

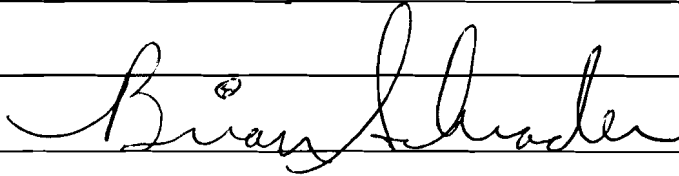
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: Social Dominance Orientation and Perceptions of Women and Men in Management

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This study investigated current perceptions of women and men in management, and how Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) may be related to these views. More specifically, the purpose was to examine the similarity in ratings given to successful middle managers and each of the following categories: men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers, and successful female managers. Seventy-five individuals participated in this study and were selected from a medium sized university in the midwestern region of the United States and a large manufacturing company in the northeastern region of the United States. Results indicated that men scored significantly higher on SDO ($M = 35.37$, $SD = 9.46$) than women ($M = 27.7$, $SD = 11.68$), $t(71) = -7.66$, $p < .05$.. Perceptions of men and women in management were examined in terms of male and female respondents, as well as high SDO and low SDO respondents. Intraclass correlation coefficients and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to analyze lack of direct relationships and linear relationships among ratings of successful middle managers and women in general, men in general, female managers, male managers, successful female managers, and successful male managers. Intraclass correlations and Pearson

correlations were converted to Fisher's z 's to establish if there was greater resemblance between successful middle managers and a) men or women in general, b) male or female managers, and c) successful male or successful female managers. Among male, female, high SDO and low SDO respondents, ratings given to women had greater or equal resemblance to ratings given to successful middle managers when compared to ratings given to men and successful middle managers in almost all categories (i.e., "in general," as "managers," as "successful managers"). The presentation of performance ability did not appear to make a difference concerning enhanced positive perceptions toward women in terms of management potential as it has in previous research.

SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION AND PERCEPTIONS OF WOMEN AND
MEN IN MANAGEMENT

A Thesis

Presented to

The Division of Psychology and Special Education

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

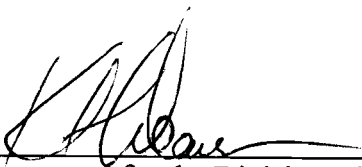
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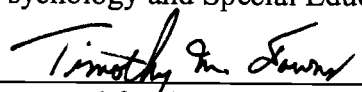
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Approved for the Division of
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Women are moving into the ranks of middle and upper management. Although they move up the “corporate ladder,” their progress is not rapid and as one advances in management, fewer women are found. In fact, according to the Catalyst (1998) Census of Women Board Directors in Fortune 500 companies, 11.1% of all board seats in 1998 were held by women (out of 6,064 total seats, women held 671). There are various explanations as to why women do not occupy more upper management positions. First, a powerful obstacle to women seeking positions in upper management is sex stereotyping (Shultz, 1994), or “consensual beliefs about the differing characteristics of men and women (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972, p. 64).” Even though perceptions of women in management have improved some over the years, gender stereotyping is still prevalent, limiting women in upper management positions. Second, the concept of Social Dominance Orientation (SDO), or the degree to which individuals feel that their in-group dominates over other out-groups (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994), may account for the paucity of women in upper management. For example, since men make up almost all senior level positions, they may introduce one another into upper management as a means to assure themselves that the men they promote will share their values and agree with them (Wiley & Eskilson, 1983). Additionally, although middle management is where the majority of female managers are today, they usually are

older than their male counterparts, illustrating the slow advancement of women. It should then come as no surprise that over the years women's career planning paths have revealed further promotion as unlikely (Asplund, 1988). For example, the slow progress of women into the higher echelons of management was reported by Shore (1992) using 436 employees at a petroleum company. In assessment centers between 1980 and 1985, despite the superior performance of women on several dimensions of performance style, they were not given superior ratings on their overall potential in management. They also did not advance at a more rapid rate compared to the men, even though women were given significantly higher ratings than men on six out of the seven performance style dimensions. Although the rate of advancement in their careers was comparable for both women and men, in view of the higher ratings of performance given to the women in the assessment center, the similar rates of advancing gives additional proof of the subtle gender biases that occur within organizations (Shore, 1992).

The purpose of the present study is to examine current perceptions of men and women in management. More specifically, I investigated whether women are perceived to possess those qualities that are necessary for successful middle management. A review of past and present perceptions of women in management is presented first. A discussion of how women are stereotyped, how acting in a gender incongruent manner for women can be counterproductive, additional restrictions that make it difficult for women to advance in their careers, and a

review of Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) are presented in the following sections.

Past Perceptions of Women in Management (pre-1990s)

A number of studies over the years (e.g., Schein 1973, 1975) reflect society's belief that women do not possess requisite management characteristics. For instance, Schein (1973, 1975) found that successful middle managers are believed to have those attitudes and characteristics more commonly present among men in general as opposed to women in general. The results of Schein's (1973) study conducted on male middle managers indicated a near zero correlation ($r = .06$) between perceptual ratings of women and managers and a large, significant correlation ($r = .62, p < .01$) between perceptual ratings of managers and men. When Schein (1975) conducted the study with female managers, however, results indicated a significant resemblance ($r = .30, p < .01$) among ratings, or concurrence of the ratings, given to women and managers. Nevertheless, the degree of significance was much less ($p < .05$) than the ratings of men and managers ($r = .54, p < .001$).

If a woman's success is known, gender stereotypes will begin to dissipate. The link between ability and performance must be made apparent over and over again in order for a well-evaluated woman to receive the same opportunities for mobility and success compared to her male colleagues. Stereotypes and inferences tend to be high when there is ambiguity about performance criteria. Making clear the accomplishments of women in an evaluation reduces the

tendency for stereotypes and biased inferences to occur. Unfortunately, women must make an extra effort to increase their visibility to their evaluators (Nieva & Gutek, 1980). For example, a study by Heilman, Martell, and Simon (1988) revealed that if performance ability was not confirmed, female applicants were judged to be not as competent as their male counterparts, and that the prognosis of their careers was not promising. The study used college students to review work samples of female and male applicants for positions offered under the categories of sports photographer for a magazine. The applicant's potential success on the job in the future and their competence was evaluated as well. Even after their ability to perform was verified, ratings given to women were superior to the men only when the occupations of interest were jobs that were very atypical for a woman to hold.

Although women are overevaluated when they are in pursuit of occupations that are more traditional for men, the situations where this occurs are limited. For example, Heilman and Martell (1986) conducted a study using male and female college students and found that exposing the students to successful women in traditionally male jobs reduces sex discrimination in screening applicants. However, a heightened exposure to successful women alone does not get rid of sex discrimination. Differential reviews of equal female and male applicants were reduced only when there was a direct link between the job of interest and the job about which a screening decision was to be made, and that the information related to success had to pertain to a number of women and not just

one. Therefore, the authors discovered that when women were represented as a group and when performance ability was verified, sex discrimination was reduced in reviews of female applicants.

Heilman, Block, Martell, and Simon (1989) conducted a study on male managers and discovered that there is much more similarity in ratings of successful managers and females when females are portrayed as managers. The authors also discovered that there is significantly more resemblance in the ratings of successful managers and men as opposed to ratings successful managers and women. Only when a blatant mention of success is given does perceived dissimilarity between men and women present in most of the situations decrease. Thus, discrepancies in how leadership abilities are perceived remain. The results of the Heilman et al. (1989) study indicated that not every group of women is seen in the same light as women in general, and that resemblance between ratings of successful managers and women improves greatly when women are portrayed as managers. The resemblance increases even more when women are portrayed as successful managers. Fortunately, there does not seem to be just one general female stereotype; information presented about women actually reduces traditional stereotypes. However, this illustrates that fifteen years after the Schein (1973) study, not much had changed in views toward women in management (Heilman et al., 1989). By looking at the samples from the previous research, both college students and managers held more negative perceptions of women in management than of men in management.

Massengil and DiMarco (1979) also examined sex stereotypes in regards to similarities and differences in women in general, men in general, and successful managers compared to the results of Schein's (1973, 1975) studies. The only major changes were that women perceived more resemblance between managers and men in the current study, women also saw a small resemblance between women and men, and women and managers. Again, women rather than men, tend to be more optimistic toward women in management here as well as in a number of studies. For example, over an eight-year time-span, male MBA students consistently held negative views toward women in management. On the other hand, the female MBA students were more positive about women in management (Dubno, 1985). See Table 1 for a research summary of past perceptions of women in management.

Perceptions of Women in Management in the 1990s

Dodge, Gilroy, and Fenzel (1995) reported that male MBA students saw successful middle managers as displaying characteristics commonly attributed to men in general and men as managers compared to women in general and women as managers. Further analysis revealed that men saw successful middle managers as having characteristics that equally resemble the characteristics of successful male managers and successful female managers. Female participants believed that successful middle managers possess qualities shared equally by women and men in general, and also by successful male and successful female managers.

