perceptions to establish membership to the in-group (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Prototypical members are the most informative about the group's prototype, and establish themselves as being different through their actions, while at the same time, maintaining the common in-group identity. Prototypical members who tend to identify more with the group may strengthen social attraction, and thus display greater group loyalty, behave in a more group-serving manner, and practice ethnocentrism (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). This process allows followers to focus on the leader's behaviors, and a leader's ability to stand out more within the group (Hogg, 2001). Additionally, this process influences leadership perceptions and effectiveness as group membership salience elevates (Hogg, 2001).

Hogg (2001) suggested depersonalization affords prototypicality to become a significant basis for leadership perceptions. For instance, the longer a person remains in

a leadership position, social attraction to the leader will be enhanced, the leader will become more socially liked, and the leadership prototype will become entrenched. Well established leaders are able to maintain the current social context, and they possess the resources necessary to prevent challengers from redefining the group norms which may affect their leadership position (Hogg, 2001). To do so, leaders must maintain consensual popularity – maintain or increase social attraction – to reduce ambiguity about her/his leadership position within the organization (Hogg, 2001).

Along with social attraction, attribution and information processing translate group prototypes into leadership expectations. Attribution behaviors operate within groups to delineate and define others' behavior (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Attribution of others' behaviors are prone to attribution error (Ross, 1977), correspondence bias (Gilbert & Jones, 1986), or essentialism (Yzerbyt et al., 2001). Fiske (1993) demonstrated how followers seek information about leaders in order to attribute certain qualities which justify the perceived power imbalance between leaders and followers. Over time, attributes will be ascribed to leader's personality rather than prototypicality, thus constructing the charismatic leadership style and reinforcing the perceptions about leaders and followers (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Moreover, charismatic and transformational leadership traits are attributed to leaders who possess a vision or mission of change to benefit the group (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1988). This can be achieved when a leader is perceived as a prototypical group member. Therefore, social identity theory of leadership posits that prototypicality enhances leadership attributions (Hogg, 2002; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003).

Given the above information, Hogg (2001) argued that the "central prediction from the social identity theory of leadership is that as people identify more strongly with a group, the basis for leadership perceptions, evaluations, and endorsement becomes increasingly influenced by prototypicality" (p. 191). Moreover, prototypical members are more likely to emerge as leaders, and these prototypical leaders will be evaluated more favorably (Hogg, 2001). Hogg and Reid (2006) suggested this occurred because followers adjust their behaviors to the leader's behavior when the leader is perceived as prototypical. Moreover, followers prefer prototypical leaders because they embody the group prototype, prototypical leaders behave in a group serving manner, prototypicality generates more trust in the leader, and prototypical members are considered the best information source about the group prototype. A group member's identification to the group and the importance of the group identity to the individual's self-esteem functions as a measure of leadership effectiveness (Hogg et al., 2006). Under low salient conditions, individuals evaluate the nature of the task to establish leadership expectations, and under high salient conditions, leaders who display prototypical group attributes will be rated more effective regardless of the task's nature (Hogg et al., 2006). Moving forward, Reicher and his colleagues (2005) suggested that leadership is contingent upon leaders being perceived as a group's prototypical member, and in order to be influential and effective, "leaders need to represent and define the social identity context" (p. 552). Berschield and Reis (1998) supported this assertion in their findings that people are more likely to agree with others who are similar, comply with similar others' requests and suggestions, and less likely to disagree with those who they like.

Empirical research supports these primary tenets. For instance, Hains, Hogg, and Duck (1997) used a 2 (group salience) × 2 (group prototypicality) × 2 (leader schema congruence) factorial design to examine factors that shape the endorsement of a prototypical leader. Their results indicated increased group salience raised an individual's group identification, and a prototypical leader was more likely than a non-prototypical leader to be endorsed as a leader. Conversely, low salience participants did not differentiate between leadership effectiveness ratings for prototypical and non-prototypical leaders. Overall, leader schema congruent leaders were perceived as more effective; however, as the group's salience increased this effect diminished. Finally, perceived leadership effectiveness was associated with group membership-based liking for the leader, thus bolstering the expected social attraction effect.

Fielding and Hogg's (1997) research reinforced Hains and colleagues' (1997) findings, and the notion that the social identity theory of leadership is a stronger predictor of leadership evaluation than leadership categorization theory (see also Hogg et al., 1998). In their study, Outward Bound group members rated the group member perceived as the most influential based on prototypicality and stereotypicality measures. Stereotypicality measures were consistent with leadership categorization theory in that respondents matched their a priori leadership schemas with the person who they felt was most influential. In the group's early developmental stages, leadership schemas predicted perceived leadership effectiveness rather than group prototypicality. However, social identification with the group moderated perceived in-group prototypicality, and

thus, group members who highly identified with the group rated perceived prototypical leaders higher than group members who did not highly identify with the group.

Similarly, Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) found prototypicality was positively related to the leader's endorsement by members who were more highly identified with the group. As group members' identification with the group increased, the relationship between leadership schema congruence and leadership endorsement weakens. van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, and van Dijke (2000) demonstrated the task's ambiguity may also affect leadership endorsement. They found prototypical leaders were more likely than non-prototypical leaders to be endorsed as leaders in ambiguous tasks.

Duck and Fielding (1999) analyzed corporate mergers' and acquisitions' effect on leadership endorsement. They predicted the endorsement of prototypical leaders was more likely to occur than non-prototypical leaders. This was expected to transpire because prototypical leaders are viewed as protecting the group and acting in a manner, which would benefit the in-group rather than the out-group (Duck & Fielding, 1999). In a laboratory study, they found evidence to suggest in-group (prototypical) leaders were more strongly supported than out-group (non-prototypical) leaders. For instance, individuals who were highly identified with one of the pre-merger organizations was more likely to give support to a leader who matched her/his previous organization's characteristics. The individual's relationship with the group moderated this relationship (Duck & Fielding, 1999). Various researchers found similar results to suggest in-group members were more likely to be endorsed as leaders as compared to out-group members

during a merger process (e.g., Terry, Carey, & Callan, 2001; van Knippenberg & van Leeuwen, 2001).

Similar to mergers and acquisitions, social dilemmas are typically difficult to resolve and lead to a prototypical leader's endorsement. Van Vugt and De Cremer (1999) examined this assertion in an experimental study, and found participants generally preferred prototypical over non-prototypical leaders. Similar to previous research, group identification altered the leadership endorsement from leadership schemas to prototypicality. Additionally, their study found a proclivity among participants for selected leaders rather than appointed leaders. These findings support the social identity theory of leadership because selected leaders imbue group characteristics (prototypicality), whereas appointed leaders may portray out-group membership characteristics (non-prototypical). This expected prototypicality of selected leaders led to higher effectiveness ratings and endorsement levels (Van Vugt & De Cremer, 1999). Furthering this research De Cremer and Van Vugt (2002) showed cooperation levels were higher for selected leaders as compared to appointed leaders.

Group Dynamics and Prototypicality. The social identity theory of leadership suggests leaders are expected to be group members, and if not, then they should present an image of working for the in-group. Haslam and Platow (2001) stated leadership endorsement may derive from being "one of us" (prototypical group member), or "doing it for us" (non-prototypical group leader working to benefit the group). Leader attitudes and behaviors should demonstrate commitment or sacrifice for the group's benefit, favor the in-group over relevant out-groups, and practice fair judgment. Leadership

commitment to the group reflects the leader's willingness to exert effort on behalf of the group (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). In-group favoritism occurs when a leader behaves in a manner which benefits members of the in-group over out-group members while demonstrating prototypical behavior (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). This favoritism behavior may be viewed as "doing it for us" as well as "what makes us better than them" (Haslam & Platow, 2001). Judgments may come in three forms: procedural (Are the procedures fair?), distributive (How fair are the rewards?), and interactional (Was I f fairly treated by the leader?). Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) argued perceived fairness may be dependent on the leader's prototypicality and the leader's perceived effectiveness. The following research inquiries will describe support for the proposition that in-group identification will moderate support and cooperation levels toward leaders who are perceived as highly committed to the group, practice in-group favoritism, and utilize fair methods and make fair decisions.

Leadership Commitment. In terms of leadership commitment, research supports the assertions by Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003). For instance, De Cremer and Van Vugt (2002) found members' cooperation level increased when the leader's perceived commitment level increased. In a second experiment, they found leaders who were perceived to have high commitment levels were more strongly supported by high group identifiers, and low group identifiers supported skilled leaders more. De Cremer and van Knippenberg (2002) evaluated self-sacrificing behavior in an experimental study, and indicated that leaders who were perceived to demonstrate self-sacrificing behavior obtained greater support levels and cooperation. Coupled with procedural fairness, this

study illustrated that a leader's self-sacrificing behavior elicited more cooperation when the process was viewed as procedurally unfair, and alternatively, self-benefiting leader behavior received more support when the procedure was identified as fair (De Cremer and van Knippenberg, 2002). In these studies, group identification moderated these relationships.

Favoritism. In a laboratory study, Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) analyzed the effects a leader's perceived in-group prototypicality would have on the group members' distribution fairness ratings. In their study, in-group favoring leaders received the strongest endorsement from high group identifiers, whereas low group identifiers strongly endorsed fair leaders. Additionally, in-group members rated the in-group leader more favorably than a neutral or out-group leader. These findings replicated previous research results which indicated in-group favoring reduced the leader's perceived fairness ratings when the leader was not perceived as practicing in-group favoritism (Platow, Hoar, Reid, Harley, & Morrison, 1997; Platow, Reid, & Andrews, 1998). High group identifiers endorsed in-group leaders, regardless of their distribution methods, more so than they did out-group or neutral leaders. This finding suggests in-group leaders have more flexibility to act in group normative and non-normative ways than members in more peripheral groups (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2001). Therefore, bordering out-group leaders should display in-group favoritism to increase their endorsement, while out-group leaders may be unable to attain endorsement from in-group members unless they practice in-group favoritism (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001).

