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Gender Differences in Management: Employee Preference between Male and Female Managers

by

Aimee Fernandez

A Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences of Nova Southeastern University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Nova Southeastern University 2020

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#### Nova Southeastern University **College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences**

This dissertation was submitted by Aimee Fernandez under the direction of the chair of the dissertation committee listed below. It was submitted to the College of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences and approved in partial fulfillment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Conflict Analysis and Resolution at Nova Southeastern University.

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### Dedication

"Unless someone like you cares a whole awful lot, nothing is going to get better.

It's not." – Dr. Seuss

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#### Abstract

Conflict in the workplace is not a new phenomenon and much research has been dedicated to understanding the causes and consequences of it. Gender plays a significant role in workplace conflict and as it relates to gender equality in the workplace, there have been significant advances in training and education; however, gender discrimination persists. This dissertation deals with differences of gender in management and shows that gender bias continues to exist not only in the workplace but specifically, at the managerial level. This study focuses on employee perceptions of management to observe if employee perceptions of manger gender and if this could influence upper management's decisions of manager gender, thereby perpetuating manager gender bias. Results of this study found statistically significant differences amongst female and male employees in relation to gender and management. These statistical differences observed variances between responses illustrating that there are employee perceptions based on gender and management that relate to the efficacy of management and conflict management in the workplace. These employee perceptions may perpetuate employee bias and influencing upper management when selecting individuals for management positions, thus driving the gender gap in management and conflict in the workplace. Further study and analysis are necessary to continue building connections between gender perceptions and management roles. Industries, organizations, and employers should continue to realize the role of effective conflict management as it relates to workplace conflict resolution and effective management practices. Additionally, an evaluation of advertising, recruitment and applicant review practices may reduce bias towards potential applicants.

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#### Chapter One

#### Introduction

#### A Look at Gender in Management

Conflict in the workplace is not a new phenomenon. Much research has been dedicated to understanding the causes and resulting effects of conflict in the workplace. This includes research topics regarding the differences of gender in management. As more women enter the workforce, there is persistent discrepancy amongst gender in management. Hymowitz (2006) details that "the vast majority of women, who hold more than half of all management and professional jobs and have been in the pipeline for decades now, still are concentrated in entry level and middle ranks." (WSJ.com). Conflict in the workplace, while generally thought of as interpersonal conflict, or conflict between individuals, can extend out beyond the individual to affect departments or entire organizations.

Gender plays a significant role in conflict. Scott (2019) states "men and women perceive information differently, which could lead to feelings of exclusion or allegations of harassment or sex discrimination." (smallbusiness.chron.com). Thus, stereotypes of women and men can also affect conflict in the workplace as well as the inclusion of gender diversity in the workplace specifically at the managerial level. For example, (Rudman & Kilianski, 2000) argue that "individuals who associate men with high authority and women with low authority are likely to show prejudice against female authorities." (pg. 1326). As such, such prejudice or bias, is likely to be found at all levels of the workplace. Whether it be from recruitment and hiring to promotion opportunities and pay raises, and lack of inclusive working culture, gender bias continues to negatively affect the workplace.

Industries can also be affected by gender. "Gender differences in occupation and industry are substantial and help to explain a considerable portion of the gender wage gap. Men are more likely to be in blue-collar jobs...they are also more likely to be in unionized employment [whereas] women are more likely to be in clerical or professional jobs..." (Blau & Kahn, 2007, p.12). Industries that have traditionally appealed to and have employed a majority of male candidates and employees have made efforts to close the gender gap and the resultant gender pay gap, through concerted efforts to attract and recruit more female employees. In an interview, Dame Helena Morrissey mentions that "some firms are merely complying with the law, with 'wooly or non-existent' plans to improve." (Lawrie & Butcher, 2020). Employing more female or other minority candidates does not directly lend itself to an increase in female or minority representation in management or upper management positions. Even if women are attracted into an industry, if they are not happy in that industry, they will leave. (Dame Helena Morrissey in Lawrie & Butcher, 2020). Therefore, it is important to note that industry and organizational work culture is critical to the success and growth of female employees in management most especially, in upper management.

Despite women launching small businesses at twice the rate of men each year and female students outperforming as well as outnumbering male students in professional schools and colleges, little progress has been made of women breaking into the senior ranks of big, established companies. (Hymowitz, 2006). Additionally, the number of female CEO's of Fortune 500 companies had reached a historic high according to a Fortune report in June 2014, however, the percentage of women CEO's was only 4.8%. (Riffkin, 2014). As mentioned previously, industry and organizational culture must be considered when examining the disparity of female employees in managerial and upper managerial positions. It can be argued that promotion to managerial positions are the result of good evaluations, hard work, and superior performance. However, if there is discrimination or bias within the evaluation process, it would follow that representation of the discriminated population would be minimal or non-existent. Thus, "if people are biased to evaluate female leaders' efforts less favorably than those or their male counterparts, women who aspire to leadership roles would encounter very serious barriers to entering these roles and advancing to higher levels within organizations." (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992, pg.3.). It is apparent then, that as a result of facing biased barriers and stereotypes based on gender, conflict is inevitable.

Compounding the issue surrounding gender preference and upward managerial movement, is the reported and observed compensation discrepancy. Known as the pay gap, or more specifically, the gender pay gap, this phenomena relates to male employees receiving higher pay or obtaining larger bonuses with all factors, such as age, education, performance and experience, being relatively equal as compared to female employees. For example, Lawrie & Butcher (2020) state that "many financial firms are paying the average man almost 25% more than the average women, with HSBC posting an overall pay gap of 47.8%." (www.bbc.com). As trends increase for organizations and industries to report their demographics and corresponding pay structures, payment disparities have become more evident than ever before thereby leading to conflict over justifications of promotional and compensatory imbalances. Such conflict has led to legal cases and court

battles as some employers use the rationale of performance and evaluation amongst other criteria to defend against accusations of gender discrimination.

Gender stereotyping and discrimination in the workplace is an overall detriment towards employee advancement and maximized organizational potential in the workplace. Gone are the days of single income households and with it, the increase of females achieving more advanced degrees and specialized certifications attributing to the increase of educated, able and more importantly, capable employees into the workforce. Gender bias in the workplace is an abuse of power by the employer against primarily female employees although, this can also occur towards employees affiliated with other minority groups. Gender bias also affects not only the employee but, potentially other employees with which, the affected employee is involved directly or indirectly. Workplace conflict as a result of gender discrimination can take several forms. As mentioned previously, lack of promotion, difference in pay and opportunity can result in workplace conflict. So too however, are unfair or uncomfortable working environments, bullying, sexual harassment, and employment termination. Bobbitt-Zeher (2011), when discussing gender stereotyping and the unfair working environment in the workplace, notes that "at times, employers use discretion in applying existing policies, such as selectively using specific criteria to select a man for a job. Similarly, employers apply existing rules exclusively to women and hold women to higher standards than men." (p. 778). For those employees who experience discrimination, a decrease in morale may affect productivity or ability to perform job duties thereby perpetuating the perception that the employee is either incapable or undeserving of their employment position. As previously mentioned, other employees may become affected directly or indirectly as a

result of gender discrimination affecting another employee. As the affected employee's morale and productivity can be negatively impacted, so too can the morale and productivity of co-workers or team members. The negative effects of gender bias and discrimination can result in a toxic work environment as well increasing likelihood of higher turnover rates. This then, would likely result in negative cost implications for the organization by way of additional resources in training time, cost of advertising and negotiating replacement salary.

While recognizing that there are many factors that contribute to gender disparity in the workplace and as this study focuses, in management, and despite the advances in training and education, gender discrimination persists in the workplace. This study therefore sets out to examine a contributing factor in which gender bias continues to exist not only in the workplace but specifically, at the managerial level. Therefore, this study will focus on employee perceptions of management to observe if employee perceptions of management and manger gender, could potentially influence upper management's decision of manager gender thereby perpetuating manager gender bias. According to Riffkin (2014), "Americans are still more likely to say they would prefer a male boss (33%) to a female boss (20%) in a new job, although 46% say it doesn't make a difference to them." (www.gallup.com). This study will observe and analyze potential manager gender preferences of female and male employees. Focus, however, will be placed on those employees who directly report to a manager, their perceptions of effective management, effective conflict management, and their reported manager gender, in an effort to analyze correlations that may contribute to further understanding

the disparity of gender in management. Effective management and effective conflict management are valuable assets and skillset of an efficient manager.

Presuming that effective management and leadership as well as effective conflict management are valuable skillsets for any manager to possess, regardless of gender, obtaining both female and male employee's perceptions of these characteristics would perhaps provide a baseline of commonality between the two populations. Analyzing employee perceptions of effective management and effective conflict management between those employees with reported supervisor gender then, would provide insight as to how and why employee perceptions of manager gender preference.

In order to understand how bias and stereotyping effects gender in the workplace, an in-depth review of literature pertaining to each critical aspect that comprise and lend to gender differences in management is addressed in chapter two. This chapter begins with perhaps the most important component, that of gender. Even though there are differences between gender and sex, gender has become a term that is used interchangeably and, has taken on the meaning of both sex and gender. Most importantly however, is that the term gender does not so much identify biological differences but carries with it a notion of perceived difference, one that has penetrated cultural ideology. (Bem, 1993, p.2). It is through the lens of gender and what it has been perceived to mean or more importantly been used to define, that sex stereotypes are understood.

The stereotyping of occupations, industries and even individual positions can be understood with a distinct identification of stereotyping towards individuals based on their sex or gender. Additionally, gender stereotyping plays a significant role with those employees who have families. Specifically, Mallia (2009) discovered when comparing mothers and fathers in the workplace, that where women were judged harshly, men, on the other hand were judged leniently. (p.2). While seemingly a negative connotation for both men and women, being a parent negatively affects women more so than men.

A parallel can be observed between gender bias and stereotyping and the resultant lack of diversified recruitment, hiring, and promotional practices producing the structure and foundation for gendered organizations and industries were female employees are more likely to be employed in clerical positions or in education whereas male employees dominate financial, technical and labor occupations. For those female employees who are employed in more male dominated industries, rising through the ranks towards a leadership or managerial position all but comes to a halt in middle management. The glass ceiling as it is often referred to, relates to the inability to obtain upward mobility in as much time as male employees if, at all. The glass ceiling serves to further the previously mentioned gender gap as well as the gender pay gap. Employers, organizations, and entire industries can be negatively affected as a result of gender stereotypes in the workplace. As the perceptions of gender affect perceived management styles as well as perceived conflict management styles and overall job performance and inevitably employee job satisfaction, employers face turnover rates that not only affect workplace morale, but also financially affect employers in so far as time and money spent on training and hiring for those vacant positions.

The methodological approaches utilized in this study towards further understanding gender differences in management are mentioned in Chapter Three.

This chapter describes the construction of the data collection tool as well as its validity and reliability. This study utilized a survey that was divided into two sections.

The first section focused on effective management requiring participants to answer questions regarding positive and negative characteristics related to effective management as well as gender and effective management. The second section of the survey focused on effective conflict management and required participants to answer questions relating to effective and ineffective conflict management characteristics. Additionally, the effective conflict management section asked participants questions related to gender and conflict in the workplace as well as gender and conflict management in the workplace. The survey compiled for this study was distributed to professional organizations representative of the industries generally associated with predominately male employees, predominately female employees, and those industries generally considered to be gender neutral. Respondents were required to read and accept consent to participate in the survey which required that respondents were over the age of 18, had been employed for a minimum of six months, were employed or recently employed within 30 days, and could read and understand written English. The respondent participation goal was set to 200 participants and received 628. After accounting for, and removing, disqualifying or incomplete responses, this study was able to utilize responses from 463 qualified respondents.

As this study is quantitative, data collection methods and additionally, data measuring methods as well as variables, are defined and described in Chapter Four. This study sought to answer a single research question as well as two, sub-research questions as follows:

RQ1: Is there a gender preference amongst employees towards a manager? SubRQ1: Is there a preference for female employees? SubRQ2: Is there a preference for male employees?

This study also sought to test two hypotheses towards answering the research questions listed above.

1<sup>st</sup> Hypothesis:

 $H_{01}$ . If the employee is female, then there will be no preference of manager gender.

 $H_{a1}$ . If the employee is female, then there will be a preference of manager gender. 2<sup>nd</sup> Hypothesis:

H<sub>02</sub>. If the employee is male, then there will be no preference of manager gender.

 $H_{a2}$ . If the employee is male, then there will be a preference of manager gender.

The data for this study resulted from responses to a Likert scale survey. Response options for survey questions were disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, and agree. These responses were then coded and assigned numerical value so that the mean score responses to any particular question could then be evaluated individually (whole population of respondents) or between groups (females, males, employees with supervisor, females with supervisor, and males with supervisor). Demographic information such as age, sex/gender or preferred identification.

An analysis of variance with a co-variant (ANCOVA) was the primary testing method utilized in this study as many of the survey questions, or dependent variables, were tested simultaneously with a co-variant (gender or supervisor gender) and using age as a control in all tests. Analyses of these tests identified statistical significance (p=0.094) of female employees who reported supervisor gender when asked if management would be better if their supervisor was a different gender. Statistical significance was also determined between female and male respondents (p=0.043) when asked if effective management and leadership were important. Regarding effective conflict management, statistically significant differences were identified between female employees (p=0.012) who reported supervisor gender when asked if gender plays a role in effective conflict management.

Chapter Five provides a comprehensive summation of the study and reviews and interprets obtained data as well as corresponding results. Those results whose significance towards this study are observed will be identified as will a discussion of their relevance towards the topic of further understanding the role of employee perceptions and manger gender. Discussions surrounding questions specifically related to gender contained within both effective management and effective conflict management surveys will be fully discussed regarding both ANCOVA results as well as a closer evaluation of mean scores for each question between groups. Questions, or variables, of particular significance that will be reviewed are, the importance of effective management and leadership, management would be better if supervisor was a different gender, the importance of effective conflict management, the role of gender in conflict management, and conflict management would be better if supervisor was a different gender. Each of the mentioned variables will be tested and analyzed using ANCOVA as well as observation of mean scores between groups of all female employees (all female respondents), all male employees (all male respondents), female employees with reported supervisor gender female and male respectively, and male employees with reported supervisor gender female and male respectively. The tests conducted in this study support the research question

While somewhat limited in scope, as application to a larger population to include other minority groups would provide additional insight, the research conducted in this study does provide evidence of manager gender perceptions amongst employees. Furthermore, the questions provided by the effective management and effective conflict management surveys could provide employers and organizations critical information regarding their employees and their perceptions of the work culture. Additionally, employers and organizations can utilize information regarding employees' perceptions of effective management and effective conflict management to incorporate into management training programs. Utilizing information resultant from this study in the recruitment and hiring processes as well as in management training programs, will extend education regarding effective management and effective conflict management while removing the role and influence of gender.

#### Chapter Two

#### **Review of Literature**

#### **On Gender**

This research focuses primarily on gender and seeks to examine the differences, if any, between the genders in capacities of management, specifically with respect to management and conflict management styles. It is therefore important to mention gender and present a brief explanation of the origins of gender and more importantly, gender differences. For many, the term gender simply refers to an individual who is either male or female, thus incorporating biological sex into defining and categorizing gender. Weiss (2012) in the review of the book "Sexuality Through a Gendered Lens", supports the notion that when individuals speak about gender, they do so assuming as much about sexuality and conversely, when speaking about sexuality, assuming as much about gender. (p.369). West and Zimmerman (1987) however note that sex and gender were two separate categories most especially in the late 1960's and early 1970's. (p.125). Throughout these periods there was an effort to distinguish gender from sex, as sex was believed to be ascribed by biology while gender was an achieved status. (West & Zimmerman, 1987, p. 125). Sex in being defined by biology, utilizes terminology such as anatomy, hormones and physiology while gender is defined as "...that which is constructed through psychological, cultural, and social means." (West & Zimmerman, 1987, p.125). From these basic definitions of sex and gender, gender, as mentioned previously, has taken on the assumed meaning of both terms. Taken together, sex and gender have evolved to be used interchangeably to mean the same thing. Garfinkel, as cited by West & Zimmerman (1987) in describing gender and sex in Western societies,

states that, "...the accepted cultural perspective on gender views women and men as naturally and unequivocally defined categories of being with distinctive psychological and behavioral propensities that can be predicted from their reproductive functions." (p. 128). This demonstrates a categorization of the genders, which incorporates both biological and social definition characterizations. As such, there is therefore an acknowledgement that there are differences between men and women that go beyond that which is simply biological.