Table 1

Past Perceptions of Women in Management (Pre-1990s)

Study	Sample	Results
Schein, 1973	Male middle managers	Non-significant, near zero correlation between women and successful middle managers; large, significant correlation between ratings of men and successful middle managers
Schein, 1975	Female managers	Significant resemblance between ratings of women and successful middle managers; the degree of significance was higher in ratings of men and successful middle managers
Heilman, Martell, & Simon, 1988	College students	Women are overevaluated when in pursuit of traditionally male occupations, but situations where this occurs is limited; performance ability must be present, or female applicants were judged as less competent compared to males and future career path prognosis not promising
Heilman & Martell, 1986	College students	The presentation of relevant information and when females are represented as a group both influence sex discrimination
Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989	Male managers	More resemblance in ratings of successful managers and females when females are portrayed as managers; however, significantly more resemblance in ratings of successful managers and men as opposed to ratings of females and successful managers

Table 1 continued

Past Perceptions of Women in Management (Pre-1990s)

Study	Sample	Results
Massengil & DiMarco, 1989	Male and female former business students	Compared to Schein (1973,1975) studies, only major change was that women perceived more resemblance between managers and men in current study; women saw small resemblance between females and males, and females and managers
Dubno, 1985	Male and female MBA students	Over eight-year time span, males held consistently negative views toward women in management; women were more positive about women in management

Surprisingly, women saw successful middle managers resembling female managers more than male managers. They believed female managers resembled both successful middle managers and managers at the upper levels more than male managers do. Additionally, the men saw successful managers at upper levels as resembling men in general and men managerial characteristics more than women in general and women managers. However, men saw successful upper level managers as having qualities equally given to successful female managers and successful male managers which indicates the possibility of changing perceptions not only in women, but to some degree in men as well. Again, when performance ability is evident, stereotypes dissipate, as was the case when the label “successful” was given to women managers (Dodge et al., 1995).

To counter the hypothesis that presenting performance ability reduces sex stereotypes, Heilman, Block, and Martell (1995) administered Schein's 92-item Descriptive Index (1973, 1975) to 224 male managers. They found that even though women were characterized more favorably on traditional masculine stereotypical attributes (e.g., potent and active, competent, emotionally stable, rational, and independent) in their work behavior when they were perceived as “managers” as opposed to “in general” terms, female managers were rated lower on the following attributes when compared to male managers: competence, independence, potency and activity (i.e., self-confident, high need for power, firm, dominant forceful, ambitious), emotional stability, and rationality. The differential characterizations of men and women in relation to the traditional

masculine characteristics seemed to diminish only as each gender was termed as “successful managers.” Women were still characterized as less rational when approaching the world compared to men. Therefore, even when characteristics of women are more favorable and managerial labels are present, they continued to be described more negatively when compared with male managers. See a research summary of perceptions of women in management in the 1990s in Table 2.

Sex Stereotyping

An obstacle for female leaders is sex stereotyping, which acts as a "road block" to women who are attempting to move into the higher echelons of management. Unfortunately, even as women move up, they continue to be stereotyped (Shultz, 1994). For example, self-confidence seems to be an important aspect of a manager's decision making. Zeff, Fremgen, and Martinez (1994) conducted a study on male and female MBA students and discovered that men rate themselves as having more confidence, but women do not agree that men possess greater confidence. Since more men are placed in positions where they can make promotion decisions, they may feel that if women do not have as high a self-confidence level as men, it will result in poor managerial decision making. Therefore, men may receive the upper hand in the promotion decision. Interestingly, men and women do not differ in risk-taking propensity; however, they both saw this characteristic more common in men. So, both men and women have enough self-confidence to take risks. However, since risk-taking is a masculine stereotype, women may be shortchanged even if they are self-confident

Table 2

Perceptions of Women in Management in the 1990s

Study	Sample	Results
Dodge, Gilroy & Fenzel, 1995	MBA students	When performance ability is made evident, stereotypes dissipate
Heilman, Block & Martell, 1995	Male managers	Even when women are characterized more favorably on stereotypical masculine attributes in their work behavior when they were perceived as managers as opposed to in general terms, female managers were still perceived to be less competent, independent, potent and active, emotionally stable, and rational when compared to male managers; differential characteristics of males and females in relation to traditional masculine characteristics seemed to diminish only as each gender was termed a successful manager, but women were still characterized as less rational when approaching the world compared to men

risk takers. Zeff et al. (1994) also found that men and women believed that men use networks to help them advance better than women do. This should come as no surprise considering the majority of important managerial contacts are most likely to be other men!

Chusmir, Koberg, and Stecher (1992) also showed no statistically significant difference in self-confidence scores between male and female managers, in either their social and family lives or in work situations. Those who had higher masculinity ratings (whether it be male or female managers) were higher in self-confidence in work life as opposed to social/family life. However, both women and men who had high scores on the feminine attributes scale reported a significantly higher self-confidence at work than in social and family situations as well. Therefore, male and female managers are very similar in how self-confident they are in a number of ways. First, self-confidence levels in work or family social settings between both male and female managers did not differ. Second, both men and women rated their self-confidence higher in the work setting than in the family/social setting. Third, both women and men who scored over the median (in both or either feminine or masculine attributes) had a tendency to score higher than the self-confidence median. This last finding indicates that the more managers, male or female, can call upon a number of behaviors (i.e., masculine or feminine), the higher managers are in self-confidence.

Further instances of sex stereotyping were reported by Heilman et al. (1995). The researchers discovered that female managers were seen to be less

competent, independent, potent and active, emotionally stable, and rational when compared to male managers. So, how else are men perceived to be more superior managers than women? Rosen and Jerdee (1978) explored this avenue and found that male administrators and managers both held more negative views of women when compared to men on all scales of characteristics that are relevant to management including: aptitudes, knowledge, skills, interest, motivation, temperament, work attitudes, and work habits. In regard to temperament, men were perceived as more able to handle the pressure and stress of tough managerial roles. Women, on the other hand, were seen as more timid, emotional, jealous, and sensitive to being criticized as opposed to men. Women were also rated lower than men on a number of work attitudes and habits. For example, women were perceived to be less dependable and reliable workers compared to men. This study is somewhat dated, however, it can give us an idea of how stereotypes remain today. Even though women appear to be accepted in management currently, as research suggests, sex stereotypes still occur.

Attributions. Another illustration of prevalent sex stereotypes in traditionally male-occupied leadership positions is that equal performance in men and women is attributed to different elements. For example, when men perform successfully, their accomplishments are usually attributed to factors that are internally associated with their disposition, like ability and skill. However, when women perform successfully, their performance is more likely to be attributed to factors that are external and associated with the situation, like luck or a simple

task (Adam & Yoder, 1985). There are also myths in business that female managers are mainly people-oriented, and not task-oriented, in their leadership style. However, Statham (1987) interviewed managers and their subordinates and found that women were perceived to use both person-oriented and task-oriented approaches. Men, on the other hand, were perceived to engage in an autonomy-oriented and image-oriented style of leadership. According to Statham (1987), an image-oriented style of leadership is focusing on how important one's job is. Women were perceived as concentrating more on tasks to be completed. Women also worked with employees and for them. Women paid close attention to the occurrences in areas they were responsible for and interacted with other people, supporting individual growth in the careers of their subordinates and secretaries. The men, on the other hand, were perceived as focusing on themselves, had a tendency to back off from their subordinates, emphasized their position of power, and felt that the best way to manage was to stay out of the way, unless they were not pleased with a certain outcome (Statham, 1987).

However, not all male managers are seen as displaying typical male characteristics. Likewise, not all women managers were seen as displaying typical female characteristics. For example, Camden and Witt (1983) found little support for the notion that women managers create a superior communication environment for their workers compared to male managers. Additionally, Palmer (1983) found that female business students, who are geared toward business careers, showed patterns of values similar to businessmen. Not unlike

businessmen, these female students held fairly strong pragmatic orientations and aspired to be in positions of leadership, power, and authority.

But unlike businessmen, the female students were more interested in people and the artistic qualities of life. They valued a combination of traditionally businessmen-like characteristics such as political and economical orientations, and female values such as social and aesthetic orientations. Therefore, decisions of men and women business students are more alike than not. The values of male business students were not very different from the values of managers. Female students displayed values combining central values related to managers and women in general. Despite the greater presence of similarities as opposed to differences between males and females in management, male managers see themselves as better performers than females in the same jobs. Males also see themselves as possessing higher intelligence and more ability. Unfortunately, females tend not to take as much credit as men do for performing successfully (Deux, 1979), which only adds to these male-biased views and doesn't help the position of advancement for females in management.

Gender Role Congruency

Women managers are faced with a dilemma; by fulfilling the expectations of others in regard to leadership, conventions concerning what is appropriate behavior for women are violated. This may result in female managers being devalued compared to their male colleagues. Additionally, women will be seen as acting less competently and possessing lower ability and effectiveness as a

manager if they try to enact typically masculine behavior. In fact, research supports the belief that individuals evaluate female leaders more negatively compared to equivalent men in leadership positions. This trend may be small, but it was determined that this bias toward female leaders was much larger under certain circumstances (satisfaction with leader and perceived competence of the leader) (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992).

The term gender role congruency refers to the degree to which leaders act in a fashion that is congruent with expectations of gender roles. More specifically, the extent to which women use a masculine leadership style, may make their role conflict worse and the chances of getting unfair negative performance evaluations may be greater. For example, Eagly et al.'s (1992) meta-analysis included 61 studies containing adolescent and adult samples, and reported that female leaders are perceived as possessing more task-oriented leadership styles than male leaders. This finding may be a reflection of a habit of contrasting female's leadership behavior to the "women" stereotype and thus, perceive her actions as more extreme.

A possibility to consider is that putting women in traditionally male positions may make men feel that they have a lot to lose by accepting women leaders because the status of management would decline with the entrance of women (Eagly et al., 1992). Eagly et al. (1992) also discovered that female leaders are evaluated in slightly more of a negative light than male leaders who are equivalent. Male leaders were favored much stronger on measures such as the

competence of the leader ($d_{it} = .09$) and how satisfied individuals were with the leader ($d_{it} = .10$). In addition, female leaders were evaluated negatively when they showed leadership styles that are masculine. In particular, women were devalued more when they enacted an autocratic leadership style than when leaders enacted any other style. However, when men displayed a traditionally feminine leadership style (i.e., interpersonal and democratic styles), they were not at a disadvantage when compared with women. Participants evaluated men and women equally when they did enact a stereotypically feminine style of leadership. Therefore, the results allude to the logic that all things being equal, men have the opportunity to choose to lead in a variety of styles and not be evaluated negatively.