Justice. The social identity theory of leadership asserts fair leaders should attract more support than unfair leaders, and this relationship is moderated by group identification (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). De Cremer and van Knippenberg (2002) bolstered this assertion when they observed fair leaders were recognized as more effective than leaders who were not viewed as procedurally fair. Van Vugt and De Cremer (1999) demonstrated support for this assertion in their social dilemmas experiment. In their study, relationship oriented leaders educed group member cooperation when group identification levels were high as compared to low identifying members. Platow and colleagues (1997) showed group members displayed greater support for leaders who allocated resources fairly among in-group members, and they would prefer leaders who favored the in-group over the out-group in resource allocation. Furthermore, Lind, Kray, and Thompson (2001) demonstrated group identification moderates perceived leader procedural fairness, in that highly identified members perceived the procedure as more fair, and were more likely to accept the leader's authority to make the decision. De Cremer and Alberts (2004) found leader procedural fairness interacts with a follower's need to belong to affect follower emotions, and Liao and Rupp (2005) illustrated the positive effect a procedural fairness climate had on commitment to the leader. Finally, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, and De Cremer (2005) argued that prototypicality reduces the effect a leader's perceived procedural fairness has on overall leadership effectiveness.

Van Dijke and De Cremer (2008) evaluated the mediating/moderating effect perceived procedural fairness had with leadership prototypicality and self perceived

status. In two different studies (the first was a field experiment, the second a laboratory experiment), they established further evidence which indicated leadership prototypicality had an effect on perceived leadership fairness among both samples. Additionally, group identification played a role in this relationship: when identification was high, the relation between leader prototypicality and perceived procedural fairness was significantly positive. Leader prototypicality had a positive influence on self perceived status when the group member indicated high identification with the group. To further these relationships, they tested for mediation and moderation and found that leadership prototypicality's effect on self perceived status is mediated by perceived procedural status. This study indicated leader prototypicality may have additional benefits beyond the current justice literature.

van Knippenberg and colleagues (2007) evaluated how the different forms of justice – distributive, procedural, and interactional – affected a leader's perceived effectiveness and if group saliency and leader prototypicality influence this relationship. Their review of literature supports the notion that the different justices are positively associated with leadership effectiveness criteria. Specifically, distributive justice relates to outcome satisfaction, and as mentioned before, group favoritism in distribution leads to high perception of fairness (see Platow et al., 1997). Procedural justice affects trust in the leader, outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Ramaswami & Singh, 2003; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Similarly, perceived interactional justice predicts trust in the leader, commitment, satisfaction, charismatic leadership perceptions, collective self-esteem, and

organizational citizenship behavior (De Cremer, van Dijke, & Bos, 2007; Lipponen, Koivisto, & Olkkonen, 2005; Ramaswami & Singh, 2003; Stinglhamber, De Cremer, & Mercken, 2006).

De Cremer and his colleagues (2007) tested all three forms of justice in their experimental study. They attempted to determine if interactional justice had a larger impact on perceived transformational leadership than did distributive or procedural justice. Their findings support their assertions: perceived interactional justice was related to perceptions of transformational leadership, whereas distributive and procedural were not. Further, their findings suggested highly identified group members were likely to perceive the leader as more transformational than low identified group members. Together, transformational leadership and group identification positively affect followers' willingness to change their focus from an individual self interest to the group's interest. Therefore, transformational leaders need to enhance group efficacy in order to be considered effective, which supports the social identity theory of leadership (De Cremer et al., 2007).

Finally, Ullrich and colleagues (2009) argued leadership prototypicality may moderate the relationship between perceived procedural fairness and leadership endorsement. Utilizing a laboratory and a field study they found this was in fact the case. As predicted, there was a positive relationship between perceived procedural fairness and leadership endorsement. Further, this relationship was strengthened when followers indicated the leader was prototypical and the follower was highly identified with the group. This combination of studies added to previous literature because it was

the first study to test for the moderating effect of leadership prototypicality on procedural fairness and leadership endorsement (Ullrich et al., 2009).

   Prototypicality and Leadership. Prototypicality and group oriented behavior are not always congruent; however, as long as the two are balanced, perceived leadership effectiveness should not be affected (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) put forward that prototypical leaders posses leeway in their behaviors because they enjoy solid in-group membership, which allows them to act with little detrimental impact to their perceived effectiveness. Conversely, less prototypical leaders encompass fewer membership credentials; thus, in-group members would be less tolerant of non-group oriented behavior, and would only be viewed as effective leaders if they practiced group-oriented behavior. In their study, Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) determined a three-way (prototypicality, leader allocation behavior, group member identification) interaction was present. Among low identifiers, fair leaders received more support than in- or out-group favoring leaders, and prototypicality was unrelated to endorsement. Alternatively, high group identifiers endorsed leaders who were prototypical group members regardless of their allocation behavior.

   van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2000, 2001) extended these findings. They predicted influential tactics (e.g., hard or soft) would not affect a prototypical leader's relationship with her/his followers when the followers possessed high saliency with the group. Moreover, non-prototypical leaders would be rated less effective if they utilized hard tactics rather than soft. In an experimental study, the data illustrated leader-subordinate relations were enhanced when a prototypical leader employed soft

tactics or hard tactics, while a non-prototypical leader's relationship with followers deteriorated when exercising hard influential tactics, but improved with soft tactics (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2000). Among high identifying group members, leader-follower relations were believed to worsen with both hard and soft tactics when a non-prototypical leader was present. Alternatively, leader-follower relations were enhanced when the leader was recognized as prototypical, regardless of influential tactics (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2001).

Martin and Epitropaki (2001) evaluated the effect organizational identification had on perceived transactional and transformational leadership styles, and the effectiveness ratings associated with the two styles. Their results indicated highly identified members evaluated leaders more effectively based on the leaders' behavior rather than their personal leader prototypes, whereas low identifiers utilized their leader prototypes as a means for evaluation. They also found evidence to suggest proximity to and the amount of contact with the leader reduced the leader prototype scores and increased the leader's rating based on actual behavior. Although their work did not attribute their findings to the social identity theory of leadership, it could be argued this is the case. For instance, Hogg (2000) argues leaders are viewed as possessing characteristics or prototypical behaviors of the group or organization with which members identify. Therefore, when a person is highly identified with the organization (s)he may also highly identify with the leader. Thus, transactional or transformational behavior may not be enough to dramatically change the leader's effectiveness ratings, but prototypicality may be a strong indicator.

van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005) evaluated the effect self-sacrificing behavior and prototypicality had on perceptions of charismatic and effective leadership. Utilizing four different studies, with different sampling techniques and methodologies, they were able to build support for the assertion that prototypicality and self-sacrificing behavior interacted in leadership effectiveness and charismatic leadership perceptions. For instance, the four studies demonstrated the leader's self-sacrificing behavior had a larger effect on perceived leadership effectiveness when the leader was not prototypical of the group. Additionally, prototypicality moderated the effect leader self-sacrificing behavior had on perceptions of charisma. For highly prototypical leaders, self-sacrificing behavior did not have a significant impact on attributions of charisma, while when the leader was low in prototypicality, self-sacrificing behavior had a significant positive impact on charismatic leadership perceptions. In one study, van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg measured actual performance on a task and found that self-sacrificing behavior increased the performance on the task by the individual, thus showing its importance.

Moving Forward. Utilizing the social identity theory of leadership, Reicher and colleagues (2005) posited leadership depends on a shared social identity, leaders are active in the identity process, and a leader's creativity includes words, ideas, and initiated structure. Furthermore, leaders actively define the social category in order to enhance their prototypicality, while followers interpret and ponder the definitions given to them (Reicher et a1., 2005). Therefore, leaders are viewed as entrepreneurs (Reicher & Hopkins, 2001, 2003) who supply a vision, create social power, and direct power to

realize the vision (Reicher et al., 2005). Utilizing data from the BBC Prison Study Reicher et al. (2005) found support for their assertions. For instance, as the guards' shared social identity declined, their leadership structure also declined, and as a common sense of identity increased for prisoners, the leadership structure increased. Similarly, prisoner leaders were able to manifest a worker identification with fellow inmates which led to their ability to challenge for better conditions with greater support as compared to the guards who were unable to establish similar group identification.

van Knippenberg, van Dick, and Tavares (2007) evaluated the effects perceived supervisor support and organizational identification had on withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, turnover intentions). In two different studies, they found perceived supervisor support and organizational identification interacted to affect withdrawal behaviors. The first study found evidence that individuals who were highly identified with the organization were less likely to have turnover intentions regardless of supervisor support. Alternatively, low organizational identifiers were likely to have high turnover intentions when perceived supervisor support was low and low turnover intention when perceived supervisor support was high. Similarly, in the second study individuals who highly identified with the organization were less likely to be absent with or without perceived supervisor support, whereas perceived supervisor support had a negative relationship for employees low in organizational identification. They postulated that high organizational identification disallows individuals to view withdrawal behaviors as a feasible action even when perceived supervisor support is low, which is in accord with the social identity theory of leadership's predictions.

Hornsey and his colleagues (2005) examined the effect collective versus personal language may have an impact group members' evaluation of their leaders. In the laboratory experiment, the results indicated the leader's language style may affect her or his evaluation depending on the team members' group identification level. For instance, low identifiers preferred leaders to employ personal language style when speaking for the group, whereas high identifiers evaluated leaders as more effective when the leader utilized collective language. Although this study was not based in the social identity theory of leadership, it may suggest leaders who are highly prototypical of the group may engender higher evaluations if they employ a collectivist language style. Conversely, non-prototypical leaders may be evaluated more favorably if they use a personal language style when group saliency is high.

Leadership and Gender. Social identity theory of leadership may explain the perceived "glass ceiling" considered to be present in most organizations for nontraditional leaders (e.g., women). The social identity theory of leadership predicts that as group membership becomes more salient, the level of congruency between the leader's characteristics and the group's prototype will affect leadership endorsement and perceived leadership effectiveness (Hogg and van Knippenberg, 2003). Thus, a mismatch between the leader in demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, age, etc.) compared to the group prototype may impact her or his effectiveness and endorsement ratings (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003).

In terms of the demographic relationship with prototypicality, most researchers have focused on gender because organizational prototypes are believed to be more

masculine than feminine (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). For instance, Hogg and his colleagues (2006) found a relationship between the nature of the task, group saliency, gender, and leadership endorsement. This interaction showed women were perceived as more prototypical leaders for expressive tasks, and men were more prototypical for instrumental tasks. Additionally, as the group's saliency level increased, the gendering of the position also increased, thus suggesting, group members with high identification working on an instrumental task would endorse a male leader, and high identifying members in an expressive task would endorse a female leader.

