

PRESENTER SYMPOSIUM

GENDER AND LEADERSHIP: EXPLORING NOVEL QUESTIONS, THEORIES, AND BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

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Women's Likelihood to Pursue Majority-Male Leadership: The Role of Construal, and Construal Fit.

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It's a Man's World! Examining the Effects of Sequences of Female vs. Male Leader Behaviors on Subordinates' Perceptions of Them.

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A Territoriality Perspective of Gender Differences in Supervisor's Emotional and Behavioral Reactions to Subordinate Influence.

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The Interactive Effect of Supervisors' Gender and Promotion Speed on their Derogation of Subordinates' Promotability.

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Potential Sponsor Divisions: Gender and Diversity in Organizations (GDO); Organizational Behavior (OB); Conflict Management (CM)

OVERVIEW OF SYMPOSIUM

Over the years, the topic of gender and leadership has aroused considerable interest from organizational scholars, with research finding important gender differences across a range of outcomes relevant to leadership (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). For example, men and women differ in their propensity to *attain* positions of power within organizations (Gino, Wilmoth, & Brooks, 2015), with women remaining substantially underrepresented in leadership (Catalyst, 2020). Once a leadership position is attained, important gender differences emerge in how male and female leaders are then *perceived* by others. For instance, female leaders often suffer significant social penalties for performing traditional male-oriented roles (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koenig et al., 2011) and, as a result, experience a greater likelihood of sabotage, criticism, and undermining relative to their male counterparts (e.g., Ely, 1994; Heim, 1990; Rudman et al., 2011). Likewise, scholars have studied potential gender differences in the *behavior* of leaders, with meta-analytic evidence suggesting that men and women often differ in how they lead and treat their direct subordinates (Eagly et al., 2003; Mackey et al., 2017).

Despite these fruitful findings, there is still much to be known at the intersection between gender and leadership. For example, little is known about how women's cognitive processes may affect leadership pursuit. Moreover, although research has investigated potential differences in how male versus female leaders are perceived by others, oftentimes such impressions are assessed using a single behavioral indicator (e.g., anger; Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Likewise, while studies have shown that there may also exist important differences in the ways in which male and female leaders treat their direct subordinates, much of this work has focused somewhat narrowly on particular behavioral (e.g., transformational leadership; Oreg & Berson, 2011) or decision-making (e.g., autocratic versus democratic; Luthar, 1996) styles. Recent scholarship has taken notice of these limitations, and have called for additional insight into how gender effects the ways in which leaders

emerge and are perceived, and for further research on the gender differences in “leader behaviors beyond transformational leadership and those that are highly agentic or communal in both intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership processes” (Shen & Joseph, 2021).

Thus, it appears we may have only scratched the surface in understanding gender differences in leadership. Accordingly, there are likely important and interesting avenues still waiting to be explored within this area of research, such as the cognitive and structural underpinnings that can inform why men and women differ in their propensity to pursue leadership positions, the complex and evolving impressions formed about men and women once they attain leadership positions, and the potential differences in the ways in which male and females lead, react to, and potentially harm, their direct subordinates. Our symposium aims to tackle these questions and deepen our understanding of gender and leadership by bringing together four papers that explore a broad range of outcomes relevant to leadership. Moreover, the papers included in this symposium will explore a diverse set of contexts, theories, and conditions that further explain why, how and when gender differences in leadership manifest within organizations, thus providing exciting new directions for future research.

Presentations

In the first paper, Goodwin focuses on gender differences in the *attainment of leadership positions*, providing novel insights as to how women’s cognition may affect their motivation to pursue majority-male leadership opportunities. Building on construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), she investigates how concrete (vs. abstract) recruiting messages may be perceived more favorably by women, increasing their likelihood to pursue a majority-male leadership opportunity. Consistent with research on gender and expected power, results across two experimental studies show that women considering majority-male leadership opportunities are more likely to expect low power, which elicits women’s preference for low construal (vs. high construal) leader activities. She further finds support for the mediating role of construal on the relationship between gender and leadership pursuit.

In the next paper, Overbeck and Zyphur examine how men and women are *perceived once they attain leadership positions* and the potential social penalties they are likely to incur. Building on social role theory, they explore whether sequences of information about men and women leaders affect impression formation differently. Results from two experimental studies ($n = 443$) show that (a) subordinates have less favorable impressions of a female (vs. male) leader, (b) previous impressions affect the current impression of the leader more strongly if the leader is female (vs. male), and (c) subordinates are more likely to anchor their final impression on the first behavior for a female (vs. male) leader. Overall, the results suggest that the impressions formed about female (vs. male) leaders tend to be more stable, while the impressions formed about male (vs. female) leaders are more transitory and depend on the valence of their behavior.

Next, Carnevale, Huang, Yu, and Wang contrast this approach by focusing on how male and female leaders might differ in *their perceptions and reactions to their direct subordinates*. Integrating territoriality theory (Brown, Lawrence, & Robinson, 2005) and gender role perspectives (Eagly & Steffen, 1984), they examine leaders' emotional and behavioral reactions to their subordinates' informal influence in the work environment, contingent on leader gender. They theorize that subordinate informal influence constitutes a potential territorial infringement on leaders' authority, especially for males (relative to females), which evokes feelings of leader downward envy and remedial behaviors intended to defend their territory (downward pressure, subordinate credibility undermining, and suppression of subordinate job autonomy). Results from a field survey study (281 leader-employee dyads) support the proposed predictions that male (versus female) supervisors are more likely to develop territorial feelings (downward envy) and behaviors (downward pressure, credibility undermining, and credit-taking) in response to a subordinate with informal influence.

The thread of gender differences in *leaders' perceptions and reactions to their direct subordinates* continues in the final paper. Wang, Liu, Wang, and Wang consider the conditions under

which male and female leaders may thwart their subordinates' career growth. Drawing on the theory of licensing and social roles, they investigate when and why supervisors' promotion speed influences their derogation of subordinates' promotability. Specifically, through two multi-source multi-wave studies, they find male supervisors are more likely to derogate their subordinates' promotability when they (supervisors) were promoted quickly than when they were promoted slowly. In contrast, female supervisors are more likely to derogate their subordinates' promotability when they had gone through a slow track of promotion than when they had been promoted quickly. In addition, supervisors' psychological entitlement mediates the interactive effect between supervisors' gender and promotion speed.