Men also were evaluated better than women in occupations mainly held by men, as opposed to those occupied at the same rate by both sexes, or where the numbers of men and women were unclear (Eagly et al., 1992). Evaluations based on leadership style may be altered by introducing more qualified women into male-dominated working environments. As previously noted, Heilman and Martell (1986) found that exposing college students to women who have been successful in traditionally male jobs can reduce sex discrimination in screening applicants. However, in order for the discrimination to be reduced, there must be a direct link between the job of interest and the job about which a screening decision is to be made on and that information related to success has to pertain to a group of women (not just one). According to Eagly et al. (1992), this lends

support to the idea that men do not want to see women entering traditionally "male only" jobs, for they fear that the status of their job may decline. This is further evidenced in that men displayed a greater tendency to devalue female leaders more than women did, as female leaders acquired higher status. However, women did not discriminate against male leaders, nor did they show any gender bias.

Another example of gender role congruency (Eagly et al., 1992) is the characteristic of assertiveness. Assertiveness is believed to be an admired trait in male managers but can be viewed as pushiness in female managers. Once again competence and femininity seem to be in conflict. Women apparently encounter a discrepancy between how they must act as managers and how they were socialized. Therefore, when women act in feminine ways, they may not be taken seriously. For example, women are socialized to act in compliance, especially with men, yet a valued and necessary characteristic in management is risk-taking. Therefore, that female managers have experienced a conflict between autonomy and learned helplessness should come as no surprise (Sargent, 1983).

Androgyny. It would seem that a good manager would take the best characteristics of both men and women. This concept is referred to as androgyny. Androgyny consists of three underlying assumptions. First, a person can possess both female and male characteristics. Second, traditional beliefs have already determined what is deemed as female-oriented or male-oriented behaviors in this

respect. Third, these attitudes are created by culture and sex roles that have been inherited (Asplund, 1988). Powell and Butterfield (1979) found that individuals have a tendency to describe a good manager in masculine, as opposed to androgynous terms. Ten years later, Powell and Butterfield (1989) again found that preference for managers who are masculine was still greatest. Additionally, Chusmir and Koberg (1991) found that managers who rated highest in self-confidence were characterized by either masculine or both feminine and masculine behaviors. Overall, regardless of their self-confidence level or sex, the sample of managers had a tendency to rate higher on masculine than feminine attributes. Therefore, the androgynous manager may not be perceived as ideal for the position.

Restrictions on Female Managers

In addition to gender stereotyping and gender role congruency, other obstacles make advancement for women in management more of a challenge for them than for men. For example, in many situations, women are still the primary caregivers for their children (Levant, Slattery, & Loiselle, 1987). This may require women to take time out from work to care for the children, which temporarily takes them out of their career path. This could have devastating effects on the career progression of women who aspire to attain positions in upper management. In fact, a number of studies show that in families, including those where the mother has a full-time job, the mothers continue to assume major responsibilities, while the father is "helping" now and then (Levant et al., 1987;

Shelton, 1990). More help and support from a husband are needed to reduce some of the stress (Rice, 1998). Duxbury, Higgins, and Lee (1994) on married men and women in Canada revealed that women spent greater total time in family and work activities compared to men. They went through greater levels of overload, were engaged in greater time in family-related activities, and went through a higher rate of family interference with their jobs. Additionally, with women having to meet more roles than men, women develop negotiating skills different from those of men. Women may be more comfortable with ambiguity due to their lives being filled with uncertainty from juggling a number of roles at once (Walsh, 1997).

To help explain the inequality of women receiving less opportunities to advance in their careers, the theory of radical feminism proposes that organizations and society are created by men to be convenient for men, and that the institutions are not very accessible to women, nor designed in a fashion that women would like. This charge can be supported by those who have tried to combine management with motherhood, or who have attended meetings "thick with the imagery of a football stadium (Larwood & Lockheed, 1979)." Radical feminism is also referred to as women's liberation. The focus is on the underlying factors of sex discrimination, stating that laws and customs of inequality are not the cause but the effect of the oppression of women. Underlying discrimination of sex is sexism, the assumption of men that the differential biology of the women is what causes her inherent inferiority. In other words, women giving birth to

children makes them unable to have the power, responsibilities, and strengths assumed by men. Additionally, sexism is believed to be inherent in all institutions (operating on a number of levels). Finally, and most unfortunately, sexism affects the way women view themselves (Hymowitz & Weissman, 1978). Furthermore, according to Harlan (1998), in radical feminism the issue is the results of dominance and difference of men, not whether the differences are social or biological. The ideology of radical feminism embraces the belief that hierarchical and patriarchal cultures in the present are a result of the violence displayed by heterosexual men. Additionally, men have victimized and oppressed women through means such as violence and pornography.

Therefore, women need to choose management or motherhood in order to move to the top of the corporate ladder. However, even when women give up motherhood, gender stereotyping remains.

Social Dominance

Social Dominance (SD) theory may help explain discrimination against women in management. SD theory purports that societies reduce conflict in groups by developing consensus on ideologies promoting superiority of a group above other groups. These ideologies are used to legitimize discrimination, but in order for them to be embraced, they must be accepted by many people in society. These ideologies must appear as truths that are self-apparent and are termed hierarchy-legitimizing myths, which aid in stabilizing oppression by adding to group inequality that is consensual (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994).

Legitimizing myths are specific beliefs, attitudes, ideologies, opinions and basic values that give intellectual and moral rationalization for the differential status, power, and privilege with social groups in society irrespective of how the groups are defined (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994). In other words, they reduce conflict in-groups by dictating how social institutions and individuals are to divide things of negative social value (to subordinates) and of positive social value (to the dominant group). Legitimizing myths that are hierarchy-enhancing promote increased inequality, whereas legitimizing myths that are hierarchy-attenuating promote increased group or social equality (Pratto et al., 1994). The social hierarchies consist of at least one dominant group (high social status) along with at least one subordinate group (lower social status). SD theory sees social hierarchy as a continuum as opposed to societies being categorized as hierarchical or not (Mitchell & Sidanius, 1995). SD theory also purports that hierarchies that are group-based are maintained and formed as functions of favoritism of in-groups, as well as out-group oppression and aggression to dominate out-groups (Sidanius, Pratto, & Rabinowitz, 1994).

SD theory states that Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) is an individual difference variable that results in the rejection or acceptance of the ideologies that support or reject inequality and is concerned with oppressing out-groups with the use of power (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius et al., 1994). SDO is defined as the degree to which individuals feel that their in-group dominates over other out-groups. SDO reflects whether an individual basically prefers inter-

group relations to be hierarchical or equal, and those who rate high on SDO have a tendency to prefer hierarchy-enhancing policies, social roles, and ideologies. On the other hand, those who have a low SDO have a tendency to prefer hierarchy-attenuating policies, ideologies, and social roles (Pratto et al., 1994). SDO is believed to stem from factors that are both biologically and socially influenced. Another important point about SDO is that it is not interested in power use in general, but instead with power used to oppress out-groups (Sidanius et al., 1994).

Research has uncovered sex differences in SDO. For example, men have higher SDO scores than women (Pratto, Stallworth, & Sidanius, 1997), which may be why women, instead of men, see more similarities between women and managers. Since men see other men (their in-group) as equal and the out-group (i.e., women) as subordinate and unequal possibly due to their higher levels of SDO, this may explain why male managers see other men, and not women, as holding requisite management characteristics. Female managers, on the other hand, see both other women and men as possessing requisite management characteristics possibly due to their lower levels of SDO; they see less inequality among different groups. In fact, Pratto et al. (1997) found that women show greater support of women's policies and programs that support the disadvantaged and equal rights more so than men. Therefore, men and women generally differ in their support for equality of groups and this is made evident in attitudes toward policies that are group relevant. Men hold many of the higher positions in some

capitalist societies, such as the United States, and often make decisions affecting the allocation of resources to groups, which in turn, results in affecting how group relations function. Since men have higher SDO levels than women, most individuals in positions of power are more apt to have not only the power, but also the psychological predisposition to support policies that are hierarchy-enhancing (Pratto et al., 1997).

Differences in sex on SDO relates to inequality between men and women, classes, races, and nations (Pratto et al., 1997). Individuals who hold roles that are hierarchy-enhancing aid in enforcing discrimination against those members of society who are in positions of lower status. These hierarchy-enhancers may also participate in discrimination by favoring members who have high status.

Hierarchy-enhancing jobs transmit positive resources to those already enjoying power, status, and means. Hierarchy-attenuating jobs, on the other hand, enjoy limited material well-being, status, or power (Buss & Malamuth, 1996). In a study using a sample of college students, Pratto, Stallworth, Sidanius, and Siers (1997) found that value-matching, self-selection and sex/role discrimination contribute to the segregation of gender in hierarchy roles. First, it was discovered that men chose jobs that are more hierarchy-enhancing compared to women. Additionally, men rated higher on SDO compared to women. SDO was found to account for a large part of sex differences as far as the self-selection of hierarchy roles is concerned. However, additional values that are gender-linked could account for part of these sex differences as well, such as positive relationships

with colleagues and customers and the preference for a high salary. Second, in a sample of college students and working professionals, participants tended to place individuals with some experience in organizations that are hierarchy-attenuating into positions that were hierarchy-attenuating over those with previous experience in hierarchy-enhancing jobs after reading fabricated resumes. Additionally those with previous hierarchy-enhancing positions were preferred for hierarchy-enhancing occupations over attenuators. Third, and most relevant to the current investigation, the participants decided to hire more women for hierarchy-attenuating positions and more men for occupations that are hierarchy-enhancing.

