THE ADDED VALUE OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: THE CZECH CASE

Abstract
The paper attempts to assess the added value of women in management in the context of the Czech Republic. The wider purpose is to contribute to the debate for the need of gender-balanced top managerial teams. It additionally contributes new inputs to the discussion as to whether quotas or other special measures are relevant to promote or engage more women in higher management positions within both the Czech public and private sectors. According to the results, Czech respondents view women as added value to management given the different characteristics of their approach over that of their male counterparts. However, the research reveals that women who obtain higher managerial positions demonstrate the same set of characteristics as men. In conclusion, the promotion system is designed for candidates that demonstrate typically male characteristics.

Keywords: women in management, quotas, management, feminine values, sustainability, Czech Republic
JEL Classification: M10, M51

1. Introduction
Sustainability, Corporate Social Responsibility, Long-Term Capitalism are the key points of currently coveted corporate strategies. The movement from shareholder capitalism to stakeholder approach is the topic of many conferences, academic papers and also visible at progressive corporate boards. However, the real strategy design and even more the strategy implementation remain the big challenges. The long-term preferred masculine values in management brought competition, profit orientation, high returns on investment, but also greed, resource depletion, work dehumanization and even questionable business ethics. Nowadays, business stands at the crossroad searching for new, more feminine values that will enhance impulses bringing cooperation, long-term mutually beneficial relationships building planet considerate operations and focus on the long rather than short-term profits.

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The authors wish to express gratitude to Dr. Richard Brunet-Thornton for his on-going consultation in the preparation of this manuscript.
This article was processed with contribution of long-term institutional support of research activities by the Faculty of International Relations and Faculty of Informatics and Statistics, University of Economics, Prague.
As one of the most effective ways to infuse more feminine values to business seems so far getting to top corporate positions, corporate boards or top management, members with these values, either men or women. Even though women are reaching high level of education *en masse*, there are still only very few of them at top business positions.

As of 2012, female tertiary students in the EU28 represented 54.9%. For the same period, in the Czech Republic it was 57.2%. In addition, in Sweden and Norway, women constituted 60% of college students (Eurostat, 2012). On the other hand, the employment rate of women in the 20–64 age groups was, during the same time period in the EU28, 68.4%, and in the Czech Republic 72.5%. The highest female employment rate above the EU target of 75% is found in Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Germany and Austria. This signifies that an association exists between GDP *per capita* and quality of life with these countries categorized as high in terms of competitiveness (Eurostat, 2013).

This article focuses on the importance of women in management, their “added value” in terms of qualitative changes in leadership style. In the Czech Republic, a number of interesting studies on the economic aspects of women’s employment were conducted in the past. The study of Kalíšková and Münich (2012, pp. 10–11), for example, states that in the absence of a decline in employment of women aged 27 to 33 years caring for young children, there would be an increase in the collection of income tax by CZK 1.6 billion and an increase in contributions to social and health insurance by CZK 3.6 billion.

This paper focuses on the multiple areas in which female managers may enrich current managerial styles. These encompass leadership, decision-making, responsibility and risk, talent development as well as other parameters prevalent in the corporate environment. The research explores the factors in which there are significant differences compared to a male managerial style. Their relationship to management and positive decision-making towards sustainable business is perceived as an imperative to further global development. The research focuses on Czech male and female managers and captures the results into the context of status development and career growth presumptions of female managers in the Czech economy and society. This is partially accomplished through the explanation of the wider situational background existent in the former Czechoslovakia and the current Czech Republic.

2. Literature Review

Women represent a great potential not only due to their increased educational levels, but due to the specific qualities they contribute to management.

Studies on topic ‘Women in Management’ are divided into several groups:

A. studies that demonstrate the relationship between female representation in top management and corporate financial results,

B. studies that focus on the managerial style women practice to lead their colleagues, seek solutions, make decisions and approach risk,

C. studies that compare the performance and innovativeness of teams that are gender heterogeneous or homogeneous,

D. studies that concentrate on programmes and tools to stimulate effective gender diversity in management.
Desvaux et al. (2007) analyse the financial performance of 89 European-listed companies with the highest proportions of women in senior leadership positions (CEO or CFO) with at least two female board members. The performance is relative to the averages in their respective sector of the Stoxx Europe 600. “These companies outperform their sector in terms of return on equity (11.4% versus an average 10.3%), operating result (EBIT 11.1% versus 5.8%), and stock price growth (64% versus 47%) over the period 2005–2007” (ibid, pp. 13–14).

