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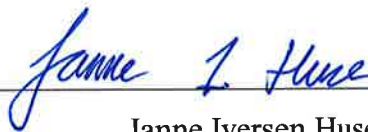
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Janne Iversen Huse

ABSTRACT

While previous leadership literature has focused on the single relationship between gender and employability of top executives, this thesis contributes by exploring how the risk factors of men and women are unequally interpreted in the evaluation process. With the use of an experimental design, four equivalent résumés – two male and two female – were both rated and ranked by participants of candidates' employability. I predicted that women would be rated and ranked lower than their male counterpart, and that the equivalent risk factor would be evaluated differently between the genders. Findings from a sample of 107 top executives and professional executive search agents from several of Norway's largest firms, as well as non-professionals, indicate that men and women have unequal opportunities for being appointed in a top executive selection. The results revealed that the predicted likelihood of being appointed as top executive was more in favor of a male candidate. Even though female candidates were ranked higher, implicit ratings revealed distinctive evidence as male candidates received the highest ratings. Hence, implicitly favoring male candidates. This was particularly true when participants were male. Moreover, further findings revealed that employers were inconsistent with their evaluations when rating and ranking candidates – showing tendencies of giving socially desirable responses.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Hiring the right top executive has become an important business decision (Mondy & Mondy, 2012), as the employment of a wrong candidate may harm the organization (Newell, 2005, p. 115). Despite the consequences of wrong hiring, companies continue to hire poor leaders that might be a potential risk to the organization. Research has found that human resource (HR) professionals predict greater difficulty filling leadership positions in the future as top executives affect the whole organization and play the most important role in a firm's performance (Eriksen, 1996, p. 110; Fitza, 2014; Hambrick & Quigley, 2014). Thus, hiring the right top executive is important and relies much on an equal, fair and good selection process. However, leadership literature claims that women are exposed to unequal and unfair opportunities in the selection process and are thus excluded for a top executive position.

Despite female's growing presence in the workforce, progress at the top executive position level remains limited as women are found to be underrepresented (Bertrand & Hallock, 2001; Dezsö & Ross, 2012; Lee & James, 2007). While the 'glass ceiling' phenomenon has been studied from several research perspectives, there is a paucity of knowledge on how stereotypic judgments contribute to the exclusion of women in top executive selections in Norway. The Norwegian labor market is characterized with strong patterns of occupational sex segregation (Seierstad, 2011), which Stockdale and Nadler (2013, p. 68) define as "disproportional representation of one gender or the other in the workforce in general and within individual careers in specific". Trends in the Norwegian labor market reveal that top female executives represent a minority of the large corporations (Gulbrandsen et.al., 2002, p. 48). Statistics show that 70 per cent of Norway's top executives in 2015 were men (SSB, 2017). Further, since 2008 there have been 44 new recruitments of top executives in Norway, in which none of whom were a female (Svanemyr, Lorch-Falch, & Gulseth, 2015). Hence, in terms of top executive positions, trends indicate Norway to be highly occupational sex segregated (Ellingsæter & Solheim, 2002).

Biblarz, Bengtson and Bucur (1996) argued that occupational sex segregation is most likely caused by gender-based discrimination that often occurs in patterns,

either across occupations (horizontally) or within the hierarchy of occupations (vertically). In this context, discrimination refers to the unequal treatment of individuals or groups, such as women (Midtbøen, 2016). As this thesis aims to look at hierarchical inequality between genders, the thesis focuses on vertical sex segregation (i.e. hierarchy view of sex segregation).

Literature within the field of genders impact in organizations emphasizes that concepts used to evaluate candidates for positions are gendered social constructs (Acker, 2006; Holgersson, 2013; Van den Brink & Benschop, 2012). Scholars have argued that males are advantaged in employability for top executive positions (Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Keloharju, Knüpfer, & Tåg, 2016; Riach & Rich, 2002) as top executive positions are male-dominated. This creates top executive stereotypes in favor of men, which enables employer discrimination. Female workers are, for instance, associated with high turnover rates (Barth & Dale-Olsen, 2009), poorer performance in competitive situations (Hopland & Nyhus, 2016), and being an indirect cost (Anker, 1997), which causes representative heuristics and affect employer's decisions in top executive selections.

Even though some researchers have found evidence of biases in top executive selection decisions, others discover the use of more rational approaches (e.g. Cable & Judge, 1997; Graves & Powell, 1995). These rational approaches rather exclude candidates that might put the organization in risky positions (Nixon & Kerr, 2011, p. 2). However, despite the rational risk factors, patterns reveal that women are associated with risks, as Torbjørn Gjelstad (headhunter and chairman of Korn Ferry) stated:

When the choice of a CEO (Chief Executive Officer) stands between a qualified man or woman, it is rather the experience of risk given the choice to tilt in favor men. Recruiters often end up going for someone who resembles them, one who represents the least risk – the leaders they feel will do the best job and the type they have any experience with before, which in Norway tend to be more men than women (Myklemyr, 2015).

This thesis therefore examines whether employers are biased or rational in their evaluations of top executives by testing whether gender is affecting what individuals perceive as a risk. Moreover, it examines whether employers disfavor females with equal credentials and risk factors as their male counterpart in the selection process of a top executive. Several justifications for the focus on this thesis, both empirical and methodological, will be highlighted by exploring gaps and shortcomings in the existing literature. This thesis contributes to previous research by exploring how the risk factors of men and women are interpreted in the evaluation process. Moreover, while a great deal of previous research has been written on many aspects of female leaders by studying the single relationship between gender and employability of top executives, this thesis extends previous research by examining the relationship between risk, gender and employability. Accordingly, the research question of this thesis is:

Is gender affecting what individuals perceive as a risk when evaluating candidates' potential for a top executive position?

2. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

The theoretical perspective section of this thesis distinguishes between a variety of economic and non-economic theories. These two aspects of occupational sex segregation are found necessary in order to explore the theoretical understanding of vertical sex segregation, and thus helpful in order to answer the research question.

From an economic point of view, neo-classical- and labor market segmentation theories illustrate how the Norwegian labor market is discriminating certain groups (i.e. women). Consider the supply and demand economic model where labor supply for most individual occupations has a positive slope since wage differences among occupations influence occupational choice. In such, an increase in the demand side of e.g. top executives would require candidates to acquire the right skills, level of education and training for the specific profession (Frank & Bernanke, 2004, pp. 329-330). Furthermore, the negative demand slope illustrates the fact that shifts in the equilibrium of workers in a given profession often adjust much slower. Thus, the effects of an increase in the demand for top executives may lead to higher costs depending on how long it takes to prepare an individual to enter the profession (Frank & Bernanke, 2004, pp. 328-330). In addition, non-economic theories explain vertical sex segregation by considering gender-based discrimination in the selection process of appointing top executives. Even though this thesis distinguishes between economic and non-economic theories, research on vertical sex segregation argues that some of the theories overlap (Seierstad, 2011, p. 59).

2.1 Economic Theory: Rational and Efficient Functioning

From an economic point of view, neo-classical and labor market segmentation theories are argued to contribute in explaining how patterns of occupational sex segregation exist (Anker, 1997). The economically active population in Norway today is, according to Gangås (2008), gender balanced. Likewise, international rankings of gender equality reveal that Norway is one of the most gender equal countries in the world (UNDP, 2015; WEF, 2016). However, Seierstad (2011, p. 3) found that Norwegian organizations provide a set of institutional conditions that encourage forms of strong patterns of vertical segregation. In addition, Gangås (2008) claimed that typically male or female jobs still exist in the

Norwegian labor market. The opposing findings of high rankings on both equality and segregation have been extensively studied and are referred to as the Norwegian paradox (Højgaard, 2002; Kvande, 1999). Blackburn, Browne, Brooks and Jarman (2002) argued that the paradox of high rankings on both equality and segregation might be due to the fact that studies combine both horizontal and vertical segregation, rather than looking at them separately.

Anker (1997) claimed that labor market segmentation theory is better at explaining vertical occupational sex segregation, which is of interest for this thesis. Researchers argue that occupational sex segregation patterns of employment can be explained by individual- merit, skills, qualifications, preferences and choices, as well as institutional- factors, preferences and expectations (Acker, 1990; Hakim, 2000). Moreover, from an economic point of view, it can be explained by a combination of the labor supply and demand conditions (Anker, 1997; Rubery, Smith, & Fagan, 1999). According to neo-classical economics and labor market segregation theories, workers seek the best paying jobs with regards to their own personal endowments and preferences (labor supply side), while employers try to maximize productivity and minimize costs in order to maximize profits (labor demand side).

2.1.1 Labor Supply Side

Labor supply side theories focus on why certain genders ‘prefer’ certain types of occupations, and are built on gender differences with interest in, preparation for, as well as willingness to participate in, various jobs (Ridgeway & England, 2007). Moreover, it focuses on the rational choice of individuals’ preferences and choices of certain types of occupations with regards to their experience, education and constraints. Human capital and preference theory are further used to explain the supply side of occupational sex segregation from an economic point of view.

Human capital is an individual's cumulative stock of education, training, skills, experience, intelligence, energy, work habits, trustworthiness and initiative that affect the value of a worker’s marginal product (Frank & Bernanke, 2004, p. 331; Terjesen, Sealy, & Singh, 2009). Human capital theory is, according to Frank and Bernanke (2004, p. 331), referred to as “a theory of pay determination that says a worker’s wage will be proportional to his or her stock of human capital”. A key

argument for the patterns of occupational sex segregation is, according to this theory, that some occupations pay better than others because they require larger stocks of human capital (Frank & Bernanke, 2004, p. 331). For example, most top executive positions require a high level of education, e.g. a master's degree. Heilman (1997) claimed that women's absence in top level executive positions is a consequence of the lack of women's human capital in women's career trajectories. Further, Burke and Mattis (2000, p. 112) argued that women do not hold the right human capital needed for a top executive position. Ellingsæter (2013) agreed with their argument, by claiming that gender gaps in top executive selections exist due to differences in women's and men's education. Yet, WEF (2016, p. 52) reveals that a higher number of women in Norway are enrolled in higher education. 42.3 per cent women of the Norwegian population were taking a higher education in 2015, compared to 27.9 per cent men (SSB, 2016). Hence, as argued by Heilman himself, Heilman's (1997) theory is found to lack empirical support and thus the further researcher's arguments can be questioned (Seierstad, 2011, p. 61).

Also, Hakim's (1991; 2000) arguments build on the idea of human capital theory and the importance of 'choice'. Hakim (2004, p. 4) argued that women's choice and preferences affect their situation, rather than social structural, institutional factors and external forces (e.g. demography, policies). She argued that changes or conditions in the society and the labor market (i.e. the contraceptive revolution, the equal opportunity revolution, the expansion of white collar occupations, the creation of jobs for secondary earners, and the increasing importance of attitudes, values, and personal preferences in the lifestyle choices of prosperous, liberal modern societies) are producing options and opportunities for women, which give women a choice in relation to work and private life (Hakim 1991; 2000). Nevertheless, gender roles are also an expression of chosen gender identities (Hakim, 2000, p. 273). Hakim's preference theory has been criticized, as researchers claim that her arguments of women's free choice between the roles of home and work is not the case. While Hakim (1991; 2000; 2004) argued that women's position is a product of their own preferences, other researchers rather claimed that women's decisions are made in a constrained context, i.e. not free, as preference may shape choices instead of determining them (Crompton & Harris, 1998; Healy, 1999). Despite heavily contested, Hakim's preference theory is

highly respected and has been a great contribution in occupational sex segregation analysis and literature (Glover & Kirton, 2006, p. 16).

2.1.2 Labor Demand Side

In contrast to the supply side, the labor demand side of economic theories focuses on why employers prefer to hire certain genders for certain occupations, and why men's and women's career opportunities and promotions differ within firms. The demand is, according to Anker (1997, p. 2), "built on the idea that employers will try to maximize profits and minimize costs, which can potentially lead to discrimination against certain groups".

Statistical discrimination theory is used to explain the demand side of vertical occupational sex segregation from an economic point of view. The theory is built on the assumptions that there exist differences in distinct groups of workers (e.g. women), as well as high information costs associated with recruitment and promotion decisions in organizations (Anker, 1997). These differences encourage discriminatory behavior in employers. Anker (1997) argued that women are viewed as high-cost workers due to certain high indirect labor costs associated with female workers. These indirect labor costs are related to the fact that women are found to be more likely to be late to work (Anker, 1997); take parental leave (Evertsson & Duvander, 2011); have higher labor turnover rates (Barth & Dale-Olsen, 2009; Sicherman, 1996); be more averse to competition, perform poorer in competitive situations (Hopland & Nyhus, 2016); be less productive (Tomaskovic-Devey & Skaggs, 1999) and flexible (Slaughter, 2012). These factors are found to be associated with costs of employing women. Therefore, according to the labor demand side of occupational sex segregation, it is argued that employers act rationally when they employ fewer people from high cost groups (Anker, 1997). However, Tomaskovic-Devey and Skaggs (1999) also found that differences in e.g. productivity are inconsistent, thus criticizing the statistical discrimination theory by claiming that one cannot state that productivity of women or minorities is lower than that of men. Thus, statistical discrimination theory provides an explanation to how some occupations are almost entirely male even though many women have greater ability, more education, etc. than many men (Anker, 1997, pp. 9-10).

Given this body of work from both supply and demand side of economic theory, one can assume that females are less attractive candidates for top executive positions in Norway. Accordingly, I expect that male candidates will be more attractive for the top executive position, and thus the first hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 1: *Female candidates will be ranked lower than male candidates when candidates are selected for a top executive position.*

In addition, evidence from empirical studies reveal that genders impact differs in employers' perception of the preferred leader profile as employers are more likely to select candidates similar to themselves (Garcia, Posthuma, & Colella, 2008; Sears & Rowe, 2003). Moreover, it confirms that men and women cannot be considered as uniform groups when examining leadership preferences (Bellou, 2011; Birkelund, Goodman, & Rose, 1996; Garcia et.al., 2008). The similarity-attraction theory (Roebken, 2010) or 'similar-to-me' effect (Sears & Rowe, 2003) predicts how candidates' similar demographic and attitudinal variables tend to bias employers' judgements in employee selection. In this manner, Scott and Brown (2006) argued that gender stereotypes are important for understanding how followers develop different prototypes of the preferred leader, as they lead individuals' information processing in regards to leadership traits and behaviors. Gender stereotyping refers to "the distinct psychological characteristics that are believed to describe men or women to a greater or lesser extent" (Bellou, 2011, p. 2821), and is found to be damaging for women in leadership roles (Kunda & Spencer, 2003). Building on this, empirical evidence reveals that the stereotype bias effect results in a preference for male leaders. However, research on in-group stereotype bias effect (i.e. own gender preference) claims that women favor female leaders, while men prefer male leaders (Hoyt, Simon, & Reid, 2009). Even though men are viewed to be more culturally valued than women, this automatic in-group bias is shown to be stronger for women compared to men (Rudman & Goodwin, 2004). Moreover, researchers argue that men typically show a neutral gender attitude (Nosek & Banaji, 2001). These findings are in line with other researchers (see e.g. Boyce & Herd, 2003; Duehr & Bono, 2006; Nosek & Banaji, 2001; Rudman & Goodwin, 2004) who have found in-group bias in stereotypes among women and neutral in-group bias among men. However, empirical evidence of leader gender bias is mixed, and is often dependent on whether the

study methodology involves actual leaders in a workplace that followers know (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

Overall, these findings suggest that the demand for top executives relies on gender-based preferences and stereotypes, which indicates a preference for hiring female candidates by female followers, and male candidates by male followers. Hence, for this thesis purpose, I examine whether there is a pattern of in-group bias in the selection for a top executive in Norway, and propose that:

Hypothesis 2: *Female candidates will be ranked higher than male candidates with equal credentials by female participants, when candidates are selected for a top executive position*

2.2 Non-Economic Theory: Bias in the Recruitment and Selection Process

One of the main criticisms of economic theories is that they lack consideration for non-economic and non-labor market variables of why occupational sex segregation exists (Anker, 1997). Therefore, this section presents empirical findings on non-economic theories related to gender bias in the recruitment and selection process which are crucial for understanding patterns of vertical occupational sex segregation.

