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**WOMEN, BUSINESS  
AND LEADERSHIP**  
Gender and Organisations

NEW HORIZONS IN MANAGEMENT

# Women, Business and Leadership

Gender and Organisations

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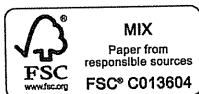
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## 22. Attitudes toward women managers and female authority: an empirical study among women managers in Greece

**Nikos Drosos and Alexander-Stamatios Antoniou**

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### INTRODUCTION

During the past decades, women's active participation in the labor market has increased tremendously at a global level. Industrialization of economies and the subsequent shift of focus from the agricultural sector to the tertiary sector, along with the growth in public and non-profit sectors has created new job opportunities for women and facilitated their entrance into the world of work (Davidson & Burke, 2011). Furthermore, the need for a second family salary due to the declining incomes of men has contributed to a change in attitudes toward working women, and many policy efforts and legal initiatives have been taken in order to promote gender equality in the labor market. In the European Union the employment rate for women reached the unprecedented high percentage of 65.5 percent in 2016, while the rate for men was 77.4 percent (Eurostat, 2017). Nevertheless, the level of gender equality is uneven across different countries and regions, including within the European Union. For example in Greece, where the current study took place, the employment rate for women was 46.8 percent, whilst for men the rate was 65.8 percent. Thus, although the EU average gender employment gap in 2016 was 11.9 percent, in Greece it was 19 percent.

Despite the growing numbers of women in the workforce, their representation in managerial and leadership positions in the corporate sector is scarce. In 2016 only 23.3 percent of board members of the largest publicly listed companies in the EU were women, while in Greece the figure was just 9.4 percent (European Commission, 2016). Catalyst (2015) reports that women represent less than 5 percent of CEO positions in high-listed companies (such as S&P 500 companies); and hold less than 25 percent of senior management roles. On average, less than one-third of managers are women across OECD countries (OECD, 2017). However, working women tend to have a higher level of education than men. According to Eurostat (2017) in 2016 38.5 percent of women in employment had tertiary level education compared to 31.2 percent of men (for Greece the percentages were 41.9 percent and 30.7 percent respectively). It is clear that the skills of highly qualified women are underutilized and in economic terms there is a lack of return on investment and a loss of economic growth potential. It is remarkable that in times when the labor market faces shortages of skilled personnel, a large percentage of human capital is wasted.

Various studies suggest that women's participation at the most senior levels has no negative effects and is often associated with better organizational and financial

performance of the employing organization. In a study among 2 million companies in Europe, Christiansen and colleagues (Christiansen, Lin, Pereira, Topalova, & Turk, 2016) reported a positive correlation between financial performance and the share of women in senior positions providing evidence in support of a causal relationship with gender diversity. Studies by McKinsey & Company (2007) and Catalyst (2004, 2011, 2013) demonstrated similar results indicating that employing women in managerial positions could lead to better financial outcomes. To some extent, other authors have also corroborated a positive correlation of having a high proportion of women managers and firm performance (e.g., Dezso & Ross, 2012; Francoeur, Labelle, & Sinclair-Desgagne, 2008; Khan & Vieito, 2013; Ren & Wang, 2011). Some studies failed to report such an association, but nonetheless they showed no negative impact as a result of gender diversity (e.g., Ahern & Dittmar, 2012; Rhode & Packel, 2014).

The influential work of Ryan and Haslam (2005, 2007) further investigated the results of some studies and demonstrated a superficial poorer performance in companies who employed women on their boards compared to male-only companies. However, their work showed that these companies were already underperforming prior to the appointment of women at a managerial position. Moreover, women were much more likely to be selected for executive positions in companies who were experiencing bad performance, and were actually able to stabilize or improve the performance. Nonetheless, these studies suggested that women were not only underrepresented in executive positions, but when they did manage to climb the organizational ladder they were more likely to achieve a precarious position in companies that were in crisis (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011), a phenomenon that was labeled “glass cliff.”

It is natural to question the causes for the tremendous underuse of female potential and talent. The metaphor of the “glass ceiling” has often been used to describe the difficulties that women encounter in terms of advancement to the upper echelons of the corporate ladder (Davidson & Cooper, 1992). Although higher level positions appear attainable to women given their qualifications and experience, a number of barriers prevent them from reaching such positions constituting an invisible obstacle on the road to career advancement. Relevant literature has identified many of these barriers for women. In 2013 the Bureau for Employer’s Activities of the International Labour Office conducted a survey among 1300 private sector companies (ILO, 2015) and identified the following as important barriers: (a) women’s family responsibilities, (b) roles assigned to each gender by society, (c) masculine corporate culture, (d) women’s insufficient experience, and (e) lack of women managers who could function as role models.