RELEVANCE TO DIVISIONS

Gender and Diversity in Organizations (GDO). The issues investigated in our symposium are highly relevant to the Gender and Diversity in Organizations (GDO) division. More specifically, this work contributes to understanding gender underrepresentation in organizational leadership, the complex and evolving impressions formed about men and women once they attain leadership positions, and it uncovers interesting and complicated leader-subordinate dynamics that may vary across male and female leaders. Across a range of contexts, theories, and conditions, we explain how, why, and when gender differences in leadership manifest, providing new direction for future research in the field of gender and diversity studies. The work in our symposium may also spur future studies examining other aspects of diversity (e.g., race, non-binary). For example, while we are focused specifically on the intersection of gender and leadership, it could be that any individual experiencing or expecting low power in a marginalized group may tend toward mental processing with a low construal mindset, which could prompt opportunities for research into how low construal messages may be used to attract underrepresented minorities more broadly (rather than limiting our findings to women).

Organizational Behavior (OB). The issues we cover in our symposium are also highly relevant to the Organizational Behavior (OB) division. Indeed, men and women leaders within organizations play an important role in contributing to all aspects of organizational life; the study of leadership in organizations is central to the domain of the OB division, as leaders may influence subordinates' motivation, teamwork, attitudes, emotions, decision-making, behavior, and health and wellbeing. The unique insights from our work have important implications for the OB division, as we contribute to understanding leadership emergence, interpersonal perceptions at work, and destructive behaviors between leaders and subordinates. For example, by examining the complex and evolving impressions formed about men and women once they attain leadership positions, and the potential differences in the ways in which male and females lead, react to, and potentially harm, their direct subordinates, we contribute to understanding a broad range of outcomes relevant to organizational behavior.

Conflict Management (CM). Our symposium is also relevant to the Conflict Management (CM) division. Across four studies, we address various conflicts in the workplace relevant to gender and leadership issues. For example, one of our studies discusses how leader envy in response to territorial infringement may exacerbate supervisor-employee conflicts, contributing to understanding conflicts between supervising men and their subordinates. Another study examines how leaders' experiences of promotability affect their subordinates' promotional opportunities, shedding light on how leaders' personal experiences may conflict with what is in the best interest of their subordinates. Finally, another study examining the stability of impressions that people have of men and women in leadership positions may have future implications for how people perceive men and women after a conflict at work; because impressions of women tend to be less malleable, it may be more difficult for leading women (v. men) to be favorably perceived, following a workplace conflict.

PROPOSED FORMAT OF SYMPOSIUM

Length: 90 minutes

Minutes 0-5: Welcome and introduction to the symposium

- Presenter: Hannah Riley Bowles

Minutes 5-65: Paper presentations (15 minutes each)

- Women's Likelihood to Pursue Majority-male Leadership: The Role of Construal, and Construal Fit. *Presented by Rachael D. Goodwin*
- It's a Man's World! Examining the Effects of Sequences of Female vs. Male Leader Behaviors on Subordinates' Perceptions of them. *Presented by Jennifer Overbeck*
- A Territoriality Perspective of Gender Differences in Supervisor's Emotional and Behavioral Reactions to Subordinate Influence. *Presented by Joel B. Carnevale*
- The Interactive Effect of Supervisors' Gender and Promotion Speed on their Derogation of Subordinates' Promotability. *Presented by Siting Wang*

Minutes 65-75: Synthesis of studies presented (led by Hannah Riley Bowles)

Minutes 75-90: Open-ended discussion between presenters and audience (led by Hannah Riley Bowles)

PRESENTATION SUMMARIES

Women's Likelihood to Pursue Majority-Male Leadership: The Role of Construal and Construal Fit

Rachael D. Goodwin

Despite literature supporting women's ability to lead (Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995; Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014), and organizational benefits to having women leaders (Hoobler, Masterson, Nkomo & Michel, 2018; O'Regan & Oster, 2005), women remain substantially underrepresented in organizational leadership positions (Catalyst, 2020). Some scholars suggest that gender difference in leadership attainment may be attributed to discrimination (Heilman, 2012) and that women are perceived as less suitable than men for inherently masculine leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Smith, Rosenstein, Nikolov, & Chaney, 2019). Other scholars suggest women naturally self-select into lower work positions because they doubt their ability to succeed as a leader (Dickerson & Taylor, 2000; Sheppard, 2018) or they do not prioritize a powerful position as an important career goal (Hewlett & Luce, 2005). Relatedly, recent research suggests women opt out of the workforce (Bateman and Ross, 2020; Heggeness, 2020) to assist family during health crises or natural disasters (Boncori, 2020).

The present work focuses on subtle yet significant gender differences in construal levels (resulting from gender differences in expected power within majority-male leadership domains; Goodwin, Dodson, Chen, & Diekmann, 2020) that may contribute to understanding women's lack of perceived fit in certain leadership contexts. According to construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), all individuals experience varying degrees of psychological distance when thinking about things that may be closer or further from themselves. As the psychological distance from an event, individual, or object decreases, construal levels become increasingly concrete (or low) from the

reference point of the self. Conversely, as the psychological distance from an event, individual, or object increases, construal levels become increasingly abstract (or high) from the reference point of the self (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Individuals expecting or experiencing low power (in my case, women in majority-male contexts) are also dependent on high-power individuals (in my case, men in majority-male contexts) for desired outcomes (e.g., goal accomplishment) (Emerson, 1962; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007). As such, low-power individuals are motivated to figure out how to attend to their high-power counterparts' needs because they have influence (Magee & Smith, 2013). These differences in dependence may also induce differences in social distance (Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2012; Magee & Smith, 2013). That is, because low-power individuals depend on others, they feel less distance from them than high-power individuals (Inesi, Gruenfeld, & Galinsky, 2012), which leads them to have a lower level of construal (Reyt & Wiesenfeld, 2015; Smith & Trope, 2006; Trope & Liberman, 2010; Wiesenfeld, Reyt, Brockner, & Trope, 2017). Building on these ideas, and literature already showing a link between power and construal (Magee, Milliken & Lurie, 2010; Smith & Trope, 2006), I argue that women considering majority-male leadership, operate at a low construal level because they anticipate having low power or influence in these domains.

