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Cumulative Studies on Organizational Measures to Support Women in Leadership

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I

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List of Abbreviations

ß – beta, regression coefficient

CEO – chief executive officer

CFI – comparative fit index

CI – confidence interval

doi – digital object identifier

d. h. – das heisst

Ed. – editor

e. g. – exempli gratia

et al. – et alii

ICC – intra-class correlation coefficient

i.e. – id est

LLCI – lower-level confidence interval

M – mean

Mgmt. – management

N – number of participants or observations in sample

ns – not significant

OLS – ordinary least squares

p. – page

RSMEA – root mean square error of approximation

SD – standard deviation

SE – standard error

SRMR – standardized root square mean residual

ULCI – upper-level confidence interval

vs. – versus

z. B. – zum Beispiel

Abstract

Gender-specific diversity measures have been in place in the western world in many organizations for many years. However, despite the acknowledgment of their benefits, the goal of an equal balance of gender diversity has not been reached completely. Particularly in high hierarchical positions, the share of female leaders remains low in comparison to the share of male leaders. Therefore, this dissertation thesis, comprising four individual essays with empirical studies, aims to extend the knowledge on organizational measures to progress the support of female employees related to their career-advancement. The first essay, investigating a broad range of commonly discussed gender-specific diversity measures, outlines society's awareness and acceptance of them. Results show that although most gender-specific diversity measures are not very well known, they are quite well accepted. The analyses of gender-, age-, and educational attainment-effects on the assessment of the measures outline what groups need to be targeted to increase their recognition and acceptance. The second essay, investigating a long-established gender-specific diversity measure (i.e., mentoring), examines how the provision of mentoring functions (in this case mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring) and the mentor's sex relate to the probability of potential mentees to seek out a mentor. Trade-off analyses and differentiated results for potential male and female mentees show that the provision of each of the three mentoring functions positively influences potential mentees' probability to seek out a mentor, with mentoring in research being most important for postdoctoral students. Also, results show that for potential female mentees, the provision of psychosocial mentoring is significantly more important than for potential male mentees. Mentor sex did not influence mentees' probability to seek out a mentor. The third essay, investigating a highly discussed gender-specific diversity measure (i.e., quotas for women in leadership), focuses on the relationship between ascriptions of gender-stereotypes and support for quotas for women in leadership. Ascriptions of agency to typical women were

positively related to support for quotas, particularly in male-gendered industries and for people working in high hierarchical positions. Ascriptions of communality to typical women were generally positively related to support for quotas for women in leadership. Unexpectedly, gender-stereotypic ascriptions to typical men were also significantly related to support for quotas for women in leadership, although these relationships were less pronounced. Thereby a positive relationship was found with agency in male-gendered industries and a generally negative relationship with communality. The fourth essay, proposing top management trustworthiness as a potentially new gender-specific diversity measure, examines the importance of employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness for employees' negative emotions and turnover intentions. Results show that there is a significant negative indirect effect of perceived top management trustworthiness on employees' turnover intentions via employees' negative emotions, while this is more pronounced for female than for male employees. In sum, the results of this dissertation thesis suggest that although long in place, there is much more to know about gender-specific diversity measures. Thereby, an improved understanding can enhance the support for women's career advancement.

Kurzfassung (German abstract)

Geschlechtsspezifische Diversitätsmaßnahmen sind in der westlichen Welt seit etlichen Jahren in vielen Organisationen etabliert. Jedoch ist trotz ihres anerkannten Nutzens das Ziel von mehr Diversität noch nicht vollständig erreicht, da besonders der Anteil an Frauen in Führungspositionen im Vergleich zum Anteil der Männer in Führungspositionen gering geblieben ist. Deswegen ist es das Ziel dieser Dissertation, die vier individuelle Essays mit empirischen Studien beinhaltet, das Wissen in Bezug auf geschlechtsspezifische Diversitätsmaßnahmen zu erweitern und Frauen durch einen verbesserten Einsatz der Maßnahmen besser in ihrem beruflichen Weiterkommen zu unterstützen. Das erste Essay zeigt anhand der Analyse eines breiten Spektrums geschlechtsspezifischer Diversitätsmaßnahmen die Bekanntheit und Akzeptanz dieser Maßnahmen auf. Die Ergebnisse machen deutlich, dass trotz eines recht geringen Bekanntheitsgrades die Maßnahmen durchaus akzeptiert werden. Die Untersuchungen von Geschlechts-, Alters-, und Bildungsauswirkungen auf die Bewertung von geschlechtsspezifischen Diversitätsmaßnahmen zeigen dabei, welche Gruppen speziell adressiert werden müssen, um die Bekanntheit und Akzeptanz der Maßnahmen zu erhöhen. Das zweite Essay untersucht anhand der Betrachtung einer lang etablierten Maßnahme (d. h. Mentoring) inwiefern die Vermittlung von Mentoring Funktionen durch den Mentor (in diesem Fall forschungsrelevantes Mentoring, karrierebezogenes Mentoring und psychosoziales Mentoring) sowie das Geschlecht des Mentors potenzielle Mentees beeinflussen, sich für einen Mentor zu entscheiden. Trade-off Analysen und die differenzierte Betrachtung der Ergebnisse für potenzielle männliche und weibliche Mentees zeigen, dass eine Vermittlung jeder der drei Mentoring Funktionen die Wahrscheinlichkeit der Mentees erhöht, sich für einen Mentor zu entscheiden. Dabei ist forschungsrelevantes Mentoring speziell für Postdoktoranden am wichtigsten. Darüber hinaus zeigen die Ergebnisse, dass die Vermittlung von psychosozialem Mentoring für potenzielle weibliche Mentees wichtiger ist als für potenzielle männliche

Mentees. Das Geschlecht des Mentors hatte keinen Einfluss auf die Wahrscheinlichkeit der potenziellen Mentees, sich einen Mentor auszusuchen. Das dritte Essay fokussiert sich, durch die Untersuchung einer stark diskutierten geschlechtsspezifischen Diversitätsmaßnahme (d. h. Frauenquoten für Führungspositionen), auf die Beziehung zwischen stereotypischen Wahrnehmungen und der Unterstützung von Frauenquoten für Führungspositionen. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass wenn man Frauen Selbstbestimmtheit („agency") zuschreibt, dies in einem positiven Zusammenhang mit der Unterstützung von Frauenquoten für Führungspositionen steht, besonders in männlich geprägten Industrien und bei Personen in hohen Hierarchiepositionen. Wenn man Frauen eine hohe Gemeinschaftlichkeit („communality") zuschreibt, steht dies generell in einem positiven Zusammenhang mit der Unterstützung von Frauenquoten für Führungspositionen. Überraschenderweise zeigt sich zudem, wenn auch deutlich weniger ausgeprägt, dass wenn man Männern Selbstbestimmtheit zuschreibt, dies in männlich geprägten Industrien positiv mit der Unterstützung der Frauenquote zusammenhängt und dass wenn man Männern Gemeinschaftlichkeit zuschreibt, dies negativ mit der Unterstützung der Frauenquote zusammenhängt. Das vierte Essay untersucht die Wichtigkeit der Vertrauenswürdigkeit des Top Managements für weibliche und männliche Mitarbeiter. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass eine negative, indirekte Beziehung besteht zwischen der empfundenen Vertrauenswürdigkeit des Top Managements und der Absicht von Mitarbeitern, ihr Unternehmen zu verlassen, ausgelöst durch negative Emotionen von Mitarbeitern. Diese Beziehung ist stärker ausgeprägt für weibliche als für männliche Mitarbeiter. Insgesamt suggerieren die Ergebnisse dieser Dissertation, dass es trotz der langjährigen Etablierung von organisatorischen Maßnahmen zur Förderung von Frauen in Führung noch viel mehr darüber zu Wissen gibt. Dabei führt ein verbessertes Verständnis dazu, weibliche Mitarbeiter besser in ihrer beruflichen Weiterentwicklung zu fördern.