Although gender stereotypes and attitudes toward women are closely linked to the first three barriers and to a lesser extent to the fifth barrier, they appear again in the ranking list: stereotypes against women (ranked as no. 8), inherent gender bias in recruitment and promotion (ranked as no. 12), management generally viewed as a man’s job (ranked the same at no. 12), and insufficient anti-discrimination legislation (ranked as no. 14). Whereas some studies have focused on other barriers such as difficulties in reconciliation between work and family responsibilities (Mooney, 2009; Moore, Sikora, Grunberg, & Greenberg, 2007) or lack of access to jobs with promotion opportunities (Kanter, 1977), it seems that gender stereotypes and discrimination (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Mihail, 2006a, 2006b), biased recruitment and promotion systems (Marlowe, Schneider, & Nelson, 1996; Singh, Kumra, & Vinnicombe, 2002), and gender segregation appear constantly as core

barriers to women's advancement. Therefore the study reported here focuses on these stereotypes and the attitudes toward women managers that are subsequently formed.

The role of gender stereotypes in women's careers is well established in the literature. Two studies conducted among managers by Schein (1973, 1975) found that men and women are considered to possess different characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments. "Feminine" traits are perceived as incompatible with the characteristics that successful managers possess. For example submissiveness, passiveness, along with kindness and selflessness are considered feminine traits; while leadership ability, aggressiveness, self-confidence, and desire for responsibility are viewed as masculine. Schein's initial work showed that these stereotypes existed regardless of the gender of the respondents, while studies (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989) conducted in the next decades suggested that male managers and management students still adhered to a male managerial stereotype (although this was not necessarily the case for female managers and management students).

A common categorization that is nowadays used for gender stereotypes differentiates "communal" from "agentic" traits (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Galanaki, Papalexandris, & Halikias, 2009; Ritter & Yoder, 2004). Women are associated with communal characteristics, such as affection, helpfulness, friendliness, kindness, gentleness, and interpersonal sensitiveness; while men are associated with agentic characteristics such as aggression, ambition, competitiveness, self-confidence, self-reliance, and problem-solving skills. Agentic traits are considered by most people to be related to effective leadership, placing women in an awkward position: if they exhibit communal qualities they might be perceived as lacking agentic (and therefore effective leadership) traits; and if they exhibit agentic qualities they might be criticized for lacking community (and therefore femininity) traits. That being the case, a source for potential prejudice against women obtaining executive positions is the incompatibility of the female gender role and the expectations that people have for effective leaders. This is highlighted by the commonly used phrase "Think manager – Think male" (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996).

We should highlight that gender stereotypes are equally embraced by men and women. According to Harragan (1989) women have internalized attitudes and behaviors that are incompatible for executive positions. Eagly and her colleagues (Eagly, Wood, & Dickman, 2000) argue that an additional cause for the influence of gender roles on organizational behavior is the internalization (at least to some extent) of gender roles by most people (Wood, Christensen, Hebl, & Rothgerber, 1997). As such, women perceive women as a group as inferior to men as a group in traits associated to leadership (Weyer, 2007). Their efforts to advance in their career mean not only going against other people's stereotypes but overcoming their own stereotypes as well.

### **Attitudes Toward Women Managers**

"Attitudes" can be defined as a favorable or unfavorable response disposition with affective, behavioral, and cognitive components toward social objects, such as persons. Managers are evaluated favorably or unfavorably based on how they fit into existing role schemas regarding the necessary requirements for a manager. The conception of which

personal traits are needed for a manager and what traits society attributes to men and women is expected to heavily influence attitudes toward women managers.

Attitudes toward women managers have been widely studied at a global level. Respondents' gender has been found to be the main factor that differentiates their attitudes with women having much more positive attitudes toward women managers in a number of countries (United Arab Emirates – Alibeli, 2015; Turkey – Aycan, 2004; Aycan, Bayazit, Berkman, & Boratav, 2011; Emeksizoglu, 2016; Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan, 2002; USA – Brenner & Beutell, 2001; Chile and USA – Cordano, Scherer, & Owen, 2002; Pakistan – Güney, Gohar, Akıncı, & Akıncı, 2006; China and USA – Jones & Lin, 2001; Nigeria – Mihail & Ogbogu, 2016; United Arab Emirates – Mostafa, 2005; USA and Poland: Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Adeyemi-Bello, & Sagan, 2004). Nevertheless, as expected, there are major differences between different countries due to differences in cultural and social norms. Javalgi and his colleagues (2011) found that in the USA and Chile there are more favorable attitudes than in China. This finding confirmed the results of a similar study conducted by Jones and Lin (2001) that compared managerial employees' attitudes in the USA and China.