Hypothesis 1: Women considering majority-male leadership opportunities are more likely to operate at low construal than men.

Construal level theory also suggests events and objects of low-level, concrete construal involve more comprehensive considerations of subordinate goals encompassing *how* an individual pursues a goal (Liberman & Trope, 1998), are related to low-order categories (Liberman et al., 2002), and involve narrow perceptions (Wakslak, Trope, & Liberman, 2006). Conversely, events represented more abstractly tend to be thought of in terms of superordinate goals, including *why* an individual pursues a goal (Liberman & Trope, 1998) and are also related to broad, high-order categories (Liberman, Sagristano, & Trope, 2002), and broad perceptions (Wakslak, Trope, Liberman, & Alony,

2006). As such, I propose that women may focus on concrete details (e.g., ‘how’ to navigate the path to leadership and beyond) rather than big-picture ideas (e.g., ‘why’ navigating leadership and beyond is important), narrowing their perspective to focus on things that may decrease their desire to pursue leadership.

Hypothesis 2: Women considering majority-male leadership opportunities will be less likely to pursue than men because they are more likely to operate at low construal.

Study 1 Methods and Results

Study 1 tested Hypothesis 1 with a sample of 548 participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 35.8$ years; 55% women, 44% men, >1% nonbinary) participants were shown a leadership scenario adapted from Goodwin and colleagues (2020) wherein they read about an ostensibly real leadership opportunity followed by a leadership team “snapshot” summarizing the characteristics of leaders previously involved with the committee (91% men, 9% women). Next, participants completed Reyt and Wiesenfeld’s (2015) workplace construal measures, personal sense of power measures (Anderson et al., 2012), and participants were debriefed. In support of Hypothesis 1, linear regression showed a significant relationship between gender (0 = woman, 1 = man) and construal level ($B = 1.61$, $SE = .33$, $p < .001$). Women, on average, scored lower on the work construal behavioral identification form that was adapted to the leadership opportunity ($M = 8.43$, $SD = 3.81$) than men ($M = 10.04$, $SD = 3.82$), indicating that women were more likely to select lower construal activities when considering the leadership opportunity compared to men. Exploratory results also suggested the relationship between gender and construal level of the leadership opportunity was partially mediated by expected power. In other words, women may be thinking at a lower construal when presented a male-dominated leadership opportunity in part because they expect to have less power.

Study 2 Method and Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 2 are found in Table 1. This study was

designed to replicate Study 1 while also testing Hypothesis 2. An online sample of 588 online participants ($M_{\text{age}} = 37.34$ years, 49% women, 50% men, >1% nonbinary), reported, on average, 14.4 years of leadership experience. Participants were shown the same ostensibly real crowdsourcing leadership opportunity as was used in Study 1. The same “snapshot” and subsequent power items ($\alpha = .93$) and construal items ($\alpha = .57$) were also used in this study. In addition, participants were asked how likely they would be to pursue the leadership opportunity. Hypothesis 1 was again supported. Linear regression revealed a significant relationship between gender and construal level ($B = .71$, $SE = .16$, $p < .001$); compared to men, women had lower construal level when thinking about the leadership opportunity. To test Hypothesis 2 that construal level mediates the relationship between gender and likelihood to pursue the majority-male leadership opportunity, I utilized a bootstrapping approach via PROCESS Version 3.5 (Hayes, 2020). Gender was a significant predictor of likelihood to pursue the leadership opportunity, ($b = .37$, $t(579) = 2.73$, 95% CI [.38, 1.03], $p < .01$), such that men had greater likelihood to pursue ($M = 6.13$, $SD = 1.51$) than women ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.71$). Gender was a significant predictor of construal level ($b = .70$, $t(579) = 4.28$, 95% CI [.38, 1.03], $p < .001$). And, construal level was a significant predictor of likelihood to pursue the leadership opportunity, ($b = .15$, $t(578) = 4.50$, 95% CI [.08, .22], $p < .001$). The indirect effect suggested a partial mediation. In sum, Study 2 showed that women may be less likely to pursue the majority-male leadership opportunity, in part because it elicits them to have lower construal.

Discussion, Future Directions, Contributions

Across two studies this work shows a consistent link between gender, construal, and desire to pursue majority-male leadership, suggesting that manipulating construal may be a good next step for crafting an intervention to help increase women’s desires to pursue majority-male leadership. Combined, these findings would suggest that organizations and scholars would be wise to continue working on ways to increase leader candidates’ expected power toward a leadership position, to

subsequently increase women's construal, and their desires to pursue a majority-male leadership opportunity. Future work will build on Studies 1-2 to apply the concept of construal-fit –that is, individuals may favor information that matches or fits their construal level (Trope & Liberman, 2000) – to propose that women may be more attracted to majority-male leadership opportunities that are framed to align with their low construal.

These studies contribute to the leadership literature and the ongoing debate concerning gender differences in desires to obtain positional power (Elprana, Felfe, Stiehl, & Gatzka, 2015; Gino, Wilmuth & Brooks, 2015; Maurya & Agarwal, 2013). Second, this work contributes to motivational theories of leadership (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Chan & Drasgow, 2001) by suggesting two ideas: 1) cognition (e.g., construal level) may be another antecedent to consider in future leadership emergence models, and 2) low construal level may be at odds with how leadership opportunities are typically presented or perceived, subsequently diminishing women's motivation to pursue majority-male leadership opportunities. Building on these ideas, I also intend to contribute to work on interventions for increasing women's representation in leadership (Bagues and Esteve-Volart 2010; Bohnet, A van Geen, & Bazerman, 2016; Goldin and Rouse 2000; Moss-Racusin et al., 2012) in future studies, by testing whether construal fit recruiting messages increase women's application to majority-male leadership opportunities.

In summary, this paper identifies the construal-related cognitive processes that may contribute to gender underrepresentation in leadership and provides one potential idea for addressing this problem.

TABLE 1. Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. Gender ^a {0,1}	.50	.50			
2. Expected power {1-7}	4.16	1.06	.20***		
3. Construal ^b {0-18}	4.07	2.01	.18***	.09*	
4. Likelihood to pursue {1-7}	5.89	1.63	.15***	.50***	.20**

Note. Values in parentheses indicate the scales used to measure variables.

