

Cross-Cultural Influences on Perceptions of Female Leaders

^aAbdel Moneim M.K. Elsaid, and ^bMichael B. Knight PhD
^aFaculty of Commerce, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt
Drehsaid78@yahoo.com

^bAssistant Professor of Computer Information Systems
John A Walker College of Business - Raley-2118
Appalachian State University, Boone, NC 28608
Ph# 828-262-6950
knightmb@appstate.edu

Abstract

Existing research indicates that women worldwide continue to face barriers to enter managerial positions simply because people, on average, sex stereotype the characteristics of managers in favor of men. Such sex role stereotyping of managerial positions could possibly create more negative views about the capability of women to occupy such positions. These views, if left unsolved, in turn will reinforce the sex role stereotypes that already exist, which state that women are not as qualified as men or do not possess the necessary qualities that managers need to possess in order to be successful. No studies to this date have attempted to study the status of women in managerial positions in Middle Eastern countries. The current study, utilizing the Schein Descriptive Index and Women as Managers Scale (WAMS), is important to the field because it examines Egypt, a Middle Eastern country, to satisfy the need for a study of the status of women in managerial positions worldwide in order to provide meaningful cross cultural comparisons.

Introduction

Existing research indicates that women worldwide continue to face barriers to enter managerial positions simply because people, on average, sex stereotype the characteristics of managers in favor of men. Such sex role stereotyping of managerial positions could possibly create more negative views about the capability of women to occupy such positions. These views, if left unsolved, in turn will reinforce the sex role stereotypes that already exist, which state that women are not as qualified as men or do not possess the necessary qualities that managers need to possess in order to be successful.

In the past, research on the status of women in managerial positions primarily focused on developed Western countries such as the US (Schein et al., 1989), UK and Germany (Schein & Mueller, 1992), Canada (Burke, 1994), and Northern Ireland (Cromie, 1981), along with their Eastern counterparts such as Japan and China (Schein et al., 1996). The gains to be derived from studying different countries, aside from the previously mentioned ones, are the provision of further insight and support of the results and conclusions that were previously found. Hence, it is interesting to find out how men and women sex stereotype managerial positions and how they

view women in managerial roles in different countries. No studies to this date have attempted to study the status of women in managerial positions in Middle Eastern countries. The current study, utilizing the Schein Descriptive Index and Women as Managers Scale (WAMS), is important to the field because it examines Egypt, a Middle Eastern country, to satisfy the need for a study of the status of women in managerial positions worldwide in order to provide meaningful cross cultural comparisons.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Women's roles in Egypt

Egyptians have traditionally viewed men as possessing the following characteristics: leading, independent, aggressive, and dominant. However, women were traditionally seen as passive, dependent, gentle, and responsible for household tasks (Baron, 1994). Congruent with these traditional views, existing research conducted in Egypt shows that throughout Egypt's history, women in particular, simply because of their sex, were discriminated against in the workplace and constrained to the roles of care givers, child bearers, and nurturers in their families. At the same time, men assumed the role of the bread winner and were responsible for providing food, shelter, clothing, and the rest of life's necessities for the women. Women, in return, took care of the children and household activities. As far as economic activities not based on the family unit were concerned, the norms and customs were that Egyptian women could only work as wage workers in agriculture and industry when their families were in need of their financial assistance (Tucker, 1985).

Over the past few decades, however, women have started to enter the labor force in large numbers. This influx of women into the labor force notwithstanding, Egypt still has one of the lowest wage labor participation rates for women in the world (Baron, 1994). Only recently, in the past few decades, Egyptian women have seen an increase in their participation in salaried labor force and have been empowered, in rare instances in their jobs, to reach managerial positions (Shami et al., 1990). Hence, at least hypothetically, both Egyptian men and women are expected to sex stereotype managerial positions against women based on the type of jobs women held in the past such as clerical and secretarial work, tourist guides, waitresses, etc. Earlier research, such as Schein et al. (1989), suggested that women in the United States have more positive attitudes toward women managers than their American male counterparts. Since Egypt is considered to be one of the few contemporary Middle Eastern countries, perhaps Egyptian females should show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their Egyptian male counterparts.

ROLE CONGRUITY THEORY

Eagly (1987) defined Gender Role Congruity (GRC) as "those shared expectations that apply to individuals on the basis of their socially defined gender." Similarly, Burn (1997), postulated GRC as "Sets of norms that communicate what is generally appropriate for each sex." According to Konrad and Cannings (1997), in western industrialized society, the female gender role has been that of homemaker and child-rearer, and the male gender role has been that of income provider for the family. Given these gender roles, Burn (1995) stated that both men and women experience normative and informational pressures to conform to these societal gender roles. Furthermore, normative pressure may refer to the risk of social sanctioning or rejection.