Tomkiewicz and his colleagues (2004) also identified that people in the USA reported more favorable attitudes than in Poland. Pakistani academics had more favorable attitudes than their Turkish counterparts (Güney et al., 2006). Preko (2012) revealed that the vast majority of male employees in Ghana who work under female managers would prefer to work under a male manager, while attitudes toward women managers in the United Arab Emirates (Alibeli, 2015) were extremely unfavorable for both men and women respondents (although there were gender differences). Therefore in order to acquire a better understanding of attitudes toward women in different countries and the contributing factors further research is needed.

Some studies indicate that having experience in working with a female manager results in the development of more favorable attitudes toward them (e.g., Mihail & Ogbogu, 2016; Owen & Todor, 1993), whereas others showed that favorable attitudes depended on the quality of the previous interaction with women managers (Aycan et al., 2011; Bhatnagar & Swamy, 1995). Interestingly, education level does not appear to be consistently associated with more favorable views toward women. This might be explained if we take into account the samples of the studies: most of the samples are either business management students, or managers or employees, and therefore they do differ much in their education level and possible significant differences in the general population might be concealed. Other factors that have been found to be correlated with attitudes toward women managers include: patriarchy and sexism that are associated with more negative attitudes (e.g., Mostafa, 2005; Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan, 2002), age, where younger generations have more positive attitudes (e.g., Mostafa, 2005), and birth order, where first-born males were found to have the most negative attitudes and first-born females the most positive attitudes (Brenner & Beutell, 2001).

The few studies that have been conducted in Greece have identified differences in attitudes toward women as managers and tried to correlate them with various personal and organizational characteristics of the participants. A study among 294 middle managers was conducted in 1990 (Papalexandris & Bourantas, 1991) and was replicated in 2006 with a similar sample of 229 middle managers (Galanaki et al., 2009). It is noteworthy that unfavorable attitudes toward women were not found to decrease significantly and in 2006

middle managers appeared to have only slightly more favorable attitudes in comparison to 1990. In both studies gender seemed to be the main characteristic that correlated with attitudes toward women managers, with women having more favorable attitudes than men. In the 1990 study, age and interaction with women managers were found to be significantly correlated to attitudes toward women as managers (with younger respondents having more favorable attitudes). Education and managerial experience were found to be insignificant characteristics. Nonetheless, in the 2006 study none of the aforementioned characteristics (age, interaction with female managers, education, and managerial experience) was found to be correlated with attitudes. Additionally, while the 1990 study found more unfavorable attitudes in departments and sectors, such as production departments where manual work is largely appreciated in comparison to the state sector, in the 2006 study no such factor appears to have any effect on attitudes toward women managers.

Other studies in Greece have helped us acquire a better understanding of these attitudes. In a survey among the largest firms in Greece, Petraki-Kottis (1996) found that the presence of women in high managerial positions was almost non-existent. Additionally, a large percentage of senior managers were found to have negative preconceptions about women or had strong gender stereotypes. Two studies by Mihail among 173 employees (2006a) and 323 business management students (2006b) confirmed that women have more favorable attitudes toward women managers than men, and gender is by far the most influential factor for differences in attitudes. No other personal characteristics such as age, education level, work experience, or cooperation with female supervisors was found to have any effect on attitudes. A more recent study by the same author (Mihail & Ogbogu, 2016) among business management students corroborated the significance of respondents' gender and the more favorable views that women have. Work experience had no effect on attitudes, and age was hardly a significant factor ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Nevertheless, students having worked under female supervision have much more positive attitudes compared with those who had not. Perhaps the discrepancy among this finding and results from previous studies could be explained if we take into account that these studies examined only the effect of having worked with a female manager and the duration of this interaction, and not the quality of this interaction. As mentioned previously, some studies indicate that it is the quality of the interaction that is important, and not the interaction itself (Aycan et al., 2011; Bhatnagar & Swamy, 1995). In trying to explain the lack of relationship between attitudes and age, Mihail (2006a) argues that Greek society remains patriarchal and deeply rooted gender-based stereotypes persevere.

### **The Present Study**

The present study aimed to investigate Greek female managers' attitudes toward women managers and their correlation with various personal characteristics, such as age, family status, education level, work experience, and managerial experience. Furthermore several beliefs of female managers regarding the influence of gender on career development are examined.