2.2.1 Rational Exclusion of Risky Candidates

Employer selection of candidates for a position is limited by rules prohibiting discrimination of certain groups of society (Hornblom, Olsby, & Venger, 2012, pp. 39-40). Norwegian law prohibits discrimination based on gender, ethnicity, religion or belief, disability and sexual orientation, gender identity and gender expression. Other than revealing the candidate's gender, a résumé gives an overview of the candidate's characteristics. According to Riach & Rich (2002), 90 per cent of the discrimination occurs in the first step of the selection process, where selection is based on candidates' résumés. Kahneman (2011) explains how individuals make decisions they believe are rational because of limited cognitive abilities. He explains that individuals commit conjunction fallacy decisions due to representative heuristics, i.e. utilization of judgmental shortcuts that quickly get individuals where they need to go, but at the cost of occasionally sending individuals off course. In the case of deciding between a male and female

candidate, representative heuristics may cause employers to select the male candidate. In so, representative heuristics make employers believe they make a rational choice as they may associate women with costs, risk, and inefficiency, and men as the better choice as male leaders dominate the market. Nevertheless, as discussed above, even though research has shown that the candidate's and employer's gender is biased in the screening and hiring stage (Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Cole, Field, & Giles, 2004) while laws prohibit gender discrimination, there are certain characteristics that are considered as exceptional, and thus rational, to exclude candidates who are not suitable for employment.

According to Newell (2005, p. 116), the key is to find selection methods that are able to predict 'good' candidates from 'bad' ones. Thus, one needs to clarify who not to hire. Researchers claim that there are certain candidates HR professionals avoid, as these candidates are related to factors that might put the organization in risky positions (Nixon & Kerr, 2011, p. 2). Nixon and Kerr (2011, p. 1) define risk as "somebody or something likely to cause injury, damage or loss". Although existing empirical research in this domain is limited, researchers have identified several risk factors that firms are challenged by in the hiring process; criminal record (Young & Powell, 2015), fraud, theft, drug- and alcohol abuse patterns (Brody, 2010), lying on résumés or applications (Babcock, 2003; Prater & Kiser, 2002), workplace violence, terrorism, sex offences, unstable turnaround times, unstable credit history, accident leaks and sabotage, identity theft (Nixon & Kerr, 2011, p. 2), as well as others. These are factors that are found to harm the organization and thus candidates an employer does not want to hire.

Prater and Kiser (2002) argued that several firms do a poor job checking candidates. In a study of 310 small businesses and the Fortune 100, they found that many individuals applying for a job fake their résumés and lie about their skills sets, previous job titles, dates of employment and employers. Moreover, the study revealed that 76 per cent of their respondents have either caught applicants or employees to lie. Previous studies reveal that a high number of employers have obtained a position in a firm where they lied on their résumés (Dunn, 1995), and that 33.3 per cent of all executives lie about past degrees, jobs, and responsibilities (Koehn, 1999). All in 'just to' appeal better, more favorably and qualified than they actually are. Moreover, the higher the management level is, the more

beneficial is lying as the level of competitiveness increases at the top executive level (Prater & Kiser, 2002). Lying on résumés is seen as a serious problem as it can cause financial and legal burdens for organizations (e.g. recruitment and hiring replacements, potentially lost customers, higher costs) (Babcock, 2003).

Zeidner (2014) studied the link between applicants with criminal records and hiring decisions. She found that employers believe ex-offenders increase workplace crime and thus ban the hiring of ex-offenders. Further, candidates with drug or alcohol abuse patterns are a risk to the organization as it may reveal consequences of intoxicated or reckless driving (Brody, 2010). In addition, résumé fraud may at a minimum lead to an unfair recruitment where the firm recruits dishonest and less qualified and productive candidates. At the worst, it can lead to theft, violation, costs, and loss of profit, etc. (Prater & Kiser, 2002).

Building on these findings, and empirical evidence revealing that women with equal credentials as their male peers are exposed to denied appointment to top executive positions (Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Keloharju et.al., 2016; Riach & Rich, 2002), one can assume that candidates with a risk factor are less attractive in a top executive selection. Therefore, I propose two hypotheses regarding risks and their relation to the candidate's gender:

Hypothesis 3: *Different risk factors will influence candidates' ranking, when candidates are selected for a top executive position*

and

Hypothesis 4: *Candidates' gender will influence participants' ranking of candidates with equal risk factors, when candidates are selected for a top executive position.*

2.2.2 Selection and Evaluation of Top Executive Candidates

Hiring the right leader is of paramount importance and is dependent on effective recruitment and selection procedures, which aim to select the right candidate and reject the wrong ones. According to Joyce, Nohria and Roberson (2003), hiring the right leader in the top position stimulates organizations to prosper and grow as top executives account for 14 per cent of the variance in organizational performance. This indicates that there is a huge payoff if the selection is done

right. Also, wrong hiring may cause destroying effects. While effective or successful leadership research have been extensively addressed (Kelloway, Mullen, & Francis, 2006), little research has investigated the organizational effects of ineffective, negative or destructive leadership (Tepper, 2000). Destructive leadership is a leadership behavior that results in damage to the organization and thus can be seen as a wrong hire (Sheard, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2013). As there are many concepts that arguably fall within the category of destructive leadership (e.g. toxic leader, intolerable bosses, petty tyrants, harassing leaders, tyrannical leadership behavior), Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad (2007, p. 208) define destructive leadership as “the systematic and repeated behavior by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organization by undermining and/or sabotaging the organization’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates”. Accordingly, wrong hire is likely to have a number of negative consequences on both the individual and organizational level, such as low levels of job satisfaction, increased negative feelings, decline in employee performance, high turnover rates (Erickson, Shaw, & Branch, 2015) and can cost up to one and a half annual salary (Skorstad, 2015, p. 325). Research on organizational selection, whether it is the selection of a leader for an organization or any other key organizational member, found that, ideally, selection methods should help to identify the most suitable person for a position from a wide range of possible candidates (Dipboye, Smith, & Howell, 1994). According to Conger and Riggio (2007, p. 14), the selection process of a leader includes the production of high-quality candidates who are well suited to the position, and the conduction of a fair selection process. However, research reveals that women are exposed to unfair selection, unequal opportunities and risk denied appointment to top executive positions in the labor market (Riach & Rich, 2002).

Résumé screening is one of the most frequently used selection tools (Cole et.al., 2014; Cole, Rubin, Field, & Giles, 2007) and an important phase of the personnel selection process (Schmidt & Zimmerman, 2004). Yet, despite the much used method, researchers still claim a lack of a solid understanding of the résumé evaluation process (Thoms, McMasters, Robersts, & Dombkowi, 1999). Previous experimental work has documented a complex configuration of résumé content and employability judgement and found that employers weigh each

content area differently (Cole et.al., 2007). Yet, little evidence exists that clarifies the different weights employers give to the different areas of candidates' résumés. It is further known that candidates may increase their chances of being shortlisted based on the content information of résumés (Knouse, 1994). Based on the above research, it is likely that gender is viewed as a shortlisted variable. Consequently, understanding how employers integrate candidates' résumé information is critical for the examination of gender bias patterns.

Almost 40 years ago, Arvey (1979) revealed that females have more disadvantages in evaluations than their male counterparts in selection processes. These are women found to have equal abilities, qualifications, skills and credentials as their male peers. More recent, newer research reveals the same pattern (see e.g. Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Keloharju et.al., 2016; Tyler & McCullough, 2010; Van den Brink, Holgersson, Linghag, & Deé, 2013). Van den Brink et.al. (2013) investigated evaluations of female and male potential managers and found that men's strengths were inflated while their weaknesses downplayed. In contrast, women's strengths were downplayed while weaknesses inflated. Men appeared more favorable as the ideal leader, while picturing the equal female candidate became more difficult. Their research is similar to Tyler and McCullough's (2010) research, which found that women are evaluated more negatively in hiring-decisions when women's résumés violate gender stereotypes. Nevertheless, male employers evaluated them more negatively than female employees. These findings highlight that gender biases emerge at the earliest phase of the decision-process.

For this reason, as the purpose of the present study is to investigate whether women are perceived as a risk in the selection evaluation, it becomes important to examine how the evaluation is done. Building on previous research, which suggest that men's qualifications are often valued higher than women's, I propose two hypotheses related to candidates' qualifications:

Hypothesis 5a: *Male candidates' weaknesses will be rated lower than female's*
and

Hypothesis 5b: *Male candidates' strengths will be rated higher than female's*

2.2.3 Identifying Implicit Gender Bias

Past studies indicate that behavior is shaped by implicit or unintended biases, stemming from repeated exposure to pervasive cultural stereotypes (Devine, 1989). Identifying implicit gender bias is difficult as discriminatory behaviors are particularly vulnerable to validity threat of socially desirable non-discriminating responses (Pazy, 1992) that are not identifiable in large-scale quantitative data (Bygren, Erlandsson, & Gähler, 2017). Thus, it becomes difficult to test conclusive evidence of systematic employer discrimination. Marlowe, Schneider and Nelson (1996) argued that both ratings and rankings of candidates in selection decisions are sensitive to gender bias and may reveal discriminatory behaviors. Because both ratings and rankings may be used in practice, it is important to determine whether biases are evident in either type of measure. Derived from previous findings, I thus include both rating and ranking measures in the analysis, and propose that:

Hypothesis 6: *Male candidates will be rated higher than female candidates with equal credentials when candidates are selected for a top executive position.*

2.3 Theoretical Perspective Conclusion

The Norwegian paradox is used as a metaphor for high rankings on both equality and segregation in the Norwegian labor market. Theory related to vertical occupational sex segregation reveals how labor supply and demand arguments from an economic point of view can help to explain the underlying causes of why women are often excluded in top executive positions in Norway. Economic theory explains how decisions related to high cost groups (i.e. a risk group) is a rational choice to steer away from. Thus, as women are associated with costs, this indicates that the employers act rationally when they systematically screen out women and employ a male candidate over a female candidate for a top executive position. Further, non-economic theory reveals that top executive candidates are stereotypic gender-based selected, rather than selected based on their objective qualifications. This is due to the ideal view of a male leader as leadership is viewed as culturally masculine. As research has shown, when choosing the right candidate regardless of gender, employers tend to act rational by choosing individuals they feel familiar and safe with – people they remark with. Employers tend to choose male candidates when the decision has to be made between a male

or female candidate due to dominance of male leaders; women being associated with costs; and being less effectiveness. Moreover, an indication of choosing the safe over something that is less safe, and thus risky. These stereotypes affect individuals' representative heuristics, which may cause individuals to believe that selecting a male over a female candidate is a rational decision. However, there are certain factors that are considered as a rationally approached exclusion in the selection process, as some factors may be a risk which potentially could harm the organization. While employers have the right to hire the right candidate, they also have a legal duty not to hire unfit candidates who pose a threat or harm to others or the organization.

The presented theories explain how steering away from high cost (i.e. risk) groups (such as women) is viewed as a rational decision among employers. Hence, one can assume that hiring a female top executive is an irrational decision as theories indicate that female candidates present a greater risk than male candidates. Moreover, the above-mentioned research requires a further investigation, and thus this thesis aims to look at whether gender is affecting what individuals perceive as a risk when evaluating candidates' potential for a top executive position.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants and Data Collection

I contacted most of the top executives listed as Norway's largest companies in 2016 in terms of revenue¹, along with several of the best known executive search firms whom specifically recruit leaders. I was able to recruit 107 participants to the experiment. The sample consisted of 73 professionals (top executives and executive search agents) and 34 non-professionals (students, friends, etc.). The thesis included both professionals and non-professionals to provide a more thorough portrait of the current perception of gender and risk in Norway. Appendix 1 reports participants' individual characteristics and professionalism. The professionals were either professional executive search agents (n = 46) and/or individuals with leader experience (n = 69), either top executives (n = 26), middle managers (n = 41) or project leaders (n = 2). There was a total of 46.7 per cent females and 53.3 per cent male respondents, where women accounted for 15.4 per cent of the top executives, and 53.5 per cent of other executives. This confirms the lack of women in top executive positions, and reflects that women are more likely to have a middle manager position in Norway. 43.0 per cent of participants were 41 years old or older, 30.8 per cent were 25-40 years old, while 26.3 percent were between 18-24 years old. 57.9 per cent had 5-10 years (or more) work experience, 27.1 per cent had worked for 2-5 years, while 15 per cent did not have any work experience. 8 participants had a college, university or higher education diploma (approximately 48.6 per cent), and 62 participants had worked for over 5 years (approximately 58 per cent). All participants rated and ranked the four candidates through a web based survey, making a total of 428 observations (4 candidate profiles x 107 participants).

3.2 Design, Procedure and Experimental Manipulation

This thesis aims to test whether candidates' gender is affecting what individuals perceive as a risk in hiring a top executive. Thus, I had participants rate and rank four candidates for a position as top executive.

¹ Largestcompanies.com lists 100 of Norway's largest companies in terms of revenue. <http://www.largestcompanies.com/toplists/norway/largest-companies-by-turnover>

Each participant received an e-mail with instructions, case description and the four candidate profiles. Participants were told that the supposed purpose of the study was to gather information about top executive selections, and were not informed about the real purpose of the study. All participants were guaranteed anonymity. The participants were instructed to answer some demographic questions, then they were asked to answer a few leadership questions in order to get to know the participants view on leadership. Further, they were instructed to carefully read through the case introduction and the four candidate profiles. The case description introduced a company (Papp AS), which was in a need for change when the company was looking for a new top executive (see Appendix 2). Participants were then asked to review and evaluate (i.e. rate and rank) the four candidates qualified for the position. These four candidate profiles were varied in a 2 x 4 within-subjects experimental design, making a total of eight different candidates. The independent variables were candidates' gender (female or male) and candidates' risk factors (alcoholic abuse patterns, cheated on his/her résumé, previously been fired, and an overoptimism individual). All participants received and evaluated the same four candidate versions, which were randomly assigned in the name of two female and two male candidates where the candidate's name (i.e. gender) was manipulated. E.g. one participant evaluated a female résumé, while another evaluated the identical résumé where the candidate was a male. Thus, candidate's gender was manipulated to allow a statistical exploration of the risk factors on selection probability.