In the Pratto et al. (1997) study, every applicant's credentials were presented along with information pertaining to the applicant's previous experience to be used for the purpose of aiding the participants' decisions of whom to select; every participant was presented with a set of balanced resumes. Even though one half of applicants that were women had experience that was hierarchy-enhancing and half of the applicants who were men possessed experience that was hierarchy-attenuating, the participants continued to divide women and men into hierarchy roles which were apparently gender stereotyped. For example, if the career field was paralegal, enhancers would aid companies in lawsuits against employees who are injured. Participants "hired" more men for these types of positions (hierarchy-enhancing). On the other hand, attenuators would assist groups with a lower status, such as children, the poor, and immigrants. Participants placed more women in these types of positions (hierarchy-attenuating).

So, even with previous experience and job relevant information presented, gender discrimination is still present in decisions to hire. Thus, due to the sex differences in SDO, placing high SDO applicants into jobs that are hierarchy-enhancing and those who rate low on SDO into jobs that are hierarchy-attenuating would lead to more men in the hierarchy-enhancing positions and more women into positions that are hierarchy-attenuating. Surprisingly, both female and male participants were guilty of these biases and to the same degree (Pratto et al., 1997).

Reliability and Validity of SDO. Evidence was provided by Pratto et al. (1994) to show that SDO remains a) stable throughout time, b) can be assessed reliably, c) is lower in women and higher in men, d) is more prevalent in individuals who uphold policies that are hierarchy-enhancing and less prevalent in individuals who adhere to policies that are hierarchy-attenuating, e) is more prevalent in persons who adhere to ideologies that are hierarchy-enhancing and less prevalent in individuals who support ideologies that are hierarchy-attenuating, f) is more prevalent in individuals who select social roles that are hierarchy-enhancing and less prevalent in individuals who select social roles that are hierarchy-attenuating, and g) orients new attitudes of a political and social nature.

In regard to discriminant validity, SDO is an independent construct. For example, the average correlation among SDO and a) the Jackson Personality

Research Form (JPRF) was $-.01$, b) the California Personality Inventory (CPI) Dominance was $.03$, c) the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) was $-.08$, and d) the Neuroticism ($.10$) and Extraversion ($-.03$) scales of the Big Five Personality Dimensions (Pratto et al., 1994).

In relation to convergent validity, SDO has a negative, moderate relationship to tolerance ($-.30$), altruism ($-.28$), and concern for others ($-.46$). SDO is consistently and strongly correlated with an adherence to several hierarchy-legitimizing myths such as nationalism ($.54$), anti-black racism ($.55$), sexism ($.47$), and equal opportunities ($.46$). SDO is also consistently and strongly correlated with opposition to both women's rights ($-.40$) and social programs ($-.47$) (Pratto et al., 1994).

It seems logical that SDO can explain the sex stereotyping and workplace discrimination that prevents many women from progressing into upper management. For example, those who rate high on SDO use a number of behaviors used against out-groups, such as violence against out-groups, active discrimination, and stereotyping internal attributions that are negative which are used to explain out-group failures. These behaviors were termed Differential Intergroup Social Allocations according to Sidanius, Pratto, and Mitchell (1993). Sidanius et al. (1993) found that men were significantly higher on SDO than women and that men evaluated in-groups more favorably and regarded them as more competent than out-groups. The results also revealed that participants who rated high on SDO had a tendency to show a preference to remain socially distant

from, and had less of an inclination to cooperate with out-groups that were defined only minimally. Therefore, differential allocation (as far as social value is concerned to out-groups vs. in-groups) comes from SDO as well as group and sex identification.

Men in upper management that rate high on SDO may therefore prefer to promote other men because they are part of their in-group and wish to share their power and status only with other men. Unfortunately, women, being in the out-group, would be denied promotion because they are not one of the in-group members and not seen as equal. This is clearly more than a case of in-group favoritism, and more of a form of institutional discrimination, as women occupy fewer board seats in Fortune 500 companies than men (Catalyst, 1998).

The Present Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate how SDO relates to perceptions of women and men in management. First, this study sought to perform a partial replication and extension of the Heilman et al. (1989) study. Managers were asked to rate a list descriptive adjectives of men or women in general, men or women managers, men or women successful managers, or a successful middle manager. I predicted that only when an explicit mention of success (when labeled as a successful female manager) was made, would women be perceived to possess requisite management characteristics the most. Additionally, women would be perceived to possess requisite management characteristics the least when their gender is the only information provided (when labeled as women in general).

However, resemblance in the characteristics of men and managers was anticipated, no matter which label is used to identify them. More specifically:

Hypothesis 1a: Men will perceive more resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers.

Hypothesis 1b: Women will perceive resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers

In regard to the examination of the relationship between SDO and gender stereotyping among men and women in management:

Hypothesis 2a: Men will score significantly higher on SDO than women.

Hypothesis 2b: Those who rate high on SDO will perceive more resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers.

Hypothesis 2c: Those who rate low on SDO will perceive resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers.

Hypothesis 3: An exploratory analysis will also be conducted to examine which items were rated as most characteristic in both high SDO and low SDO respondents.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

Five-hundred and eleven surveys were sent out and seventy-five individuals (38 females, 35 males, 2 unreported) completed and returned the surveys yielding a response rate of 14.68%. Demographic information was collected in regard to age, sex, length of experience in management, industry type and functional area. The questions of national origin, country of current assignment, country location of corporate headquarters and other countries lived in on Schein's (1973) Descriptive Index were left out since these demographic variables were not of interest in this study. Organizations chosen for this study were a marketing department of a manufacturing company in the northeastern region of the United States and a medium sized university in the midwestern region of the United States. The participants from the manufacturing company consisted of middle and upper level management, whereas the participants from the university consisted of administrative personnel and faculty. A manager in this study was defined as any person who holds a position that contains supervisory duties in the job description. The average tenure in management ranged from 0-38 years (\underline{M} = 11.01 years, \underline{SD} = 8.67). Age of the participants ranged from 24-65 years (\underline{M} = 46.18 years, \underline{SD} = 10.42).

Measures

Descriptive Index. Schein's (1973) Descriptive Index was administered to the managers in the manufacturing company and to the administrative personnel and faculty (see Appendix A for Descriptive Index). Schein's (1973) Descriptive Index was used in the Heilman et al. (1989) study and since the purpose of the current investigation was to replicate and build on the Heilman et al. (1989) study, the Descriptive Index was used here as well.

The study was explained as an inquiry of how individuals are perceived in the workplace. There are 92 adjectives on the Descriptive Index. This index was created to measure stereotypes of sex roles and successful middle manager characteristics. There are seven different versions of the Descriptive Index: men in general, women in general, successful middle managers, female managers, male managers, successful female managers, and successful male managers. Each participant received one of the seven versions: men in general (11), women in general (10), successful middle managers (12), female managers (6), male managers (13), successful female managers (14), and successful male managers (9) (See Table 3 for number of raters per category). Each participant was requested to rate one of the versions on all 92 descriptors. The ratings were set up as a five point Likert scale, from 1 (not characteristic) to 5 (characteristic). Instructions were tailored for whichever one of the seven versions the participant received (e.g., women in general or men in general).

Reliability of Descriptive Index. In the Heilman et al. (1989) study, intraclass correlation coefficients (r) or ICCs were computed to determine how much correspondence there was between the ratings of the successful middle manager label and the ratings of each of the remaining six labels (i.e., men and women in general, male and female managers, male and female successful managers). ICCs can be utilized as a reliability index between ratings ascribed by a number of judges on a target or object (Shout & Fleiss, 1979). However, in the Heilman et al. (1989) study, the ICC was used differently. The authors were interested in similarities between the ratings brought on by a number of labels (e.g., women in general, successful middle managers) on Schein's Descriptive Index. Therefore, the authors did not want to examine the ratings' similarity by a number of judges on the Descriptive Index. Instead, they wanted to examine the similarity of the ratings of participants of men in general and successful middle managers, and of women in general and successful middle managers reported in the scale. Thus, in this situation a high ICC translates into descriptions of each pair of labels that resemble one another (i.e., men in general and successful middle managers, or women in general and successful middle managers). On the other hand, a low ICC translates into differential descriptions of each pair of labels (Heilman et al., 1989).

For example, the ICCs in the Heilman et al. (1989) investigation yielded a significant and large correlation ($r = .54$, $p < .001$) between the ratings of men in general and successful middle managers. However, this large and significant

correlation was not found among ratings of women in general and successful middle managers ($r = -.24$). Also, there was a significant difference between these two relationships $t(89) = 4.92, p < .001$. Therefore, women were rated as not possessing requisite managerial characteristics that are attributed to men, which was also found by Schein (1973).

SDO6 scale. To measure SDO, the SDO6 scale accompanied the Descriptive Index (See Appendix B). It consists of 16 balanced items. The items are balanced in that the scale contains items that individuals with a high SDO are anticipated to endorse, as well as items that individuals with a low SDO are anticipated to endorse. Typically, the scale is unitary, stable over time, contains high internal reliability ($\alpha = .91$) as well as external reliability (Pratto et al., 1997). For example, the scale related to attitudes toward civil rights (-.59), affirmative action (-.44), gay rights (-.32) and equal pay for females (-.29). The scale also correlated .51 ($p < .01$) with the Rombough and Ventimiglia (1981) scale on sexism (Pratto et al., 1994). This particular SDO scale was used for two reasons. First, this scale correlates with equal pay for females and attitudes concerning affirmative action (Pratto et al., 1994). Second, this scale was used in the Pratto et al. (1997) study, which examined gender stereotyping in occupational roles. Therefore, of all the SDO scales, this appears to be the most appropriate. The participants were asked to rate his/her positive feelings toward each item from 1 (very negative) to 7 (very positive).

