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Gender Ideology and Impressions Toward Opposite-Gendered Coworkers

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Walden University
2019

Abstract

Gender Ideology and Impressions Toward Opposite-Gendered Coworkers

by

Pamela Singleton

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Psychology

Walden University

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Abstract

To achieve organizational effectiveness, leaders must examine what impacts productivity, such as workplace equality for women hindered to the point of exclusion and discrimination. The purpose of this correlational study was to determine if gender ideology, as the predictor variable, and male and female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker, as the criterion variable, predicts an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker, in alignment with gender role theory. The Gender Role Ideology measure was used to assess perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women, and Coworker Resource Scale was used to assess the nature of coworker relationships among 203 middle- to upper-level managers. Data collection was conducted via Survey Monkey and SPSS was used to analyze the data. According to study results, there were no statistically significant correlations between the predictor and criterion variables. However, future research is warranted in relation to opposite-gendered coworkers and their gender ideologies. An in-depth examination of how gender ideologies relate to employee interaction has positive social change implications for workplace attitudes through improved employee cohesiveness as opposed to discrimination and exclusion. The proposed implications for positive social change from workplace attitude awareness include knowledge useful to employees in shifting their gender ideologies, increasing levels of employee interaction, and moving toward a more supportive and satisfactory existence in the workplace.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Gender ideology is defined as an individual's attitudes and beliefs regarding the appropriate roles and behavior for men and women in society (Frable, 1989; Kerr & Holden, 1996; Lersch, 2016). Gender ideology or gender role beliefs are stereotyped beliefs; for example, a traditional gender role belief is that men are supposed to be the financial providers of families (Kray, Howland, Russell, & Jackman, 2017; March, van Dick, & Bark, 2016). Another traditional gender role belief is the paternalistic view of men as the protectors of women (Sarlet, Dumont, Delacollette, & Dardenne, 2012). The behavior of an individual in society is dictated by gender ideology in many aspects from wardrobe to career choices, although patterns continuously change over time (Kaufman & White, 2016). Eagly and Karau, (1991), Eagly and Steffen (1984), and Kaufman and White (2016) suggested a pattern of generic outlooks when it comes to gender ideology (i.e., the traditional perspective of the woman in the home and the man as the breadwinner, versus the egalitarian woman earner role as equally important as the male earner). Role beliefs can be traditional or egalitarian, which is an attitude that promotes higher levels of equality (Sarlet et al., 2012). When the option is available, both men and women prefer an egalitarian relationship structure (Pedulla & Thébaud, 2015).

A person's sex category is that which he or she is perceived to be such as boy or girl, male or female, but is based on gender presentation rather than biology (Hollander, 2013). Schmader and Block (2015) explained that gender identity is the gender-relevant way a person characterizes him or herself that may be different from how others

characterize themselves. Gender identity is a broader definition of by which individuals associate themselves with some characteristics while denying others (Schmader & Block, 2015). Individuals adhere to gender expectations because of socialized conceptions of what their behavior is supposed to be (Hollander, 2013; West & Zimmerman, 1987). People are socialized to gender roles early on through family, peers, and society (Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Eagly, 1983; Haines, Deaux, & Lofaro, 2016), and acceptance reinforces conformity to gender standards (Sarlet et al., 2012). This socialization can then affect the occupational fields some individuals choose in adulthood; this was identified by Wilbourn and Kee (2010) who found that individuals, especially males, feel restricted when it comes to occupational choices, and women continue to perform more domestic-type activities in comparison to men (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). The increase in the number of women choosing what were traditionally considered male roles indicates a shifting of attitude regarding occupational choices for women, but the rate of this attitude change is not as prominent for men (Diekman & Goodfriend 2006; Wilbourn & Kee, 2010). Ingrained biases as to what is acceptable regarding occupational choice based on a person's gender can spill into an individual's attitude toward anyone violating these social norms (Diekman & Goodfriend 2006; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Haines et al., 2016).

Lott (1997) discussed how differential perceptions between males and females begin at birth, dictating a variance in expectations of behaviors between the two. The advancement of women in the workplace is handicapped by expectations due to gender

ideology (Sonnert & Holton, 1996; Weir, Leach, Gamble, & Creedy, 2014). Women

continue to lag in areas of employment that are not in alignment with the traditional

expectations of the roles they play best; social roles are limited by social context where

the man is more dominant than the woman (Koenig & Eagly, 2014). However, single-

parent households led by women have little choice but to defy the traditional views of

domesticity; the image of a good mother is not as easy to maintain for a single mother

(Lott, 1997; Williams, Berdahl, & Vandello, 2016). Organizational members and leaders

could benefit by reshaping social norms reinforced in the workplace regarding what

makes a good man/father or a good woman/mother to reduce identity threat and improve

work-life balance (Williams et al., 2016). Women caring for households must earn a

living, despite any socialized expectations, but dominating male views can hinder their

means of equal footing in the workplace; differences exist between male and female

career paths due to subtle but existent variables (e.g., exclusion and discrimination of

women; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

In addition to the issues of exclusion and discrimination of women,

communication and support are related to gender attitudes. Randles (2016) recognized the

challenges with gendered communication because of socialized gender inequalities; for

couples, the recommendation was to develop more egalitarian gender attitudes to

overcome gendered power struggles and inequality. Although women were more likely to

be promoted to chief executive officer (CEO) than men in struggling organizations, when

the promotion was achieved, there was a routine lack of support, including exclusion

from social and professional workplace networks (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) noted the need to take gender ideology into account to comprehend gender effects in work and family; however, Gaunt and Benjamin did not discuss the effect of the gender perspectives upon interaction in the workplace. Scholars have examined male perspectives about women, as opposed to taking both male and female perspectives into account, as well as the influence of any variances. Lersch (2016) and Minnotte, Minnotte, Pedersen, Mannon, and Kiger (2010) suggested that a man's ideology and resulting behaviors shape his relationships. Negative influence can result when women exhibit nontraditional gender roles (Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017).