Thus, people, in order to avoid disapproval, may conform to societal and/or organizational gender roles. The other pressure discussed by Burn was that of the informational pressure. In a socially constructed world, informational pressure refers to people's reliance on social information in order to navigate socially within their work environment. People may conform to gender roles as a guide for appropriate behavior in new, ambiguous, or complex situations within the organization. .

With regard to remuneration and gender roles, Burke & Greenglass (1987) discussed the social male gender role as that of a provider and that this role corresponds to the paid work role. Conversely, they stipulated that the female gender role of homemaker conflicts with the role of women in the workplace. Therefore, GRC pressures interfere with the paid work role for women considerably more than they do for men. More specifically, a woman who works for pay is viewed as adding a new role to those of her already prescribed roles of wife and, if applicable, mother. In contrast, a man who is a husband and father is expected to maintain a primary identification with the paid work role (Konrad & Cannings, 1997).

To complicate this issue further, a review of census data over the past few decades shows a large increase of women in the US workforce (US census). Seemingly, relatively few women in Western industrialized countries conform to the traditional role of stay-at-home wife and mother. Despite this development, research has shown that gender stereotypes changed little between 1972 and 1988 (Brabant & Mooney, 1986; Bergen & Williams, 1991). As proof of this gender stereotype, DiBenedetto and Tittle (1990) found that both men and women in their sample perceived a tradeoff between paid work and family for women but not for men (Konrad & Cannings, 1997). Evidence that women conduct more childcare than men and that men are more likely to be in the labor force full time than women indicates that traditional gender role expectations influence behavior (Alpern, 1993; Snyder, 1994). As such, GRC theory still applies in contemporary western society.

In western society, the family activities customarily assigned to women are often incompatible with the paid work role: women with families often find they must reduce their commitment to paid work (Konek & Kitch, 1994). Traditionally, women's roles have varied from single, childless, women devoted exclusively to paid work, to total withdrawal from the paid labor force for married mothers. Hennig & Jardim (1978) stated that women are making different choices; instead of choosing between work and family as women have done in the past, many present-day women manage GRC pressures. They do this through a balance of the demands of the paid work role and the female gender role in the home. The variance for women's roles is extreme between work and home. As society has changed, women with children exhibit varying degrees of obligation to the paid work and family roles (Goldsmith, 1989).

Earning differentials based on gender, as theorized by Becker (1985), are that women withdraw from the paid work role in the face of extensive family obligations. Becker further argued that women exert less effort on paid work than men in order to conserve energy for their more burdensome responsibilities in the home. As a result, women were observed, in the Becker research, to be less productive than men in the workplace, and therefore, to be earning a lower wage. Becker (1985) postulated that effort expended on paid work should have a positive effect on organizational rewards, while effort expended on unpaid work in the family should have a negative effect. Further, GRC in organizations should provide differential rewards and sanctions for women and men. Accordingly, Biernat & Wortman (1991), postulated that women, more than men, should feel pressure to balance career and family while men, more than women, should feel pressure to excel in the career domain.

To further complicate Becker's argument devoted to gender roles and productivity, when work roles are ambiguous, productivity becomes difficult to observe. In such situations, productivity is less likely to be a good predictor of earnings (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1990). In addition to productivity, normative pressures affect the rewards workers receive from organizations (Bergmann, 1989). Norms probably have a stronger influence on organizational rewards when productivity is difficult to measure. Hence, normative pressures such as GRC may be expected to influence the organizational rewards received by workers whose productivity is difficult to observe.

The work of managers, the subjects of the present research, is quite ambiguous, and the problem of describing managerial work has been the focus of a rather large body of research (Hales, 1986; Mintzberg, 1973; Luthans, 1988). It is not unreasonable, therefore, to expect that GRC pressures might affect managers' organizational rewards.

Recent studies of women and men in management support the GRC perspective. One implication is that employers may be more willing to accommodate women's desires to balance work and family than men's. For example, Schmeer and Reitman (1990) found that withdrawing from the labor force for a period of time had a greater negative impact on men's earnings than on women's. Further, when women work reduced hours or withdraw from the labor force for family reasons, the impact for long term earnings was negligible (Olson and Frieze, 1989). A study by Lobel and St. Clair (1992) reported that women managers with a strong family orientation received larger merit salary increases than their male counterparts. Additionally, men with a strong career orientation received larger merit salary increases than their female counterpart managers who had pre-school children, comparing those with a strong family orientation to those with a strong career orientation. Further postulated was that men were more strongly penalized for dividing their attention between work and family than were women (Konrad & Cannings, 1997).