1 Introduction[1]

"In the future, there will be no female leaders. There will just be leaders."

(Sheryl Sandberg, 2013, p. 172)

1.1 Motivation and Research Questions

Research has demonstrated the need for organizations to increase the share of female employees, particularly at top management levels. Based on the establishment of a positive business case for women leaders, supporters argue that a higher representation of women in leadership leads to an increase in organizational performance (Hoobler, Masterson, Nkomo, & Michel, 2016). Furthermore, supporters point out that women represent a large talent pool that must not be ignored but needs to be utilized (Helfat, Harris, & Wolfson, 2006). Thereby, organizational research underlines that women bring in new perspectives, improve decision-making processes, increase creativity, advance the results of problem-solving discussions, and increase the overall flexibility of organizational systems. Therefore, effective management of workplace diversity, including the attempt to increase the share of female representation of the workforce through utilizing gender-specific diversity measures is perceived to lead to a competitive advantage for organizations (Cox & Blake, 1991; Milliken & Martins, 1996).

In addition, research on gender diversity in organizations and women in leadership revealed also substantial barriers explaining why women scarcely climb up the hierarchical ladder (Joshi, Neely, Emrich, Griffiths, & George, 2015). Those barriers range from a lack of female role models, gendered career paths and gendered work, to a lack of network access and double binds in evaluations (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). Furthermore, barriers can occur at the

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1 This section is partly based on Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2015); Mölders, Brosi, and Welpe (2018); Mölders, Brosi, Bekk, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017), and Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017).

personal, organizational, and also at the systemic level (Peus & Welpe, 2011). When women themselves were asked about their personal view on career barriers, they perceived stereotyping as most severe in hindering their development, followed by the existence of work-family conflicts and the unattainability of old boys' networks (Jackson, 2001). Overall, in comparison to male managers, female managers report much greater barriers to reach leadership positions (Lyness & Thompson, 2000).

As a response to break down the barriers hindering women's career advancement, diversity measures were first introduced in in America in the 1960's (Dobbin & Kalev, 2013). Up to today, many organizations have introduced diversity programs (Fehre, Lindstädt, & Picard, 2014; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995) and they make high investments to manage them (Guillaume, Dawson, Woods, Sacramento, & West, 2013). Hereby, gender-specific diversity measures are implemented across different functions and levels of organizations and are often intertwined with personal development and retention programs (Jayne & Dipboye, 2004). These measures include for example the implementation of diversity committees, taskforces, and diversity managers, as well as the execution of diversity trainings, diversity evaluations of managers, and networking and mentoring programs (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006).

However, up to today, it remains a fact that despite the articulated need for a greater representation of women in leadership, women have so far failed to break through the glass ceiling (Powell & Butterfield, 2015). This is surprising because statistics show that in the western world, women are well educated and fill the pipeline for the top positions in organizations (Helfat et al., 2006; OECD, 2014). Thereby, the share of female employees contributing to the total labor force amounts to around 50% (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016; European Commission, 2012). Nonetheless, the share of female CEO's reveals that women account for only 5% of top leadership positions within U.S. S&P 500 companies (Catalyst, 2016), and that their share accounts for only 3% of the top leadership positions within the largest European companies (European Commission, 2013). This lack of female employees

in top management positions is moreover replicated in academia (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008).

Although a considerable amount of research has been published to understand the antecedents and outcomes of diversity measures in organizations, (e.g., Guillaume et al., 2013; Yang & Konrad, 2011), important gaps for research remain. Therefore, this dissertation thesis aims to address four gaps in research to improve the understanding of organizational measures and to enhance the support for female employees in their career advancement. Thus, this dissertation thesis wants first to provide evidence on how a broad range of commonly discussed gender-specific diversity measures is perceived within the society, second to extend knowledge on a long-established gender-specific diversity measure, i.e., mentoring, third to advance research on a highly-discussed diversity measure, i.e., quotas for women in leadership, and fourth to propose a potentially new diversity measure, i.e., top management trustworthiness.

First, regarding the most commonly discussed gender-specific diversity measures, there exists a research gap on the awareness and acceptance of these within the society. Although research has provided a broad overview of existing measures within organizations (e.g., Armstrong et al., 2010; Fehre, Lindstädt, & Picard, 2014; Kalev et al., 2006) and has demonstrated their current rate of implementation (Fehre et al., 2014), the society's perception of gender-specific diversity measures has received little attention so far. This research gap is surprising, as the ongoing lack of women in leadership positions might be influenced by the fact that the supply of gender-specific diversity measures does not reach potential users, either because they are not aware of the measures, or because they might not accept them. Thus, taking the perspectives of the society toward gender-specific diversity measures into account will provide a better understanding of how those measures are seen. Accordingly, the study results of this essay might advance the understanding of why despite the numerous supply of gender-specific diversity measures, still no adequate share of representation of female employees in leadership positions has been reached.

Second, with mentoring being a long-established measure to support women and men in organizations, a lot of research has already focused on the experiences and outcomes related to gender-specific mentoring (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks, 2011; O'Brien, Biga, Kessler, & Allen, 2010; Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). However, gender-specific preferences related to seeking out a mentor have only received limited attention so far. Thereby, due to methodological choices, it has not yet been possible to derive the relative importance of mentoring functions, e.g., career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring (Bell-Ellison & Dedrick, 2008; Lazovsky & Shimoni, 2007; Levesque, O'Neill, Nelson, & Dumas, 2005). Also, mixed findings leave the question unanswered whether gender-specific preferences concerning mentor sex are apparent for potential male and female mentees when seeking out a mentor (Burke & McKeen, 1995; Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio, & Feren, 1988). Furthermore, research called for future examinations to determine how gender influences the initiation of mentoring relationships (Gray & Goregaokar, 2010; Hu, Thomas, & Lance, 2008) and to find out what potential mentees particularly in the academic environment demand from their mentoring relationships (Brosi & Welpe, 2015). Hence, there is a need for trade-off analyses of mentoring functions and mentor sex in relation with the probability of potential postdoctoral male and female mentees seeking out a mentor. This research helps to improve the knowledge related to this already long-established organizational measure, so that mentoring can unleash its full potential to support women in their career advancement.

Third, there exists a great interest in research related to quotas for women in leadership, as many countries and organizations are in the process of introducing and executing them (Klettner, Clarke, & Boersma, 2016; Sojo, Wood, Wood, & Wheeler, 2016; Terjesen, Aguilera, & Lorenz, 2015). At the same time, quotas for women in leadership are a highly debated organizational measure and many different critical players, such as civil society actors, corporate actors, or state actors are involved in the discussions that accompany quotas before and after the introduction (Krook, 2016; Seierstad, Warner-Søderholm, Torchia, & Huse, 2015).

Thereby, the ongoing discussion about quotas might become quite problematic for female employees as beneficiaries. If women who take advantage of quotas for women in leadership are perceived as less competent (Forstenlechner, Lettice, & Özbilgin, 2012), then quotas for women in leadership might become rather a further barrier for female employee's career advancement instead of supporting them. Therefore, it is highly relevant to identify factors that influence support for quotas for women in leadership to smoothen their introduction and effectiveness – a research topic that is yet unexplored.