Background of the Study

Scholars who studied relationship processes (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017) only focused on personal and domestic relationship issues. Although researchers have examined how male and female ideologies concentrate on male and female interaction in a personal relationship/domestic capacity (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017), the concepts from this research can be transferable to male and female interactions in the workplace as peers (Desai, Chugh, & Brief, 2014).

Traditional marriages are defined as marital structures where the husband provides the financial support, and the wife supports the husband by maintaining the household (Desai et al., 2014). Desai et al. (2014) found that men in traditional marriages are more likely to endorse a negative attitude about women in the workplace, that men

are more likely to deny qualified women promotions in the workplace, and that men are less likely to report workplace efficiencies when the percentage of women was high. The structure of a man's marriage influences the gender ideology he has at work (Desai et al., 2014).

Minnotte et al. (2010) and Kaufman and White (2016) identified the need to take both male and female gender ideologies into account to gain an understanding of each one's experiences, attitudes, and perceptions that have shaped his or her perspectives. Minnotte et al. found that traditional and egalitarian men experienced more relationship satisfaction with women when their ideologies matched. Also, highly egalitarian women experienced higher levels of work-to-family conflict, in that they experienced less relationship satisfaction than traditional women (Minnotte et al., 2010). Kaufman and White found that the traditional man's ideal is for the spouse to work at home versus the reality and expectation of the spouse's monetary contribution to the household. Similar to Minnotte et al., Kaufman and White identified the ideal for the traditional male was for a stay-at-home spouse. There is a perception that life at home is negatively influenced by the spouse being at work and not home, and only the financial benefit outweighs the desire for the spouse to stay at home (Kaufman & White, 2016). The perspective that family happiness is sabotaged by a wife working outside of the home supports the ingrained bias of a traditional mindset of a women's place, a bias that may transfer to the workplace.

Sarlet et al. (2012) demonstrated that context is important to understanding how in-gender relationships preserve protective paternalism. Both women and men prescribed protective paternalism for men in a romantic context, in that intimate relationships have the expectation of help and advice. However, individuals saw protective paternalism as sexist in the workplace. Consequently, when a man breaks this prescription in a romantic context, he could encounter negative repercussions, just as when a woman violates prescriptions regarding gender in the workplace. Sarlet et al. found both men and women prescribed more gender egalitarianism for male-to-female work relationships; also, women identified protective paternalism as low in sexism in a work context, and if they scored higher in the endorsement of this behavior, there was a tendency to prescribe it more.

Disparaging views upon women hinder workforce equality in the form of exclusion and discrimination of women (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). In addition to the issues of exclusion and discrimination of women, communication and support challenges, as well as job insecurity and stress, are related to gender attitudes. Regarding communication, socialized gender inequalities led to gendered communication challenges (Randles, 2016). There was a routine lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks, when women were promoted to high positions in struggling organizations (Glass & Cook, 2016). In situations where men and women both exhibited traditional gender ideologies, men experience more job insecurity and stress than women, which indicated the role gender ideology played in job insecurity

and level of stress (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007; Giunchi, Emanuel, Chambel, & Ghislieri,

2016). The resulting stress (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007; Giunchi et al., 2016) was from the

association of work and breadwinning with the male identity, leading to a higher

vulnerability to job insecurity-related stress. There is a need for some form of

intervention for men with traditional gender ideologies, as well as a need to take the

individual's gender ideology into account to understand gender effects in the workplace.

Considering the role of gender ideology in individual attitudes and perceptions is

essential to improving employee wellbeing, understanding gender differences can lead to

individuals finding careers and career strategies that best align with their personalities

(Giunchi et al., 2016; Sonnert & Holton, 1996).

Zosuls, Miller, Ruble, Martin, and Fabes (2011) claimed that there is limited

research on ways gender affects communication and relationships with peers and how

this effect might affect other-gender relationships across time. Also, Goh, Rad, and Hall

(2017) expressed how sexism in mixed-gender interactions has been overlooked in

studies. A significant opportunity exists for examining the influence of male and female

mindsets upon their engagement with one another in the workplace. Addressing this

research limitation by exploring the dynamics of gender relationships, including male and

female attitudes regarding gender roles, may reveal whether differences in gender

ideologies accounts for the level of support an individual provides to a person's peers.

Problem Statement

Women who are promoted in organizations experience a lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks (Glass & Cook, 2016). Supportive environments are critical to increasing motivation and mitigating burnout (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011). Supportive work environments include social support from others. Nahrgang et al. (2011) discussed how organizations should train supervisors to be better leaders, emphasizing social support and teamwork. Today's workplace reflects the increase in female employment over the past decades (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). An essential step to achieving organizational effectiveness would be to identify issues that are impacting the workplace and hindering employee's supportiveness of one another. As workplace equality for women is hindered to the point of exclusion and discrimination (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014), teamwork and productivity can be affected by the lack of communication and support between opposite-gendered coworkers. The changing workplace culture requires a shift in mindset within the workplace to keep up with a changing world. Scholars who explored relationship processes (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017) only focused on personal and domestic relationship issues; Minnotte et al. (2010) and Zosuls et al. (2011) suggested further studies are needed regarding the dynamics of male-female relationships, as well as examining gender differences by explicitly measuring men's and women's expectations

for their performance (Beauregard, 2012). The effect of gender expectations on the quality of workplace relationships is not currently known.