Hogg and his colleagues (2006) also evaluated the effects of traditional values have on leader selection. They predicted traditional norms will impact the selected leader's gender because a male leader is perceived as more prototypical than a female leader in an instrumental task, and a female leader is viewed as more prototypical in expressive tasks. Conversely, participants who indicated low traditional values were expected to view male leaders as less prototypical for instrumental tasks and female leaders less prototypical for expressive tasks. Finally, Hogg et al. (2006) predicted a four-way interaction in which, leadership effectiveness would be higher for leaders in high compared to low salience conditions when the leader was prototypical, and prototypical leaders would be judged higher than non-prototypical leaders in high salient groups. Utilizing the ambivalent sexism inventory (see Glick & Fiske, 1996) as a reference for traditional values, their results illustrated that prototypical leaders were considered more effective than non-prototypical leaders. Additionally, more traditional participants indicated males were more prototypical for instrumental tasks, females were

more prototypical for expressive tasks, and nontraditional members felt males and females were less prototypical for their respective tasks. This study extends social identity theory of leadership in that it demonstrated individuals use their own stereotypes of social categories to indicate a match between leader selection and group norms (Hogg et al., 2006).

In three different studies, researchers evaluated situational cues and leadership selection and found what may be considered a gender bias in leadership selection. Porter and colleagues (1983) were one of the first to evaluate seating arrangement as a leadership cue. In their study, they distributed a picture of men and women sitting around what appeared to be a board room table. In each picture one person sat at the head of the table and two people were seated on each side. The groups consisted of all men, all women, or an equal mix of men and women with the exception of the person seated at the head of the table. While men and women placed at the head of the table were selected in same sex groups as having more leadership qualities and contributing most to the group, the mixed group results varied. Males were more likely to choose a man – regardless of seating position – and similarly, females were more likely to choose women. Gender stereotypes strongly reduced the situational cues effect. Jackson and her colleagues (2005) found similar results using the international symbols for men and women rather than pictures. Additionally, to add prominence to the head of the table position they placed the person at the head of the table at the top of the page and all others down the page. Even with these controls, gender bias was still present in leadership selection.

To further challenge this notion of gender bias, Jackson et al. (2007) placed individuals at both ends of the table pictured horizontally, switched the gender on who was on the left and right. Their quantitative analysis demonstrated males were more likely to choose men and females were more likely to choose women, thus illustrating a gender bias. In addition to the leader selection, Jackson and her colleagues asked respondents to indicate why they chose the selected leader. Responses strongly indicated a pro-male bias in males who selected a man as leader, and pro-female bias in females who selected a woman as leader. These research studies demonstrated that gender may be a stronger cue for leadership than specific situational cues. Moreover, in accordance with social identity theory of leadership, participants selected leaders based on in-group member prototypicality (e.g., similar gender).

Social Identity Theory of Leadership and Other Implicit Leadership Theories

Leadership Categorization Theory. Based in Rosch's (1978) categorization theory, Lord and his colleagues (1984) developed the leadership categorization theory. They put forward that leadership categorization deals with three distinct areas: (a) specifying the internal structure of leadership categories, (b) demonstrating how categorical properties are used to facilitate information processing, and (c) explaining leadership perceptions in categorization terms. Further, leadership categorization suggests an individual is first identified as a leader, and then, followers selectively encode and retrieve information about the leader so that they are able to judge the leader's performance (Kenny, Blascovich, and Shaver, 1994).

Leadership categories are placed on three levels – superordinate, basic level, subordinate – which vary in the number of individuals who may fit into the category (Lord et al., 1984). For instance, at the superordinate level, one may consider all leaders fit within this category, and at the basic level, one may break it down to political, organizational, military leaders, and so on. Finally, at the subordinate level, an individual make break down the categorizations into specific subsets, such as liberal and conservative for political leaders. Each categorical level is a basis for evaluation because individuals will call on their leadership schema for the given circumstance to determine the leader's performance or effectiveness level (Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008).

Research has supported the main tenets of this theory. For instance, researchers have found individuals use behavioral categories to differentiate between leaders and non-leaders, as well as, effective and ineffective leaders (Lord et al., 1984; Offerman, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994; Phillips & Lord, 1982). Additionally, research has shown categories such as personality, sex, gender roles, and intelligence are related to leader emergence (e.g., Gershenoff & Foti, 2007; Hall, Workman, & Marchioro, 1998; Moss & Kent, 1996; Ritter & Yoder, 2004; Smith & Foti, 1998; Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1999), and that race and gender are related to leadership effectiveness (see Rosette et al., 2008; Powell et al., 2002).

Mixed results have occurred within some categories, such as gender. For instance, tests in leader emergence have demonstrated that men are perceived to emerge as leaders compared to women (Carbonell, 1984; Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons,

1990; Hall et al., 1998), whereas others have found no differences in leader emergence (Kent & Moss, 1994; Moss & Kent, 1996; Schneier & Bartol, 1980). Some have postulated the difference in findings could be attributed by the nature of the task (Eagly & Karau, 1991), and this assertion has found some support in the literature. For instance, similar to studies utilizing the social identity theory of leadership, studies using leadership categorization theory have indicated men emerge as leaders in masculine tasks, women emerge as leaders in feminine tasks, and the results are mixed in neutral tasks (Goktepe & Schneider, 1989; Hall et al., 1998; Karakowsky & Siegle, 1999; Kolb, 1997; Ritter & Yoder, 2004; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984).

To become more consistent with the social identity theory of leadership, Lord and his colleagues have recently altered the leadership categorization theory (see Lord et al., 2001). Leadership categorizations are now viewed as a context dependent process, and they propose that under conditions of high salience, the leadership schema may be construed in the group prototype mold. However, consistent with previously discussed findings, group prototypicality is a better indicator of leader effectiveness (Hogg et al., 2006) and perceived leadership style (Platow et al., 2006). Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) do not argue for the singular use of the social identity theory of leadership, but rather, these findings suggest that under high salient conditions, the social identity theory of leadership has received more empirical support, whereas researchers have established greater support for leadership categorization theory under low salience conditions.

Leader-Member Exchange. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory attributes effective leadership to the development of high quality dyadic exchange relationships

between leaders and specific followers (Allison, Armstrong, & Hays, 2001). This is supported by the work of Graen and his colleagues (1976, 1977). In their work, they found differences among subordinates working under the same leader and suggested leaders will develop stronger associations with a few team members and weaker relationships with other members. Similarity between the leader and member in socio-demographic variables is a fundamental factor affecting the quality of the relationship between the leader and the member (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Green, Anderson, & Shivers, 1996). Schriesheim and colleagues' (1999) recent review of 147 studies further bolsters LMX's main tenets.

Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) suggest the main tenets may be true under certain salient conditions. For instance, in low salience groups a strong interpersonal relationship between the leader and follower may be an effective leadership method; however, under high salient conditions it would be more effective to treat group members in a depersonalized manner which recognizes their group membership rather than their individuality. Hogg and his colleagues (2005) conducted an experiment and determined this is in fact the case. In low salient groups, LMX was a better predictor for perceived leadership effectiveness, and under high salient groups, depersonalization is a more effective leadership style.

Conclusion. Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) point out that social identity theory may not exclusively be the best predictor of leadership effectiveness. Together, LMX and leadership categorization theory may be an effective measure for leadership under low salient conditions, while social identity theory of leadership is more effective

in high salient conditions. Given the group nature of the social identity theory of

leadership, I will utilize it in order to determine the effects a group culture may or may

not have on leadership stereotypes. For the purposes of this study, it is important to

control for the member's level of identification with group. Failure to do so may result

in limited results because utilizing either LMX or leadership categorization may be a

better predictor of leadership expectations.

Organizational Culture

In the next sections, I will briefly define organizational culture. Schein (1990)

defines organizational culture as a "pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or

developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation

and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and

therefore, is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel

in relation to those problems" (p. 111). Similarly, organizational culture is referred to as

"shared values and interpretations" (Siehl & Martin, 1988, p. 81), "learned ways of

coping with experience" (Gregory, 1983, p. 364), and "socially acquired understanding"

(Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983, p. 469). Observable artifacts, values, and basic underlying

assumptions are ways a culture manifests itself within organizations (Schein, 1990).

Collinson (2002) suggested numerous organizational practices (e.g., values, ideologies,

myths, social pressures, etc.) define an organization's culture. For the purposes of this

study, organizational culture is defined as an underlying set of assumptions, beliefs, and

values about how things are supposed to operate within an organization (Schein, 1992).

Shared values and assumptions develop when individuals experience different universal organizational problems with external growth and survival and internal struggles with daily operations (Schein, 1992). In dealing with these experiences, the "human need for parsimony, consistency, and meaning will cause various elements to form into patterns that eventually can be called a culture" (Schein, 1992, p. 10). Although leaders may initially define the organizational culture, the culture is reinforced with new member's selection and socialization, thus further bolstering the notion that leadership prototype evolves to conform to a shared set of assumptions, beliefs, and values (Schein, 1990, 1992).

Diversity Cultures

DeSensi's Model. DeSensi (1995) was one of the first to introduce diversity cultures to the sport management literature. In accord with Chesler and Crow's (1992) model of multiculturalism, DeSensi (1995) discusses the different stages sport organizations may travel through to proactively manage diversity. The first stage is the monocultural stage. In this stage, White males dominate the culture, hold the power in the organization, and strive to protect their power. Prejudice and discrimination are evident, assimilation is encouraged, the organization is individual oriented, and communication is segregated among the different groups. In the transitional stage, White males still dominate the organization's culture and power, but this control is called into question. Prejudice and discrimination are mostly present in subtle forms, accommodation occurs, certain groups are established as identities, and important communication remains segregated; however, social communication begins at the

intergroup level. Finally, the goal of this model is to reach the multicultural stage.

Diversity is valued in this stage, prejudice and discrimination are met with harsh

criticism, culture represents all groups rather than just white males, power is held by a

multicultural team of leaders, and communication is open. Rewards are tied to positive

multicultural behaviors (e.g., mentoring), and continuous education occurs to assist

individuals in their personal growth and understanding of multiculturalism.