Bem (1993), in the book "The Lenses of Gender" describes a lens used to view gender as a lens of gender polarization. Gender polarization, Bem (1993) illustrates, is not just the crude perception that there is a fundamental difference between men and women rather it is a subtle and insidious use of that perceived difference as an organizing principle of the social life of the culture. (p. 2). Insofar then as gender polarization furthers the divide between genders, "...this male-female difference is superimposed on so many aspects of the social world that a cultural connection is thereby forged between sex and virtually every other aspect of human experience...". (Bem, 1993, p. 2). It is important to note that Bem (1993) applies this socio-cultural influence of gender polarization to areas such as social roles, modes of dress, and ways of expressing emotion. (p. 2). Derrida, 1982 and Grosz, 1990 as cited by Annadale and Clark (1996), also argue a type of socio cultural effect on the differences between genders in which they state "...that gender differences are created textually..." and by creating opposing categories, Annadale & Clark (1996) suggest that "we artificially, and inappropriately, divide people into two camps."(p. 22). In identifying common themes for what is presented by Weber (1998) as new scholarship in "A Conceptual Framework for

Understanding Race, Class, Gender, and Sexuality", argues that race, class, gender, and sexuality are socially constructed and "...whose meaning develops out of group struggles over socially valued resources." (p. 18). Additionally, Weber (1998) goes on to note that the dominant culture defines categories within these areas and, with relation to race, gender, and sexuality, justifies the categories by linking them to biology. (p.18). By doing so, polarization in these areas are not only justified but are supported by the ideology that due to biology and nature, these categories are unwavering, fixed and intended by nature. However, as Weber (1998) noted, there is a struggle between dominant groups, the categories and classifications designed for the seemingly subordinate group, and resistance of the subordinate groups to accept being placed into fixed categories. This further illustrates that classifications such as gender are socially constructed. (p.18). For the purposes of this study then, the term gender will be utilized as it is in the literature and will address the commonly termed male and female categories. However, because this study will examine individuals in various employment positions, respondents will be asked to identify themselves by their sex, male or female.

#### Gender and Sex Stereotypes

Utilizing gender as a term and the constructs associated with it, has assisted in creating a divide between the sexes. The practice of associating biological characteristics and combining those with prescribed, socially constructed characteristics, has laid the foundation for gender stereotypes which Heilman (2001) has indicated have proved quite resistant to change. (p. 658). The creation of opposing categories relating to gender such as woman and man then allows for the construction of other characteristics to be built on top of gender such as women are irrational, and men are rational. (Annadale & Clark,

1996, p.22). Such variance in the very characteristics mentioned by Annadale & Clark, and the assertiveness in the statement not only can be interpreted as matter of fact but perhaps more importantly, and damaging, is the negative association of one versus the other. Heliman (2001) notes that "not only are the conceptions of women and men different, but they also often are oppositional, with members of one sex seen as lacking what is thought to be the most prevalent in members of the other sex." (p.658). The sentiments of women being cast in an opposite and more importantly, negative light when compared to men was also noted by Simone De Beauvoir who noted that terms such as masculine and feminine are used symmetrically merely as a formality. (Gould, 1997, p. 4). De Beauvoir continues by stating that furthermore, "man represents both the positive and the neutral, as is indicated by the common use of man to designate human beings in general; whereas woman represents only the negative, defined by limiting criteria, without reciprocity." (Gould, 1997, p. 5). Commonly held sexes stereotypes, or as Heilman, Block and Martell (1995) describe them, traditional sex stereotypes (p. 238) clearly produce opposing categories. These traditional sex stereotypes "typify" men by describing them as being effective, competent, emotionally stable and independent while women seem to lack these attributes. (Heilman, et al., 1995, p 238). Conversely, Heilman, et al., (1995) also notes that women are viewed in traditional sex stereotypes as possessing helpful and understanding attributes where concern for others and an emphasis on other's feelings play a role. (p. 238). Brewer, Mitchell, and Weber (2002) describe the categorization of men and women's characteristics as gender roles. These gender roles "are considered to represent learned patterns of masculine and feminine characteristics [that] may determine how individuals behave in certain circumstances."

(p. 80). The gender roles presented by Brewer, et al. (2002), describe a traditional view where men are associated with developing masculine characteristics to include aggressiveness, competitiveness, independence, and assertiveness where women are associated with feminine characteristics which include emotionality, cooperation, and sensitivity. (p. 80). These differing stereotypes or gender roles thereby further illustrate the way polarization between the genders is created and expanded. Bem (1993) describes that "throughout the history of Western culture, three beliefs about men and women have prevailed: that they have fundamentally different psychological and sexual natures, that men are inherently the dominant or superior sex, and that both male-female difference and male dominance are natural."(p.1). Stereotypes are not only influenced and constructed by societies and integrated into their cultures but once created, stereotypes continue reinforcing the characteristics defining them. Stereotypes and more importantly, the effects that they create, will be explored in more detail further in this review. Annandale & Clark (1996) advocate that attributes and experiences cross-cut gender and further, that commonalities across gender be recognized so that men are no longer associated with all that is valued while women are associated with all that is de-valued. (p.22).

#### Gender Gap and Gender Pay Gap

As has been previously mentioned, the oppositional categories and resultant characterizations into which gender and sex have been placed transcend many if not all aspects of society and culture. It has been evidenced that the traditional stereotypes of women and men predominate in work as well as nonworking settings. (Heilman, 2001, p. 658). Earlier work by Heilman et al., (1995) specifically indicated that "traditional sex stereotypes can have important consequences for women in work settings." (p. 238). Insofar as sex stereotypes are pervasive and resistant to change, so too are industry characteristics that seem to dictate what areas of the work force should be and can be done by females. The idea of industry gender specified, and dominated fields will also be examined further in this review. However, it is important that this be noted as it relates to women and men not only occupying similar positions but more specifically, the discrepancy in compensation and upward mobility available between the two sexes.

As a result of sex stereotypes, the gender gap has developed and can be applied to examining many areas where women and men are involved. The gender gap is a term that is used to refer the differences between men and women in similar situations such as employment, education, and even politics where the discrepancies in such areas are or can be attributed to merely the differences in gender with all other factors being equal. The gender gap has shown a wealth of information regarding discrepancies between both sexes and most often, however, the gender gap points to the glaring differences in a negative light when it comes to women.

The effects of occupational sex segregation are not only limited to the immediate and obvious individual employee, but so too extend to the gender inequality in earnings. (Hegewisch, et al, 2010, p. 2). "Education and healthcare are improving for women across the world, but men still do better when it comes to jobs and wages..." (Martinson, 2012, p. 1). It appears that men not only out number their female counterparts in the same industry but also out earn women with factors such as education and time on the job being similar. The disparity in compensation based on what appears to be gender alone, is referred to as the gender pay gap, and is a result of the stereotypes associated with men and women who are in the work force. According to the Census Bureau in 2007, "women earned less than men in all 20 industries and 25 occupation groups surveyed." (Fitzpatrick, 2010, para. 4). In 2008, women in the United States only earned 77 cents on the male dollar, 68% for African American women, and even less, 58% for Latinas. (Fitzpatrick, 2010, para. 1). While it may appear that the gender gap is closing, Kohne & Whittaker (2010) suggest "when looking at the CEO gender of the Fortune 500 – it is very visible and still big." (p.9).

A report conducted by the Joint Economic Committee of Congress demonstrated that "in all but three of the 13 industries covered by the report, women had a smaller share of management positions than they did of that industry's overall work force." (Rampell, 2010). Not only does there appear to be a gender gap, but for those females who are in mid or high-level management positions, when compared to their male counterparts, it is apparent that there is also a salary gap between the two. A study conducted by Bertrand and Hallock (2001) demonstrated that for the years that were analyzed (1992-1997), "total compensation was, on average, 33% lower for women than for men." (p.5). This percentage then increased to 45% when the authors controlled for year effects. (Betrand & Hallock, 2001, p.5). Fitzpatrick (2010), in the article "Why Do Women Still Earn Less Than Men?", brings to light two very important points with respect to the gender pay gap. The first point notes that even with respect to fields that are female saturated, women still earn less than men do. The second point, and what Fitzpatrick (2010) claims to be the most compelling, is the result of a study conducted in 2008 by University of Chicago sociologist Kristen Schilt and NYU economist Matthew Wiswall where wage trajectories of individuals who had undergone sex changes were

examined. In the 2008 wage trajectory study of sex changed individuals, Schilt and Wiswall, who controlled for factors such as education, found that men that had transitioned to women earned up to 32% less after surgery while women who had transitioned to men earned 1.5% more. (Fitzpatrick, 2010, para. 4).

The evidence of this study amongst others illustrates a clear gender gap in compensation. The gender gap, to include the gender pay gap, however, seems to fluctuate, some argue, given the industry and positions examined. Critics of the gender gap argue that the statistics available not only demonstrate the gender gap closing but that the reported percentages are exaggerated. However, there are many reliable reports, such as the World Economic Forum's (WEF) 2012 Global Gender Gap Index, that demonstrate that in the United States, the gender pay gap is approximately 70 cents per dollar. (Casserly, 2012, para. 6). According to Ragins, Townsend, and Mattis (1998) "women currently constitute nearly half of the U.S. labor force and occupy a significant and growing proportion of entry and mid-level managerial positions." (p.28). And yet, there is still discussion regarding a glass ceiling, a theoretical barrier preventing women from entering or remaining in top management positions.

Terborg, as cited in Kohne & Whittaker (2010) supports this commonly held view by stating that "it is very noticeable that women are facing different treatments in remuneration, employee development, employee satisfaction, and selection and promotion policies." (p.2). In attempting to explain the perceived gender gap, previous research has examined areas such as industry bias where it is proposed that men and women gravitate into some industries more than others therefore explaining the low representation of female managers. Betrand & Hallcok (2001) found that "women were more likely to be managing companies that specialized in health and social services and in trade [while] in contrast, very few women held top-level positions in agriculture, construction, mining, and 'heavy' manufacturing industries."(p.7). Such a disparity between industries, Bem (1993) suggests, could be attributed to the fact that"...the sexual division of labor always places women and girls in the contact condition and men and boys in the no-contact condition."(p.37). Research has also previously examined the comparisons of education levels, tenure, occupation and the like to explain pay differences as they pertain to the gender gap and the glass ceiling. Russell (1995), defines the 59-cent dollar, which once represented women's earnings relative to men's, as now a historical relic, however, disparity persists. Of the full-time wage and salary workers in 1994, women earned 76 percent as much as men. Further, among executives, administrators, and managers, they earned a lower 68 percent which may be attributed to the fact that the average woman manger is younger and has less experience than the average male manager. (p.8). Adding this discrepancy in pay also adds to the idea that female employees may become unhappy, view equality in the workplace negatively, and affect again, the overall productivity of the employee.

#### **Gendered Organizations**

Organizations should be analyzed as structures, constructed and developed by way of how an individual or group of individuals deemed that it should run. Cultural and societal ideologies therefore influenced and framed the organizational structure in a similar manner as the sex and gender categorizations mentioned earlier. As such, Witz and Savage, (1992), in their discussion of bureaucracies and the influences on organizations, and organizational structure noted "…that any common patters of organizing are due not to any technical, functional imperatives but rather to the common embodiment of particular forms of social and power relations within them."(p. 9). Organizations, argued Weber, were influenced by bureaucracies in which hierarchal dynamics prevailed and where power and class played an important role. (Witz & Savage,1992, p. 9). Here again there is evidence that societal norms greatly impacted not only the structuring of an organization but more importantly, the way it can be derived that positions and employees were deemed eligible for employment. Scarborough (2018) describes gender as a "system of stratification...as women enter management, gender seems to operate as an organizing logic so that women end up in caring-centered occupations and men in occupations that focus on the production of goods."(www.hbr.com).

When women first began entering the workforce, specifically in areas where female employees were not likely to be found, they were generally given entry level, low paying positions. In part, this was due to the development of the typical hierarchal structure which took place along gendered lines and placed women in subordinate offices. (Witz & Savage, 1992, p.10). The turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw the development of large organizations influenced by what was referred to as the 'White Blouse Revolution' which was highlighted by the high numbers of women being employed in routine clerical positions. (Anderson ed, Cohn, and Savage as cited by Witz & Savage, 1992, p.10). Even in instances where women were employed in seemingly higher-level positions, pay was not comparable to what a male would have earned in the same position, setting the foundation for the pay discrepancy based on gender. The gender pay gap as it is more commonly referred, was set and so continued as Witz & Savage (1992) describe that "the modern organization came into being depending on cheap female labour..." and therefore assisted in defining women as subordinate workers while defining and categorizing men to white collar labor markets. (p. 10).

As women entered the workforce and eventually became a norm rather than an exception, change in what was deemed to be traditional within organizations seemed inevitable. Along with organizational change, it would follow that the types of jobs women had initially entered and the opportunity for upward mobility would become easily attainable. This was not the immediate case however as Zimmeck (1992) demonstrated in the discussion of Britain's Civil Service and Post Office before, during, and after World War I where women were brought into a male dominated organization and thus, encountered gendered structures that exemplified subordination and low wage and an overall superiority versus inferiority climate. In the particular case of Britain's Civil Service and Post Office, Zimmeck (1992), describes that the decision by senior level men to employ women did not evolve from a desire to reconstruct current bureaucratic principles rather, the same principles that applied to the hierarchal structure for men were created for women thereby created a sense of similarity when in fact what was created was a structure of separate and unequal. (p. 69). So much was the gender gap and subordination of female employment in the positions of clerks that their pay was seen as a manner in which to cut costs but was also structured to encourage resignation around the age of 30; before many would be eligible to be promoted to a higher classification of employment. (Zimmeck, 1992, p. 74).

#### From Gender Gap to the Glass Ceiling

While organizational structures have evolved and advancements have been made pertaining to the equality of employment and pay for females, the gender gap persists. Most especially, despite the evolution of organizations to include its societal and cultural influences, an additional area of concern Phillips and Reisman, as cited by Ragins et al. (1998) suggest that "the glass ceiling is costly, not only in terms of lost productivity among workers who feel blocked in their careers, but also in terms of turnover costs, which are estimated to average 150 percent of managers' annual salaries."(p.28). In terms of work productivity as related to job satisfaction, Chow and Crawford (2004) reveal that "females and ethnic minorities tend to have more negative work attitudes and to be less satisfied with promotional opportunities." This may indicate that acknowledgement of the glass ceiling as perceived by those that it affects, namely females, will decrease productivity due to the attitudinal effects in the lack of further and future potentials for advancement. The relationship between the glass ceiling, or its perceived existence, and employee tenure, overall job satisfaction, and productivity is critical to understand from the employer perspective. Time taken in training employees who replace those who leave can not only be seen as time away from productivity as new employees generally require somewhat of a learning curve in a new position, but also translates to money spent on behalf of the employer in training and salary. It becomes apparent that these components taken together and repeated often deliver a loss to the employer. The acknowledgement of a glass ceiling therefore confirms that there is a bias of gender in management positions and the challenge becomes then in determining what factors lye at the base of this perplexing issue. Research however is not plentiful when attempting to

examine management, and perhaps most importantly from the perspective of management's subordinates, and its relationship, if at all, in attempting to understand the gender gap

#### **Stereotypes, Perceptions, and Management Styles**

Stereotypes based on gender permeate even the ideas of how it is that men and women lead and manage. It is quite apparent that there are gender polarizing ideologies regarding leadership and management. This leads to an exploration in the areas of leadership or management styles in which perhaps it can be determined if there is a difference in the way male and female mangers lead and manage their subordinates that could account for the discrepancies mentioned previously. Despite entering the workforce with similar credentials and expectation, men's and women's corporate experience and career path soon diverge. The gender-role hypothesis suggests that female authority is questioned because it violates the traditional gender-role assignments. (Eagly, 1987 as cited by Rudman & Kilianski, 2000, p.1315).

Chapman (1975) points out that "an individual's sex is one factor that not only affects perception of certain phenomena but, based on social sex roles stereotypes, also defines what behaviors are appropriate in given situations." (p.646). Certainly, the instances reviewed for this research center around management and leadership. "Leadership is a gendered concept, and until very recently, the predominant stereotype of a leader, a CEO, or a senior manager- in society at large and in business organizations in particular- has been overwhelmingly male. (Holmes as cited by Ladegaard, 2001, p.4). Tannen, as cited by Ladegaard (2011) furthers the rationale by stating, "that the very notion of authority is associated with maleness' simply because of appearance." (p.5). The concept of leadership and successful leader and or manager, seem to center around a male figure, which highlights once again support for the overwhelming number of male managers as compared to female managers. An analysis of what constitutes effective leadership and/or management may prove insightful in identifying and defining effective leadership characteristics and comparing them to perceptions of gendered leadership qualities. This comparison would allow for a distinction between managers, the existence of an effective management style, characteristics of an effective manager, and whether this style is more commonly practiced by males, females, or neither. "Good leadership qualities have included characteristics such as authoritative, strong-minded, decisive, aggressive, competitive, and goal-oriented. (Holmes as cited by Ladegaard, 2011, p.5). All these qualities are such that they are generally associated with a male figure rather than a female figure.

Chapman (1975) describes a comprehensive study between sex role stereotypes and management characteristics in which Schein, as cited by Chapman (1975) stated "that successful middle managers are perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general." (Ladegaard, 2011, p.5). "There is a perception that there is a distinct difference between men's and women's management styles and how these influence work output." (Mukhtar, 2002, p.291). There is an argument that there are defined female and male interactional styles, which are the ways in which each gender prefers to interact with others. These interactional styles relate very closely to the sex stereotypes and gender roles mentioned earlier in this review. Holmes (2006) defines the female interaction style as possessing characteristics that are facilitative, provide supportive feedback, are conciliatory, indirect, collaborative, provide minor contribution (in public), are person/process-oriented, and affectively oriented. In contrast, the masculine interactional style contains characteristics that are competitive, display aggressive interruptions, are confrontational, direct, autonomous, dominate (public) talking time, are task/outcome-oriented, and referentially oriented. (Holmes as cited by Ladegaard, 2011, p.5).