Studies performed by Carter and Wagner (2011) draw similar conclusions: ”Catalyst’s 2011 study found that companies with the most women board directors outperformed those with the least on return on sales (ROS) by 16 per cent and return on invested capital (ROIC) by 26 per cent. Companies with sustained high representation of women – three or more women board directors in at least four of five years – significantly outperformed those with no women board directors” (Carter and Wagner, 2011, p. 2).

Joecks et al. (2012) uncover the minimum quantitative need of female representation: “In a study of more than 150 German firms over five years, researchers confirmed that boards need a critical mass of about 30 per cent women to outperform (as measured by return on equity) all-male boards. This translates into a “magic number” of about three women, based on average board size.” (Joecks et al., 2012, p. 3).

Devillard et al. (2012) present data on female representation in corporate management that demonstrate that the desired critical mass of women in leadership, on average, is not reached even in countries like Sweden and Norway. Table 1 presents the details of the findings particular to the Czech Republic.

Table 1 | Female Representation on Executive Committees and Corporate Boards (2007–2011) in 9 European Countries (analysis based on corporate annual reports listed on each country’s main index)

| Country          | Executive committee (% of total, 2011) | Growth since 2007 (% points) | Corporate boards (% of total, 2011) | Growth since 2007 (% points) |
|------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Sweden           | 21                                    | +8                           | 25                                  | +1                           |
| Norway           | 15                                    | +3                           | 35                                  | +3                           |
| United Kingdom   | 11                                    | +8                           | 16                                  | +4                           |
| Belgium          | 11                                    | +4                           | 11                                  | +5                           |
| Netherlands      | 8                                     | +3                           | 19                                  | +12                          |
| France           | 8                                     | +4                           | 20                                  | +12                          |
| Czech Republic   | 8                                     | 0                            | 10                                  | –2                           |
| Italy            | 6                                     | +1                           | 5                                   | +2                           |
| Germany          | 3                                     | +2                           | 16                                  | +5                           |

Source: Devillard et al. (2012), p. 6
Other studies explore the gender differences in leadership roles. Desvaux and Devillard (2008) discover consistent outcomes with the results of the Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) meta-analysis of male and female leaders. Desvaux and Devillard (2008) deploy the previous research of Bass and Avolio (Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1990) that surveyed and measured a full range of observed leadership behaviours. The study of Bass and Avolio studied 9,000 respondents and deployed the ‘360 degrees method’. This method is a combination of self-assessment and external assessment by seven other individuals using a questionnaire. The study adopts nine styles of leadership identified by Bass and Avolio (1990). Furthermore, Desvaux and Devillard (2008) assess the two residual behaviours previously identified but not evaluated by Bass and Avolio. Women preferred five leadership styles focussed on “people development” (develop others, dedicated mentoring, attentive to needs); “role model” (build respect and ethical decisions); “inspiration” (compel a future vision and goal achievability) and “participative decision-making” (build team spirit and encourage involvement). Conversely, corporate males more often use a “control and corrective action” style (emphasize control and corrective measures, adoption of sanctions, monitor individual performance) and “individualistic decision-making” (self-reliance and delegation). Both genders did not differ in the use of “intellectual stimulation” (presumptions of solutions and creativity motivation and the search for solutions), “efficient communication” (charismatic persuasive communication) (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Desvaux and Devillard, 2008).

In a comparable study, Zenger and Folkman (2012) examine more than 7,000 managers to assess the gender differences in relation to leadership style. They use a similar methodology that warranted similar results: “These women and men were rated by managers, peers, direct reports, and others. While women outscored men on “nurturing” competencies such as relationship building and the development of personnel, men outscored women most significantly on “takes initiative”, “practices self-development”, “displays high integrity and honesty”, and “drives for results”.