Procedure

Managers of the manufacturing company received the survey from an upper level manager in their department. The survey packet was sent to the university administrative personnel and faculty through campus mail. All participants received an informed consent document (See Appendix C) requesting their participation in the study. Participants were assured anonymity and confidentiality. After the survey packet was completed (informed consent, instructions for Descriptive Index and SDO6 scale, and a copy of both scales), a debriefing form was given to the participants explaining the study in more detail (See Appendix D). The debriefing form was presented after the packet in order to reduce any social desirability effects. For example, if participants are aware that this study was examining gender stereotyping of women and men in management in the beginning of the packet, participants may rate women and men differently than they would have if they were not initially given the full description of the research. Deception did not occur, however, only a general overview of the study was initially given. A full debriefing form followed the questionnaires.

Design

First, a two sample independent t test was utilized to determine if men rate higher than women on SDO. Second, intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) were computed to determine the extent of resemblance between the ratings of the successful middle manager category and a) women in general, b) men in general,

c) female managers, d) male managers, e) successful female managers, and f) successful male managers. Each ICC was computed for four different groups: men, women, low SDO respondents, and high SDO respondents. Third, since ICCs only permit the opportunity to view the lack of direct relationships, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to determine if there were any inverse relationships present in characteristics of successful middle managers and each of the six other labels (Heilman et al., 1989). Fourth, to establish if there was greater resemblance between successful middle managers and a) women or men in general, b) male or female managers, and c) successful male or successful female managers, ICCs and Pearson correlations were converted to Fisher's z 's and then Z tests were applied to check for significant differences in comparing pairs of labels. Finally, an exploratory analysis was conducted to examine which items were rated as most characteristic in each of the seven categories for both high SDO and low SDO respondents.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Presentation of the results is offered in the following three sections. The first section covers the findings among male and female respondents. The second section covers the findings among high SDO and low SDO respondents. The final section discusses the results of the exploratory analysis that was conducted to determine which items were rated as most characteristic in both high SDO and low SDO respondents.

In this study intraclass correlation coefficients determined the correspondence between ratings of the successful middle manager label and ratings of each of the remaining six labels (e.g., men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers, and successful female managers). A high ICC translates into descriptions of each combination of labels that resemble each other. On the other hand, a low ICC translates into differential descriptions of each pair of labels. However, ICCs only permit the opportunity to view the lack of direct relationships. Therefore, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to unveil if there were inverse relationships present in characteristics of successful middle managers and each of the six other labels. Pearson correlations delineate the linear relationships among ratings of a successful middle manager and women in general, men in general, female managers, male managers, successful female managers, and successful male managers (Heilman et al., 1989). ICCs and Pearson correlations were

obtained from each pair of labels from all four groups of participants: male/female respondents and high/low SDO respondents. To establish if there was greater resemblance between successful middle managers and a) women or men in general, b) male or female managers, and c) successful male or successful female managers, ICCs and Pearson correlations were converted to Fisher's z's and then Z tests were applied to check for significant differences in comparing pairs of labels.

Male/Female Respondents

Hypothesis 1a stated that men will perceive more resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. ICCs for male respondents indicated no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and women in general (.51) and successful middle managers and men in general (.42) ($Z = .46$, ns). There was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and female managers (.54) and successful middle managers and male managers (.37) ($Z = .86$, ns). The ICCs also indicated no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and successful female managers (.96) and successful middle managers and successful male managers (.94) ($Z = .83$, ns).

Pearson correlations obtained from male respondents indicated a significant and positive relationship between successful middle managers' ratings

and ratings of men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers and successful female managers. No significant difference in resemblance of ratings was discovered between successful middle managers and men in general (.61) and successful middle managers and women in general (.49) ($Z = -.69$, ns). There was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and male managers (.45) and successful middle managers and female managers (.38) ($Z = -.34$, ns). When men and women were labeled as “successful managers”, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between females and successful middle managers (.92) and males and successful middle managers (.91) ($Z = .24$, ns). Among male respondents, both women and men are perceived to possess qualities similar to those of a successful middle manager when both sexes were labeled in “general,” as “managers,” and as “successful managers.” Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported because no significant differences in resemblance of ratings were found between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers and successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers. These results were unexpected and will be discussed at a later point in this study.

Hypothesis 1b stated that women would perceive resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. ICCs for female respondents indicated

significantly greater resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general (.76) than in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general (.35) ($Z = 2.63, p < .05$). There was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and female managers (.82) and successful middle managers and male managers (.62) ($Z = 1.80, ns$). Finally, no significant difference in resemblance of ratings was found between successful middle managers and successful female managers (.94) and successful middle managers and successful male managers (.88) ($Z = .88, ns$).

Pearson correlations obtained from female respondents revealed a significant and positive relationship between successful middle managers' ratings and ratings of men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers and successful female managers. Pearson correlations also indicated that there was more resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general (.68) than in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general (.34) ($Z = 1.98, p < .05$). However, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between men and successful middle managers (.59) and women and successful middle managers (.78) ($Z = 1.53, ns$) when both sexes were labeled as "managers." No significant difference in resemblance of ratings was found between men and successful middle managers (.84) and women and successful middle managers (.88) ($Z = .65, ns$) when both sexes were labeled as "successful managers." So, among female respondents, women, more so than men, were perceived to possess

those qualities that are characteristic of a successful middle manager only when their performance ability was absent (labeled “in general” terms), but not when they were labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers.” Hypothesis 1b predicted that female respondents would perceive resemblance in ratings between women in general/managers/successful managers and successful middle managers similar to ratings between men in general/managers/successful managers and successful middle managers. Therefore, this hypothesis is only partially supported because women saw other women, more than men, as possessing those qualities necessary for successful management only when both sexes were labeled “in general” terms. However, the implications of this unexpected finding will be addressed later.

High SDO/Low SDO Respondents

Hypothesis 2a stated that men will score significantly higher on SDO than women. To test this hypothesis, an independent samples t test was conducted on the male and female SDO scores as the dependent variable. As expected, men scored significantly higher on SDO ($M = 35.37$, $SD = 9.46$) than women ($M = 27.71$, $SD = 11.68$), $t(71) = -7.66$, $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2b stated that those who rate high on SDO will perceive greater resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. ICCs for high SDO respondents ($n=38$) indicated greater resemblance in ratings between

successful middle managers and women in general (.74) than in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general (.29) ($Z = 2.71, p < .05$). ICCs indicated no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and female managers (.69) and successful middle managers and male managers (.61) ($Z = .58, ns$). Finally, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and successful male managers (.88) and successful middle managers and successful female managers (.94) ($Z = 1.51, ns$).

Pearson correlations obtained from high SDO respondents indicated a significant positive relationship between successful middle managers' ratings and ratings of men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers and successful female managers. Pearson correlations also indicated no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and women in general (.67) and successful middle managers and men in general (.35) ($Z = 1.86, ns$). There was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and male managers (.59) and successful middle managers and female managers (.57) ($Z = -.13, ns$). Finally, no significant difference in resemblance of ratings was discovered between successful middle managers and successful female managers (.91) and successful middle managers and successful male managers (.81) ($Z = 1.67, ns$). These results reject Hypothesis 2b because when women and men were labeled "in general," there was greater resemblance in ratings between women

and successful middle managers than in ratings between men and successful middle managers. Hypothesis 2b was also rejected because no significant differences in resemblance of ratings were found between successful middle managers and men and successful middle managers and women when both sexes were labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers.” These findings were also unexpected and will be addressed later in this paper.

Hypothesis 2c stated that those who rate low on SDO will perceive resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. Among low SDO respondents, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and men in general (.61) and successful middle managers and women in general (.59) ($Z = -.13$, ns). However, there was greater resemblance between ratings of successful middle managers and female managers (.86) than in ratings between successful middle managers and male managers (.51) ($Z = 3.04$, $p < .05$). Resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and successful male managers (.94) were identical to ratings between successful middle managers and successful female managers (.94) ($Z = .00$, ns).

Pearson correlations obtained from low SDO respondents revealed a significant positive relationship between successful middle managers’ ratings and ratings of men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers,

successful male managers and successful female managers. Pearson correlations indicated no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and women in general (.56) and successful middle managers and men in general (.55) ($Z = .06$, ns). Greater resemblance was discovered in ratings between successful middle managers and female managers (.80) than in ratings between successful middle managers and male managers (.46) ($Z = 2.51$, $p < .05$). No significant difference in resemblance of ratings was found between successful middle managers and successful male managers (.89) and successful middle managers and successful female managers (.90) ($Z = .21$, ns).

Hypothesis 2c was then only partially supported since identical resemblance in ratings between women and successful middle managers and men and successful middle managers was not found when both sexes were labeled as “managers.” However, supporting the hypothesis was that no significant difference in resemblance of ratings was found between successful middle managers and men in general and successful middle managers and women in general. Also, supporting the hypothesis was that the resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and successful male managers was identical to ratings between successful middle managers and successful female managers. These finding supporting Hypothesis 2c are congruent with SDO research that purports that those who rate low on SDO have a tendency to perceive equality among groups (Pratto et al., 1994).