And fourth, recent research has underlined the great importance of top management trustworthiness (i.e., the perceptions of their ability, integrity, and benevolence) for employees in organizations (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). In line with Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick, 2007), top management is highly relevant for employees regarding various aspects of performance (Wang, Holmes, Oh, & Zhu, 2016) and particularly top management trustworthiness has been shown to have a positive influence (Sosik, Gentry, & Chun, 2012). Due to this great importance of top management for employees, an impact on employees' emotions can be expected (Chen, Saparito, & Belkin, 2011). Furthermore, due to the relation between negative emotions and turnover intentions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), an indirect relationship between employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness and employees' turnover intentions might exist. However, while research has so far shown the importance of top management trustworthiness for all employees (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 1999), there exist structural reasons, i.e., women-specific barriers (Powell & Butterfield, 2015), and dispositional reasons, i.e., women's higher sensitivity toward ethical issues (Kennedy & Kray, 2013), to assume that women react more sensitively than men with negative emotions and resulting turnover intentions to perceptions of a lack of top management trustworthiness. Thereby, a more pronounced reaction in terms of negative emotions by women in comparison to men, triggered by a perceived lack of top management trustworthiness, might explain contradicting findings

on gender differences in turnover (Elvira & Cohen 2001; Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008; Lewis 1992; Lyness & Judiesch 2001; Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1996). Overall, it is highly important to explore whether there exists top management trustworthiness as a potentially new diversity measures to improve the support female employees in their career advancement by retaining them in their organizations – which has not yet been investigated.

Addressing the above-mentioned research gaps, this dissertation thesis aims to extend research on organizational measures to support female employees in their career advancement by contributing first to research analyzing a broad range of diversity measures, second to research focusing on gender-specific mentoring, third to research related to quotas for women in leadership, and fourth to research on top management trustworthiness.

First, contributing to research analyzing a broad range of gender-specific diversity programs of organizations (Fehre et al., 2014; Peus & Welpe, 2011), the initial essay wants to shed light into the awareness and acceptance of these measures across the society. The study of the essay provides an examination of the perception of gender-specific diversity measures utilizing a representative sample of the German society in terms of gender, age, and educational attainment. Investigating in how far society is aware of broad range of gender-specific diversity measures, has a willingness to participate in them, perceives them as effective, and ascribes a positive signaling effect to them, increases the understanding of the effective reach of these measures. Thereby, this information provides very valuable indications regarding decisions related to the right choice, diffusion and adaptation of the measures. Concretely, knowing more about the awareness of gender-specific diversity measures allows responsible persons in society, politics, and organizations to focus on targeted measures that need to be discussed and explained in public. Also, knowing more about the willingness to participate in and the perceived effectiveness of gender-specific diversity measures allows respective authorities in the Human Resource departments to focus their advertisement and their persuasive efforts where attention is most urgently required. Furthermore, claiming a positive signaling effect

means that people perceive it as beneficial when other persons take part in gender-specific diversity measures. Knowing more about these perceptions is relevant, because it might influence in how far people expect a backlash from participating in those measures. Therefore, indications about the perceived positive signaling effect can help responsible persons in the society, politics, and organizations to install counter-steering actions for those that are at risk to suffer from backlash because of low positive signaling effects of gender-specific diversity measures.

Second, shifting the focus of this dissertation thesis from the discussion of many different organizational measures to a single, long-established organizational measure (i.e., mentoring), the next essay contributes to previous research on mentoring related to male and female mentees (O' Brien et al., 2010). Thereby, the results of the study of this essay show first whether the provision of mentoring functions and mentor sex influence potential mentees' probability to initiate a mentoring relationship, second, in how far trade-offs among the provision of specific mentoring functions and mentor sex are made by the potential mentees, and third, in how far preferences differ between potential male and female mentees. Thereby, the utilization of conjoint analyses allows to extend limited existing knowledge on the importance of mentoring functions (Bell-Ellison & Dedrick, 2008; Lazovsky & Shimoni, 2007; Levesque et al., 2005) and mentor sex (Burke & McKeen, 1995; Olian et al., 1988).

Third, discussing a currently highly debated gender-specific diversity measure to support women in leadership, the following essay examines in how far stereotypes ascribed to typical women and typical men affect support for quotas for women in leadership. Investigating this relationship through the application of sensemaking theory in organizations (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005), the essay advances research on role-congruency theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and the female leadership advantage (Eagly & Carli, 2003), as well as it extends research determining employees' cognitions as antecedents of their support for human resource instruments (Kossek et al., 2016). Thereby, research on the impact of gender stereotypes is

extended beyond its current focus on the influence on evaluations of men and women (Heilman, 2001). Furthermore, the results of the study of this essay add gender-stereotypes as an important factor influencing sensemaking of employees in organizations (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014).

Fourth, extending research beyond existing gender-specific diversity measures that are commonly discussed in the literature, the final essay of this dissertation thesis introduces top management trustworthiness, i.e., employees' perceptions of top managements' ability, integrity, and benevolence (Mayer & Davis, 1999) as an important organizational factor for fostering gender diversity within organizations. Furthermore, the study of this essay also advances research on the influence of top management within organizations (Hambrick, 2007), extends knowledge on contradicting findings of research on gender differences in turnover (Hom et al., 2008), adds to literature on the importance of trustworthiness of the top management (Mayer & Gavin, 2005), as well as it contributes to research on the subjectivity of trustworthiness perceptions (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007).

To attain the contributions of this dissertation thesis, field studies were conducted. Since this dissertation thesis focusses on organizational measures to support women in their career advancement, a theoretical overview on the broad range of gender-specific diversity measures and on each of the individually depicted diversity measures (i.e., mentoring, quotas for women in leadership, and top management trustworthiness) will be presented in the following section. Afterwards, methods and data sources applied will be discussed, followed by an overview of the structure, key findings, and implications of this dissertation thesis.

1.2 Theoretical Basis for the Analysis of Gender-Specific Diversity Measures

1.2.1 Overview on a Broad Range of Gender-Specific Diversity Measures

Gender-specific diversity measures in organizations may be defined as programs and policies directed to support female employees in their career advancement to reach women's career equality (Kossek, Lobel, & Brown, 2006; Michailidis, Morphitou, & Theophylatou,

2012; Olsen & Martins, 2012). Thereby, women's career equality is defined as a dynamic phenomenon that reflects that women have equal access to and participation in career opportunities and experience equal work and nonwork outcomes (Kossek, Su, & Wu, 2017, p. 229). The reasons why organizations implement gender-specific diversity measures cover various aspects, e.g., from the need to meet legal requirements and respond to fairness concerns over business reasons, to signaling effects (Cox & Blake, 1991; Martins & Parsons, 2007; Olsen, Parsons, Martins, & Ivanaj, 2016). Thus, organizations are increasingly implementing diversity measures to ensure that recruiting, selection, development, and retention processes support at a diverse workforce (Kossek et al., 2006).

Gender-specific diversity measures encompass development programs for women, network enhancing measures, as well as the adjustment of organizational processes and structural factors to support female employees (Peus & Welpe, 2011). Thereby, many gender-specific diversity measures target to fix the women (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011), meaning that they train them to become socialized in the male-dominated work context, e.g., through exercises that teach women at lower hierarchical levels to develop expected skills enabling them to perform in positions that are predominantly held by men (Groysberg & Connolly, 2012). Furthermore, gender-specific diversity measures can also focus on valuing specific feminine skills, e.g., through advocating that women are more effectively utilizing transformational leadership skills and have a female leadership advantage (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Other gender-specific diversity measures target management's behavior to reduce managerial bias and stereotyping. Hereby, organizations aim to make stereotyping and in-group preferences transparent and show consequences of those behaviors on diversity ratios. Those measures can include the integration of management members in gender-specific diversity trainings, giving them feedback and showing them the consequences of their behavior on gender-specific issues (Kalev et al., 2006). Finally, gender-specific diversity measures can also be utilized to create equal opportunities by reducing structural barriers to support female employee's career

advancement (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). These interventions at organizational levels aim to prevent barriers, as for example sex segregation, stereotyping, discrimination, or tokenism, to occur and range from the establishment of more transparent promotion procedures to more flexible work arrangements and work-family programs (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). Hereby, work-family related measures can include taking over costs for care services, paid options for family leave programs, as well as information and referral services (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000).