Further addressing this issue of GRC, Cleveland et al. (2000) and Powell and Graves (2003) reviewed considerable research indicating that individuals in organizations form mental prototypes or images of an ideal candidate or incumbent for a specific organizational role. Further, these prototypes may involve traits that are stereotypic of one gender (e.g., being male). When the tasks involved are typecast as mostly masculine, such as taking aggressive action and performing physically demanding tasks, and when most job incumbents are men, the prototype will likely be masculine, and men will routinely be deemed more suitable for the role by male and female evaluators to an equivalent extent (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Cleveland et al., 2000; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Powell & Graves, 2003). This perceptual bias may occur even when evaluators have extensive information about individuals' relevant credentials, experiences, and values, simply because being female is incongruent with the gender prescriptions inherent in the male-typed role (Heilman et al., 2004; Pratto, Stallworth, Sidanius, & Siers, 1997; Thomas-Hunt & Phillips, 2004). In this vein, scholars have suggested that stereotypes about women in the workplace are difficult to overcome, inasmuch as they are entrenched, influential, and automatically activated (Bargh, 1999; Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Powell & Graves, 2003; Pratto et al., 1997).

PRIOR RESEARCH

Schein Descriptive Index

Basic findings of previous studies regarding the sex role stereotype and requisite management characteristics could be summarized in Schein's (1973, 1975) work which demonstrated that managerial positions were mainly dominated by males. A sample of male US managers (Schein, 1973) and another one of female US managers (Schein, 1975) showed that both males and females perceived that successful middle managers ought to possess certain characteristics, and those characteristics were viewed as more commonly held by men in general than by women in general. Numerous researchers replicated Schein (1973, 1975), utilizing the Schein Descriptive Index. Brenner et al. (1989), for example, found that US males still stereotype against females regarding the characteristics that successful middle managers ought to possess, while females no longer stereotype the managerial position favoring males. One possible explanation for the variation in the findings from the studies conducted in 1970's and late 1980's is that women are beginning to change their opinions regarding the characteristics that successful middle managers ought to possess, not restricting those characteristics to males. The reasoning behind the previous statement could be because females have recently held more managerial positions than in the past in the US. But, in order to generalize such findings, more studies need to be conducted in different countries and at different points in time to determine whether such findings will continue to change over time.

Schein & Mueller (1992) answered a crucial question regarding the extent of the existence of sex role stereotypical thinking of a successful middle manager job in other countries and the comparison of such stereotypical thinking across countries. Schein & Mueller (1992) examined a different sample than the one in the USA. They found that male management students within Germany, UK, and the USA stereotyped successful middle manager characteristics to be male dominated. Female management students in Germany stereotyped successful middle manager characteristics to be male dominated as well. Female management students in UK also stereotyped successful middle manager characteristics to be male dominated but perceived a greater resemblance between females and successful middle managers than the German females. Female management students in the USA did not stereotype successful middle manager characteristics to be either male or female dominated. Furthermore, Schein et al. (1996) examined two developed Eastern countries: China and Japan. They found that Chinese males stereotyped successful middle manager characteristics to be male dominated, while Chinese females were somewhat close to the managerial stereotype although they perceived some resemblance between characteristics held by females and successful middle managers. Both Japanese males and females stereotyped successful middle manager characteristics to be male dominated.

Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)

The WAMS is a scale that measures attitudes toward women as managers. It has been used extensively in previous studies that have attempted to measure such attitudes (e.g. Sakalli-Ugurlu and Beydogan, 2002). Early research in a USA sample using the WAMS found that women rated women significantly higher than men rated men as managers (e.g. Die et al., 1990). In addition, studies conducted in the USA that used instruments that included questions relating to the ability of females to be successful managers (such as the WAMS) generally found that females were more prone to favor women managers over men managers (e.g. Stevens & DeNisi, 1980). However, when different instruments were used that were somewhat disguised regarding the questions relating to the ability of females to be successful managers (such as the Schein

Descriptive Index), both men and women showed negative attitudes toward women as managers. No studies to this date attempted to examine those beliefs regarding women managers in a Middle Eastern country. Nevertheless, there have been numerous studies conducted on different countries. Among those studies was a study by Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan (2002) conducted in Turkey, using the WAMS, that found that females held more positive attitudes toward women managers than did males. Another study by Burke (1994) was conducted in Canada using the WAMS and found that male business students showed significantly more negative attitudes towards women as managers than their female counterparts. Another study by Cromie (1981) was conducted on Northern Ireland using the WAMS and found that men were less inclined to accept women as managers than were women. The findings of these previous studies were not earth shattering because they have been previously documented in earlier studies (such as Dubno, 1985).

