

## **WOMEN’S ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN MANAGING IN MALE AND FEMALE-DOMINATED CULTURES: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES?**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The number of women occupying mid-management positions in organizations has steadily increased. Subsequently, generations of organizational employees may have been supervised by a female manager. Moreover, the types of organizations where these women manage are increasingly diverse yet some of the sectors are traditional in nature and remain male-dominated. Perspectives about these managerial women as well as initiatives designed to facilitate their effectiveness continue to evolve. Since these women have garnered increased responsibilities within organizations, studies have explored their management styles as well as the challenges they encounter. Few studies, however, explore female subordinate attitudes about these women. More specifically, little is known empirically about the dynamic between managerial women and their female subordinates.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the presence of and attitudes towards women who manage within male and female-dominated cultures and to gain knowledge about the nature of their presence within these environments. Women’s attitudes and perceptions about managerial women in male and female-dominated organizational cultures is examined. The study also explores whether female subordinate attitudes and perceptions vary based on organizational type. Two hundred twenty-six participants completed a self-assessment instrument. ANOVA results indicate that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures were dissimilar in their attitudes toward women managers.

*Keywords:* Women Managers; Female Subordinates; Male and Female-Dominated Organizational Cultures

### **INTRODUCTION**

Women in the US have achieved consistent employment gains. They currently comprise approximately 47% of the US labor force (Catalyst, 2013). Over the last ten years, the number of women in management and professional positions has slightly increased and they currently occupy roughly 51% of these positions (Catalyst, 2014a). Upon examination of various sectors, women are: 35% of all employees in investment banking and securities dealing; 21% of all employees in car manufacturing; and 26% of all computer professionals (US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2013; US EEOC, 2013a; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Despite these advancements, women in senior executive positions, however, have not fared as well. According to Catalyst (2014a) approximately 5% of *Fortune 500* CEO’s are women. Moreover, these corporate women occupy approximately 16% of Board seats, and are 8% of top earners at *Fortune 500* firms (Catalyst, 2014). More specifically, in investment banking, car manufacturing, and information technology, women occupy approximately 16.1%,

16.5%, and 17% of executive positions, respectively (US EEOC, 2013; US EEOC, 2013a; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013).

These data suggest that management and executive occupations in the labor market remain relatively segregated by biological sex and women are underrepresented in senior level positions. This situation is somewhat surprising given women's educational attainment, which includes earning roughly 34% of MBA degrees over the last decade (Catalyst, 2014b). Moreover, they have made inroads into traditionally male-dominated occupations. Women in the senior managerial ranks comprise the pipeline for the next group of executives. As the pipeline increases, the number of women tapped for senior leadership roles should also, theoretically, increase. Women who hold these positions are representative of their organization's culture and values as they have been selected to execute strategies and attain goals of the organization. Moreover, they may serve as role models for young women desirous of occupying a management position. Regardless of whether managerial women secure a position in a traditionally male-dominated, or a traditionally female-dominated industry, insights about their presence as well as attitudes toward them would prove beneficial.

The purpose of this study is to investigate attitudes toward women who manage within male and female-dominated cultures and to gain knowledge about the nature of their presence within these environments. Specifically, there is interest in exploring women's attitudes and perceptions about managerial women in male-dominated and female-dominated organizational cultures. Moreover, the study examines whether attitudes and perceptions vary based on organizational type.

### **MALE AND FEMALE-DOMINATED INDUSTRIES**

In a male-dominated industry, women typically comprise 25% or less of the total employment (Department of Labor, 2009). Despite women gaining entry into the majority of employment sectors, a gender gap remains in many industries (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). The oil and gas, utilities, and technology sectors are amongst industries heavily populated by men when examining mid and senior level positions. Moreover, these sectors have experienced tremendous growth. According to Langdon, McKittick, Beede, Khan, and Doms (2011) from 2000 to 2010, oil and gas, energy, and high tech employment grew three times the rate of other industries in the US. Moreover, this sector is expected to grow by 17% through 2018. With respect to female-dominated industries, retail, office administration, primary education, and nursing remain the sectors most populated by women. Given these industries tend to be segregated by biological sex, there are unspoken behavioral expectations associated with managing within both industry types. Moreover, women may face additional challenges when navigating within these environments (Warren, 2009).