1.2.2 Overview on Mentoring: A Long-Established Gender-Specific Diversity Measure

Mentoring, defined as the provision of support of a more experienced mentor to enhance the development of a less experienced mentee (Higgins & Kram, 2001), has been long in place as an organizational measure (Haggard et al., 2011) and has been proven as generally very beneficial for mentors, mentees, and organizations. For mentees, positive effects range from enhanced career advancement and job satisfaction, to increased work commitment, pay compensation, and self-esteem (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Chandler, Kram, & Yip, 2011; Eby et al., 2013; Payne & Huffman, 2005). Furthermore, beneficial outcomes have been revealed for mentors, for example increased job satisfaction, fulfillment, organizational recognition, and career success (Allen, Lentz, & Day, 2006; Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Also, organizations can benefit from a performance increase and a transmission of corporate culture when their male and female employees engage in mentoring relationships (Wilson & Elman, 1990).

Within mentoring relationships, generally two distinct types of mentoring functions are provided by the mentor, i. e., career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring (Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Kram, 1985). Career-related mentoring focuses on the provision of support related to coaching, sponsorship, or the provision of challenging assignments to advance the career of the mentee (Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006). Psychosocial mentoring focuses on the provision of support related to counseling, friendship, and acceptance, advancing

the personal growth and development of mentees. In addition, mentoring functions can also encompass context specific tasks, as for example research-related mentoring in the academic environment. Thereby, research-related mentoring supports mentees through enhancing their competencies required to successfully accomplish their academic tasks (De Janasz & Sullivan, 2004). Overall, the provision of different mentoring functions can play an important role in shaping the advancement of mentees.

Particularly for women, mentoring is often cited to support them to overcome gender-specific barriers and to advance in their organizations (Ragins, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2003). However, research also outlines that women must overcome more barriers than men to gain a mentor. These barriers can encompass for example sexual issues, sex-role expectations or a lack of opportunities for meeting mentors (Ragins, 1996). Furthermore, as there are only few women in leadership positions, role models and senior women as mentors are rather scarce for female employees (Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2011).

1.2.3 Overview on Quotas for Women in Leadership: A Highly Discussed Gender-Specific Diversity Measure

Quotas for women in leadership exist on the political and organizational level, pushing for a more equal gender balance between men and women in leading positions in politics and organizations (Sojo et al., 2016). In the political context, the quota for women in leadership was first introduced in 1975, when Norway enforced a new quota law to reach a 40% share of women on electoral lists (Pande & Ford, 2011). Today, around half or the world's countries have adopted political quotas for women in leadership (Hughes, Krook, & Paxton, 2015). However, it took until 2003 for the quotas for women in leadership to be introduced to the corporate world (Pande & Ford, 2011). Today, the introduction of women quotas is still a current subject matter: For example, since 2016, the fixed gender quota also became introduced to regulate Germany's supervisory boards of the biggest organizations (Schmitt, 2015) and

many other countries are obliged to fulfill their national organizational quota requirements (Catalyst, 2014; Pande & Ford, 2011).

Different arguments of supporters and opponents of quotas for women in leadership exist. On the one hand, supporters claim that quotas are helping on the fast track to increase the female representative share in top leadership positions (Tripp & Kang, 2008). Furthermore, this enforced higher share of female leaders might influence attitudes and social norms toward women, as it enables more women to act as role models (Pande & Ford, 2011), and it might heighten aspirations levels of women (Beaman, Duflo, Pande, & Topalova, 2012).

On the other hand, opponents argue that quotas that promote women to leadership positions are unfair toward male aspirants for the same positions. This argument appears particularly strong when people believe that selection occurs only based on gender rather than based on qualifications (Kravitz & Platania, 1993). Another key argument of opponents is that the utilization of gender-specific diversity measures might have negative psychological consequences on those who utilize them (Heilman, Battle, Keller, & Lee, 1998), as it is questioning their merit. In sum, quotas for women in leadership are a highly debated topic and discussions in the society, public institutions and in the media, are still ongoing (De Anca & Gabaldon, 2014).

1.2.4 Overview on Top Management Trustworthiness: A Potentially New Gender-Specific Diversity Measure

Top management trustworthiness is related to the perceptions of the top management's ability, integrity, and benevolence and it determines the base for an individual to decide whether to trust the top management or not (Caldwell & Clapham, 2003; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Schoorman et al., 2007). Thereby, top management's ability is defined as employee perceptions of the members of the top management possessing the required skills and knowledge enabling them to exert their influence in a way that is beneficial for the

organization (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Further, top management's integrity is defined as employee perceptions of the top management behaviors that align with their moral principles (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007). Lastly, top management's benevolence is defined as employee perceptions of top management's intentions leading to supportive behaviors of the managers, taking care for their employees (Caldwell, Floyd, Taylor, & Woodard, 2014).

Regarding its influence on employees, top management trustworthiness has been shown to be very important, influencing opinions of leaders being perceived as ethical (Caldwell, Hayes, & Long, 2010). Furthermore, it is positively related to performance increases of employees and organizations (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Legood, Thomas, & Sacramento, 2016). In comparison to direct supervisor's trustworthiness, top management's trustworthiness appears to be even more important, as top management's trustworthiness enables employees to focus on their work even more than direct supervisor's trustworthiness (Mayer & Gavin, 2005) and increases employee commitment particularly strong (Kam, Morin, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2013; Yang & Mossholder, 2013).

Next to top management trustworthiness' impact on all employees in organizations, it might further contribute to retain particularly female employees in organizations. Assuming that the perceptions of a lack of top management trustworthiness elicit negative emotions in employees (Chen et al., 2011), leading ultimately to employee's turnover intentions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), a greater perceived importance of top management trustworthiness for women would mean that top management trustworthiness is highly relevant to retain them in organizations.

1.3 Methods and Data Sources

The applied methodological approaches of this dissertation thesis were experimental and survey approaches to gather primary data from participants of different sample populations.

Thereby, using on the one hand an experimental conjoint design was advantageous due to ensuring a high internal validity of the data, as a clear cause- and effect relationship could be assumed (Scandura & Williams, 2000). However, a disadvantage of experiments is that they sometimes lack the transferability to other contexts, lowering their external validity (Eid, Gollwitzer, & Schmitt, 2013).

Using on the other hand surveys was advantageous through permitting to depict variables at the individual level of the participants (e.g., perceptions of gender-specific diversity measures, ascriptions of gender-stereotypes to typical women or typical men, or perceptions of top management trustworthiness). Furthermore, this method is more accurate in measuring individual variables, rather than determining them by other-reports. Also, the survey method is highly acknowledged in management and psychological research due to the high external validity of results, as they can be generalized across different contexts (Scandura & Williams, 2000).