Exploratory Analysis

Hypothesis 3 was an exploratory analysis conducted to determine which items were rated as most characteristic among both high and low SDO respondents in each of the seven categories (e.g., men and women in general, male and female managers, successful male managers and successful female managers). The mean ratings were determined for each item in each of the seven categories. If an item's mean ratings were above 4.00, it was included since a rating of "4" on the Descriptive Index is described as "somewhat characteristic." See Table 6 for a complete listing of the items rated as most characteristic of both high and low SDO respondents.

Among high SDO respondents, men in general were rated as only characteristic in terms of "high need for power." This item was not, however, included in items rated as most characteristic for successful middle managers. Women in general were rated as most characteristic in some items that were also rated as characteristic of successful middle managers, such as "leadership ability" and "competent." As men and women were presented with more performance ability (labeled as "managers" and then as "successful managers"), the items rated as most characteristic in these categories were more congruent with those items rated as most characteristic of a successful middle manager. However, in all categories ("in general", as "managers," and as "successful managers"), items rated as most characteristic of women, when compared to men, resembled items rated as most characteristic of a successful middle manager the greatest.

Among low SDO respondents, items rated as most characteristic of men in general paralleled a number of items rated as most characteristic of a successful middle manager (i.e., “independent,” “competitive,” “industrious”). Only one item rated as most characteristic of women in general (i.e., “competent”) was also rated as most characteristic of a successful middle manager. However, as men and women were presented with more performance ability (labeled as “managers” and then as “successful managers”), the items rated as most characteristic in these categories paralleled those items rated as most characteristic of a successful middle manager (i.e., “leadership ability,” “competent,” “analytical ability”). Men and women labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers” shared many of the same descriptive adjectives, which were also found to be characteristic of a successful middle manager. Thus, as presentation of performance ability increased, both men and women were described as possessing characteristics used to describe successful middle managers.

Table 3

Items Rated as Most Characteristic for High SDO Respondents in Each of the Seven Categories

<u>Men in General</u>	<u>Women in General</u>	<u>Male Manager</u>	<u>Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Male Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Mid. Manager</u>
High need for power	Curious Sympathetic Leadership ability Values present surroundings Neat Creative Intelligent Persistent Analytical ability Competent Aware of feelings of others Prompt Intuitive Industrious Steady Helpful Strong need for achievement	High need for power Persistent	High need for power Values pleasant surroundings Interested in own appearance Persistent Forceful Competitive Competent Aggressive High self- regard Firm Prompt Industrious Well- informed Not uncomfortable about being aggressive Desires responsibility Self- controlled Strong need for achievement Skilled in business matters Ambitious	Consistent Adventurous Leadership ability Creative Frank Emotionally stable Independent Intelligent Persistent Competitive High need for Autonomy Able to separate feelings from ideas Prompt Industrious Ambitious Desires responsibility Decisive Self-confident Steady Assertive Skilled in business matters Competent	Consistent Leadership ability Values pleasant surroundings Neat Courteous Emotionally stable Independent Intelligent Persistent Analytical ability Competent Understanding Objective Firm Prompt Intuitive Industrious Well- informed Desires Responsibility Self- controlled Decisive Self- confident Steady Assertive Tactful Helpful Strong need for achievement Skilled in business matters Self-reliant Logical	Curious Consistent Sympathetic Adventurous Leadership Ability Steady Creative Frank Courteous Emotionally stable Intelligent Persistent Vigorous Analytical ability Able to separate feelings from ideas Competent Understanding High self- regard Aware of feelings of others Objective Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance Firm Prompt Intuitive Industrious Well- informed Desires Responsibility Self- controlled Decisive Direct Self-confident Assertive Feelings not easily hurt Tactful Helpful

Table 3 continued

Items Rated as Most Characteristic for High SDO Respondents in Each of the Seven Categories

<u>Men in General</u>	<u>Women in General</u>	<u>Male Manager</u>	<u>Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Male Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Mid. Manager</u> Strong need for achievement Logical Skilled in business matters Kind

Table 4

Items Rated as Most Characteristic for Low SDO Respondents in Each of the Seven Categories

<u>Men in General</u>	<u>Women in General</u>	<u>Male Manager</u>	<u>Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Male Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Mid. Manager</u>
High need for power	Competent	High need for power	Curious	Consistent	Curious	Curious
Independent	Sympathetic	Competitive	Consistent	Adventurous	Leadership ability	Consistent
Competitive	Interested in own appearance		Values	Leadership ability	Creative	Independent
Industrious	Values		pleasant surroundings	Self-reliant	Frank	Competitive
Desires responsibility	pleasant surroundings		Sympathetic	Frank	Forceful	Leadership ability
Authoritative	Desire for friendship		Neat	Emotionally stable	Competitive	Creative
Self-confident			Persistent	Independent	Courteous	Frank
Logical			Creative	Intelligent	Emotionally stable	Courteous
Skilled in business matters			Competitive	Persistent	Independent	Emotionally stable
Self-reliant			Competent	Competitive	Intelligent	Intelligent
			Sociable	High need for autonomy	Persistent	Persistent
			High self-regard	for autonomy	Consistent	Interested in own appearance
			Shy	Courteous	Analytical ability	Analytical ability
			Leadership ability	Vigorous	High need for autonomy	Competent
			Independent	Analytical ability	Able to separate feelings from ideas	Understanding
			Intelligent	Competent	Competent	Sociable
			Sophisticated	Understanding	from ideas	Speedy recovery
			Talkative	Objective	Competent	from emotional disturbance
			Strong need for security	Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	Understanding	Firm
			Analytical ability	Aware of feelings of others	High self-regard	Prompt
			Aware of feelings of others	Prompt	Aware of feeling of others	Intuitive
			Industrious	Knows the way of the world	Objective	Industrious
			Well-informed	Industrious	Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	Well-informed
			Ambitious	Well-informed	Firm	Ambitious
			Desires responsibility	Desires responsibility	Prompt	Desires responsibility
			Self-controlled	Self-controlled	Intuitive	Self-controlled
			Decisive	Decisive	Humanitarian	Decisive
			Direct	Direct	Values	Direct
			Self-confident	Self-confident	Knows the way of the world	Self-confident
			Sentimental	Steady	Industrious	Steady
			Steady	Assertive	Well-informed	Assertive
			Helpful	Feelings not easily hurt	Not uncomfortable about being	Tactful
			Strong need for achievement	Tactful	Aggressive	Helpful
			Skilled in business matters	Helpful		Strong need for achievement
			Self-reliant			Logical

Table 4 continued

Items Rated as Most Characteristic for Low SDO Respondents in Each of the Seven Categories

<u>Men in General</u>	<u>Women in General</u>	<u>Male Manager</u>	<u>Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Male Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Female Manager</u>	<u>Suc. Mid. Manager</u>
				Strong need for achievement Logical Generous	Self-confident Assertive Feelings not easily hurt Helpful Strong need for achievement Logical Skilled in business matters Desires responsibility Ambitious Self- controlled Vigorous Self-reliant Decisive Direct Steady	Skilled in business matters Self-reliant

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate how SDO relates to perceptions of women and men in management. First, this study sought to perform a partial replication and extension of the Heilman et al. (1989) study. Second, perceptions of those who rated high on SDO and those who rated low on SDO were examined. Management personnel of a large manufacturing company and administrative personnel and faculty from a medium sized university were asked to rate a list of descriptive adjectives of men in general, women in general, male managers, female managers, successful male managers and successful female managers.

Hypothesis 1

The Hypothesis 1a stated that men would perceive more resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. Results among male respondents indicated no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between women in general/managers/successful managers and successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers and successful middle managers. Regardless of whether performance ability was presented or not (e.g., when both sexes were labeled as “successful managers” indicating that the individual has experience in management and has proven to be successful), there were no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between women

and successful middle managers and men and successful middle managers. The findings of the present study are more promising than the results found in the Heilman et al. (1989) study. Heilman et al. discovered that among male management respondents, resemblance between ratings of successful managers and women improves greatly when women are portrayed as managers. Even though resemblance increased even more when women are portrayed as successful managers, there was more resemblance in ratings given to successful male managers and successful managers (Heilman et al., 1989). The results of the current investigation are encouraging in that some progress appears to have been made over the past decade in terms of how women are perceived in light of management potential.

However, the findings among male respondents are also inconsistent with the findings of Dodge et al. (1995), who found that among MBA students, as performance ability is made evident, stereotypes dissipate. In other words, they found that male subjects saw successful middle managers as displaying characteristics more commonly attributed to men in general and men as managers compared to women in general and women as managers. Further analysis revealed that men saw successful middle managers as having characteristics that equally resemble the characteristics of successful male managers and of successful female managers (Dodge et al., 1995). So, in the Dodge et al. (1995) study, men perceived women to possess those qualities necessary for successful management only when information was presented about their accomplishments.

In the current investigation, men perceived women to possess those qualities necessary for successful management even when no performance ability information was presented. Therefore, this study suggests that men perceive women to be as capable as men to manage successfully in terms of having the “right stuff.”

Female respondents appeared to have favorable impressions of other women in all possible pairings of labels as well. Hypothesis 1b stated that women would perceive resemblance in ratings given to successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings given to men in general/managers/successful managers. First, there was more resemblance in ratings between women in general and successful middle managers than in ratings between men in general and successful middle managers. Second, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between female managers and successful middle managers and male managers and successful middle managers. Finally, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful female managers and successful middle managers and successful male managers and successful middle managers. Clearly, women see other women in a favorable light in regard to management potential, even when their performance ability has not been presented. These findings are somewhat inconsistent with the results found by Dodge et al. (1995) where female respondents perceived greater resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and female managers

than in ratings between successful middle managers and male managers. In Dodge et al.'s study, when men and women were labeled "in general" terms, the ratings of both sexes equally resembled ratings given to successful middle managers. Therefore, only when women were affixed with a label indicating that they had experience in management (e.g., labeled as a "manager"), did female respondents perceive greater resemblance in ratings between women and successful middle managers than in ratings between men and successful middle managers. However, in the current investigation, female respondents believed that other women, more so than men, possessed those qualities necessary for successful management when no performance ability information was presented, but saw men and women to equally possess qualities necessary for successful management when they were labeled as "managers" and "successful managers." Therefore, women, as well as men, appear to have faith in a female's ability to manage, even when they haven't proven themselves yet.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2a was supported as men scored significantly higher on the SDO measure than women. This is not surprising because the same results have been discovered in other research (e.g., Pratto, Stallworth & Sidanius, 1997). Therefore, men and women generally differ in their support for equality of groups.