A pilot study was first conducted to develop four equally good candidates using a small sample (N = 15) in which all the variables were examined. The aim of the pilot study was to 'try out' the survey where participants were asked to look for spelling mistakes, practical issues, design errors, identify logistical problems or unclear questions. This was done to prevent survey errors, missing values and low responds rate (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

3.2.1 Profile Versions and Distributions

In order to create a realistic situation for executive selection, I used information on real top executives as inspiration when developing the four candidate profiles. Top executives' names, age, hometown, education, hobbies, and present and previous work history was mixed and changed into similar and equal information,

in order to make it impossible to identify who the real top executive was. The information on the résumés were realistic; education, companies, positions, and hobbies. All candidates had an education and work history that was relevant for the job position, i.e. making them qualified for the relevant position. The four different candidates had minor differences, of which two were males (“Ole-Gustav Lindeberg” and “Per Fagernes”) and two were females (“Irene Juliane Hansen” and “Trude Iversen”) (see Appendix 3).

The candidate profiles consisted of two parts. First, a short résumé that included the candidate’s personal details and work trajectories, such as the candidate's name and a silhouette picture of the candidate (revealing the gender), age, e-mail, hometown, information about current and previous work experience and education, and information about the candidate’s hobbies and interests. Second, each profile version also included HR background information of the candidate, where the participant was introduced to four strengths and four weaknesses linked to the candidate. These strengths and weaknesses were ‘normal’ information, which is not shown to have any empirical documented effect on leadership. Among the weaknesses, each candidate was given a specific risk factor that is shown to be a perceived risk to an organization (see e.g. Brody 2010; Babcock, 2003; Nixon & Kerr, 2011, p. 2). These four risk factors were: alcoholic abuse patterns, résumé cheating, previously fired employee, and an overoptimistic individual. These risk factors were not directly introduced, but rather introduced indirectly as e.g. ‘the candidate seems to not have finished some of the subjects/degrees written on his/her résumé’ (see Appendix 3).

To manipulate the independent variables, each candidate had four different profiles of him-/herself. Moreover, the gender conditions were rotated such that all candidates would appear an equal number of times in each type of profile version. In these variations, the individual background information (education, work experience, hobbies etc.) was constant and slightly equal in terms of qualifications, but the candidate's gender and risk factor differed between the four candidates. In this way, a balanced design was obtained because all candidates were rated by approximately the same number of participants in each of the design conditions.

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Alcoholic abuse patterns	Ole Gustav Lindeberg (M1)	Trude Iversen (F1)	Per Fagernes (M1)	Irene Juliane Hansen (F1)
Cheated on his/her résumé	Irene Juliane Hansen (F2)	Ole Gustav Lindeberg (M2)	Trude Iversen (F2)	Per Fagernes (M2)
Previously fired candidate	Per Fagernes (M3)	Irene Juliane Hansen (F3)	Ole Gustav Lineberg (M3)	Trude Iversen (F3)
Overoptimistic candidate	Trude Iversen (F4)	Per Fagernes (M4)	Irene Juliane Hansen (F4)	Ole Gustav Lindeberg (M4)

Figure 3.1 Overview of the different groups, risk factors and genders.

F1 = Female candidate with alcoholic abuse patterns

M1 = Male candidate with alcoholic abuse patterns

F2 = Female candidate who cheated on her résumé

M2 = Male candidate who cheated on his résumé

F3 = Female candidate who has previously been fired

M3 = Male candidate who has previously been fired

F4 = Female overoptimistic candidate

M4 = Male overoptimistic candidate

The 107 participants were randomly assigned to the same four groups, and rated and ranked only the four candidates in their respective group. Group 1 had 23 participants (16 professionals, 7 non-professionals); Group 2 had 28 participants (21 professionals, 7 non-professionals); Group 3 had 29 participants (18 professionals, 11 non-professionals); and Group 4 had 27 participants (18 professionals, 9 non-professionals). Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010, p 356) suggest that the number of participants should be close to equal in each group. However, other researchers argue that this issue is easily accommodated for when running a general linear model (GLM), as well as other statistical methods (Hair et.al., 2010; Shaw & Mitchell-Olds, 1993). Since the group sizes slightly differs, and all hypothesis are run by a GLM, I accept some inequality between groups.

3.2.2 Ratings and Rankings Procedures

The participants were instructed to evaluate each of the candidates in terms of their suitability for being hired for a top executive position. This evaluation was done using both rating and ranking to identify whether gender biases were evident in either type of measure. Participants were asked to rate the candidate by indicating the extent to which each strength and weakness influenced their decision when evaluating candidates for the top executive position. Strengths ranged from 0 (not important) to 10 (extremely important), while weaknesses ranged from 0 (not negative) to 10 (extremely negative). Each strength and weakness was given a maximal score of 10, thus the total score of strengths and weaknesses were 40 each. The weaknesses were negatively weighted. Candidates' total rate score was thus obtained by subtracting the total weakness score from the total strength score. This gave an indirect indication of participants' initial rate of how good or bad the candidate was. As informed, the total score was not presented to the participants after they had submitted their scores for the strengths and weaknesses.

At the end of the survey, participants were asked to rank the four candidates presented. They were given the opportunity to revisit each of the candidates' résumés in order to compare them. For ranking, scale responses ranged from 1 (most preferred) to 4 (least preferred), where a lower number indicated more favorable ranking. All participants were forced to rank the four candidates.

3.3 Statistical Methods

Cross-tabulation, codebook, histogram and error plots with a 95 per cent confidence interval were developed to screen the data, check for missing values, and look at the distribution of the ratings and rankings. All variables were normally distributed and interval level scaling, which qualified for parametric techniques. Levene's test for equality of variance was performed to check for homogeneity of variance as equal variance is required for parametric techniques (Pallant, 2016, pp. 204-207).

A complex three factor design, i.e. 2 x 4 x 2 design (candidates' gender, risk factors, participants' gender) was applied to general linear models (GLMs) as GLM is a common statistical method used to answer hypothesis of experimental

designs (Miller & Haden, 2006). As the experiment included categorical independent variables, where risk factors had more than two conditions, the main purpose was to analyze interaction effects (two- and three-way) between factors, which is a technique available under the GLM. Moreover, a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed, which is commonly used in the statistical analysis of experimental data and when one wants to compare more than two conditions (Bolboaca, Jäntsci, Sestras, Sestras, & Pamfil, 2011; Field & Miles, 2010). Effect size of significant differences was assessed, which indicated the relative magnitude of the differences between means, or the total variance amount in the dependent variable that is predictable from knowledge of the levels of the independent variable. For this data, I used Cohen's *d* effect size (1988) statistics, which is the most commonly used method to compare differences between groups in terms of standard deviation units. In addition, Tukey's Honestly Significant different test (HSD, i.e. post-hoc analysis) was further investigated for significant differences to determine the differences between each of the specific groups or conditions, which limits the possibility of a Type I error (Pallant, 2016, pp. 209-210).

When further checking whether participants weighed the different risk factors equally, a Kruskal-Wallis test was done due to risk levels were found to be non-normally distributed. This statistical method does not require normally distributed scores nor interval level scaling (i.e. non-parametric technique) (Pallant, 2016, p. 204).

There were 29 missing values. 24 of the missing values were removed due to unfinished answers, as this can bias your research and thus affect the results (Joseph, Black, & Barry, 2013). Five of the missing values were observations that had completed the survey but failed to rank the four candidates. These five remaining missing values were thus kept with the complementary action of replacing the blank observation by the mean substitution for each of the candidate the participant was delegated to².

² Missing values can be replaced with estimated values, in this case, mean substitution, which is the most commonly used method for replacing missing values. Advantages of this method is that all observations become available for further analysis (Joseph, Black, & Barry, 2013).

4. RESULTS

The result section is divided into two main sections; employability- rankings (H_1 , H_3 , H_4 , H_2) and ratings (H_6 , H_{5a} , H_{5b}), respectively. For the employability rankings section, H_1 was first tested to determine which candidate gender participants preferred when predicting rank. Then H_3 was tested to identify differences between risk factors, and the differences of the level of risk across risk factors. Then H_4 checked the interaction between gender and risk factor. Next, H_2 tested whether participant gender was related to their rank of preferences. In the employability ratings section, H_6 was tested to determine whether there was certain implicit bias in the selection of candidates by checking whether the rate preferences distinguished from rank preferences. Lastly, H_{5a} and H_{5b} were tested to identify patterns of evaluation between men and women.

Rank, rate, strengths, weaknesses and risk level were each submitted to a GLM analysis of variance. Candidates' and participants' gender and risk factors were independent variables. The employability rankings section examines the one-, two-, and three-way interaction effect for rank, while the employability ratings section does the same by rate, strengths and weaknesses.

4.1 Employability Rankings

4.1.1 Hypothesis 1

To test Hypothesis 1; whether female candidates would be ranked lower (closer to 4) than male candidates, the GLM analysis of variance revealed differences in the mean scores of gender preference for males and females. The main effects for candidates' gender were small (partial eta squared = .01)³, but significant, $F(1, 412) = 3.979$, $p = .047$. An independent-sample test was conducted to compare the gender preference scores for males and females. There was significance in scores for males ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.086$) and females ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.051$); $t(428) = -1.99$, $p = .047$. This implies that there was a significant difference in rank preference for female and male candidates. The overall tendency is that female candidates were preferred over male candidates, as female candidates would on average end up .2 places higher (closer to 1) than male candidates. However, even

³ According to Cohen's (1988, p. 22) criterion, effect sizes range from of small effects of .2, medium of .5 and large .8.

though gender was found to have a significant effect on rankings, it was revealed that females were ranked higher than male candidates. Thus, H_1 is rejected.

4.1.2 Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis tested whether different risk factors influenced candidates' ranking results. As expected, there were significant main effects of risk factors, $F(3, 412) = 10.775, p < .0001$, where the main effect size for risk factors was small (partial eta square = .073). This implies that there was an association between rank preference and risk factors, supporting Hypothesis 3. In addition, a post-hoc comparison using the HSD test indicated that the mean scores for candidates who cheated on their résumés ($M = 2.01, SD = 1.068$) differed significantly from candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns ($M = 2.62, SD = 1.078$); candidates who had previously been fired ($M = 2.76, SD = .999$); and overoptimistic candidates ($M = 2.62, SD = .997$). Figure 4.1 plots the mean rankings of the different risk factors. The rest did not differ significantly from either of the other groups. On average, candidates who cheated on their résumés were ranked -.611 higher than candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns, -.73 higher than candidates who had previously been fired, and -.611 higher than overoptimistic candidates, where lower numbers indicate more favorable preference. Hence, candidates who cheated on their résumés were most preferred (closer to 1), while candidates who had been fired were least preferred (closer to 4).

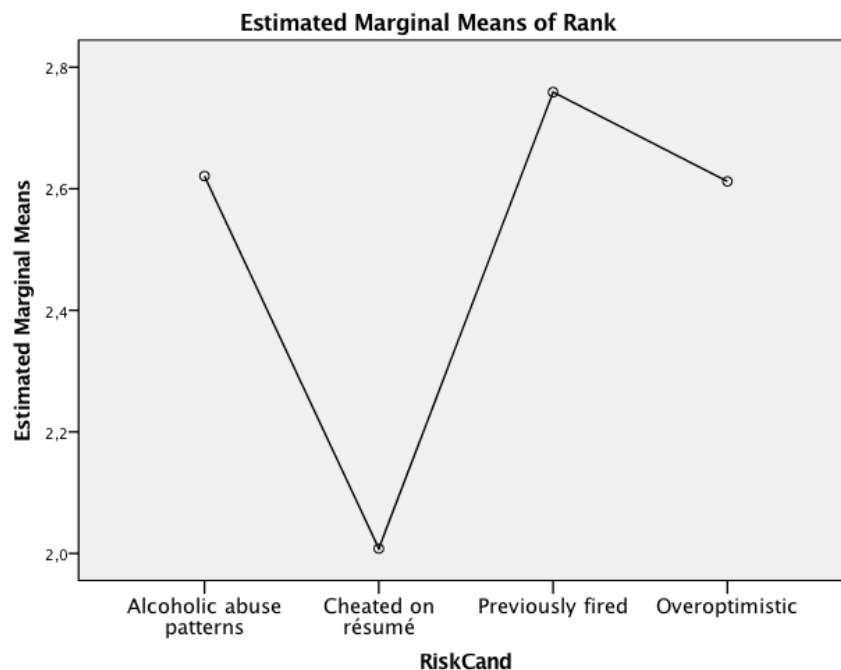


Figure 4.1 Marginal means of rank between the different risk factors. *Note:* Lower means indicates more favorable rankings.

In addition, I wanted to check whether the risk levels distinguished between the different risk factors. When dividing the risk scores into three levels (low, moderate, high), results revealed that risk scores differed significantly among the risk factors, which means that some of the risk factors were perceived unequally. Candidates' risk levels were cross-tabulated into three different groups (see Table 4.1). Candidates who received highest scores were labelled 'high', those with middle scores were labelled 'moderate', and those with poorest scores were denoted as 'low' (the highest scores indicated higher risk). As risk levels were non-normal, the distribution was subjected to a Kruskal-Wallis test with candidates' risk factors as the grouping variable. This was found to be statistically significant. 'Alcoholic abuse patterns' was ranked as the highest risk, while 'cheating on résumés' was ranked as the lowest risk, $p < .0001$, $\chi^2 = 18.69$, $df = 3$. This indicates that there were significant differences in level of risk across the four different risk factors. When comparing these results with the above findings, candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns were evaluated as the highest risk factor, but were more likely to be hired than candidates who had previously been fired and equally likely to be hired as overoptimistic candidates (see Figure 4.1).

Table 4.1
Cross-Tabulation of Risk Levels and Risk Factors

Risk Factor	Low	Middle	High	Total
Alcoholic patterns	8,4 % (9)	19,6 % (21)	72,0 % (77)	100,0 %
Cheated on résumés	11,2 % (12)	43,0 % (46)	45,8 % (49)	100,0 %
Fired	2,8 % (3)	28,0 % (30)	69,2 % (74)	100,0 %
Overoptimistic	6,5 % (7)	29,0 % (31)	64,5 % (69)	100,0 %
N	107	107	107	428

Note. The ranges in number of risk level for low (n = 107), middle (n = 107), and high (n = 107) levels were 1-3, 4-6, 7-10, respectively.

4.1.3 Hypothesis 4

Results regarding H₄, where I questioned whether candidates' gender influence participants' ranking of candidates with equal risk factors when selected for a top executive position, was shown to be non-significant. From the GLM analysis of variance, the interaction effect (two-way) for candidates' gender and risk factors was not statistically significant, $F(3, 420) = .804$, $p = .794$, which means that the influence of risk factors on rank preference was not different for males and females.

