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Stereotypes of Women in Management: What Women Think That Men Think About Women

Abstract

Men and women differ in managerial behaviors, especially behaviors perceived to be more stereotypical of men or more stereotypical of women. Previous research provides evidence on male managers' comparative ratings of leadership behaviors of male versus female managers. In the present study, 107 women and 103 men were instructed to rate leadership behaviors as they expected male managers to have rated them. Both women and men performed this task relatively accurately: Their ratings of 14 leadership behaviors were highly correlated with actual ratings made by male managers. These correlations may result from a relatively accurate metacognitive assessment of how other people will respond, a reliance on everyday gender stereotypes, or both. In either case, women in management positions may benefit from their awareness of men's gender stereotypes about leadership behaviors.

Keywords: leadership, management, gender stereotypes, social metacognition.

Stereotypes of Women in Management: What Women Think That Men Think About Women

Stereotypes are organized sets of beliefs about traits and behaviors thought to distinguish one group from another. People tend to display strong gender stereotypes, assigning traits and behaviors to individual men and women solely on the basis of their gender. For example, many people expect men to be more *agentic* than women; men are viewed as being more aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, and self-confident. In contrast, many people expect women to be more *communal* than men; women are viewed as being more affectionate, compassionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, and gentle (Bakan, 1966; Eagly & Kite, 1987; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobsen, 1989). One critical reason to study gender stereotypes is that beliefs about how men and women differ often influence behavior.

Considerable evidence reveals that men and women are perceived and treated differently in a variety of contexts, such as in the workplace (e.g., Heilman, Block, & Martell, 1995; Jackson, Sullivan, & Hodge, 1993; Schein, 1973). As women began to enter previously male-dominated occupations, researchers studied how female managers are perceived and treated in the workplace. The results of several decades of research reveal that women are perceived in a stereotypic way, often characterized as lacking what it takes to succeed in management (e.g., Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989; Martell, Parker, Emrich, & Crawford, 1997). For example, Schein et al. (1989) said that male managers "still adhere to the male managerial stereotype and perceive that successful middle managers possess characteristics . . . more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general" (p. 103).

Indeed, past research provides abundant evidence that female managers are judged less favorably than male managers on a range of personnel assessments, including hiring, placement, performance assessment, and promotion (Bartol, 1999; Bowen, Swim, & Jacobs, 2000; Cohen, Broschak, & Haveman, 1998; Davison & Burke, 2000; Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wiback, 1975; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly et al., 1992; Heneman, 1997; Olian, Schwab, & Haberfeld, 1988; Perry, Davis-Blake, & Kulik, 1994). Differential treatment based on gender stereotypes may therefore present significant obstacles to women in management.

Although considerable research reveals that female and male managers are perceived and treated differently, little attention has been devoted to an important issue: How aware are women of the stereotypical ways in which they are viewed in organizations? Are women aware of the extent to which they are viewed as less well suited for management positions by their male counterparts? Consider, for example, a woman who assumes a management position expecting an absence of gender stereotyping and who consequently expects to be perceived and treated no differently than men are. Researchers have found that whether or not a person receives a realistic job preview affects the person's future job satisfaction (Premack & Wanous, 1985). Entry-level job expectations that are inaccurate, unrealistic, or overly optimistic may result in disappointment, with the possibility of lowered job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). Unrealistic expectations could result if women underestimate men's beliefs in male-manager superiority in the workplace. Conversely, it is possible that female managers have an overly negative view of how men are likely to stereotype them. For example, Pinel (1999) found that women who expect to be discriminated against are more likely to generate convincing examples of such discrimination.

That is, women who expect discriminatory treatment are more likely than others to report discrimination as having occurred.

The present study examines women's and men's beliefs about male managers' stereotypes concerning leadership behaviors of women versus men in management. In doing so, we were particularly interested in addressing leadership behaviors that are central to success in management because women are often seen as lacking these behaviors (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002). Thus, the main question that this study addresses is: To what extent are women accurate in their perception of men's beliefs about the leadership abilities of female versus male middle managers?

To answer this question, it is critical to know how the leadership abilities of female and male middle managers are perceived. Leadership abilities include an extensive set of behaviors most accurately measured using multi-item surveys. For this reason, we used a 14-category instrument based mainly on the Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl, 1994; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).

Recently, Martell and DeSmet (2001) investigated male managers' stereotypes of male versus female middle managers. They asked their participants to estimate "the percentage of male managers and female managers who are likely to effectively demonstrate [each] leadership behavior" (p. 1226). This enabled them to compare the percentage estimates of male versus female leadership behaviors. This approach, first proposed by McCauley and Stitt (1978), allows males and females to be compared using what they called a *diagnostic ratio* (DR), in which:

$$DR = \frac{p(\text{Behavior} \mid \text{Male Managers})}{p(\text{Behavior} \mid \text{Female Managers})}, \quad (1)$$

where *p* is the estimated percentage of male managers or female managers displaying a behavior.[1] Researchers who have used a DR approach use an additional transformation that centers a DR at 0 if there is no gender stereotyping (see Results section for details). Thus, a transformed DR differing significantly from 0 (in either a positive or negative direction) is evidence of a difference in the estimated percentage of male and female managers who display a target leadership behavior.