Most studies regarding attitudes toward women have been conducted among business management students and employees, and rarely among managers. In such cases the focus of the majority of studies has been gender differences. In contrast to previous



studies, our aim was to investigate beliefs and attitudes of women who have managed to surpass many obstacles and to acquire a managerial position. It is of interest to examine whether they recognize and report the various gender-based barriers that they have possibly faced, and to what extent they themselves have unfavorable attitudes toward female managers.

Various psychometric scales have been developed to assess attitudes toward women managers. Aycan and her colleagues (2011) argue that despite their wide use many well-established scales, such as "Women As Managers Scale – WAMS" (Peters, Terborg, & Taynor, 1974), "Attitudes Towards Women As Managers scale – ATWAM" (Yost & Herbert, 1985), and "Managerial Attitudes Towards Women Executives Scale – MATWES" (Dubno, Costas, Cannon, Wankel, & Emin, 1979), suffer from various problems that diminish their efficacy. Most notably, apart from all of them having relatively poor psychometric properties, WAMS was created to reflect society's view in past decades and does not address today's reality, ATWAM is difficult to score, and MATWES was developed to assess only males' attitudes toward women. With the problems associated with these scales in mind, Aycan and her colleagues (2011) developed a new scale, "Attitudes Towards Women Managers – ATWoM," and tested its psychometric properties with very good results. In our study, this scale is utilized.

Alternative ways of measuring attitudes toward women is via psychometric tools that assess similar constructs. An example of such a tool is "Schein's Descriptive Index – SDI" (Schein, 1973) which examines the similarity of masculine and feminine characteristics to characteristics of managers. Another example is the "Gender and Authority Measure – GAM" (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000) that assesses preferences for male versus female authorities in various areas of social life (not only in managerial positions). In our study we will also use GAM in order to gain a more elaborated insight of female managers' attitudes toward female managers and female authorities in general.

## METHOD

### Participants

A total of 364 female managers who are employed in Greek private companies participated in the study. The sample consisted of 98 (26.9 percent) high level managers and 266 (73.1 percent) middle level managers. The average age was 34.42 years old (S.D. = 8.04), while the average years of working experience were 12.61 with a range of 1 to over 35 years. Table 22.1 provides summarized data regarding demographic and job-specific characteristics of the sample.

### Measuring Instruments

#### **Attitudes Towards Women Managers – ATWoM**

ATWoM (Aycan et al., 2011) was used to assess attitudes toward women as managers. ATWoM consists of twenty-seven statements. Each statement begins with the wording: "In general, women managers . . ." followed by descriptions of various behaviors. ATWoM provides scores for three factors: (a) "Task Role Behaviours" which comprises fourteen

Table 22.1 Demographic and job-specific characteristics of the 364 female managers according to their hierarchical level

Variables		Hierarchical level				Total	
		Middle level managers		High level managers		f	%
		f	%	f	%		
Age (M = 34.42, S.D. = 8.04)	20–25	35	13.2	4	4.2	39	10.8
	26–30	91	34.2	2	2.1	93	25.8
	31–35	67	25.2	17	17.9	84	23.3
	36–40	28	10.5	29	30.5	57	15.8
	41–45	29	10.9	25	26.3	54	15.0
	>45	16	6.0	18	19.0	34	9.4
Education Level	Technical School	55	20.7	10	10.2	65	17.9
	Tertiary Technical Education	64	24.1	8	8.1	72	19.8
	Tertiary University Education	84	31.6	46	46.9	130	35.7
	MSc/PhD	27	10.2	13	13.3	40	11.0
	Other	36	13.5	21	21.4	57	15.7
Family Status	Married	81	30.5	45	45.9	126	34.6
	Single	117	44.0	30	30.6	147	40.4
	Divorced	20	7.6	11	11.2	31	8.5
	Cohabitee	48	18.0	12	12.2	60	16.5
Total work experience (in years) (M = 12.61, S.D. = 10.00)	1–5	70	26.3	2	2.2	72	19.8
	6–10	107	40.2	12	12.2	119	32.7
	11–15	43	16.2	19	19.4	62	17.0
	16–20	20	7.5	39	39.8	59	16.2
	>20	26	9.8	26	26.5	52	14.3
Work experience in the current position (M = 5.99, S.D. = 5.09)	1–5	188	71.2	30	30.6	218	60.2
	6–10	52	19.7	42	42.9	94	26.0
	11–15	16	6.1	12	12.2	28	7.7
	>15	8	3.0	14	14.3	22	6.1
Total		266	73.1	98	26.9	364	100.0

Note: Some participants did not answer all items.

items (e.g., have trouble overcoming challenges), (b) “Relational Role Behaviours” which consists of nine items (e.g., help employees happily in the face of problems), and (c) “Work Ethic of Women Managers” which has four items (e.g., work very hard). Item no. 25 was excluded due to poor psychometric properties, and therefore in our study the third subscale had three items. Respondents are asked to evaluate the extent to which they agree to each statement using a six-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 0 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree). The original study by Aycan et al. (2011) used

a seven-point Likert scale, but in our study we chose to use a six-point scale in order to avoid answers falling within the middle of the scale. Higher scores in ATWoM factors suggest more favorable attitudes toward women managers. In the present study internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's) were satisfactory for all for the aforementioned factors: "Task Role Behaviours" ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ), "Relational Role Behaviours" ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ), and "Work Ethic of Women Managers" ( $\alpha = 0.71$ ).