The research of Lopez and Zahid (2005) indicates that women as investors behave differently from men. They prefer investments in areas such as education, health, local infrastructure, poverty eradication. Examination indicates that women as investors are decidedly motivated more by feminine values associated with long-term sustainability.

Mackey and Sisodia (2013) emphasize that capitalism built on profit maximization in the short term and inadequate risk-taking leads to the loss of moral values. The latter, in turn, undermines corporate reputation and brand over time. In contrast, companies that adopt values perceived as feminine, sustainable business led by a sense and respect towards others, are economically more successful in the long term and are supported by a wider circle of stakeholders. Both sets of authors associate sustainable business with respect for feminine values.

Similarly, Barash (2014) emphasizes that sustainable business requires feminine values, whether espoused by women in top positions, or men who respect these feminine values. In addition, Barash states that although there had been much progress in the area, it is insufficient. Two vehicles for change exist, gender quotas and goals that define the proportion of women in higher management roles. In addition, Bučiūnienė and Kazlauskaitė (2012) demonstrate that organizations with a more developed Human Resources Management, in which feminine values are prevalent and demonstrated in special programmes for disadvantaged workforce groups, enjoy better financial performance.
Other studies of interest confirm the usefulness of gender diversity in teams to solve complex and innovative tasks. “A field study experiment of undergraduate students in international business at the Amsterdam College of Applied Sciences found that teams with an equal mix of men and women outperformed male-dominated teams in profits and sales. Performance peaked when a team had about 55 per cent women” (Hoogendoorn et al., 2011, p.5). Woolley et al. (2010); Higgs et al. (2005); Hong and Page (2004) and others, conducted field study experiments realized in uniform conditions, for teams in task solving. These studies complement earlier findings on the effective composition of teams relative to informal team roles and benefits of their complementarity of structure and function when assuming team activities.

There is a consensus among the authors reviewed that a higher proportion of women in top management improves corporate governance, reduces corruption and stimulates the respect for ethical rules in decision-making (Adams and Ferreira, 2009; Cumming et al., 2012; Larkin et al., 2012).

However, the identified differences and effectiveness in gendered-based leadership style may not apply identically for every national culture. Many studies are based on surveys among Western managers raised in traditionally democratic regimes. Therefore, there are factors that have not been considered such as the economic advancement of the country, the level of social services, the nature of familial relationships between males and females and between parents and children. This study analyses the differences in orientation and leadership styles among female and male managers in the current Czech environment.

Existing knowledge and research in the field of female potential in management highlight that women are an underutilized talent source. As the number of university-educated women increases, there are more women than men among university students today in developed countries. However, the proportion of employed females remains low.

The following study, based on the above defined classification of research studies by authors, would fall into the second group - studies that focus on the managerial style women practice to lead their colleagues, seek solutions, make decisions and approach risk.

There is currently an intensive discussion about the enactment of mandatory quotas for the less represented gender in the statutory bodies of joint stock companies listed in the EU member states. Prevalent negative attitude towards such legislation in the Czech society is demonstrated both by men and even often by women. Female managers often lack sufficient self-confidence to apply for higher positions. Also, the traditional family roles distribution plays role in the Czech society. It has inspired us to conduct research on a sample of Czech male and female managers.

The past two decades characterize numerous transformations within the Czech Republic. The 1989 Velvet Revolution brought complex changes within the political, economic and social system of the country. However, modifications to the mindsets and approaches have, in many areas, been shortcoming despite rapid change. These specifics create a unique ‘laboratory’ wherein many concepts resemble those found in Western Europe, whereas others remain typical to the Czech environment.

Relative to the ‘value added’ of women in the managerial style within the context of the Czech Republic, this paper establishes the following goals:

Goal 1: To assess the characteristics of male and female managerial styles among Czech respondents and to classify it from the most to the least frequently mentioned.
Goal 2: To compare the male and female profiles based on each of three groups of questions.

Goal 3: To assess for each group of characteristics whether the opinions expressed by the respondents are dependent upon their gender.