In the present study, we also used a DR approach. However, we did not attempt simply to replicate the abundant previous research revealing that male managers display gender stereotypes in management settings (e.g., Eagly et al., 2002; Martell et al., 1998). We focused instead on an important issue raised by these findings: Are women aware of what men think about women in management settings? Asked in this manner, the current research approaches the question in terms of social metacognition. The term *metacognition* refers to thinking about thinking, or a person's beliefs about his or her own mental states and processes (e.g., Nelson, 1999), and the term *social metacognition* includes beliefs about the mental states and processes of other people (e.g., Jost, Kruglanski, & Nelson, 1998).

Using the same survey instrument and analysis techniques that were used in a previous study (Martell & DeSmet, 2001) enabled us to compare women's and men's awareness of male managers' stereotypes of the leadership behaviors displayed by female versus male middle managers. One possibility is that women do not accurately assess male managers' stereotypes of women's leadership behaviors. For example, women may think that male managers view

women's management abilities less negatively then men actually do. Thus, our main hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 1. Women are relatively unaware of male managers' gender stereotypes of leadership behaviors and will significantly underestimate the extent to which men display male-biased stereotypes.

On the other hand, men may assume that male managers' stereotypes match their own stereotypes. Thus, we also predicted:

Hypothesis 2. Men are relatively aware of male managers' gender stereotypes of leadership behaviors and will fairly accurately estimate the extent to which other men display male-biased stereotypes.

In addition, different subtypes of the stereotypical female manager might influence respondents' estimates (Deaux, Winton, Crowley, & Lewis, 1985). Describing a woman as a *successful* middle manager might moderate the typical gender stereotype and lead participants to evaluate her more favorably. We therefore administered two versions of the questionnaire, alternately using the terms *middle managers* and *successful middle managers*. This enabled us to test an additional hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. Specifying that the rated person is a *successful* middle manager will moderate the extent to which gender stereotypes influence male managers' perceptions of leadership behaviors.

In other words, Hypothesis 3 proposes that support for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 will partly depend on whether or not a male or female manager is described to the participant as being successful.

Method

Participants

Questionnaires were distributed to 107 women and 103 men. The women who participated varied in business-related experience: 10 were students in an entry-level business course at Montana State University (hereafter the *Naïve* group), 77 were students in upper-level Business and Management courses at Montana State University (hereafter, the *Advanced* group), and 20 were students either currently in, or graduates of, the MBA program at Montana State University–Billings (hereafter, *MBA*s). Of the women who participated, 103 were Caucasian, 1 was Asian, 1 was Hispanic, 1 reported *Other*, and 1 did not report ethnicity. Ages ranged from 18 to 53 (M = 24.2).

The men who participated also varied in business-related experience: 23 were students in the Naïve group, 55 were students in the Advanced group, and 25 were students in the MBA group. Of the men who participated, 96 were Caucasian, 2 were Asian, 2 were Native American, 2 were Hispanic, 1 reported *Other*, and 1 did not report ethnicity. Ages ranged from 18 to 51 (M = 24.2).

Measurement Instrument

The measurement instrument we used was identical to the one used by Martell and DeSmet (2001), with the addition of further instructions emphasizing that the issue involved responding in the way that male managers would respond, not simply reporting the participant's own estimates. The instrument included 14 categories of leadership behavior, 11 from the Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl, 1994; Yukl et al., 1990), 1 from the Managerial Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985), and 2 other categories considered to be critical to success as a leader. The 14 categories used were: Consulting, Delegating, Inspiring, Intellectual Stimulation,

Mentoring, Modeling, Monitoring, Networking, Planning, Problem Solving, Rewarding, Supporting, Team Building, and Upward Influence.

A total of 47 women and 47 men received one form of the instrument (hereafter called the *middle-managers* condition). On it, participants were instructed to "estimate *what male managers believe* to be the percentage of male [female] middle managers who are likely to demonstrate each leadership behavior effectively." Each category of leadership behavior (e.g., Consulting) was then described by three concrete examples of actions which constitute that behavior. Above two labeled lines for rating each item, the instructions again emphasized that percentages should be estimated in terms of how male managers would respond. A total of 60 women and 56 men received another form of the instrument (hereafter called the *successful middle-managers* condition), with instructions differing only in the addition of the word *successful*—that is, "the percentage of *successful* male [female] middle managers."

Procedure

A cover letter described the study as an investigation of current leadership behaviors. Participants were told that participation was voluntary. The survey was randomly distributed between the two forms and, to insure the anonymity of respondents (and to reduce social desirability responding), it was made clear that responses were anonymous.