Table 4.2
Percentages of rank preference for candidates by candidates' gender and risk factors

Rank	1.Place	2.Place	3.Place	4.Place	Total
F1	8,3 % (8)	22,0 % (26)	6,8 % (8)	13,5 % (13)	55
M1	8,3 % (8)	13,6 % (16)	6,8 % (8)	20,8 % (20)	52
F2	25,0 % (24)	10,2 % (12)	8,5 % (10)	6,3 % (6)	52
M2	21,9 % (21)	16,1 % (19)	5,1 % (6)	9,4 % (9)	55
F3	9,4 % (9)	9,3 % (11)	19,5 % (23)	12,5 % (12)	55
M3	6,3 % (6)	11,0 % (13)	14,4 % (17)	16,7 % (16)	52
F4	12,5 % (12)	11,0 % (13)	16,1 % (19)	8,3 % (8)	52
M4	8,3 % (8)	6,8 % (8)	22,9 % (27)	12,5 % (12)	55
Total	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	428

Note. Frequency numbers are in parentheses. F1 = female alcoholic abuse patterns; M2 = male alcoholic abuse patterns; F2 = female cheated on her résumé, M2 = male cheated on his résumé, F3 = female previously fired, M3 = male previously fired, F4 = overoptimistic female, M4 = overoptimistic male.

4.1.4 Hypothesis 2

The second Hypothesis, where I question whether female candidates would be ranked higher (closer to 1) than male candidates with equal credentials by female participants when selected for a top executive position, was also found to be non-significant. From the GLM analysis, the interaction effect (three-way) between participants' gender, candidates' gender and risk factors was not statistically significant, $F(3, 420) = 1.20, p = .309$. Thus, there was no significant difference in the effect of participants' gender and risk factor on rank for male and female candidates.

Table 4.3
Percentages of rank preference for candidates by candidates' gender and risk factors between female and male participants

Rank	1.Place		2.Place		3.Place		4.Place		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
F1	13.6% (6)	3.8% (2)	23.2% (13)	21.0% (13)	5.4% (3)	8.1% (5)	13.6% (6)	13.5% (7)	55
M1	9.1% (4)	7.7% (4)	10.7% (6)	16.1% (10)	5.4% (3)	8.1% (5)	20.5% (9)	21.2% (11)	52
F2	22.7% (10)	26.9% (14)	7.1% (4)	12.9% (8)	10.7% (6)	6.5% (4)	4.5% (2)	7.7% (4)	52
M2	22.7% (10)	21.2% (11)	23.2% (12)	9.7% (6)	5.4% (3)	4.8% (3)	4.5% (2)	13.5% (7)	55
F3	11.4% (5)	7.7% (4)	7.1% (4)	11.3% (7)	17.9% (10)	21.0% (13)	20.5% (9)	5.8% (3)	55

	9.1%	3.8%	14.3%	8.1%	5.4%	22.6%	15.9%	17.3%	
M3	(4)	(2)	(8)	(5)	(3)	(14)	(7)	(9)	52
	9.1%	15.4%	7.1%	14.5%	17.9%	14.%	9.1%	7.7%	
F4	(4)	(8)	(4)	(9)	(10)	(9)	(4)	(4)	52
	2.3%	13.5%	7.1%	6.5%	32.1%	14.5%	11.4%	13.5%	
M4	(1)	(7)	(4)	(4)	(18)	(9)	(5)	(7)	55
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	428

Note. Frequency numbers are in parentheses. F1 = female alcoholic abuse patterns; M2 = male alcoholic abuse patterns; F2 = female cheated on her résumé, M2 = male cheated on his résumé, F3 = female previously fired, M3 = male previously fired, F4 = overoptimistic female, M4 = overoptimistic male.

4.2 Employability Ratings

4.2.1 Hypothesis 6

When testing H_6 , whether a male candidate would be rated higher (closer to 1) than a female candidate with equal credentials when candidates were selected for a top executive position, the results were found to be significant. To check whether risk factors, candidates’- and participants’ gender would be predictors of rate, I performed a GLM analysis of variance where I conducted a test of between subject effects. A two- and three-way interaction were found statistically significant. The relationship between candidates’ gender and risk factors (two-way) was shown to significantly predict rate preference, $F(3, 428) = 2.712, p = .045$, partial eta square = .02. As did the relationship between candidates’- and participants’ gender and risk factors (three-way), $F(3, 428) = 2.653, p = .048$, partial eta square = .02. Levene’s test of equality of error variance indicated that the dependent variable was equal across groups ($p = .263$). This indicates that there was a significant difference in how male and female candidates were rated, depending on the level of the other predictors.

4.2.1.1 The Two-Way Interaction – Candidates’ gender and Risk Factors

Differences between candidates’ gender varied when distinguishing between the different risk factors (two-way). A post-hoc comparison using the HSD test indicated that the mean score for candidates with opposite gender, as well as for many other equal candidates, significantly differed among two of the four candidate profiles. Moreover, among the other significant differences, male and female candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns ($M_{MI} = 2.58, SD_{MI} = .98; M_{FI} = 2.07, SD_{FI} = .99$) were significantly different ($p = .012$), as well as male and female overoptimistic candidates ($M_{F4} = 2.62, SD_{F4} = 1.09; M_{M4} = 3.05, SD_{M4} = 1.03$) ($p = .029$). Figure 4.2 plots the mean rankings of the different risk factors

and candidates' gender, which reveals that candidates who cheated on their résumés (F_2, M_2) were rated highest (closer to 1) and thus were most preferred, but revealed no gender difference for preference. In addition, there was a higher preference for a female candidate than a male candidate when the candidate had either alcoholic abuse patterns or was overoptimistic, while a male candidate was more preferred than a female candidate when the candidate had previously been fired (see Figure 4.2).

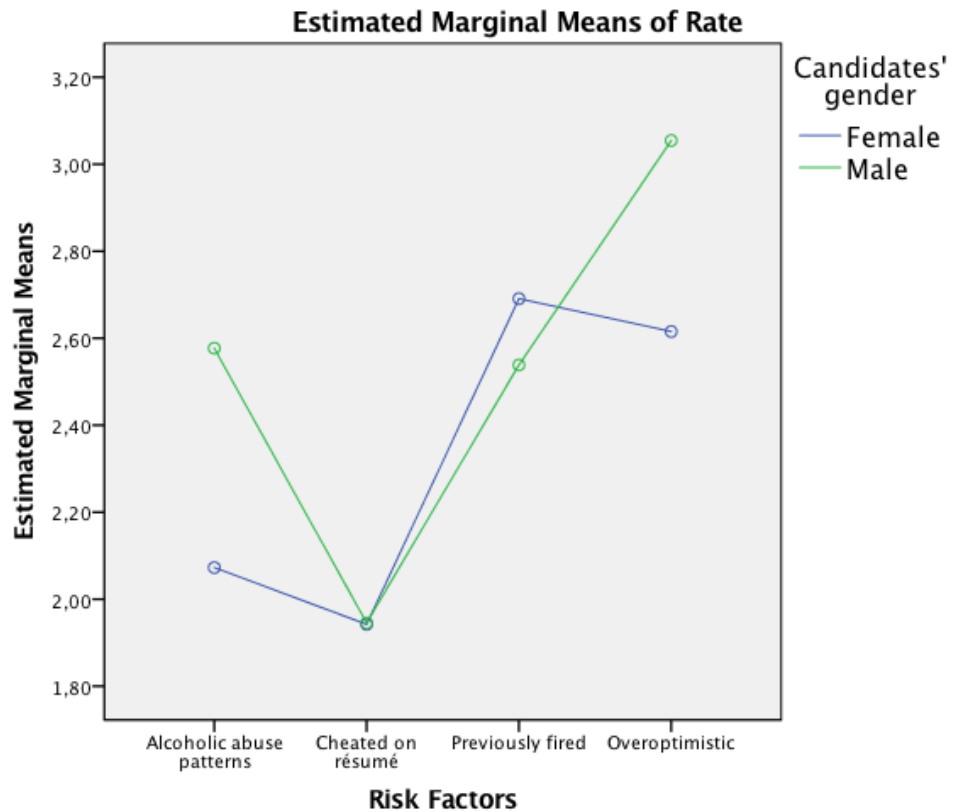


Figure 4.2 Estimated marginal means of rate among candidates' gender and risk factors. *Note:* Lower means indicate more favorable ratings.

4.2.1.2 The Three-Way Interaction – Candidates’- and Participants’ gender and Risk Factors

When distinguishing between participants' gender, results revealed that gender differences were quite evident. To gain a better understanding of the significant three-way interaction (i.e. risk factors, candidates' genders, and participants' genders), the variables were cross-tabulated (see Table 4.4) as well as plotted into a graphical mean ranking plot that is shown in Figure 4.3 below. For candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns, both female ($M_{FIF} = 2.0, SD = .98$)⁴ and male participants ($M_{FIM} = 2.148, SD = 1.02$) preferred female candidates over male

⁴ The different codes first refer to the candidate's gender and risk factor (F1, M1, F2, M2, F3, M3, F4 and M4) then the participant's gender (either F for female, or M for male).

candidates ($M_{MIF} = 2.09$, $M_{MIM} = 2.93$), where the effect was significantly larger for male participants ($p = .004$). With candidates who had cheated on their résumés, female participants preferred female candidates ($M_{F2F} = 1.86$, $SD = .99$), while male participants preferred male candidates ($M_{M2M} = 1.85$, $SD = 1.06$). Further, if candidates had previously been fired, both female ($M_{M3F} = 2.27$, $SD = .93$) and male participants ($M_{M3M} = 2.73$, $SD = .90$) preferred male candidates over female candidates ($M_{F3F} = 2.61$, $M_{F3M} = 2.78$). Lastly, when candidates were overoptimistic, both female ($M_{F4F} = 2.27$, $SD = 1.16$) and male participants ($M_{F4M} = 2.86$, $SD = .97$) preferred female candidates over male candidates ($M_{M4F} = 3.14$, $M_{M4M} = 2.96$), where the effect was significantly larger for female participants ($p = .003$). Overall, as shown in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.3, results revealed that male candidates who had cheated on their résumés appeared to be most preferred of all candidates, yet, specifically by male participants. This indicates a significant difference in the effect of risk factors on rate for male and female candidates, and in the effect of risk factors and participants' gender on rate for male and female candidates. Thus, this provides support for H_6 .

Table 4.4
Cross-Tabulation of Candidate Versions and Rate

Rate	1.Place		2.Place		3.Place		4.Place		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
F1	18,3 % (11)	17,3 % (9)	14,5 % (8)	14,3 % (8)	14,3 % (7)	10,8 % (7)	5,6 % (2)	5,5 % (2)	55
M1	8,3 % (5)	3,8 % (2)	21,8 % (12)	12,5 % (7)	6,1 % (3)	18,5 % (12)	5,6 % (2)	16,4 % (9)	52
F2	18,3 % (11)	25,0 % (13)	7,3 % (4)	14,3 % (8)	12,2 % (6)	7,7 % (5)	2,8 % (1)	7,3 % (4)	52
M2	23,3 % (14)	26,9 % (14)	5,5 % (3)	10,7 % (6)	14,3 % (7)	6,2 % (4)	11,1 % (4)	5,5 % (3)	55
F3	8,3 % (5)	7,7 % (4)	16,4 % (9)	12,5 % (7)	12,2 % (6)	10,8 % (7)	22,2 % (8)	16,4 % (9)	55
M3	8,3 % (5)	5,8 % (3)	14,5 % (8)	14,3 % (8)	14,3 % (7)	20,0 % (13)	5,6 % (2)	10,9 % (6)	52
F4	11,7 % (7)	5,8 % (3)	12,7 % (7)	12,5 % (7)	6,1 % (3)	16,9 % (11)	13,9 % (5)	16,4 % (9)	52
M4	3,3 % (2)	7,7 % (4)	7,3 % (4)	8,9 % (5)	20,4 % (10)	9,2 % (6)	33,3 % (12)	21,8 % (12)	55
Total	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	428

Note. The ranges in number of rate for 1. Place ($n = 112$), 2. Place ($n = 111$), 3. Place ($n = 114$), and 4. Place ($n = 91$) levels were $Rate1 \geq 7$, $7 > Rate2 \leq 2$, $2 > Rate3 \leq -3$, and $Rate4 < -3$, respectively. Frequency numbers are in parentheses. F1 = female alcoholic patterns; M2 = male alcoholic patterns; F2 = female cheated on her résumé, M2 = male cheated on his résumé, F3 = female previously fired, M3 = male previously fired, F4 = overoptimistic female, M4 = overoptimistic male.

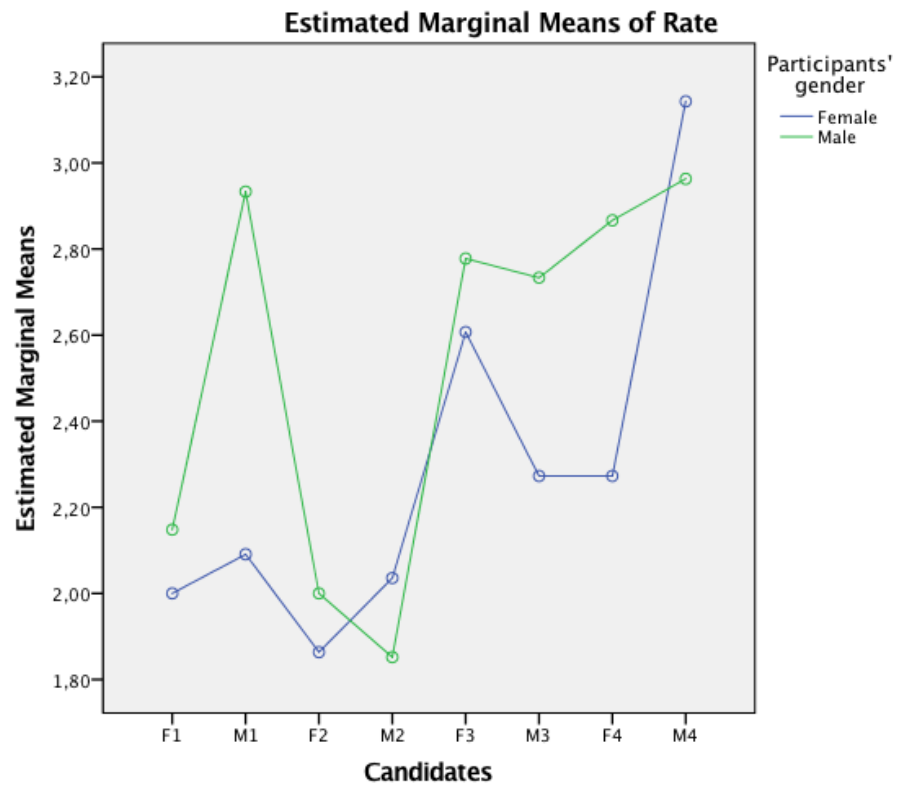


Figure 4.3 Estimated marginal means of rate by participants'-, candidates' gender, and risk factors.
Note: Lower score indicates more favorable ratings

In addition, when comparing the employability rankings and the employability ratings, results reveal that participant rate and rank candidates differently. This is further confirmed by the correlation, as the correlation between rate and rank was extremely small (.177) (see Appendix 2). This finding is illustrated further in the error plot (Figure 4.4) as it displays the mean scores of rate and rank for each candidate version and the 95% confidence interval of the mean, i.e. the range of values within which we think the population value falls (Field & Miles, 2010). The figure compares rate and rank scores and illustrates that a female candidate who cheated on her résumé was most preferred (closer to 1) in terms of rank, while a male candidate who cheated on his résumé was most preferred in terms of rate (closer to 1). This indicates that participants were inconsistent in their ratings and rankings of candidates.