It is interesting to note that the phenomenon of male stereotyping against females is a world-wide phenomenon and is not restricted to specific countries. Nevertheless, in order to generalize these findings, it is necessary to continue examining stereotyping in other countries in different parts of the world. To this end, it is interesting to examine the attitudes that Egyptian management students have toward women managers in Egypt, which is a Middle Eastern country and is considered to be different than North American and European countries (including Turkey since it is in the process of being part of the European Union).

HYPOTHESES

The current study is designed to readdress the gaps in terms of studying the views regarding women in managerial positions worldwide. In addition, the study provides meaningful cross cultural comparisons and an understanding of the sex role stereotypical thinking of a successful middle manager job that exists across different countries.

H1: Females will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their male counterparts in both samples: USA and Egypt.

H2: USA students will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their Egyptian counterparts.

H3: English section male and female students will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their male and female counterparts in the Arabic section in the Egyptian sample.

METHOD

Sample

The Egyptian sample consisted of 404 male and 149 female undergraduate freshmen level class students enrolled in a school of business in a large Egyptian university. This university, which is the second largest university in Egypt, is located in Egypt's capital, Cairo. The Egyptian sample was broken down into two sections, English and Arabic. All the courses throughout the four-year program in the English section are taught in English and all the courses in the Arabic section are taught in Arabic. 266 students (202 males, 64 females) were enrolled in the Arabic section and 287 (202 males, 85 females) in the English section. The USA sample

consisted of 190 male and 134 female undergraduate junior level class students enrolled in a school of business in a large Midwestern university in the USA.

Procedure

The distribution procedure was identical in both countries. Course instructors at the colleges were given, in the case of the USA sample, or mailed, in the case of the Egyptian sample, a closed folder containing distribution instructions, Schein Descriptive Index, and Women as Managers Scale (WAMS). Each folder contained the same number of middle manager, men, and women forms so that the Index could be distributed equally in each class. The instructors were required to shuffle the forms prior to handing them out to ensure the random distribution of forms. Each student received only one form of the Index to avoid duplication of results and was not made aware of the purpose of the study prior to completion. The questionnaires were completed during class time and returned to the instructor immediately after completion. The students signed their names on a class attendance sheet of paper to receive extra credit for their participation and were given an option for an alternate exercise in case they did not wish to participate in the study. All students chose to participate. After completion of the questionnaire, the students were debriefed and thanked.

The Schein Descriptive Index and WAMS were translated from English into Arabic for the Arabic section students in the Egyptian sample. The translated version was not given to the English section students in the Egyptian sample simply because they are proficient in English. The evidence behind the previous statement is that English is the language in which all of the courses in the English section of the school of business are taught and is also the language with which students and faculty interact on a daily basis. The decentring method, first suggested by Werner & Campbell (1970), which is based on the back-translation procedure that is commonly used in cross-cultural research (Brislin, 1976) was used to translate the Schein Descriptive Index and WAMS questionnaires from the English language to the Arabic language. The instruments were originally in the English language, and a fluently bilingual native Egyptian graduate student translated the questionnaires into the Arabic language. A second fluently bilingual native Egyptian graduate student blindly translated the questionnaires back into the original language, English. The two original English language questionnaires were compared and examined for differences and a judgment call was made regarding the quality of the translation showing that almost no differences existed between the two original English language questionnaires. Thus, no adjustments were necessary.

Measuring instruments

Schein Descriptive Index

The 92-item Schein Descriptive Index (Schein, 1973) was used to define both the sex role stereotypes and the characteristics of successful middle managers. Three forms of this index were used. All three forms contained the same descriptive terms and instructions, except that one form asked for a description of middle managers in general, one for a description of men in general, and one for a description of women in general. The alpha for the scale was not reported in any of Schein's papers.