In Essay 1, to investigate the awareness and acceptance of a broad range of existing gender-specific diversity measures in the society, a representative sample of the German society with regard to sex, age, and educational attainment was recruited, consisting of 1,000 participants (49% female, age $M = 40.7$; $SD = 11.28$). Participants of working age, ranging from 20 to 59 years, were recruited first by students, and second by an external service provider. All participants were asked about their awareness of gender-specific diversity measures, as well as about their willingness to participate in them. Furthermore, participants were asked about their perceptions of the effectiveness of gender-specific diversity measures and about their perceptions concerning a positive signaling effect that might occur when someone is participating in these measures. Regression analyses were used to examine relationships between gender, age, and educational attainment and the evaluation of the gender-specific diversity measures.

In Essay 2, to investigate the preferences of potential male and female mentees regarding mentoring functions and mentor sex when seeking out a mentor, postdoctoral students, applying for an international program at a large German university, were invited to participate in the study. The final sample consisted of 301 participants (25% female, $M = 33.1$, $SD = 5.86$). Participants were asked in conjoint designs to evaluate hypothetical mentor profiles that differed by the extent to which the mentor provided the mentoring functions of mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring and by the hypothetical mentor's sex. Eight different profiles needed to be evaluated by every participant. Each individual profile displayed different hypothetical arrangements of three different factors (i.e., mentoring functions) at two levels each (i.e., high level and low level). At the high level, the respective mentoring function was described as very highly provided. At the low level, the respective mentoring function was described as hardly provided. In addition, the depicted profile differed in terms of whether participants had to evaluate a hypothetical male or female mentor. Also, to investigate the moderating effects of the potential mentee sex on the relationship between the importance of mentoring functions and mentor sex on the probability to seek out a mentor, random intercept and random slope models were analyzed with the lme4 package for linear-mixed effect models (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). Standardized regression coefficients and their 95% confidence intervals were studied through the utilization of the R package MBESS, to determine whether the results for potential male and female participants significantly differed from each other (Kelley, 2007).

In Essay 3, the relationships between the ascriptions of gender stereotypes to typical women and typical men and support for quotas for women in leadership was investigated. Therefore, currently employed participants of the representative sample in Essay 1 were randomly assigned to groups, reporting their gender-stereotypic views of typical women ($n = 380$) or typical men ($n = 381$) in terms of agency and communality. Of the 761 participants, 48% were female. Their age ranged from 20 to 59 years, with an average age of 40 years (*SD*

= 10.74). 24.7% of the participants held a leadership position. Regarding industries, the highest proportion of participants was working in the wholesale and retail industry (11.3%), followed by participants from the health industry (8.1%) and the public sector (7.6%). To determine the relationships between the ascription of gender stereotypes to typical women and typical men and support for quotas for women in leadership, multiple regression analyses were used. Therefore, all variables were z-transformed and also interaction terms were calculated with z-transformed values.

In Essay 4, to investigate the direct relation of perceived top management with employees' negative emotions and its indirect effect with employees' turnover intentions, a random sample was conducted. The participants ($N = 303$) were recruited with a paper-and-pencil questionnaire while traveling by subway between the central station and the airport of a major German city and also, they were targeted via a German social network site. Of these, 153 participants were female (50.50%). Participant ages ranged from 20 to 65 years, with an average of 36.22 years ($SD = 10.01$). The established moderation effects were tested with regression analyses, while indirect effects were tested with Hayes's PROCESS macro (model 4 and model 7) using bootstrapping with 5,000 samples. Bias-corrected confidence intervals (95%) were applied to test the indirect effect of perceived top management trustworthiness and employee sex on employees' turnover intentions via their negative emotions.

1.4 Structure and Main Results

In each of the following chapters, the topic of gender-specific diversity measures is examined, while each chapter has its unique contribution and includes one individual essay. Being each a unique academic work, every essay starts with its introduction of the topic, followed by the development of hypotheses through the explanation of the theoretical background, and outlines methods and results before it ends with the discussion. The following section provides a short summary of each essay in the respective chapters.

Chapter 2 builds on the literature of existing gender-specific diversity measures in organizations (Armstrong et al., 2010; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Ely et al., 2011; Fehre et al., 2014; Groysberg & Connolly, 2012; Kalev et al., 2006; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Peus & Welpe, 2001). This essay deepens the understanding of how a broad range of gender-specific diversity measures is perceived by their potential users. The results of a representative sample of the German population with respect to sex, age, and educational attainment show that while the society is not very aware of gender-specific diversity measures, they are quite well accepted (indicated through a willingness to participate, the expected effectiveness, and the perception of positive signaling effects). Analyzing gender-specific differences, results show that while men are more aware of measures than women, their willingness to participate in them is lower than for women. Furthermore, men perceive the measures as less effective and lower in their positive signaling effects than women. Also, the younger the age, the better known are the measures, while there is a positive relationship between age and the expected effectiveness and perceived positive signaling effects. In addition, results show a positive relationship between an increase in educational attainment and the awareness of and acceptance of gender-specific diversity measures.

Chapter 3 shows that, derived from an experimental conjoint-analysis with a sample of postdoctoral students, the provision of each examined mentoring function (i.e., mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring) increases potentials mentees' probability to seek out a mentor, while mentor sex had no significant influence. Thereby, mentoring in research was most important for potential postdoctoral mentees, followed by career-related mentoring and psychosocial mentoring. Differentiating results for male and female potential mentees shows that for potential female mentees, psychosocial mentoring is significantly more important than for potential male mentees.

Chapter 4 examines how gender stereotypic ascriptions to typical women and typical men relate to support for quotas for women in leadership. Results reveal that ascribing typical women to agency was positively related to supporting quotas for women in leadership, particularly in male-gendered contexts (qualified through male-gendered industries and participants working in high hierarchical positions). Furthermore, ascribing typical women to communality was generally positively related to support for quotas for women in leadership. Although much less pronounced, also gender-stereotypic ascriptions to typical men influence support for quotas for women in leadership. Ascribing typical men to agency in male-gendered industries was positively related to support for quotas for women in leadership, while ascribing typical men to communality was negatively related to support for quotas for women in leadership.

Chapter 5 shows that employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness directly relate to employees' negative emotions and that they furthermore indirectly relate to employees' turnover intentions. Differentiating the role of perceived top management trustworthiness for male and female employees demonstrates that the relationship between a perceived lack of top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions is stronger for female employees than for male employees and likewise, the indirect effects on employees' turnover intentions are stronger for female than for male employees.

Finally, in chapter 6, the main findings of this dissertation thesis are discussed. As this dissertation thesis integrates cumulative studies on organizational measures to support female employees in their career advancement, theoretical and practical implications are discussed with respect to the great importance of making gender-specific diversity measures work in the future. Finally, further avenues for fruitful future research proposals are listed before the thesis closes with a short conclusion.

2 Zu wenig bekannt, aber durchaus akzeptiert: Die öffentliche Wahrnehmung von Maßnahmen zur Erhöhung des Anteils von Frauen in Führungspositionen

Obwohl Unternehmen verschiedenste Maßnahmen zur Förderung von Frauen in Führungspositionen anbieten, zeigen sich bisher kaum Erhöhungen der Frauenanteile in Führungspositionen. Um die potenzielle Erklärung, dass die Maßnahmen bisher noch ungenügend bei Mitarbeitern ankommen, zu untersuchen, werden in diesem Kapitel die Bekanntheit und Akzeptanz dieser Maßnahmen analysiert. Die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung eines repräsentativen Samples zeigen, dass auch wenn die Maßnahmen bisher eher weniger bekannt sind, sie durchaus akzeptiert werden: Die Teilnahmebereitschaft, die erwartete Wirksamkeit und die positive Signalwirkung einer Teilnahme an den Maßnahmen wurden generell als hoch eingeschätzt. Außerdem zeigt die Untersuchung von Geschlechterunterschieden, dass Männer die Bekanntheit zwar höher einschätzen als Frauen, im Vergleich aber weniger bereit zu einer Teilnahme sind, die Teilnahme als weniger wirksam und die Signalwirkung als weniger positiv einschätzen. Je jünger die Menschen sind, desto eher kennen sie die Maßnahmen, aber desto weniger hoch schätzen sie die Wirksamkeit und teilweise auch die positive Signalwirkung ein. Beim Bildungsabschluss zeigt sich ein positiver Zusammenhang zwischen der Höhe des Bildungsabschlusses und allen vier Einschätzungen in Bezug auf Bekanntheit, Teilnahmebereitschaft, Wirksamkeit und positiver Signalwirkung. Insgesamt geben diese Ergebnisse Unternehmen und Förderern aus Politik und Gesellschaft wichtige Indikationen, für welche Maßnahmen sie für welche Zielgruppen die Bekanntheit und Akzeptanz steigern sollten.