In support of this trait-oriented management style, Rozier and Hersh-Cochran (1996) state, that "while men adapt [a] masculine style of management, women use more participative style." (Mukhtar, 2002, p.291). Participative management style can be described as one in which others are consulted with before decisions are made and management team can make decisions rather than just the manager. (Smith, as cited in Mukhtar, 2002, p.291). Participative management indicates that there are instances of collaboration, team input, and communication between members of the group. With these characteristics in mind, and given Rozier and Hersh-Cochran's statement above, participative management would encompass that which is defined in a female interaction style. Kram and Hampton, as cited by Ladegaard (2011) "argue that 'practitioners and scholars alike are recognizing that organizations struggling to survive in and increasingly complex and changing environment need leadership that is transformational, collaborative, and relationship-oriented."(p.5). In defense of this argument, Bass and Avolio (1994) "defined transformational leadership as leadership that occurs when the leader stimulates the interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from a new perspective." (as cited by Mandell and Pherwani, 2003, p.390). Further, "the transformational leader generates an awareness of the mission or vision of the organization and develops colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and

potential." (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003, p.390). These descriptions would lend to the idea that in fact, a female management style would be preferred, a sentiment shared by Ladegaard (2011) who states that "if this were true, we would expect normatively feminine styles to be sought after."(p.5). However, there are those "that argue that there is no such thing as a 'female management style' and that the similarities between the two genders outweigh and differences between them."(Wajcman as cited by Mukhtar, 2011, p. 292). However, Ladegaard (2011) mentions that "it is still an undeniable fact that men dominate in positions of power in organizations, but good management skills are no longer unequivocally associated with traditional masculine interactions styles." (p.5). Further inquiry into male and female management styles and its existence is needed.

### **Exploring Conflict Management Styles**

Along with the possibility of gender differences in management styles is the idea of gender differences in conflict management styles. This area of management style may determine if there is indeed a difference between the two genders when faced with conflict in management positions. Responses and perceived handling of such conflict situations may lead to definitive difference in overall management effectiveness and thus help to explain why there is a discrepancy between the genders in management positions. Lloyd (1987) states that "gender is an important issue in the study of conflict as males and females respond to conflict in different manners." (p.290). With respect to handling conflict situations, Kelley et al., as cited by Lloyd (1987) "described males as 'conflictavoidant' and females as 'conflict-confrontive' [where] females engage in conflict in order to bring issues out into the open, whereas males find such confrontations uncomfortable."(p.290). This however seems contradictory to commonly held thinking regarding gender roles and their respective characteristics. Brewer et al. (2002), following the gender role perspective, which holds masculinity and femininity as independent dimensions in which individuals of either sex are able to possess high or low levels, described competitive or dominating behavior to be consistent with the masculine gender role whereas an obliging and avoiding behavior related to the feminine gender role. (p. 80). In a study comparing feminine and masculine conflict resolution styles between Mexico and the United States, Gabrielidis, Stephan, Ybarra, Pearson, and Villareal (1997) stated that "masculinity was found to be related to accommodation and avoidance in Mexico." (p.673). Additionally, "the within-country correlational results…indicated that both femininity and masculinity were related to conflict resolution styles." (Gabrielidis et al., 1997, p.673). Fischer and Gleijm (1992) describe the following:

Organizations in our Western world belonged mainly to the domain of men. Certainly, the upper strata of organizations were almost solely a man's world. Women entering this man's world in our view create a possible culture clash. (p.5).

If women and men handle conflict differently, certainly then, when dealing with members of the opposite sex in a conflict situation, one can presume the potential of an in-effective resolution. Rubin and Brown, as cited by Davis, Capobianco, and Kraus (2010) agree "...that men and women display behaviors during conflict that are consistent with broad gender role stereotypes." (p.500). Davis et al. (2010) acknowledge an inconsistency in the reporting gender and its effects on conflict styles but by the same token relay that "considerable evidence suggests that women and men are often evaluated in significantly different ways for displaying the same behavior."(p.501).

Gender differences at any level but more importantly, as they relate to purposes of this study, at the managerial level "may have substantial effects on the ways that male and female managers are viewed by their bosses, peers, and subordinates..."(Davis et al., 2010, p.502). An employee's superior, peer, and subordinate's perception of not only their leadership style but their conflict management style, may well indeed be what helps in creating the glass ceiling which leads to the gender discrepancy in management and more importantly, upper management. As Peterson (2012) mentions, "The traditional feminine stereotypes often limit women in their abilities to attain leadership positions. These characteristics directly confirm the perception that women are innately incapable of being an effective leader." (p. 17). It appears evident that the extent to which factors such as stereotypes and perceptions are relative in influencing areas such as the glass ceiling, the gender gap and gender pay gap, should be strongly evaluated and taken into consideration when further examining this topic

### **Gender Inequality in the Workplace**

The clear disproportion between males and females in the workplace lies largely within the areas related with opportunity, advancement, promotion, salary, and work inflexibility. It is in terms of advancement, where additional issues concerning opportunity, promotion, work inflexibility, and promotion subsist, that Evans (2011) notes that it is simply the stereotyping of the genders that provides one of the primary obstacles towards corporate leadership. (p.62). The issue concerning gender role stereotypes as related to the advancement of women in the workplace is also examined by Nader and Stockdale (2012), who mention the hampering in the achievement of managerial positions by women as a result of the gender role stereotypes of women and men in direct correlation with managerial positions. (p.282). Patrick (2014) further mentions that collected data suggests that even though women and men act identically in the workplace, females are viewed as more ineffective and men more effective and consequently, promotions, benefits and perks are divided out accordingly. Gender role stereotypes have heavily influenced not only upward mobility within the workplace, but more importantly and perhaps alarmingly so, industries themselves.

#### **Gender Based Industries – Women in Male Industries**

Gender role stereotypes have played a prominent role in laying the foundation of industries or types of work in which these gender roles fit thus creating gendered industries or sex segregated occupations. Milkman (as cited by Weeden and Sorensen, 2001) argued that sex-role stereotyping in an industry was directly related to the imprinting of those stereotypes at the time the industry's labor market initially forms. (p. 256). As a result of these initial industry stereotypes, Milkman (as cited by Weeden & Sorensen, 2001) continued that sex-role stereotypes "...gathered the force of an ideology Gendered industries, in short, can be described as areas of work in which there is a predominant sex or gender employed. The predominance of a certain sex in an industry field firstly sets up a perception of being laden with obstacles thus immediately placing the other sex at a seemingly impossible disadvantage and the industry then impenetrable. A research question regarding the low numbers of women as creative directors, garnered the response "because the obstacles [to become a creative director] are so great, it's almost impossible." (Mallia, 2009). Eagly and Koenig (as cited by Nadler and Stockdale, 2012) further articulate the negative impact of gender role stereotypes in gendered industries by noting that gender stereotypes may very well "...hamper women in

masculine-type occupation such as management, resulting in reduced pay compared to men, harsher or less job relevant standard in performance evaluation, and a reduced likelihood to advance." (p.283).

Mallia, (2009) in the article, Rare Birds: Why So Few Women Become Ad Agency Creative Directors, describes an organization's culture and its impact on the individual. Utilizing the example of the creative department of an advertising agency as a male gendered industry, the concept of organizational culture as it relates to the employee becomes clearer. Mallia (2009) further mentions organizational culture and relative to smaller departments such as the creative department, a (gendered) sub-culture pervades such that the culture then affects communication networks, which ultimately affect careers by limiting progress. (p.2). The influences of corporate culture is not an entirely new observation; a Fortune magazine survey in 1995 amongst middle and top managers of it subscribers revealed 91 percent of women and 75 percent of men believed that a male dominated corporate culture to be the single most important barrier for women. (Blau and Ehrenberg, 1997, p.3). Evans (2011) references the exclusion from informal networks as well as workplace inflexibility and lack of mentors and role models amongst the barriers that affect women's success and advancement. (p. 62). Interestingly, the lack of female mentors and women's exclusion from informal networking were also listed as chief barriers by women according to Warton (as cited by Blau & Ehrenberg, 1997, p.3).

The notion that there exists sex segregated occupations in today's age seems almost impossible and while Nadler & Stockdale (2012) report that its existence has been on the decline since the 1960's, the decline has significantly slowed since the 1990's. (p. 284). Perhaps the leveling off in the occupational sex segregation decline can be attributed to those impenetrable male gender dominated industries (as cited by Nadler & Stockdale, 2012). Eagly and Karau suggest in their Role Congruity Theory, that women who take roles that violate prescriptive role stereotypes are more likely to be evaluated negatively. (p. 286). The U.S. labor market is notorious for its high sex-segregation where primarily men work in occupations full of other men and women in occupations primarily with women. (Rivers and Barnett, 2012). According to information obtained by the Census Bureau in 2009, 39.7 percent of women worked in female-dominated occupations and only 5.5 percent of women worked in male-dominated occupations. (Hegewisch, Liepman, Hayes, and Haartman, 2010, p. 1). It seems as though men who enter female dominated industries do not appear to encounter the obstacles that women do in male dominated fields. To that extent, "...as men move into what used to be female territory, they are doing very well; better than women in fact." (Rivers & Barnett, 2012). The stark contrast between women's success in male dominated industries and men in female dominated industries is quite perplexing. There is though, the suggestion that the problem can be corrected if leaders commit to doing so. (Robbs and Weisberg, 1997, p.28). For example, in surveying male dominated ad agency's creative departments, Robbs & Weisberg (1997) found that the one in which women made up almost half of the department was one who's CEO had made a commitment to not only hire more women, but more importantly, to create a positive working environment for them.(p.28). It is therefore critical to examine the working environment and its culture as a cornerstone for change.

# **The Family Factor**

Women face discrimination in perceptions of leadership, and researchers suggest that women who are mothers face even greater discrimination. Parental status influences perceptions of job-related competence. Not only are mothers judged more harshly in the workplace, but fathers are judged more leniently." (Mallia, 2009, p.2). Korenman and Neumark (as cited by Waldfogel in Blau & Ehrenberg, 1997, p. 93) state that it is well documented that men who are married receive higher salaries all else being equal. Despite progress in the gender gap in pay for women, there persists a substantial gap between the earnings of those who are mothers and others. (Waldfogel in Blau & Ehrenberg, 1997, p.92). Fuchs and Waldfogel (as cited by Waldfogel, 1997, p. 209) claim that it appears as though women with children receive lower salaries than those women who do not. This phenomenon is commonly referred to as the "family gap" or "wage penalty" where research consistently demonstrates marked differences in wages between women and women with children. While variations in wages amongst educational groups exist, it appears that it is the mothers who have the highest level of education and have two or more children who are most severely impacted by the penalty in pay. (Anderson, Blinder, and Krause, 2002, p. 355). In examining which mothers are affected by the motherhood wage penalty, Anderson et al (2002) found the total wage gap, while only controlling for age and marital status, to be 16 percent for those mothers with one child and 29 percent for those who had two or more children. (p. 355). More recently, Budig (as cited by Covert, 2014) found that a woman with children is penalized, approximately 4 percent for each child, while a man with a child would see an increase

by about 6 percent to his salary. Covert (2014) goes on to say that "the motherhood wage penalty is the same now as it was in 1977".

Parenthood seems to hold a negative connotation both for women and for men in the workforce however it is important to note that the negative stereotype of being a parent holds stronger for women than for men. Korenman (1999) in reviewing Blau and Ehrenberg's Gender and Family Issues in the Workplace, mentions that, "...what may be most surprising to readers familiar with the literature on gender differences in labor markets is the books treatment of work-family conflict as the chief source of gender inequality."(p.155). Heilman and Okimoto (2008) also contribute to this idea by stating "...the maternal role, more than the paternal role, will negatively affect employment decisions when a job is male gendered typed, because only the maternal role has detrimental consequences for perceptions of competence." (p. 190). Motherhood exsaserbates the female sex stereotype thereby increasing the bias and perceptions associated with women in the workplace most especially those in male gendered industries.

Heilman & Okimoto (2008) make mention that mothers maybe viewed as the prototype of the general stereotype of women and therefore would likely be viewed as less competent to perform jobs, particularly in male careers, than nonmothers. (p. 189). Of interest, lie the differences in the employee population who are parents; specifically, those who are mothers and those who are fathers. In their research, Fuegen and Endicott (2010) discovered that not only were mothers held to stricter standards than a woman without children or fathers were, but that fathers were held to lower standards. In addition, Fuegen, Biernat, Haines, and Deaux (2004) found that male applicants who

were fathers were held to more lenient performance and time commitment standards than were mothers who were once again found to be held to higher standards than nonmothers. (p.748). Both mothers and fathers were found to be evaluated to be less committed than an ideal worker, Fuegen et all (2004) identified that the father benefited by being held once again, to lower performance standards. (p. 749). It is difficult to ignore the role that gender, and its commonly tied stereotypes continue to play as thematic consistencies in the existing literature. Fuegen et al (2004) suggest that a mother who works full time is simply seen as violating the caretaker role whereas a father working full time embodies the provider role. (p.749). This is consistent with Fuegen & Endicott (2010) relating that there is an increase in literature suggesting mothers violate gender roles by seeking full-time employment and are therefore negatively stereotyped and discriminated against (p.54). As efforts towards equal pay have brought the gender pay gap to historical lows Budig (as cited by Covert, 2014) describes the parenthood pay gap as increasing.

Although not a primary focus for this research however certainly important enough to make mention, are leaves of absences, family leave policies, and family benefits as they relate to the perceptions and stereotypes of parents and non-parents within the realm of job competency. Parenthood, but more specifically, motherhood is an enormous responsibility and has been identified as such by employers thus creating the perception that mothers either might not be committed to their jobs or that the quality of their work may suffer. Gangl and Ziefle (2009) note that despite mother's lack of impact of productivity on the job, the employers may perceive a possible lack of productivity and thus create barriers to mother's careers. (p. 342). In addition, employers may take into consideration their belief that women may be more likely than men to quit their positions in order to care for children. (Lyness and Judiesch, 2001, p. 1167). According to Waldfogel (as cited by Lyness & Judiesch, 2001), prior research has demonstrated that maternity leave benefits for employees minimize the negative impact on earnings for women who return to work with the same employer after having children. (pg. 1175). It has also been found that women with advanced degrees and higher levels of education have furthered their education as a commitment to their careers and organizations and most importantly, to balancing family and work life. (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001, p. 1175).

For men who have children however, family leave is quite different. Men who have children have only been shown to take a few days off or vacation time when a child is born thus assuming that the mother is left to take significantly more time off to care for a newborn. It is important to mention that the familial trend has shifted from one head of household to two with many parents both working full time. This then, calls for the need of accessible and identifiable paternal leave. Family leave in general, given that the United States is one of three countries out of 185 that does not guarantee paid maternity leave (Covert, 2014), could certainly benefit from updated policy changes. Currently, the legislated maternity leave is unpaid leaving it unclear if women can "afford" to take advantage of the leave policy and for how long. (Klerman & Leibowitz in Blau & Ehrenberg, 1997, p. 66). While companies must adhere to the federal legislations regarding leaves of absence, many, especially those in the financial and technological industries, supplement leaves with added bonuses thereby attracting and retaining top talent for their companies. For example, Yahoo's CEO, Marissa Mayer enacted new

family leave benefits that give mothers up to 16 weeks of paid leave, fathers up to 8 weeks, and \$500.00 to spend on groceries, childcare and housecleaning. (Fernandez and Schuppe, 2013). As previously mentioned, it does not appear that there is any legislation regarding paternity leave specifically besides that which is covered under the family leave legislation thus relegating men to take significantly shorter periods of time off. However, with some companies paying attention to both parents, there is an increased likelihood that parents will then be engaged with the company and have financial peace of mind. (Sklar as cited by Fernandez & Schuppe, 2013). Since the Family and Medical leave act in the United States has not been updated in 20 years (Fernandez & Shuppe, 2013), it is critical to consider comprehensive maternity and family leaves as integral benefits to employees.

### The Effects of Gender Bias-Turnover Rates

While there appears to be a sufficient body of knowledge and research dedicated to the turnover rates of employees, there appears to be a deficiency in the area specifically dedicated to management level employee turnover. Of interest are the effects of gender bias- the impact of the glass ceiling and the glass cliff on the area of management level turnover. While the glass ceiling has been defined and discussed earlier, the term glass cliff is a relatively new term which refers to the challenges and difficulties women face once achieving leadership positions. (Sabharwal, 2013, p.2). The glass cliff as like the term glass ceiling in that it represents obstacles for women in the workplace however, differing in specifically categorizing obstacles for women in leadership positions. Sabharwal (2013) further describes the glass cliff where women have achieved high leadership positions within organizations but find that they are unable

to obtain or exert authority or be involved in making the same level of impactful decision making to the same extent as their male counterparts. (p.4). The metaphorical glass cliff then leads to the inequality of women at the leadership and management levels perpetuating the glass ceiling and leaving women without avenues to attain their true potential.