Masculine cognitive abilities are found to be more significant than feminine cognitive abilities when it comes to occupational success (Gipson, Pfaff, Mendelsohn, Catenacci, & Burke, 2017). The mindset that masculine characteristics are required to succeed discourages women's entry and success in male-dominated occupation-types (Gipson et al., 2017), further increasing workplace inequities. This mindset on gender has led to issues with gendered communication (Randles, 2016) and support among peers (Glass & Cook, 2016), job discrimination, and the exclusion of women in beneficial networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). As supportive work environments can be critical (Nahrgang et al., 2011), it is important to address potential threats to productivity and employee wellbeing by examining factors that affect workplace relationships.

It is unclear whether differences in gender ideologies account for the level of support an individual provides to his or her peers. By examining these relationships and assessing attitudes about gender roles, I addressed a research gap because the nature of relationships has not been examined in relation to opposite-gendered coworkers and their respective gender ideologies. The results from this research may be used to assist organizations in developing appropriate interventions to improve the quality of the workplace relationships.

Personal and domestic relationship processes (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017) can extend to the workplace; however, no scholars have examined the effect of gender expectations on the behavior of employees toward their opposite-gendered coworkers in a work environment or opposite-gendered coworker relationship as in male-to-female coworker and female-to-male coworker relationships. Addressing the research gap identified by Minnotte et al. (2010), I referenced both male and female gender ideologies to attain an understanding of what mental adjustments are necessary to prepare employees for the diverse environments. The effects of gender ideology on opposite-gendered coworker engagement and support toward one another was examined. Responses from both male and female managers in an organization as to the quality of their interactions were examined. Through this examination, the dynamics of male and female workplace relationships and support levels was assessed, as unconditional support has a positive effect on individuals and their relationships (Motschnig-Pitrik & Barrett-Lennard, 2010).

I used gender identity as a moderating variable to assess the relationship between gender ideology and impressions of an individual toward opposite-gendered coworkers. A statistically significant finding would indicate that the strength of an individual's ideology correlates with the level of interaction in terms of communication and support; the quality of the male and female interaction would tend to decrease when an individual's function within the workplace does not align with the male or female traditional expectation or increase when an individual's function does align with the

traditional expectation. Such research is necessary to highlight issues that affect

employee interactions and cohesiveness, resulting in discrimination and exclusion (Brass,

1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study using linear regression

analysis was to address the relationship between gender ideology and employee

impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support

(i.e., comparative impressions of male-to-female and female-to-male pairs). I used gender

ideology as the predictor variable and male and female impressions toward an opposite-

gendered coworker as the criterion variable to determine whether gender ideology

predicts an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker. To examine

whether the gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and

impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, a linear regression was performed

using a predictor variable to predict the outcome variable. In this way, it may be

determined if the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-

gendered coworkers alters significantly depending on whether it is women rating their

interactions with opposite-gendered coworkers or men rating their interactions with

opposite-gendered coworkers. The Gender Role Ideology measure developed by Fuwa

(2014a) was used to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and

women, and the Coworker Resource Scale developed by Omilion-Hodges and Baker

(2013a) was used to evaluate the nature of the relationship between coworkers regarding their impressions of communication and support.

Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

RQ1: Does an individual's gender ideology predict his or her impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support?

$H_0$1: Gender ideology, as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale, does not predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured by the Coworker Resource Scale.

$H_1$1: Gender ideology, as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale, does predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured by the Coworker Resource Scale.

RQ2: Does an individual's gender identity moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support?

$H_0$2: Gender identity does not moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker.

$H_1$2: Gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers.

Theoretical Foundation

Men and women adopt culturally prescribed patterns of behavior. Social role theory, also known as gender role theory, was developed by Eagly in the 1980s and was

useful in exploring this research problem. Eagly (1987) proposed that the behavior men and women exhibit is based on the stereotypes of their respective social roles. Gender expectations remain because men and women are socialized to accept their respective roles and the skills and attitudes developed because of the differing experiences (Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016). By belonging to the respective social categories of male or female, individuals are subjected to expectations of behavior as men or women (Eagly & Diekman, 2006; Haines et al., 2016). Workforce roles require qualities considered masculine, and domesticity requires qualities that are considered feminine, explained the shift of men to paid employment and women to domestic roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; March et al., 2016). Masculine cognitive abilities were found to be effective qualities for occupational success (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Gipson et al., 2017). The mindset that masculine characteristics are required for success and prestige in male-dominated occupations can discourage women's entry and success into such occupations (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Gipson et al., 2017; Sonnert & Holton, 1996). These gender roles are less favorable for women in comparison to men in work contexts (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015).

Social role theory was helpful in explaining the social psychological factors pertaining to men prescribing chivalrous and assertive behavior and women tending to help more when unobserved (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). When observed, women lacked confidence and comfort because of the lack of appropriate sex-typed skills but tended to overcome those perceived limitations when unobserved, indicating role commitment as a

result of social norms rather than innate dispositions (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Mulder, Pouwelse, Lodewijkx, & Bolman, 2014). Social role theory (Eagly, 1987) was used to examine male-female impressions and interaction in the workplace based upon expectations from existing gender stereotypes. These expectations can be traditional with typical attitudes such as the man is the breadwinner (March et al., 2016; Kaufman & White, 2016) or egalitarian, which is a more nontraditional attitude that promotes higher levels of equality.