    Doherty and Chelladurai's Model. Incorporating additional management

theories (e.g., Adler, 1991; Cox, 1994), Doherty and Chelladurai (1999) view their

model as an extension of DeSensi's (1995) model. The foundation for their argument is

that managing cultural diversity creates an environment in which diverse individuals can

work towards greater synergy. In doing so, organizations may effectively manage

diversity in order to attain the benefits of diversity while reducing the negative

consequences (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999). When managing diversity, Doherty and

Chelladurai (1999) suggest two cultural types may exist – culture of diversity and culture

of similarity – which are placed on a continuum. A culture of similarity values

parochialism and ethnocentrism, avoids risk and ambiguity, concentrates on the task, and

utilizes closed lines of communication. Alternatively, a diversity culture values

differences, tolerates risk and ambiguity, strives for innovation and creativity, focuses on

the organization's people and future, and practices open communication. A diversity

culture recognizes individual cultures and capitalizes on the differences within the

organization's members (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999).

Fink and Pastore Model. Basing their work on previous frameworks, Fink and Pastore (1999) developed a comprehensive diversity management framework, and suggested sport organizations' diversity management strategies fit within four categories: noncompliant, compliance, reactive, and proactive. To illustrate this framework, Fink and Pastore (1999) argued for viewing the different diversity management strategies in a diamond form. The diamond represents three continuums, which move from non-compliant to compliant, compliant to reactive and reactive to proactive (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Proactive diversity management should be the goal of organizations and, therefore, is listed at the top of the diamond. Conversely, non-compliance is placed at the bottom of the diamond because there is no perceived value in diversity, nor a diversity strategy in place.

To further illustrate how organizations move from one continuum to the next, three more continuums were added to the framework. The first continuum represents the organization's progression from an organization that perceives diversity as a liability to one that views diversity as an asset (Fink and Pastore, 1999). Similarly, organizations move along another continuum, which represents progressing from compliance to business performance (Fink and Pastore, 1999). Finally, organizations with rigid lines of communication are placed on the low end the last continuum, and organizations with more flexible lines of communication and decision making are placed at the top (Fink and Pastore, 1999). Together, the three continuums represent how an organization may travel from one stage in diversity management to another. For instance, as

communication lines become more flexible and open, an organization would progress from non-compliant to proactive.

The diamond framework suggests organizations would move through the continuums in succession; however, organizations may skip steps in the continuum (Fink & Pastore, 1999). For instance, for an organization to progress from non-compliance to reactive diversity management, it will normally travel through compliance. This may occur because it would be difficult to shift an organization with little to no diversity to one which reactively acts towards diversity. Thus, demonstrating organizations will first need to recognize a value in diversity, which may be difficult to accomplish with little diversity present in the organization. However, organizations may move directly from compliance to proactive diversity management strategies (Fink & Pastore, 1999). For example, an organization may become fully compliant, perceive the value in diversity, and move directly to proactively managing diversity; however, Fink and Pastore (1999) posit this is unlikely to occur.

To move forward, I will now outline the different diversity management strategies. The first, non-compliant, contains organizations which may be unaware of or choose not to follow federal guidelines (Cox, 1991). Organizations perceive diversity as a liability, attempts are made to assimilate new employees into the organization, federal mandates are not followed, and communication and decision making lines are rigid (Cox & Beale, 1997; Fink, Pastore, & Riemer, 2003; Johnson, 1992). Non-compliant organizations strive for homogeneity, and those in power may utilize homologous

reproduction to protect and guard power the majority (usually White protestant able-bodied males) possesses (Cox & Beale, 1997; DeSensi, 1995; Fink & Pastore, 1999).

Unfortunately, in the realm of sport organizations, non-compliance may be the most common type of organization (Fink & Pastore, 1999). For instance, African Americans and women still face many challenges when attempting to reach the upper echelons of sport organizations (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Further, Title IX cases still occur, sexual harassment law suits are growing, homophobia is rampant (Fasting, Brackenridge, & Sundgot-Borgen, 2003; Krane, 1997; Melear, 2007; Sartore & Cunningham, 2009, Wilde, 1995), and women and minorities perceive higher levels of treatment discrimination (Aicher & Sagas, in press). The recent developments at Fresno State University in which three former coaches sued the University for Title IX compliance issues bolster this assertion (HigherEd, 2008). Additionally, researchers have found homologous reproduction at the intercollegiate athletic administrator (Stangl & Kane, 1991; Whisenant & Mullane, 2007) and coaching levels (Acosta & Carpenter, 2002; Sagas, Cunningham, & Teed, 2006).

Similar to non-compliant organizations, compliant organizations view diversity as a liability; however, they bring in diverse individuals to curb law suits (Fink et al., 2003). In doing so, compliant organizations do nothing to benefit from the positive outcomes a diverse organization may engender, nor do they support diverse individuals (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Rather, they attempt to assimilate different individuals into the majority culture (Fink, Pastore, & Reimer, 2003), and do not assist diverse individuals with succeeding within the organization (Golembiewski, 1995). Decision and

communication lines remain rigid, and thus, potentially thwarting diverse individuals full capacity to perform within the organization (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Possibly a compliant organization's most problematic characteristic is the belief by those in power that they are being forced to comply, and therefore, a great deal of animosity develops (Golembiewski, 1995).

Fink and her colleagues (2001) found that most FBS Division (formerly Division IA) athletic departments engage in compliance strategies. Compliance in intercollegiate athletics may come in the form of adhering to Title IX, Equal Pay Act, and Title VII (Fink et al., 2003). Mahony and Pastore (1998) further support this notion when they found changes in resource allocation for women's teams were directly correlated with Title IX law suits. For instance, in 1972, the year Title IX was passed, the number of women's teams and the amount of resources allocated to women's teams increased (Mahony & Pastore, 1998). Alternatively, in the early 1980s, spending on women's teams began to plateau because athletic departments were in a "holding pattern with regard to women's sports, as they waited to see whether continued increases would be necessary" (Mahoney & Pastore, 1998, p. 136). Furthermore, Fink and Pastore (1999) posited women's programs have been left in obscurity as the resources (e.g., diverse individuals) have been ignored, and thus fan bases have not been expanded or motivated to attend games.

Although reactive organizations are the first organizational type which perceived diversity as an asset, they still have implications which may limit the benefits of diversity. More flexible communication lines, and increase consultation when making

decisions characterize reactive organizations (Fink & Pastore, 1999; Fink et al., 2003; Johnson, 1992). Individuals in power begin to understand the benefits of diversity, and the need for effective management to elicit the benefits of diversity. However, reactive organizations only view race and gender as diversity, and make single attempts to change individuals' diversity perceptions (Fink & Pastore, 1999; Fink et al., 2003; Golembiewski, 1995; Thomas, 1991). Further, these feeble attempts to manage diversity usually result in a strong backlash from majority group members (e.g., White males) who may perceive exclusion from such initiatives (Fink & Pastore, 1999; Golembiewski, 1995).

In two different studies, reactive organizations were the least common among FBS Division and Division III institutions (Fink et al., 2001, 2003). However, Fink and Pastore (1999) outline NCAA's collaboration with the Rainbow Commission on Fairness in Athletics (RCFA) as an example of reactive diversity management. Together, the NCAA and RCFA developed a seven-point diversity plan, which created a timeline for athletic departments to hire minority individuals. Additionally, the NCAA provided diversity training sessions and manuals to member organizations in order to afford their constituents an understanding of diversity and its benefits. This attempt was focused solely on women and racial minorities, and within a short period of time, the initiative lost steam. Examples such as this do little to help diversity management. In fact, most single attempts to manage diversity may be viewed as simple rhetoric in which is used to receive the benefits of diversity (Prasad, Mills, Elmes, & Prasad, 1997).

Therefore, this diversity management strategy may be met with resistance from both
nontraditional and traditional members.

Finally, organizations which fully receive the benefits of diversity utilize
proactive diversity management strategies (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Within these
organizations, diversity is viewed as an asset; however, compared to reactive
organizations, diversity is viewed in a much broader scope (e.g., values, beliefs,
socioeconomic status, sexuality, etc.; Fink & Pastore, 1999). Leaders within this type of
organization have developed an appreciation for the individuals' uniqueness and
diversity (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Personnel and financial resources are utilized to
ensure the commitment to the diversity initiative, diversity issues are addressed before
they occur, diversity is viewed as a social justice issue, and employees at different levels
are involved within the organization decision making process characterize a proactive
diversity management strategy (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Proactive diversity management
may lead to a reduced number of lawsuits (Walsh, 1995), the ability to attract and retain
diverse individuals (Joplin & Daus, 1997), the ability to increase the customer base's
diversity (Fink & Pastore, 1999), and employees may become more satisfied, creative,
and productive (Cox & Beale, 1997; Wright, Ferris, Hiller, & Kroll, 1995).

In terms of sport organizations, Fink and Pastore (1999) point out that very few
sport organizations could be considered to utilize a proactive diversity management
strategy. However, they do present situations in which proactive diversity management
has occurred within sport organizations. For instance, human resource departments
within universities and athletic departments have begun to allow employees to select

from an assortment of healthcare, retirement, vacation, and overtime packages (Fink & Pastore, 1999). Additionally, research has shown perceived proactive diversity management is present within FBS Division and Division III athletic departments (Fink et al., 2001, 2003), although differences did exist in the outcomes of perceived proactive diversity management strategy.

Fink and Pastore (1999) outlined the framework as a method to manage diversity; however, one could argue diversity management strategies are associated with culture. For instance, in developing their framework, Fink and Pastore (1999) utilized the work of Cox (1991), DeSensi (1995), and Thomas (1991). In these different frameworks, they defined organizations as either *monocultural* or *multicultural*. *Monocultural* organizations possess diverse individuals; however, they are usually placed in lower organizational levels, yield little power, and do not participate in communication and decision making (Cox, 1991; DeSensi, 1995). Alternatively, *multicultural* organizations possess leaders from different backgrounds, different perspectives and decision making styles are valued and diverse individuals are not assimilated into the dominant culture, but rather individual's different cultures are combined to establish a unique culture (Cox, 1991; DeSensi, 1995). Organization's which employ either a non-compliant or compliant strategy are similar to *monocultural* organizations, and organization's which utilized reactive or proactive strategies are similar to *multicultural* organizations. Therefore, in terms of this paper, I will utilize two cultural types – compliant and proactive – to determine the impact culture may have on leadership stereotypes.

Hypotheses

In this section, I will highlight empirical support for the hypotheses displayed in Figure 1. In short, I expected a leader's sex will impact her/his leadership prototypicality rating (hypothesis 1), and this relationship would be moderated by the organization's diversity culture (hypothesis 2). Perceived leadership prototypicality would then have an effect on follower's denoted effectiveness rating (hypothesis 3).