^a Women = 0, Men = 1. ^b Low construal association = 0, High construal association = 1.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

It's a Man's World! Examining The Effects of Sequences of Female vs. Male Leader Behaviors on Subordinates' Perceptions of Them

Jennifer Overbeck and Michael Zyphur

Most past research on female leadership has demonstrated that women in leadership positions suffer a social penalty. The penalty manifests, for example, in female leaders experiencing sabotage (Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts, 2011), open and explicit criticism (Ely, 1994), and undermining by subordinates (Heim, 1990). This occurs for two reasons. The first has to do with the cultural mismatch between female gender role (i.e., communal qualities) and demands of leadership positions (i.e., agentic qualities; Role Incongruity Theory, Eagly & Karau, 2002). This implies a general belief that a typical woman does not have the traits and characteristics necessary to be an effective leader. The other reason has to do with the cultural masculinity of leader stereotypes, also known as the “Think-Manager-Think-Male” phenomenon (Koenig et al., 2011). This suggests an inherent preference for male leaders, which is reflected in male leaders receiving better evaluations.

In addition to establishing the existence of a relative dislike for female leaders, past research has also examined conditions affecting gender differences in leader impressions and corresponding evaluations. Examples of female leader behaviors exacerbating these differences include leading in an autocratic style (Eagly et al. 1992), and not being sufficiently communal (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). By contrast, to the extent that a woman leads in a democratic leadership style (Eagly et al., 1992) and is believed to advance the company's interests, rather than her own (Netchaeva, Kouchaki, & Sheppard, 2015), gender differences are minimized. The biggest limitation of this research, however, is that impressions of female vs. male leaders have been assessed following only a single (or single type of) behaviour. For example, Brescoll and Uhlmann's (2008) participants made ratings after viewing a single video of a leader (male or female) either losing their temper or staying in control. In the current research, we argue that this approach provides an incomplete understanding of how leader

impressions are made because, in real life, impressions are made, and often adjusted, after a *series* of behaviors shown by the leader. In other words, subordinates form impressions of their leader as they observe them and their behaviors throughout the day and over the course of many days.

As such, to understand the nuances of how leader impressions are constructed, here we investigate whether and how *sequences* of information – positive, negative, and neutral – about a leader affect impression formation differently when the leader is female vs. male. Specifically, in an exploratory fashion, we examine the role of an initial behaviour on the subsequent leader impression (i.e., an anchoring effect), the effect of past impression on the current leader impressions (i.e., the stability of leader impressions), and the moderating role of the valence of the leader behaviour on the relationship between past and current impression (which indicates updating of impressions). Broadly, consistent with past research that demonstrated that female leaders' behaviors and contributions are frequently ignored (Butler & Geis, 1990; Propp 1995), we expect that the impressions of female (vs. male) leaders are more stable and less likely to be adjusted in light of subsequent behaviors. By contrast, provided that male leaders' behaviors and contributions receive more attention (Carli, 2001), we expect the valence of male (vs. female) leaders' behaviors to matter more for their impression.

We tested our hypotheses in two samples. In the first, we recruited 241 undergraduate students (128 male, mean age 21, primarily of white/European descent) from a major European university. In the second sample, we recruited 202 full-time employed participants (101 male, average age 31, primarily of white/European descent) from Prolific Academic. We manipulated leader gender between-person and behavioral valence within persons.

In both samples, participants were asked to imagine that they had just started working with a new boss (David or Sarah) and began to observe the boss's behaviors at work. Participants were shown one behavior at a time and rated their impression of the boss after each, from -3 (very negative) to 3 (very positive). They rated the boss's competence and warmth using similar -3 to +3

scales. Forty behaviors—16 positive, 16 negative, and 8 neutral—were shown, in randomized order. Behaviors were determined through two pilot studies; in one, participants listed positive, negative, and neutral behaviors that their own bosses had displayed. In the second, different participants rated the valence of each behavior. All behaviors are listed in Table 1.

We used two analytic approaches. First, we used OLS regression to test the strongest anchoring effect: Was the participant's final impression (after seeing 40 behaviors) anchored by the boss's *very first* behavior? Second, we used cross-lagged panel models in Mplus (Zyphur et al., 2019) to analyze the sequences of ratings, with condition as a between-subjects predictor. These models allow inferences about how much the participants' impression of the boss at time T-1 predicts the current (at time T) impression. When T is more strongly predicted by T-1, that suggests more anchoring on the earlier impression. We also examined moderation by the valence of the behavior at time T. When the impression at time T is more strongly predicted by the behavior valence at time T, that suggests more updating by new information, and thus less stability of the prior impression.

Evidence of anchoring was weak across the two studies. In Study 1, the valence of the first behavior was unrelated to the final impression ($p = .734$), and this did not depend on boss gender ($p = .366$). In Study 2, though first-behavior valence was a nonsignificant anchor overall ($p = .253$), this was marginally moderated by gender ($p = .080$), such that the valence of the first behavior predicted final impressions of Sarah somewhat more than of David.

We tested stability by examining whether T-1 impressions predicted time-T impressions, and whether this depended on boss gender. Stability was observed for both Sarah (female boss), Study 1 $b = .31, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .37, p < .001$, and David (male boss), Study 1 $b = .21, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .29, p < .001$. The stability effect was significantly stronger for Sarah than David in Study 1, $b = .10, p = .024$, and marginally stronger in Study 2, $b = .09, p = .098$. Stability was also observed for judgments of warmth: For Sarah, Study 1 $b = .39, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .33, p < .001$; for David,

Study 1 $b = .20, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .31, p < .001$. The gender difference was significant in Study 1, $b = .19, p < .001$, but not in Study 2, $p = .674$. Finally, competence judgments showed stability effects: For Sarah, Study 1 $b = .39, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .43, p < .001$; for David, Study 1 $b = .21, p < .001$, Study 2 $b = .30, p < .001$. The gender difference was significant in Study 1, $b = .18, p < .001$, and in Study 2, $b = .13, p = .014$. In sum, though overall impressions and impressions of warmth and competence were stable over time for both genders, past impressions were more likely to predict the current impression for female than for male bosses – consistent with our predictions.

