

**PERCEPTION OF FACTORS AFFECTING THE GROWTH  
OPPORTUNITIES OF WOMEN AS MANAGERS AND  
ATTITUDE TOWARDS THEM**

by

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## **DEDICATION**

To my beloved G.C

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## ABSTRAK

Penyelidikan ini telah dijalankan untuk memeriksa faktor-faktor yang menyumbang kepada perkembangan wanita sebagai pengurus. Faktor-faktor ini termasuk sikap pekerja terhadap wanita sebagai pengurus dan peranan stereotaip jantina. Kajian ini juga mengkaji kesan beberapa angkubah biografik and organisasi termasuk affiliasi sektor dan jenis tanggungjawab dalam organisasi. Data dikumpulkan melalui satu soal selidik terhadap 133 pekerja dalam 12 organisasi di Pulau Pinang. Keputusan menunjukkan kedua-dua faktor biografik dan organisasi tidak mempengaruhi sikap terhadap wanita sebagai pengurus. Keputusan ini dijelaskan perubahan signifikan dalam konsep peranan wanita dengan bertambahnya jumlah bilangan wanita yang memasuki tenaga kerja.

## ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to examine the factors that contribute to the growth of women as managers. These factors include the attitudes of fellow employees towards women as managers and sex-role stereotypes. This study also examined the effect of several biographic and organizational variables including sector affiliation and the nature of responsibilities in the organizations. Data was collected through a structured questionnaire on 133 employees working in 12 organizations in Penang. The results indicated that neither the biographic factors nor organizational factors affect the attitudes towards women as managers. The results are explained in the light of a significant change in the concept of women's role with the increasing number of women entering the workforce.

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Do women face more difficulties in progress than men?

Social and employment trends indicate that increasing number of women are rejecting traditional views of appropriate sex-role behavior and are seeking full-time employment in previously masculine dominated occupations. However, in positions of authority and responsibility within the organization, the integration of women has achieved limited success.

Women shared the work of providing food and clothing and child rearing with their spouses throughout history. During the Industrial Revolution when labour was needed outside the home, women entered the workforce. In addition, the number of women employed increased with the growing awareness that women, like the minority groups, should experience the same privileges and recognition as men as valuable resource. The Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) legislation, an effort by the United Nations, was a positive step towards increasing the number of women in employment. The extent and type of contributions made by either sex varied considerably, however, depending on the nature of the economy and on the cultural traditions of the particular society. Traditionally women hired for executive posts have been limited to narrow specialties outside the mainstream of the business. Management has been viewed as requiring "masculine" attributes and few women have been perceived or have even desired to be regarded as "unfeminine".

Further, most women have worked only "temporarily" when such activity did not interfere with homemaking or motherhood. Regardless of talent, women have lacked the

motivation and opportunity to sustain careers. Not only timing but location of work have restricted their employment opportunities.

## 1.2 SCOPE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The world economy as a whole and that of Malaysia, in particular, has prospered over the past three to four decades. International business has grown immensely from USD 110 billion in 1949 to USD2.3 trillion in 1978 (Kirk and Maddox, 1988) giving rise to intense global competition. Business enterprises, local and multinational should seize every opportunity to be at a competitive advantage. Making a choice of qualified managers based on merit and inherent managerial qualities irrespective of gender should be the current global practice if not the norm. Therefore, Malaysia, as a rapidly developing country must ensure only competent and highly qualified managers are selected and promoted to spearhead the management team of business enterprises.

Malaysian women are not gaining access to the boardroom as fast a pace or in large numbers as their male counterpart. The Malaysian Business (June 1-15, 1989) highlighted that in Malaysia, statistics indicate that women occupy about 7 out of every 1,000 available administrative and managerial positions and it was not even half of this at 0.3% in 1981. This is not an indication of their lack in managerial capabilities but rather their later start in making in-roads into and in penetrating the barriers put up by the male dominated business management field. The Malaysian culture has relegated women managers to the lower management levels and as such the Malaysian men are accustomed to having the Malaysian women take a 'back-seat'. The hiring organization is biased in favour of men and women have been steered into and remain primarily in the lower management level and clerical jobs.