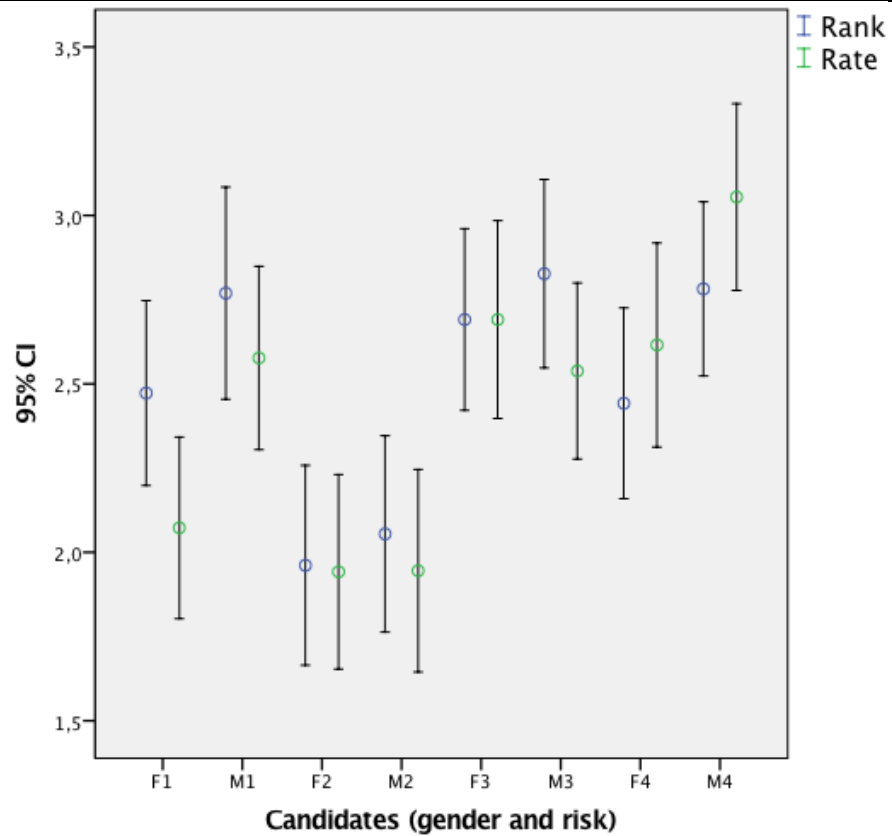


Figure 4.4 Estimated mean score for rank and rate. *Note:* Lower score indicates more favorable ratings.

4.2.2 Hypothesis 5

Regarding H_{5a} , where I questioned whether male candidates' weaknesses were rated lower than the females, a GLM analysis of variance with weaknesses as dependent variable and participants', candidates' gender and risk factors as fixed factors were analyzed. All two-way interactions, as well as the three-way interaction, were found to be non-significant ($p > .05$). Thus, candidates' weaknesses were shown not to differ between candidates' gender. I therefore reject H_{5a} .

Consistent with past research, I also expected that male candidates' strengths were rated higher than the females (H_{5b}). Accordingly, a GLM analysis of variance with strengths as dependent variable and participants', candidates' gender and risk factors as fixed factors was tested. Both participants' gender and risk factors were significant (one-way) ($p < .05$). As expected, the three-way interaction between participants', candidates' gender and risk factors was also statistically significant, $F(3, 412) = 6.389$, $p < .0001$, with a moderating effect size (.5) and equal variance across groups ($p = .619$). This indicates that there was a significant difference in male and female candidates' strength scores, depending on the level

of the other predictors. Table 4.5 displays the distribution of the strength scores of the candidates. When candidates were overoptimistic, both female (M_{F4F}) and male participants (M_{F4M}) gave higher strength scores to female candidates than male candidates. The effect was significantly larger for female participants' ($p = .003$), while male participants gave higher strength scores to male candidates who cheated on his résumé ($p = .037$).

Table 4.5
Mean scores of candidates by strengths and weaknesses scores between female and male participants

	Strengths		Weaknesses	
	Female Participant (F)	Male Participant (M)	Female Participant (F)	Male Participant (M)
F1	27.2*	27.5*	22.3	23.4
		(27.3)		(22.8)
M1	28.4*	24.5*	24.7	25.2
		(26.1)		(25.0)
F2	29.3*	25.6***	22.5	20.8
		(27.2)		(21.5)
M2	26.3*	28.9***	21.0	21.7
		(27.6)		(21.4)
F3	26.9	28.7*	26.7	27.6
		(27.8)		(27.2)
M3	29.7*	26.6	26.8	27.0
		(27.9)		(26.9)
F4	28.8**	24.6*	25.7	26.5
		(26.4)		(26.2)
M4	23.9***	24.2*	26.4	26.3
		(24.0)		(26.3)
Total	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %

Note. Higher means indicate higher strength scores. F1 = female alcoholic patterns; M2 = male alcoholic patterns; F2 = female cheated on her résumé, M2 = male cheated on his résumé, F3 = female previously fired, M3 = male previously fired, F4 = overoptimistic female, M4 = overoptimistic male. Mean scores of candidate types are in parentheses.

*Significant with one or more of the eight candidates

** Significant with opposite sex candidate

*** Significant with opposite sex candidate and another or more of the eight candidates

In practice, participants gave different strength scores to candidates depending on candidates' and participants' gender. On average, male participants gave male candidates who had cheated on his résumé the highest strength score (28.9). Yet, male candidates who had previously been fired ($M3$) were given the highest strength score by female participants (29.7) and, despite participants gender, given the highest strength score overall (27.8). This is further illustrated in the error plot (Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6) below, which displays the mean scores of strengths (and weaknesses) for each candidate by participant' gender (male and female) and

the 95% confidence interval. From the above results, I conclude that the effect of unequal evaluation of the same strengths was in favor of male candidates as a male candidate is seen to be given the highest strength score of all. This thus confirms H_{5b} .

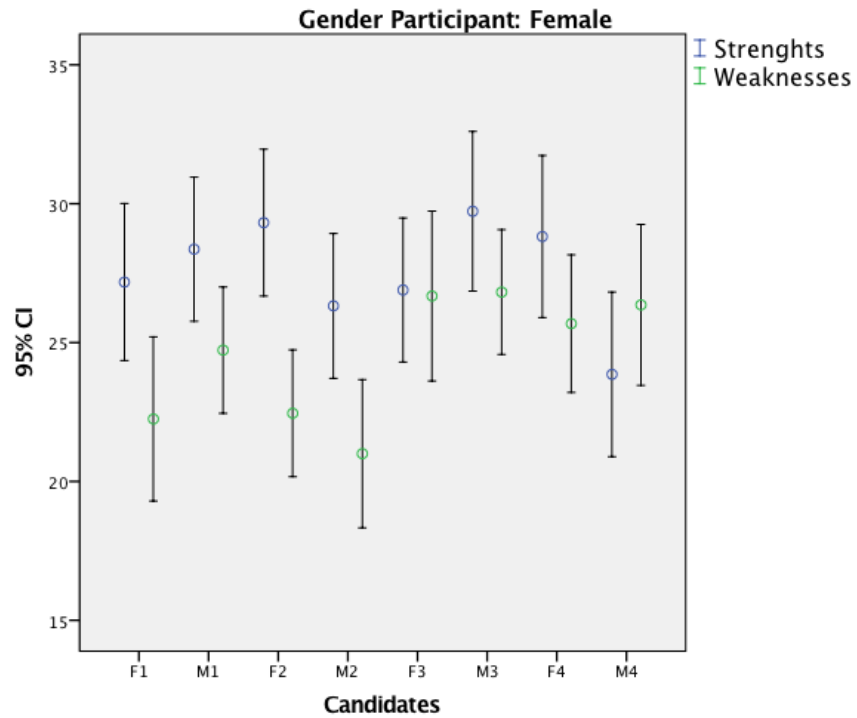


Figure 4.5 Estimated mean score for strengths and weaknesses by female participants. *Note.* Higher means indicate higher strength scores

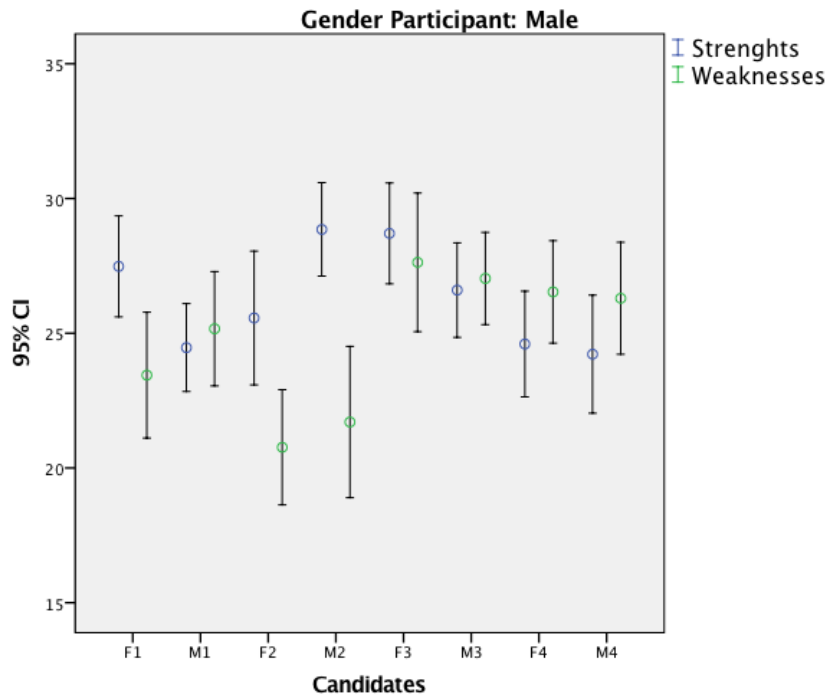


Figure 4.6 Estimated mean score for strengths and weaknesses by male participants. *Note.* Higher means indicate higher strength scores

5. DISCUSSION

A great deal of research has shown that males are advantaged over females in the labor market in relation to several different outcomes, especially for employability for top executive positions (Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Keloharju et.al., 2016; Riach & Rich, 2002). One possible cause of this advantage is employer discrimination. Women are associated as an indirect cost, a risk, which individuals take into consideration when standing in a top executive selection decision. Employers further believe that their decision is rational when selecting the male candidate over the female candidate. In other words, representative heuristics make them believe their decision is rational. I therefore examined whether gender is affecting what individuals perceive as a risk by checking whether employers disfavor females with equal credentials and risk factors as their male counterpart in the selection process of a top executive. Even though results of this study suggests that the process is more complex than previously assumed, my results complement recent work (e.g. Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Keloharju et.al., 2016) as it reveals that women and men with equal credentials have unequal opportunities for being appointed to a top executive position. Risk is perceived unequally among male and female candidates, and male and female participants. More specifically, the significant three-way interaction should be of particular interest. It therefore informs the debate on possible causes of the gender disparity in executive selection by providing unique experimental evidence that gender is practiced unreflexively in top executive evaluations.

5.1 Candidate Preferences

The results confirm my assumptions of different preferences for the risk factors. The ranking procedure found significant differences between the four different risk factors, with the mean favorable preference score ranging from 2.01 for candidates who cheated on their résumés, 2.62 for overoptimistic candidates and candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns, to 2.76 for candidates who had previously been fired (see Figure 4.1). Despite viewing candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns as the highest risk and candidates who had previously been fired as second highest risk (Table 4.1), participants were more willing to hire candidates with alcoholic abuse patterns than candidates who had previously been fired, as it was their least preference.

The study found differences between the eight candidates of gender and risk factors (two-way interactions) when predicting rank, but these differences were substantively small, and in no case did they reach statistical significance. However, the rating procedure found a significant two- and three-way interaction difference between the candidates, with most preference rate ranging from 26.9 per cent and 25.0 per cent for male and female candidates respectively, who had cheated on their résumés, to 3.3 per cent for overoptimistic males (see Table 4.4). Nevertheless, candidates who had cheated on their résumés were most preferred of all the candidates, while there was no gender difference between women and men who had cheated on their résumés. Nonetheless, as research has found that followers' gender affects candidates' ranking preferences (see e.g. Boyce & Herd, 2003; Duehr & Bono, 2006; Hoyt, Simon, & Reid, 2009; Nosek & Banaji, 2001; Rudman & Goodwin, 2004), the present study attempted to capture this complexity and found that, dependent on risk factors, women and men differed in their evaluations and acceptance of risk and candidates' gender (the three way-interaction). Consequently, men tolerated women with alcoholic abuse patterns, while banned males with alcoholic abuse patterns. In contrast, women were willing to accept overoptimistic women, while having least preference for overoptimistic men. Yet, both male and females were most willing to accept cheating on résumés, but women tended to accept women while men accepted men in a higher scale. In this manner, male candidates were evaluated somewhat more favorably than female candidates. However, this was particularly true when participants were male. This in-group bias finding is consistent with suggesting that women and men are more likely to vote same-sex candidates, and thus supports previous findings on in-group bias (see e.g. Hoyt et.al., 2009). This implies that the likelihood of being selected for a top executive position in Norway is larger for individuals who cheat on their résumés, specifically men, and more likely when the employer is a male. This shows identifications that perception of risk is viewed differently between male and female candidates by women and men in the evaluation of a top executive candidate.

The results of differences between genders and candidate preferences in participants' evaluations and acceptance can be linked with previous findings. Stereotypes are frequently found to operate to the disadvantage of women in work settings, specifically in preference for leaders (Kunda & Spencer, 2003). In line

with previous research, if participants for this thesis were to hold such stereotypes, they are more likely to select men to top executive positions than equally qualified women. The results confirm my assumption of higher rating for male candidates than female candidates with equal credentials (H₆). This reveals that gender plays an important role in the selection of a top executive. In addition, because previous research has found that female and male followers develop different prototypes of the preferred leader (Scott & Brown, 2006), and that employers are more likely to prefer candidates with perceived similarities (i.e. demographic and attitudinal characteristics) to themselves (Garcia et.al., 2008; Roebken, 2010; Sears & Rowe, 2003), similar conclusions can be drawn for this thesis. The similarity-attraction and similar-to-me effects are shown through the in-group bias effect, as women tend to prefer women while men prefer men. Women are thus more willing to familiarize themselves with and accept overoptimistic behavior, while revealing no perceived similarities with candidates who were fired due to criticism of their leader style and a conflict situation. Despite men's acceptance of women with alcoholic abuse patterns, they distinctly cannot stand nor associate themselves with same gender doing the same 'mistake'. Overall, faking an unfinished degree or subjects on individuals' résumés (i.e. cheating on résumés) may be perceived as most acceptable. Hence, among the four risks, cheating on a résumé is the one participants will be most likely to do or would have done themselves, and perceive most similarities and identify the most with. However, as this thesis is looking at the relation between the risk factors and gender and the rated and ranked preference for them, and not their acceptance and rejection, rankings were forced - disabling participants to exclude candidates for evaluation. As all the four presented candidates had one critical risk related to the candidate, which are found to be rational exclusion decisions in the selection process (see e.g. Babcock, 2003; Brody, 2010; Nixon & Kerr, 2011, p. 2; Prater & Kiser, 2002), participants (as noted by some of themselves) may not have wanted to accept nor willing to hire any of the candidates. However, ratings were not forced and thus distinguish the candidates participants disliked the most.