3. The Role and Status of Women in Czech Society: Pre- and Post-1989

The former communist Czechoslovakia viewed through a Western cultural perspective prevalent during that period was considered as a country with a strong emphasis on gender diversity. The ideal of the working woman whose results are comparable with men, and they often surpassed them, was present in propaganda and film, and was perceived as natural, desirable and required. The constitutional duty to work pertained to both male and female citizens. In this vein, the housewife and home-maker were viewed negatively as a remnant of capitalism. Working women were offered a relatively high level of comfort of state-funded services for the care of pre- and school age children. Statistically, the female employment during the former regime exceeded values that are current EU targets (Bodrova, Anker, 1985). Despite this, the traditional division of roles between the sexes persisted (Illner, 1998) as did the gender wage gap (Brainerd, 2000). Němečková (2013) focussed on the role of salary in employee motivation and retention according to which “men attribute bigger weight to salary than women, which… is given by social-psychical and family traditions in the Czech Republic, where both men and women still predominantly consider man as family “breadwinner”” (Němečková, 2013, p. 384).

Development after the 1989 Velvet Revolution altered the situation radically. The family patterns were changed. Before 1989, the family model was nearly uniform, almost everyone entered marriage between 18 to 25 years. The average age of a Czech bride, 21 years, was the lowest in Europe (Večerník and Matějů, 1999: 98–99; Kuchařová, 1996). Soon after the wedding, the first child was born and the second child followed in about three years (Rychtaříková, 1995). Only six per cent of women remained childless in the 1980s (Večerník and Matějů, 1999). The constitutionally deemed duty to work signified that most women were employed while the state ensured a wide selection of social services for childcare (crèches, kindergartens, and after-school clubs). However, women were expected to fulfill the traditional gender role in the family (Čermáková et al., 2000).

After 1989, the marriage rate declined. According to the Czech Statistical Office (CSO) in the 2001 census there were only 65% of men and 72% of women married. Today half of marriages end in divorce. Children, in most cases, remain in the incomplete family with the mother. During the same period, the number of children born outside marriage increased by more than 30% (Czech Statistical Office, 2005).

The 2001 CZSO survey found that one in four families with dependent children was incomplete. Mothers were the head of the family with dependent children in 88% of the cases. This type of household is typical to women aged 25–39 years (National Centre of Social Studies, 2005). Compared with the period prior to 1989, there was a significant deterioration in the availability of state social services such as pre-school or after-school centres, and care offered by the private sector presents a significantly higher financial burden. Given these circumstances, for women in the age group 25–39 years, it represents a high economic, social and psychological burden that has an impact to career-building.
Not only do unfavourable external factors exist, but there are missing significant female role models. Another Czech specific is the very low representation of women in decision-making bodies of corporations combined with an insufficient organic development in terms of increasing their representation and influence (Křečková, 2013). One of the factors is the existence of the “clientelistic networks” as part of a totalitarian heritage. “The under-representation of women in the top management lowers the efficiency of management and the quality of decision-making, because it supports the model which prefers personal interests ahead of the interests of the collective by maintaining one’s positions and clientelistic networks and by artificially weakening the competition.” (Dvořáková, 2014, p. 30).

As Czech society needs more impulses to gender balance in decision-making, this paper deals with the above mentioned goals and analyses the value added of female managerial style.

4. Methodological Approach

Respondents from both public and private institutions in the Czech Republic were contacted by e-mail and directed to an internet page with a structured web-based questionnaire. The respondents were contacted and they submitted their answers from May till June 2013. Respondents from public institutions formed 31%, respondents from private institutions 69%.

The questionnaire consists of three substantive question sets and questions relative to demographics. First, there are nine questions with replies using a 4-level scale that relate to the people-management style typical for women and the same question for men. Second, there are six questions at the 5-level scale relative to people management styles typical for each gender. Respondents are required to select on a scale of two extremes. The replies indicate a position between two possibilities as with the example of goal- versus people-oriented managerial styles. Third, there are ten questions at the 4-level scale that characterize women at higher managerial positions. Likewise, the same questions are used to characterize male counterparts. Equally, there are 25 questions relative to female and male characterizations. Respondents are also offered “I do not know” in the first and third groups of questions. The questionnaire was available to respondents in the Czech language. The attributes for the purpose of this study have been translated to their approximate English equivalents by the authors.