As attitudes regarding gender roles influence a person's beliefs about what behavior is appropriate for men and women (March et al., 2016), it is expected that social role theory should explain how men and women perceive one another, as well as their resulting communications and support of one another in the work environment. Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) used gender role theory as a framework for their study on gender ideology's role in the experience of job insecurity. Gaunt and Benjamin adopted Hochschild's (1989) concept that an individual derives his or her sense of identity and that of his or her partner by the social roles of breadwinner or homemaker. A traditional man's attitude will align with a traditional woman's in their respective roles as breadwinner and homemaker (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007). Gender role theory has been used to explain attitudes on male and female interaction in a personal relationship/domestic capacity (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017), stress from being in gender incompatible roles (Sobiraj, 2015; Pleck 1981, 1995), and marital influences upon gender ideology work (Desai et al., 2014). In this study, I may

determine that individuals' gender attitudes are related to their impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, especially with regard to traditional perspectives of work for men and homemaking for women.

Nature of the Study

In this quantitative research, I identified how gender ideology relates to an individual's impression toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. Because the goal was to examine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between these variables, a quantitative approach was the best method for this research. For gender ideology, the Gender Role Ideology measure developed by Fuwa (2014a) was used to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women. This instrument is composed of five statements with responses ranging from 0 (*strongly agree*) to 4 (*strongly disagree*), and scores are from 0 being *the most traditional attitude* to 20 as *the most egalitarian attitude*. For male and female coworker relationships, the Coworker Resource Scale developed by Omilion-Hodges and Baker (2013a) was used to assess work relationships. This 40-item scale consists of nine subscales (career advancement, friendship, nonverbal communication, verbal communication, affective, developmental, evaluative, informational, and temporal resources), and it can be used to evaluate the nature of the relationship between coworkers. Participants were instructed to keep all employees of the opposite gender in mind while addressing Coworker Resource Scale questions.

The Gender Role Ideology measure developed by Fuwa (2014a) was also used to assess attitudes. The Gender Role Ideology measure was used to determine if gender ideology predicts impressions; I examined whether gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworker. I used the Gender Role Ideology measure to determine whether a relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers exists and if the relationship differs depending on whether it is women rating their interactions with opposite-gendered coworkers or men rating their interactions with opposite-gendered coworkers.

I used moderated multiple regression to assess the relationship between gender ideology as the predictor variable, gender identity as the moderating variable, and the impressions of an individual toward opposite-gendered coworkers as the outcome variable. A statistically significant finding would have indicated that the strength of an individual's ideology negatively correlates with the level of interaction in terms of communication and support, (i.e., the stronger a man's position of a traditional ideology, the lower his communication and support level with a woman in a role that does not fit within this ideology). That the quality of the male and female interaction would tend to decrease when the woman's function within the workplace falls outside of the scope of the man's perception of what her role should be.

Definitions

I used gender ideology as the predictor variable, and I used male and female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as the criterion variable. Definitions of these and other terms are provided to add clarity.

Benevolent sexism: The characterization of women as nurturing and caring while inferring women are inferior to men and in need of protection (Miller & Borgida, 2016; Sarlet et al., 2012).

Gender: Conceptualizing a person as male or female based upon the context of society (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Oosterveld, 2014).

Gender identity: Characterizing a person as either male or female (Martin, 2000; Schmader & Block, 2015).

Gender ideology: An individual's attitudes and beliefs regarding the appropriate roles and behavior for men and women in society (Kerr & Holden, 1996; Lersch, 2016).

Protective paternalism: Belief that men are the protectors of women. (Sarlet et al., 2012).

Assumptions

I assumed that survey respondents would keep opposite-gendered coworkers in general in mind when responding to survey questions, as opposed to answering survey questions with opposite-gendered coworkers in mind. The purpose was to assess the individuals' general impressions of the opposite gender. This distinction is significant to prevent individuals from reflecting on exception-type relationships where they may show

greater levels of support and communication. For example, if a male respondent typically defers to other men over women in the organization with the exception of one particular woman, his responses may be skewed if he focuses his impressions of and interactions with that particular woman when responding to the survey.

Middle- to upper-level managers from various areas were surveyed. It was assumed that targeting managers in organizations who regularly interact with others in the workplace should increase generalizability to similar organizations. The desired result was to highlight issues that affect employee interactions and cohesiveness resulting in discrimination and exclusion (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014) due to the gender ideology of individuals.

It was assumed the participants would follow the survey instructions because the instructions were outlined, and I assumed that the participants would willingly and honestly respond to the survey questions because the participants had the option to opt out for any reason. It was assumed that all participants would comprehend the survey questions because the questions were simple and straightforward. Last, I assumed that the measurement instruments would accurately measure what they were intended to measure.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study involved gender ideology and employee impressions. Surveys were sent to middle-to upper-level managers to examine the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. Middle- to upper-level managers were chosen

because of the discussions on gender inequities in leadership, similar to Wahl (2014) and Glass and Cook (2016).

The intention of this study was assurance of an equal representation of the population of both males and females. The survey respondents were instructed to keep all opposite-gendered coworkers in mind when responding to survey questions, as opposed to answering survey questions about opposite gender individuals, as stated in the assumptions. The responses may vary based on whether the individual is responding to opposite gender in terms of opposite biological sex or gender identification. I addressed impressions toward the opposite gender, so opposite gender is in terms of the individual's perceived gender, which was subjective.

Limitations

I assumed that participants would provide honest responses to surveys; however, there are flaws in self-reporting as expressed by Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) and Kroska (2009) where individuals respond in manners deemed socially acceptable as opposed to their true perspectives (Bäckström & Björklund, 2013; McKibben & Silvia, 2016). As the goal of further research should be the attainment of a significant association between the variables of gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered peers, a quantitative approach was a sufficient method for this research despite the self-reporting flaws. Any potential negative effect from self-reporting flaws should be offset by stressing responses to surveys remain confidential, thereby promoting the need to respond honestly. In this time of the #TimesUp and #Me

Too movements (Sigurdsson, 2018), confidentiality is important as participants may otherwise fear retaliation for honest gender-related responses.