I argue, nevertheless, that it is not only the mechanism of risk factors and gender that leads to higher gender bias in top executive selections. A more clear gender pattern became visible when I analyzed the implicit evaluations of male and

females strengths and weaknesses, where male candidates were rated higher than females due to the mechanism of boosting male candidates' strengths.

5.2 Employer Discrimination

Hiring a top executive is difficult because they affect the whole organization and play the most important role in a firm's performance (Eriksen, 1996, p. 110; Fitza, 2014; Hambrick & Quigley, 2014). Thus, hiring the right top executive is important and relies much on an equal, fair and good selection. However, women are exposed to unfair and unequal opportunities in the selection process and thus exposed to being shortlisted (Aycan, 2004; Knouse, 1994). Based on previous findings revealing gender bias in the evaluation of candidates' strengths and weaknesses (see e.g. Tyler & McCullough, 2010; Van den Brink et.al., 2013), the present study examines women and men's rating evaluations and found results indicating that males, unlike females, are more advantaged. Even though the main risk factors revealed significant differences between the candidates, total weaknesses were shown to be non-significant. Indicating that participants evaluated candidates' weaknesses somewhat equally. However, candidates' strengths were shown to significantly differ between the different candidates. Male candidates were evaluated somewhat more favorably than female candidates. Both female and male participant gave highest strength scores to a male candidate (M3 & M2, respectively) and overall highest to the male candidate who had previously been fired (M3) (see Table 4.5). Despite their female versions were equal to the male candidates, female participants ranked the equal female candidate five places lower than the male candidate (F3). Similarly, male participants ranked the equal female candidate four places lower than the male candidate (F2). The results correspond with Van den Brink et.al.'s (2013) findings of boosting men's strengths, while downplaying their female counterparts'. In Van den Brink et.al.'s (2013) study, only candidates' gender was considered. This analysis nevertheless shows that evaluation of strengths differs between female and male participants.

I observe that, overall, a male candidate who had previously been fired was given the highest strength score, while his female peer was given the second highest strength score. Specifically, when taken participants' gender into consideration, patterns reflect gender bias as men were always evaluated as the best fitted

candidate based on strengths (closer to 40). Although the female candidates were indeed included as equally credential, their employability was limited since participants were less generous and women were thus given poorer scores. Consequently, female candidates were assessed more negatively in total due to lower scores than their male counterparts (closer to 0). I identified that both women and men tended to inflate men's strengths. Consistent with Van den Brink and colleagues research (2013), patterns of practicing gender show that evaluators draw on the ideal picture of male leaders when interpreting the strengths of women and men. This thesis contributes by revealing that men and women evaluate strengths differently. Thus, the current results suggest that subtle gender bias is important to address because it could translate into large real-world disadvantages in the judgement and evaluation of candidates.

Interestingly, despite ranking the male candidate who had previously been fired among the least preferred candidates, they received the highest strength score of all eight candidates (see Table 4.5). As results showed only a small correlation between strengths and rank (see Appendix 2), this reveals that candidates' strengths are unequally evaluated between female and male candidates, but does not determine candidates' employability outcome.

5.3 Implicit Bias in Candidate Preferences

The ranking procedure revealed a significant difference between male and female candidates overall, where participants were more in favor of a female candidate than a male candidate. This gender difference in preference towards female and male candidates is surprising as it is inconsistent with previous research in which males are preferred (see e.g. Bosak & Sczesny, 2011; Cole, Field, & Giles, 2004; Keloharju et.al., 2016; Riach & Rich, 2002). However, the rating procedure revealed the opposite effect. When comparing the rate and rank scores, results revealed that male candidates were most preferred, which confirms my assumption of implicit preference for male candidates. In a range of one to four, this has substantial consequences for women's chances of reaching a top executive position. All depending on the candidate's risk factor and the candidate's and the employer's gender. In addition, results revealed that there was only a small significant correlation between rate and rank and between strengths and rank, as discussed above. I argue that this finding is consistent with prior

evidence and importantly, provides a theoretical and practical extension to previous work examining gender bias in employment context.

Specifically, the results illustrated that participants were not consistent with their evaluations of candidates as their rank score (i.e. rank employability preference) showed opposing results to the rate score (i.e. indication of how good/bad the candidate was). Participants thus seemed to be willing to override their evaluation of their candidate and hire someone with a lower evaluation score. One possible explanation for the rank effect concerns social desirability bias, which has taken form of over-favoring women in the ranking procedure. Conrey, Sherman, Gawronski, Hugenberg, and Groom's (2005) showed that individual differences of bias are determined by potential differences in the strength of associations between a group category (i.e. gender) and affective evaluations (see e.g. Greenwald et.al., 2002; Wheeler & Petty, 2001). Conrey and colleagues, however, emphasized the role of cognitive control-related processes, which represents the extent to which the influence of stereotypic associations can be overcome in order to respond honestly on incongruent trials. In addition, Devine (1989) argued that the effect of automatic stereotype activation (i.e. behavior activated when the category label and associates are presented) may be irrelevant for identifying prejudice because some people have knowledge of a lot of information they may not support. As for this thesis, although I propose individuals to rank females as less favorable, individuals with stronger self-regulatory skills (Conrey et.al. 2005), or e.g. feminists who may be knowledgeable of the stereotype of women (Devine, 1989), may be less likely to overtly express bias as they might be able to control their ability to overcome biased response tendencies stemming from those associations. In other words, as prejudice of women in top executive positions have been extensively discussed and given lots of attention in the recent years, it may be that experienced decision-makers have learned to avoid stereotypical thinking or are more aware of norms that discourage them from appearing biased. The small correlation between rate and rank indicates that participants were rather giving socially desirable answers. It is thus reasonable to believe that participants might have been aware of the topic, which may have led individuals to make efforts to respond in nonpredicted ways. In this manner, ranked the female candidate highest while rated the male candidate highest.

6. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS TO FUTURE RESEARCH

Although my findings present a consistent pattern of results supporting some of the hypotheses, as with any research, there are some limitations to the current work. First, as noted by Tienari, Meriläinen, Holgersson, and Bendl (2013), the context for individuals' willingness and openness to select women should be taken into consideration, as this is found to be higher for individuals who have female bosses. The proportion of female leaders in a firm's board of directors, top management teams, middle managers, as well as the successor's inside origin may reduce the female successor's gender-based status liability (Zhang & Qu, 2016). However, the present thesis does not provide sufficient empirical data for such an analysis as a large proportion of participants were top executives themselves. This calls for further research taking this into consideration. For instance, future research may gather information regarding whether participants have or have had male or female bosses, percentage of females in the board of directors, middle managers, etc.

Second, even though the sample size is quite large, I cannot omit the possibility that the two- and three-way estimate differences for rank might have turned out to be statistically significant with a larger N (Bernardi, Chakhaia, & Leopold, 2017; Daniel, 1998). It should be noted that the two- and three-way interactions between candidates' gender, participants' gender, and risk factors predicting rank were non-significant. The same counts for the two- and three-way interactions predicting weaknesses. An increase of N might have found significant differences in these predictors and avoided a Type II error. In addition, another possible limitation concerns the internal consistency estimates as there were some differences among candidates' background. Even though the candidates were equally qualified in terms of education and work experience, I did not control for effect of résumé content other than the given variables. Whether candidates' schools, elite qualifications (hometown, hobbies, etc.) had an impact on participants' ratings and rankings was thus not tested. Thus, research should focus more explicitly on the interplay between the additional résumé content and evaluation.

Last, it is also important to note that the concept of discrimination implicit in experiments distinguishes from the standard definition of discrimination. Because experiments used for research purposes construct situations in which employers are forced to choose identical résumés up against each other, favoring one candidate in favor of another may be an outcome of a coincidence (Midtbøen, 2016).

Despite these limitations, the present study has its strengths. Because gender discrimination research is particularly vulnerable to the validity threat of socially desirable answers, the experiment used both ratings and rankings scales. By unconsciously rating candidates, the design allowed to give an indication of the participant's initial evaluation of how good or bad the candidate was. Thus, determine whether biases were evident in either type of measure. This makes the limitation of socially desirable bias less important. In addition, even though researchers mention several threats to generalizability of experimental designs, this thesis was able to enhance external validity to some degree. One advantage of the experiment was the use of employing actual recruiters and leaders, as well as students, which allow for increased confidence in the generalizability of findings. Consequently, I suggest that the findings of the present study may have a more real-world generalizability. However, these findings are limited to the Norwegian society, and may not be applied in other countries as results gathered in one cultural context may not generalize to other cultural contexts (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 53).

Nevertheless, even though this thesis is interested in capturing gender bias in the first step of executive selection, i.e. résumés selection, I acknowledge that the selection process is more comprehensive in a real-life setting. Additional methods for selection also need to be performed, as e.g. interviews, case solving, and ability tests. Nonetheless, this thesis may be of interest for employers, executive search agents and top executives, as it sheds light on gender discrimination in selection processes of top executives in Norway.

7. CONCLUSION

The present thesis suggests that gender bias in top executive selection decisions is a function of a complex interplay of various factors. Specifically, my findings from a sample of 107 top executives and professional executive search agents, as well as non-professionals, indicate that women and men have unequal opportunities for being selected for a top executive position. Most interesting, I found clear discrimination patterns between participants in their evaluations of candidates as evaluations was found to depend on the candidate's gender. The ranking procedure revealed results in favor of female candidates, while the rating procedure results indicated that male candidates were more preferred when selected for a top executive position than their female counterparts. More complexly, male candidates were more favored by male participants. Hence, women and men with equal credentials were unequally preferred for the top executive position, and furthermore, were unequally evaluated by female and male participants. In addition, results found clear indications for favoring candidates who cheated on their résumés, while showing least preference for candidates who had previously been fired. Further exploration of contextual factors relevant for gender biases in top executive selection processes found significant support for that men's strengths were highlighted, whereas women's were downplayed to some degree. In conclusion, men were perceived as more suitable for hire and more likely to be given an advantage than were equally qualified women. However, this was again particularly true when participants were male. Hence, gender is found to affect what individuals perceive as a risk when evaluating candidates' potential for a top executive position.

Explanations for these results are consistent with previous findings as patterns of similar and associable effects were found in the present results. Additionally, findings indicate that employers are inconsistent with their evaluation as results indicate that some may have been given socially desirable responses.

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APPENDICES

***APPENDIX 1: Descriptive
Statistics***

Panel A: Descriptive Statistics on Individual Characteristics

	All	Women	Men	Diff.	N
Gender	-	46.7%	53.5%	6.8%	107
Age					
18-24 years old	26.0%	50.0%	50.0%	-	28
25-40 years old	30.8%	51.5%	48.5%	3.0%	33
41-55 years old	35.5%	39.5%	60.5%	21.0%	38
Older than 55 years old	7.5%	50.0%	50.0%	-	8
Level of Education					
None	4.7%	40.0%	60.0%	20%	5
High School	46.7%	42.0%	58.0%	16.0%	50
University, short (4 years)	47.7%	52.9%	47.1%	5.8%	51
University, long /more than 4 years)	.9%	0.0%	100.0%	100%	1
Level of Work Experience					
None	15.0%	50.0%	50.0%	-	16
1-2 years	14.0%	46.7%	53.5%	6.8%	15
2-5 years	13.1%	64.3%	35.7%	28.6%	14
5-10 years	49.5%	41.5%	58.5%	17.0%	53
More than 10 years	8.4%	44.4%	55.6%	11.2%	9

Panel B: Descriptive Statistics on Individual Professionalism

	All	Women	Men	Diff.	N
Professionals - Recruitment					
Working as a recruiter	43.0%	50.0%	50.0%	-	46
Not working as a recruiter	57.0%	44.3%	55.7%	11.4%	61
Professionals - Level of Leader Experience					
Top executive leader	24.3%	15.4%	84.6%	69.2%	26
Middle manager	38.3%	58.5%	41.5%	17.0%	41
No	35.5%	55.3%	44.7%	10.6%	38
Other	1.9%	50.0%	50.0%	-	2
Non-professionals	31.8%	50.0%	50.0%	-	34

APPENDIX 2: Correlations

Appendix 1: Correlations

	Age	Partici- pants' Gender	Edu.	Work Exp.	Recruit Exp.	Leader Exp.	Candidates' Gender	Risk Candidate	Handicap level	Strengths	Weaknes ses	Rate	Rank
Age	1												
Participants' Gender	.064	1											
Edu.	-.045	-.08	1										
Work Exp.	.419**	.064	-.149**	1									
Recruit Exp.	-.608**	.057	.177**	-3.63**	1								
Leader Exp.	-.599**	-.268**	.093	-.363**	.372**	1							
Candidates' Gender	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1						
Risk Candidate	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1					
Handicap level	.191**	-.072	.025	.166**	-.077	-.181**	.083	.019	1				
Strengths	-.077	-.092	-.177**	-.063	-.033	.074	-.064	-.077	.113*	1			
Weaknesses	.271**	.029	-.011	.141**	-.133**	-.187**	.034	.220**	.648**	.206**	1		
Rate	-.281**	-.094	-.127**	-.164**	.084	.209**	-.077	-.239**	-.442**	.601**	-.658**	1	
Rank	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.096*	.078	.175**	-.074	.177**	-.201**	1

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level

APPENDIX 3: Survey Questions

Del 1: Demografi

For å tegne et bilde av respondentene ønsker jeg litt bakgrunnsinformasjon om deg. Din identitet vil holdes skjult.

1. Hvor gammel er du?
 - 18-24
 - 25-40
 - 41-55
 - Eldre enn 55

2. Hva er ditt kjønn?
 - Kvinne
 - Mann

3. Hvilken utdanning har du?
 - Ingen
 - Videregående
 - Universitets- og høghskolenivå, kort (t.o.m. 4 år)
 - Universitets- og høghskolenivå, lang (mer enn 4 år)

4. Hvor mange års arbeidserfaring har du?
 - Ingen
 - 1-2 år
 - 2-5 år
 - 5-10 år
 - Mer enn 10 år

5. Jobber du med rekruttering?
 - Ja
 - Nei

6. Har du selv hatt en lederstilling?
 - Ja, toppleder
 - Ja, mellomleder
 - Nei
 - Annet:

Del 2: Ledereffekt

1. Hva tror du er den gjennomsnittlige forskjellen på ledere i toppjobber?
 - Det er ingen forskjell på ledere. Effekten av gjennomsnittlig forskjell i valg av en leder spiller ingen rolle for organisasjoner (0%)
 - Den gjennomsnittlige forskjellen mellom ledere er minimal, og har dermed en svært begrenset effekt på organisasjoner i valg av en leder (1-10%)
 - Den gjennomsnittlige forskjellen mellom ledere er middels, og har en moderat effekt på organisasjoner i valg av en leder (11-60%)
 - Den gjennomsnittlige forskjellen mellom ledere er svært stor, og effekten av den gjennomsnittlige forskjellen utgjør generelt "liv eller død" for organisasjoner (61-200%)

2. Hva tror du er sannsynligheten for at en toppleder må gå ufrivillig fra sin stilling?
 - 0-25%
 - 26-50%
 - 51-75%
 - 76-100%

3. Hvor mange ledere tror du vanligvis holder mål i forhold til organisasjonens forventninger av lederen?
 - 0-25%
 - 26-50%
 - 51-75%
 - 76-100%

Del 3: Introduksjon av bedriften

Papp AS er et stort selskap som designer, utvikler og produserer bølgepapp og massivpapp for næringslivet og eksportmarkedet. Det norske selskapet har vært i bransjen i en årrekke og er kjent i markedet for å selge varer av god kvalitet og har flere anlegg over hele landet. Selskapet ledes av direktør Hans Martinsen, som har vært leder siden 2005.