It cannot be denied that women are a valuable resource that need to be effectively managed, motivated and utilized. Selecting only men to fill top level management is a biased attitude that fails to consider the full spectrum of available, qualified and fully capable and competent managers in the Malaysian labour market. Many progressive companies, in particular those in the West, realized the potential of fully utilizing women's talent and systematic efforts have been made to tap this resource. Unlike Western countries, in Malaysia not many studies have been conducted on the attitude towards women as managers and it is hoped that this study in addition to contributing to the body of knowledge it would offer Malaysian companies some general insights towards achieving qualified managers to spearhead management team of business enterprises based on managerial qualities irrespective of gender.

This study was conducted to examine the factors that contribute to the growth of women as managers and the attitudes of fellow employees towards women as managers. The study also examined the effect of biographic variables including sector affiliation and the nature of responsibilities in the organization.

### **1.3 DESIGN OF INVESTIGATION**

Data were collected through a structured questionnaire consisting of three parts. The first part consisted of 21 items from the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) developed by Peters, Terborg and Taynor (1974) as a measure of stereotypic attitude towards women as managers. The second part rank ordered ten job related factors contributing to the growth and success of women as managers and the last part measured some biographic items.

The questionnaires were distributed to men and women working in organizations representing both service and manufacturing sectors. The SPSS package was used to analyze the data collected.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter surveys the relevant literature on the perceptions of factors affecting the growth opportunities of women as managers. Attitudes towards women employees and sex role stereotypes are discussed.

### 2.1 ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN EMPLOYEES

Since this study focuses on the attitude towards women as a manager, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by attitude. The term attitude is frequently used for describing people and explaining their behaviour. More precisely an attitude can be defined as "a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way towards some object" (Luthans, 1992). Attitudes are complex cognitive processes that can be characterized three ways - they are both positive and negative, they persist for a long time and they could be changed.

Attitude has three basic components - emotional, informational and behavioural. The emotional component has to do with the feelings or affect about a person, object and phenomenon. The informational component has to do with the belief and information about the object of attitude. The behavioural component suggests an action of the holder of the attitude consistent with the attitude. Attitudes play a significant role in predicting, controlling and determining the organization related behaviour and can become important input in policy formulation and its implementation.

Seen in the above light, attitude towards women in general and women employees in particular has come a long way. Not very long ago men and perhaps a majority of women used to believe that the right place for women is at home and the only profession they should be in is homemaking. Over the years there has been a shift in the

attitude and the people have by and large come to see women as fellow employees working side by side. Besides other factors, legislation and general acceptance of equity principle has contributed to this change in attitude.

One of the major piece of legislation that has prompted more tolerant attitude towards women as fellow workers has been the amendment to Civil Rights Act of 1964 on what has come to be known as sexual harassment. In Malaysia, the existing constitution only pronounces that there should be no discrimination in race, creed and religion but no mention is made on discrimination based on sex.

Sexual harassment in workplace can be defined as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours or other verbal and physical conduct of sexual nature. This harassment has been prohibited as far back as 1964 under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Specifically, the guidelines to-date provide that above mentioned activities constitute illegal sexual harassment when:

1. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment.
2. Submission to a rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decision affecting such individuals and
3. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating a work environment that is intimidating, hostile or offensive.

Some recent data, however, reveals that even today almost three-fourth of working women in USA report that they have been harassed at some point in their career.

The general notion of equity has also contributed significantly to a relatively more positive attitude towards women employees.

The Equal Pay Act (EPA) of 1963 prohibits unequal pay for men and women who are performing equal work on jobs in the same establishment requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility and performed under similar working conditions. Pay differences between equal jobs can, however, be justified when that differential is based on:

- (1) a seniority system,
- (2) a merit system,
- (3) a piece-rate payment system which measures earnings by quality or quantity of production, or
- (4) any factor other than sex (e.g. different work shifts, different experience).

In the 1970s and early 1980s, EPA lawsuits were common and several settlements were very costly to large employers. In addition to legal liability for paying women less than men who did the same work, companies claiming to have a merit pay system but unable to show a rational, fairly administered performance evaluation system did not fare well either.