The instructions on the three forms of the Index were as follows (Schein, 1975):

“On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterize people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think (successful middle managers, men in general, or women in general) are like. In making your judgments, it might be helpful to imagine you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is (a successful middle manager, an adult male, or an adult female). Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of (successful middle managers, men in general, or women in general)”.

The ratings were made according to a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (not characteristic) to 5 (characteristic) with a neutral rating of 3 (neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic).

Women as Managers Scale (WAMS)

The attitudes toward women as managers were measured on a 21-item scale developed by Peters et al. (1974). Items referred to traits and behaviors expected from managers and characteristics of women that might hinder their performance as managers. Respondents indicated their agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) with scores ranging from 21 to 147, with the highest scores indicating more favorable attitudes toward women as managers. The reliability of the 21-items scale was .91 and has been validated with samples of students and managers (Peters et al., 1974; Terborg et al., 1977). The WAMS was chosen because it has been used extensively in previous studies that have attempted to measure attitudes toward women managers (e.g. Sakalli-Ugurlu and Beydogan, 2002). The psychometric properties of the scale were detailed in Peters et al. (1974). Terborg et al. (1977) presented evidence to support the construct validity of the scale, and Ilgen & Moore (1983) verified its reliability. No changes were made to the WAMS questionnaire.

RESULTS

Schein Descriptive Index

The degree of similarity between the descriptions of men and middle managers and between women and middle managers was determined by computing the intraclass correlation coefficients (r') from two randomized-groups analyses of variance (see Hays, 1963, p. 424). The randomized-groups were the 92 items in the Schein Descriptive Index. In the first analysis, the scores within each group were the mean item ratings of men and middle managers. In the second analysis, the scores within each group were the mean item ratings of women and middle managers. According to Hays, the larger the value of r' , the more similar the observations in the group tend to be relative to the observations in different groups. Thus, the smaller the within-item variability, relative to the between-item variability, the greater the similarity between the mean item ratings of either men and middle managers or women and middle managers.

The two analyses were run separately for the male and female samples within the two countries, Egypt and USA. It is hypothesized that English section male and female students should show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their male and female counterparts in the Arabic section in the Egyptian sample. The reasoning behind the previous statement is that

Egyptian management students in the English section are more prone not to sex stereotype managerial positions because they have received a substantially higher quality level of education throughout their primary and secondary education, as well as high level education at the university, while management students in the Arabic section have not.

Egyptian sample

As shown in table 1, for males there was a moderate but significant resemblance between the ratings of men and middle managers and a negative but significant resemblance between the ratings of women and middle managers. For females, there was a larger and significant resemblance between the ratings of men and middle managers than those of males and a surprisingly more negative and significant resemblance between the ratings of women and middle managers than those of males. This finding suggests that females are harsher on themselves when they rate themselves than males. This harshness is probably due to the inherent culture and upbringing that teaches females that males are more capable to be successful managers than females. Another reason could be the stipulations of both Islamic religion and Egyptian culture, which states that men should support their wives and children, probably influencing the views of the work patterns of women and what kinds of jobs are more suitable for them to occupy, clearly excluding managerial positions. Those positions that were deemed suitable for women were referred to as “proper work roles for women” such as clerical, secretarial, tourist guides, waitresses, etc. (Baron, 1994).

USA sample

As shown in table 1, for males there was a large and significant resemblance between the ratings of men and middle managers and a moderate but significant resemblance between the ratings of women and middle managers. For females, there was a smaller and significant resemblance between the ratings of men and middle managers than those of males and a larger and more significant resemblance between the ratings of women and middle managers than those of males. These results are not widely different from previous results that Schein et al. (1989) found. Table 2 shows the Egyptian and USA sample, along with those found by Schein & Mueller (1992) for male and female British and German management students, Schein et al. (1989) for male and female US management students, and Schein et al. (1996) for male and female Chinese and Japanese management students. The changes in male and female attitudes over time in different countries are shown in table 2. For example, the Egyptian females are harsher on their ratings of middle managers and women than their Japanese counterparts, while the Japanese females are more favorable on their ratings of middle managers and men than those of the Egyptian females. The previous results could be explained in terms of culture. The Egyptian culture is ingrained with the thought that women do not possess the characteristics and qualities that successful middle managers need while men do.

Women As Managers Scale (WAMS)

Descriptive statistics have been run on the samples to attain the means, standard deviations, and sample sizes. The means and standard deviations have been compared between the samples. The scores can range from 21 to 147, with the highest scores indicating more favorable attitudes

toward women as managers. Comparisons are made between the scores to determine which sample is more favorable towards women as managers than the other.