### **Gender and Authority Measure – GAM**

GAM (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000) assesses respondents' preference for male versus female authorities in five dimensions of social life. It consists of fifteen statements regarding preferences for either male or female gender. Examples of items for each dimension are as follows: (a) Legitimate: "If I were in serious legal trouble, I would prefer a male to a female lawyer," (b) Expert: "For most college courses, I prefer a male professor to a female professor," (c) Reward: "In general, I would rather work for a man than for a woman," (d) Coercive: "In general, I would rather take orders from a man than from a woman," and (e) Referent: "The people I look up to most are women." Participants were asked to rate the extent of agreement to each statement using a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree). The original study by Rudman & Kilianski (2000) used a five-point Likert scale, but in our study we chose to use a six-point scale in order to avoid answers falling within the middle of the scale. GAM provides one score for the whole scale. High score indicates preference for male versus female authorities. In the present sample, the GAM showed adequate internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ).

### **Demographic questionnaire**

A demographic questionnaire was also used to obtain information regarding participants' age, family status, exact job position, education level, work experience, and managerial experience. Furthermore several beliefs of female managers regarding the influence of gender on career development are examined. More specifically the following beliefs were examined: (a) whether women's family status affects recruitment chances, (b) whether there are discriminations against women in their company, (c) whether the company has "friendly" policies regarding promoting women in high managerial level, and (d) whether they believe that gender plays an important role in career advancement. Participants are asked to answer with a "YES" or "NO" to the aforementioned questions.

### **Procedure**

All questionnaires were administered to female managers in their workplace during work hours. They were also given written and oral instructions describing the procedure and the aim of the study in general terms (e.g., it aims at examining work attitudes and experiences). It was clearly stated that their participation is voluntary, questionnaires are anonymous, and they were reassured that their answers would be confidential and all data would be solely used for research purposes. Furthermore they were kindly asked to answer all questions as honestly and spontaneously as possible. The average time of completion was 10–15 minutes.

## RESULTS

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all variables of our study. In Table 22.2 measures of central tendency and dispersion for the three subscales of ATWoM are presented for Greek female managers with respect to their hierarchical level. Scores were rather moderate and slightly positive for the first two subscales. In "Task Role Behaviours" the score was  $M = 3.08$ ,  $S.D. = 0.83$ , and in "Relational Role Behaviours" the score was  $M = 3.63$ ,  $S.D. = 0.73$  with a scoring range between 0 and 5. Nevertheless, in the "Work Ethic" subscale the score was somewhat higher ( $M = 4.32$ ,  $S.D. = 0.68$ ) indicating positive attitudes in this aspect. T-tests with ATWoM subscales as dependent variables and female managers' hierarchical level (middle versus high level) as independent variable were performed in order to examine whether being a middle or a high level manager differentiates attitudes toward women managers. As presented in Table 22.2, hierarchical level was found to differentiate scores only in "Task Role Behaviours." High level managers had higher scores ( $M = 3.27$ ,  $S.D. = 0.86$ ) than their middle level counterparts ( $M = 3.02$ ,  $S.D. = 0.82$ ).

Table 22.2 also presents the means and standard deviations of the GAM score for female managers with respect to their hierarchical level. This score was also somewhat moderate:  $M = 2.44$ ,  $S.D. = 0.90$  with a scoring range between 0 and 5. However, one of the items of GAM directly addressed attitudes toward women managers and behavioral intention (item 6: "In general I would rather work for a man than for a woman"), and the scores for this item provide us with a different image. While the average score for this item was  $M = 2.71$  ( $S.D. = 1.67$ ), 66.3 percent of the participants reported that they agree (partly agree, agree, or strongly agree), and only 33.7 percent answered that they disagree (partly disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree). It is also noteworthy that respondents who reported agreement/strong agreement (not partial agreement) reached up to 31.1 percent. No significant difference in GAM scores as a function of hierarchical level was found.