Responses to the substantive questions are values of ordinal variables. For this reason, the statistical methods suitable for this type of variables were applied. For the analyses, the scales were reordered wherein the lower value indicates less importance. Average values were calculated for each assessed characteristic separately for evaluation of men and separately for evaluation of women, then these characteristics were sorted from highest to lowest average value separately in each of the three groups of variables. This created profiles of women and profiles of men in managerial positions and the top management.

It was also examined whether the particular characteristics differ in an evaluation for men and women in managerial positions. For this purpose the Wilcoxon test was applied for related samples with each pair created from two replies of a certain respondent. The null hypothesis supposes that the distributions of a certain variable in respect to women and the corresponding variable for men are the same.

In a further part of the analysis it was examined whether the assessed characteristics depend on the respondent’s gender, the Somers’ D was applied for this purpose. This
The coefficient is determined for the directional measurement of dependency of the ordinal variables. The gender is a dichotomous variable which can be considered as a special case of an ordinal variable. It is investigated as to whether higher values of individual features are characteristics for male or female respondents. The Somers’ D takes values from the interval from −1 to 1 with zero being independence. Positive values indicate that the higher proportions of higher values of individual characteristics represent female rather than male respondents; negative values characterize the higher proportions of higher values of the dependent variables for male than for female respondents. The test on independence based on this coefficient was applied in that the null hypothesis supposes that value of Somers’ D in the population is zero.

5. Results

The research sample consists of 182 respondents from both public and private institutions. With 300 respondents, the response rate is 60.8 per cent. Females represent 60 per cent of respondents. The age structure comprises segments from 25 to 60+. Nearly four-fifths of respondents have 17+ years of formal education. Job status and position consists of all corporate hierarchical stages and includes top managers, middle management, front-line managers, and non-management employees. Table 2 identifies the managerial maturity of respondents.

| Years of managerial experience | Percentage of respondents (%) |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 11 years+                     | 51                          |
| 6–10 years                    | 23                          |
| 3–4 years                     | 14                          |
| 1–2 years                     | 4                           |
| No previous experience        | 8                           |

Source: Own calculations

While respondents are selected from various industries, the educational sector had the highest representation (22%). We deem this sector as crucially important as values of the younger generation that enter the job market are formed and in turn, influence the values of the entire society.

The data include certain proportions of missing values, less in the first group (1 to 2%), more in the third group (up to 15% in one case). As the median does not distinguish individual variables sufficiently, the variables are also characterized by averages.

From the analysis of the first group presented in Figure 1 according to the averages women who manage subordinates are characterized mainly as “cooperative”, “intuitive” and “considerate” and characterized the least as “aggressive”. Whereas, for all other components, the median is 3, frequencies of replies 3 and 4 are higher than frequencies of replies 1 and 2; for the characteristic “aggressive”, the median is only 2 with frequencies of replies 1 and 2 higher than frequencies of replies 3 and 4.
Figure 2 presents the characterization of males who manage personnel from the same perspective. Respondents identify men mainly as being “forceful” (median 4) and the least as “considerate”, “intuitive”, and “job-security inspiring” (median 2).

Figure 3 displays the comparison of both profiles based on averages. The Wilcoxon test for related samples is applied in which the null hypothesis supposes that the distributions of a certain variable in respect to women and the corresponding variable for men are the same. For all variables, the null hypothesis is rejected at the level of significance 0.001. Therefore, the characterizations of women and men from the studied viewpoints differ.
Figure 3 | Comparison of Female and Male Profiles (women and men managing subordinates)

Averages

Table 3 includes the values of Somers’ D and P-values as a result of the test on independence. Positive values indicate that the higher proportions of higher values of dependent variables represent female rather than male respondents; negative values characterize the higher proportions of higher values of the dependent variables for male than for female respondents.