When assessing leadership prototypicality in sport organizations, I expected men would be considered more prototypical than women. Leadership positions in sport organizations are dominated by men, and thus, a sport organization's leadership prototype may have become consistent with masculine characteristics (Knoppers, 1992; Shaw & Hoeber, 2003). Sport organizations are perceived as organizations that do not welcome gender equity policies, thus potentially limiting women's potential for success within such an environment (Shaw & Hoeber, 2003). Additionally, sport organizations are associated with characteristics synonymous with masculinity (Alvesson & Billings, 1997), and these traits are associated with leadership positions as well (McKay, Messner, & Sabo, 2000).

Turning to the social identity theory of leadership may give more credence to the notion that men would be considered more prototypical in sport organizations. For instance, Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) suggested a mismatch in demographic characteristics may impact a group members' perception of the leader. This would suggest that a group with a higher percentage of either males or females would consider the dominate gender as more prototypical. Men's domination of sport organizations

(Aitchison, 2005) further adds credence to the hypothesis that masculinity will be consistent with prototypicality. Moreover, Hogg and colleagues (2006) found the nature of the task also plays a role in the prediction of leadership prototypicality. In their study, they found leadership prototypicality was consistent with the gender nature of the task. Sport organizations and leadership's congruency with masculinity continues to augment evidence for the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Men will be considered more prototypical of leadership compared to women.

The culture type present in sport organizations may affect a leader's evaluation if the leader's gender is not prototypical of the organizational culture. For instance, the social identity theory of leadership predicts that as group saliency levels increase, the congruency level between the leader's characteristics and the group's prototype would affect leadership endorsement and perceived leadership effectiveness (Hogg and van Knippenberg, 2003). Therefore, cultures which do not value diversity (i.e. compliant), practice homologous reproduction and discrimination, and a dominant majority hold the power may engender traditional leadership views: "think manager, think male." Conversely, a culture which values diversity (i.e. proactive), a multicultural group holds the power, and discrimination is challenged may enable women, among other nontraditional leaders, to be viewed as prototypical leaders.

In compliant cultures, a dominant majority – usually White able-bodied protestant males – holds the power, and discriminatory practices such as homologous reproduction, access discrimination, and treatment discrimination are likely present. In a

compliant culture, women – among other nontraditional leaders – may find it difficult to attain leadership positions. Based on the social identity theory of leadership, the leadership prototype may be consistent with the organization's culture, and therefore, a man may be perceived to possess more organizational prototypicality than women. Therefore, in compliant cultures, it was expected men would be perceived as more prototypical of the group.

Although reactive cultures value diversity, Fink and Pastore (1999) posit the single attempts to manage diversity and the limited view of diversity may limit the organization's potential to fully receive the benefits diversity may engender. Moreover, they suggested proactive cultures are the only organizational cultures which truly receive the full benefits of diversity. In a proactive culture, a multicultural leadership holds the power, and there is an absence of prejudice and discrimination. This characteristic alone may reduce the "think manager, think male" stereotype; however, the social identity theory of leadership may have an impact as well. For instance, individuals within a proactive organization may view the group as being highly diverse, and therefore, the group's prototype would be consistent with diversity. This may allow women the opportunity to be viewed as more congruent with the leadership prototype.

The difference between the two cultures – compliant and proactive – establishes support for culture to have a moderating role between a leader's sex and leadership prototypicality. For instance, it was expected individuals within a compliant culture would consider men as congruent with leadership prototypicality, but not women. In proactive cultures, women and men would both be perceived as consistent with

leadership prototypicality because neither gender would depart from the group

prototype. Therefore, I put forward the following hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2:* Culture will moderate the relationship between leader's sex and
>
> leadership prototypicality. Specifically, men will be considered more
>
> prototypical in compliant cultures, whereas women will be perceived as more
>
> prototypical in proactive cultures.

In terms of leadership effectiveness, I expected individuals who considered the

leader as prototypical of the group would rate the leader higher than individuals who do

not denote the leaders as prototypical. Previous research supports this assertion. For

instance, De Cremer and van Knippenberg (2002) demonstrated that prototypical leaders

were rated more effective than non-prototypical leaders regardless of their distribution

methods. Prototypical leaders are also afforded a greater amount of leeway with their

actions and behaviors with little impact on their effectiveness rating (Platow & van

Knippenberg, 2001).   In two different studies researchers found influence tactics did not

affect leadership effectiveness ratings for prototypical leaders, whereas non-prototypical

leaders were considered more effective if they employed soft influential tactics (van

Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2000, 2001). Martin and Epitropaki (2001) found

prototypicality was related to perceived transformational leadership and leadership

effectiveness, and self-sacrificing behavior combined with prototypicality increased

leadership effectiveness rating (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). This line

of research supports the third hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Leadership prototypicality will positively affect leadership effectiveness ratings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Pilot Study

A pilot study with a sample size of 35 students (male = 17, female = 18) was completed before full data collection. Chi square analysis determined the leader sex manipulation was successful: χ^2 (1, N = 32) = 23.8, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .84. However, three students incorrectly identified the leader as a male when the leader was a female in the scenario. Although this is concerning for the data collection it does show the manipulation of the leader's sex was successful. In terms of the department's view toward diversity the pilot study also supported a successful manipulation. Results of an ANOVA indicated respondents perceived a proactive culture (*M = 3.79, SD = 1.34*) was more supportive of diversity than individuals who received the compliant culture (*M = 2.31, SD = 1.01*) and this difference was significant (*F* [1, 33] = 12.87, *p < .001, η^2 = .28*). Given this information, I continued with the data collection as planned.

Procedures

Participants. *P*articipants from this study were students at a large public university in the Southwest United States. Students participating in the activity classes were asked to complete the questionnaire during class time with their instructor's permission. This sample was chosen because they represent a cross section of the university's student population in terms of gender, race, class, major, among other

demographic variables. No extra credit or other incentives was given to students for their participation.

Descriptive Statistics. In total, 278 students responded to the survey, and 247 correctly identified the leader depicted in the scenario. These students were utilized in the data analysis. The average respondent age was 20.75, 41.3% of the respondents were women, and 56.7% were male. The majority of the respondents were Caucasian (64.8%), followed by Hispanic/Latino (19.8%), Asian (6.1%), other (3.6%), African American (1.6%), and Native American (1.6%). The bulk of the respondents participated in sports (81.4%), and most competed at the high school level (69.2%), and some participated at the college (7.7%), club (4.9%) or national (1.2%) levels.

A near equal amount of the different conditions was attained: compliant with female leader ($N = 66$), proactive with female leader ($N = 54)$, compliant with male leader ($N = 63)$, and proactive with male leader ($N = 64)$. The number of observations was sufficient in each category to complete the data analysis. Respondents who received the proactive culture scenario were significantly more likely to agree with it ($M = 4.38,$ $SD = 1.48, F [1, 243] = 77.08, p < .001, \eta^2 = .24$) when comparing those who received the compliant culture scenario ($M = 2.70, SD = 1.51$).

The purpose of this study was to determine if culture has an impact on the "think manager, think male" stereotype. In order to test the previously discussed hypotheses, I employed a 2 (organizational culture: compliant, proactive) × 2 (leader's sex: female, male) experimental design. Students were asked to complete a scenario-based study, and a brief questionnaire with two scenarios was randomly assigned to the participants.

First, students read a vignette describing the organizational culture of an athletic

department they recently joined. Students were randomly assigned to either a proactive

culture or a compliant culture based on Fink and Pastore's (1999) diversity management

strategies. The proactive scenario read as follows:

> This athletic department has flexible work hours and schedules and attempts to
>
> make everyone feel as if they contribute to the department. Building and
>
> managing diversity is included in the department's mission, and there are open
>
> lines of communication aimed at gleaning the advantages of diversity.
>
> Strategies, policies, and procedures are in place in order to capitalize on
>
> individual differences. The department also manages diversity by anticipating
>
> problems and initiating incentives to prevent problems.

Students assigned to the compliant culture read the following text:

> This athletic department fails to provide similar salaries for similar positions, and
>
> does not provide clear performance standards for promotion and/or merit pay.
>
> Different forms (e.g., race, gender, age, etc.) of discrimination are present, and
>
> some local and state mandates which relate to the rights of gays and lesbians are
>
> not always followed. The department fails to comply with Title IX, or follow the
>
> posted information on the Family Leave act. The department relies upon "word
>
> of mouth" recruiting initiatives to find job applicants, and is likely to hire
>
> individuals who are most similar to the organization.

Once students read through the description of their organizational culture, they read a

short description of either a female or male leader to which they were randomly

assigned. The vignette depicting the leader altered only the discussion of the leader's sex. Specifically, male and female pronouns were interchanged within the text depending on the condition the participant was assigned to, and read as follows:

> The declining national economy has reduced the level of donations your athletic department has received, and ticket and game day revenues were much lower than budgeted as well. The athletic director, *gender specific name* (i.e., Jennifer Wilson, Christopher Jones), has decided to make some drastic changes to the organization. First, *(s)he* cut two teams completely from the budget. Next *(s)he* asked the remaining team's head coaches to decrease their budget by 15%. However, *(s)he* has increased the budget allocation for a few revenue generating teams.

Students then completed a series of items designed to measure prototypicality and leadership effectiveness. Respondents also completed a series of manipulation checks and a demographic information section.

Measures

   Manipulation Checks. Respondents were asked a single item: "Is the leader of your organization male or female?" to measure if respondents were aware of the sex manipulation. The culture manipulation was checked with a single item which asks respondents to answer on a seven point scale from 1 (*not supportive of diversity*) to 7 (*very supportive of diversity*) "How would you characterize the department's culture of diversity?"

Leadership Prototypicality. Leadership prototypicality was assessed with a six item scale first used by Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) and has demonstrated strong reliability in previous research (e.g., Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001, $\alpha = .91$; Ulrich et al., 2009, $\alpha = .91$; Van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008, $\alpha = .91$; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005, $\alpha = .94$). The respondents indicated their agreement level on a 7-point scale anchored with 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*). The statements were stemmed with "Overall, I would say that the leader…", and then respondents answered the following items: "…represents what is characteristic about the athletic department," "…is representative of the athletic department," "…is a good example of the kind of people who work within this athletic department," "…stands for what people who work within this athletic department have in common," "…is not representative of the people who work within this athletic department" (reversed coded), and "…is very similar to most people with this department."