Firm industry has been widely studied in attempts to better understand men, women, and management (Bilimoria, 2006; Nelson & Levesque, 2007). Results suggest that firms with a service focus, with a great number of women stakeholders and firms that are children-oriented have a greater tendency to hire and promote women managers (Brady, Isaacs, Reeves, Burroway & Reynolds, 2011). Other studies such as Tharenou (2001) report that few gender differences exist in women's executive representation. Nelson and Levesque (2007) indicate that there is

limited distinction in the number of women in high growth technology, retail, and wholesale trade sectors. Women's scant representation in various industry sectors, nonetheless, is clear. There are, however, no definitive conclusions about the relationship between gender, management, and women's presence in various industry sectors.

Studies have been conducted to shed light on why gender based sector differences occur. One proposition is the presence of the clone theory whereby new hires, or those under consideration for promotion, are similar to the hiring or promotion manager. The theory suggests that there is a sense of comfort that exists with the hiring or promotion manager and the candidate given perceived commonality in certain characteristics. As such, candidates with dissimilar characteristics from the hiring or promoting manager may be more readily excluded from consideration. Another proposition suggests that firms requiring a high level of interaction with various stakeholders may be why some industry sectors have greater numbers of women managers (Goodman, Fields, & Blum, 2003). The prevalent notion is women tend to be well skilled in establishing rapport and connection with others and as such, their presence in sectors such as retail sales, childcare, and education is more prominent.

### **ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE**

In addition to characterizing the nature of a firm's industry, awareness of organizational culture is also salient. Schein (1985) defines culture as the prevailing values, beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions that are shared among individuals in an organization. Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, and Hanges (2010) suggest that organizational culture influences the behavior of leaders. Additional studies suggest that there is a symbiotic relationship between national culture, industry dynamics, and the prevailing organizational culture of a firm (Hofstede, 1980; Lyness & Kropf, 2005). Given the dynamics associated with an industry, a firm within the industry is likely to adopt and exhibit characteristics consistent with the prevailing characteristics. Consequently, the organizational culture of a firm in a male-dominated industry will likely reflect competition, individualism, task orientation, independence and respect for authority since these are the prevalent characteristics of the industry (Maier, 1999). Within this context, there is tremendous respect for hierarchy, the chain of command dominates, and an authoritarian management style permeates the organization. Moreover, in this environment individual gains are rewarded and assertiveness and aggression are commonplace (Maier, 1999). One's career has priority over other personal demands and organizational commitment is prized (Rosener, 1995).

Conversely, female-dominated organizational cultures are characterized by participation, collaboration, involvement, and egalitarianism (Loden, 1985). Group dynamics and processes are highly valued and there is considerable focus on interpersonal relationships. In terms of rewards, intrinsic factors are valued and team recognition dominates (Loden, 1985). Additionally, work-life balance is encouraged and respected (Lyness & Kropf, 2005).

Studies have examined the significance of gender and organizational culture. Van Vianen and Fischer (2002) state that women have a weaker preference for competitive organizational values as compared to their male counterparts. Wicks and Bradshaw (1999) report that women identify an ideal culture as one that emphasizes relationships, acceptance, and less authoritative relationships. The researchers also discuss the prevalence of stereotypical sex based behaviors.

They indicate that men, for example, are rewarded for less than friendly behaviors and women are rewarded for being friendly and accepting authority. These studies demonstrate that the prevalence of masculine cultures may present challenges for women who are navigating the managerial role. The reported findings also suggest that women may have a preference for a female-dominated culture.

Despite perhaps having a preference for working in a feminine culture, it may not be an option for some managerial women given the prevalence of masculine cultures in organizations. Subsequently, women who work in a male-dominated environment may need to demonstrate a style that is consistent with a masculine organizational culture in order to appear competent, maintain their status, and be considered an asset to the organization. Loden (1985) reports that demonstrating ambition, aggressiveness, self-confidence, and individualism comprise the requisite characteristics of the masculine mode of management and as such, are the normative behaviors that are widely demonstrated.

### **MANAGERIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND GENDER**

Studies report there is a tendency for managerial men and women to be associated with specific characteristics and men are more inclined to be associated with traits closely aligned with effective management (Ely & Rhode, 2010). Eagly and Karau (2002) report that despite having similar qualifications and leadership skills men are more inclined to be the preferred leader. Rudman and Kilianski (2000) suggest there is a greater likelihood of having prejudice against women who lead when subordinates expect men to have greater authority. Also, there is greater negativity toward women bosses in masculine sectors and jobs (Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006).