Papirbransjen er preget av markedsmessige og økonomiske faktorer som har vært i endring de siste årene. Blant annet har IT-utviklingen gjort at ansatte kan bli erstattet med mer effektive maskiner, som vil påvirke de 200 ansatte på produksjonsavdelingen. Videre har omsetningen falt etter at konkurrentene startet produksjon av et nyskapende produkt som ledelsen av Papp AS stoppet produksjonen av i 2014.

Selskapet nådde sitt høydepunkt i 2013 da de omsatte for om lag 1 milliard NOK. De siste årene har selskapet hatt en dramatisk nedgang i omsetningen. Selskapet ser i dag ut til, for første gang siden oppstart, å gå med underskudd i 2017 dersom ikke tiltak blir iverksatt for å møte endringene i markedet.

Etter mye om og men har styret nå bestemt at Hans Martinsen må fratrukke sin stilling som direktør. Selskapet står nå i en overgangsfase hvor rekruttering av en ny adm. direktør er i fokus, og trenger din hjelp til å vurdere fire ulike kandidater for stillingen.

Del 4 av undersøkelsen introduserer fire potensielle kandidater for direktørstillingen i Papp AS. Du vil i denne delen få tildelt kandidatens CV og en liste over HR-personalets vurderinger av kandidatens styrker og svakheter hvor du vil bli spurt om å score hvor positive/negative disse vurderingene er for en stilling som adm. direktør.

Bruk god tid til å vurdere kandidatene!

Del 5: Rangering av kandidatene

Vennligst velg én kandidat per plass, hvor den første du velger (1.) er den kandidaten du anser som *best* egnet til jobben, og den siste (4.) *minst* egnet.

Hvordan ville du rangert kandidatene til stillingen som adm.direktør i Papp AS?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Jeg er interessert i hvorfor du rangerte kandidatene slik du gjorde. Vennligst forklar om det var uspesifikke faktorer som skilte seg ut, eller noe spesielt som påvirket din beslutning om rekkefølge.

Hva var mest avgjørende for deg ved rangeringen av kandidaten?

***APPENDIX 4: Candidate
Résumés***

Group 1

Navn: Ole-Gustav Lindeberg
Epost: ole.lindeberg@wp.no
Bosted: Stavanger
Født: 1964



UTDANNING:

1984-1989 Sivilingeniørutdannelse ved Norges Tekniske Høgskole (nå NTNU)
1983-1984 Militærtjeneste i Hærens Samband
1980-1983 St.Olav videregående skole, Stavanger

ARBEIDSERFARING:

1999-d. d Direktør, Wellesley Petroleum, Stavanger
1995-1999 Driftsdirektør, Troms Offshore Management AS
1990-1995 Avdelingsleder, Troms Offshore Management AS, Tromsø
1989-1990 Controller, Varden Olje & Gass, Tromsø

VERV:

2005- d.d. Styremedlem, Norsk Petroleumsforening, Oslo
2000-2004 Styremedlem i Hemning Skiklubb

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å trene og er aktiv skiløper om vinteren. Har deltatt på flere langdistanserenn, som Birkebeinerrennet og Vasaloppet. Trives ute i skog og mark om sommeren, jakt og fiske, gjerne med gode turkamerater.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Nedenfor har HR-personalet listet opp kandidatens sterke og svake sider. Vennligst angi i hvilken grad du synes disse vurderingene er **viktige (positive/negative)** for en stilling som adm. direktør.

Styrker:

- Blid og imøtekommende person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Høyere utdanning fra NTNU (tidligere NTH)
- Viser engasjement i samfunnet ved å aktivt bidra ved ulike arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune

Svakheter:

- Erfaring kun fra oljesektoren
- Ingen internasjonal erfaring
- Snakker og skriver dårlig engelsk
- Kandidaten har en forhistorie hvor kandidaten har tilsynelatende møtt opp i beruset tilstand ved ulike familie/barne-arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune. Sist hendelse skal ha tatt plass sommeren 2014 og kandidaten påstår at hendelsen er lagt bak seg

Navn: Irene Juliane Hansen
E-post: irene.j.hansen@deloitte.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1970



UTDANNING:

1996-1997 Årsstudium i Rettsvitenskap, City University of London, England
1990-1994 Handelsøkonom ved Handelsakademiet (HA), Oslo
Våren 1993 Utveksling et semester ved National University of Singapore
1986-1989 Sandefjord videregående skole, Sandefjord
1988-1988 Utveksling ett år ved Patrick Henry High School, Ohio, USA

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-d. d Partner, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2004-2007 Senior Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2001-2004 Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
1999-2001 Junior konsulent, Strategy & Operations, PwC Norge, Bergen
1997-1999 Junior konsulent, Financial Effectiveness, PwC, Singapore
1994-1996 Trainee, Taylorcocks, Bournemouth, England
1989-1990 Au pair, Palo Alto, California

SPRÅK:

Flytende engelsk, skriftlig og muntlig.
Noen kunnskaper i spansk og kinesisk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Veldig glad i å reise. Har fallskjerm- og sportsdykkersertifikat.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Utadvendt og nysgjerrig
- Kombinasjon av økonomi- og rettsvitenskap utdanning
- Mye internasjonal erfaring
- Populær hos sine medarbeidere

Svakheter:

- Ingen tidligere erfaring fra verv
- Tyder på at kandidaten ikke har fullført økonomistudiet ettersom kandidaten mangler flere vitnemålsfag ved Handelsakademiet (HA)
- Kun konsulenterfaring
- Lite kjennskap til papirbransjen

Navn: Per Fagernes
E-post: per.fagernes@gmail.no
Bosted: Lillehammer
Født: 1969



UTDANNING:

1988-1991 Økonomi & Administrasjon, Distriktshøgskole (2 årig)
1985-1988 Gausdal videregående skole, Gausdal

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-2017 Direktør, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
2000-2007 Logistikkjef, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1995-2000 Logistikkonsulent, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1993-1995 Controller, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1991-1993 Prosjektkoordinator Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer

VERV:

2012-d. d Styremedlem i Norges Golf forbund
2007- 2017 Styreleder, Asko Oppland Eiendom ANS
1995-d. d Styremedlem, Asko Oppland AS
1994-2000 Styremedlem Fagernes Gjestegård AS

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å være sosial, drar gjerne på skogsturer og fjellturer med gode venner. Golfentusiast, lærer bort golf til ungdommer i alder 13+ i Håkons hall.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Kandidaten er kjent for å være direkte, intelligent og en utadvendt person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Kjent for å bidra mye til helse, miljø og sikkerhet (HMS) som direktør
- Vant 'Årets Moderne Transport-pris' i 2006 for sine strategiske og logiske løsninger

Svakheter:

- Under gjennomsnittlig dårlig engelskkunnskaper
- Kandidaten er per dags dato arbeidsløs ettersom kandidaten måtte fratrukke sin stilling som direktør i Asko Oppland AS. Dette er på bakgrunn av kritikk av kandidatens lederstil og en konfliktsituasjon som skal ha oppstått mellom kandidaten og nære medarbeidere
- Har kun hatt en arbeidsplass, Asko Oppland AS. Ingen annen arbeidserfaring
- Kjent for å være selvopptatt

Navn: Trude Iversen
E-post: trude.iversen@veidekke.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1965



UTDANNING:

2006-2007 Årsstudium, Ledelse, Handelshøyskolen BI, Oslo
1984-1988 Industriell Design, Ingeniør og Arkitektur, Pratt Institute, New York, USA
1981-1984 Frederik II videregående skole, Fredrikstad

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2010-d. d Regionsjef Østlandet, Veidekke AS, Oslo
2005-2010 Direktør, Projectplace AS, Oslo
1997-2005 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Group AS, Oslo
1992-1997 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Design AS, Oslo
1988-1992 Industridesigner, Engineering Design AS, Fredrikstad

VERV:

2010-d. d Styremedlem Veidekke AS
2005-d. d Medlem, Oslo Seilforening
2005-2010 Nestleder, Projectplace AS
1997-2005 Styreleder, Anker Group AS
1992-2005 Styreleder, Anker Holding AS
1992-1997 Styreleder, Anker Design AS

SPRÅK:

Snakker og skriver flytende engelsk og svensk. Noe muntlig og skriftlig tysk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Glad i å spille tennis og seile. Har deltatt på flere regattaer rundt om i Norden.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Flink til å kommunisere og er en god relasjonsbygger
- Aktiv med styreverv
- Flink entreprenør
- Høyt CSR fokus. Bidrar til samfunnet som eks. bidrag til utdanning av barn i Uganda

Svakheter:

- Kjent for å snakke mye og tendenser til å overkjøre andre
- Veldig profilert person på sosiale medier. Mye omtalt i media
- Kandidat virker til å være overoptimistisk. Har måtte gi opp tre tidlige bedrifter, to hvor kandidaten selv har vært eier. Bedriftene har ikke gått dramatisk konkurs, men har vært ute av stand til å møte sine økonomiske forpliktelser ved forfall
- Kjent for å komme for sent til møter og avtaler

Group 2

Navn: Trude Iversen
Epost: trude.iversen@wp.no
Bosted: Stavanger
Født: 1964



UTDANNING:

1984-1989 Sivilingeniørutdannelse ved Norges Tekniske Høgskole (nå NTNU)
1983-1984 Militærtjeneste i Hærens Samband
1980-1983 St.Olav videregående skole, Stavanger

ARBEIDSERFARING:

1999-d. d Direktør, Wellesley Petroleum, Stavanger
1995-1999 Driftsdirektør, Troms Offshore Management AS
1990-1995 Avdelingsleder, Troms Offshore Management AS, Tromsø
1989-1990 Controller, Varden Olje & Gass, Tromsø

VERV:

2005- d.d. Styremedlem, Norsk Petroleumsforening, Oslo
2000-2004 Styremedlem i Hemning Skiklubb

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å trene og er aktiv skiløper om vinteren. Har deltatt på flere langdistanserenn, som Birkebeinerrennet og Vasaloppet. Trives ute i skog og mark om sommeren, jakt og fiske, gjerne med gode turkamerater.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Blid og imøtekommende person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Høyere utdanning fra NTNU (tidligere NTH)
- Viser engasjement i samfunnet ved å aktivt bidra ved ulike arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune

Svakheter:

- Erfaring kun fra oljesektoren
- Ingen internasjonal erfaring
- Snakker og skriver dårlig engelsk
- Kandidaten har en forhistorie hvor kandidaten har tilsynelatende møtt opp i beruset tilstand ved ulike familie/barne-arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune. Siste hendelse skal ha tatt plass sommeren 2014 og kandidaten påstår at hendelsen er lagt bak seg

Navn: Ole-Gustav Lindeberg
E-post: ole.lindeberg@deloitte.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1970



UTDANNING:

1996-1997 Årsstudium i Rettsvitenskap, City University of London, England
1990-1994 Handelsøkonom ved Handelsakademiet (HA), Oslo
Våren 1993 Utveksling et semester ved National University of Singapore
1986-1989 Sandefjord videregående skole, Sandefjord
1988-1988 Utveksling ett år ved Patrick Henry High School, Ohio, USA

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-d. d Partner, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2004-2007 Senior Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2001-2004 Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
1999-2001 Junior konsulent, Strategy & Operations, PwC Norge, Bergen
1997-1999 Junior konsulent, Financial Effectiveness, PwC, Singapore
1994-1996 Trainee, Taylorcocks, Bournemouth, England
1989-1990 Au pair, Palo Alto, California

SPRÅK:

Flytende engelsk, skriftlig og muntlig.
Noen kunnskaper i spansk og kinesisk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Veldig glad i å reise. Har fallskjerm- og sportsdykkersertifikat.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Utadvendt og nysgjerrig
- Kombinasjon og økonomi- og rettsvitenskap utdanning
- Mye internasjonal erfaring
- Populær hos sine medarbeidere

Svakheter:

- Ingen tidligere erfaring fra verv
- Tyder på at kandidaten ikke har fullført økonomistudiet ettersom kandidaten mangler flere vitnemålsfag ved Handelsakademiet (HA)
- Kun konsulenterfaring
- Lite kjennskap til papirbransjen

Navn: Irene Juliane Hansen
E-post: irene.hansen@gmail.no
Bosted: Lillehammer
Født: 1969



UTDANNING:

1988-1991 Økonomi & Administrasjon, Distriktshøgskole (2 årig)
1985-1988 Gausdal videregående skole, Gausdal

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-2017 Direktør, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
2000-2007 Logistikkjef, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1995-2000 Logistikkonsulent, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1993-1995 Controller, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1991-1993 Prosjektkoordinator Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer

VERV:

2012-d. d Styremedlem i Norges Golf forbund
2007- 2017 Styreleder, Asko Oppland Eiendom ANS
1995-d. d Styremedlem, Asko Oppland AS
1994-2000 Styremedlem Fagernes Gjestegård AS

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å være sosial, drar gjerne på skogsturer og fjellturer med gode venner. Golfentusiast, lærer bort golf til ungdommer i alder 13+ i Håkons hall.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:**Styrker:**

- Kandidaten er kjent for å være direkte, intelligent og en utadvendt person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Kjent for å bidra mye til helse, miljø og sikkerhet (HMS) som direktør
- Vant 'Årets Moderne Transport-pris' i 2006 for sine strategiske og logiske løsninger

Svakheter:

- Under gjennomsnittlig dårlig engelskkunnskaper
- Kandidaten er per dags dato arbeidsløs ettersom kandidaten måtte fratrukke sin stilling som direktør i Asko Oppland AS. Dette er på bakgrunn av kritikk av kandidatens lederstil og en konfliktsituasjon som skal ha oppstått mellom kandidaten og nære medarbeidere
- Har kun hatt en arbeidsplass, Asko Oppland AS. Ingen annen arbeidserfaring
- Kjent for å være selvpåttatt

Navn: Per Fagernes
E-post: per.fagernes@veidekke.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1965



UTDANNING:

2006-2007 Årsstudium, Ledelse, Handelshøyskolen BI, Oslo
1984-1988 Industriell Design, Ingeniør og Arkitektur, Pratt Institute, New York, USA
1981-1984 Frederik II videregående skole, Fredrikstad