Grissom, Cotty, and Keiser (2012), note that the way employees feel about their employer or the services they perform for an organization, relates to their intention of leaving. (p.651). The correlation between factors that influence employee satisfaction thus are important to examine. While there may be countless factors that can contribute to an individual leaving their organization, there are certain factors that are certainly most indicative as leading to their departure. There are different forms of turnover including voluntary, where an individual leaves their employment by choice. Involuntary turnover is employer driven where employment is terminated either immediately or a result of layoffs and downsizing. Lastly, retirement, where an individual leaves their employment after years of service, is also considered turnover. (Yang and Lee, 2009, p. 14). For the purpose of this research, the focus for this section will be on involuntary turnover and the effects of empowerment and job satisfaction. Additionally, insofar as the fit of an individual and the organization are relative to turnover intention, so too is the fit between supervisor and the individual, (Grissom, et al, 2012, p. 652) which will also be examined.

Job satisfaction, empowerment, and employee fit both with the organization and supervisor are as previously mentioned, substantial elements related to voluntary turnover. Furthermore, when considering employee and supervisor compatibility, there lies the question of what role, if any, gender plays in the part of supervisor. As Grissom, et al, (2012) also mentions, it is therefore particularly important to focus on gender when examining turnover. (p. 650). The examination of job satisfaction illustrates additional factors such as satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with benefits, satisfaction with promotion and career growth opportunities. (Pitts, Marvel, and Fernandez, 2011, p. 752). Employees who view their financial compensation relative to their time with the organization and job functions as favorable are generally less likely to leave their organization therefore, those employees who are dissatisfied with their financial compensation may feel less valued as an employee and thus voluntarily leave the organization in search of higher wages as a result. An employee's anxiety over their financial state may be lessened as a result of higher wages as well as enhancing the employees perceived self-worth to the organization. Lamert, Hogan, and Barton (as cited by Pitts, et al, 2001, p. 752.). Benefits offered by an organization for its employees coupled with human resource (HR) policies and procedures also influence turnover. Healthcare coverage not only for the employee but spouses, partners, and family, retirement, pensions, vacation and sick leave policies, as well as child care benefits and work flex time are just some, albeit, top benefit categories that an organization can offer to an employee whereby the employee feels valued and therefore committed to the organization. Work-life balance and flexible working schedules are of importance today to many employees as more women have entered the workforce Wiliams and Dreher, 1992 (cited by Pitts, et al, 2011, p752.) and single income households are no longer the norm. Some work-life programs allow employees to be present for longer portions of the day enabling them to work less days but be available after traditional working hours thus providing employees the ability to better manage personal duties. (Caillier, 2012, p. 342). Opportunities for growth and promotion, which relate to higher wages in many instances, can heavily influence voluntary turnover. Research has shown that the longer an individual remains with an organization, the increase in loyalty to the organization and as such, decrease the likelihood of turnover. (Grissom et al. 2012; Moynihan and Landuyt, 2008; Pitts, et al. 2011). Additionally, there are individual characteristics, such as age, tenure, familial commitments, and geographic preferences, which commonly indicate that an employee is at a point in life where they may have a strong preference for the status quo, including their job. (Moynihan and Landuyt, 2008, p. 122). However, tenure falls short where an employee is not provided opportunities to grow and gain additional experience and responsibilities. An employee who feels that there is no room for growth or promotion potential is more likely to become discontent with the organization, demonstrate counterproductive behavior, and decrease productivity likely leading to turnover.

Empowerment, according to Yang & Lee (2009), can be viewed from two differing perspectives with the first being a relational approach and the second a psychological approach. (p. 14). The relational perspective describes empowerment as power that is essentially transferred from supervisor to subordinate via delegation. In the psychological perspective, empowerment is achieved by both enhancing employee's feelings and enabling their potential within their position, and the organization. (Yang & Lee, 2009, p.14). The psychological perspective of empowerment will remain the focus of this portion of the literature as it best relates to the areas of job satisfaction, upward mobility, and the employees fit within the organization and with their supervisor. Empowerment provides an individual with confidence but more importantly, security in their role and position within the organization. Empowerment lends itself to job enrichment and job performance whereby the employee demonstrates high internal work motivation, high quality performance, low absenteeism and likely, low turnover intention. (Yang & Lee, 2009, p. 16). Empowerment is essential to job satisfaction regardless of the position that the individual may hold within the organization. It is important to note that promotions and upward mobility within the organization, empowerment becomes a further critical element most especially where management, supervision, and decisionmaking positions are concerned. An employee in a management or other decisionmaking position that lacks empowerment may become frustrated by the lack of authority, credibility, or impact they possess within their position to affect policy or change within their organization. Such lack of empowerment would likely lead to the employee seeking other employment options.

A lack of empowerment may also bring into question the employee's fit either within the organization and/or with their supervisor. The mere idea of incompatibility between the individual, the organization, or their supervisor not only represents an area of concern in terms of turnover, but more importantly underscores the importance of deciphering the elements that constitute a positive fit. Grissom, et al. (2012) mentions that "recent work on commitment and turnover or satisfaction more generally has emphasized the 'fit' between the employee and the organization and/or the employee and their supervisor." (p. 651). In addition, there is a question to determine what role, if any, gender plays when considering employee fit within the organization and between supervisors and subordinates. The argument can be made for the importance of understanding role congruency as good fits between employee, organization, and supervisor likely lead to positive work relationships, positive work environments, productivity, and loyalty all of which would increase an employees tenure and thus decrease the chances of turnover. The alignment of characteristics and ideals particularly between organization and employee such as the organization's mission, lines of service and their impact on society or industry, community service and involvement, and the organization's overall treatment of employees (including benefits, work-life balance opportunities, and employee enhancement opportunities) are critical for a positive employee and organization fit.

Under the large umbrella of the organization lie the individual and group relationships between employees that play important roles in the organization's work environment. Relationships between individuals are often difficult thus possessing the ability of making a working relationship equally challenging. A negative working relationship between employees leads to a negative environment where again, the likelihood of voluntary turnover is increased and ultimately, the organization is negatively impacted by the many negative side effects previously mentioned. Conversely, and despite that relationships at any level can be difficult, there are instances where an individual's characteristics and ideals align thus creating a positive relationship. Such characteristics at the individual level can include work ethic, common goals, mutual respect for each other's roles within the organization, and trust and confidence in knowledge and ability. These characteristics are expanded upon when examining the relational fit between an employee and their supervisor. Additional areas such as management styles and techniques and leadership styles and effectiveness are important when evaluating employee and supervisor relationships as related to turnover intention.

Grissom, et al. (2012), when evaluating public sector turnover note that the literature regarding role congruity and leadership styles indicate that supervisor gender impacts work life for frontline workers. (p. 652). Furthermore, it has been shown in some studies that gender is a proxy for leadership style while in other studies, it has been demonstrated that the actual manger sex impacts employee attitudes regardless of management style. (Grissom, et al, 2012, p.652). Specific focus on manger gender as it relates to turnover intention is therefore important to explore further.

The topics of gender, management styles, and leadership styles along with related gender stereotypes and gendered industries although previously mentioned, again present themselves as significant topics that play in the employee and supervisor relationship the extent of which, may include some degree of discrimination and most certainly, effect turnover. Sabharwal (2013), states that "a major source of discrimination in any organization is the strongly possessed values, beliefs and perceptions about social role and behaviors of men and women." (p.5). This is not to assume that every supervisor and employee relationship that is not a good fit is due to discrimination however, the argument may perhaps be made that negative relationships further gender stereotyping. The congruence between supervisor and employee may create what Grissom, et al. (2012) describes as advocates for those that share gender similarities. These advocates, namely supervisors, are likely advocate for better pay and promotion of their employees leading to gender preference. (p. 654). Further, it could be argued that the preferential treatment based on gender congruence to be either indicative of a gendered organization or an organization on its way to becoming gendered should these practices remain and become common. As previously noted, gendered organizations can become difficult for

individuals from the opposite gender to penetrate especially in the areas of management. "The pervasiveness of the glass ceiling in top management ranks is indicative of the firm institutionalization of sex segregation at the highest levels in organizations." (Goodman, Fields, and Blum, 2003, p. 476). When considering gender congruity, glass ceilings, and glass cliffs regarding turnover intention, Sabharwal (2013), describes that women, when confronted with glass cliffs, are therefore more likely to leave the organization. (p. 4). Additional consequences to gender congruity would be saturation of one gender over the other leading to an imbalance in representation especially where policy is concerned. In evaluating public sector turnover, "particular demographic groups are underrepresented across different public agencies, and a substantial body of work demonstrates that the descriptive representation of particular groups affects the types of benefits that clients receive during policy implementation." (Meier 1993 as cited by Grissom, et al, 2012, p. 650). This expands the effects of gender congruency beyond the employee, supervisor, and organizational setting leading to a direct influence on policies created for demographic groups that are representative of those charged with coordinating such change. Thus, it is again evident that congruency favors those who align with those in power or decision-making positions.

There are many variables to consider when examining turnover, each playing a role and interacting with other variables that in turn lead to an employee gaining tenure within the organization or seeking voluntary turnover. Organizations have long sought to identify a formula that can better determine voluntary turnover intention while many organizations also heavily invest in their employees to both recruit and retain talent. The effort into minimizing employee turnover is essential as employee turnover, in most

instances, carries with it many costs to the organization both hidden and apparent. Yang & Lee (2009) describe turnover as "...generally considered to be costly to organizations." (p. 13). Turnover can be divided into three categories according to Yang & Lee (2009), to include separation costs, those costs related to the departure of an employee including conducting exit interviews. There are also replacement costs, which by definition are costs associated with re-hiring and individual to fill the vacated position including advertising and specialized recruiters or headhunters in some instances. Lastly, there are training costs, which relate to directly to the expenses incurred by the organization to train employees and put them through any necessary new employee orientations. (p. 13). These cost categories are visible costs to the organization, expected when and employee leaves, however, as Lucas (2013), further notes, there are many hidden costs such as lowered productivity, overworked remaining staff, and lost knowledge to also consider. Furthermore, there are additional hidden costs behind the visible, training, interviewing, and recruitment costs categories that many times go without notice or attention. (Lucas, 2013). While there are no exact figures as to the financial costs organizations incur as a result of turnover, Lucas (2013) suggests that the percentages can run as high as 150 percent of annual salary. Given the variety of factors and costs associated with turnover, organizations certainly should take care to evaluate best practices and procedures to significantly reduce the likelihood of creating environments likely to promote high turnover intention.

### Chapter Three

#### Methodology

There have been numerous studies and research dedicated to understanding gender differences and bias in the workplace. Research and studies have been aimed at not only understanding and explaining the occurrence of gender preference but more importantly, towards educating and raising awareness to minimize and eventually eliminating this phenomenon. Gender preference in the workplace continues to persist and is very much present and remains frustratingly discriminatory. There are many contributing factors that gender preference and bias within the workplace possess in order to continue to exist. This study focuses primarily on the effects of gender bias as related to management and upper management positions in the workplace. As such, this study will focus on examining and analyzing the role of the employee with respect to the preference in manager gender and thus, the persistence of gender bias and preference.

The purpose of this research is to attempt to further understand the potential causes of the gender gap in management by addressing the following research and sub-research questions:

RQ1. Is there a gender preference amongst employees towards a manager?

SubRQ1: Is there a preference for female employees?

SubRQ2: Is there a preference for male employees?

Exploring the above research and sub-research questions will assist in gaining insight into the ways in which perceptions affect preferences on multiple levels regarding gender and employment position. More specifically, addressing the research question will enable the ability to examine the extent to which employee preference then affects the selection of male or female managers by upper management.

In examining potential causes for the gender gap in management, this study will evaluate employee perspectives and experiences as they pertain to certain aspects of management thereby gaining clarification on the following hypothesis.

- H<sub>01</sub>. If the employee is female, then there will be no preference of manager gender.
- H<sub>a1</sub>. If the employee is female, then there will be a preference of manager gender.

The first hypothesis will establish if in fact female employees possess a preference in the gender of their immediate supervisor (manager). If an employee does possess a preference in the gender of their supervisor, this study sets out to determine which gender is preferred and if possible, why. To determine manager gender based solely from an employee perspective, the study will also utilize the following hypothesis:

- H<sub>02</sub>. If the employee is male, then there will be no preference of manager gender.
- H<sub>a2</sub>. If the employee is male, then there will be a preference of manager gender.

The second hypothesis will determine if male employees indicate a preference of a male manager over a female manager.

The variables in this study will be defined as the following so that the concepts they represent and manners in which they are utilized are clear.

<u>Age-</u>This term will represent respondent reported age.

<u>Gender-</u>This term will be used to identify and separate employees into male and female populations.

<u>Reported supervisor gender</u>- This term will be used to identify and separate employee's reported supervisors into male and female supervisor populations.

<u>Leadership or Management style-</u> The term leadership and management style can be used interchangeably and will refer the way in which a supervisor leads and managers the employees they are responsible for. Additionally, leadership and management styles will be considered to be effective or ineffective.

<u>Conflict management style-</u> This term will be defined as the ways in which manager's handle, effectively or ineffectively, the conflict situations faced as part of their position and workplace environment.

As this study is quantitative in nature, the variables must be measured at levels with which they correspond. Each variable has thus been identified and listed below along with the way they will be measured.

<u>Age-</u>Reported respondent age is numeric and will be measured as ratio.

<u>Gender-</u>Gender will be measured at the nominal level for this study. Employees will be divided by gender (female and male). Female subjects will be coded and distinguished by use of the number 0. Male subjects will be coded and identified by use of the number 1.

<u>Reported Supervisor Gender-</u> Reported supervisor gender will be measured at the nominal level for this study. Those supervisors reported by employees will be divided by gender (female and male). Female supervisors will be coded and distinguished by use of the number 0. Male supervisors will be coded and distinguished by use of the number 1. Leadership or Management effectiveness- In order to effectively distinguish the perceived effectiveness of management style, employees' responses regarding management style will be ranked into categories of disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, agree. These categories will be coded and identified by use of the numbers 0, 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Because management style questions and responses will be looked at from an agreement standpoint, this variable will be measured at the nominal level.

<u>Conflict Management effectiveness-</u> Like the variable concerning leadership and management style, the conflict management style will be analyzed on the variances between disagreement and agreement. As a result, conflict management style will be divided into categories of disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, agree. These categories will be coded and identified by use of the numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. This variable will be measured at the nominal level as well.

#### **Unit of Analysis**

The type of research being conducted will focus heavily on the responses and perceptions of employees in terms of their managers. Respondents will be currently employed for at least 6 months or have been employed within 30 days. It is important to keep in mind that while the responses of all employees are important, it is the responses of the employees with direct supervisors, that are of interest. As such the study will utilize an individual unit of analysis which will facilitate construction of the data analysis methods as well as the evaluation of responses as they relate to the research question and hypotheses proposed previously.

#### **Population, Sampling Method and Sample Size**

As mentioned previously, there is some data, which suggests that females and males gravitate towards certain industries and fields. In order to incorporate this assumption along with the goals of this research, samples which represent both male and female favored industries will be used. The targeted population for this study will be the subordinates of managers as well as managers with direct reports (subordinates) employed in a variety of industries in the United States. The researcher would like to target at least 10 nationally recognized professional associations. The total targeted sample size of respondents will be approximately 200.

## **Research Design**

As previously stated, the goal of this study is to find a possible relationship between employee's perception of their supervisor's management and leadership as well as conflict management effectiveness in terms of whether this leads to a preference for a female or male supervisor. Specifically, does perceived effectiveness as a manger vary by gender and thus cause a preference in the sex of a supervisor. Because the study will focus on a cause and effect relationship between the variables, this study will be utilizing a causal-comparative research design. The researcher will be analyzing the information collected from the questionnaires and surveys in order to determine, by statistical methods of measurement, if a discernable relationship exists between the variables. In conducting causal-comparative research, the researcher "observers, measures, and compares the performance on the dependent variable or variables of subjects in naturallyoccurring groupings based on the independent variable." (Ellis and Levy, 2009,p.326). The independent variables for this study will be gender, reported supervisor gender, and age. The dependent variables will be comprised of the various management and leadership effectiveness questions as well as conflict management effectiveness questions.

Dependent variables obtained from questions associated with management and leadership effectiveness will be as follows:

<u>Effective management and leadership are important</u>- this variable will be coded as (Q7) and is designed to obtain respondent perception relative to the importance of effective management and leadership as viewed by employees.

Open communication is an important aspect of an effective working environmentthis variable will be coded (Q15) and measures the employee value of open communication as it relates to an effective working environment resulting from effective management.

<u>A negative work environment relates to ineffective management</u>- this variable will be coded as (Q16) and sets out to measure employee perceptions of the relationship between ineffective management and a negative work environment.

<u>Effective management is not important</u> - this variable will be coded (Q17) and sets to measure the value employees place on the role of effective management as it relates to their work environment.

<u>My supervisor demonstrates positive leadership and management qualities-</u> this variable will be coded (Q18) and measures the perception of effective leadership and management as it relates to the employee's direct supervisor.