Table 22.2 Central tendency and dispersion measures of ATWoM and GAM for the female managers as a function of hierarchical level

Variables	Total		Hierarchical level				T-test
			Middle level managers		High level managers		
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	
ATWoM Task Role Behaviours	3.08	0.83	3.02	0.82	3.27	0.86	2.54*
Relational Role Behaviours	3.63	0.73	3.65	0.67	3.60	0.82	-0.61
Work Ethic	4.32	0.68	4.28	0.70	4.43	0.63	1.76
GAM	2.44	0.90	2.43	0.88	2.44	0.96	0.09

Note 1: \* =  $p < 0.05$ .

Note 2: Scoring range of all scales: 0-5.

Note 3: Higher scores in ATWoM indicate more favorable attitudes toward women managers, while higher scores in GAM indicate preference for male over female authority.

Table 22.3 Correlation coefficients (Pearson  $r$ ) between ATWoM subscales, GAM, age and working experience

Variables	ATWoM			GAM
	1	2	3	4
ATWoM 1. Task Role Behaviours	1			
2. Relational Role Behaviours	0.22**	1		
3. Work Ethic	0.26**	0.40**	1	
4. GAM	-0.39**	-0.18**	-0.10	1
Age	0.24**	0.15**	0.14**	0.01
Years of total work experience	0.21**	0.12*	0.21**	-0.04
Years of work experience in the current position	0.14*	0.11*	0.11*	-0.07

Note: \* =  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ .

One-way analyses of variance were conducted to examine the effect of family status and the level of education on both ATWoM subscales and GAM. No statistically significant differences were identified as a function of the level of education. Family status, however, differentiated the scores in "Task Role Behaviours" [ $F(3,350) = 5.86, p < 0.001$ ], "Work Ethic" [ $F(3,359) = 4.87, p < 0.001$ ], and GAM [ $F(3,359) = 2.15, p < 0.05$ ]. Cohabitees had significantly lower scores ( $M = 2.69, S.D. = 0.53$ ) than divorced ( $M = 3.09, S.D. = 0.99$ ), single ( $M = 3.13, S.D. = 0.78$ ), and married women ( $M = 3.21, S.D. = 0.91$ ) for "Task Role Behaviours." Married women had higher scores ( $M = 4.53, S.D. = 0.55$ ) than divorced ( $M = 4.13, S.D. = 0.65$ ), single ( $M = 4.23, S.D. = 0.81$ ), and cohabitee women ( $M = 4.22, S.D. = 0.48$ ) for "Work Ethic." Finally, for GAM, multiple comparisons with Scheffé criterion failed to locate the difference between specific groups. Nevertheless, we should note that divorced women achieved the highest score ( $M = 2.75, S.D. = 1.04$ ), whilst single women achieved the lowest score ( $M = 2.35, S.D. = 0.77$ ).

To examine the relationship between ATWoM subscales, GAM, age, and working experience, correlation coefficients were calculated. All results are presented in Table 22.3. The following findings are highlighted:

- GAM scores have a weak negative correlation with "Relational Role Behaviours" ( $r = -0.18$ ) and a moderate negative correlation with "Task Role Behaviours" ( $r = -0.39$ ).
- Scores for the "Task Roles Behaviours" subscale have low positive correlations with the other two ATWoM subscales: "Relational Role Behaviours" ( $r = 0.22$ ), and "Work Ethic" ( $r = 0.26$ ). On the other hand, "Work Ethic" has a moderate positive correlation with "Relational Role Behaviours" ( $r = 0.40$ ).
- Age has low positive correlations with all ATWoM subscales ranging from  $r = 0.14$  ("Work Ethic" subscale) to  $r = 0.24$  ("Task Role Behaviours" subscale) indicating that older participants have more favorable attitudes. No significant age-GAM scores correlation was found.
- Years of total work experience and years of work experience in the current job position were also found to have low positive correlations with all ATWoM subscales and no correlation to GAM.

Table 22.4 Beliefs of female managers regarding the role of gender in women's career advancement

Questions	Yes		No	
	f	%	f	%
● Do you believe that nowadays during recruitment processes women's family status is taken into account?	344	92.0	30	8.0
● Do you believe that gender has an important role in one's career advancement?	236	63.1	138	36.9
● Do you believe that in your company there is discrimination against women?	105	28.1	269	71.9
● Do you believe that your company has a women-friendly policy regarding promotions in managerial positions?	258	70.3	109	29.7

In our study, we also examined female managers' beliefs regarding the role of gender in women's career advancement. Table 22.4 presents the frequencies and percentages of their answers. The majority of the participants (63.1 percent) recognized the important role that gender has for career advancement. Moreover almost all of the participants (92.0 percent) believe that women's family status is taken into consideration in recruitment processes. Finally almost one-third of women managers reported that in their company there is discrimination against women, and there is no women-friendly policy regarding promotions.