A great deal of the litigation in EPA suits has focussed on defining what is meant by "equal work" and determining possible exemptions to the law. In general, the courts have determined that jobs need not be identical but rather must be substantially equal for the EPA to apply. Thus, the courts have generally embraced an "equal pay for substantially equal work" interpretation of the EPA. The amount of litigation brought under the EPA fell sharply in the late 1980s since most companies are now in compliance.

Is it fair that two people do jobs that are equally demanding, require the same amount of education and training, and have similar responsibilities, yet one receives significantly less pay than the other? Probably not! But such situations are actually not that

uncommon, with women being the ones earning the lesser amounts. What's the source of this inequity? Some economists would argue that it merely reflects the market forces of supply and demand. Another interpretation - and one gaining an increasing audience - is that these differences are the result of gender-based wage discrimination.

It is not unusual for female-dominated jobs to pay less than male-dominated jobs, even though they are of equal or greater comparable value. This inequity has stimulated considerable interest in the concept of comparable worth. This doctrine that holds that jobs equal in value to an organization should be equally compensated, whether or not the work content of those jobs is similar (Grider and Shurden, 1987). That is, if the positions of secretary and draftsman (historically viewed as female and male jobs, respectively) require similar skills and make comparable demands on employees, they should pay the same, regardless of external market factors. Specifically, comparable worth argues that jobs should be evaluated and scored on four criteria - skill, effort responsibility, and working conditions. The criteria should be weighted and given points, with the points then used to value and compare jobs.

Comparable worth is a controversial idea. It assumes that totally dissimilar jobs can be accurately compared, that pay rates based on supply and demand factors in the job market are frequently inequitable and discriminatory, and that job classes can be identified and objectively rated.

Comparable worth expands the notion of "equal pay for equal work" to include jobs that are dissimilar but of comparable value.

As long as women in traditionally lower-paid, female-dominated jobs compare themselves solely to other women in female-dominated jobs, they are unlikely to perceive gender-based pay inequities. But when other referents are chosen, inequities

often become quickly evident. This is because "women's" jobs have been historically devalued.

To the degree that job classes reflect historical gender discrimination and create pay inequities, comparable worth provides a potential remedy. For women in these discriminated job classes, the application of the comparable worth concept should reduce inequities and increase work motivation.

Women earn, on average about 70 cents for each dollar that men earn. Part of this difference can be explained in market terms. For instance, the average number of years of professional job preparation is 4.2 for males and 0.4 for females. Males also have, on average, 12.6 years of job seniority compared to only 2.4 for females( Patten, 1988). Yet even after objective differences are accounted for, a good portion of the variance remains. It is this variance that comparable worth is addressing.

The literature exploring why women work is drenched in interesting assumptions about what constitute legitimate motivations. The evaluations represented amount to a powerful double-bind for the woman worker. Women are traditionally excluded from management jobs because they are generally judged less serious, less motivated than male employees. A typical comparative study of motivation at work is that of Brief and Oliver (1976). One hundred and five retail sales managers (of whom 53 were women) indicated their expectations of meeting sales targets and the importance to them of 25 job outcomes such as fringe benefits, working relationship, prestige, responsibility, job security and personal growth (The items were drawn from Vroom's model of motivation). Holding constant the potentially confounding variables of occupation and organization level, the authors found no significant pattern of male-female differences in work motivations.

The area of potential male-female difference which has most attention in relation to women managers is that of leadership or management style. Historically and schematically, theories of leadership have developed from taking a narrow view in which the personal characteristics of the leader are all-important (trait theories); to style theories which focus more on how the individual behaves and what priorities they read into the role; to more complex contingency or fit approaches which match various aspects of leader, leader behaviour, task, group and content and evaluate their compatibility and relevance for particular purposes. Women manager studies have favoured style theories as their conceptual base. Various research approaches ranging from laboratory studies of small groups to surveys in which managers and their subordinates are asked to rate the manager behaviour came to remarkably consistent conclusion: that women are very similar to men in their leadership style. Typical conclusion from studies or review articles are:

'In most cases, there are no differences or relatively minor differences between male and female leaders or leadership styles whether the leaders are being described by themselves or being described by the subordinates.' (Bartol, 1978).