Research also indicates, there is an expectation that male and female managers conform to sex-role specific behaviors (Ely & Rhode, 2010). Failure to demonstrate sex appropriate behaviors is often penalized. This often-times places managerial women in a double-bind situation. If these women demonstrate traits associated with typical masculinity they tend to be criticized for not being more feminine, approachable, and inclusive (Herrera, Duncan, Green & Skaggs, 2012). Similarly, if these women demonstrate more feminine traits they are criticized for not being tough, decisive, and results-oriented which are masculine qualities that are associated with effectiveness.

### **SUBORDINATE ATTITUDES TOWARD MANAGERS**

Research has examined subordinate attitudes toward male and female managers. Many of the early studies report limited subordinate preference for a male or female manager (Brewer, 1979, Brewer & Kramer, 1985). Many contemporary studies, however, report gender bias among subordinate attitudes toward managerial women. Ely (1994) reveals that women subordinates hold negative perceptions of women managers when there are few women in senior positions. Warning and Buchanan (2009) reveal that male subordinates are more receptive to women bosses as compared to their female counterparts. Weiss (2009) indicates that women are inclined to accept hierarchy from men but not from other women. Tinsley, Chedelin, Schneider and

Amanatullah (2009) state effective women managers who demonstrate masculine behaviors are penalized despite similar behavior being acceptable for male counterparts.

### **ROLE CONGRUITY THEORY**

Role congruity theory posits that stereotyping of gender roles leads to expectations of individual behavior (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Given men and women are perceived to be different, there are appropriate behaviors for each (Heilman, 2001). There is the expectation that women demonstrate communal behavior which entails being helpful and nurturing (Eagly, 1987). Men, conversely, are expected to display commanding or agentic behaviors such as control, assertiveness, and confidence (Eagly, 1987). Subsequently, there is the attitude that men are more inclined towards leadership roles given the characterization of agentic behaviors. Conversely, communal traits are more highly valued for women. When women are perceived to demonstrate greater agentic behaviors, however, role incongruity ensues. This is likely to occur when women hold a traditionally masculine position such as manager or leader and when they are managing within a masculine culture.

### **SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY AND GENDER IDENTITY**

Social identity theory suggests that one's attitudes are shaped by membership in social groups such as gender, ethnicity, and occupation. An evaluation of one's group is compared to another group (Tajfel, 1978). Identification with the in-group occurs as members share an identity and are beneficiaries of advantages associated with being a member of the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Deaux and Steward (2001) suggest that gender identity refers to an awareness of oneself as male or female. It focuses on gender as a social identity. With respect to male and female managers, social identity theory posits that female subordinates would be more favorable to a female manager as compared to male subordinates. This may be due to an affinity these women may experience since they have similar group membership.

### **HYPOTHESES**

Women are making progress within the managerial ranks of organizations. While many studies have examined the attitudes and behaviors of these women, fewer studies explore female subordinate attitudes toward them and their presence. A contemporary occurrence is that organizational culture is evolving and male-dominated and female-dominated cultural types have emerged. Women occupy managerial positions within both organizational cultural types. The dynamics associated with female-dominant cultures embody qualities such as participation, involvement, and work family balance. Reports suggest that women prefer greater collaboration and inclusion from managers versus competition and a command and control style that tends to characterize the typical behavior of managers within masculine cultures. Moreover, some studies suggest that women may be more receptive to women supervisors. Therefore, it is hypothesized that women subordinates will differ in their attitudes toward women managers in male and female-dominated cultures.

H1: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their attitudes toward women managers.

Gender group identity is associated with a group's social position in the hierarchy. Within a female-dominated culture where supportive cultural practices and women's presence are enhanced, there should be increased group identity as women should be more connected to their own group. As such, it is hypothesized that female subordinates in female-dominated firms should differ in their gender identification as compared to women in male-dominated firms.

H2: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceived group identity.