In contrast, impressions of the male boss were more likely to be updated in light of new information. This is shown in two ways: First, if the relationship between the T-1 impression and the time-T impression depends on the valence of the behavior observed at time T, this suggests that impressions do not merely carry over, but are updated in light of the latest behavior. This implies an interaction between T-1 impression and T behavior valence, which we observed in Study 1: For David, the interaction predicted overall impressions, $b = -.09, p < .001$, warmth impressions, $b = -.09, p < .001$, and competence impressions, $b = -.09, p < .001$. For Sarah, the interaction predicted none of these impressions, all $ps \geq .268$. The gender differences were significant: overall impressions $b = .07, p = .010$, warmth $b = .08, p = .012$, competence $b = .07, p = .014$. In Study 2, we observed only a marginal interaction effect on overall impressions for David, $b = .03, p = .056$. Otherwise, interaction effects were nonsignificant for both bosses (all $ps \geq .292$) and no gender differences were observed ($ps \geq .178$).

The second indicator of updating is whether the time T impression was more strongly predicted by time T behavior valence—that is, the main effect of behavior valence on impression within T—and whether this differed for male and female bosses. In Study 1, time T behavior valence positively predicted time T impressions (overall, warmth, and competence) for both David and Sarah (all $ps < .001$), suggesting that the impression was consistent with the behavior valence, but this did

not depend on boss gender (all $ps \geq .186$). In Study 2, though time T behavior valence again predicted all time T impressions for both David and Sarah (all $ps < .001$), the gender difference was observed. Overall impressions were predicted by current behavior valence marginally more for David than Sarah, $b = -.21$, $p = .064$, as were impressions of warmth, $b = -.22$, $p = .052$. Impressions of competence were predicted by current behavior valence significantly more for David than Sarah, $b = -.25$, $p = .03$. Consistent with our predictions, this suggests that the valence of the behavior matters more for impressions of a male (vs. female) leader.

Taken together, these findings suggest that constructions of leader impressions are more nuanced than what was demonstrated in previous research. Across both samples we found some support for the idea that impressions of female (vs. male) leaders are more stable, while the impressions of male (vs. female) leaders are more likely to be updated and depend on the valence of their behavior. Although more work is needed to understand why this happens, our findings point to the importance of studying gender differences in leader perceptions overtime and the necessity to design interventions aimed at destabilizing impressions of female leaders when the impressions are negative.

TABLE 1. Positive, Negative, and Neutral Behaviors

Positive behaviors:
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gave the whole store a party in the break room to thank us for all we do at the store 2. Congratulated me on being good at the job 3. Smiled and complimented everyone 4. Greeted everyone in the mornings 5. Always had great communication skills 6. Lead by example in all aspects of customer service 7. Allows for development and learning opportunities for his team without question 8. Easily adapts around others' needs 9. Exhibited integrity by always letting his/her team know all needed information honestly regardless of good or bad 10. Acts with integrity and treats his/her people well 11. Is upfront and honest 12. Treats me as an equal and involves me in decision making 13. Allowed me to set a work schedule when I went back to school 14. Always there to help and encourage us when we have problems or doubts. If we have personal problems, he/she takes the time to listen and help 15. Helped me get a higher certification which qualified me for more pay 16. Encouraged me by pointing out exactly what I had done that I should be proud of
Negative behaviors:
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Got angry and threw office supplies around the room 2. Told racially insensitive jokes at work 3. Belittled my education 4. Said something rude to a co-worker 5. Got on my case about a job he/she knew nothing about 6. Did not give a co-worker enough training 7. Is never on time to anything 8. When asked questions, doesn't answer them or attempt to research someone to answer them 9. Picked favorites and work against the ones he/she didn't like 10. Lied about receiving information 11. Lied and went behind others backed to get another manager fired 12. Made someone sign a receipt and then stole money from the store under their name 13. Did not understand that someone had a family emergency and fired them 14. Withheld details someone needed to do my job effectively 15. Was not very reliable about sticking up for their team when dealing with upper management 16. Doesn't listen
Neutral behaviors:
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Walks in the door 2. Sits down in a chair 3. Looks at a plane flying by through the window 4. Drives home in a car 5. Parks the car 6. Eats a burrito for lunch 7. Eats Thai food a lot 8. Does crossword puzzles during the lunch break

A Territoriality Perspective of Gender Differences in Supervisor's Reactions to Subordinate Influence

Joel B Carnevale, Lei Huang, Lingtao Yu, and Lin Wang

The ability to influence others is an important and necessary aspect of organizational life. Acquiring support for an initiative, obtaining unified commitment toward a goal, and fostering collective harmony all require a capacity to exert influence over the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors of others (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). While such expressions of social influence at work are often thought to rest in those who occupy formal positions of authority (e.g., supervisory managers), even those without direct responsibility over others, such as lower-level subordinates, can possess considerable *informal influence*, defined as the ability to exert control over group processes and decisions in the absence of formal authority (Cobb 1980). Extant research suggests that subordinates who possess informal influence play a crucial role in their work-unit's effectiveness. They can rally other members to support their supervisor's initiatives (Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000), are likely to advocate for needed improvements to work processes (Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010), and can even shape workplace norms in productive ways (Grant & Patil, 2012).

Perhaps because the ability to influence others is so central to one's effectiveness at work, researchers have focused primarily on the antecedents (e.g., Anderson et al., 2008) of subordinates' personal influence and its impact on their work behavior (e.g., Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2012; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). While informative, important questions surrounding the broader organizational and social context in which subordinates wield such influence remain and thus present a rich opportunity for theoretical advancement. One question in particular that has prompted the current investigation is how supervisors are likely to interpret and react to their direct subordinates' capacity to influence others in the work-unit. Current

theory is largely centered on explaining how those who lack formal authority (i.e., subordinates) view and react to those with formal positions of power and influence (i.e., supervisors; e.g., Elangovan & Xie, 1999; Farmer & Aguinis, 2005; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990). Such work, however, corresponds to traditional “top-down” (i.e., supervisor to subordinate) power dynamics and therefore is likely limited in its ability to explain how supervisors will react to a direct subordinate’s lateral influence (i.e., peer to peer). For instance, because maintaining control over group processes and decisions in the work-unit often necessitates unilateral influence over others – a privilege typically accorded to those who occupy formal positions of authority (Stein, 2005; Yukl, 2012) – supervisors might see their subordinates’ informal influence as an encroachment on their territory. Such reactions are likely to be further influenced by the broader social norms, such as those embedded within traditional gender roles (Carli, 1999), that inform supervisors’ desire for and expectations of power and influence (Gino, Wilmut, & Brooks, 2015). Addressing such possibilities necessitates a comprehensive theory-driven understanding about how and when supervisors interpret and react to the power imbalances that arise in response to an influential subordinate.