Table 3 | Dependence of Features on Respondent’s Gender with Both Women and Men Managing Subordinates

| Style of managing people | Women | | | Men | | |
|--------------------------|-------|----|----|------|----|----|
|                          | Somers’ D | P-value | Somers’ D | P-value |
| Aggressive               | -0.164 | 0.044 | 0.176 | 0.003 |
| Forceful                 | 0.133  | 0.077 | 0.213 | 0.005 |
| Decisive                 | 0.294  | <0.001| -0.004| 0.959 |
| Intuitive                | 0.045  | 0.563 | -0.210| 0.007 |
| Cooperative              | 0.225  | 0.003 | -0.148| 0.044 |
| Money motivating         | 0.186  | 0.019 | 0.049 | 0.507 |
| Career inspiring         | 0.044  | 0.558 | 0.098 | 0.192 |
| Job-security inspiring   | 0.205  | 0.011 | 0.050 | 0.540 |
| Considerate              | 0.257  | 0.001 | -0.222| 0.003 |

Source: Own calculations
When characterizing the female profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significance level was found in most variables with the exception of “intuitive”, “career inspiring”, and “forceful”. Only in the case of the variable “aggressive”, the higher proportion of higher values was found for male respondents. However, in both cases the proportions of positive are lower than negative replies with 29% for male and 19% for female respondents. Therefore, female rather than male respondents are more inclined to view the human management style of women as “decisive”, “considerate”, “cooperative”, “job-security inspiring” and “money motivating”.

When characterizing the male profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significance level was not found in the case of variables “decisive”, “job-security inspiring”, “money motivating”, and “career inspiring”. The significant negative relationship was found in the case of variables “considerate”, “intuitive”, and “cooperative”. As a result more male rather than female respondents viewed the people management style of men as “considerate,” “intuitive” and “cooperative”. Whereas, female respondents inclined to view the people management style of men as “aggressive” and “forceful”.

The characteristics “idea fighters” and “hostile conflict resolution” are the least typical for women. Also, assessed by median, both the least typical characteristics possess median 2, which signifies that frequencies of replies 1 and 2 are higher than frequencies of replies 3, 4 and 5, and confirm these two characteristics as the least typical for women.

Based on averages, Figure 4 presents the analysis of the second group of questions. In this instance, women who manage subordinates are viewed as preferring “dedicated co-workers”.

![Figure 4 | Female Profile (women managing subordinates)](image)

Source: Own calculations

Besides the female, the findings equally reflect the male profile. This permits a clear gender comparison.

Figure 5 illustrates the characterization of males that manage subordinates from the same perspective as being mainly “goals-oriented” with the least as “rewarding equitably”.
Figure 5 | Male Profile (men managing subordinates)

Source: Own calculations

Figure 6 illustrates, based on averages, the comparison of both profiles. The average values for men are higher than those for women in all characteristics, with the exception of the feature “rewarding equitably”. The Wilcoxon test was applied as in the previous case for the first group of questions. For all variables, the null hypothesis was rejected at the significance level 0.001. Therefore, the characterizations of women and men from the studied viewpoints differ.

Figure 6 | Comparison of Female and Male Profiles (women and men managing subordinates)

Source: Own calculations

Table 4 displays the results of the Somers’ D once applied for the measurement of directional dependence for the study of variables on the respondent’s gender. When characterizing the woman profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significant
level was found only in case of the variable “hostile conflict resolution”. It is a negative
dependence with the higher proportion of higher values for men. However, in both cases the
proportions of positive replies are lower than negative replies with 17.8% of the replies 4 and 5
for men and 4.6% for women. Therefore, male rather than female respondents are more
inclined to view the people management style of women as “hostile conflict resolution”.

To characterize the male profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significant
level was found only in the case of the variables “prefer employees only out-of-work activities”
and “goal oriented”. In both cases the dependence is positive. There is the higher proportion of
higher values for women with almost 70% of the replies 4 and 5 for women against 41% of these
replies for men in the former case and 96% against 85% in the latter. Therefore, female rather
than male respondents are more inclined to view people management style of men as “prefer
employees only out-of-work activities” and “goal oriented”.

Table 4 | Dependence of Features on Respondent’s Gender (women and men managing
subordinates)

| Style of managing people                  | Women          | Men          |
|-------------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|
|   | Somer’s D | P-value | Somer’s D | P-value |
| Goal oriented                            | −0.099           | 0.231       | 0.198          | 0.011          |
| Ideas fighters                            | −0.100           | 0.217       | 0.086          | 0.265          |
| Hostile conflict resolution              | −0.246           | 0.002       | 0.057          | 0.478          |
| Rewarding equitably                      | −0.010           | 0.900       | −0.099         | 0.226          |
| Prefer dedicated co-worker               | 0.065            | 0.435       | 0.121          | 0.129          |
| Prefer employees only out-of-work activities | 0.146          | 0.052       | 0.321          | <0.001         |

Source: Own calculations

Figure 7 presents the analysis of the third group of questions in averages. Women at the
top management levels are characterized mainly as “forceful” and the least as “aggressive”. Whereas for all other features the median is 3, for the feature “aggressive” the median is 2.