Some leadership studies do find ways in which women differ from men, but almost always within a total profile dominated by similarity and these differences could be interpreted as advantages. Muldrow and Bayton (1979), for example, found that women took fewer risks in decision-making but that their overall decision accuracy matched that of the men studied.

## 2.2 SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES

Sex-role stereotypes are essentially social creations. They are the meaning assigned to being biologically female or male. Much of the teachings we received during childhood socialization instructs us in sex role requirements (Sharpe, 1975).

As gender is a more central foundation of identity than most (if not all) other characteristics, sex roles have a commensurately significant influence on who we are, how we behave, how others see us and how others behave towards us. The sex roles permeate all aspects of life and take precedence over other more situation-specific work or social roles if they are incompatible (Bayes and Newton, 1978).

A substantial body of evidence has indicated that sex discrimination against women occurs in most stages of the employment process. For example, various studies have found that women are discriminated against with regard to recruitment and hiring decisions (Shaw, 1972; Dipboye, Fromkin and Wiback, 1975), salary offers (Terborg and Ilgen, 1975), performance evaluations (Friend, Kalin and Giles, 1979), promotion policies (Day and Stogdill, 1972), employee utilization (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974b) and employee development (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974a).

Dipboye, Fromkin and Wiback (1975) in their study to examine the basis on which interviewers may discriminate among job candidates resumes in the screening evaluation phase of the selection process found that interviewers discriminated among applicants for a managerial position on the basis of scholastic standing, sex and physical attractiveness. In their study, 30 male college students and 30 male professional interviewers rated and rank bogus resumes on suitability for a managerial position. Applicants' sex, physical attractiveness and scholastic standing were systematically varied in the resumes. A 2 x 2 x 2 x 3 repeated measures analysis of variance on the

ratings yielded four significant main effects, while the same analysis on the rankings yielded three significant main effects. Students rated applicants more favourably than professionals. Both groups preferred males to females, attractive applicants to unattractive applicants and applicants of higher scholastic standing. The latter variable accounted for the greatest proportion of variance. However, internal analysis of the rankings revealed sex and physical attractiveness were more important than indicated by the analysis of variance. The training and experience of professional interviewers did not give them immunity from the tendency to discriminate on the basis of sex and physical attractiveness. One possible explanation for the preference for male candidates may be that the position of manager is stereotypically perceived as a masculine occupation which requires personal attributes which are more characteristic of the masculine than the feminine role (Schein, 1973).

It is frequently alleged that male administrators view females as equipped to do the organizational housekeeping but as deficient in the toughness, stability, judgement and deduction required for success in managerial and other traditionally male roles. To protect both the organization and the "vulnerable" female employee, male administrators allegedly resort to a pattern of exclusion in selection, promotion and development which bars women from the more challenging organizational roles or places them at a disadvantage when they do achieve these roles. Rosen and Jerdee (1974) used an in-basket exercise to investigate the influence of sex role stereotypes on the personnel decisions of 95 bank supervisors. The design consisted of four separate experiments (in-basket items) in which an employee's sex and other situational attributes were manipulated. Results confirmed the hypothesis that male administrators

tend to discriminate against female employees in personnel decisions involving promotion, development and supervision.

In early 1970s, Schein demonstrated a relationship between sex role stereotyping and characteristics perceived as requisites for success as a manager. Two studies showed that both men (Schein, 1973) and women (Schein, 1975) who were middle managers perceived successful middle managers as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. Such sex role stereotyping of managerial work can result in the perception that women are less qualified than men for management positions and negatively affect women's entry into such positions (Schein, 1978).

In her study, Schein hypothesized that successful middle managers are perceived to possess those characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. Her sample was composed of 300 middle line male managers of various departments within nine insurance companies located throughout the United States. They were asked to rate either women in general, men in general or successful middle managers on 92 descriptive terms. The results confirm the hypothesis that successful middle managers are perceived to possess those characteristics, attitudes and temperaments that are more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. This association between sex role stereotypes and perceptions of requisite management characteristics seems to account in part, for the limited number of women in management positions. The results suggest that, all else being equal, the perceived similarity between the characteristics of successful middle managers and men in general increases the likelihood of a male rather than a female being selected for or promoted to a managerial position.