The survey asked participants to estimate the ratings that male managers would make concerning male and female middle-managers' leadership behaviors. In other words, they were asked to estimate male managers' ratings of the percentage of male middle managers and the percentage of female middle managers who display each of 14 leadership behaviors.

Results

Each percentage estimate was first converted to a proportion by dividing it by 100. For each participant, a DR was then computed for each of the 14 paired responses (see Equation 1). A transformation was used to ensure parity between DRs ranging from 0 to 1 and DRs ranging from 1 to ∞ (cf. McCauley & Stitt, 1978): DRs greater than or equal to 1 were transformed by subtracting 1 from the original DR, whereas DRs less than 1 were transformed by subtracting the inverse of the DR from 1. Finally, outlying DRs were truncated at –4.5 and +4.5, and all further statistics were computed using truncated DRs. Hereafter, we will refer to the transformed and truncated DRs simply as *DRs*.

Suppose that a mean DR = +0.5 for the women who responded to the questionnaire (i.e., they think that male managers estimate that a greater proportion of men than women display behavior *x*). Suppose also that male managers actually show a mean DR = +0.0 when they estimate the percentage of men and women who display leadership behavior *x* (i.e., they estimate that an equal percentage of men and women display behavior *x*). The difference between the two DRs is +0.5 (indicating the difference between social metacognitive DRs and target DRs).

A DR was calculated separately for each participant's estimate of each of the 14 behavior categories. Then the target mean male DR was subtracted from each DR, yielding a difference between the two DRs (see above). The resulting differences between DRs were analyzed by conducting a 2 (Participant Gender) × 3 (Participant Experience) × 14 (Behavior Category) × 2 (Form) mixed-model MANOVA. The main effect of behavior category was significant, $F(13, 2184) = 6.21$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .06$, revealing that the differences between the two DRs varied across the 14 behavior categories. No other main effect or interaction effect was significant, all $F < 2.25$, $p > .10$.

Women's DRs versus target men's DRs. Because the MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of behavior category, in order to test Hypothesis 1, we compared the women's mean DR and the target men's mean DR separately for each behavior category.[2] Table 1 shows each pair of mean DRs, along with the mean difference between the each pair of DRs and the size of the effect (*d*). The difference between each pair of DRs was tested by conducting 14 independent-groups *t* tests, using a Bonferroni adjustment to control for the overall Type I error rate. (Hence, $p < .0036$ per comparison is a significant difference.) A significant difference between women's mean DRs and target men's DRs was found for only one leadership behavior category (Modeling), $t(200) = 3.42$, $p = .0008$, $d = 0.47$. Averaging across all 14 behavior categories, the overall women's mean DR did not differ from the overall target men's mean DR, $t(200) = 0.08$, $p = .94$, $d = 0.01$. In other words, there was no overall difference in gender stereotyping between the women and the target men. Figure 1 shows a scatterplot of the relationship between women's mean DRs and target men's mean DRs. The 14 pairs of DRs were highly correlated, $r(13) = .76$, CI = .38 to .92, $p = .002$.

Men's DRs versus target men's DRs. In order to test Hypothesis 2, we compared the men's mean DR and the target men's mean DR separately for each behavior category.[2] Table 2 shows each pair of mean DRs, along with the mean difference between the each pair of DRs and the size of the effect. As before, the difference between each pair of DRs was tested by conducting 14 independent-groups *t* tests. No significant difference between men's mean DRs and target men's DRs was found. Averaging across all 14 behavior categories, the overall men's mean DR did not differ from the overall target men's mean DR, $t(196) = 0.25$, $p = .81$. In other words, there was no overall difference in gender stereotyping between the men and the target men. Figure 2 shows a scatterplot of the relationship between men's mean DRs and target men's

mean DRs. The 14 pairs of DRs were highly correlated, $r(13) = .87$, CI = .63 to .96, $p < .001$.

Women's DRs versus men's DRs. We also compared the women's mean DR and the men's mean DR separately for each behavior category Table 3 shows each pair of mean DRs, along with the mean difference between the each pair of DRs and the size of the effect. No significant difference between women's mean DRs and men's DRs was found. Averaging across all 14 behavior categories, the overall women's mean DR did not differ from the overall men's mean DR, $t(208) = 0.33$, $p = .74$. In other words, there was no overall difference in gender stereotyping between the women and the men. Figure 3 shows a scatterplot of the relationship between women's DRs and men's mean DRs. The 14 pairs of DRs were highly correlated, $r(13) = .91$, CI = .73 to .97, $p < .001$.

Other analyses. Martell and DeSmet (2001) also reported data on female managers' ratings of male versus female managers. Although they did not test for differences between their male managers' ratings and their female managers' ratings, we were able to use the means and standard deviations that they reported in their Tables 1 and 2 to test these differences. Their male managers' mean DRs differed significantly from their female managers' mean DRs on 4 of the 14 behavior categories (Inspiring, Intellectual Stimulation, Problem Solving, and Supporting), all $p < .0036$. However, the 14 pairs of DRs were highly correlated, $r(13) = .63$, CI = .15 to .87, $p = .017$.