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3 Importance of Mentoring Functions and Mentor Sex: What Influences Potential Male and Female Postdoctoral Mentees to Seek Out a Mentor?

A lot of research has examined the gender-specific development and outcomes of mentoring relationships. But it is surprising that the factors influencing potential male and female mentees to seek out a mentor are under-researched. This study is the first to analyze how mentoring functions (in this case mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring) and mentor sex influence potential male and female mentees when they seek out a mentor in academia, testing how potential male and female mentees make differential trade-offs between mentoring functions and mentor sex. Results are derived from an experimental conjoint design with a sample of international postdoctoral students ($N = 209$), showing that for both potential male and female mentees the provision of each of the three mentoring functions positively increases the probability to seek out a mentor, with mentoring in research being perceived as more important than career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and mentor sex. Furthermore, results show that psychosocial mentoring is significantly more important for potential female than for potential male mentees. Lastly, results reveal that there is no influence of mentor sex on the probability to seek out a mentor and that potential mentee sex does not moderate this relationship. Implications for mentoring relationships are derived and aim to enable a better matching of mentors and mentees that suits general and gender-specific needs.

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Current status: Working paper. Nowak, S., Brosi, P., & Welpe, I. M. Importance of mentoring functions and mentor sex: What influences potential male and female postdoctoral mentees to seek out a mentor? (See also Appendix A).

4 Support for Quotas for Women in Leadership: The Influence of Gender Stereotypes

This study examines support for quotas for women in leadership, a currently highly debated topic in management research and practice. Using a sample of German working adults ($N = 761$), our results suggest that stereotypes about women ($n = 380$) are significantly related to support for quotas for women in leadership. Ascriptions of agency to typical women, i.e., the extent to which women are generally seen as assertive, active, and strong, were positively related to participants' support for quotas for women in leadership in male-gendered industries and high hierarchical positions, whereas ascriptions of communality to typical women, i.e., the extent to which women are seen as understanding, supportive, and caring, were generally positively related. This pattern emerged for both male and female participants. Unexpectedly, gender-stereotypic ascriptions to men ($n = 381$) were also related to support for quotas for women in leadership – with a positive relationship with agency in male-gendered industries and a general negative relationship with communality, although these results were less pronounced. Implications for organizations are derived from these results, highlighting how the introduction of quotas for women in leadership can be smoothed by addressing how employees see women in terms of agency and communality.

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5 The Effect of Top Management Trustworthiness on Turnover Intentions via Negative Emotions: The Moderating Role of Gender

Based on a field study ($N = 303$), this paper explores the differential role of perceived top management trustworthiness for female and male employees' negative emotions and turnover intentions in organizations. A theoretical model is established that explicates a negative indirect effect of perceived top management trustworthiness on employees' turnover intentions through employees' negative emotions. Also, results reveal that the negative relation between perceived top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions as well as resulting turnover intentions is stronger for female employees than for male employees. These results demonstrate the pivotal role of top management trustworthiness, provide an explanation for the gender gap in turnover, and highlight subjectivity in reactions to perceptions of trustworthiness. Implications for organizations are derived from these results, highlighting how top management can influence its employees and particularly women to retain them in their workforce.

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1 This section is partly based on Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2015); Mölders, Brosi, and Welpe (2018); Mölders, Brosi, Bekk, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017), and Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017).

6 Overall Conclusion[1]

6.1. Summary of Findings and Theoretical Implications

The purpose of this dissertation thesis is to contribute to the management literature on organizational measures to support of women in their career advancement. In order to achieve this aim, this dissertation thesis extends current knowledge on a broad range of commonly discussed gender-specific diversity measures in organizations (Armstrong et al., 2010; Fehre et al., 2014; Kalev et al., 2006; Peus & Welpe, 2011), provides new insights on a long-established gender-specific diversity measure, i.e., mentoring (O'Brien et al., 2010), extends knowledge on a highly discussed gender-specific diversity measure, i.e., quotas for women in leadership (Sojo et al., 2016), and introduces a potentially new gender-specific diversity measure, i.e., top management trustworthiness (Mayer & Davis, 1999). A summary of the results and theoretical contributions of each essay in the respective chapters will be presented in the following sections.

Chapter 2 shows that although many gender-specific diversity measures have been implemented in organizations (Fehre et al., 2014), people are not very well aware of them – however, they are generally well accepted. The greatest awareness regarding gender-specific diversity measures existed for flexible work measures related to flexible place and time arrangements. Differentiating the results for male and female participants, it became apparent that men have a significantly higher awareness of gender-specific diversity measures than women. Also, results revealed that younger people are more aware of gender-specific diversity measures than older people and that the awareness of gender-specific measures increased related to an increase in educational attainment. Regarding the willingness to participate in gender-specific diversity measures, results revealed that among men and women, the interest to take part in them is highest for flexible place and time arrangements. Moreover, it became

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1 This section is partly based on Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2015); Mölders, Brosi, and Welpe (2018); Mölders, Brosi, Bekk, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017), and Mölders, Brosi, Spörrle, and Welpe (2017).

apparent that women are not interested in taking part in gender-specific diversity measures that present them as a successful role models inside the organization and to external stakeholders. In addition, with an increase in age, the utilization of parental leaves became less interesting, while an increase in educational attainment led to a generally higher willingness to participate in gender-specific diversity measures. Concerning the effectiveness of gender-specific diversity measures, particularly family- and flexibility-related diversity measures were perceived as very useful. Furthermore, the perceived effectiveness of gender-specific diversity measures was perceived the lower, the lower the age was and it was perceived the higher, the higher the educational attainment was. Concerning the assessment of positive signaling effects of gender-specific diversity measures, results showed that this was generally seen as rather high. Thereby, the lowest positive signaling effect was ascribed to trainings providing information on the impact of gender-stereotypical bias. Furthermore, men perceived the positive signaling effects of gender-stereotypic measures generally as lower than women. Also, the lower the age, the lower the positive signaling effects of gender-specific diversity measures were perceived. Lastly, there was a positive relationship between the expected positive signaling effect of gender-specific diversity measures and an increase in educational attainment

The before mentioned results of chapter 2 contribute to existing research on gender-specific diversity measures in organizations (Armstrong et al., 2010; Ely et al., 2011; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Fehre et al., 2014; Groysberg & Connolly, 2013; Kalev et al., 2006; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Peus & Welpe, 2011) and advance the understanding of how they are perceived within society. In sum, analyzing the awareness and acceptance of the measures allows to increase the knowledge on the gap between offered organizational measures and their so far insufficient effectiveness with reference to the lacking increase of the female share of employees in leadership positions.