The assurance of confidentiality mitigates the potential threat to validity from instrumentation because respondents felt no threat of self-incrimination for honest responses. A final limitation related to international generalizability. The participants for the study were from various areas in the United States, so it is plausible to consider generalizability domestically. However, like Desai et al. (2014) explained, it is unclear as to how this study's results can be generalized to other countries with more evolved gender attitudes.

Significance of the Study

In this study, I addressed this gap in terms of the relationship between gender ideology and impressions of men and women toward their opposite-gendered coworkers in the workplace. This study was unique because it provided a more in-depth examination of how conflicting gender ideologies can relate to employee exchange in terms of communication and support. Workplace equality for women is hindered to the point of exclusion and discrimination (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014), and requiring masculine characteristics to succeed may discourage women's entry and success in male-dominated occupation-types (Gipson et al., 2017), further increasing workplace inequities. Segregating work by gender places limitations on the individuals' choice of occupation; when a man or woman has the talent to succeed in an occupation that is not considered in alignment with his or her gender, this may get in the way of talents to serve

the common good (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2015). The implications for positive social

change from workplace attitude awareness this research brings include knowledge useful

to employees in shifting their gender ideologies, increasing levels of employee interaction

(communication and support) and moving toward a more supportive and satisfactory

existence in the workplace.

I identified recommendations for improving communications and support levels

through the finding of factors needed for growth. Motschnig-Pitrik and Barrett-Lennard

(2010) found that unconditional support has a positive effect on individuals and their

relationships. I identified the need for the improvement or alignment of ideologies. The

long-term result of gender ideology awareness should include more well-adjusted

employees who celebrate the success of their peers. Recognizing factors that make an

individual thrive, such as support, should assist with successfully identifying methods for

the improvement of employee mindsets and interactions.

A contribution to social change may be improved employee interaction from more

effective collaboration between men and women, because individual awareness of gender

bias and evidence of the harmful repercussions can encourage people to monitor and

control their perceptions in the future (Parker, Monteith, Moss-Racusin, & Van Camp,

2018). Awareness of the relationship between gender attitudes and employee perceptions

should improve employee mindsets in their interactions, which can extend to society

because of the changed attitudes and life skills learned by the employees. These strengths

can be a foundation that are passed along to the employees' family members and

communities. The improved support systems and the newly cultivated impressions can be used to establish healthy relationships for the betterment of organizations.

Summary

Through the finding of a significant effect upon opposite-gendered coworker interaction, I identified the need for the improvement or alignment of ideologies. Improved employee interaction should lead to more effective collaboration between men and women; this will extend to society because of the changed attitudes and life skills learned by the employees. These strengths can be a foundation that is passed along to the employees' family members and communities. The improved support systems and the newly cultivated impressions can be used to establish healthy relationships for the betterment of society.

Chapter 1 provided an introduction and background to the problem and highlights the significance of conducting research on the influence of gender ideology on workplace relationships. This first chapter included the research questions and hypotheses, as well as potential limitations. Chapter 2 contains an integrated review of current literature, highlighting identified gaps and justification for new research. Chapter 3 contains a discussion on data collection for the study, as well as research methodology and procedures. Chapter 4 contains the statistical analysis and research results. Finally, conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations are included in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Gender role attitudes influence a person's beliefs about what behavior is appropriate for men and women (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007) and how men perceived their female counterparts as less qualified than themselves; therefore, women lack similar support in terms of acceptance in leadership roles. Because of perceived inadequacies regarding women's qualifications (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), men excluded women from social and professional networks associated with the workplace (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). Brass (1985) found that women were not perceived as influential as men, and women received fewer promotions than men in male-dominated networks; this disparity occurred despite a lack of difference on a majority of predictor variables such as performance.

Low inclusion in male-dominated networks was related to the women's influence level within the workplace and career advancement (i.e., "the glass ceiling"; Brass, 1985). When women are excluded and have limited collaboration opportunities, their power and effectiveness in the organization are hindered (Brass, 1985). This effect on intergender interactions is not conducive to effective collaboration. Slightly over 78% of women interviewed reported incidents of discrimination, such as denial of jobs and less collaboration; some were ignored or treated as subordinates (Sonnert & Holton, 1996). The discrepancy in support of men over women can have a direct effect on women's well-being, as unconditional support has a positive effect on individuals and their relationships (Motschnig-Pitrik & Barrett-Lennard, 2010). Kraus and Chen (2009) found

that people gravitate toward that which leads to achievement of their goals; supportive

environments lead to healthier relationships, and lack of support and validation leads to

dissatisfaction (Nahrgang et al., 2011). Improvement in the workplace situation for

women in terms of inclusion and support can improve employee satisfaction (Nahrgang

et al., 2011).

There is a multitude of research involving relationship processes focused on

issues such as dating and marriage (Desai, 2014; Minnotte et al., 2010), but few scholars

focused on understanding the dynamics and development of male-female relationships

(Zosuls et al., 2011), especially in the workplace (Minnotte, Minnotte, & Pedersen,

2013). The opportunity exists to examine the relationship between gender ideology and

how men and women behave toward one another in the workplace, as well as the

relationship of their impressions to their wellbeing and workplace satisfaction.