Figure 8 illustrates the characterization of males at the top management levels from
the same perspective. Respondents regard men mainly as “forceful”, “predatory” and
“aggressive”. For these components as well as “motivating” and “cooperative” the median
is 3, whereas for the characteristics “helpful”, “friendly”, “understanding”, “intuitive” and
“pleasant” the median is 2.

Figure 9 presents the comparison of female and male profiles based on averages. The
differences between replies that characterize women and men at top managerial positions are
lower than in the case of characterization of women and men who manage people (Figures 3
and 6). With the application of the Wilcoxon test, the null hypothesis is rejected at the
significance level 0.001 almost for all variables with exception of the variable “motivating”
for which characterizations of women and men do not differ.
Analysis as to whether the assessed characteristics depend on the respondent’s gender, the Somers’ D is applied for the measurement of directional dependence of studying variables on the gender. Table 5 displays the results. With the characterization of the female profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significance level was found in the variables “motivating”, “cooperative”, and “forceful”. In all three cases it is a positive dependence. Therefore, female rather than male respondents are more inclined to view women at top management levels as “motivating”, “cooperative”, and “forceful”.

Similarly, with the male profile, the significant directional dependence at the 5% significant level is found in five cases out of ten. It is a negative dependence with the
exception of the variable “predatory”. Therefore, male rather than female respondents are more inclined to view men who reached top managerial positions as “understanding”, “cooperative”, “motivating”, and “intuitive”.

**Figure 9 | Comparison of Female and Male Profiles (women and men at the top managerial positions)**

Averages

![Diagram showing comparison of female and male profiles](source: Own calculations)

**Table 5 | Dependence of Features on Respondent’s Gender (women and men at top managerial positions)**

| People in top managerial position | Women | Men |
|----------------------------------|-------|-----|
|                                  | Somers’ D | P-value | Somers’ D | P-value |
| Aggressive                       | −0.160 | 0.054 | 0.016 | 0.839 |
| Predatory                        | −0.041 | 0.606 | 0.162 | 0.028 |
| Forceful                         | 0.163 | 0.020 | 0.134 | 0.074 |
| Pleasant                         | 0.156 | 0.064 | 0.106 | 0.194 |
| Friendly                         | 0.114 | 0.150 | −0.049 | 0.562 |
| Helpful                          | 0.146 | 0.052 | −0.141 | 0.084 |
| Understanding                    | 0.001 | 0.988 | −0.242 | 0.002 |
| Cooperative                      | 0.198 | 0.003 | −0.168 | 0.015 |
| Motivating                       | 0.265 | <0.001 | −0.144 | 0.027 |
| Intuitive                        | −0.006 | 0.936 | −0.191 | 0.018 |

Source: Own calculations
6. Conclusions

According to the respondents, Czech women who manage subordinates are “cooperative”, “intuitive” and “considerate” and the least characterized as “aggressive”. Moreover, they prefer dedicated co-worker, are not “idea-fighters”, and do not favour “hostile conflict resolution”. Women at top managerial positions are rather “forceful” but are not “aggressive”.

Female respondents viewed women who manage people as more “cooperative” and “considerate” in comparison with male respondents; male respondents viewed women as more “aggressive” and preferred “hostile conflict resolution” in comparison with female respondents. However, the proportions of positive replies are lower than the negative. Female respondents viewed women at top managerial positions as more “motivating”, “cooperative” and “forceful” in comparison with male respondents.

Czech men managing subordinates are according to respondents rather “forceful” and usually are not “job-security inspiring”, “considerate” or “intuitive”. Mostly, they are “goal oriented”, but not “rewarding equitably”. Men at top managerial positions are rather “forceful”, “predatory” and “aggressive”. Usually they are not “helpful”, “friendly”, “understanding”, “intuitive” and “pleasant”.