Leadership Effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was measured utilizing van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg's (2005) leadership effectiveness scale. This scale consists of four items ("I would put my trust in this leader", "this leader is an excellent leader", "this leader is an effective leader", and "this team leader is a good organizational leader"), and asked respondent to indicate their level of agreement on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). In previous research studies, this scale has proven to be reliable: $\alpha = .91$ (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005).

Agreement With Culture. To measure the student's agreement with the culture described in the scenario the students were asked a single-item: "please rate the extent to which you agree with the department's culture." Students were asked to respond on a seven-point scale anchored with 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*).   This scale acted as an identification measure.

Data Analysis

Manipulation Checks. A chi square analysis was run to determine if the respondent indicated the correct leader's sex. The second manipulation check determined if respondents were conscious of their organization's culture. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) established the success of the culture manipulation by testing the difference between those who received the compliant culture and those who received the proactive culture. Following the methods of De Cremer and Van Dijke (2008), individuals who do not respond correctly to the manipulation check will be eliminated from further analysis.

Hypothesis Testing. First, Chronbach's alphas were calculated to determine the reliability of the measures utilized in this study. Next, means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations were calculated for culture, leader's sex, prototypicality, leadership effectiveness, and agreement with culture (Table 2), and were employed in the following analyses. Finally, before conducting a structural equation modeling to test the hypotheses, I tested the relationships within the measurement model with a confirmatory factor analysis. The measurement model examined the relationship between the three variables (leader's sex, culture, and leader's sex by culture interaction) and the two latent

constructs (prototypicality and effectiveness). Analysis of the model fit indices determined if further evaluation of the relationships should be conducted. Additionally, evaluating the standardized factor loadings will determine if the items in the scale measured what they intended to measure.

To test the hypothesized relationships in this study, I employed structural equation modeling (SEM). Culture and the leader's sex were coded using 0 (compliant, female respectively) and 1 (proactive, male respectively), and an interaction term was calculated by multiplying culture and the leader's sex together. These terms were loaded as exogenous variables with leadership prototypicality and leadership effectiveness loaded as endogenous latent variables. In addition, a fully-mediated model and a partially-mediated were tested using these constructs.

Following the recommendations of Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (2006), three fit indices (absolute, incremental, and parsimonious) were examined to determine the goodness of fit for the model. Comparative fit index (CFI) was analyzed as the incremental fit index, and the parsimonious fit index (PFNI) was utilized to measure parsimonious fit. Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and χ^2 statistics were used as absolute fit measures. According to Hair et al. (2006), CFI values greater than .90, PNFI values greater than .60, and RMSEA values less than .07 are indicative of a close model fit. A χ^2 difference test was used to determine if the two models were significantly different. If a significant difference occurs between the two models, then the model fit was compared using Akaike's information criterion (AIC) of model evaluation. The model with the lower AIC value indicates a better fit to the data

(Akaike, 1974). Once the model has been selected, analysis of the beta coefficients

determined whether the hypothesized relationships were supported by the data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

Chi square analysis revealed 21 respondents incorrectly identified a man as the leader in the female scenario, and ten respondents incorrectly denoted a woman was the leader in the male condition: $\chi2$ (1, N = 275) = 1.66, p < .001, Cramer's V = .78. A full analysis of the results is presented in Table 1. These respondents were removed from further data analysis because their failure to correctly identify the leader's sex may suggest they did not completely read through the scenarios, and thus may bias the results. ANOVA results indicated the culture manipulation was successful. A significant difference was found in the diversity support level (*F [1, 274]* = 120.83, *p < .001, η^2 = .86)* between those who received the compliant culture (*M = 2.51, SD = 1.41)* and proactive culture (*M = 4.33, 1.34*) manipulations.

Hypothesis Testing

First, Chronbach's alphas were calculated to determine the scale reliability for the prototypicality and leadership effectiveness scale. Results indicated both the prototypicality (α = .89) and leadership effectiveness (α = .95) were reliable. A correlation table was calculated to determine if any relationships existed between the variables in the study. Results are presented in Table 2, and they showed leadership effectiveness is significantly related to culture (*r = .21, p < .01)* and prototypicality (*r = .49, p < .01*). No other significant relationships were present. Confirmatory factor

analysis indicated the measurement model was a close fit to the data: χ^2 (28) = 57.24, p <

.001, RMSEA (90% CI .04, .08) = .06, CFI = .98, PNFI = .49. Standardized factor

loadings suggest the items in the scale were a strong predictor for each item. A full

listing of the factor loading is listed in Table 3.

The hypotheses were tested using SEM. Results of the fully-mediated SEM

indicated that the model was a close fit to the data: χ^2 (30) = 70.82, p < .001, RMSEA

(90% CI .05, .10) = .07, CFI = .98, PNFI = .54. An illustrative summary of the findings

are presented in Figure 2. The partially-mediated model was also a close fit to the data:

χ^2 (30) = 68.84, p < .001, RMSEA (90% CI = .04, .09) = .07, CFI = .98, PNFI = .52.

The χ^2 difference test indicates the models were significantly different. Analysis of the

AIC value established the partially-mediated model as the better fit (AIC = 131.12)

when comparing it to the fully-mediated model (AIC = 138.82), and therefore, was used

in the remaining analysis of the results.

Hypothesis 1 put forward that men would be considered more prototypical than

women. Results indicated this was not the case, in that the leader's sex (β = -.05, p >

.05) had no effect on leadership prototypicality. Hypothesis 2 suggested organizational

culture would moderate the relationship between the leader's sex and leadership

prototypicality. Results revealed culture (β = -.04, p > .05) and the interaction between

culture and sex (β = .11, p > .05) were not significantly related to leadership

prototypicality. Additionally, sex (β = .02, p > .05) and the interaction between culture

and leader's sex (β = -.01, p > .05) were not significantly related to leadership

effectiveness. However, culture (β = 21, p < .01) was significantly related to leadership

effectiveness. Although these results did not support the first or second hypothesis, the

impact of culture on leadership effectiveness is intriguing. Finally, in support of the

third hypothesis, leadership prototypicality possessed a significant positive relationship

with leadership effectiveness ($\beta = .54, p < .001$). A complete illustrative summary of

results is presented in Figure 3.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this dissertation was to determine the impact culture may have on the "think manager, think male" stereotype. Using the social identity theory of leadership as a framework for this study, I predicted women would be considered less prototypical than men, and culture would moderate this relationship. Moreover, prototypicality would positively relate to leadership effectiveness. Analysis of the results indicated women's prototypicality rating was not significantly different from men. In addition, the leader's sex, culture, and the leader's sex by culture interaction had no relationship with leadership prototypicality; however, culture did have a positive impact on leadership effectiveness. Although the results fully support the third hypothesis, they do not support the first or second hypotheses in this study.

Hypothesis 1 predicted men would be considered more prototypical compared to women. Results indicated no significant differences between the female leader and the male leader in terms of prototypicality rating. This finding indicates men and women are equal in terms of perceived prototypicality within the sample of this study. Hogg (2001) suggested prototypicality is developed by the person who best represents the traits most consistent with the group identity, and therefore, individuals may attribute such characteristics to someone who is perceived as the leader. For instance, Reicher et al. (2005) found leaders are able to define, control, and inform others about what should be considered the group's most important characteristics. Moreover, Hogg (2001) states

prototypical members actively define what is prototypical about the group, and in doing so, actively influences others behaviors and perceptions within the group. Finally, leaders are viewed as individuals who supply a vision, create social power, and direct power to realize the vision (Reicher et al., 2005). Given this information, it may be plausible the respondents attributed prototypical group qualities to the leader because in general, leaders are the greatest source of information about the group's identity. Furthermore, with the limited knowledge about the group's traits and the composition of the group, participants may attribute group characteristics to the leader, and therefore, establish the leader as the prototypical member.

Although respondents indicated women were equally prototypical, one may still argue women are less stereotypical of leadership positions. For instance, leadership categorization theory states individuals hold stereotypes about who makes a good leader and what traits an effective leader should possess (Lord et al., 1984). Using these stereotypes, followers retrieve information about their leader so they are able to judge the leader's performance. Previous research demonstrated men are more consistent with leadership stereotypes than women (see Powell et al., 2002), the nature of the task may have an effect on an individual's stereotypes (Hogg et al., 2006), and organizations considered to be masculine still project an image of needing a male leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Although the results of this study do not support differences in effectiveness, it may still be feasible women presented in the athletics context may deviate from an individual's leadership stereotypes, and be rated as less effective than their male counterparts based on these stereotypes. This is because sport organizations

are considered to be masculine organizations (Shaw & Hoeber, 2003), leadership is a masculine role (Eagly & Karau, 2002), and decision making is more consistent with stereotypes about male leaders (Powell et al., 2002).

One way the data supports this assertion is evaluating the individuals who incorrectly identified the leader's sex. In the female condition, respondents were more likely to denote a man as the perceived leader ($N = 21$) compared to students signifying a female was the leader in the male condition ($N = 10$). This may have occurred because individuals may have utilized their leadership stereotypes to determine the leader of the organization. Thus, these individuals may have felt men were more consistent with leadership regardless of the depicted leader's sex. To address such an occurrence, research would need to address leadership traits in the intercollegiate athletics context to determine if leaders in intercollegiate athletics are more congruent with masculinity. Some research exists in the literature; however, they did not determine if these stereotypes impact leadership effectiveness perceptions among followers (e.g., Knoppers, 1992; Shaw & Hoeber, 2003). Additionally, priming the respondents with their inherent leadership stereotypes may enhance stereotypical beliefs, and may allow for the gender stereotypes expected in this study to manifest.

Finally, in terms of the leader's sex not having an impact on leadership prototypicality or leadership effectiveness, one may argue the student population used in this study did not exhibit traditional leadership stereotypes. Consistent with the work of Schein and colleagues (1989; 1996; 2001), the sample in this study indicated no differences in men and women in terms of leadership effectiveness. Jackson et al.

(2007) suggested this trend may be occurring because of a pro-gender – women displaying a preference for a woman and men favoring a man as leader – bias; however, the results of this study do not support such an assertion. It may be feasible that as younger generations begin to see more and more women begin to break through the "glass ceiling" (e.g., Nancy Pelosi, Hilary Clinton), their leadership stereotypes may begin to change. Younger generations may feel as though women are as consistent with leadership positions as men, and thus, rate men and women equally as effective as leaders. Hogg et al. (2006) controlled for traditional values in their study and found individuals who denoted traditional values were more likely to rate a man as a more effective leader than a woman. The differing results in this study may suggest the student population possessed more egalitarian views.