Sex differences on SDO are related to inequality between men and women, classes, races and nations (Pratto et al., 1997). The finding that men

scored significantly higher on the SDO measure than women, and therefore differed in support for equality of groups, leads the author to the next hypothesis: Hypothesis 2b stated that those who rate high on SDO will perceive significantly greater resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers than in ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. The results were puzzling among high SDO respondents. For example, more resemblance in ratings occurred between women in general and successful middle managers than in ratings between men in general and successful middle managers. When men and women were labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers,” there were no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between women and successful middle managers and men and successful middle managers. These findings do not agree with previous SDO research. Those who rate high on SDO perceive their in-group to dominate over other out-groups (Pratto et al., 1994). Since men rated higher on SDO, it was expected that more resemblance would be seen in ratings between men and successful middle managers. Obviously, this was not the case since a) there was greater resemblance in ratings between women in general and successful middle managers than in ratings between men in general and successful middle managers and, b) there were no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between men and successful middle managers and women and successful middle managers when both sexes were labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers.”

Hypothesis 2c stated that those who rate low on SDO will perceive resemblance in ratings between successful middle managers and men in general/managers/successful managers similar to ratings between successful middle managers and women in general/managers/successful managers. Among respondents who rated low on SDO, perceptions of women and men's managerial potential was puzzling. When women and men were labeled "in general" terms, there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between successful middle managers and women and successful middle managers and men. When women and men were labeled as "managers", ratings given to women resembled ratings given to successful middle managers more than ratings between men and successful middle managers. Finally, when men and women were labeled as "successful managers", the ratings given to both sexes were the same as ratings given to successful middle managers. It appears that low SDO respondents see both men and women as equally possessing those qualities that are characteristic of a successful middle managers when both sexes are labeled "in general" terms and as "successful managers." These findings are consistent with SDO research, which supports the view that those who rate low on SDO have a tendency to view equality among different groups (i.e., men and women) (Pratto et al., 1994). What was unexpected was that when men and women were labeled as "managers", ratings assigned to women were more similar to successful middle managers than in ratings between men and successful middle managers. Further research is recommended in order to explain this unexpected finding.

Hypothesis 3

An exploratory analysis was conducted to determine which items were rated as most characteristic in both high SDO and low SDO respondents. Among high SDO respondents, the only item rated as characteristic of men in general was “high need for power.” This item was not included in the items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager. Items rated as characteristic of women in general paralleled a number of items used to characterize a successful middle manager, such as “leadership ability,” “analytical ability,” and “competent”. As men and women were affixed with a label that demonstrated performance ability, (first as “managers,” then as “successful managers”), they were characterized by items that paralleled items rated as characteristic of successful middle managers. However, in all categories (“in general,” as “managers,” and as “successful managers”), there was greater resemblance in items rated as characteristic of women and items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager than items rated as characteristic of men and items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager. These findings are not congruent with items found to be characteristic of female managers when compared to male managers in a study conducted by Heilman et al. (1995). Female managers were perceived as less competent, independent, potent and active, emotionally stable, and rational when compared to male managers (Heilman et al., 1995). In the current investigation, high SDO respondents have rated women, more than men, as possessing qualities that are characteristic of a

successful middle manager. This finding runs contradictory to the tenets of SDO research. Since men score higher on SDO and those who score high on SDO prefer their own in group (other men) to maintain positions of hierarchy, this finding is surprising (Pratto et al., 1994).

Among low SDO respondents, a number of items rated as characteristic of men in general paralleled items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager (i.e., “independent,” “competitive,” “industrious”). Only one item rated as characteristic of women in general (“competent”) was also rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager. However, when men and women were labeled as “managers,” greater resemblance was found between items rated as characteristic of women and a successful middle manager than between items rated as characteristic of men and a successful middle manager. Again, these findings are incongruent with results from the Heilman et al. (1995) study, where female managers were rated as less competent, independent, potent and active, emotionally stable and rational when compared to male managers. In the present study, when men and women were rated as “successful managers,” a number of items rated as characteristic for both men and women paralleled those items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager (i.e., “leadership ability,” “competent,” “analytical ability”). This last finding is congruent with current SDO research, which supports the view that those who rate low on SDO will perceive more equality between different groups, such as men and women (Pratto et al., 1994). When males and females had both demonstrated performance

ability by being labeled as “successful managers,” both sexes received a number of items rated as characteristic of a successful middle manager.

The present research has demonstrated that there appears to be favorable impressions of management potential for women, whether their gender is affixed with a label (“successful managers”) that demonstrates their ability to perform or not. Among male respondents, when both men and women were labeled “in general,” as “managers,” and as “successful managers,” there were no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between women and successful middle managers and men and successful middle managers. Therefore, men appear to perceive women possessing those characteristics necessary for successful management even when a woman has not demonstrated her performance ability. As mentioned earlier, these results are the opposite of what Heilman et al. (1989) found: men perceived greater resemblance in ratings between men and successful middle managers than in ratings between women and successful middle managers, whether a label indicating performance ability was present or not. In the current investigation, female respondents also rated other women as possessing those characteristics necessary for successful management even when performance ability was not presented. Female respondents apparently recognize management potential in other women even when performance ability is not presented possibly because they are not blinded by gender stereotypes about women and are aware of their own capacity to manage successfully. As for the male respondents, given results from previous research

(i.e., Heilman et al., 1989; 1995; Dodge et al., 1995), it is surprising that they perceived equal resemblance in ratings between women and successful middle managers and between men and successful middle managers in the present study.

High SDO respondents demonstrated the most unexpected results; Traditionally, men scored higher on SDO than women, and tended to view their own in group (other men) as superior (Pratto et al., 1994). However, in this study, when men and women were labeled “in general” terms there was greater resemblance in ratings between women and successful middle managers than in ratings between men and successful middle managers. And, when women and men were labeled as “managers” and as “successful managers,” there were no significant differences in resemblance of ratings between men and successful middle managers and women and successful middle managers. Therefore, when no performance ability was demonstrated, high SDO respondents perceived women, more than men, to have those characteristics necessary for successful management. According to SDO theory, it would be men that should be perceived to possess those qualities necessary for successful management, which was not the case in the present study. Further research is recommended to help delineate the reasons for these unexpected findings regarding SDO.

The results of low SDO respondents were much more congruent with SDO research than the results gathered from high SDO respondents. When men and women were labeled “in general,” there was no significant difference in resemblance of ratings between men and successful middle managers and women

and successful middle managers. When performance ability was absent, low SDO respondents viewed both men and women to possess those qualities necessary for successful management. These findings are in agreement with SDO research, which supports the belief that those who rate low on SDO have a tendency to prefer equality between groups and do not tend to view their in-group as dominating over other out-groups (Pratto et al., 1994). Similar results were found when men and women were labeled as “successful managers.” Here, both men and women were perceived to possess those qualities necessary for successful management, which is again in agreement with SDO research. So, whether performance ability is present or absent, low SDO respondents tend to view both men and women in a favorable light in terms of management potential.

From this research it can be suggested that high and low SDO respondents, as well as male and female respondents, view women in a favorable light in terms of management potential regardless of whether or not performance ability has been presented.

Limitations

Caution should be taken in interpreting these optimistic results concerning perceptions of women in management for the following reasons. First, the sample size was rather small and there were an unequal number of participants in each of the seven categories. For example, only six participants filled out the version for “female managers.” However, 14 participants completed the version for “successful female managers.” When the sample was divided into males ($N = 38$)

and females ($N = 35$) or high SDO respondents ($N = 38$) and low SDO respondents ($N = 37$), the sample size per category was divided even further. Power, or the probability of coming to the correct conclusion of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false, is compromised when the size of the sample is small. This is because power depends upon sample size. When the size of the sample is large (i.e., greater than 100 participants per group), power will most likely not be affected (Stevens, 1990). However, in this study the number of participants per group were less than 10 in some cases. After calculating the effect size of the intraclass correlations in this study, an effect size of .49 was yielded. In order to achieve a minimal desired power of .80, at least 12 participants would be required in each of the seven groups. Power may have been compromised in this study since only six participants answered the Descriptive Index version of female managers, for example.

Second, generalizability of these findings may be limited since the majority of participants came from a university ($n = 67$). University administrative personnel and faculty may be more liberal in their views toward women in management as opposed to individuals in private industry. Additionally, university personnel and management in private business and industry may differ in how they define successful management, especially when considering that private industry is known for its “cut-throat” competitiveness. The number of participants in the manufacturing company was considerably small ($n = 8$) and therefore was not a significant enough representation of private

industry. The small number of participants from the manufacturing company was not only a weak representation of business and industry, but was not even a large enough sample to represent that particular company. This large difference between the sample and the population it is derived from is referred to as sampling error (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996) and is definitely a caveat about the results of this study.

Finally, participants who took the time to fill out the survey and send it back in may be biased. The mere fact that they took an interest in participating in this study could mean that they are already open-minded individuals. If this is the case, they may also be more open-minded about women entering positions in management and thus could have contributed to the optimistic results found in this study regarding the management potential of women.