Managerial women in supportive or female-dominated cultures have a role in executing policies and procedures and demonstrating desired and acceptable behaviors and practices. Subsequently, this suggests that subordinates may have a greater perception of egalitarianism within these firms. Conversely, male-dominated firms have a traditional culture characterized by competitiveness, assertiveness, hierarchical authority, and there is the practice of win at all costs. This type of culture also has a tendency to prioritize work over other demands. Those who do not embrace and demonstrate these characteristics may feel excluded and devalued. Therefore it is hypothesized that female subordinates will differ in their perceptions of gender bias.

H3: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceptions of gender bias.

Studies report that women have a greater preference for the characteristics and values espoused in female-dominated cultures. Specific qualities such as inclusiveness, consensus building, and participation tend to be exhibited and practiced more widely by women managers. As such, female subordinates will differ in their preference for a female supervisor.

H4: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their preference for a female supervisor.

### **SAMPLE METHOD AND MEASURES**

A total of 226 participants were involved in the study and they completed a self-assessment instrument. The instrument assessed attitudes toward women as managers (ATWAM), gender identity, perceived gender bias, and supervisory preference. All participants were women and all have a female supervisor. These women work in industries and for organizations that demonstrate either male or female-dominated cultures. In total, six firms comprise the survey frame. Two firms from financial services and one firm from the information technology sector represent male-dominant cultures. Two firms from the personal care sector and one firm from retail sales represent female-dominant cultures.

The Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (ATWAM) instrument was created by Yost and Herbert (1998). It has 12 items that gauge attitudes about women's ability to serve in a managerial capacity. Sample questions include: It is acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men; Recognition for a job well done is less important to women than it is to men; Women tend to allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior more than men; Women can be aggressive in business situations that demand it. A low score on the survey

indicates a favorable attitude toward women managers. Conversely, a higher score is associated with a less favorable attitude toward women in managerial roles. The alpha coefficient for the instrument is .76.

The gender identity scale was developed by Foley, Ngo, and Loi (2006). It measures three items. The items include: I identify with members of my gender group; I am like members of my gender group; My gender group is an important reflection of who I am. The alpha coefficient for the scale is .81.

The perceived gender bias scale was developed by Gutek, Cohen, and Tsui (1996) and it measures four items. The items include: Men are promoted faster than women in the organization; My organization prefers to hire men; Men are more likely to receive a generous pay raise; Men are more likely to receive favorable performance evaluations. The scale has an alpha coefficient of .91.

The supervisory preference scale was created by Warning and Buchanan (2009). It assesses two items: I would rather have a female supervisor as compared to a male supervisor; I prefer a male supervisor to a female supervisor. The alpha coefficient for the scale is .70.

The ANOVA technique was used to examine differences between women in the male and female-dominated organizational types. Means were also compared in order to further examine the nature of differences between the groups.

## **RESULTS**

The ANOVA results indicate that hypotheses one, two, and three were statistically significant at the .02 level. All ANOVA results are depicted in table one.

**Table 1. ANOVA Results\***

|         |                | Sum of Squares | Df  | Mean Square | F       | Sig. |
|---------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|---------|------|
| ATWAM   | Between Groups | 3421.797       | 1   | 3421.797    | 122.107 | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 6277.163       | 224 | 28.023      |         |      |
|         | Total          | 9698.960       | 225 |             |         |      |
| IDGM    | Between Groups | 6.873          | 1   | 6.873       | 18.976  | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 81.131         | 224 | .362        |         |      |
|         | Total          | 88.004         | 225 |             |         |      |
| LIKEGM  | Between Groups | 9.005          | 1   | 9.005       | 7.352   | .007 |
|         | Within Groups  | 274.380        | 224 | 1.225       |         |      |
|         | Total          | 283.385        | 225 |             |         |      |
| REFLTGM | Between Groups | 7.990          | 1   | 7.990       | 5.134   | .024 |
|         | Within Groups  | 348.577        | 224 | 1.556       |         |      |
|         | Total          | 356.566        | 225 |             |         |      |
| PROMOTM | Between Groups | 79.844         | 1   | 79.844      | 271.270 | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 65.931         | 224 | .294        |         |      |
|         | Total          | 145.774        | 225 |             |         |      |
| HIREM   | Between Groups | 91.141         | 1   | 91.141      | 313.657 | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 65.089         | 224 | .291        |         |      |
|         | Total          | 156.230        | 225 |             |         |      |
| RAISEM  | Between Groups | 16.113         | 1   | 16.113      | 50.549  | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 70.126         | 220 | .319        |         |      |
|         | Total          | 86.239         | 221 |             |         |      |
| PEM     | Between Groups | 9.623          | 1   | 9.623       | 30.399  | .000 |
|         | Within Groups  | 70.912         | 224 | .317        |         |      |
|         | Total          | 80.535         | 225 |             |         |      |
| SPREFF  | Between Groups | .032           | 1   | .032        | .021    | .886 |
|         | Within Groups  | 349.477        | 224 | 1.560       |         |      |
|         | Total          | 349.509        | 225 |             |         |      |