In addition to this, the context in which the data were collected may have also had an impact on the results. At the university where the data were collected, a woman was recently hired as the first female president. She has received a plethora of attention from the media, faculty and student population, and has also been very visible to each of the different constituents. With the high level of attention being paid to the president of the university, the student population used in this study may view women as acceptable leaders compared to students attending another university with a male president.

The results did not support the second hypothesis, in that diversity culture did not moderate the relationship between the leader's sex and leadership prototypicality. However, the results displayed a significant positive relationship between diversity culture and leadership effectiveness. Fiske and Taylor (1991) suggested social cognitive

theory may be a plausible explanation for this occurrence. They put forward that social cognition focuses on "how people make sense of other people and themselves" (p. 14), and this observation engenders knowledge of how to act towards certain behavior and how to perform in a similar situation. Moreover, the shared experiences that create a culture assist in the development of schemas, which determine an individual's behavior within the culture. The two core elements of social cognitive are attribution and schemas (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Attributions have many functions, but mostly are used to label and describe ones' self and others (Brewin & Antaki, 1987). Specifically, individuals may prescribe attributes to certain positions (i.e., management), or use attributions to describe those within the organization. On the other hand, schemas are utilized in a way to encode different assumptions (Anderson, 2000). Schemas are what governs expectations about individual behaviors and how actual behaviors should be evaluated (Ross, 2004). Taken together, attributions and schemas provide a foundation for social cognition theory, and in turn, provide a model for explaining and understanding how individuals interpret an organization's culture.

Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) point out that "conceptually, the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness is strong" (p. 209). Furthermore, organizational culture defines what effectiveness means, and how to determine whether a performance is effective or ineffective (Schneider, 1995). Thus, leadership effectiveness is dependent on the organization's culture, and how highly the employee identifies with the culture. Specifically, cultures in which individuals feel is not congruent with their own schemas of a positive culture may impact their rating of the

leader within the culture. For example, Schein (1990) suggested leaders define an organizational culture, and therefore, if individuals feel as though the leader established and maintains a culture with which they do not agree, they may rate the group's leader as less effective.

In the literature, it has been determined different organizational cultures may have varying effects on leadership effectiveness. For instance, Jamal and Baba (1992) found an organizational culture that maximizes employee's abilities to approach their tasks in methods consistent with the employees perception of how the task should be conducted is correlated with higher leadership effectiveness ratings. Conversely, they found leadership effectiveness decreased if the organizational culture increased individual stress levels (Jamal & Baba, 1992). Similarly, Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) found organizational cultures that employed a constructive style – focuses on achievement, self-actualization, humanistic encouragement, and interpersonal relationships – was positively related to leadership effectiveness, whereas an aggressive/defensive culture – characterized by confrontation, hierarchical power, competition between employees, and an intolerance of mistakes – was negatively related to leadership effectiveness.

These culture types are very similar to proactive and compliant diversity cultures utilized in the current study. For instance, a proactive culture is focused on improving interpersonal relationships between in- and out-group members (constructive), and compliant cultures focus on the task (aggressive/defensive; Fink & Pastore, 1999), and therefore, the differences in leadership effectiveness may be attributed to the

organizational culture established by the leaders. Furthermore, with the higher

agreement levels to a proactive culture compared to a compliant culture among the

respondents may further support this assertion. For instance, if an individual perceives

an organizational culture in a positive light, then (s)he may be more likely to rate the

leader of the organization as effective. Together, these studies support an interesting

proposition, in that leadership effectiveness may be a product of organizational culture.

Turning to the literature by Fink and her colleagues (1999, 2001, 2003) further

bolsters the relationship between a proactive diversity culture and effectiveness. In their

original piece, they postulated a culture which supports individuals would not only be

viewed as being more effective, but would also receive the benefits a diversity culture

creates (i.e. product quality, effective decision making, performance, etc.). Fink and her

colleagues (2001) established athletic directors at the Division I level felt that a proactive

diversity management strategy would lead to more positive outcomes compared to the

other diversity management strategies. In addition, a proactive diversity management

strategy was correlated with perceptions of the ability to attract and attain talented

workers, increased employee satisfaction, enhanced creativity, and the capacity to attract

a diverse fan base (Fink et al., 2003). Given these perceptions, it is possible a proactive

culture would also be considered more effective than other diversity cultures because

they do not maintain similar relationships (Fink et al., 2001, 2003).

The third hypothesis in this study was supported because prototypicality did

positively relate to leadership effectiveness. Although these results are consistent with

previous literature, this study demonstrated a direct correlation between prototypicality

and leadership effectiveness. Leaders in this study were rated as more effective if they were both higher in leadership prototypicality and the organizational culture was proactive. Although culture partially-mediated the relationship between leadership effectiveness and prototypicality, it is important to look at the relationship between the two on their own.

The relationship between leadership effectiveness and prototypicality has been displayed in previous research; however, most studies have demonstrated the relationship as a product of another construct (i.e. fairness, collectivist language). This study adds to the literature because a direct relationship between prototypicality and leadership effectiveness was present. The presence of the positive relationship between prototypicality and leadership effectiveness suggests the constructs are related without the other mediators or moderators. This is not to say the relationship may not strengthen with other potential mediators or moderators (i.e. fairness, collective language), but rather, when evaluating leadership effectiveness researchers should take prototypicality into consideration. Given these results it is possible prototypicality may have a larger impact on follower perceptions than originally posited by Hogg (2001).

Limitations

As with any other research study, this study was not without limitations. For instance, one limitation in this study was the use of prototypicality rather than leadership stereotypes as a predictor of leadership effectiveness. Fielding and Hogg (1997) found leadership effectiveness was a product of leadership stereotypes in the early development stages of a group. Given the sample in this study was not an actual

member of the group presented in the scenarios, it could be argued individuals may use their leadership stereotypes to determine leadership effectiveness. In addition, stereotypes may engender the sex differences expected in this study. However, prototypicality was related to effectiveness, and thus, this limitation may have been thwarted in terms of effectiveness, but may have prevented the gender effect from manifesting.

A second limitation of this research study was the use of a student population. The controversy over using college students in applied research has garnered considerable attention in the literature and conference debates (see Gordon, Slade, & Schmitt, 1986). One of the main arguments is students may not be representative of the general population, or even the population of interest. Additionally, in an analysis of 22 studies, Gordon et al. (1986) found 12 studies indicated an important significant difference between a student and a non-student population. Although the majority of students in the sample participated in organized sport, they may not have been the best sample for this study because of their limited level of experience working within organizations. However, previous research utilizing the social identity theory of leadership (e.g., Van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008) indicated strong support between student samples and the population of interest. Therefore, this may lower the probability of this being a serious limitation to the study. Moreover, Gordon and colleagues (1986) suggested the more information a student sample is given, the more closely the results would be to an actual population. The vignettes utilized in this study developed a complete image of the leader and organizational culture, thus allowing the students to

make informed judgments. Additionally, students who incorrectly identified the leader were not utilized in the data analysis. Therefore, the impact of this limitation may have been abated.

Finally, the perception of the diversity culture may have also been a limitation to the study. Evaluation of the mean scores illustrates the proactive diversity culture was only perceived as slightly higher than the mid-point of the scale suggesting a proactive culture was viewed as supporting diversity, however, not to the extent which would be expected. This may suggest individuals within the sample who received the proactive scenario did not completely understand the manipulation and rated the culture as lower on diversity support. This may have impacted the results of this study because the individuals may have rated the leader as more effective and the relationship between culture and the leader's sex may have manifested if individuals felt proactive culture was very supportive of diversity. In addition, a statement about the multicultural leadership in a proactive culture and a statement indicating white males dominating a compliant culture may also impact the prototypicality rating of male and female leaders within the two types of cultures.

Future Research

Through the literature review and the results of this study, I have been able to develop many areas of future research. For instance, the impact of culture on leadership effectiveness has received little attention in the literature, and therefore, may provide a fruitful line of inquiry. First, I could define the different forms of organizational culture in the sports industry, and then, test the impact the different cultures may have on

leadership effectiveness. Diversity cultures may also reduce the effect of the task nature on gendered leadership stereotypes currently found in the literature. Furthermore, a diversity culture may impact other individual behaviors and attitudes such as perceived work-family conflict, organizational citizenship behaviors, motivation, among others, and each should be investigated. Fink and her colleagues (2001, 2003) work was limited to intercollegiate athletics, therefore, it would interesting to evaluate other sport organizations in terms of perceived diversity culture.

Leadership stereotypes have received considerable attention in the literature; however, the literature review in this dissertation outlined numerous holes in the current literature. For instance, justice perceptions and leadership effectiveness have mostly concentrated on procedural justice. Research should also be conducted to determine if distributive and interpersonal justice have similar results on leadership effectiveness, and if this relationship is a product of prototypicality. Additionally, situational cues have provided further insight into gender stereotypes, but research in this facet has only evaluated board room settings. More settings should be studied to further indicate the impact of situational cues on leadership stereotypes. Furthermore, traditional values may play a role in predicting leadership endorsement and perceived leadership effectiveness in certain situations, and thus, the work of Hogg and his colleagues (2006) should be expanded. Finally, research should determine what defines prototypicality in sport organizations to allow for a better understanding of the construct in a masculine dominated setting.

To address the limitations in this research study, I would first conduct a field study to determine if prototypicality is consistent with masculinity in sport organization, and if this prototypicality affects leadership effectiveness ratings. Moreover, leadership categorization theory may provide a stronger framework for determining the effect of gender stereotypes on leadership positions. Gender stereotypes may be more consistent with leadership schemas as opposed to prototypicality because they are established expectations of how a leader should behave and what traits a leader is expected to possess. The preconceived schemas may change within different organizational cultures, and thus, may be a better construct in the study. To correct for these changes, a similar study to this dissertation may be completed; however, leadership stereotypes should be collected in addition to prototypicality and effectiveness. In addition, to control for the students traditional values, future research should employ similar methodology to Hogg and his colleagues (2006) to determine if traditional values impact gendered leadership stereotypes.