Chapter 3 reveals that the provision of mentoring functions, in this case mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring by a hypothetical mentor

positively influenced the potential mentees' probability to seek out a mentor, while the hypothetical mentor's sex did not have a significant influence. Comparing the relative importance of mentoring functions and mentor sex for potential mentees, mentoring in research was significantly more important than career-related mentoring, psychosocial mentoring, and mentor sex. Also, career-related mentoring was significantly more important than psychosocial mentoring and mentor sex, and psychosocial mentoring was significantly more important than mentor sex. Analyzing the gender-specific importance of mentoring functions, the positive relation between the provision of psychosocial mentoring and the probability to seek out a mentor was stronger for potential female mentees than for potential male mentees. For both potential male and female mentees, the relative importance of mentoring functions and mentor sex resembled the general results across all participants.

Using a conjoint experiment, allowing to conduct trade-off analyses on the importance of mentoring functions and mentor sex, and through differentiating the results between potential male and potential female mentees, this study extends limited existing research on mentees' preferences when seeking out a mentor (Bell-Ellison & Dedrick, 2008; Levesque et al., 2005; Burke & McKeen, 1995). Thereby, results provide explanations on motivations behind the mentees' self-initiation of mentoring relationships (Gray & Goregaokar, 2010; Hu et al., 2008) and answer a call for more complex research methods applied in mentoring research (Allen et al., 2008). Furthermore, through analyzing a sample of postdoctoral students as potential mentees, the study provides new knowledge on the factors influencing mentoring relationships in academia, which was also highly demanded (Brosi & Welpe, 2015).

Chapter 4 shows that stereotypical ascriptions of agency and communality to typical women are positively related to support for quotas for women in leadership. Seeing typical women as high in agency was positively related to support for quotas for women in leadership in male-gendered contexts, i.e., for those working in male gendered-industries and at high hierarchical positions. Also, seeing typical women as high in communality was positively

related to support for quotas for women in leadership, which did not depend on female-gendered organizational contexts. Results did not support a significantly differing relation between ascriptions of agency to typical women and support for quotas for women in leadership depending on participants' sex and hierarchical position. Unexpectedly, results showed that also stereotypical views about typical men influenced support for quotas for women in leadership, although they were much less pronounced. Thereby, viewing typical men as high in agency in male-gendered industries led to support for quotas for women in leadership, while viewing typical men as high in communality generally lowered support for quotas for women in leadership.

Regarding their theoretical contribution, the results show that gender-specific stereotypes constitute an important influence factor in employees' sensemaking (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014; Weick et al., 2005), and it shows that gender-specific stereotypes are responsible for the formation of attitudes toward a human resource instrument (Kossek, Ollier-Malaterre, Lee, Pichler, & Hall, 2016). Thereby, research on gender-specific stereotypes is extended by showing their influence beyond evaluations of men and women and their leadership effectiveness (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2012). Also, with quotas for women in leadership being both an organizational and a political instrument, results contribute to research showing the theoretical relationship between gender-stereotypic evaluations and political attitudes (Bauer, 2015; Krook, 2016). Furthermore, the results underline findings of role congruity theory, which assumes that women are less congruent with leadership roles due to a lack of stereotypically male characteristics as for example being assertive (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Showing a positive relationship between seeing women as high in agency in male-gendered contexts and support for quotas for women in leadership underlines that women get supported when they possess in those contexts the characteristics that are viewed as important. Lastly, the results affirm the female leadership advantage (Eagly & Carli, 2003) that states that women possess several qualities which make them appear as better leaders than men, as for

example a more communal leadership style (Duehr & Bono, 2006; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Thereby, the findings that the more typical women are seen as more communal, the more quotas for women in leadership get supported indicate that female leadership styles are valued and seen as desirable to be executed in top management positions.

Chapter 5 shows the direct negative relationship between employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions as well as the indirect negative relationship between employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness and employees' turnover intentions via employees' negative emotions. Furthermore, the results can be differentiated between male and female employees and show the high importance of top management trustworthiness for women. Hereby, both the direct relationship between perceived top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions as well as the indirect relationship with employees' turnover intentions were more pronounced for female employees than for male employees.

These results extend existing research in line with Upper Echelons Theory on the crucial impact of top management within organizations (Hambrick, 2007). Furthermore, the results provide an explanation for mixed finding on gender differences in turnover intentions (Hom et al., 2008). Also, differentiating between male and female perceptions of top management trustworthiness provides new insights on the subjectivity of perceptions of trustworthiness (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007) and introduces top management trustworthiness as a decisive factor to retain female employees in organizations (Nishii & Mayer, 2009).

6.2 Practical Implications

In chapter 2, various practical contributions for organizations were derived: First, the awareness of gender-specific diversity measures should be increased, e.g., through improving communication efforts showcasing the existence of these measures on an organizational, political, and societal scale and by targeting specific gender, age, and education groups with

their communication. With respects to age, the results show that particularly older people are less aware of gender-specific diversity measures. As previous research has shown that older people are more critical toward work-related learning and development activities (Maurer, Weiss, & Barbeite, 2003), it might be helpful for organizations to provide and communicate measures targeted at different phases of life. These measures should exceed the flexibility arrangements to balance work life and mother- and fatherhood to increase gender-specific diversity measures' overall awareness. Next to improving society's awareness, the attractiveness of gender-specific diversity measures should be increased by convincing more people to participate in them, by clarifying the effectiveness of the measures, and by ensuring a positive signaling effect of the measures. To achieve that the willingness to participate rises, organizations should make their managers responsible to motivate their employees to participate in gender-specific diversity measures. As results highlighted that women have a higher willingness to participate in flexibility measures, supporters in organizations, politics, and the society should target particularly men to also take part in them, to break up traditional gender roles and to achieve a greater equality for men and women in their work- and family life. Furthermore, organizations should explain the effectiveness of gender-specific diversity measures, e.g. by clarifying the proven success utilizing stereotype-proof personnel selection measures (Schwarzmüller, Brosi, & Welpe, 2015). Finally, it might be advantageous for organizations to underline the positive signaling effects of gender-specific diversity measures, explaining for example what benefits it can have to participate in a training that educates participants on the impacts of gender role expectancies related to women and men (Eagly & Karau, 2002). As men anticipated the positive signaling effects of gender-specific diversity measures to be lower than women, organizations could try to utilize supportive men as role models who demonstratively show that a participation in the measures is accepted, supported, and believed to make a positive difference.

Conclusion

In chapter 3, practical implications for organizations, universities, mentees, and mentors were outlined. Comparing career-related and psychosocial mentoring, career-related mentoring appears as more important than psychosocial mentoring. Comparing all three examined mentoring functions of mentoring in research, career-related mentoring, and psychosocial mentoring shows that in the academic environment, mentors need to be trained most on how to provide mentoring in research to be a particularly valuable mentor for potential postdoctoral mentees. However, as all three mentoring functions positively influenced the mentees' probability to seek out a mentor, none of them should be neglected. Thus, organizations and universities can support the matching of potential mentees with their mentors through the arrangement of personal relationships and the facilitation of mentoring-relationship building processes (Bell & Treleaven, 2010). Since mentor sex was not related to the potential mentees' probability to seek out a mentor, the aspect of gender-specific relationships should be of less importance for organizations and universities. In addition, as psychosocial mentoring is significantly more important to potential female mentees than to potential male mentees, organizations and universities are well advised to become aware of in how far their available mentors match the needs of potential mentees. Knowing the baseline of available mentoring skills allows to make agreements of psychosocial mentoring support between those mentors who can offer this mentoring function and female potential mentees demanding this function (Waters, 2004). Also, potential mentees should communicate their preferences to their employing organization or university, as well as to their mentor directly (Kalbfleisch, 2002). At the same time, mentors should transparently demonstrate their competencies and expectations for the mentoring relationship to be truly successful (Forret, 1996).