Male respondents viewed men managing people as more “considerate”, “intuitive” and “cooperative” in comparison with female respondents. Female respondents viewed men managing people as more “aggressive”, “forceful”, preferring “employees only out-of-work activities” and “goal oriented” in comparison with male respondents. Male respondents viewed men at the top managerial positions as more “understanding”, “cooperative”, “intuitive” and “motivating” in comparison with female respondents.

The results demonstrate similar, documented findings based on the respondent population, from Western Europe and the U.S. in that the managerial style of women was viewed differently from that of men. Women have the potential to offer different approaches and characteristics to management, namely cooperation, intuition and consideration. However, when assessed, both genders once elevated to top managerial positions demonstrate a similar management style, often identified with the male profile. Hence, the system of career advancement is tailored to prefer candidates with male characteristics. Therefore, preferring women who demonstrate these characteristics are promoted. Consequently, there are limited, if any, opportunities to enrich Czech top management with clearly female managerial characteristics and approaches.

The situation in the Czech Republic is more complicated than in Western Europe given the current conditions when upholding the female principle in management. Success depends on both government policy and corporate strategies tailored to assist talented women to combine their career and family-life balance. Given current global needs and shifting business strategies towards sustainability, the ability to connect and deal sensitively with a wider range of stakeholders, seek long-term relationships and mutually beneficial consensus, the female managerial approach is more suitable.

Responses to the questionnaire are an expression of respondent attitudes rather than an objectively measured result of hard data from valid psycho-diagnostic assessment methods. Thus, it is necessary to view the results from this perspective. The sample size is sufficient for the reliability and validity of the results and thereby eliminates the distortion of individual attitudes of the respondent. The interpretation requires caution with regard to culturally and historically established stereotypes in the attitude towards gender-based management.
The results indicate that male and female managers, in the opinion of respondents, differ significantly in certain elements of leadership style. The added value of women in management may lie mainly at the qualitative level, in their greater willingness to work together to find solutions that contribute to the creation of long-term relationships through a significantly lower propensity to aggressive solutions. In this regard, women contribute to long-term mutually balanced relations between the interacting parties.

Men, when compared with women in the survey, are viewed as more aggressive, and rely on solutions from a position of strength. Strength includes both business, but also administrative strength. The disadvantaged weaker party in a relationship is often paralyzed by fear, hence hesitates to contribute innovative ideas and is limited to actions “do not spoil anything; do not instigate aggression from stronger party”. In doing so, the weaker terminates the original relationship as soon as an alternative solution is found. This includes the possibilities of a new business partner or position.

The feminine element in the management of this perspective encourages innovation, which is not based on a competition type “I win, you lose”, based on the principle of aggressive struggle for victory. The feminine element in management contributes to a preference for collective success, whether it is enterprise, community or even the state. An important added value of women in management focuses on a long-term sustainable partnership of controversial parties with different aims, motivations and strategies that primarily focus on “win-lost” that renders impaired sustainability in the long term.

Additional research in the future concentrates on a detailed analysis of corporate career progression that includes enablers and inhibitors at both public and private institutions. Particular interest is given to the determination of the factors relative to the advancement of women with predominantly masculine qualities to top managerial positions.

Enlightened companies design diversity programmes, create policies enabling parents/mothers to combine work with their parenthood/motherhood, because they realized the human capital potential they can use or lose to more enlightened competitors. It might be the fact that they realize the importance of high quality management that brings then better business results as demonstrated in the above mentioned studies.

The authors asked themselves, how can higher share of women in management (the above mentioned studies indicate 30% as the critical mass) change the leadership style, way of thinking, negotiating and decision making. The key finding and main conclusion is higher use of “cooperative”, “intuitive” and “considerate” elements in female leadership compared to higher use of “aggressiveness” and “forcefulness” in the male leadership. These conclusions authors see as the added value of women in management that can change the corporate strategies and organizational cultures, consequently shaping businesses so that to have more “social overlap” and perceive their co-workers, suppliers, customers, communities in which it operates as partners with whom to build long-term mutually beneficial relationships.

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