It is not legitimate to compare women's and men's ratings and Martell and DeSmet's female managers' ratings because our participants were asked to respond to each item in the way in which they thought male managers would respond, not in the way in which they thought female managers would respond. Nevertheless, it is of interest that the 14 pairs of DRs were

highly correlated for our women and the previous women, $r(13) = .73$, CI = .33 to .91, $p = .003$, as well as for the our men and the previous women, $r(13) = .75$, CI = .36 to .92, $p = .002$.

Discussion

We investigated whether women and men have the social metacognitive ability to estimate male managers' ratings of female and male managerial behaviors. We made it clear to our participants that they should respond in the way that they thought male managers would respond. Both women and men were successful in matching target male managers' responses in a previous study (Martell and DeSmet, 2001). Thus, our data reject Hypothesis 1 but fail to reject Hypothesis 2. Overall, neither women nor men estimated that the previous male managers would report extremely pro-male biases concerning leadership behaviors of women versus men. In addition, describing managers as *successful* managers did not significantly moderate our participants' abilities to match the previous men's pattern of responses. Thus, our data reject Hypothesis 3.

Overall, women's estimates of male managers' responses were not consistently biased in one direction (e.g., male-biased or female-biased), but were fairly equally balanced (see Table 1). Although women estimated that male managers would be somewhat more male-biased on 8 of the items and somewhat more female-biased on 6 of the items, their estimates were relatively accurate on 13 of 14 behavior categories. A significant difference between women's responses and target men's responses was found for only 1 behavior category (Modeling). In addition, across the 14 behavior categories the pattern of the women's responses was highly correlated with that of the target men's responses. Thus, the present findings reject Hypothesis 1.

As was seen in the women's responses, men's estimates of male managers' responses were not consistently biased in one direction (e.g., male-biased or female-biased), but were fairly

equally balanced (see Table 2). Although our men estimated that male managers would be somewhat more male-biased on 7 of the items and somewhat more female-biased on 7 of the items, no significant difference between previous male responses and present male responses was found. Thus, the present findings fail to reject Hypothesis 2.

In addition, across the 14 behavior categories the pattern of the women's responses was highly correlated with that of the men's responses. Thus, women's and men's social metacognitive abilities to estimate the pattern of the target male managers' DRs were comparable.

Describing managers as being *successful* did not align either women's or men's stereotypes more closely with the target men's stereotypes. Neither women nor men were more metacognitively accurate when considering managers who were described as being *successful*. Thus, the present findings reject Hypothesis 3.

In short, the present results reveal that women are able to assess male managers' stereotypes about the leadership behaviors of women versus men. Although male managers gender stereotypes are only slightly biased in a pro-male direction (e.g., Martell & DeSmet, 2001), women in the present study were quite accurate in their assessment of the behavioral categories on which male managers report a gender difference. In addition, our findings reveal that men are also able to do so, as well as that men's responses are highly correlated with women's responses.

At least two related kinds of theoretical approaches can explain our main finding, which is that social metacognitive estimates of how other people estimate leadership behavior categories were highly correlated with the target estimates. First, although people generally minimize the importance of situational factors that influence other people's behavior, they may

be induced to take those into account, such as by the instructions repeatedly given our respondents. Those instructions may have been especially salient in assessing how other people responded to an instrument assessing leadership behaviors that female and male managers display. If our respondents remained attentive to the instructions to respond as they thought the target men responded, then a high correlation between our respondents' estimates and the target estimates is not surprising. People sometimes display good social metacognitive skills in assessing how other people respond—for example, in understanding and predicting other people's behaviors and stereotypes (Gilbert, 1998). Our evidence clearly can be explained by this theoretical approach.

Second, people may simply rely on their own stereotypes as a way to estimate how other people may respond. For example, if a person displays a particular stereotype, he or she might assume that other people also display that stereotype (Ross, Greene, & House, 1977). Perhaps, in spite of clear instructions to respond in the way that male managers would respond, our respondents merely responded according to their own stereotypes about women's versus men's leadership behaviors. If this occurred, the seemingly excellent social metacognitive skills displayed by our women and men may have been spurious. This view is consistent with the finding that our participants' beliefs about how male managers perceive women and men in management were not affected by their amount of business-related experience: Perhaps their responses simply reflect stereotypes about women and men in general, regardless of whether women and men are described as being *middle manager*s or *successful middle managers*. This implies that peoples' stereotypical views of women and men may simply transfer from everyday life into business settings. Our evidence clearly can also be explained by this theoretical approach. This approach implies that researchers (e.g., Martell & DeSmet, 2001) who have used

the DR approach to study gender stereotypes in the workplace have collected data that merely reflect everyday gender stereotypes.