Despite the challenges that women encounter (i.e., lower pay than men and

exclusion from networks; Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014),

women continue to have a strong presence in the workplace. Although there appears to be

a trend toward more egalitarian attitudes (Donnelly et al., 2016) and the strength of

traditional norms may be dissipating, traditional masculinity ideology continues to

encourage men to comply with the masculine behaviors expected of their male role

norms (Levant & Richmond, 2016). An awakening is required to identify how traditional

gender ideology can lead to a lack of team harmony and decreased work productivity;

gender alienation and exclusion result when an individual believes a person's presence in

the workplace is unacceptable because of his or her perceived social role (Coughlin &

Wade, 2012; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Miller & Borgida, 2016).

Scholars exploring relationship processes (Minnotte et al., 2010) only focus on

personal and domestic relationship issues; Minnotte et al. (2010) and Zosuls et al. (2011)

suggested the need for further studies regarding the dynamics of male-female

relationships and studies examining gender differences by measuring men's and women's

expectations for their performance (Beauregard, 2012). An in-depth examination of how

conflicting gender ideologies relate to employee exchange regarding communication and

support can have positive social change implications for workplace attitudes.

This chapter contains the examination of existing literature regarding gender

ideology to identify what research exists and what needs to be discovered. The first

section contains a discussion of the search strategy used to locate the literature supporting

the topic of gender ideology, including search terms and databases to enable easy

duplication of searches. The next section contains the theoretical foundation, which in

this case is gender role theory, or social role theory, how similar studies used the theory,

and how gender role theory was useful in understanding how men and women behave

toward one another in the workplace based upon expectations from existing gender

stereotypes.

I found connections to the topic as well as the areas that were not yet explored and

needed to be studied to understand workplace dynamics. The hypothesis is that gender

identity, and a person's gender ideology, is positively related to an individual's

impressions of behavior. Any existing literature regarding the variables of gender ideology and workplace impressions should enhance this study to see whether a statistically significant relationship exists.

Literature Search Strategy

In the literature search for this gender ideology study, I mainly used data obtained from peer-reviewed journals retrieved from ABI/INFORM Complete and EBSCOhost. The databases used were PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, SocINDEX with Full Text, and SAGE Premiere. Various combinations of the following keywords were used for the search: *gender ideology, gender construct, gender role, sex role, employee, workplace, personnel, relation, peer, engagement, interaction, women, men, norms, behavior, impressions, attitude, stress*, and *advancement*. These keywords have been useful in gathering information on how gender ideologies affect employee interactions, as well as how particular mindsets regarding gender may affect other areas (i.e., stress and advancement).

The searches began with the removal of the full-text field to develop a full search of relevant articles. Gender ideolog* was used in the search to gather all forms of the work ideology (i.e., ideology, ideologies). The first search field included gender ideolog* or gender construct or gender role or sex role. The second search field included employee or workplace or personnel. The third search field included relation or peer. After the running the search and obtaining relevant articles, the date range was scaled back to ensure reference to the most recent research for identifying and confirming the current

research gap. Because the focus was mainly on workplace interactions, articles were ruled out if they related to personal or domestic relationships as opposed to workplace interactions.

The searches began with the Boolean operator of and, later adding the operator of or, to focus the searches for results on gender ideology and employee interactions. Using and/or operators generated results particular to the needs of this gender ideology/employee interaction research, and disregards that which is not applicable.

Using gender ideology as opposed to gender and ideolog* proved helpful in generating articles particularly applicable. Using just ideolog* tended to go into a broader direction regarding beliefs in general. Using both gender ideolog* and employee led to an overlap where both terms occur; as this overlap is not particularly extensive, the use of peer or relation generated additional applicable results.

Theoretical Foundation

Gender Role Theory

Despite the absence of empirical evidence that men and women differ regarding capabilities or effectiveness in workplace roles, both men and women display consistent role expectations and social behaviors. According to gender role theory, also known as social role theory (Eagly, 1987), the behavior men and women exhibit is based on the stereotypes of their respective social roles. Gender role beliefs are stereotyped beliefs regarding the behavior of men and women (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). According to gender role theory, people behave in a manner aligned to their gender roles exhibiting

qualities that are attributed to their respective roles (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Socially, men

and women are placed at different status levels, where men are placed at higher levels

with more influence and power, and women are expected to be complacent; natural-life

experiences with these structures creates an expectation of behavior in society (Eagly,

1983).

  Women are perceived to be selfless as compared to men who are more assertive;

regardless of sex, homemakers are considered to be more communal and employees high

in agency because of the perceived notion of male and female roles in society (Eagly &

Steffen, 1984). Men are perceived as self-assured, dominant, and independent, as

opposed to women who are more communal than men and who have tendencies toward

helpfulness, sympathy, and warmth (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 1991). Men

are viewed as more chivalrous (Wahl, 2014) and women more nurturing (Hesmondhalgh

& Baker, 2015); however, per Eagly and Crowley (1986), although women are perceived

as helpers, women receive more help from men than from other women. Because women

receive more help from men than from other women, I created this study's hypothesis

that a traditional woman may expect a man to be chivalrous and may view a woman's

presence in the workplace as a social role violation. Women tended to help more when

unobserved (Eagly & Crowley, 1986), which indicates an individual's conformance to

social roles in public. This conformance may partially explain why gender expectations

remain, as some men and women are socialized to accept their respective roles (Eagly,

1987; Haines et al., 2016).

Those who are in positions of disseminating knowledge perpetrate the existence of this status inequality through education and nurturing, such as teachers and parents, preparing the youth for their social roles and continuing these patterns of expected behavior (Eagly, 1983). Role theory provides a basis for explaining how socialization plays a role in the expectations of society at home, in communities, and in the workplace. As I addressed how gender ideologies relate to employee impressions of behavior toward opposite-gendered coworkers, it is beneficial to understand how these impressions arise. In role theory, both men and women adhere to these gender expectations, as there is a socialization of individuals to adhere to these stereotypical views of homemaker versus employee (Eagly & Steffen, 1984).