<u>My supervisor demonstrates negative leadership and management qualities</u>- this variable will be coded (Q19) and sets to measure the perception of ineffective leadership and management as it relates to the employee's direct supervisor.

Effective management maintains positive group morale- this variable will be coded (Q20) and is set to measure the employee perception of the effect of effective management as it relates to positive group morale/ positive work environment.

<u>Effective management maintains balance between company objectives and work</u> <u>group</u>- this variable will be coded (Q21) and is designed to examine employee perception on the role of effective management as it relates to balancing the demands of the organization and the employee component.

<u>Effective management is fair and impartial</u>- this variable will be coded (Q24) and measures the role of fairness and impartiality as viewed by the employee as an effect of effective management.

Effective management streamlines day –to- day operations in an effective <u>manner</u>- this variable will be coded (Q26) and sets out to measure the role of effective management with regard to the daily dynamics found in the workplace as perceived by the employee.

<u>Clearly defined policies and procedures lend to effective management</u>- this variable will be coded (Q27) and measures employee perception regarding the role of clearly defined policies and procedures as they relate to enforcement and fairness in application as related to effective management.

Effective management balances the strengths and limitations of the individual/group- this variable will be coded (Q28) and measures employee perception of

the role of effective management as it relates to balance of individual and group strengths and weaknesses.

<u>Management would be better is my supervisor was a different gender</u>- this variable will be coded (Q31) and sets to measure employee perception of the role of gender in management in measuring the employee's perception of effective management based on the gender of the employee's direct supervisor.

Effective management values work/life balance- this variable will be coded (Q32) and measures the balance of work and life as related to effective management as perceived by the employee.

Effective management properly delegates/makes appropriate investments with <u>critical projects/ tasks</u>- this variable will be coded (Q33) and measures employee perception of effective management as it relates to the delegation and investments made to balance and manage projects and tasks.

Dependent variables obtained from questions that are associated with effective conflict management will be as follows:

<u>Effective conflict management is important</u>- this variable will be coded (Q34) and measures employee perception relative to the importance of effective conflict management.

<u>Effective conflict management realizes conflict situations</u>- this variable will be coded (Q37) and sets to measure the importance of realizing and addressing conflict situations in the workplace as it relates to effective conflict management.

<u>Conflict situations create a negative work environment</u>- this variable will be coded (Q40) and sets to measure the negative effects of conflict situations on the work environment.

<u>Effective conflict management means a win-lose resolution</u>- this variable will be coded (Q42) and measures employee perception regarding the meaning of effective conflict management and employee perception of effective resolution as being win-lose.

<u>Effective conflict management results in win-win resolution</u>- this variable will be coded (Q43) and measures employee perception regarding the meaning of effective conflict management and employee perception of effective resolution as being win-win.

<u>Knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important</u>this variable will be coded (Q47) and obtains employee perception with respect to the importance of conflict situations being addressed rather than avoided in the workplace.

<u>Conflict situations in the workplace seem to be addressed based on gender</u>- this variable will be coded (Q49) and sets to measure employee perception of the role of gender with regard to conflict situations in the workplace and how they are addressed.

<u>Gender plays a role in effective conflict management</u>- this variable will be coded (Q50) and sets to measure employee perception of the role of gender as it relates to effective conflict management.

<u>Clearly defined policies and procedures is essential to effective conflict</u> <u>management</u>- this variable will be coded (Q51) and measures employee perception regarding the role of clearly defined policies and procedures as they relate to enforcement and fairness in application as related to effective conflict management. <u>A feeling of personal investment/development is important to effective conflict</u> <u>management</u>- this variable will be coded (Q52) and measures the role of employee perception of personal investment and personal development as related to effective conflict management.

<u>Responsibility and accountability are important to effective conflict management</u>this variable will be coded (Q54) and measures the role of responsibility and accountability as it relates to effective conflict management as perceived by the employee.

<u>Responsible and respectful resolution of workplace conflict maintains a positive</u> <u>work environment</u>- this variable will be coded (Q57) and observes the effect of responsible and respectful resolution of workplace conflict in relation to the effect on the work environment as perceived by the employee.

If my supervisor was a different gender, conflict would be minimized- this variable will be coded (Q58) and measures the role of supervisor gender as perceived by the employee towards resolution of workplace conflict.

### **Data Collection Methods**

The data collection methods that will be used in this study will primarily focus on questionnaires and/or surveys. Follow up interviews for clarification purposes may be utilized once all primary data has been collected. The researcher would like to contact the governing bodies of professional associations to facilitate the distribution of the research materials to their members. In considering the concept of gendered industries as previously mentioned, the professional organizations contacted attempted to represent the diversity and gender disbursement. Industry organizations contacted included The National Education Association (NEA), American Federation of Teachers (AFT), The Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM), The Association of Latino Professionals for America (ALPFA), American Institute of CPA's (AICPA), The International Banking, Economics & Finance Association (IBEFA), American Bankers Association (ABA), The Midwest Finance Association (MFA), Association of Information Technology Professionals (AITP), The Association Finance Professionals (AFP), and The American Society for Healthcare Human Resources Administration (ASHHRA). The researcher will incorporate a self-designed questionnaire and/or survey to serve as the measurement instrument. The first instrument would be a survey that would assist in the assessment of perceived management and leadership effectiveness. The second instrument would be an additional survey that would assist in the assessment of perceived conflict management effectiveness. Upon initial distribution, the researcher's contact information would be included in materials to ensure anonymity of the employees from their employers.

#### **Data Analysis**

Once collected, the data received from the questionnaires and surveys will be coded accordingly and entered a statistical analysis program (SPSS). With the assistance of SPSS, the researcher will conduct analyses using univariate descriptive statistics. Healey (2009) describes univariate descriptive statistics as statistics that are used to summarize or describe the distribution of a single variable. (p.7). Analysis of variance will also be utilized to determine if statistical significance exists between independent and dependent variables. When utilizing ANOVA, an alpha level of 0.05 will be set. This alpha level signifies the most general value typically used to avoid type I error in which the researcher may erroneously dismiss a null hypothesis. In the study,

"Relationships Between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics Among Female Mangers", Schein (1975), utilized ANOVA to determine the degrees of resemblance of ratings between Men and Managers and Women and Mangers. (p.341). In addition, Gardiner and Tiggeman (1999) evaluated gender differences in leadership style, job stress and mental health in male- and female- dominated industries utilizing (MANOVA) to evaluate leadership style, job stress, tokenism, and mental ill-health. (p. 305-306). When surveying conflict management strategies, gender roles and status in an organizational setting, Brusko (2010), tested various research questions utilizing ANOVA in order to observe, amongst other things, the relationship between gender roles and conflict management strategies. In so far as an observed and effective method of testing and analysis, ANOVA will be used to evaluate the relationships between the variables of this study.

### Validity and Reliability

The primary data collection method for this study will be done by administration of surveys and questionnaires. Ideally, an already established measurement instrument for management and leadership effectiveness as well as conflict management effectiveness will be utilized in which reliability will already be determined. However, as no known instruments were identified, the instruments were then developed by the researcher. Reliability was handled utilizing the developed instruments in a pilot study using a test/retest method in which the instruments will be administered twice (separately) in order to determine its outcome consistency. Administration to the study's sample population then followed. If the data analysis demonstrates a significant relationship between the variables, the researcher will analyze validity by specifically examining the internal validity of the data. Internal validity examines the relationship between variables and asks if that relationship causal. (Reliability and Validity, n.d.). Internal validity then, suits the purposes of this study.

The survey used for this study was then approved by the IRB and subsequently constructed on the survey administering online platform, Survey Monkey. A letter of researcher introduction and explanation of study with survey link included was then emailed to professional organizations to participate in the study. An explanation of survey qualification parameters as well as acknowledgement and consent to participate were created as an adaptive release to the survey.

#### Chapter Four

# **Analysis of Data**

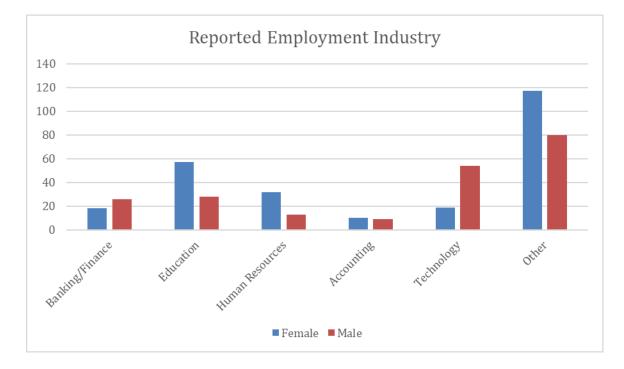
# Introduction

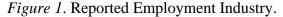
The statistical and analytical approach to the data obtained for this study are noted and discussed below. The survey conducted included parameters to measure employee perceptions of effective management as well as parameters to measure employee perceptions of effective conflict management. The depth and breadth of the survey questions allowed for multiple variables to be examined, tested, and analyzed. As previously noted, the survey utilized Likert Scale responses which provided an opportunity to further analyze and interpret any identifiable difference in means. Identifying means alone provided general perception tendencies related to the question however, by analyzing a difference in means, where tendencies differed and to what extent provided an in-depth observation of management, conflict management, and gender relationships.

#### **Data and Approach to Analysis**

Initial response count yielded 628 respondents of which 52 were determined to be incomplete and therefore removed from the sample group. As stated in the consent to participate, respondents were to be over the age of 18, an employee with at least 6 months of working experience or have been employed within 30 days of participating the in survey, and able to read and understand written English. Thus, an additional 113 responses were removed from the sample group as a result of incomplete or incorrect data entered by the respondent. The targeted sample size was 200 respondents and, including the 165 total response removals, a sample size of 463 was obtained.

Respondents were asked to indicate their sex/gender as well as their current or most current field of employment. Areas of employment available for selection included banking and finance, education, human resources, accounting, technology, and other. Fields of employment were selected as a sample based on those described as being male dominated, female dominated or gender neutral to observe the validity of these oftendescribed characteristics.





As a control, respondent age was requested as well as identifying if the respondent held a supervisory role in their workplace. For those respondents who did not indicate a supervisory role, the sex or gender of their immediate supervisor (if applicable) was indicated. By obtaining this information, variables of employee (of which all respondents would classify as), supervisor, and supervisor gender (of those that reported to have a direct supervisor) were created.

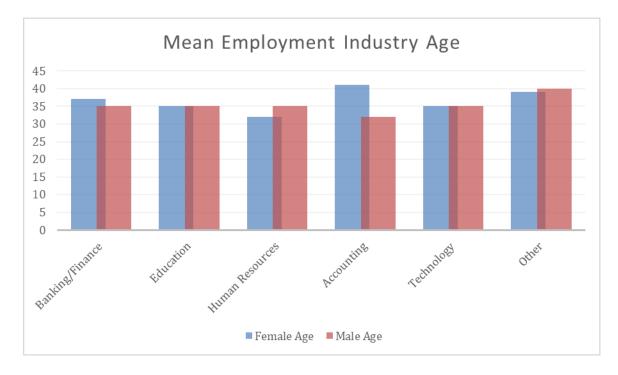


Figure 2. Mean Employment Industry Age.

The data collected using a Likert Scale response survey provided a multitude of variables and related responses best suited for analysis utilizing descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics, as explained by Healy (2009), are used when a researcher needs to summarize or describe the distribution of a single variable or to describe the relationship between two or more variables. (p.7). In addition to determining a relationship between variables using descriptive statistics, statistical significance between variables must be established in order to measure the significance of the relationship that exists. Therefore, analysis of variance testing (ANOVA) and (ANCOVA), an analysis of variance using a co-variant, was also utilized in measuring the significance of the data.

#### Effective Management Question

EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT QUESTION	FEMALE EMPLOYEES (N=253)		MALE EMPLOYEES (N=210)	
		Std.		Std.
	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
AGE	36.52	13.26	36.93	13.61
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IS IMPORTANT	3.534	0.85	3.348	1.14
OPEN COMMUNICATION IS IMPORTANT TO EFECTIVE WORKING ENVIRONMENT	3.613	0.70	3.429	0.92
NEGATIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT RELATES TO INEFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT	3.296	0.89	3.143	1.11
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IS NOT IMPORTANT	0.818	1.33	0.952	1.39
SUPERVISOR DEMONSTRATES POSITIVE LEADERSHIP & MANAGEMENT QUALITIES	3.012	1.08	2.933	1.20
SUPERVISOR DEMOSTRATES NEGATIVE LEADERSHIP & MANAGEMENT QUALITIES	1.387	1.43	1.510	1.49
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT MAINTAINS POSITIVE GROUP MORALE	3.506	0.80	3.424	0.90
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT BALANCES COMPANY OBJECTIVES & WORK GROUP	3.522	0.74	3.348	1.00
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IS FAIR & IMPARTIAL	3.115	0.98	3.243	0.93
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT STREAMLINES OPERATION IN AN EFFECTIVE MANNER	3.415	0.90	3.357	0.93
CLEARLY DEFINED POLICIES & POCEDURES LEND TO EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT	3.379	0.86	3.262	1.03
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT BALANCES STREGTHS & LIMITATIONS OF THE INDIVIDUAL/GROUP	3.455	0.82	3.343	.93
MANAGEMENT WOULD BE BETTER IF SUPERVISOR WAS A DIFFERENT GENDER	1.237	1.35	1.495	1.49
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT VALUES WORK/LIFE BALANCE	3.383	0.88	3.281	0.96
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT PROPERLY DELEGATES/MAKES APPROPRIATE INVESTMENT WITH CRITICAL PROJECTS/TASKS	3.387	0.85	3.205	1.08

The effective management survey questions selected contained response

selections, disagree, somewhat disagree, neutral, somewhat agree, and agree. These response selections were coded 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 respectively. Given these values, and utilizing descriptive statistics to analyze the means, the means can be identified and interpreted related to the responses provided. For example, when respondents were asked to respond to the question regarding the importance of effective management and leadership, female respondents mean score was 3.534 and male respondents mean score was 3.348. A score of 3 on the Likert Scale represents the response somewhat agree and as such, with a score

of 3.534, female employees on average, somewhat agree more than male employees on

average with a score of 3.348 that effective management and leadership is important.

Table 2

#### Effective Conflict Management Question

EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT QUESTION	FEMALE EMPLOYEE S (N=253)		MALE EMPLOYEE S (N=210)	
		Std.		Std.
	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
AGE	36.52	13.26	36.93	13.61
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IS IMPORTANT	3.27	0.992	3.15	1.122
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT REALIZES CONFLICT SITUATIONS	3.23	0.901	3.13	0.987
CONFLICT SITUATIONS CREATE A NEGATIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT	3.17	1.035	3.02	1.227
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT MEANS WIN- LOSE RESOLUTION	1.76	1.371	1.92	1.416
EFFECTIVE CONLICT MANAGEMENT RESULTS IN WIN- WIN RESOLUTION	2.86	1.109	2.99	1.128
KNOWING THAT CONFLICT SITUATIONS ARE ADDRESSED RATHER THAN AVOIDED IS IMPORTANT	3.45	0.897	3.30	1.032
CONFLICT SITUATIONS IN THE WORKPLACE SEEM TO BE ADDRESSED BASED ON GENDER	1.44	1.404	1.70	1.504
GENDER PLAYS A ROLE IN EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	1.51	1.410	1.56	1.528
CLEARLY DEFINED POLICIES AND PROCEDURES IS ESSENTIAL TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.34	0.924	3.22	1.022
A FEELING OF PERSONAL INVESTMENT/DEVELOPMENT IS IMPORTANT TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.10	0.970	2.99	1.164
RESPONSIBILITY & ACCOUNTABILITY ARE IMPORTANT TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.54	0.779	3.37	0.936
RESPONSIBLE & RESPECTFUL RESOLUTION OF WORKPLACE CONFLICT MAINTAINS A POSITIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT	3.43	0.817	3.35	0.912
IF MY SUPERVISOR WAS A DIFFERENT GENDER, CONFLICT WOULD BE MINIMIZED	1.33	1.360	1.48	1.503

The effective conflict management survey questions aimed to identify the

respondents' perceptions of effective conflict management in the workplace.

Respondents were given response selections, disagree, somewhat agree, neutral,

somewhat agree, and agree. These responses were then coded 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 respectively.

Similarly, to the effective management responses, these values allowed the analysis of

means to provide information regarding the perception of employees, by gender,

regarding the importance of effective conflict management. Female respondents recorded

a mean score of 3.27 and male respondents recorded a mean score of 3.15 when answering the question, effective conflict management is important. A score of 3 indicates respondents somewhat agree that effective conflict management is important. A closer observation indicates that on average, female employees, with a score of 3.27, somewhat agree more that effective conflict management is important than male employees on average with a score of 3.15.

An analysis of means provides valuable information as indicated in the examples mentioned above. Differences in means can be determined simply by evaluating and comparing means however, a statistical analysis of the differences between means delves deeper into those differences to provide a possible statistical significance of the relationship between means or variables. The following tables demonstrate the difference in means for respondent answers to the effective management survey as well as the effective conflict management survey.