Integrating territoriality theory (Brown, Lawrence, & Robinson, 2005) and gender role perspectives (Eagly & Steffen, 1984), the present study advances theory and research by developing and testing a model of supervisors’ emotional and behavioral reactions to their subordinates’ informal influence, contingent on supervisor gender. Territoriality theory posits that, within organizations, individuals seek to maintain and protect their territory, with any infringements on one’s territory evoking strong emotional and behavioral reactions (Brown et al., 2005). Drawing from this perspective, we argue that a subordinate’s informal influence constitutes a potential territorial infringement on their supervisor’s authority that triggers a

painful experience of inferiority due to the unfavorable social comparisons with the subordinate – a discrete emotion called supervisor downward envy (Yu, Duffy, & Tepper, 2018).

Drawing further from gender role perspectives (Eagly & Steffen, 1984), which argues that emotional and behavioral differences in male and females are often socially-derived, we argue that male (relative to female) leaders are more likely to experience envy as “an emotional expression of [their] feelings toward the infringement” (Brown et al., 2005: 584). Gender role research suggests that, because men (relative to women) tend to place greater priority on attaining power and influence (Gino et al., 2015; Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb, & Corrigan, 2000), they may react more harshly to perceived infringements on their leadership authority. Despite such possibilities, there is a surprising dearth of research devoted to understanding whether male and female supervisors differ in their interpretations and reactions to potential infringements on their authority. Integrating both territoriality and gender role perspectives, our study thus provides an important and novel extension to the extant literature by considering the role of gender underlying supervisors’ reactions to subordinates’ informal influence.

Hypothesis 1. *Subordinate's informal influence and supervisor gender will interact to predict supervisor downward envy, such that the positive relationship between informal influence and supervisor downward envy will be stronger (vs. weaker) in the presence of male (vs. female) supervisors.*

We further argue that by way of their downward envy, male (vs. female) supervisors will be more likely to defend their territory by engaging in behaviors intended to limit their subordinates’ capacity to exert influence in the work environment. Specifically, we posit that male (vs. female) supervisor’s will be more likely to limit the subordinates’ influence by (a) applying downward pressure (Yukl & Falbe, 1990) on the subordinate, which involves actions that demand conformity and compliance from the subordinate, (b) weaken their subordinates’

influence in the eyes of others by engaging in credibility undermining (Lam, Lee, & Sui, 2019), which refers to actions intended to depreciate the subordinates' image as a knowledgeable and skilled in their role, and (c) restricting their job autonomy (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005), or their ability to make decisions or carry out their responsibilities independently.

Hypothesis 2. *Supervisor downward envy will be positively related to supervisor downward pressure and credibility undermining, and negatively related to employee job autonomy.*

Hypothesis 3. *Supervisor gender will moderate the positive indirect effects of subordinate's informal influence on supervisor downward pressure and credibility undermining, and the negative indirect effect of subordinate's informal influence on employee job autonomy via supervisor downward envy, such that these indirect effects will be stronger (vs. weaker) in the presence of male (vs. female) supervisors.*

Our research has several important implications for theory and research. First, our study provides an important extension to research on subordinates' informal influence at work. In particular, by accounting for the broader organizational and social context in which subordinates influence group processes and decisions at work, we demonstrate the potential dark-side that can come with such informal influence. Second, our study contributes to the territoriality literature by answering a long-standing call for understanding gender effects in territoriality (Brown, Lawrence, & Robinson, 2005). Finally, our research advances understanding of the relatively new construct of supervisor-downward envy (Yu et al., 2018) by examining characteristics of the source of supervisors' downward envy (subordinate's informal influence) as well as characteristics of the supervisor (gender). We present our research model in Figure 1.

Methods and Results

We collected two-wave survey data from 281 employees and their supervisors at a large social media consulting company in China. Given the nested nature of our data, we tested our model using multilevel path analysis via Mplus 6.12 following recent recommendations (Preacher, Zhang, & Zyphur (2011) about accounting for the potentially biased between-person

level effects. The results showed that manager's gender moderated the relationship between subordinates' informal influence and supervisor downward envy ($\gamma = .92, p < .01$), therefore supporting H1. We presented the moderation graph in Figure 2. The results further showed that supervisor downward envy was positively associated with both supervisor downward pressure ($\gamma = .38, p < .01$) and credibility undermining ($\gamma = .32, p < .01$), while negatively associated with providing autonomy ($\gamma = -.31, p < .01$). H2 thus was also supported. Finally, our results showed that the positive indirect effects of subordinates' informal influence on supervisor downward pressure ($\Delta\rho = .339, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.181, .498]$) and credibility undermining ($\Delta\rho = .287, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.136, .437]$), as well as its negative indirect effect on providing autonomy ($\Delta\rho = -.279, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.402, -.157]$), via supervisor downward envy were all stronger (vs. weaker) in the presence of male (vs. female) supervisors. H3 was thus also fully supported.