One explanation for the differential treatment of women stems from the assumption that women lack the aggressiveness, leadership ability often required of management positions. Research studies support this contention (e.g. Megargee, 1969). Megargee investigated the relationship between sex roles, need for dominance and the assumption of leadership. Megargee formed four types of pairs based on sex and need for dominance:

- a) high dominance male, low dominance male,
- b) high dominance male, low dominance female,
- c) high dominance female, low dominance male, and
- d) high dominance female, low dominance female.

The pairs were introduced to a mechanical task in one study and a dictating task in a second study. Both tasks called for one member of the pair to assume a leadership position, and the decision as to who should be leader was left to each pair. Megargee hypothesized that high need for dominance women would not assume the leadership position when paired with low need for dominance males, even though the high need for dominance member of the pair would assume the leadership position under the other three conditions. Megargee's hypothesis was confirmed. He attributed the phenomenon to the social role prescriptions of women, noting that while it is acceptable for men to dominate women, the reverse is not true. An analysis of tape recordings of verbal interchanges between the pairs revealed that the high need for dominance female tended to make the decision that the male should be the leader. Thus the female appeared to have exerted her need for dominance but in subtle, less visible manner.

Since the time of Schein's empirical research, both society in general and management in particular have undergone change. In 1972 women filled 19 percent of all

management positions in America whereas in 1986 women filled nearly 33 percent of these positions. However, women hold only 2 percent of senior management jobs in America's largest companies (Berlin 1988). Business Week's list of the top 1,000 chief executives for 1988 included only four women, which is twice as many as in 1987. Despite gains, there is a dearth of women in senior executive positions. The fact suggested that the association between sex role stereotypes and characteristics people perceive as requisite for success as a manager may still be relatively strong and operative. A consensus of more than 800 American executives indicated that psychological barriers to women in management still remain (Small Business Report, 1979).

One of the reservoir of openly expressed reluctance to employing women as managers is the claim that 'other people' do not want to work for, or deal with women at work. Harvard Business Review surveyed 2,000 subscribers (half of them men) in 1965 (Bowman et. al., 1965) on their attitudes towards women executives. More than two-thirds of the men and almost one-fifth of the women said they would feel uncomfortable working for a female boss.

From a more recent study of 1,400 male and female academic employees and university staff in a large mid-Western American university, Ferber et. al. (1979) derived a similar picture of preferences. Respondents were asked how they would react to women either as bosses, or in the six professional occupations of accountant, dentist, lawyer, physician, estate agent and veterinarian. Sixty-four percent of the males and fifty-one percent of the females prefer male in at least one occupation. Seventeen percent of the males and thirty percent of the females prefer female in at least one occupation.

These research findings, by and large suggest that women were not their own 'worst enemies' - men were, by a small margin. This survey does, however, suggest that attitudes towards female bosses or professionals are changing. Greater acceptance was associated with exposure to women in these roles, with higher education (for men) and with being married to working women. It is concluded that Affirmative Action legislation will have a significant impact simply by increasing the number of women in management positions.

## Chapter 3

### RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter describes the methodology of data collection, sample and procedure used in collecting the data.

#### 3.1 MEASURES

Data was collected through a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: statements measuring attitudes towards women as managers, rank ordering ten job related factors that contribute to the growth and success of women as managers and some demographic items.

##### 3.1.1. Attitudes Towards Women as Managers

Attitude towards women as managers was measured by using a scale developed by Peters, Terborg and Taynor (1974). The Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) was designed to identify and measure stereotypic attitudes towards women as managers.

The questionnaire consisted of 21 items to include:

- i) general descriptive traits/behaviour of managers (e.g. leadership) and
- ii) female-specific stereotypic traits/behaviours thought to represent barriers to the successful integration of women into managerial positions (e.g. child-rearing responsibilities).

Each item consisted of a declarative statement for which there were six response alternatives ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Eleven items were worded to favourably describe women as managers and ten items worded unfavourably.