\*Legend

ATWAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers construct

IDGM, LIKEGM, REFLTGM = Group Identity construct

PROMOTM, HIREM, RAISEM, PEM= Perceived Gender Bias construct

SPREFF = Supervisory Preference construct

The first hypothesis states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their attitudes toward female managers. Attitudinal differences between female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures was significant ( $F=122.10$ ,  $p < .00$ ). Mean differences reveal that female subordinates in male-dominated cultures have more favorable attitudes toward female managers. The variable means are reflected in table two.

**Table 2. Variable Means\***

| ORGTTYPE |                | ATWAM | IDGM | LIKEGM | REFLTGM | PROMOTM | HIREM | RAISEM | PEM  | SPREFF |
|----------|----------------|-------|------|--------|---------|---------|-------|--------|------|--------|
| 0        | Mean           | 26.99 | 4.25 | 3.55   | 3.27    | 4.49    | 4.56  | 4.56   | 4.48 | 2.37   |
|          | N              | 110   | 110  | 110    | 110     | 110     | 110   | 106    | 110  | 110    |
|          | Std. Deviation | 2.597 | .432 | 1.097  | 1.141   | .502    | .498  | .499   | .502 | 1.116  |
| 1        | Mean           | 34.78 | 3.90 | 3.16   | 2.90    | 3.30    | 3.29  | 4.02   | 4.07 | 2.40   |
|          | N              | 116   | 116  | 116    | 116     | 116     | 116   | 116    | 116  | 116    |
|          | Std. Deviation | 6.942 | .727 | 1.116  | 1.341   | .578    | .575  | .618   | .615 | 1.363  |
| Total    | Mean           | 30.99 | 4.07 | 3.35   | 3.08    | 3.88    | 3.91  | 4.27   | 4.27 | 2.38   |
|          | N              | 226   | 226  | 226    | 226     | 226     | 226   | 222    | 226  | 226    |
|          | Std. Deviation | 6.566 | .625 | 1.122  | 1.259   | .805    | .833  | .625   | .598 | 1.246  |

\*Legend

ATWAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers construct

IDGM, LIKEGM, REFLTGM = Group Identity construct

PROMOTM, HIREM, RAISEM, PEM= Perceived Gender Bias construct

SPREFF = Supervisory Preference construct

Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their group identity was the second hypothesis. Female subordinate differences in group identity was significant for each construct: IDGM  $F=18.96$ ,  $p<.00$ ; LIKEGM  $F=7.35$ ,  $p<.00$ ; REFLTGM  $F=5.13$ ,  $p<.02$ . Mean differences indicate that there is greater group identity among women in male-dominated firms as they indicate they identify with and are like members of their gender group. Respondents also indicate that their gender group is an important reflection of who they are.

The third hypothesis which states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceptions of gender bias was also supported. Female subordinate differences in perceptions of gender bias was significant for each construct: PROMOTEM  $F = 271.27$ ,  $p<.00$ ; HIREM  $F = 313.65$ ,  $p<.00$ ; RAISEM  $F = 50.54$ ,  $p<.00$ ; PEM  $F = 30.39$ ,  $p<.00$ . The means indicate that female subordinates in male-dominated firms perceive greater gender bias as compared to female subordinates in female-dominated firms. They believe men are preferential hires and are promoted faster. They also perceive that men are inclined to receive favorable performance evaluations and pay raises.

The fourth hypothesis that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their preference for a female supervisor was not statistically supported,  $F=.02$ ,  $p>.88$ .

## DISCUSSION

This study explores the presence of and attitudes toward women managers in male and female-dominated firms. There was interest in examining whether subordinate female attitudes toward women managers, gender group identification, perceptions of gender bias, and supervisory preferences differed. With the exception of supervisory preference, subordinate women in male and female-dominated firms were dissimilar in their attitudes.