In chapter 4, practical contributions are particularly relevant for organizations, as many of them must deal with the question on how to introduce (voluntary) quotas for women in leadership smoothly (Catalyst, 2014). The results show that sensemaking in organizations is important to understand events that appear within organizations (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014).

Conclusion

Therefore, it is necessary that responsible leaders and human resources managers, who want to support the introduction of quotas for women in leadership, provide narratives and vivid examples of communal and agentic women, as these stereotypical views have been shown to positively influence support for quotas for women in leadership. According to the results, on the one hand, agentic women need to be highlighted particularly in male-gendered industries and at high hierarchical positions. Next to showcasing women as agentic (Jonsen, Maznevski, & Schneider, 2010), it is also important that organizations do not withhold women from challenging jobs (De Pater, Van Vianen, & Bechtholdt, 2010), while they also need to protect them from being put into too risky positions that might undermine their success (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). On the other hand, highlighting communality of typical women is also beneficial for support for quotas for women in leadership. Hereby, exemplifying female leaders as role models and relate them to positive organizational outcomes can lead to women being seen as high in both agency and communality (Rosette & Tost, 2010). Also, highlighting female leader competences related to relationship-oriented leadership styles (Eagly & Carli, 2003) should be valuable to prevent negative connotations of women being high in communality to appear as low competence (Cuddy, 2009).

In chapter 5, findings showed that employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness are negatively related to their negative emotions and their resulting turnover intentions. Therefore, organizations are well advised to ensure that the top management appears as trustworthy in order prevent employees' turnover. To achieve this goal, organizations could incentivize their top management and provide them with valuable training formats so that they know what to do to appear as high in trustworthiness and to prevent trust breaches from occurring (Dirks, Lewicki, & Zaheer, 2009). Also, measures that rebuild trustworthiness are valuable to be taught to the top management, which are for example the use of transparent information (Burt, 2005; Burt & Knez, 1995) and apologies after something went wrong (Kim, Dirks, Cooper, & Ferrin, 2006; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2005). As results also showed that female

employees reacted more strongly toward a perceived lack of top management trustworthiness, organizations have to ensure that top management gets personally involved to demonstrate their trustworthiness particularly to women. This might be reached for example through direct communication at women specific (networking) events (Ely et al., 2011) or through senior mentoring relationships (Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, & Wilbanks, 2013). Thus, with being high in trustworthiness, top management might not only show their commitment, but also be themselves a valuable support to retain their female employees within the organization.

6.3 Future Research

This dissertation thesis set out to gain further insights on organizational measures that target to support female employees in their career advancement. Next to achieving this goal, several new directions for future research were detected that will be detailed in the following sections.

First, related to the awareness and acceptance of gender-specific diversity measures, a valuable contribution of future research can be the investigation of employees' perceptions of gender-specific diversity measures in individual organizations. Doing so would allow to analyze relationships between the specific diversity measures offered by an organization and employees' perceptions of them. Hereby, analyses within dedicated organizations allow for interesting examinations of gender, age, and education effects that might influence the awareness and acceptance of the measures within individual firms. Next, future research should further detail gender-specific diversity measures to analyze their recognition and awareness in the society, as single measures, belonging for example to the previously analyzed group of "gender specific flexibility measures related to time- and location-flexibility", might be perceived differently.

Second, regarding the importance of the provision of mentoring functions and mentor sex for potential male and female mentees, future research should examine potential mentees'

preferences in organizations so that results can be compared to the academic context and can be fully generalized for the organizational environment. Furthermore, it would be interesting for future research to detail specific mentoring functions provided that are generally summarized in the categories of psychosocial or career-related mentoring and that can be referred to mentoring in research in the academic context (Allen et al. 2004; De Janasz & Sullivan, 2004). Thereby, a more detailed split of for example psychosocial mentoring in its fine parts, which might constitute for example the provision of friendship, social support, role modelling, or counseling (e.g., Ragins & Cotton, 1999), would allow to draw conclusions on the specific mentoring functions provided that influence potential mentees' probability to seek out a mentor.

Third, the relation between the ascriptions of gender stereotypes to typical women and typical men and support for quotas for women in leadership regarding everyone's reality of gender stereotypes (Jonsen et al., 2010) was analyzed. This means that it was studied how individuals see typical women and typical men in terms of agency and communality and how this relates to quota support. But, the individual perception of reality does neither capture how participants perceive themselves with respect to agency and communality, nor how society as a whole perceives typical women and men. Therefore, future research could broaden the understanding of how individual's perceptions of their own level of agency and communality as well as how their perception of prevailing gender stereotypes within the society may influence their support for quotas for women in leadership. For example, women who perceive themselves as particularly agentic might have experienced forms of discrimination and backlash (Rudman & Phelan, 2008) and this could also influence their support for quotas for women in leadership. In addition, it would be interesting for future research to investigate dimensions of gender-specific stereotypes depicting broader concepts of feminine and masculine gender roles (e.g., Bem, 1974, Born, 1992; Schneidhofer & Mayrhofer, 2008; Schneidhofer, Schiffinger, & Mayrhofer, 2011) or detailing for example aspects of agency in finer components such as

dominance (Rosette, Koval, Ma, & Livingston, 2016), competence (Fiske, 2010), or self-reliance (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2016) in order to test the influence of these dimensions on support for quotas for women in leadership.

Fourth, future research concerned with the importance of employees' perceptions of top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions should explore whether a dyadic relationship exists between perceived top management trustworthiness and employees' negative emotions. As research has shown that not only perceived trustworthiness triggers emotions (Burns et al. 2008; Chen et al. 2011) but that also emotions influence trust (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Williams, 2007), it is worthwhile to determine the causality of the relationships for example through experimental studies such as vignettes. In addition, avenues for fruitful future research might be to include the propensity to trust in the analyses to test gender differences in forming and reacting to trustworthiness perceptions across different contexts. Finally, next to analyzing the importance of perceived top management trustworthiness for male and female employees, future research can contribute to gender research by analyzing the impact of top managers' sex on the relationship. Previous research has shown that women are often perceived as less congruent with leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, they might be perceived as less trustworthy when acting in these positions, so that the analysis of the influence of (top) managers' sex also in combination with employee sex might be very valuable to further explore gender differences related to the relevance of top management trustworthiness.

In conclusion, this dissertation thesis displays various new insights on organizational measures that aim to support female leaders in their career advancement. Showing the public's awareness and acceptance of a broad range of gender-specific diversity measures provides empirical evidence for their general evaluation in the German society. Presenting how the provision of mentoring functions and mentor sex influences potential male and female mentees' probability to seek out a mentor underlines how the effectiveness of a long-established measure,

i.e., mentoring, can be increased. As results highlight that particularly potential female mentees value psychosocial mentoring more than their male colleagues, this shows how gender-specific adjustments to mentoring as a diversity measures can lead to improvements. Reflecting on the relation between ascriptions of gender-specific stereotypes and support for quotas for women in leadership, influential factors on a highly discussed gender-specific diversity measure, i.e. quotas for women in leadership, were outlined. Finally, by showing the importance of perceived top management trustworthiness for employees' negative emotions and resulting turnover intentions and by showing that these effects were more pronounced for female than for male employees, this thesis adds a new gender-specific diversity measure, i.e., top management trustworthiness to support women in their career advancement.

7 References (Introduction and Conclusion)

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8 Appendix A: References for the Empirical Chapters

8.1 Reference for Chapter 2

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8.2 Reference for Chapter 3

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8.3 Reference for Chapter 4

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8.4 Reference for Chapter 5

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