Of course, these two theoretical approaches are not mutually exclusive: More than one process might have influenced the observed pattern of responding. Regardless of the explanation or explanations, people think that men and women display a slightly different pattern of leadership behaviors. For better or worse, many areas of business management are dominated by men, and this inequity is not likely to change soon. Although women have made inroads into male-dominated areas of business, problems such as wage disparities and the so-called *glass ceiling* may remain long-term and difficult-to-solve issues, especially if they partly or entirely result from everyday gender stereotyping.

To the extent that these issues are slow to resolve, it is critical that women in managerial positions (or who may be pursuing careers in management) have an accurate understanding of gender stereotypes that male managers display concerning managers or potential managers. Considering that men's gender stereotypes may influence a woman's managerial career, a woman may benefit by being able to assess men's stereotypes about how women's leadership abilities compare to men's leadership abilities.

Researchers (e.g., Wanous et al., 1992) have commented on the importance of an interviewee's receiving a realistic job preview in terms of future job satisfaction and retention. Because the present findings reveal that women are largely aware of gender stereotypes in the workplace, this aspect of a realistic job preview seems to be satisfied, although other aspects of a realistic job preview may still be critically important.

The information provided by this study may be valuable to current or aspiring businesswomen in that being forewarned is being forearmed and that having a realistic

awareness of gender stereotypes may influence success in a management career. Women who are aware of men's gender stereotypes have an advantage in working with men who display those stereotypes. They may, for example, expend extra effort in areas in which men believe that female managers are less talented than male managers (e.g., delegating), or perhaps they may choose to specialize in areas in which men believe women to excel (e.g., consulting). Either or both of these approaches would give women who understand men's gender stereotypes an advantage in achieving parity with men in the workplace: Women might achieve greater parity by reducing the differences between their behaviors and men's behaviors, by accentuating their areas of excellence, or both. It is perhaps encouraging that our findings reveal that women are aware of what men think about their pattern of leadership behaviors in the context of a business management setting.

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Footnotes

[1]It is unclear why McCauley and Stitt (1978) invented the DR or why other researchers (e.g., Martell and DeSmet, 2001) have used it. For analyses that involve the comparison of two proportions (or percentages), the commonly used measure is the natural logarithm of the odds ratio (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Although the two measures are highly correlated, the natural logarithm of the odds ratio is also more easily computed than is the DR. However, we needed to use the DR in order to allow comparisons with target men's responses.

[2]Because Martell and DeSmet (2001) reported only a few behavior categories for which the term *successful middle managers* moderated the target men's DRs and because questionnaire form was not a significant moderator variable in our data, for the sake of simplicity we averaged all DRs across participants who received the two forms of the instrument.

Table 1

Women's DR and Target Men's DR for Each Leader Behavior Category

Leader behavior category	Women[a]		Target Men[b]		Difference[c]	Effect size (*d*)
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	
Consulting	–0.33	1.02	–0.23	0.96	–0.10	0.10
Delegating	0.34	0.74	0.32	0.94	0.02	0.02
Inspiring	–0.02	1.02	0.20	0.91	–0.22	0.23
Intellectual Stimulation	0.26	1.04	0.22	0.83	0.04	0.04
Mentoring	–0.04	0.97	0.04	0.87	–0.08	0.09
Modeling	0.43	0.94	0.04	0.67	0.39*	0.47
Monitoring	0.21	0.94	0.02	0.71	0.19	0.23
Networking	0.11	0.85	0.09	0.91	0.02	0.02
Planning	0.10	0.81	0.05	0.93	0.05	0.06
Problem Solving	0.45	0.81	0.34	1.00	0.11	0.12
Rewarding	–0.18	0.66	–0.05	0.95	–0.13	0.16
Supporting	–0.38	1.02	–0.14	0.84	–0.24	0.26
Team Building	–0.09	0.89	0.14	0.55	–0.23	0.31
Upward Influence	0.53	1.08	0.21	1.18	0.32	0.28
Overall *M*	0.10	0.91	0.09	0.88	0.01	0.17

[a]Mean (and standard deviation) of women's DRs. [b]Mean (and standard deviation) of target men's DRs. [c]Mean of women's DRs minus mean of target men's DRs.

*$p < .001$.

Table 2

Men's DR and Target Men's DR for Each Leader Behavior Category

Leader behavior category	Men[a]		Target Men[b]		Difference[c]	Effect size (*d*)
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	
Consulting	–0.26	0.81	–0.23	0.96	–0.03	0.03
Delegating	0.35	1.08	0.32	0.94	0.03	0.03
Inspiring	0.03	1.03	0.20	0.91	–0.17	0.17
Intellectual Stimulation	0.20	0.86	0.22	0.83	–0.02	0.02
Mentoring	0.12	0.99	0.04	0.87	0.08	0.09
Modeling	0.15	0.84	0.04	0.67	0.11	0.14
Monitoring	0.09	0.76	0.02	0.71	0.07	0.10
Networking	0.10	0.82	0.09	0.91	0.01	0.01
Planning	0.08	0.43	0.05	0.93	0.03	0.04
Problem Solving	0.31	0.82	0.34	1.00	–0.03	0.03
Rewarding	–0.19	0.69	–0.05	0.95	–0.14	0.17
Supporting	–0.42	0.82	–0.14	0.84	–0.28	0.34
Team Building	0.02	0.60	0.14	0.55	–0.12	0.21
Upward Influence	0.28	1.02	0.21	1.18	0.07	0.06
Overall *M*	0.06	0.83	0.09	0.88	–0.03	0.10

[a]Mean (and standard deviation) of men's DRs. [b]Mean (and standard deviation) of target men's DRs. [c]Mean of men's DRs minus mean of target men's DRs.