Table 3

#### Effective Management Question

EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT QUESTION	FEMALE EMPLOY EES (N=253)		MALE EMPLOYE ES (N=210)		DIFFERE CE IN MEANS	N
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviatio n	Difference in Means	p- value
AGE	36.52	13.26	36.93	13.61		
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IS IMPORTANT	3.534	0.85	3.348	1.14	0.186	0.043**
OPEN COMMUNICATION IS IMPORTANT TO EFECTIVE WORKING ENVIRONMENT	3.613	0.70	3.429	0.92	0.184	0.013**
NEGATIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT RELATES TO INEFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT	3.296	0.89	3.143	1.11	0.154	0.091*
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IS NOT IMPORTANT	0.818	1.33	0.952	1.39	-0.134	0.281ns
SUPERVISOR DEMONSTRATES POSITIVE LEADERSHIP & MANAGEMENT QUALITIES	3.012	1.08	2.933	1.20	0.079	0.456ns

SUPERVISOR DEMOSTRATES NEGATIVE LEADERSHIP & MANAGEMENT OUALITIES	1.387	1.43	1.510	1.49	-0.122	0.369ns
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT MAINTAINS POSITIVE GROUP MORALE	3.506	0.80	3.424	0.90	0.082	0.27ns
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT BALANCES COMPANY OBJECTIVES & WORK GROUP	3.522	0.74	3.348	1.00	0.174	0.026**
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IS FAIR & IMPARTIAL	3.115	0.98	3.243	0.93	-0.128	0.163ns
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT STREAMLINES OPERATION IN AN EFFECTIVE MANNER	3.415	0.90	3.357	0.93	0.058	0.481ns
CLEARLY DEFINED POLICIES & POCEDURES LEND TO EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT	3.379	0.86	3.262	1.03	0.118	0.167ns
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT BALANCES STREGTHS & LIMITATIONS OF THE INDIVIDUAL/GROUP	3.455	0.82	3.343	.93	0.112	0.156ns
MANAGEMENT WOULD BE BETTER IF SUPERVISOR WAS A DIFFERENT GENDER	1.237	1.35	1.495	1.49	-0.258	0.048**
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT VALUES WORK/LIFE BALANCE	3.383	0.88	3.281	0.96	0.102	0.227ns
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT PROPERLY DELEGATES/MAKES APPROPRIATE INVESTMENT WITH CRITICAL PROJECTS/TASKS	3.387	0.85	3.205	1.08	0.183	0.039**

Note: \*p<0.10; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01-Difference in means established using ANOVA test with gender as a factor and age as a covariate.

Analysis done utilizing ANOVA test with gender as a factor and age as a covariate produces differences in means and calculated p value which indicates significance. Thus, it is noted that there are six variables within the effective management survey that indicate significance. The importance of effective management and leadership is selected as the dependent variable in the UNIANOVA function by Sex-Gender variable with Age as a covariate and Alpha set at 0.05. The resultant difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.1386 and p-value is determined to be 0.043 (4.3%) which is significant at the 5% level and denoted with \*\*.

Question Seven

Dependent Variable:	Q7				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4.856 <sup>a</sup>	2	2.428	2.472	.086
Intercept	598.593	1	598.593	609.590	.000
Age	.887	1	.887	.903	.343
SexGender	4.026	1	4.026	4.100	.043
Error	451.702	460	.982		
Total	5965.000	463			
Corrected Total	456.557	462			

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .011 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, open communication is important to effective working environment, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.184 and p-value is determined to be 0.013 (1.3%) which is significant at the 5% level and denoted with \*\*.

Table 5

Question Fifteen

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:	Q15				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.012ª	2	4.006	6.240	.002
Intercept	577.577	1	577.577	899.579	.000
Age	4.124	1	4.124	6.423	.012
SexGender	4.011	1	4.011	6.247	.013
Error	295.344	460	.642		
Total	6070.000	463			
Corrected Total	303.356	462			

a. R Squared = .026 (Adjusted R Squared = .022)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, negative work environment relates to ineffective management, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.154 and p-value is determined to be 0.091 (9.1 %) which is significant at the 10% level and denoted with \*.

Table 6

**Question Sixteen** 

Dependent Variable:	Q16				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.396 <sup>a</sup>	2	4.198	4.265	.015
Intercept	461.499	1	461.499	468.846	.000
Age	5.689	1	5.689	5.780	.017
SexGender	2.827	1	2.827	2.872	.091
Error	452.792	460	.984		
Total	5282.000	463			
Corrected Total	461.188	462			
a. R Squared = .018	(Adjusted R Squa	red = .014)			

#### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, effective management maintains balance between company objectives & work group, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.174 and p-value is determined to be 0.026 (2.6 %) which is significant at the 5% level and denoted with \*\*.

# Question Twenty-One

of 34 <sup>a</sup>	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
34 <sup>a</sup>		Mean Square	F	Sig
34 <sup>a</sup>				oig.
	2	5.967	8.114	.000
86	1	509.686	693.042	.000
55	1	8.455	11.496	.001
46	1	3.646	4.957	.026
99	460	.735		
00	463			
33	462			
	55 46 99 00 33	55         1           46         1           99         460           00         463	55         1         8.455           46         1         3.646           99         460         .735           00         463	55       1       8.455       11.496         46       1       3.646       4.957         99       460       .735

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .030)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is -0.258 and p-value is determined to be 0.048 (4.8 %) which is significant at the 5% level and denoted with \*\*.

Table 8

**Question Thirty-One** 

lests of Between-Subjects Effects									
Dependent Variable:	Q31								
	Type III Sum of								
Source	Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Corrected Model	14.232ª	2	7.116	3.575	.029				
Intercept	155.660	1	155.660	78.197	.000				
Age	6.589	1	6.589	3.310	.070				
SexGender	7.860	1	7.860	3.948	.048				
Error	915.677	460	1.991						
Total	1779.000	463							
Corrected Total	929.909	462							
- D.O	(A diseased D. Cause								

# Facto of Potwaan Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .015 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, effective management properly delegates/makes appropriate investments with critical projects/tasks, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.183 and p-value is determined to be 0.039 (3.9%) which is significant at the 5% level and denoted with \*\*.

Table 9

Question Thirty- Three

Dependent Variable:	Q33		-		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	7.329 <sup>a</sup>	2	3.664	4.006	.019
Intercept	507.498	1	507.498	554.865	.000
Age	3.503	1	3.503	3.830	.051
SexGender	3.937	1	3.937	4.305	.039
Error	420.732	460	.915		
Total	5484.000	463			
Corrected Total	428.060	462			
a. R Squared = .017	(Adjusted R Squa	red = .013)			

#### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

ANCOVA test is run against all remaining variables selected from the effective management survey by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resultant difference in means and determined p-value were above alpha level and therefore determined to be not significant and denoted *ns* accordingly.

# Effective Conflict Management Question

EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT QUESTION	FEMALE EMPLOY EES (N=253)		MALE EMPLOY EES (N=210)		DIFFERE NCE IN MEANS	
	Mean	Std. Deviati on	Mean	Std. Deviati on	Difference in Means	p- value
AGE	36.52	13.26	36.93	13.61		
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IS IMPORTANT	3.27	0.992	3.15	1.122	0.120	0.218 ns
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT REALIZES CONFLICT SITUATIONS	3.23	0.901	3.13	0.987	0.101	0.243 ns
CONFLICT SITUATIONS CREATE A NEGATIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT	3.17	1.035	3.02	1.227	0.146	0.141 ns
EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT MEANS WIN-LOSE RESOLUTION	1.76	1.371	1.92	1.416	-0.161	0.218 ns
EFFECTIVE CONLICT MANAGEMENT RESULTS IN WIN- WIN RESOLUTION	2.86	1.109	2.99	1.128	-0.129	0.23n s
KNOWING THAT CONFLICT SITUATIONS ARE ADDRESSED RATHER THAN AVOIDED IS IMPORTANT	3.45	0.897	3.30	1.032	0.150	0.08 3*
CONFLICT SITUATIONS IN THE WORKPLACE SEEM TO BE ADDRESSED BASED ON GENDER	1.44	1.404	1.70	1.504	-0.253	0.06 3*
GENDER PLAYS A ROLE IN EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	1.51	1.410	1.56	1.528	-0.052	0.717 ns
CLEARLY DEFINED POLICIES AND PROCEDURES IS ESSENTIAL TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.34	0.924	3.22	1.022	0.120	0.172 ns
A FEELING OF PERSONAL INVESTMENT/DEVELOPMENT IS IMPORTANT TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.10	0.970	2.99	1.164	0.117	0.214 ns
RESPONSIBILITY & ACCOUNTABILITY ARE IMPORTANT TO EFFECTIVE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT	3.54	0.779	3.37	0.936	0.170	0.03* *
RESPONSIBLE & RESPECTFUL RESOLUTION OF WORKPLACE CONFLICT MAINTAINS A POSITIVE WORK ENVIRONMENT	3.43	0.817	3.35	0.912	0.078	0.311 ns
IF MY SUPERVISOR WAS A DIFFERENT GENDER, CONFLICT WOULD BE MINIMIZED	1.33	1.360	1.48	1.503	-0.148	0.269 ns

Note: \*p<0.10; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01-Difference in means established using ANOVA

test with gender as a factor and age as a covariate.

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.150 and p-value is determined to be 0.083 (8.3 %) which is significant at the 10% level and denoted with \*.

Table 11

**Question Forty-Seven** 

Dependent Variable:	Q47				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11.775 <sup>a</sup>	2	5.887	6.510	.002
Intercept	486.334	1	486.334	537.744	.000
Age	9.200	1	9.200	10.173	.002
SexGender	2.725	1	2.725	3.013	.083
Error	416.022	460	.904		
Total	5738.000	463			
Corrected Total	427.797	462			

#### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .028 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, conflict situations in the workplace seem to be addressed based upon gender, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is -0.253 and p-value is determined to be 0.063 (6.3 %) which is significant at the 10% and denoted with \*.

**Question Forty-Nine** 

Dependent Variable:	Q49				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	7.320 <sup>a</sup>	2	3.660	1.738	.177
Intercept	133.151	1	133.151	63.214	.000
Age	.000	1	.000	.000	.988
SexGender	7.315	1	7.315	3.473	.063
Error	968.914	460	2.106		
Total	2099.000	463			
Corrected Total	976.233	462			

## **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .007 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)

ANCOVA test is run against dependent variable, responsibility & accountability are important to effective conflict management, by variable Sex-Gender with Age as a covariate and alpha set at 0.05. The resulting difference in means between female and male respondents is 0.170 and p-value is determined to be 0.03 (3 %) which is significant at the 5% and denoted with \*\*.

Table 13

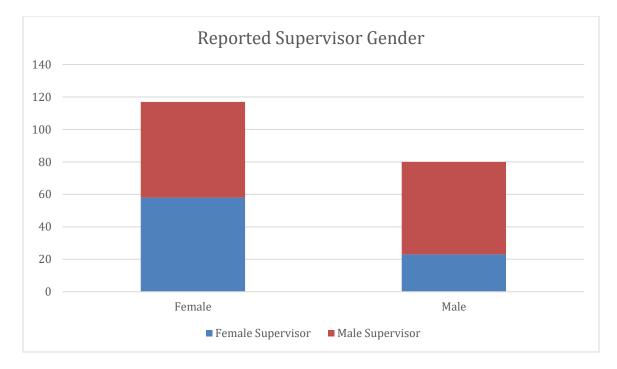
**Question Fifty-Four** 

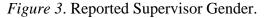
Dependent Variable:	Q54				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	6.621ª	2	3.311	4.580	.011
Intercept	564.573	1	564.573	780.969	.000
Age	3.302	1	3.302	4.568	.033
SexGender	3.420	1	3.420	4.731	.030
Error	332.541	460	.723		
Total	5896.000	463			
Corrected Total	339.162	462			

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .015)

This study examines effective management and effective conflict management related to gender in management as perceived by the employee. Therefore, the survey asked respondents to indicate if they had a direct supervisor and if so, note the gender of their supervisor. Of the total respondents, 117 females and 80 males reported a direct supervisor demonstrated in the figure below.





Descriptive statistics revealed that of the 117 female respondents who reported a direct supervisor and the supervisor gender, 58 reported to female supervisors and 59 reported to male supervisors. It was also determined that of the 80 male respondents who reported a direct supervisor and the supervisor gender, 23 reported to female supervisors and 57 reported to male supervisors.

#### Descriptive Statistics Question Thirty-One

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>					
Dependent Variable: Q31					
Reported					
supervisor					
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N		
Female	.69	1.046	58		
Male	1.05	1.252	59		
Total	.87	1.164	117		

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q31					
Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν			
1.13	1.359	23			
.93	1.223	57			
.99	1.258	80			
	Mean 1.13 .93	Mean         Std. Deviation           1.13         1.359           .93         1.223			

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

When analyzing female and male respondents who reported supervisor gender, an analysis of variance with age as a control variable and reported supervisor gender as a covariant was run against questions pertaining to effective management as well as effective conflict management as dependent variables. ANCOVA was run utilizing management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level of 0.094 was determined to be not significant.

Table 15

**Question Thirty-One Females** 

Dependent Variable:	Q31				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3.844 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.922	1.430	.244
Intercept	10.246	1	10.246	7.622	.007
Age	.028	1	.028	.021	.885
supervisorgender	3.843	1	3.843	2.859	.094
Error	153.233	114	1.344		
Total	246.000	117			
Corrected Total	157.077	116			

#### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was also run utilizing management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.566 was determined to be not significant.

Table 16

**Question Thirty-One Males** 

Dependent Variables 021

Dependent variable:	QSI				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.076 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.038	.650	.525
Intercept	16.276	1	16.276	10.196	.002
Age	1.417	1	1.417	.887	.349
supervisorgender	.531	1	.531	.332	.566
Error	122.911	77	1.596		
Total	203.000	80			
Corrected Total	124.987	79			

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects** 

a. R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = -.009)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

In observing the differences in means related to the variable, management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (0.69) falling between the value of disagree (0) and somewhat disagree (1). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (1.05) was close to the value of somewhat disagree (1). Likewise, differences in means related to the variable, management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender, male respondents who reported female supervisor's average response value was (1.13) was slightly above somewhat disagree (1). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (0.93) closer to the response disagree (0). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, if my supervisor was a different gender, conflict would be minimized, female respondents who reported female supervisor's average response value (0.86) where the value of disagree was (0). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (1.14) was slightly above the value of somewhat disagree (1). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, if my supervisor was a different gender, conflict would be minimized, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (0.61) was between disagree (0) and somewhat disagree (1). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (0.96) closer to the response somewhat disagree (1). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

Table 17

**Descriptive Statistics Question Fifty-Eight** 

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>						
Dependent Va	Dependent Variable: Q58					
Reported						
supervisor						
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν			
Female	0.86	1.161	58			
Male	1.14	1.252	59			
Total	1.00	1.211	117			

Dependent Va	ariable: Q58		
Reported			
supervisor			
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	0.61	0.891	23
Male	0.96	1.267	57
Total	0.86	1.177	80

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing if my supervisor was a different gender, conflict would be minimized as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level of 0.237

was determined to be not significant.

Table 18

**Question Fifty-Eight Female** 

#### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Dependent Variable: Q58 Type III Sum of Source Squares df Mean Square F Sig. Corrected Model 2.395<sup>a</sup> 2 1.198 .815 .445 Intercept 9.372 1 9.372 6.374 .013 Age .207 1 .207 .141 .708 2.080 supervisorgender 1 2.080 1.415 .237 Error 167.605 1.470 114 Total 287.000 117 **Corrected Total** 170.000 116

a. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing if my supervisor was a different gender, conflict wo

minimized as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as covari

alpha set at 0.05 for make respondents. A significance level of 0.220 was determined to

significant.

Table 19

Question Forty-Nine Male

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:	Q58		-		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.395 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.198	.815	.445
Intercept	9.372	1	9.372	6.374	.013
Age	.207	1	.207	.141	.708
supervisorgender	2.080	1	2.080	1.415	.237
Error	167.605	114	1.470		
Total	287.000	117			
Corrected Total	170.000	116			

a. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

#### **Descriptive Statistics Question Forty-Nine**

Descriptive Statistics						
Dependent Va	Dependent Variable: Q49					
Reported						
supervisor						
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N			
Female	0.86	1.161	58			
Male	1.14	1.252	59			
Total	1.00	1.211	117			

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

# **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q49					
Reported					
supervisor					
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N		
Female	0.61	0.891	23		
Male	0.96	1.267	57		
Total	0.86	1.177	80		

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, conflict situations in the workplace seem to be addressed based upon gender, female respondents who reported female supervisor's average response value (0.84) where the value of disagree was (0). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (1.44) was above the value of somewhat disagree (1). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, conflict situations in the workplace seem to be addressed based upon gender, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (0.91) was between disagree (0) and somewhat disagree (1). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (1.58) above somewhat disagree (1) and between neutral (2). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

ANCOVA was run utilizing conflict situations in the workplace seem to be addressed based upon gender as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.014 was determined to be significant.