In order to examine the relationship between these beliefs and attitudes toward women managers we performed one-way ANOVAs with ATWoM subscales and GAM as dependent variables and beliefs as independent variables. The following relationships were revealed:

- Participants who believe that women's family status is taken into account in recruitment processes have higher scores than participants who do not hold such beliefs for "Relational Role Behaviors" [ $F(1,361) = 6.74, p < 0.01, M(\text{yes}) = 3.66$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 3.30$  respectively], and for "Work Ethic" [ $F(1,370) = 4.89, p < 0.05, M(\text{yes}) = 4.35$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 4.06$  respectively]. Furthermore women holding this belief have lower scores for GAM than those who do not [ $F(1,355) = 5.21, p < 0.05, M(\text{yes}) = 2.41$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 2.81$  respectively].
- Participants who believe that gender plays an important role in one's career advancement have lower scores than participants who do not hold such beliefs for "Task Role Behaviors" [ $F(1,361) = 6.73, p < 0.01, M(\text{yes}) = 2.99$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 3.322$  correspondingly], and for "Role Task Behaviours" [ $F(1,359) = 4.51, p < 0.05, M(\text{yes}) = 3.56$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 3.73$  respectively]. Furthermore these women have higher scores for GAM than women who do not hold such beliefs [ $F(1,355) = 20.04, p < 0.001, M(\text{yes}) = 2.60$  and  $M(\text{no}) = 2.17$  respectively].
- Participants who believe that their company has a women-friendly policy in promotions for managerial positions have higher scores ( $M = 3.12$ ) than participants who do not hold this belief ( $M = 2.94$ ) for "Task Role Behaviors" [ $F(1,354) = 3.93, p < 0.05$ ].
- Belief that there is discrimination in the company does not affect ATWoM or GAM scores.

## DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to investigate attitudes of women who have surpassed the various difficulties and have acquired a managerial position in Greek private companies toward women managers. These attitudes were assessed by two instruments: (a) "Attitudes Towards Women Managers" scale (ATWoM; Aycan et al., 2011) that directly measures attitudes, and (b) "Gender and Authority Measure" (GAM; Rudman & Kilianski, 2000) that examines preferences toward male or female authorities. It was assumed that preference of male authority figures would be a strong indication of unfavorable attitudes toward women managers. Moreover beliefs regarding the role of gender in career advancement were explored. Possible correlations between attitudes and various personal characteristics, such as age, family status, education level, hierarchical level, work experience, and managerial experience were also investigated in order to gain a better understanding of the main sources of influence on gender-based attitudes in corporate Greece.

Attitudes toward women managers as assessed by ATWoM were moderate to slightly positive in the first two subscales. Women achieved the lowest score for the "Task Role Behaviours" subscale that refers to having decision making skills, not getting distracted by non-work responsibilities, being active and not passive, and exhibiting professional behavior in general ( $M = 3.08$  in a scale ranging from 0 to 5). For the "Relational Role Behaviours" subscale that refers to understanding, and helping subordinates, building relationships and influencing others, female managers achieved a somewhat higher score ( $M = 3.63$ ). The higher score for the second subscale is not surprising. The first subscale examines behaviors that are usually considered more masculine (e.g., Schein, 1973), while the second examines behaviors that are usually considered more feminine. The moderate to slightly positive attitudes for both subscales are in accordance with previous studies (Galanaki et al., 2009; Mihail, 2006a, 2006b; Mihail & Ogbogu, 2016). These studies used another instrument to assess attitudes (WAMS; Peters et al., 1974), and all had an average score of above 5 on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 to 7. Nevertheless, previous studies used samples from employees and management students (with the exception of the study by Galanaki and her colleagues who used middle level managers as sample); and therefore we would expect higher scores in the present study which examined attitudes toward female managers among female managers.

A different image with regard to these attitudes is provided by another finding of our study. Item 6 of the "GAM" scale assessed whether participants would prefer to work under male supervision rather than female. More than 65 percent of female managers reported that they would rather have a male supervisor. It should be noted that this item does not measure attitudes exactly, but rather it is a measure of behavioral intention. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that although there are moderately positive attitudes toward women managers as assessed by the most widely used or most modern and sound scales such as WAMS and ATWoM, people generally tend to prefer working under male supervision. This finding is in accordance to similar results identified in Turkey (Prometheus, 2005) and highlights the necessity to further investigate the relationship between attitudes as assessed by attitudes questionnaires and real behavior. This might also help to explain the extent of the discrepancy between having rather moderate to positive attitudes toward women managers, and having such a small percentage of women in high level positions in private companies.