Table 3

Women's DR and Men's DR for Each Leader Behavior Category

Leader behavior category	Women[a]		Men[b]		Difference[c]	Effect size (*d*)
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	
Consulting	–0.33	1.02	–0.26	0.81	–0.07	–0.08
Delegating	0.34	0.74	0.35	1.08	–0.01	–0.01
Inspiring	–0.02	1.02	0.03	1.03	–0.05	–0.05
Intellectual Stimulation	0.26	1.04	0.20	0.86	0.06	0.06
Mentoring	–0.04	0.97	0.12	0.99	–0.16	–0.16
Modeling	0.43	0.94	0.15	0.84	0.28*	0.31
Monitoring	0.21	0.94	0.09	0.76	0.12	0.14
Networking	0.11	0.85	0.10	0.82	0.01	0.01
Planning	0.10	0.81	0.08	0.43	0.02	0.03
Problem Solving	0.45	0.81	0.31	0.82	0.14	0.17
Rewarding	–0.18	0.66	–0.19	0.69	0.01	0.02
Supporting	–0.38	1.02	–0.42	0.82	0.04	0.04
Team Building	–0.09	0.89	0.02	0.60	–0.11	–0.14
Upward Influence	0.53	1.08	0.28	1.02	0.25	0.24
Overall *M*	0.10	0.91	0.06	0.83	0.04	0.05

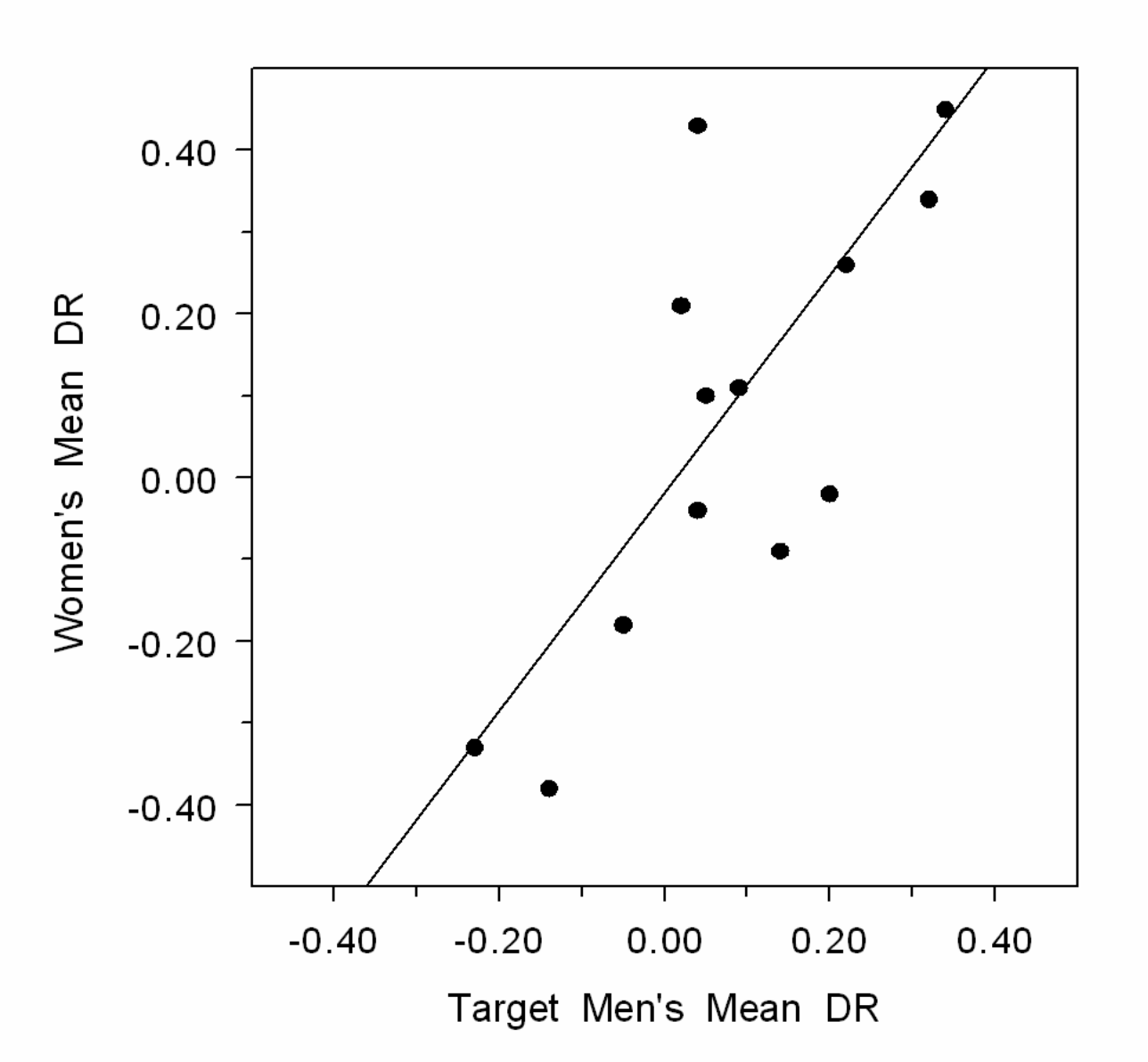
[a]Mean (and standard deviation) of women's DRs. [b]Mean (and standard deviation) of target men's DRs. [c]Mean of women's DRs minus mean of men's DRs.