Females Who Reported Supervisor Gender

Dependent Variable:	Q49				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	12.372ª	2	6.186	3.523	.033
Intercept	28.400	1	28.400	16.175	.000
Age	1.988	1	1.988	1.132	.290
supervisorgender	10.998	1	10.998	6.264	.014
Error	200.158	114	1.756		
Total	366.000	117			
Corrected Total	212.530	116			

## **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .058 (Adjusted R Squared = .042)

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing conflict situations in the workplace seem to be

addressed based upon gender as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of

0.052 was determined to be significant.

Table 22

Males Who Reported Supervisor Gender

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:	Q49		2		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	12.429 <sup>a</sup>	2	6.214	2.980	.057
Intercept	32.029	1	32.029	15.360	.000
Age	5.162	1	5.162	2.475	.120
supervisorgender	8.096	1	8.096	3.882	.052
Error	160.559	77	2.085		
Total	327.000	80			
Corrected Total	172.987	79			
a D Squared $-$ 072	(Adjusted D Square	d = 0.10			

a. R Squared = .072 (Adjusted R Squared = .048)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

**Descriptive Statistics Question Seven** 

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>				
Dependent Va	riable: Q7			
Reported				
supervisor				
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	
Female	3.66	0.762	58	
Male	3.75	0.575	59	
Total	3.70	0.673	117	

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent V	ariable: Q7		
Reported			
supervisor			
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Female	3.87	0.344	23
Male	3.63	0.837	57
Total	3.70	0.736	80

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, effective management and leadership is important, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.66) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.75) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and closer to the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, effective management and leadership is important, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.87) and was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (3.63) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Seven Female** 

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable:	Q7		-		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1.059 <sup>a</sup>	2	0.529	1.172	0.313
Intercept	145.931	1	145.931	323.213	0.000
Age	0.819	1	0.819	1.813	0.181
supervisorgender	0.179	1	0.179	0.396	0.530
Error	51.471	114	0.452		
Total	1655.000	117			
Corrected Total	52.530	116			

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .003) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing effective management and leadership is important as

a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha

set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level of 0.530 was determined to be

not significant.

Table 25

Question Seven Males

Dependent Variable:					
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4.174 <sup>a</sup>	2	2.087	4.161	.019
Intercept	151.710	1	151.710	302.432	.000
Age	3.246	1	3.246	6.471	.013
supervisorgender	.701	1	.701	1.398	.241
Error	38.626	77	.502		
Total	1138.000	80			
Corrected Total	42.800	79			

# Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .098 (Adjusted R Squared = .074) \*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing effective management and leadership is important as

a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha

set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.241 was determined to be not significant.

Table 26

**Descriptive Statistics Question Fifteen** 

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q15					
Reported					
supervisor					
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν		
Female	3.93	0.256	58		
Male	3.64	0.637	59		
Total	3.79	0.506	117		

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q15						
Reported						
supervisor						
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N			
Female	3.87	0.458	23			
Male	3.72	0.590	57			
Total	3.76	0.557	80			

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, open communication is an important aspect of an effective working environment, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.93) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and close to the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.64) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, open communication is an important aspect of an effective working environment, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.87) and was above somewhat agree (3) and close to agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (3.72) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Fifteen Females** 

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable:	Q15				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.513 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.256	5.276	.006
Intercept	167.328	1	167.328	702.712	.000
Age	.104	1	.104	.437	.510
Supervisorgender	2.469	1	2.469	10.369	.002
Error	27.145	114	.238		
Total	1707.000	117			
Corrected Total	29.658	116			

# acts of Rotwoon Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .085 (Adjusted R Squared = .069) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open communication is an important aspect of an

effective work environment as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level

of 0.002 was determined to be significant.

Table 28

**Question Fifteen Males** 

Dependent Variable:	Q15		-		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.488ª	2	.244	.783	.461
Intercept	108.827	1	108.827	349.159	.000
Age	.118	1	.118	.378	.540
supervisorgender	.397	1	.397	1.275	.262
Error	24.000	77	.312		
Total	1157.000	80			
Corrected Total	24.487	79			

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = -.006) \*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open communication is an important aspect of an

effective work environment as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of

0.262 was determined to be not significant.

Table 29

**Descriptive Statistics Question Sixteen** 

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>				
Dependent Va	ariable: Q16			
Reported				
supervisor				
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	
Female	3.38	0.813	58	
Male	3.49	0.774	59	
Total	3.44	0.792	117	

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q16						
Reported						
supervisor						
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N			
Female	3.30	1.146	23			
Male	3.42	0.944	57			
Total	3.39	1.000	80			

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

#### \*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, a negative work environment relates to ineffective management, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.38) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.49) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, a negative work environment relates to ineffective management, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.30) and was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisors average response value was (3.42) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Sixteen Females** 

Dependent Variable:		ween-Su	bjects Effect	S	
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.435ª	2	.217	.343	.711
Intercept	138.437	1	138.437	218.178	.000
Age	.066	1	.066	.105	.747
supervisorgender	.344	1	.344	.542	.463
Error	72.334	114	.635		
Total	1454.000	117			
Corrected Total	72.769	116			

a. R Squared = .006 (Adjusted R Squared = -.011) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open a negative work environment relates to

ineffective management as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level

of 0.463 was determined to be not significant.

Table 31

Question Sixteen Males

Dependent Variable:	Q16		-		
-	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1.116 <sup>a</sup>	2	.558	.552	.578
Intercept	108.476	1	108.476	107.262	.000
Age	.893	1	.893	.883	.350
Supervisorgender	.287	1	.287	.284	.595
Error	77.872	77	1.011		
Total	997.000	80			
Corrected Total	78.988	79			

### Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .014 (Adjusted R Squared = -.011)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open a negative work environment relates to

ineffective management as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of

0.595 was determined to be not significant.

Table 32

Descriptive Statistics Question Twenty-One

Deceminative Ctetistics

Descriptive Statistics					
Dependent Variable: Q21					
Reported					
supervisor					
gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν		
Female	3.64	0.742	58		
Male	3.66	0.545	59		
Total	3.65	0.647	117		

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q21					
Reported					
supervisor		Std.			
gender	Mean	Deviation	Ν		
Female	3.78	0.671	23		
Male	3.63	0.587	57		
Total	3.68	0.612	80		

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

#### \*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, effective management maintains balance between company objectives & work group, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.64) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.66) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, effective management maintains balance between company objectives & work group, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.78) and was above somewhat agree (3) and close to agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (3.63) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Twenty-One Females** 

Dependent Variable:		ween-Su	bjects Effect	S	
_	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.646ª	2	.323	.767	.467
Intercept	144.164	1	144.164	342.486	.000
Age	.630	1	.630	1.498	.224
supervisorgender	.004	1	.004	.011	.918
Error	47.986	114	.421		
Total	1607.000	117			
Corrected Total	48.632	116			

#### a. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open a effective management maintains balance

between company objectives & work group as a dependent variable with age as a control

and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A

significance level of 0.918 was determined to be not significant.

Table 34

Question Twenty-One Males

				5	
Dependent Variable:	Q21				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.989 <sup>a</sup>	2	.495	1.333	.270
Intercept	95.477	1	95.477	257.407	.000
Age	.615	1	.615	1.659	.202
supervisorgender	.441	1	.441	1.188	.279
Error	28.561	77	.371		
Total	1110.000	80			
Corrected Total	29.550	79			

# Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .008)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing open a effective management maintains balance

between company objectives &work group as a dependent variable with age as a control

and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A

significance level of 0.279 was determined to be not significant.

Table 35

Descriptive Statistics Question Thirty-Three

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q33					
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν		
.00	3.55	.776	58		
1.00	3.66	.545	59		
Total	3.61	.669	117		

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q33					
		Std.			
repsupgen	Mean	Deviation	Ν		
.00	3.48	.846	23		
1.00	3.44	.780	57		
Total	3.45	.794	80		

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, effective management properly delegates/makes appropriate investments with critical projects/tasks, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.55) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.66) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, effective management properly delegates/makes appropriate investments with critical projects/tasks, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.48) and was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisors average response value was (3.44) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Thirty-Three Females** 

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Dependent Variable: Q33					
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1.055 <sup>a</sup>	2	.528	1.182	.310
Intercept	179.627	1	179.627	402.629	.000
Age	.706	1	.706	1.582	.211
supervisorgender	.423	1	.423	.949	.332
Error	50.859	114	.446		
Total	1574.000	117			
Corrected Total	51.915	116			

a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .003) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing effective management properly delegates/makes

appropriate investments with critical projects/tasks as a dependent variable with age as a

control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents.

A significance level of 0.332 was determined to be not significant.

Table 37

**Question Thirty-Three Males** 

Dependent Variable:	Q33		<b>,</b>		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.059ª	2	.030	.046	.955
Intercept	92.748	1	92.748	143.576	.000
Age	.033	1	.033	.051	.821
supervisorgender	.030	1	.030	.046	.830
Error	49.741	77	.646		
Total	1002.000	80			
Corrected Total	49.800	79			

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .001 (Adjusted R Squared = -.025)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing effective management properly delegates/makes

appropriate investments with critical projects/tasks as a dependent variable with age as a

control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents.

A significance level of 0.830 was determined to be not significant.

Table 38

Descriptive Statistics Question Forty-Seven

Descriptive Statistics

Decomptive Outlottoo				
Dependent Variable: Q47				
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν	
.00	3.69	.821	58	
1.00	3.61	.670	59	
Total	3.65	.746	117	

#### **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q47					
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν		
.00	3.74	.619	23		
1.00	3.47	.782	57		
Total	3.55	.745	80		

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.69) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.61) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.74) and was above somewhat agree (3) and closer to agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (3.47) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

## **Question Forty-Seven Females**

	I COLO UI DEI	ween-ou		3	
Dependent Variable:	Q47				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.294ª	2	.147	.261	.771
Intercept	154.916	1	154.916	274.493	.000
Age	.110	1	.110	.194	.660
supervisorgender	.205	1	.205	.363	.548
Error	64.338	114	.564		
Total	1623.000	117			
Corrected Total	64.632	116			

# Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.013)

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather

than avoided is important as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor

gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level

of 0.548 was determined to be not significant.

Table 40

**Question Forty-Seven Males** 

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:			<b>,</b>		
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.391 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.196	2.223	.115
Intercept	84.254	1	84.254	156.672	.000
Age	1.237	1	1.237	2.300	.133
supervisorgender	1.319	1	1.319	2.452	.121
Error	41.409	77	.538		
Total	1052.000	80			
Corrected Total	43.800	79			

a. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .030)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.121 was determined to be not significant.

Table 41

Descriptive Statistics Question Fifty-Four

<b>–</b> ·		<b>•</b> • • •	
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Descri		314115	
DCOON	PUIV C	orario	

Dependent Variable: Q54							
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	N				
.00	3.60	.857	58				
1.00	3.59	.673	59				
Total	3.60	.766	117				

**Descriptive Statistics** ~ - 4

....

Dependent Variable: Q54								
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν					
.00	3.61	.656	23					
1.00	3.60	.593	57					
Total	3.60	.608	80					

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, responsibility & accountability are important to effective conflict management, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (3.60) was above the value of somewhat agree which was (3) and between the value for agree which was (4). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (3.59) was above the value of somewhat agree (3) and between the value of agree (4). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (3.61) and was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (3.60) which was above somewhat agree (3) and between agree (4). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Fifty-Four Females** 

lests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable:	Q54				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.534 <sup>a</sup>	2	.267	.451	.638
Intercept	141.363	1	141.363	238.446	.000
Age	.531	1	.531	.896	.346
supervisorgender	.012	1	.012	.020	.889
Error	67.585	114	.593		
Total	1583.000	117			
Corrected Total	68.120	116			

# Tests of Potyzoon Subjects Effects

a. R Squared = .008 (Adjusted R Squared = -.010) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing responsibility & accountability are important to

effective conflict management as a dependent variable with age as a control and

supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A

significance level of 0.889 was determined to be not significant.

Table 43

**Question Fifty-Four Males** 

Dependent Variable:					
•	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.009ª	2	.005	.012	.988
Intercept	105.839	1	105.839	279.185	.000
Age	.007	1	.007	.018	.893
supervisorgender	.002	1	.002	.005	.944
Error	29.191	77	.379		
Total	1066.000	80			
Corrected Total	29.200	79			

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.026)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing responsibility & accountability are important to effective conflict management as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.994 was determined to be not significant.

Table 44

**Descriptive Statistics Question Fifty** 

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>							
Dependent Variable: Q50							
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν				
.00	.97	1.256	58				
1.00	1.59	1.403	59				
Total	1.28	1.364	117				

**Descriptive Statistics** 

Dependent Variable: Q50						
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ν			
.00	.78	1.166	23			
1.00	1.19	1.394	57			
Total	1.08	1.339	80			

\*Females who reported supervisor gender

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

Observation of the differences in means related to the variable, gender plays a role in effective conflict management, female respondents who reported female supervisors average response value (0.97) was above the value of disagree which was (0) and closer to the value for somewhat agree which was (1). Female respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value (1.59) was above the value of somewhat disagree (1) and between the value of neutral (2). For male respondents with reported supervisors, the differences in means related to the variable, knowing that conflict situations are addressed rather than avoided is important, male respondents who reported female supervisors average response value was (0.78) and was above disagree (0) and closer to somewhat disagree (1). Male respondents who reported male supervisor's average response value was (1.19) which was above somewhat disagree (1) and neutral (2). These differences in means should be further tested for significance.

**Question Fifty Females** 

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable:	Q50					
	Type III Sum of					
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Corrected Model	11.904 <sup>a</sup>	2	5.952	3.330	.039	
Intercept	25.564	1	25.564	14.301	.000	
Age	.380	1	.380	.213	.646	
supervisorgender	11.769	1	11.769	6.583	.012	
Error	203.788	114	1.788			
Total	408.000	117				
Corrected Total	215.692	116				

a. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .039) \*Females who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing gender plays a role in effective conflict management

as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and

alpha set at 0.05 for female respondents. A significance level of 0.012 was determined to

be significant.

Table 46

**Question Fifty Males** 

Dependent Variable:	Q50				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.939 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.469	.816	.446
Intercept	5.774	1	5.774	3.208	.077
Age	.179	1	.179	.100	.753
supervisorgender	2.651	1	2.651	1.473	.229
Error	138.611	77	1.800		
Total	234.000	80			
Corrected Total	141.550	79			

#### **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

a. R Squared = .021 (Adjusted R Squared = -.005)

\*Males who reported supervisor gender

ANCOVA was run utilizing gender plays a role in effective conflict management

as a dependent variable with age as a control and supervisor gender as a covariant and

alpha set at 0.05 for male respondents. A significance level of 0.229 was determined to be not significant.

# Analysis of Research Question and Hypothesis

This study examined a research question as well as two, related sub-research questions to determine the role of employee perceptions of gender in management.

RQ1. Is there a gender preference amongst employees towards a manager?

SubRQ1: Is there a preference for female employees?

SubRQ2: Is there a preference for male employees?

ANCOVA analysis was run utilizing the variable, management would be better if

my supervisor was a different gender, with age used as a co-variate and gender used as a

fixed factor. Statistical significance was determined at (p=0.048). This statistical

difference supports the research question in identifying that a preference for manager

gender does exist amongst employees.

Table 47

Tests of Between-Subject Effects Question Thirty

## **Between-Subjects Factors**

IN	
nder Female 253	Sex/Gender
Male 210	
Iviale	

# **Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:	Q31				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	14.232 <sup>a</sup>	2	7.116	3.575	.029
Intercept	155.660	1	155.660	78.197	.000
Age	6.589	1	6.589	3.310	.070
SexGender	7.860	1	7.860	3.948	.048
Error	915.677	460	1.991		
Total	1779.000	463			
Corrected Total	929.909	462			

a. R Squared = .015 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)

It was observed that female employees (n=253) reported a mean score of 1.237 while male employees (n=210) reported a mean score of 1.495. These scores indicate that female employees somewhat disagree less than male employees when asked if management would be better if their supervisor was a different gender.

## 1<sup>st</sup> Hypothesis

 $H_{01}$ . If the employee is female, then there will be no preference of manager gender.

H<sub>a1</sub>. If the employee is female, then there will be a preference of manager

gender.

For female respondents who reported supervisor gender, ANCOVA was run using

the same variable, management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender

with age as a co-variant and reported supervisor gender as a fixed factor.

Table 48

**Question Thirty-One Females** 

Desc	riptive	Statistics
nondont \/orighlay	024	

Dependent Variable: Q31						
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	N			
.00	.69	1.046	58			
1.00	1.05	1.252	59			
Total	.87	1.164	117			

# Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:					
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3.844 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.922	1.430	.244
Intercept	10.246	1	10.246	7.622	.007
Age	.028	1	.028	.021	.885
supervisorgender	3.843	1	3.843	2.859	.094
Error	153.233	114	1.344		
Total	246.000	117			
Corrected Total	157.077	116			

a. R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

Results for female employees who reported supervisor gender indicate a statistical significance (p=.094) which supports the hypothesis that states if the employee is female, there is a preference of manager gender.

# 2<sup>nd</sup> Hypothesis

 $H_{02}$ . If the employee is male, then there will be no preference of manager gender.

H<sub>a2</sub>. If the employee is male, then there will be a preference of manager

gender.