The third subscale of ATWoM "Work Ethic" elicited quite high scores. This indicates that female managers believe that women tend to work very hard, are well-organized, and ensure that everything runs smoothly. Although this is a positive finding, it is also alarming. Despite the fact that participants believe that women in general go to great efforts to be efficient in their job, they do not feel, to the same extent, that they exhibit the necessary behaviors to advance in their career. Moreover as argued in the next paragraph, female managers believe that women face many other obstacles and gender-based discrimination that prevent them from advancing.

Female managers reported having several disturbing beliefs regarding the role of gender in career advancement. The vast majority (63.1 percent) stated that gender plays a very important role in career advancement, while 92 percent (!!!) felt that in recruitment and hiring procedures women's family status is taken into account. Moreover almost one-third of the participants responded with the view that discrimination against women exists within their company and there are no women-friendly policies regarding promotion. However, as the women participating in our study had managed to advance, we cannot be certain whether these beliefs have resulted from their own experience and reflect their own reality, or whether these are subjective views developed without personal experience.

The results of our study suggest that in general female managers do not have a specific preference in terms of gender with respect to authority figures. The average score for GAM was  $M = 2.44$  with a score range between 0 and 5. We should highlight once more the paradoxical finding of neutral preference in respect of gender, and of underrepresentation of women in the upper echelons of private companies. GAM was very weakly correlated with "Relational Task Behaviours" and especially with "Work Ethic," which suggests that preference for one gender over the other in various authority roles (judge, police officer, doctor, etc.) does not necessarily reflect more positive attitudes toward women managers. GAM had a moderate correlation only with "Task Role Behaviours," which refers to behaviors that are often labeled as more masculine.

We also examined whether various personal characteristics, such as age, family status, level of education, hierarchical level at work, work experience, and managerial experience are associated with attitudes toward women managers. Education was not found to have any effect (possibly because all participants had reached a somewhat high level of education). Age was found to be positively correlated to attitudes, with older participants holding more favorable attitudes than younger participants. This finding superficially contradicts results from various studies that have found the exact opposite relationship (e.g., Mostafa, 2005) or no significant correlation (Galanaki et al., 2009; Mihail, 2006a, 2006b). Nonetheless, this finding can be easily explained if we take into account our sample's synthesis. Female managers participating in our study had successfully surpassed the gender-related obstacles and advanced in their career. Older women had advanced more than their younger counterparts and had developed more favorable attitudes toward women. Positive correlations of attitudes with work experience also contribute to the acceptance of this explanation. Additionally, hierarchical level in the company was found to differentiate the score for "Task Role Behaviours" only. Female high level managers had more favorable attitudes than middle level managers, which can also be attributed to their personal experiences while advancing in their careers.

Family status was also found to have an effect on some of the attitudes' subscales.



Married women had higher scores for "Work Ethic" than single, divorced, and cohabitee women. Married women who have assumed multiple roles (Betz, 2008) seem to have a stronger belief that women in general are able to work hard, and be well organized and efficient in everything they undertake. An interesting finding was that cohabitees had lower scores for "Task Role Behaviors" than divorced, single, and married women. Studies rarely use cohabitees as an independent group and usually ask participants to categorize themselves as married or single. Further studies would be necessary to explain this finding and examine whether it is constant.

### Limitations and Future Studies

All data for our study were collected via self-reported measures. Furthermore the findings of our study might not apply to samples other than women managers or to other countries with different characteristics. Future studies should include a wider range of employees and managers; and should focus not only on attitudes toward women managers but on the relationship between attitudes and real behavior toward women as well. Nevertheless, our findings contribute to existing knowledge by providing empirical data regarding attitudes of women managers toward women managers and their beliefs regarding the role of gender in career advancement.

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# WOMEN, BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

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This book explores the range of challenges faced by women in business and leadership today, identifying how far we need to progress before women in business experience the same level of advancement as men.

Including a range of different viewpoints, the book analyses women's position at work from three perspectives: the constraints affecting women's career advancements, gender-specific challenges to women in leadership roles, and women's experiences of undertaking these roles while trying to maintain a work-life balance. By highlighting the specific disadvantages relating to gender, chapters outline the extent of change needed culturally, as well as through policy and attitude, if women are to achieve parity with their male counterparts.

Researchers and students of gender in management, leadership and organisation studies will find this a thought-provoking read, particularly those studying work-family balance and the future paths to breaking the glass ceiling for women in business.

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