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2010-d. d Regionsjef Østlandet, Veidekke AS, Oslo
2005-2010 Direktør, Projectplace AS, Oslo
1997-2005 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Group AS, Oslo
1992-1997 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Design AS, Oslo
1988-1992 Industridesigner, Engineering Design AS, Fredrikstad

VERV:

2010-d. d Styremedlem Veidekke AS
2005-d. d Medlem, Oslo Seilforening
2005-2010 Nestleder, Projectplace AS
1997-2005 Styreleder, Anker Group AS
1992-2005 Styreleder, Anker Holding AS
1992-1997 Styreleder, Anker Design AS

SPRÅK:

Snakker og skriver flytende engelsk og svensk. Noe muntlig og skriftlig tysk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Glad i å spille tennis og seile. Har deltatt på flere regattaer rundt om i Norden.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Flink til å kommunisere og er en god relasjonsbygger
- Aktiv med styreverv
- Flink entreprenør
- Høyt CSR fokus. Bidrar til samfunnet som eks. bidrag til utdanning av barn i Uganda

Svakheter:

- Kjent for å snakke mye og tendenser til å overkjøre andre
- Veldig profilert person på sosiale medier. Mye omtalt i media
- Kandidat virker til å være overoptimistisk. Har måtte gi opp tre tidligere bedrifter, to hvor kandidaten selv har vært eier. Bedriftene har ikke gått dramatisk konkurs, men har vært ute av stand til å møte sine økonomiske forpliktelser ved forfall
- Kjent for å komme for sent til møter og avtaler

Group 3

Navn: Per Fagernes
Epost: per.fagernes@wp.no
Bosted: Stavanger
Født: 1964



UTDANNING:

1984-1989 Sivilingeniørutdannelse ved Norges Tekniske Høgskole (nå NTNU)
1983-1984 Militærtjeneste i Hærens Samband
1980-1983 St.Olav videregående skole, Stavanger

ARBEIDSERFARING:

1999-d. d Direktør, Wellesley Petroleum, Stavanger
1995-1999 Driftsdirektør, Troms Offshore Management AS
1990-1995 Avdelingsleder, Troms Offshore Management AS, Tromsø
1989-1990 Controller, Varden Olje & Gass, Tromsø

VERV:

2005- d.d. Styremedlem, Norsk Petroleumsforening, Oslo
2000-2004 Styremedlem i Hemning Skiklubb

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å trene og er aktiv skiløper om vinteren. Har deltatt på flere langdistanserenn, som Birkebeinerrennet og Vasaloppet. Trives ute i skog og mark om sommeren, jakt og fiske, gjerne med gode turkamerater.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Blid og imøtekommende person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Høyere utdanning fra NTNU (tidligere NTH)
- Viser engasjement i samfunnet ved å aktivt bidra ved ulike arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune

Svakheter:

- Erfaring kun fra oljesektoren
- Ingen internasjonal erfaring
- Snakker og skriver dårlig engelsk
- Kandidaten har en forhistorie hvor kandidaten har tilsynelatende møtt opp i beruset tilstand ved ulike familie/barne-arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune. Sist hendelse skal ha tatt plass sommeren 2014 og kandidaten påstår at hendelsen er lagt bak seg

Navn: Trude Iversen
E-post: trude.iversen@deloitte.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1970



UTDANNING:

1996-1997 Årsstudium i Rettsvitenskap, City University of London, England
1990-1994 Handelsøkonom ved Handelsakademiet (HA), Oslo
Våren 1993 Utveksling et semester ved National University of Singapore
1986-1989 Sandefjord videregående skole, Sandefjord
1988-1988 Utveksling ett år ved Patrick Henry High School, Ohio, USA

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-d. d Partner, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2004-2007 Senior Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2001-2004 Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
1999-2001 Junior konsulent, Strategy & Operations, PwC Norge, Bergen
1997-1999 Junior konsulent, Financial Effectiveness, PwC, Singapore
1994-1996 Trainee, Taylorcocks, Bournemouth, England
1989-1990 Au pair, Palo Alto, California

SPRÅK:

Flytende engelsk, skriftlig og muntlig.
Noen kunnskaper i spansk og kinesisk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Veldig glad i å reise. Har fallskjerms- og sportsdykkersertifikat.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Utadvendt og nysgjerrig
- Kombinasjon og økonomi- og rettsvitenskap utdanning
- Mye internasjonal erfaring
- Populær hos sine medarbeidere

Svakheter:

- Ingen tidligere erfaring fra verv
- Tyder på at kandidaten ikke har fullført økonomistudiet ettersom kandidaten mangler flere vitnemålsfag ved Handelsakademiet (HA)
- Kun konsulenterfaring
- Lite kjennskap til papirbransjen

Navn: Ole-Gustav Lindeberg
E-post: ole.lindeberg@gmail.no
Bosted: Lillehammer
Født: 1969



UTDANNING:

1988-1991 Økonomi & Administrasjon, Distriktshøgskole (2 årig)
1985-1988 Gausdal videregående skole, Gausdal

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-2017 Direktør, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
2000-2007 Logistikkjef, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1995-2000 Logistikkonsulent, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1993-1995 Controller, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1991-1993 Prosjektkoordinator Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer

VERV:

2012-d. d Styremedlem i Norges Golf forbund
2007- 2017 Styreleder, Asko Oppland Eiendom ANS
1995-d. d Styremedlem, Asko Oppland AS
1994-2000 Styremedlem Fagernes Gjestegård AS

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å være sosial, drar gjerne på skogsturer og fjellturer med gode venner. Golfentusiast, lærer bort golf til ungdommer i alder 13+ i Håkons hall.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Kandidaten er kjent for å være direkte, intelligent og en utadvendt person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Kjent for å bidra mye til helse, miljø og sikkerhet (HMS) som direktør
- Vant 'Årets Moderne Transport-pris' i 2006 for sine strategiske og logiske løsninger

Svakheter:

- Under gjennomsnittlig dårlig engelskkunnskaper
- Kandidaten er per dags dato arbeidsløs ettersom kandidaten måtte fratre sin stilling som direktør i Asko Oppland AS. Dette er på bakgrunn av kritikk ved kandidatens lederstil og en konfliktsituasjon som skal ha oppstått mellom kandidaten og nære medarbeidere
- Har kun hatt en arbeidsplass, Asko Oppland AS. Ingen annen arbeidserfaring
- Kjent for å være selvopptatt

Navn: Irene Juliane Hansen
E-post: irene.hansen@veidekke.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1965



UTDANNING:

2006-2007 Årsstudium, Ledelse, Handelshøyskolen BI, Oslo
1984-1988 Industriell Design, Ingeniør og Arkitektur, Pratt Institute, New York, USA
1981-1984 Frederik II videregående skole, Fredrikstad

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2010-d. d Regionsjef Østlandet, Veidekke AS, Oslo
2005-2010 Direktør, Projectplace AS, Oslo
1997-2005 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Group AS, Oslo
1992-1997 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Design AS, Oslo
1988-1992 Industridesigner, Engineering Design AS, Fredrikstad

VERV:

2010-d. d Styremedlem Veidekke AS
2005-d. d Medlem, Oslo Seilforening
2005-2010 Nestleder, Projectplace AS
1997-2005 Styreleder, Anker Group AS
1992-2005 Styreleder, Anker Holding AS
1992-1997 Styreleder, Anker Design AS

SPRÅK:

Snakker og skriver flytende engelsk og svensk. Noe muntlig og skriftlig tysk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Glad i å spille tennis og seile. Har deltatt på flere regattaer rundt om i Norden.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Flink til å kommunisere og er en god relasjonsbygger
- Aktiv med styreverv
- Flink entreprenør
- Høyt CSR fokus. Bidrar til samfunnet som eks. bidrag til utdanning av barn i Uganda

Svakheter:

- Kjent for å snakke mye og tendenser til å overkjøre andre
- Veldig profilert person på sosiale medier. Mye omtalt i media
- Kandidaten virker til å være overoptimistisk. Har måtte gi opp tre tidligere bedrifter, to hvor kandidaten selv har vært eier. Bedriftene har ikke gått dramatisk konkurs, men har vært ute av stand til å møte sine økonomiske forpliktelser ved forfall
- Kjent for å komme for sent til møter og avtaler

Group 4

Navn: Irene Juliane Hansen
Epost: irene.hansen@wp.no
Bosted: Stavanger
Født: 1964



UTDANNING:

1984-1989 Sivilingeniørutdannelse ved Norges Tekniske Høgskole (nå NTNU)
1983-1984 Militærtjeneste i Hærens Samband
1980-1983 St.Olav videregående skole, Stavanger

ARBEIDSERFARING:

1999-d. d Direktør, Wellesley Petroleum, Stavanger
1995-1999 Driftsdirektør, Troms Offshore Management AS
1990-1995 Avdelingsleder, Troms Offshore Management AS, Tromsø
1989-1990 Controller, Varden Olje & Gass, Tromsø

VERV:

2005- d.d. Styremedlem, Norsk Petroleumsforening, Oslo
2000-2004 Styremedlem i Hemning Skiklubb

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å trene og er aktiv skiløper om vinteren. Har deltatt på flere langdistanserenn, som Birkebeinerrennet og Vasaloppet. Trives ute i skog og mark om sommeren, jakt og fiske, gjerne med gode turkamerater.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Blid og imøtekommende person
- Mye ansvarserfaring som direktør, styreleder og medlem
- Høyere utdanning fra NTNU (tidligere NTH)
- Viser engasjement i samfunnet ved å aktivt bidra ved ulike arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune

Svakheter:

- Erfaring kun fra oljesektoren
- Ingen internasjonal erfaring
- Snakker og skriver dårlig engelsk
- Kandidaten har en forhistorie hvor kandidaten har tilsynelatende møtt opp i beruset tilstand ved ulike familie/barne-arrangement arrangert av Stavanger kommune. Sist hendelse skal ha tatt plass sommeren 2014 og kandidaten påstår at hendelsen er lagt bak seg

Navn: Per Fagernes
E-post: per.fagernes@deloitte.no
Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1970



UTDANNING:

1996-1997 Årsstudium i Rettsvitenskap, City University of London, England
1990-1994 Handelsøkonom ved Handelsakademiet (HA), Oslo
Våren 1993 Utveksling et semester ved National University of Singapore
1986-1989 Sandefjord videregående skole, Sandefjord
1988-1988 Utveksling ett år ved Patrick Henry High School, Ohio, USA

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-d. d Partner, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2004-2007 Senior Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
2001-2004 Manager, Deloitte Norge, Oslo
1999-2001 Junior konsulent, Strategy & Operations, PwC Norge, Bergen
1997-1999 Junior konsulent, Financial Effectiveness, PwC, Singapore
1994-1996 Trainee, Taylorcocks, Bournemouth, England
1989-1990 Au pair, Palo Alto, California

SPRÅK:

Flytende engelsk, skriftlig og muntlig.
Noen kunnskaper i spansk og kinesisk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Veldig glad i å reise. Har fallskjerm- og sportsdykkersertifikat.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Utadvendt og nysgjerrig
- Kombinasjon og økonomi- og rettsvitenskap utdanning
- Mye internasjonal erfaring
- Populær hos sine medarbeidere

Svakheter:

- Ingen tidligere erfaring fra verv
- Tyder på at kandidaten ikke har fullført økonomistudiet ettersom kandidaten mangler flere vitnemålsfag ved Handelsakademiet (HA)
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Navn: Trude Iversen
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Bosted: Lillehammer
Født: 1969



UTDANNING:

1988-1991 Økonomi & Administrasjon, Distriktshøgskole (2 årig)
1985-1988 Gausdal videregående skole, Gausdal

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2007-2017 Direktør, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
2000-2007 Logistikkjef, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1995-2000 Logistikkonsulent, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1993-1995 Controller, Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer
1991-1993 Prosjektkoordinator Asko Oppland AS, Lillehammer

VERV:

2012-d. d Styremedlem i Norges Golf forbund
2007- 2017 Styreleder, Asko Oppland Eiendom ANS
1995-d. d Styremedlem, Asko Oppland AS
1994-2000 Styremedlem Fagernes Gjestegård AS

SPRÅK:

Noe engelsk, både skriftlig og muntlig.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Liker å være sosial, drar gjerne på skogsturer og fjellturer med gode venner. Golfentusiast, lærer bort golf til ungdommer i alder 13+ i Håkons hall.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Kandidaten er kjent for å være direkte, intelligent og en utadvendt person
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- Kjent for å bidra mye til helse, miljø og sikkerhet (HMS) som direktør
- Vant 'Årets Moderne Transport-pris' i 2006 for sine strategiske og logiske løsninger

Svakheter:

- Under gjennomsnittlig dårlig engelskkunnskaper
- Kandidaten er per dags dato arbeidsløs ettersom kandidaten måtte fratre sin stilling som direktør i Asko Oppland AS. Dette er på bakgrunn av kritikk ved kandidatens lederstil og en konfliktsituasjon som skal ha oppstått mellom kandidaten og nære medarbeidere
- Har kun hatt en arbeidsplass, Asko Oppland AS. Ingen annen arbeidserfaring
- Kjent for å være selvopptatt

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Bosted: Oslo
Født: 1965



UTDANNING:

2006-2007 Årsstudium, Ledelse, Handelshøyskolen BI, Oslo
1984-1988 Industriell Design, Ingeniør og Arkitektur, Pratt Institute, New York, USA
1981-1984 Frederik II videregående skole, Fredrikstad

ARBEIDSERFARING:

2010-d. d Regionsjef Østlandet, Veidekke AS, Oslo
2005-2010 Direktør, Projectplace AS, Oslo
1997-2005 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Group AS, Oslo
1992-1997 Daglig leder og eier, Anker Design AS, Oslo
1988-1992 Industridesigner, Engineering Design AS, Fredrikstad

VERV:

2010-d. d Styremedlem Veidekke AS
2005-d. d Medlem, Oslo Seilforening
2005-2010 Nestleder, Projectplace AS
1997-2005 Styreleder, Anker Group AS
1992-2005 Styreleder, Anker Holding AS
1992-1997 Styreleder, Anker Design AS

SPRÅK:

Snakker og skriver flytende engelsk og svensk. Noe muntlig og skriftlig tysk.

FRITIDSINTERESSER:

Glad i å spille tennis og seile. Har deltatt på flere regattaer rundt om i Norden.

HR-PERSONALETS VURDERING AV KANDIDATEN:

Styrker:

- Flink til å kommunisere og er en god relasjonsbygger
- Aktiv med styreverv
- Flink entreprenør
- Høyt CSR fokus. Bidrar til samfunnet som eks. bidrag til utdanning av barn i Uganda

Svakheter:

- Kjent for å snakke mye og tendenser til å overkjøre andre
- Veldig profilert person på sosiale medier. Mye omtalt i media
- Kandidat virker til å være overoptimistisk. Har måtte gi opp tre tidligere bedrifter, to hvor kandidaten selv har vært eier. Bedriftene har ikke gått dramatisk konkurs, men har vært ute av stand til å møte sine økonomiske forpliktelser ved forfall
- Kjent for å komme for sent til møter og avtaler