For male respondents who reported supervisor gender, ANCOVA was run using the variable, management would be better if my supervisor was a different gender with age as a co-variant and reported supervisor gender as a fixed factor.

Table 49

**Question Thirty-One Males** 

# **Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Q31					
repsupgen	Mean	Std. Deviation	N		
.00	1.13	1.359	23		
1.00	.93	1.223	57		
Total	.99	1.258	80		

# Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:	Q31				
	Type III Sum of				
Source	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2.076 <sup>a</sup>	2	1.038	.650	.525
Intercept	16.276	1	16.276	10.196	.002
Age	1.417	1	1.417	.887	.349
Supervisorgender	.531	1	.531	.332	.566
Error	122.911	77	1.596		
Total	203.000	80			
Corrected Total	124.987	79			
- D Orwana d. 047 (Adjusted B Orwana d. 000)					

a. R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = -.009)

Results for male employees who reported supervisor gender, do not indicate a statistical significance (p=.566) which does not support the hypothesis that states if the employee is male, there is a preference of manager gender.

# **Summary of Findings**

Testing of respondent survey data utilizing analysis of variance with age as a covariant, demonstrated statistical significance with respect to employee perception relative to manager gender thus answering the RQ1: Is there a gender preference amongst employees towards a manager? More specifically, using ANCOVA testing of female employees who reported manager gender when testing the hypothesis,  $H_{a1}$ : If the employee is female, then there will be a preference of manager gender, revealed that female employees response was statistically significant thus supportive of the hypothesis. ANCOVA testing of male employees who reported manager gender, to test the hypothesis,  $H_{a2}$ : If the employee is male, then there will be a preference of manager gender, to test the hypothesis,  $H_{a2}$ : If the employee is male, then there will be a preference of manager gender, to test the hypothesis,  $H_{a2}$ : If the employees was not statistically significant thereby not supporting the hypothesis.

#### Chapter Five

#### **Discussion and Study Implications**

Discussions surrounding topics of Manager gender, gender in management, gender gap in management, the glass ceiling and the glass cliff all revolve around the differences both stated and perceived regarding gender. This study set out to further explore the topic of gender differences in management with a specific view relating to the employee perception regarding the role of gender in management. Evaluating the employee perception of effective management and manager gender was accomplished by examining both respondents (all of whom were employees) by gender and those respondents who reported a direct supervisor and that supervisor's gender. This study was quantitative in nature and therefore utilized a comprehensive survey examining effective management and effective conflict management as well as gender roles in each within the workplace. The survey respondents were given several questions regarding gender and effective management and gender and conflict management while responses were Likert Scale responses categorized as disagree, somewhat agree, neutral, somewhat agree, and agree. As these responses would then be statistically analyzed, responses were then coded 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 respectively in order to identify means and differences within mean within tested variables and respondent population. The obtained data from the analysis would not only provide insight towards answering the research, sub research questions, and hypothesis, but further provide additional information related to employee perceptions on other matters of effective management and effective conflict management.

Results of this study found statistically significant differences amongst female and male respondents in relation to gender and management. Specifically, amongst female

respondents who reported having a direct supervisor (p=0.094). Additionally, amongst female respondents who reported female or male supervisors, those with female supervisors disagreed more (mean=0.69) than those with male supervisors (mean=1.05) when asked if management would be better if their supervisor was a different gender. For male respondents who reported female or male supervisors, those with female supervisors disagreed less (mean= 1.13) than those with male supervisors (mean=0.93). Statistically significant differences were also identified between female and male respondents (p=0.043) regarding the importance of effective management and leadership. This demonstrated that female respondents (n=253) somewhat agreed more (mean=3.534) than male respondents (n=210) who somewhat agreed less that effective management and leadership were important.

As this study also evaluated effective conflict management, statistically significant differences were found when respondents were asked about their perceptions of conflict situations in the workplace. Female respondents (n=253) reported somewhat disagreed (mean=1.44) less than male respondents (n=210) who reported somewhat disagreed (mean=1.70) when asked if conflict situations seem to be addressed based upon gender. Interestingly, there was no statistically significant difference between female employees (mean=1.51) and male employees (mean=1.56) who both seemed to somewhat disagree equally when asked if gender plays a role in effective conflict management. Statistical significance (p=0.012) was detected however amongst female employees (n=117) who reported supervisor gender when asked if gender plays a role in effective conflict management. Additionally, both female and male employees who reported female supervisors disagreed more (mean=0.97, 0.78 respectively) than female

and male employees who reported male supervisors (mean=1.59, 1.19 respectively). Thus demonstrating an affirmative correlation between and gender, effective management and effective conflict management.

#### Understanding the Dynamic of Manager Gender and Employee

The resolution of workplace conflict, employee satisfaction, and the gender gap in management are critically important for employers in this day in age as they jockey for prominent rankings to be labeled amongst the best places to work. It is therefore equally as important for employers to understand their employees and their perceptions on management quality as it relates to their experience in the workplace. Both female and male employee respondents represented in this study agreed that effective management was important. They also agreed on areas related to addressing conflict situations and the importance of effective conflict management.

Conflict can occur in essentially any aspect of the workplace. Often, conflict occurs out of perceived differences or bias, that then escalate and manifest themselves to actual verbal, physical, or emotional conflict. While conflicts may seem to only affect those individuals directly involved, conflict situations can also affect co-workers, departments, the work culture, and inevitably the entire organization. Gender bias in the workplace then, perpetuates conflict and conflict situations insofar as employees' bias toward management effectiveness as related to manager gender. Additionally, employee gender bias towards conflict situations and effective conflict management is likely to further bias as well as additional or further escalated conflict. An additional aspect of gender bias in the workplace as it relates to conflict can also be seen in situations where pay, merit pay, performance evaluation, or advancement opportunities are affected as a result of bias. Covering an ongoing court battle between US Soccer and the women's national team over equal pay, (Johnson, 2020) reported that the US Soccer federation filed documentation against the gender discrimination lawsuit which argued in part, that male players possessed "more responsibility" and required "a higher level of skill" than the female players. (CNN.com). The case between US Soccer and the women's national team illustrates the resultant conflict as a result of employer gender bias.

Employee perception of manager gender in relation to effective management may mirror or influence those perceptions of upper management in selecting middle management personnel thus compounding the gender gap in management and related pay and opportunity discrepancies. Thus, perceptions based on gender bias can have an effect outside the organization. Reiners (2020) describes how recruiting strategies and job descriptions have been found to be gender biased by advertising or targeting predominately male candidates and using words that deter female candidates. (builtin.com). Gender bias can also be found in the employee screening process where applicants are screened and reviewed prior to initial contact from a potential employer. Miller (2016) illustrates bias in the screening process stating that "using conventional resume screening, about a fifth of applicants who were not, white, male, able-bodied people from elite schools made it to a first-round interview. Using blind auditions, 60 percent did." (NYTimes.com). Gender bias is not only discriminatory at best but prevents employers from maximizing their workforce in that the best employee for the job may not be in that position. Additionally, there is much to be said for the employee or candidate whose hard work and dedication seem to be dashed. That in and of itself possesses a

profound trickle-down effect that can damage self esteem, the company, or the entire industry.

Understanding the root causes of conflict represent the first steps towards effective conflict resolution. Education and understanding of gender bias and its effects on effective management, effective conflict management and the workplace, pave the path towards mitigating potential conflict. As seen in the results of this study, both female and male employees more than somewhat agree that effective management is important to them. As such, an effective manager should not be defined by their gender rather the mastery of their skills and job performance in their position.

#### Limitations, Recommendations, and Future Research

This study aimed to be comprehensive to collect as much relative data as possible. The survey conducted contained two surveys and was sent to professional organizations. While most of the questions required a response in order to advance through the survey, there were a few that did not. An important source of data, supervisor gender, was not mandated. As such, while the data obtained and analyzed provided excellent insight and information, obtaining supervisor gender for all 463 respondents rather than the 197 obtained would have provided a more extensive view of the employee's preference specifically regarding their manager.

The survey used for this study also requested for respondents to identify if they held a managerial position (yes or no response required). While this study measured responses related to employee gender and employees who reported supervisor gender, it did not analyze respondents who reported themselves as supervisors. An analysis of responses by those employees who themselves were managers against those employees who reported to have direct supervisors, could provide additional information as related to perceptions of gender in effective management and effective conflict management.

Literature regarding the differences in gender and management refer to the higher percentage of male managers in comparison to female managers. The data collected for this study follows this trend by observing that of those respondents who reported a manager gender, both female and male employees reported a higher number of male managers. The study also asked respondents to report the industry in which they were currently or most recently employed. With this data collected, analyses incorporating industry as a factor could potentially provide additional insight or potential trends between industry employees. In addition, it was noted that many professions categorized in the other category for industry, were closely related to those listed. Therefore, the categorization of industries could include related subcategories to minimize those industries reported that fell into the other category and enable an enhanced understanding between gender, management, and industry.

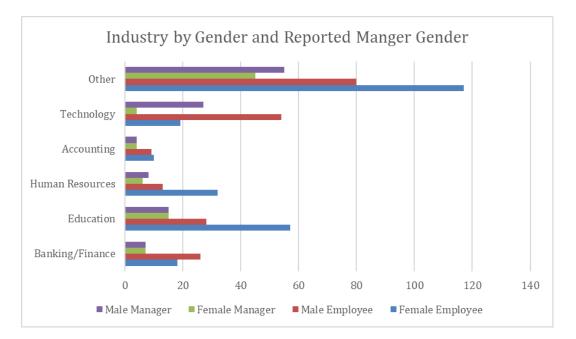


Figure 4. Industry by gender and reported manager gender.

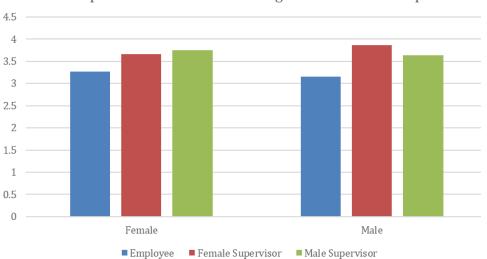
The information gleaned from this study assists in advancing comprehensive understanding between gender, bias, employee perceptions of management and conflict management effectiveness. These factors are critical to employees as well as industry and workplace culture. To raise awareness and improve workplace culture, the instrument used as well as preliminary information obtained in this study could be distributed or utilized by organizations interested in making changes. By enabling employees to take this survey, organizations can begin to get a glimpse of their employee's perceptions to help them understand their workforce dynamic.

This study took into consideration sex and gender identification by providing an additional area to specify identification if applicable. The LGBT community is largely considered a minority group and is likely to encounter many of the same challenges faced by women and other minority groups. To that end, incorporating into this study, a more specific demographic identifying question, would enable the researcher to obtain this information. Analyzing responses from specifically identified minority groups would provide additional insight into industry, management and conflict management culture.

The questionnaire designed for this study was done so with the intention of obtaining as much information as possible regarding respondent demographics, their responses towards the many facets of effective management as well as those towards effective conflict management. In total, the survey was comprised of 61 questions. As previously mentioned, there were a total of 165 responses that were removed from the total of 628 respondents. Incomplete responses may be attributed to the length of the survey. A shorter, more concise survey may combat respondent drop off rate. When constructing the survey, attention was given to the wording used so as not to bring the

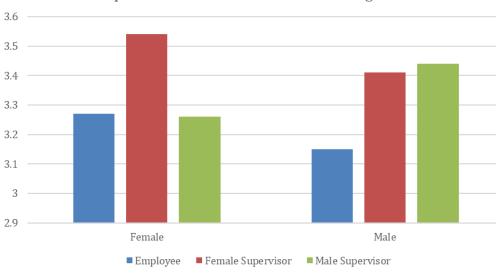
issue of gender to the forefront but rather, weave it in to the questions subtly in an effort to obtain the most honest responses possible without triggering respondent emotion towards the content of the question. In addition to shortening the length of the survey used however, adjusting some of the questions to be more direct with regard to the issue of gender or following a question with an additional gender specific question, would provide support to not only the previously asked question but to the study as a whole.

Employee's perception towards the importance of effective management and leadership were measured, as was employee's perception of the importance of effective conflict management. Female employees (n=253) averaged a score of 3.53 and male employees (n=210) averaged a score of 3.35 when asked if effective management and leadership were important to them. When responding to effective conflict management is important to me, female employees (n=253) averaged a score of 3.27 and male employees (n=210) averaged a score of 3.15. Both female and male employees scores on average were lower when responding to the importance of effective conflict management than when responding to the importance of effective management and leadership.



Importance of Effective Management & Leadership

Figure 5. Importance of Effective Management and Leadership.



#### Importance of Effective Conflict Management



Effective conflict management, while different than effective management and leadership, co-exist in the workplace. Effectiveness of both conflict management as well as management and leadership are critical to an effective manager. When asked about the importance of effective management and leadership, female employees with female managers (n=58) averaged a score of 3.66 while those with male managers (n=59) averaged a score of 3.75. Male employees with female managers (n=23) averaged a score of 3.87 and those with male managers (n=57) scored an average of 3.63. As was previously observed between female and male employees, the average score across the population of those employees who reported supervisor gender, was lower when asked about the importance of effective conflict management. The discrepancy between respondents perceptions of effective conflict management and effective management and leadership, illustrates the importance of continued education for industries, organizations, and those in management positions. Information obtained in this study identifies less importance is given to effective conflict management. To realize conflict in the

workplace and for mangers to effectively manage, it is necessary for effective conflict management to become an integral part of management in the workplace.

This study utilized an effective management survey as well as an effective conflict management survey which, as previously noted, increased the length of the survey and may have attributed to respondents that did not complete the questionnaire. In addition to shortening the length of the survey, questions directly correlating effective management and effective conflict management were not issued. Obtaining information from respondents directly asking their perception of the relationship between effective management and effective conflict management would provide supporting data towards the importance of both.

#### Conclusion

The stereotyping of individuals based on their sex or gender lends to the stereotyping of occupations, industries and even individual positions. In addition, a parallel can be observed between gender bias, stereotyping and the lack of diversified recruitment, hiring, and promotional practices that then produce the structure and foundation for gendered organizations and industries.

Gender stereotyping and discrimination in the workplace is an overall detriment towards employee advancement and maximized organizational potential in the workplace. As the perceptions of gender affect perceived management styles as well as perceived conflict management styles, overall job performance and inevitably employee job satisfaction, employers face turnover rates that not only affect workplace morale, but also financially affect employers in so far as time and money spent on training and hiring for those vacant positions. Gender bias in the workplace can be seen as an abuse of power by the employer against primarily female employees although, this can also occur towards employees affiliated with other minority groups. Gender bias does not solely affect the employee. Gender bias has the potential to affect other employees with which the affected employee is involved directly or indirectly. Workplace conflict as a result of gender discrimination can take several forms. The lack of promotion opportunities as well as differences in pay and advancement opportunities, bullying, sexual harassment, or employment termination can result in uncomfortable working environments and workplace conflict.

Employees who experience discrimination may experience a decrease in morale which then may affect productivity or ability to perform job duties thereby perpetuating the perception that the employee is either incapable or undeserving of their employment position. Additionally, other employees may become affected directly or indirectly as a result of gender discrimination affecting another employee. In so far as the affected employee's morale and productivity can be negatively impacted, so too can the morale and productivity of co-workers or team members. The negative effects of gender bias and discrimination therefore result in a toxic work environment as well increasing likelihood of higher turnover rates. This then, would likely result in negative cost implications for the organization by way of additional resources in training time, cost of advertising and negotiating replacement salary.

This study was conducted utilizing quantitative methods to analyze and measure differences between employee's perceptions of gender in management as well as conflict management situations in the workplace. This study discovered statistically significant differences amongst female and male respondents in relation to manager gender (p=0.048). When evaluating differences between female respondents who reported having a direct supervisor and male respondents who reported having a direct supervisor, female employees who reported supervisor gender were statistically significant (p=0.094) . While both female and male populations somewhat agreed that effective management and leadership was important (mean=3.534, 3.348 respectively), statistical difference was identified between female and male employee populations (p=0.043). Statistical significance was also identified between female and male employee populations (p=0.043). Statistical significance was identified between female and male employees when asked if gender plays a role in addressing conflict situations in the workplace (p=0.063). Further statistical significance was identified regarding gender and addressing conflict situations amongst both populations of female employees who reported supervisor gender (p=0.052).

These statistical differences combined with observed variances between responses illustrate that indeed, there are employee perceptions based on gender and management that relate to the efficacy of management and conflict management in the workplace. To that end, these employee perceptions may perpetuate employee bias while also, possibly, influencing upper management when selecting individuals for management positions thus driving the gender gap in management and conflict in the workplace. Further study and analysis are necessary to continue to build connections between gender perceptions and management roles. Industries, organizations, and employers should continue to realize the role of effective conflict management as it relates to workplace conflict resolution and effective management practices. Organizations and employers may also benefit from information obtained from this study. Evaluating recruitment and advertising practices may reduce bias towards potential applicants as well as evaluation of applicant review processes to reduce bias. An understanding of the role bias plays in the workplace is essential in producing forward change, true diversity in the workplace, and diminished workplace conflict.

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