Gender identity is an individual's gender-relevant way of characterizing his or herself that may be different from how others characterize themselves; it is a broader definition by which individuals associate themselves with some characteristics while denying others (Schmader & Block, 2015). Schmader and Block (2015) explained that gender identity is shaped by the traits and behaviors a person expresses. The tendency to self-stereotype as either communal or agentic is supported by balance identify theory (Greenwald et al., 2002; Schmader & Block, 2015), a framework that aids in comprehending self-categorization.

Evolution of Gender Role Theory: Role Congruity Theory

The main principle of gender role theory was that men and women behave in a particular, expected manner (Eagly, 1987). Proponents of role congruity theory

emphasize that when men and women commit violations of social role expectations, such behavior is not met favorably (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Hollander 2013). Miller and Borgida (2016) stated those who violate gender stereotypes by crossing realms that are typically attributed to a particular gender face backlash and other negative workplace behaviors. When a person breaks gender rules, such as chivalry in a romantic context, or when a person violates social rules regarding gender in the workplace, each can suffer negative repercussions for the violations (Sarlet et al., 2012). Women are sometimes viewed negatively when displaying demeanors associated with maleness, such as assertiveness (Wahl, 2014), and men in traditional marriages tended to look unfavorably upon women in the workplace (Minnotte et al., 2010), as their presence in the workplace rather than the home is considered a role congruence violation (Desai et al., 2014).

   People reject those who commit violations to expected role behavior, which supports role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002); individuals who behave contrary to their social roles in the workplace may not be successful. Role congruity theory was partly developed from social role theory and indicates a prejudice toward individuals in roles that elicit characteristics that are perceived as incongruous to their respective nature (Eagly, 2004; Eagly & Diekman, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002). The same displeasure against incongruence for women is noted for men in that men tend to avoid career roles that are female-dominated (Sobiraj, Rigotti, Weseler, & Mohr, 2015). Men are perceived to be a better fit for roles requiring dominant and assertive characteristics that are congruent with their masculine nature (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When women display

assertive behaviors in the workplace this behavior is not considered positive in some instances (Wahl, 2014).

Schmader and Block (2015) explained that when an individual identifies with a particular group, this association can lead that person to avoid careers that are not socially aligned with his or her gender, such as a woman avoiding math and science when those fields are perceived as masculine. If the woman believes that math and science are not socially acceptable to her gender, she can experience cognitive imbalance by pursuing math and science (Greenwald et al., 2002; Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). When stereotypes are commonly shared, they become more linked to a person's identity (Schmader & Block, 2015), which corroborates how stereotype threat prevents women from making career choices that are inconsistent with their cultural norms (Ezzedeen, Budworth, & Baker, 2015). These stereotypes can also lead to a man's tendency to avoid career roles that are female-dominated (Sobiraj et al., 2015), because men are perceived to be a better fit for roles requiring characteristics that are congruent to masculinity (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Years after Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Eagly and Karau (2002), social role attitudes remain and are affecting the workplace, as issues involving gender ideology and workplace roles remain (e.g., Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Glass & Cook, 2016). Hoyt and Burnette (2013) found that negative attitudes and stereotypes led to prejudice against women from perceived role incongruence in leadership positions. The attitudes of individuals toward women in leadership roles were expressed through biased evaluations,

which supports the premise of role congruity theory (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). Men were thought to be higher in agency (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013), and high agency was perceived to be a requirement for good leadership; hence, the bias against women and preference toward men in leader evaluations (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

Bias toward male leadership can lead women to perceive obstacles to their career paths. Ezzedeen et al. (2015) explored women's concerns with perceived barriers to advancement and found that women agree the glass ceiling remains. Ezzedeen et al. (2015) suggested that this stereotype threat prevents women from making career choices that are inconsistent with their cultural norms, which causes feelings of alienation from the more career-focused executives with whom these women cannot identify. Ezzedeen et al. (2015) indicated how alienation could exist not only between men and women because of social role expectations, but also between women and other women in terms of discomfort with perceived career inconsistencies (Sobiraj, Rigotti, Weseler, & Mohr, 2015). The expectation of the current study is a difference depending on the direction, male-to-female versus female-to-male (i.e., a woman may show more positive behavior/greater support toward a man than a man toward a woman in the assessments). Role congruity theory provides support for how there would be less support and communication toward individuals who behave in a manner incongruous to the roles they are expected to hold. Also, as Ezzedeen et al. (2015) stated, role congruity theory may explain why some women are less supportive of one another in the workplace due to

perceived views of social roles, more specifically the traditional women versus the career-focused women with whom they feel incompatible.

Although other theories may be useful to providing a foundation for this study, researchers (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 2002) have proven that gender role and role congruity theories are useful to explaining the role of gender expectations in individual attitudes. It was expected that gender role and role congruity theories would also be useful to predicting workplace interactions. I stopped reviewing here due to time constraints. Please go through the rest of your chapter and look for the patterns I pointed out to you. I will now look at your Chapter 3.

Literature Review

Studies related to gender ideology were reviewed, inclusive of any connections or weaknesses in relation to the hypothesis that gender identity and gender ideology are positively related to how opposite-gender employees engage with one another. Numerous studies were located on gender role and role congruent theories, and they provided a solid foundation of research upon which to base a legitimate hypothesis. A comprehensive review clarified the necessity to examine the dynamics of male and female relationships as was emphasized by authors such as Minnotte et al. (2010) and Zosuls et al. (2011).