Directions for Future Research

Directions for future research should first include replicating this study using a larger sample more balanced in terms of equal numbers of raters from each company in order to increase statistical power and reduce sampling error. Second, it would also be beneficial for this research to be conducted in a number of industries, in addition to higher education and manufacturing, in an effort to gain a sample that is more representative of a number of industries. It would also be interesting to compare perceptions of men and women in management between different industry types, especially in industries that are known for being stereotypically male (e.g., manufacturing) and stereotypically female (e.g.,

apparel). Finally, this research only examined perceptions of men and women in light of middle management potential. It would be interesting to see how men and women are perceived in regard to upper management potential. Dodge et al. (1995) utilized a sample of male and female MBA students to investigate resemblance of each of these categories to upper level managers. However, the sample was students and not top level management, who will ultimately be deciding who is received into top management positions. It may also be of interest to see how SDO would influence perceptions in light of upper management potential in both men and women. Especially since men hold many of the higher positions in some capitalist societies, such as the United States, and often make decisions affecting the allocation of resources to groups, which in turn results in affecting how group relations function. Since men have higher SDO levels than women, most individuals in positions of power are more apt to have not only the power, but also the psychological predisposition to support policies that are hierarchy-enhancing. These differences in sex on SDO relate to inequality between men and women (Pratto et al., 1997). It would certainly be of interest to view the perceptions of top level executives since men not only rate significantly higher than women on SDO, but men also make up the majority of top level management positions in business and industry.

Conclusion

While it would be ideal to conduct this research in a variety of industries, doing so is not easy. The author experienced difficulty in trying to gain access to

management personnel in different companies. Reasons included that the company felt that the issue of gender stereotyping was too risky to be investigated (even though the responses of the participants would be anonymous and no one would know the identity of the companies researched except for the author and the company contact person) or the company contact never got back to the author to inform her of the status of her request (even though several attempts were made by the author to follow up with these contacts).

Regardless of the difficulty in gaining access to a large number of management personnel in private industry, the results from this study, as well as future similar research, can help companies identify if there is a possibility of gender stereotyping occurring in their organization. The realization of this finding could help decision-makers of management employment become aware of the potential biases that occur in the promotion of men and women into management positions. If the biases that impede women's career progression, as well as the people who hold these biases, can be identified, perhaps measures could be taken to help rid organizations of these stereotypes that keep women out of the upper ranks of management. Companies could implement gender sensitization workshops in orientation or training programs for self-awareness and behavior changes in its management personnel. Another solution may be to modify management selection systems to help identify individuals who have a tendency to negatively stereotype women and their potential to manage. The

results of this study are more promising for women aspiring to move up the corporate ladder when compared to the research from a decade ago. However, judging by the small number of women at the top, there is a long way to go.

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Appendix A

Instructions – Schein Descriptive Index

Your area of specialization (i.e., Marketing, Finance) _____

Industry type (i.e., Manufacturing, Financial Service) _____

Number of years in a managerial position _____

Age _____

Sex _____

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 a (insert version) is like. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that 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 (insert version). Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a (insert version).

The ratings are to be made according to the following scale:

5 – Characteristic of a (insert version)

4 – Somewhat characteristic of a (insert version)

3 – Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of a (insert version)

2 – Somewhat uncharacteristic of a (insert version)

1 – Not characteristic of a (insert version)

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which most closely represents your opinion on line next to each adjective.

5 = Characteristic
 4 = Somewhat characteristic
 3 = Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
 2 = Somewhat uncharacteristic
 1 = Not characteristic

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Curious _____ | 24. Vigorous _____ |
| 2. Consistent _____ | 25. Timid _____ |
| 3. High need for power _____ | 26. Sophisticated _____ |
| 4. Sympathetic _____ | 27. Talkative _____ |
| 5. Fearful _____ | 28. Strong need for
security _____ |
| 6. Adventurous _____ | 29. Forceful _____ |
| 7. Leadership Ability _____ | 30. Analytical ability _____ |
| 8. Values pleasant surroundings _____ | 31. Competitive _____ |
| 9. Neat _____ | 32. Wavering in decision _____ |
| 10. Uncertain _____ | 33. Cheerful _____ |
| 11. Creative _____ | 34. High need for
autonomy _____ |
| 12. Desire to avoid controversy _____ | 35. Able to separate
feelings from ideas _____ |
| 13. Submissive _____ | 36. Competent _____ |
| 14. Frank _____ | 37. Understanding _____ |
| 15. Courteous _____ | 38. Vulgar _____ |
| 16. Emotionally Stable _____ | 39. Sociable _____ |
| 17. Devious _____ | 40. Aggressive _____ |
| 18. Interested in own appearance _____ | 41. High self-regard _____ |
| 19. Independent _____ | 42. Grateful _____ |
| 20. Desire for friendship _____ | 43. Easily influenced _____ |
| 21. Frivolous _____ | |
| 22. Intelligent _____ | |
| 23. Persistent _____ | |

5 = Characteristic
 4 = Somewhat characteristic
 3 = Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
 2 = Somewhat uncharacteristic
 1 = Not characteristic

44. Exhibitionist _____
45. Aware of feelings of others _____
46. Passive _____
47. Objective _____
48. Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance _____
49. Shy _____
50. Firm _____
51. Prompt _____
52. Intuitive _____
53. Humanitarian values _____
54. Knows the way of the world _____
55. Dawdler and procrastinator _____
56. Quarrelsome _____
57. Industrious _____
58. Well informed _____
59. Not uncomfortable about being aggressive _____
60. Reserved _____
61. Ambitious _____
62. Not conceited about appearance _____
63. Strong need for social acceptance _____
64. Hasty _____
65. Obedient _____
66. Desires Responsibility _____

67. Self-controlled _____
68. Modest _____
69. Decisive _____
70. Nervous _____
71. Direct _____
72. Hides emotion _____
73. Authoritative _____
74. Self-confident _____
75. Sentimental _____
76. Steady _____
77. Assertive _____
78. Feelings not easily hurt _____
79. Dominant _____
80. Tactful _____
81. Helpful _____
82. Strong need for achievement _____
83. Deceitful _____
84. Generous _____
85. Bitter _____
86. Logical _____
87. Skilled in business matters _____
88. Selfish _____
89. Demure _____
90. Kind _____
91. Strong need for monetary rewards _____
92. Self-reliant _____

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Appendix B

SDO6 Scale

Instructions: Which of the following objects or statements do you have a positive or negative feeling towards in terms of your own personal beliefs about people in general? Beside each object or statement, place a number from "1" to "7" which represents the degree of your positive or negative feeling.

- 7 = Very positive
6 = Positive
5 = Slightly positive
4 = Neither positive nor negative
3 = Slightly negative
2 = Negative
1 = Very negative
-

- _____ 1. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.
- _____ 2. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.
- _____ 3. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.
- _____ 4. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
- _____ 5. If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.
- _____ 6. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
- _____ 7. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
- _____ 8. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.
- _____ 9. It would be good if groups could be equal.
- _____ 10. Group equality should be our ideal.
- _____ 11. All groups should be given an equal chance in life.
- _____ 12. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.
- _____ 13. Increased social equality.
- _____ 14. We would have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.
- _____ 15. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible.
- _____ 16. No one group should dominate in society.

Appendix C

Informed Consent Document

The Division of Psychology and Special Education at Emporia State University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

You have been invited to take part in a study examining how individuals are perceived in the workplace. If you choose to take part in the study, you will be requested to complete two brief surveys. The approximate time to complete these questionnaires is 10-15 minutes. You may fill the surveys out at your leisure. However, please return the surveys in the envelope provided for you by (insert date). The envelope has already been addressed to myself (no postage necessary).

Your participation in this research will contribute to the field of Industrial/Organizational Psychology. This discipline focuses on the study of behavior in the working environment. More specifically, your participation in this study will contribute a better comprehension of how employees are perceived at work.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your name is not going to be in any way associated with the results of the research and will absolutely not affect the status of your employment (Please DO NOT write you name anywhere on the information packet or the envelope).

Questions about the study are welcomed and I may be contacted by phone at (316) 341-6763 or by e-mail at volpevan@esvm.emporia.edu.

Thank You,
VanessaVolpe

"I have read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand the potential risks involved and I assume them as voluntary. I likewise understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

Participant Signature

Date

Appendix D

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study you took part in was to evaluate the perceptions of men and women in management. More specifically, to examine if female managers are perceived differently than male managers and what these differences are.

I appreciate your participation in this study and thank you for your time. Any questions you may have are welcomed. If you are interested in the results of this study, they will be available in April, 2000. So, if you are interested please contact me for the information at:

Phone: (316) 341-6763

E-mail: vmvolpe@hotmail.com

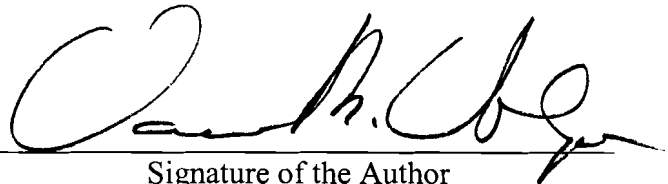
Since a number of people in your company are also participating in this research, please keep from discussing this with others until after the research is final. Thank you.

Signature of Researcher

Date

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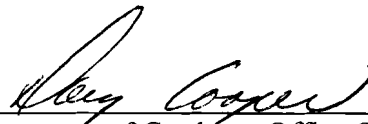
5/26/00

Date

Social Dominance Orientation and Perceptions

Women and Men in Management

Title of Thesis



Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member