Conclusion

This dissertation evaluated the impact a diversity culture may have on leadership stereotypes. Although the results did not support all the hypotheses put forward, the findings make a significant contribution to the current literature on both the social identity theory of leadership and diversity cultures. For instance, the findings that prototypicality is directly related to perceived leadership effectiveness is a finding which has only been supported conceptually rather than empirically (see Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Thus, this study adds further empirical support towards the social

identity theory of leadership. The impact of culture on leadership effectiveness has received scarce attention in the literature, and this study demonstrated a culture that supports diversity leads to higher perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Although this study was not without limitations, this dissertation provides an outline for a plethora of future research opportunities.

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APPENDIX A

FIGURES
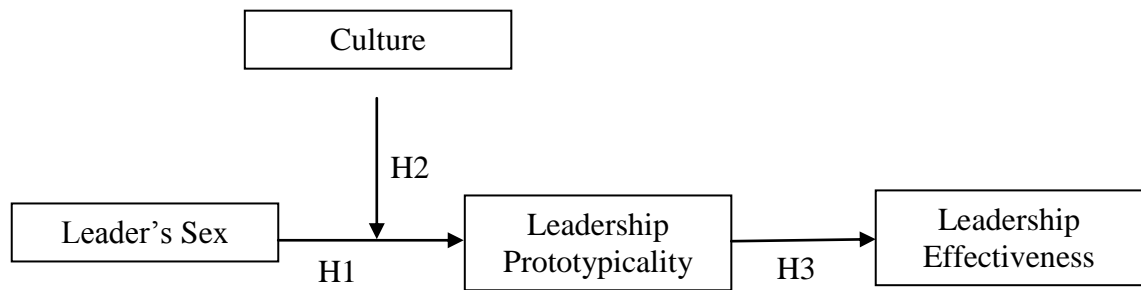
Figure 1. Model of the hypothesized relationships.
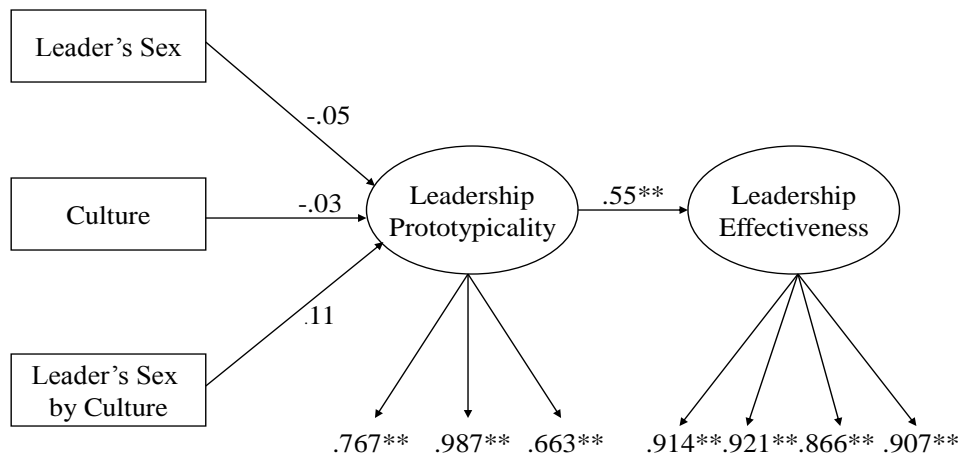
Figure 2. SEM results representing the fully-mediated model results.
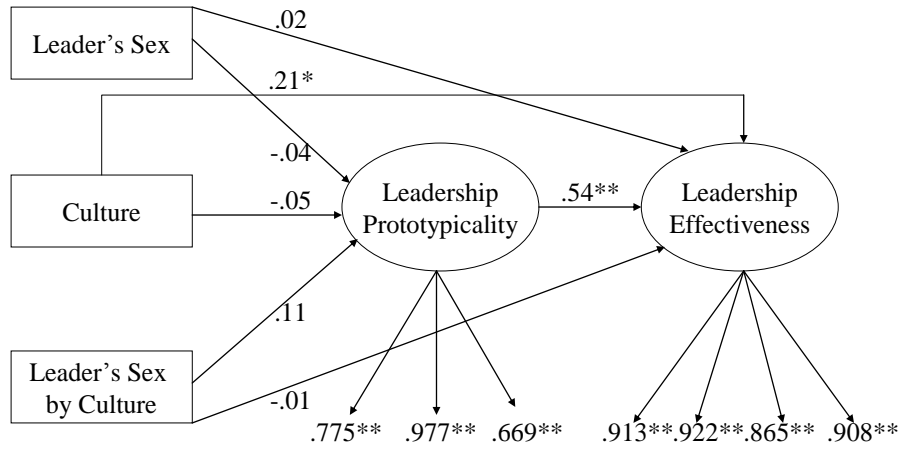
Figure 3. SEM results illustrating the partially mediated model

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 1. Cross Tabulation to Determine Differences in Perceived and Actual Leader Sex

| | Perceived Sex | | | |
| | Female | | Male | |
Actual Sex	N	%	N	%
Female	117	84.8	21	15.2
Male	10	7.3	127	92.7

χ^2 (1, $N = 275$) = 1.66, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .777

Table 2. Means and Correlations

|	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1. Culture[a]	.48 (.50)	--	0.05	0.03	.21**	.49**
2. Leader's Sex[b]	.51 (.50)		--	0.01	0.04	-0.01
3. Leadership Prototypicality	3.86 (1.21)			--	.49**	0.12
4. Leadership Effectiveness	3.20 (1.43)				--	.48**
5. Agreement with Culture	3.20 (1.43)					--

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

[a] Culture coded as 0 = compliant, 1 = proactive

[b] Leader Sex coded as 0 = female, 1 = male

Table 3. Structure Coefficients for a Two-Factor Model

Parcel	Prototypicality	Effectiveness
Proto1	0.78	
Proto2	0.98	
Proto3	0.67	
LE1		0.91
LE2		0.92
LE3		0.87
LE4		0.91

APPENDIX C

SURVEY INSTRUMENT UTILIZED IN DATA COLLECTION

TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY
Department of Health and Kinesiology

You have been asked to participate in a research study investigating culture and leadership. You were selected as possible respondent to this survey because you are a student who is aware managerial expectations. A total of 320 students have been asked to participate in this study. Results from this study will be used to determine if power sharing orientations are based in role congruency.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete the accompanying questionnaire. This study will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. No possible risks are likely to occur as a result of your participation in this study. As the researcher, I ensure your name will not be associated with any of the information in which you provide via the survey instrument. The benefits of participation are a better understanding of culture's impact on leadership perceptions.

There will be no reimbursement (monetary or other) for your participation in this study but your participation is greatly appreciated and will only add value to the research project being conducted.

As a respondent you should be ensured this research study strives to protect your anonymity. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely and only Thomas Aicher and Dr. George Cunningham will have access to the records. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relationship with Texas A&M University, or your course grade. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdrawal at any time without your relationship with the University, job, benefits, etc., being affected. You can contact Thomas Aicher (979-862-7746 or taicher@hlkn.tamu.edu) or Dr. Cunningham (979-458-8006 or gbcunningham@hlkn.tamu.edu) with any questions about this study.

The research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board – Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights please feel free to contact the Institutional Review Board through Ms. Angelina M. Raines, Director of Research Compliance, Office of the Vice President for Research at (979) 458-4067, araines@vprmail.tamu.edu.

Please be sure you have read the above information, asked questions and received answers to your satisfaction. By returning the questionnaire, you consent to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Thomas Aicher   Dr. George Cunningham
Graduate Student   Assistant Professor
Texas A&M University   Texas A&M University

SCENARIOS

Proactive Culture:
This athletic department has flexible work house and schedules, and attempts to make everyone feel as if they contribute to the department. Building and managing diversity is included in the department's mission, and there are open lines of communication aimed at gleaning the advantages of diversity. Strategies, policies, and procedures are in place in order to capitalize on individual differences. The department also manages diversity by anticipating problems and initiating incentives to prevent problems.

Compliant Culture:
This athletic department fails to provide similar salaries for similar positions, and does not provide clear performance standards for promotion and/or merit pay. Different forms (e.g., race, gender, age, etc.) of discrimination are present, and some local and state mandates which relate to the rights of gays and lesbians are not always followed. The department fails to comply with Title IX, or follow the posted information on the Family Leave act. The department relies upon "word of mouth" recruiting initiatives to find job applicants, and is likely to hire individuals who are most similar to the organization.

Female Leader
The declining national economy has reduced the level of donations your athletic department has received, and ticket and other game day revenue were much lower than budgeted as well. The athletic director, Jennifer Wilson, has decided to make some drastic changes to the organization. First, she cut two teams completely from the budget. Next, she asked the remaining team's head coaches to decrease their budget by 15%. However, she has increased the budget allocation for football, men's basketball and women's basketball teams.

Male Leader:
The declining national economy has reduced the level of donations your athletic department has received, and ticket and other game day revenue were much lower than budgeted as well. The athletic director, Christopher Jones, has decided to make some drastic changes to the organization. First, he cut two teams completely from the budget. Next, he asked the remaining team's head coaches to decrease their budget by 15%. However, he has increased the budget allocation for football, men's basketball and women's basketball teams.

Measures

Leadership Prototypicality
Using the description of the leader and culture above, please rate how you perceive the leader in terms of the culture of the athletic department.

Overall I would say that the leader…
1. …represents what is characteristic about the athletic department.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree
2. …is representative of the athletic department.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

3. …is a good example of the kind of people who work within this athletic department.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

4. …stands for what people who work within this athletic department have in common.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

5. …is not representative of the people who work within this athletic department
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

6. …is very similar to most people within this athletic department.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

Leadership Effectiveness
In regards to the leader described in the previous scenario, please answer the following questions about how you perceive the leader.

1. I would put my trust in this leader.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

2. This leader is an excellent leader.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

3. This leader is an effective leader.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

4. This leader is a good organization leader.
   Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

Manipulation Checks
Is the leader depicted in your scenario male of female? Circle the correct response.
        Male   Female
How would you characterize the department's culture of diversity?
Not Supportive of Diversity   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very Supportive of Diversity

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the department's culture.
Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

Please rate the extent to which you identify with the department's culture.
Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

Demographics

Age: _____

Sex: Male   Female

Race: African American _____   Asian or Pacific Islander _____
        Caucasian _____   Hispanic/Latino _____   Native American ___
        Other ___

Did you participate in sports?   Yes   No

What is the highest level of competitive sports you have participated in?   _____

What is your major?   _____

What is your classification?   _____

VITA

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