The respondents were asked to read the statements carefully and then indicate their agreement or disagreement with each of the statements using the following six point scale.

Strongly agree	=	6
Agree	=	5
Agree a little	=	4
Disagree a little	=	3
Disagree	=	2
Strongly disagree	=	1

The draft questionnaire was provided to a group of Malaysian male and female workers to get their opinion on the contents and relevance of items for Malaysian sample. By and large, they agreed on the general presentation and scope of the questionnaire. However, a few suggestions were made to change the wordings of the items. These changes were made before finalizing the questionnaire.

### **3.1.2. Job Related Factors**

Ten job related factors contributing to growth and success in organizations were selected to be measured on their significance affecting the growth opportunities of women as managers.

These factors were identified based on the review of literature and the comments of a group of employees. The factors concern the work behaviour and are contextual to the organizational settings.

The respondents were asked to rank order these factors in terms of their significance to the growth and success of women as managers. Rank 1 is given to the most important, 2 to the next most important and 10 to the least important. These ten factors are as listed below:

1. Coordinating ability
2. Decision making ability
3. Efficiency
4. Hard work
5. Interpersonal relationship
6. Leadership
7. Meeting deadlines
8. Merit
9. Planning ability
10. Professional qualifications

### **3.1.3. Demographic Profile**

The questionnaire also sought information about the respondents' marital status, gender, age, years of formal education and years of work experience. In addition, information was sought on the nature of responsibility and sector affiliation.

The final questionnaire consisted of both English and Bahasa Malaysia versions and the respondents had the choice of version. To ensure that all translation still retain its original meaning, a few persons well versed in both Bahasa Malaysia and English Language were requested to translate the English version to Bahasa Malaysia and was re-translated back to English by another group of people. The process was repeated until the Bahasa Malaysia version carried the intended meaning.

The final questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 1.

## **3.2 SAMPLES**

The final questionnaire was distributed to 190 employees working in 12 organizations representing both service and manufacturing sectors (See Appendix 2). The number of questionnaires sent/received by sector and the percentage of return are presented in Table 3.1. The data suggested that the percentage of return was higher from the service sector(76.6%) as compared to the manufacturing sector(64.0%). Of the 190 questionnaires, 133 were completed and received.

Table 3.1

Return Rate of Questionnaires

Sector	Questionnaires Sent	Questionnaires Returned	Return Rate %
Service	90	69	76.6
Manufacturing	100	64	64
Total	190	133	70

### 3.3 DATA COLLECTION

The data were collected through the help of friendly intermediaries in manufacturing and service sectors. People known to the researcher who were holding responsible positions in the selected organizations were approached. They were explained the purpose and scope of the study. Once they agreed to co-operate, they were requested to have the questionnaires completed by their colleagues and friends in their organizations. All respondents were assured of the confidentiality of the data provided.

## RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the sample profile and results of the study.

The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that affect the growth opportunities of women as managers and the attitude of respondents towards them. The specific factors were divided into two categories - biographic (age, gender, marital status, years of education and experience) and organizational (the gender of supervisor, sector affiliation and job responsibility). The attitude was measured by a 21 item attitude towards women as manager's scale. In addition 10 organizationally relevant factors were also used to seek the ranking of them by the respondents in terms of their significance to the growth and success of women as managers.

### 4.1 SAMPLE PROFILE

Table 4.1 presents the profile of sample (N=133). The results in Table 4.1 indicate that the average age of the sample is 33.1 years and the average years of formal education is 14. In terms of years of work experience, the average number of years is 10.5. The results also indicate an almost equal distribution of the sample in terms of gender, marital status and sector. Of the 133 respondents, 65 or 48.9% are male while 51.1% are female. On the other hand, 51.1% of the respondents are married and the remaining 48.9% single. Of the 133 respondents, 51.9% are in the service sector with the balance 48.1% in the manufacturing sector. Majority of the 133 respondents is in the staff job responsibility, with 83.5% in staff function compared to 16.5% in line function. In terms of gender of supervisor, 86 or 64.7% of the respondents worked under male supervisors while 47 or 35.3% worked under female supervisors.