Table 3 presents some descriptive statistics for the samples in both countries: Egypt and USA. Those descriptive statistics are the means, standard deviations, and sample sizes accordingly. The Egyptian sample is broken down by section to represent the differences that students in each section have towards women as managers. This table shows that the USA students are more favorable towards women as managers than Egyptian students, both in men and women raters. When the results are examined by gender of rater, we find that women raters in the USA sample are more favorable towards women as managers than men raters. In the Egyptian sample, we find the same observation that was found in the USA sample - that women raters are more favorable towards women as managers than men raters. But, we find that the women raters in the Arabic section are slightly more favorable towards women as managers than the women raters in the English section. We find the opposite when we look at the men raters. We find that men raters in the English section more favorable toward women as managers than those in the Arabic section. One interpretation for the two previous findings could be explained in terms of the western style of education which exposed them to different, new concepts that English section students have received and experienced in the past which lead them to view women as possessing the characteristics of successful middle managers, compared to the Arabic section students who have not received western style education and continue to believe what they have learned about the notion that women do not possess the necessary characteristics that are required of successful middle managers.

DISCUSSION

The current study has investigated the perceptions of various groups of students regarding women's possession of suitable managerial skills and characteristics. The hypotheses were that western-influenced students and women in general would hold more positive perceptions of women as managers. Conversely, the hypotheses also stated that men in general and Egyptian educated men and women would hold more negative perceptions of women as managers. Hypotheses one stated, "Females will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their male counterparts in both samples: USA and Egypt." The findings show that this hypothesis proves true for women in the US sample, but not for Egyptian females, who had a somewhat negative perception of female managers, given the possible aforementioned traditional Egyptian sex stereotypes. The results statistically show differences among men and women in the cultures of Egypt and America.

Hypothesis two states, "USA students will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their Egyptian counterparts." This hypothesis held to be somewhat true. Egyptian males and females held negative views of women managers. However, in the USA sample, women held more favorable views of women managers than did their male counterparts. Again, the results statistically show differences among men and women in the cultures of Egypt and America.

Hypothesis three states, "English section male and female students will show more positive attitudes toward women managers than their male and female counterparts in the Arabic section in the Egyptian sample." In the Arabic sample, women held more favorable views toward women managers than did male respondents, with the surprising finding that the Arabic women had a more positive perception of female managers than their English counterparts. Again, the

results statistically show differences among men and women in the cultures of Egypt and America.

IMPACT TO BUSINESS

The ramifications of these findings for the world of business are vast. First, it is clear that western influence does not necessarily cause individuals to have a positive perception of women managers. Despite the proliferation of women into the workplace in the western world, GRC clearly shows that women are still perceived to be the primarily responsible party in the home. This sex stereotype of western men proves itself to be ingrained, thus causing men in the western world to perceive women managers as always somewhat divided between work and home, thus not being as capable of successful managerial jobs as their male counterparts. Conversely, women managers, both across the world, in general, are more positive about women managers due to their successful integration into the workplace. Lastly, Middle Eastern influenced women and men are less positive about the suitability of women managers than their western counterparts, due to ingrained traditional and cultural perceptions of the respective sex stereotypes of men and women. These findings also help develop a set of research questions to be further investigated regarding the international mixing of culture and business as globalization flattens the world we know (Freidman, 2006). First, are Middle Eastern businesses that engage in international trade with the West less likely to develop relations with companies that have women in roles of leadership? Second, do western businesses have reservations appointing women to leadership positions that deal in Middle Eastern business relations? Lastly, do international businesses treat women leaders differently than men leaders when developing a global policy?

We challenge the results to be further investigated. First, through the use of the same instrument between other cultures (Eastern, Middle eastern, Eastern and Western Europe, Russia, and South and Central America) and the globalizing West. Second that is research questions developed in the eve of this study be applied to these cultures to identify similarities and difference in perceptions of men and women in the workplace.

TECHNOLOGY COMPONENT

This study was conducted using traditional students in traditional settings at traditional universities. In today's global economy this study should be further developed to consider the gender perceptions in online or electronic leadership positions, while concurrently comparing those findings to the traditional results reported here. We conclude and suggest that the perceptions of gender are major considerations in a global economy and while numerous countries have employed legal controls to help gender inequalities, a global concern is now present that needs to be addressed. This study is but a start to the development of equalities needed in gender roles within a global economy.