FIGURE 1. Theoretical Model

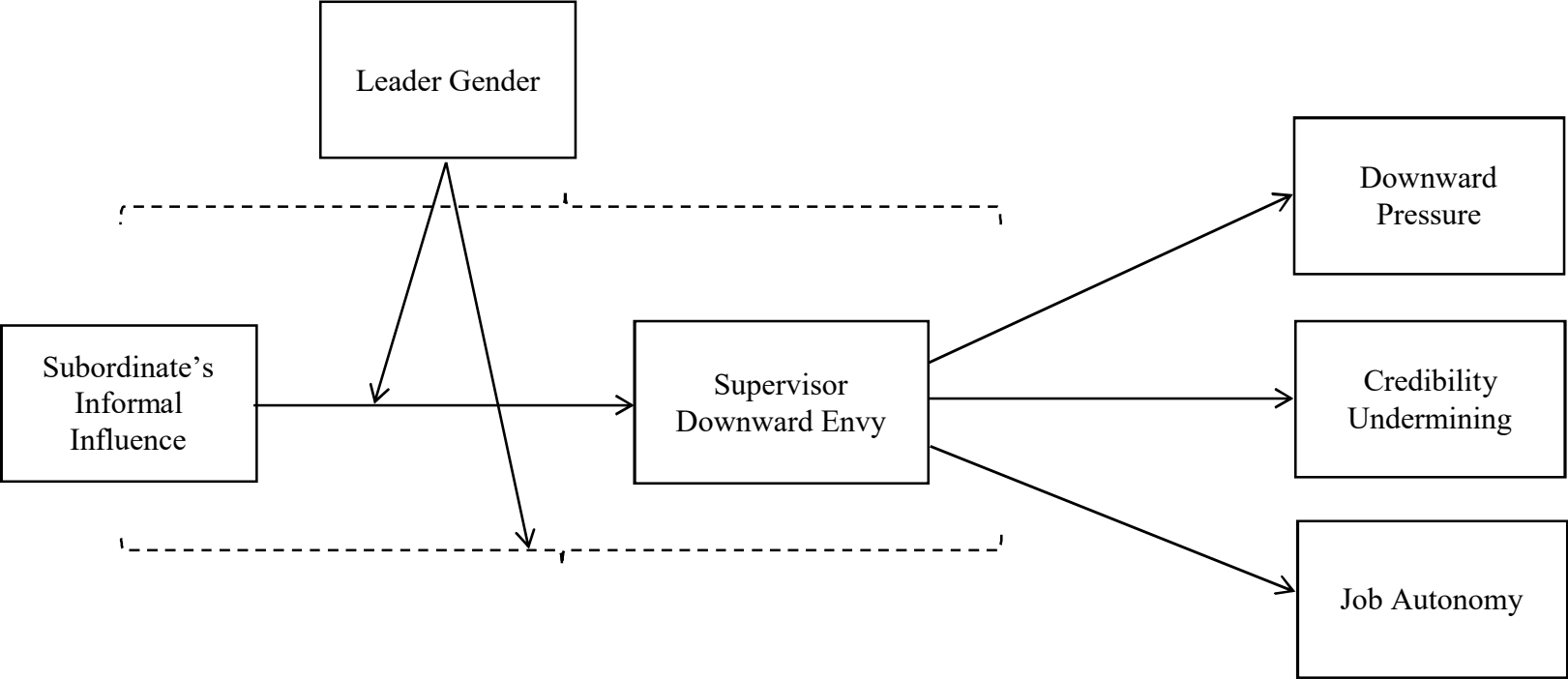
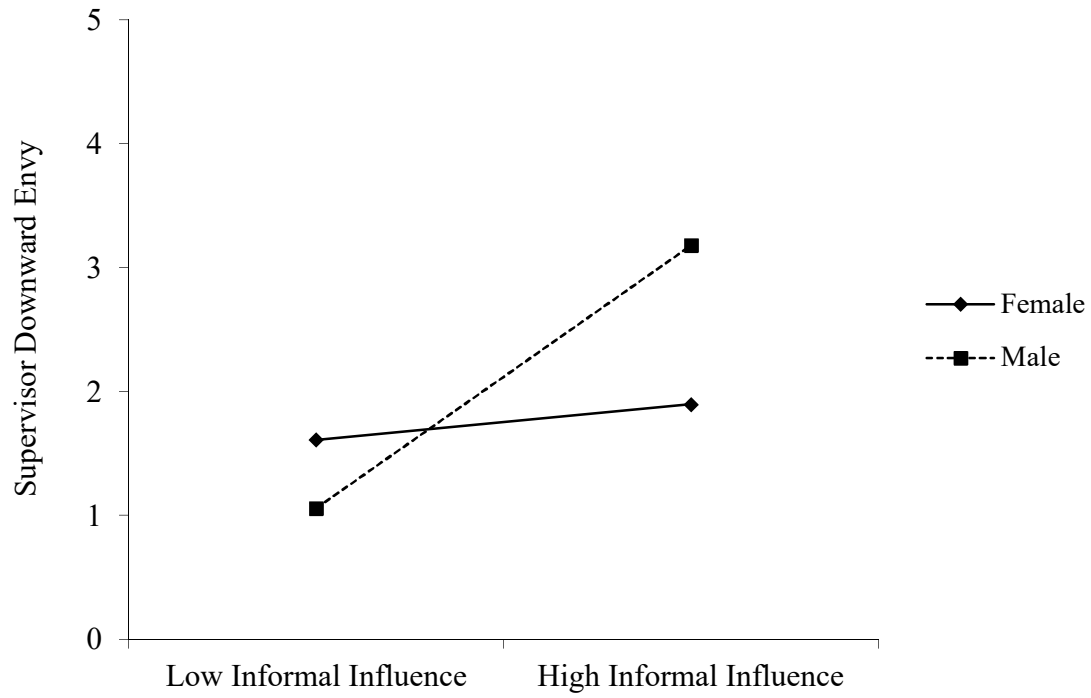


FIGURE 2. The Interactive Effect of Subordinates' Informal Influence and Manager's Gender on Supervisor Downward Envy



The Interactive Effect of Supervisors' Gender and Promotion Speed on their Derogation of Subordinates' Promotability

Ying Wang, Zhi Liu, Siting Wang, and Mo Wang

The recent years have witnessed a considerable, yet slow, growth in women's employment (Allen, French, & Poteet, 2016; England, Levine, & Mishel, 2020). However, the upward path for women along the organizational hierarchy remains "a bed of thorns" (Vial, Napier, & Brescoll, 2016). Specifically, before females get promoted, they are rewarded less credits (Heilman & Haynes, 2005), held stricter standards for promotion (Lyness & Heilman, 2006), ascribed less career motivation and thus given less career encouragement (Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2014), resulting in an overall lower likelihood of promotion (Blau & DeVaro, 2007). In addition, females who have succeeded to managerial positions can neither rest easy, as the inextricable gender biases making them evaluated less favorably (Brescoll, 2016; Lyness & Heilman, 2006). Drawing on the theory of licensing and social roles, our study aims to investigate whether, when, and why female and male leaders react negatively toward their (male and female) subordinates in terms of promotion.