Table 4.1

Sample Profile

Factors		
<u>Age</u>	N	133
	M	33.1
	SD	6.6
<u>Education</u>	N	133
	M	14
	SD	2.4
<u>Work Experience</u>	N	133
	M	10.5
	SD	7
<u>Gender</u>	Male	65 (48.9%)
	Female	68 (51.1%)
<u>Marital Status</u>	Married	68 (51.1%)
	Single	65 (48.9%)
<u>Sector</u>	Service	69 (51.9%)
	Manufacturing	64 (48.1%)
<u>Job Status</u>	Staff	111 (83.5%)
	Line	22 (16.5%)
<u>Supervisor Gender</u>	Male	86 (64.7%)
	Female	47 (35.3%)

N = Number of Cases; M = Average; SD = Standard Deviation Estimate

#### 4.2 ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN AS MANAGERS

Attitudes towards women as managers were measured by a 21 item questionnaire. Since some items were negatively worded responses on them were reversed to get a single direction response in all items. In order to see if a single score can be developed these 21 items were intercorrelated. The values of coefficients are given in Appendix 3. The results in Appendix 3 suggest that item 14 does not seem to belong to a large number of items and hence it was dropped from the final analysis. The scores for the remaining 20 items were added to get a single score which ranged from 20 to 120.

The overall results show an average score of 92.13 on the attitude towards women as managers, reflecting a relatively positive overall attitude. The value of standard deviation estimate is 13.64 suggesting an almost one seventh deviation from the average.

The specific mean and standard deviation estimates by biographic and organizational factors are presented in Table 4.2. On factors with continuous score ( age, years of education and work experience) the average on the total sample was used to get two classes of respondents - those above and those below the averages.

Given the t-values in Table 4.2, the results indicate that neither the biographic factors nor organizational factors affect the attitude towards women as managers. All the t-values are insignificant. In other words, as far as attitude towards women as managers is concerned biographic factors, such as age, marital status, gender, years of education and experience make no difference. By the same token, the organizational variables fail to show significant differences in the attitude towards women as managers.

Subsequent analysis was done by dividing the immediate supervisors of the sample by gender and studying the attitude towards women as managers of the total sample. Table 4.3 presents the means and standard deviation estimates of the four possible categories.

To see if differences in the averages in the four cells of Table 4.3 vary significantly, a two-way analysis of variance with unequal number of cases in each cell was conducted (Winer, 1962). The results are presented in Table 4.4. The results of analysis of variance suggest that the differences in the gender of respondents make a significant difference in the attitude towards women as managers ( $F= 30.62$ ;  $df= 1/129$ ;  $P < .01$ ). Female respondents irrespective of the gender of supervisor have significantly higher score on attitude towards women as managers than male respondents ( see Table 4.3).

To be able to examine the contribution of 8 variables on the attitude towards women as managers, stepwise regression was calculated. The results are presented in Appendix 4. The results indicate that all variables (as given in Table 4.2) taken together explain 24.2% of the variation in attitude towards women as managers. Gender of the respondent contributes maximally (16.0%) of the total variation. The rest of the variables do not make any significant contribution.

Table 4.2

Means and Standard Deviation Estimates on Attitudes Towards Women as Managers

Factors	N	M	SD	t value
<u>Age</u>				
<= 33	74	93.1	14.39	0.03
> 34	59	90.9	12.54	
<u>Marital Status</u>				
Single	65	94	10.49	0.23
Married	68	90.3	12.51	
<u>Gender</u>				
Female	68	98	10.67	0.75
Male	65	85.9	13.66	
<u>Education</u>				
< = 14 years	58	91.6	12.34	0.06
> 14 years	75	92.5	14.56	
<u>Work Experience</u>				
< = 10 years	66	92.9	13	0.09
> 10 years	67	91.4	13.21	
<u>Sector</u>				
Manufacturing	64	91.3	13.49	0.09
Service	69	92.9	13.74	
<u>Function</u>				
Line	22	87	13.73	0.3
Staff	111	93.2	13.39	
<u>Supervisor Gender</u>				
Male	86	92.1	14.64	0.01
Female	47	92.3	11.77	

N= Number of cases; M = Average; SD = Standard Deviation Estimate