REFERENCES

- 1) Alpern, S. (1993) In the beginning: A history of women in management. In E. A. Fagenson (Ed.), *Women In Management: Trends, issues, and challenges in managerial diversity*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, pp. 19-51.
- 2) Bargh JA. (1999). The cognitive monster: The case against the controllability of automatic stereotype effects. In Chaiken S, Trope Y (Eds.), *Dual-process theories in social psychology* (pp. 361-382). New York: Guilford.
- 3) Baron, A. (1994) Feminism in the Labor Movement: Women and the United Auto Workers, 1935-1975. Industrial & Labor Relations Review. 47, 350-352.
- 4) Becker, G. S.(1985) Human capital, effort, and the sexual division of labor. Journal of Labor Economics, 3, S33-S58.
- 5) Bergen, D. J., & Williams, J. E. (1991) Sex stereotypes in the United States revisited: 1972-1988. Sex Roles, 24, 413-423.
- 6) Bergmann, B. R. (1989) Does the market for women's labor need fixing? Journal of Economic Perspectives, 3, 43-60.
- 7) Biernat M, Kobrynowicz D. (1997). Gender- and race-based standards of competence: Lower minimum standards but higher ability standards for devalued groups. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72, 544-557.
- 8) Biernat, M., & Wortman, C. B. (1991) Sharing of home responsibilities between professionally employed women and their husbands. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60, 844-860.
- 9) Brabant, S., & Mooney, L. (1986) Sex role stereotyping in the Sunday comics: Ten years later. Sex Roles, 14, 141-148.

- 10) Brenner, O.C., Tomkiewicz, J., & Schein, V.E. (1989). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics revisited. Academy of Management Journal, 32, 662-669.
- 11) Brislin, R.W. (1976). Comparative research methodology: Cross-cultural studies. International Journal of Psychology, 11, 215-229.
- 12) Burke, R. (1994). Canadian business students' attitudes towards women as managers. Psychological Reports, 75, 1123-1129.
- 13) Burke, R., & Greenglass, E. (1987) Work and family. In C. L. Cooper and I. T Robertson (Eds.), International Review of industrial and organizational psychology. New York: Wiley, 1987.
- 14) Burn, S. The social psychology of gender. New York: 1995. CANNINGS, K. Managerial promotion: The effects of socialization, specialization, and gender. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 1988, 42, 77-88.
- 15) Chattopadhyay P, Tluchowska M, George E. (2004). Identifying the ingroup: A closer look at the influence of demographic dissimilarity on employee social identity. Academy of Management Review, 29, 180-202.
- 16) Cleveland JN, Stockdale M, Murphy KR. (2000). Women and men in organizations: Sex and gender issues at work. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 17) Cromie, S. (1981). Women as managers in Northern Ireland. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 54, 87-91.
- 18) Dubno, P. (1985). Attitudes toward women executives: A longitudinal approach. Academy of Management Journal, 28, 235-239.

- 19) Die, A.H., Debbs, T. Jr., & Walker, J.L. Jr. (1990). Managerial evaluations by men and women managers. The Journal of Social Psychology, 130, 763-769.
- 20) Eagly, A. H. (1987). Sex differences in social behavior: A social role interpretation. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum
- 21) Eagly, A. H. & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 108, 233-256,
- 22) Eagly, A.H., & Karau, S.J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. Psychological review, 109, 573-598.
- 23) Goldsmith, E. B. (1989) Work and family: Theory, research, and applications. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- 24) Hales, C. P (1986) What do managers do? A critical review of the evidence. Journal of Management Studies, 23, 88-115.
- 25) Hays, W.L. (1963). Statistics for psychologists. New York Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- 26) Heilman MA, Wallen AS, Fuchs D, Tamkins MM. (2004). Penalties for success: Reactions to women who succeed in male gender-typed tasks. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 416-427.
- 27) Hennig, M., & Jardim, A. (1978) The managerial woman. New York: Anchor Press, 1978.
- 28) Ilgen, D.R., & Moore, C.F. (1983). When reason fails: A comment on the reliability and dimensionality of the WAMS. Academy of Management Journal, 20, 89-100.
- 29) Konek, C. W, & Kitch, S. L. (1994). Women and careers: Issues and challenges. Newbury Park, CA: Sage,