Results indicate that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures differ in their attitudes toward women supervisors. Female subordinates in male-dominated cultures have more favorable attitudes toward women supervisors as compared to female subordinates in female-dominated cultures. One explanation of this outcome may be that since women are in the minority, there is simply a sense of solidarity. Given women are managing within the context of a male-dominated culture, perhaps there is an appreciation for them because the subordinate women are aware of the challenges that the supervisors encounter. For female subordinates, the case may very well be that the masculine culture is less palatable and supervisory women demonstrate a semblance of desired supervisor characteristics.

Conversely, female subordinates have less favorable attitudes toward women supervisors in female-dominated cultures. One rationale is there may be increased competition for resources, recognition, and promotion opportunities. Subsequently, managers may embrace more traditionally masculine behaviors in order to distinguish themselves from other managers. Moreover, the managers may exhibit a more masculine style in order to be taken seriously, meet performance goals, and be considered effective. Consequently, female subordinates might perceive them less favorably.

The assertion of the second hypothesis was that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures would differ in their group identity. The subordinates did indeed vary in their group identity. Subordinate women within the male-dominated culture report greater group identity. Since they are few in number, they may consider themselves outsiders and as such, perceive a greater bond with other women. Moreover, there may be a greater perception of solidarity among the women. Given the reported differences in group identity based on firm culture, it raises the question of why there was less identification within female-dominated cultures particularly since there is a tendency to have greater supportive practices within these firms.

Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will vary in their perceptions of gender bias was the expectation expressed in the third hypothesis. Results indicate that female subordinates in male-dominated cultures perceive greater gender bias. They believe that men are more inclined to be hired and promoted, and that men are more likely to receive better raises and performance evaluations. These perceptions may be created, substantiated, and perhaps reinforced, by taking note of the gender composition of the workplace. Mere observations may reveal a gender imbalance. Moreover, closer scrutiny may shed light on the hierarchical positions men hold relative to women. Perceived gender bias can clearly have potentially damaging effects given the implications for the firm's reputation as well as success in recruiting and retaining the best and brightest women. The competitiveness of the firm may also be compromised if all talent is not maximized.

The last hypothesis states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their supervisor preference. This proposition was not supported. Subordinates within both cultural types did not prefer a female supervisor. While the finding was unexpected, it is consistent with the results of other studies. Why is it that women don't prefer a female supervisor? It seems that women believe in women's ability to manage, yet, they don't prefer them. Perhaps there are behaviors that women demonstrate that simply do not resonate with

other women. Given the greater number of women present in female-dominated cultures, maybe there is a wide range of behaviors exhibited that move beyond those typically found within this context. Traditional masculine behaviors may be demonstrated as women compete for organizational resources. Moreover, these values might be considered an essential part of a female manager's arsenal in her attempts to climb the corporate ladder.

In male-dominated cultures women may not prefer a female supervisor given the traditional characteristics of the culture. They may perceive that women managing within this context might have to embrace the prevailing characteristics of the culture. In fact, they may feel that women ratchet up traditionally masculine behaviors in order to be accepted by their male counterparts. Clearly, this dynamic needs further study.

This investigation provides insight into the presence of and attitudes toward women managers within male and female-dominated cultures. The study explores these dynamics from a female subordinate perspective. The results suggest that differences based on firm cultural type exist. Increased awareness of these differences would prove useful in cultivating effective organizational cultures in both male and female-dominated contexts.

Based on the findings of the study, greater effort should be placed on forging the gender identity of women in female-dominated cultures which could then assist in preparing the next generation to move through the corporate ranks. Exploiting the values espoused within female-dominated cultures would also prove beneficial to these firms as they could capitalize on creating a reputation for valuing all talent which might positively impact recruitment and retention efforts. In male-dominated cultures, having a greater sensitivity to the perceptions of gender bias is salient. Identifying the root of these perceptions by reviewing, and perhaps, modifying human resource policies and practices would prove useful. Since women are managing within both cultural contexts, having a greater understanding as to why they are least preferred as supervisors is sorely needed.

Clearly, senior executives and decision-makers need to examine the dominant cultural values within their firms. Having knowledge about these workplace dynamics can create greater awareness of and appreciation for all talent, which may translate into greater competitiveness.

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