According to psychological licensing theory (Chiou, Yang, & Wan, 2011; Miller & Effron, 2010), leaders may be licensed by their socially desirable behavioral records and achievements to be reluctant to promote their subordinates. In this case, for example, if leaders got promoted in a very short time (i.e., tenure at previous position is very short), their career success may be admired and adorable, which may serve as a license for them to be harsh to their subordinates. However, we contend leader gender may serve as a boundary condition since the social desirableness for men and women's behavior and achievements are differently assessed, which is well recognized in the lens of social role theory (Eagly & Wood, 2016). According to research findings within the social role framework, males are prescribed to be achievement-oriented and thus are more likely to be

rewarded when they got success and achievements; conversely, women are punished for being agentic and competitive in the workplace (e.g., Eagly & Wood, 2012; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts, 2012). Therefore, we expect male leaders who got quick (vs. slow) promotion (i.e., short vs. long tenure at previous position) are more likely to be licensed to promote their subordinates less and female leaders who got quick (vs. slow) promotion (i.e., short vs. long tenure at previous position) are less likely to be licensed to promote their subordinates less (*Hypothesis 1*). Furthermore, based on the notions of psychological licensing theory, we propose leader's feelings of entitlement as one mediator that male leaders with a short (long) tenure at previous position will feel more (less) entitled to give less promotion to their subordinates, and females leaders with a short (long) tenure at previous position will feel less (more) entitled to give less promotion to their subordinates (*Hypothesis 2*). Finally, combining our arguments, we proposed a mediated moderation model (*Hypothesis 3*).

We conducted two field studies to test our hypotheses. In Study 1, we administered a two-wave survey to leaders mostly at frontline or middle managerial level in a large securities company located in China. Leaders reported their tenure at the previous position and their gender at Time 1 and, two months later (at Time 2), leaders rated the promotability of their subordinates. Based on a sample from 67 leaders and their ratings of 506 subordinates, we found a negative and significant interaction between leader gender and leader previous-position tenure on subordinate promotability, supporting Hypothesis 1. The results suggested that male leaders' subordinates received lower (higher) promotability when their leader's tenure at previous position was short (long). On the contrary, for female leaders, as leader previous-position tenure went longer, leader rated their subordinates' promotability lower.

In Study 2, we distributed multi-wave surveys to middle and top managers and their direct subordinates to replicate our findings in Study 1 and test our full model (Hypothesis 1-3). We

conducted this study among the Executive Master of Business Administration (EMBA) students enrolled in a large business school located in Beijing, China. The EMBA students were from a variety of companies and industries and were in at least mid-level managerial positions in their companies. Leaders reported their gender and previous-position tenure at Time 1 and their psychological entitlement at work at Time 2. Subordinates reported their gender and rated their perceived promotability at Time 2. The final sample of Study 2 consisted of 169 leaders and 654 direct subordinates. According to the results, the interaction effect of leader previous-position tenure and leader gender was negative and significant on subordinate promotability, which replicates our findings of Study 1. Furthermore, we found a positive and significant interaction between leader previous-position tenure and leader gender on leader psychological entitlement at work. Specially, for male leaders, the relationship between leader previous-position tenure and leader psychological entitlement at work was negative. However, for female leaders, the relationship between leader previous-position tenure and leader psychological entitlement at work was positive. In addition, the mediated moderation model was also supported. Our results indicated that male (female) leaders' psychological entitlement decreased (increased) with their previous-position tenure, which subsequently led to decreased subordinate promotability. Thus, Study 2 complements Study 1 not only in testing our hypotheses, but also generalizes our findings to higher managerial levels.

Our research makes several important theoretical contributions. First, this research extends the literature on career advancement by exploring unique factors (e.g., leaders' gender and leader previous-position tenure) that impacts subordinate promotion from leaders' perspectives. Previous research mainly focuses on the employee per se to investigate factors improving or harming their promotability. For example, a handful of research focuses on the effect of employees' impression management skills (Long, Baer, Colquitt, Outlaw, & Dhensa-Kahlon, 2015; Shaughnessy,

Treadway, Breland, Williams, & Brouer, 2011; Sibunruang, Garcia, & Tolentino, 2016), accumulated human capital (e.g., developmental experiences, Seibert, Sargent, Kraimer, & Kiazad, 2017; educational attainment, Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999), received resources within and outside the workplace (e.g., Paustian-Underdahl, Halbesleben, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2016; Yang, Liu, Huang, Qian, Wang, Wang, & Yu, 2018), and work motivation (e.g., Blickle, Fröhlich, Ehlert, Pirner, Dietl, Hanes, & Ferris, 2011). The current research thus shifts our attention to the influence of leaders' demographics (i.e., gender) and work experience (i.e., leader previous-position tenure) on employee promotability ratings.

Second, contributing to the literature on work experience, we shed new light on the potential dark side of leaders' tenure at previous position. Past research studying job tenure regards it as a part of work experience, which enhances job knowledge, skills, and further performance (see Schmidt, Hunter, & Outerbridge, 1986; Tesluck & Jacobs, 1998 for reviews). Similarly, Avery, Tonidandel, Griffith, and Quiñones (2003) found that NBA seasons a coach has played positively related to his effectiveness as a coach (Avery, Tonidandel, Griffith, & Quiñones, 2003). However, by exploring its role as promotion speed and career success which may probably incur social recognition or backlash (Bonet, Cappelli, & Hamori, 2020), our research offers a dialectical view to understand whether and when leader past work experience (i.e., tenure at previous position) brings blessings for their subordinates' promotion.

Third, to the literature of psychological entitlement, our research examines the relationship between leader's feelings of entitlement and subordinates' promotability. Although psychological entitlement is consistently viewed as negative for others (e.g., Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004), prior research has seldom examined the influence of leaders' feelings of entitlement on outcome variables concerning subordinates (see Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine, 2013 for an exception). Our research thus extends understandings about the consequences of

leaders' psychological entitlement within the dyadic interactions between leaders and subordinate, as well as reinforces recent calls on more research to manage entitlement in the workplace (e.g., O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter, 2017).

Finally, past research found that senior and junior females showed different tendency to discriminate other women, which is known as the Queen Bee phenomenon. By exploring the influence of both male and female leaders' career experience (i.e., leader previous-position tenure) on their subordinates' promotability, we shed lights on a gender equally perspective on this "Queen Bee" effect in the workplace by taking both the male and female into consideration to study when and why leaders may undermine their subordinates' promotion.

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