- 30) Konrad, A.M., & Cannings, K. (1997). The effects of gender role congruence and statistical discrimination on managerial advancement. Human Relations, 50, 1305-1329
- 31) Konrad, A. M., & Pfeffer, J. (1990) Do you get what you deserve? Factors affecting the relationship between productivity and pay. Administrative Science Quarterly, 35, 258=285.
- 32) Lobel, S. A., & ST Clair, L. (1992) Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. Academy of Management Journal, 35, 1057-1069
- 33) Luthans, E (1988) Successful vs. effective real managers. Academy of Management Executive, 2(2), 127-132.
- 34) Mintzberg, H. (1973) The nature of managerial work. New York: Harper & Row.
- 35) Olson, J. E., & Frieze, I. H. (1989) Job interruptions and part-time work: Their effect on MBAs' income. Industrial Relations, 28, 373-386.
- 36) Peters, L.H., Terborg, J.R., & Taynor, J. (1974). Women as managers scale (WAMS): A measure of attitudes toward women in management positions. JSAS Catalogue of Selected Documents in Psychology, 4, 1-43.
- 37) Pratto F, Stallworth LM, Sidanius J, Siers B. (1997). The gender gap in occupational role attainment: A social dominance approach. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72, 37-53.
- 38) Powell GN, Graves LM. (2003). Women and men in management (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

- 39) Sakalli-Ugurlu, N., & Beydogan, B. (2002). Turkish college students' attitudes toward women managers: The effects of patriarchy, sexism, and gender differences. The Journal of Psychology, 136, 647-656.
- 40) Schein, V.E. (1973). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 95-100.
- 41) Schein, V.E. (1975). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 340-344.
- 42) Schein, V.E., & Mueller, R. (1992). Sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics: A cross cultural look. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13, 439-447.
- 43) Schein, V.E., Mueller, R., & Jacobson, C. (1989). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among college students. Sex Roles, 20, 103-110.
- 44) Schein, V.E., Mueller, R., Lituchy, T., & Liu, J. (1996). Think manager – think male: a global phenomenon? Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17, 33-41.
- 45) Schneer, J. A., & Reitman, F (1990) Effects of employment gaps on the careers of MBAs: More damaging for men than for women? Academy of Management Journal, 33, 391-406.
- 46) Shami, S., Taminian, L., Morsy, S.A., El Bakri, Z.B., & El-Wathig, M.K. (1990). Women in Arab society: Work patterns and gender relations in Egypt, Jordan, and Sudan. New York: Berg Publishers limited & UNESCO.

- 47) Snyder, N. M. (1994) Career women in perspective: The Wichita sample. In C. W Konek and S. L. Kitch (Eds.), *Women and careers: Issues and challenges*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage, pp. 1-18.
- 48) Stevens, G.E., & DeNisi, A.S. (1980). Women as managers: Attitudes and attributes for performance by men and women. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23, 355-361.
- 49) Terborg, J.R., Peters, L.H., Ilgen, D.R., & Smith, F. (1977). Organizational and Personal correlates of attitudes toward women as managers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 20, 101-116.
- 50) Thomas-Hunt MC, Phillips KW. (2004). When what you know is not enough: Expertise and gender dynamics in task groups. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 30, 1585-1598.
- 51) Tucker, J.E. (1985). *Women in nineteenth century Egypt*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 52) Werner, O., & Campbell, D.T. (1976). Translating, working through interpreters, and the problem of decentering. In R. Naroll & R. Cohen (Eds.), *A handbook of method in cultural anthropology* (pp. 398-420). New York: American Museum of Natural History.

Table 1

Source	Egypt	USA
All raters		
Managers and men	0.44***	0.4***
Managers and women	-0.23***	0.31***
Z*	9.4908***	1.07262
Males		
Managers and men	0.36***	0.64***
Managers and women	-0.14***	0.48***
Z*	5.9792***	1.85533***
Females		
Managers and men	0.47***	0.52***
Managers and women	-0.38***	0.61***
Z*	6.1392***	-.037892

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 2

Source	Egypt	USA	China	Japan	Germany	UK	USA
	(current study)						(1989)
Males							
Managers and men	0.36***	0.64***	0.91***	0.54***	0.74***	0.67***	.7***
Managers and women	-0.14***	0.48***	-0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.02	.11
Females							
Managers and men	0.47***	0.52***	0.91***	0.68***	0.66***	0.6***	.51***
Managers and women	-0.38***	0.61***	0.28***	-0.04	0.19*	0.31***	.43***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 3

Gender of rater	Egypt		USA
	Arabic section	English section	
Men			
M	34.09	38.37	109.11
SD	2.64	8.07	19.93
N	205	199	190
Women			
M	64.47	62.16	130.11
SD	4.28	4.81	12.17
N	62	87	134

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001