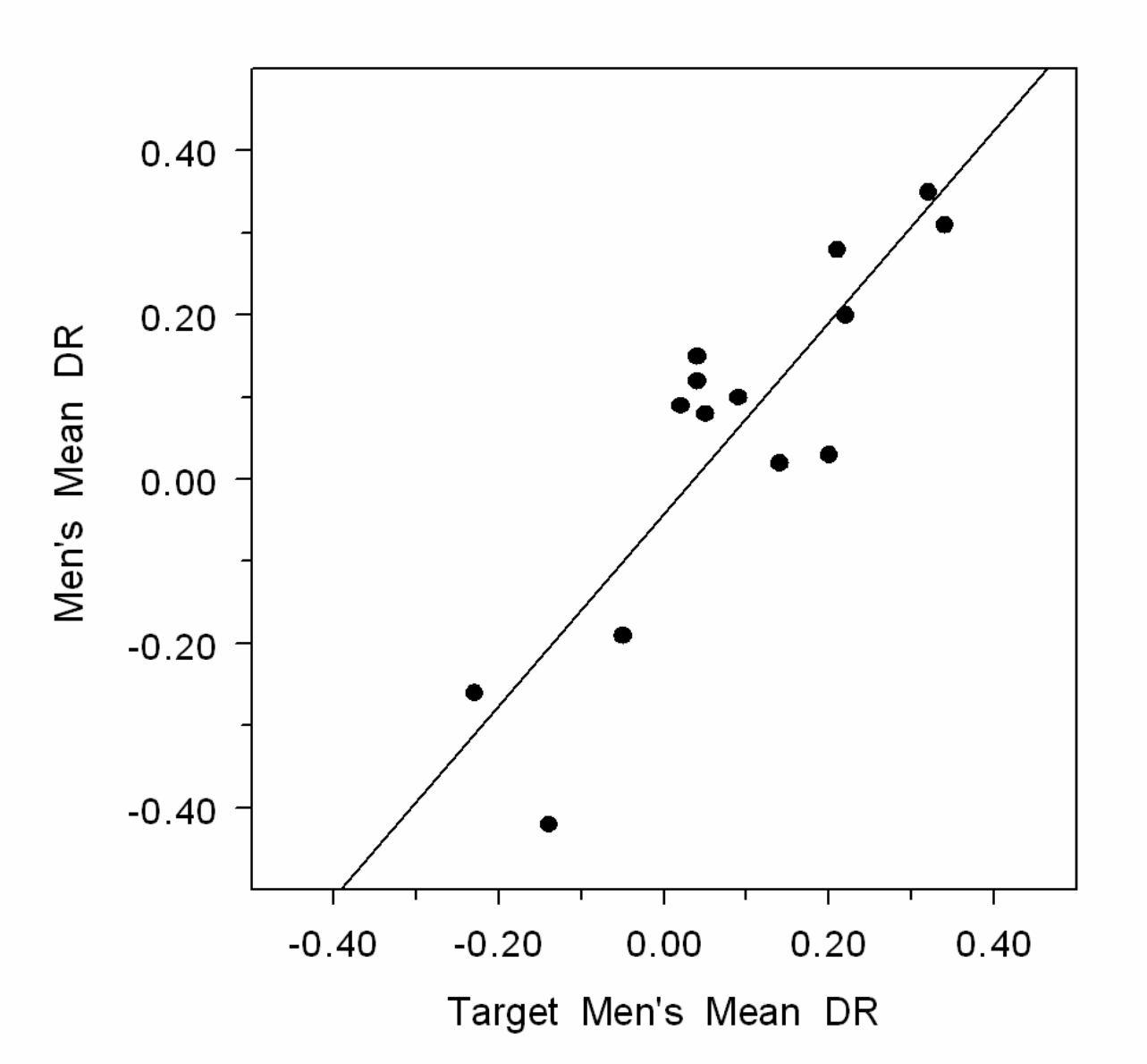
Figure Captions

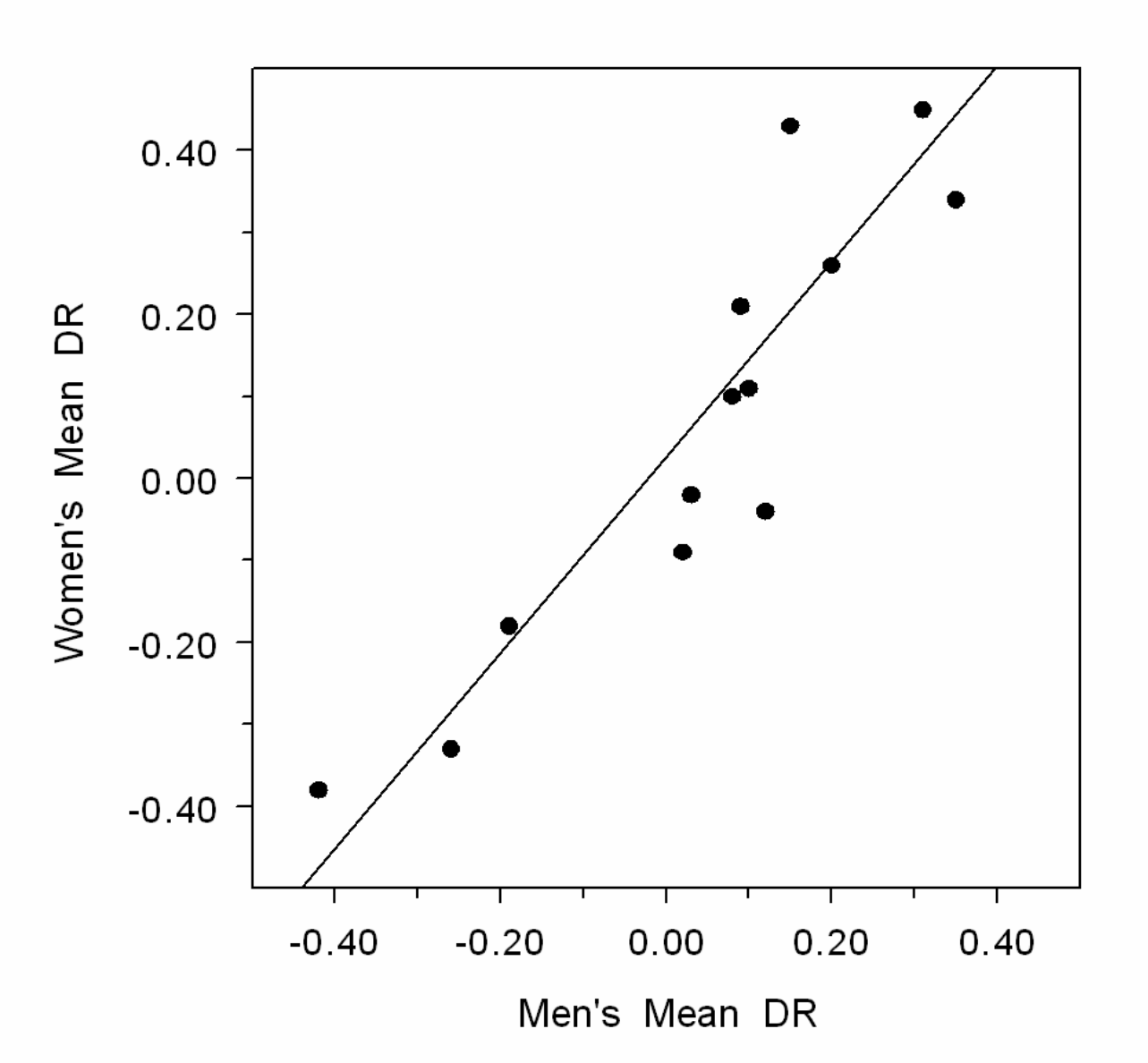
Figure 1. Scatterplot of women's mean DR versus target men's mean DR for each of 14 leader behavior categories. The best-fitting linear regression line is also shown.

Figure 2. Scatterplot of men's mean DR versus target men's mean DR for each of 14 leader behavior categories. The best-fitting linear regression line is also shown.

Figure 3. Scatterplot showing women's mean DR versus men's mean DR for each of 14 leader behavior categories. The best-fitting linear regression line is also shown.


Women's Mean DR
0.40
0.20
0.00
-0.20
-0.40
-0.40
-0.20
0.00
0.20
0.40
Target Men's Mean DR


0.40
0.20
0.00
-0.20
-0.40
Men's Mean DR
-0.40
-0.20
0.00
0.20
0.40
Target Men's Mean DR


Women's Mean DR
0.40
0.20
0.00
-0.20
-0.40
-0.40
-0.20
0.00
0.20
0.40
Men's Mean DR