Gender Ideology and Employee Impressions

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between gender ideologies and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. This study used gender ideology as the predictor variable

and male and female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as the criterion variable to address the following questions: Does gender ideology influence an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker? Does the gender identity/nature of the opposite-gendered coworker relationship (male-to-female coworker versus female-to-male coworker) moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker?

A review of gender ideology-focused research indicated that although there are numerous findings on gender bias and gender inequality, empirical gaps exist regarding the specific effect of gender ideologies on the impressions of employees toward opposite-gendered coworkers. Past gender role theory research explained attitude contexts such as male and female interaction in a personal relationship/domestic capacity (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017), stress from being in gender incompatible roles (Sobiraj, 2015; Pleck 1981, 1995), and marital influences upon gender ideology at work (Desai et al., 2014). However, research is lacking regarding the role of an individual's gender ideology in the treatment of their peers. Research showed an alienation of women from significant networks (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). Women are alienated not just from men but also from other women (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). There is also a lack of support for women in high positions (Glass & Cook, 2016). The current study addressed the specific problem of whether differences in gender ideologies account for the level of communication and support an individual provides to his or her peers.

Existing research examined domestic influences upon workplace ideologies. Using a sample of 993 married, heterosexual, male full-time workers across five studies, Desai et al. (2014) examined the implications of marriage structures on attitudes in the workplace. Desai et al. (2014) found that men in traditional marriages are more likely endorse a negative attitude about women in the workplace, that men are more likely to deny qualified women promotions in the workplace, and that men are less likely to report workplace efficiencies when the percentage of women was high. Consistent results across multiple studies employing multiple methods showed that the structure of a man's marriage influences the gender ideology he has at work. Similarly, Minnotte et al. (2010) connected the relationship of gender ideology in reactions to the opposite gender when they hypothesized how gender ideology moderates the relationships between work-to-family conflict and marital satisfaction. Role beliefs can be traditional or egalitarian, which is an attitude that promotes higher levels of equality (Sarlet et al., 2012). Minnotte et al. (2010) found that the nature of the male/female relationship changed based upon similarity and difference in ideologies (traditional or egalitarian).

Desai et al. (2014) identified negative attitudes of traditional men toward women in the workplace and the influence of their marital structure on their workplace gender ideology; Minnotte et al. (2010) identified the relationship of gender attitudes to marital contentment. For example, work-to–family conflict was more detrimental to marital satisfaction for strongly egalitarian women as compared to more traditional women; the spouse' work-to-family conflict correlated to all men's marital satisfaction, and similar

ideologies were positively related to marital satisfaction (Minnotte et al., 2010). Minnotte

et al. (2010) randomly surveyed 156 dual-earner couples from an American western state

and identified the need to take both male and female gender ideologies into account to

gain a complete understanding of each person's experiences, attitudes, and perceptions

that have shaped his or her perspectives. Minnotte et al. (2010) found that traditional and

extremely egalitarian men experienced more relationship satisfaction with women when

their ideologies matched, and highly egalitarian women experienced higher levels of

work-to-family conflict, in that they experienced less relationship satisfaction than

traditional women.

Desai et al. (2014) and Minnotte et al. (2010) achieved an interesting parallel with

regard to gender attitudes and individual behavior; however, further research would be

useful to extending gender attitudes effects to the work environment. Desai et al. (2014)

only surveyed men, and the authors noted the study limitation as to issues of job

performance and satisfaction; they urged further research on other variables to

comprehend workplace interactions, as well as an examination of women's attitudes in

the workplace. Although Minnotte et al. (2010) examined gender ideologies with regard

to relationships, the authors specifically focused on work-to-family conflict. The

Minnotte et al. (2010) study is highly instrumental to gender ideology-behavior

discussions; however, it is possible that an individual's attitude at work does not equate

to his or her attitude at home. Additional research may more fully explain how a person's

life outside of work affects how he or she treats others at work (Desai et al., 2014).

A disparity between work and home gender attitudes was identified in existing research. Studies conducted by Sarlet et al. (2012) demonstrated that context is important to understanding how gender relationships preserve protective paternalism. Sarlet et al. (2012) conducted five studies using Caucasian undergraduates; the findings were that both women and men prescribed protective paternalism for men in a romantic context, in that help and advice are expected in intimate relationships. However, in the workplace protective paternalism was viewed as sexist. Consequently, when a man breaks this prescription in a romantic context he could encounter negative repercussions, just as when a woman violates prescriptions regarding gender in the workplace (Miller & Borgida, 2016; Sarlet et al., 2012).

Sarlet et al. (2012) found both men and women prescribed more gender egalitarianism for male-to-female work relationships; also, women identified protective paternalism as very low in sexism in a work context, and if they scored higher in the endorsement of this behavior, there was a tendency to prescribe it more. Equality may be preferred in work relationships while at the same time the view of men as the protectors of women exists, a mixture of egalitarian and traditional attitudes. The disparity in attitudes between work and family can explain why protective paternalism is maintained in male-female relationships (Sarlet et al., 2012), and highlights the weakness of the Minnotte et al. (2010) as it pertains to this hypothesis; as work and home gender role attitudes can differ.

Donnelly et al. (2016) surveyed a sample of high school teenagers and then a sample of adults to examine attitude trends toward women's roles and found increased egalitarian attitudes in recent years regarding women in the workplace; however, there was a higher favor of traditional attitudes regarding women inside the home. Paradoxical attitudes are maintained by women's selection of some aspects of feminism and rejection of others (Donnelly et al., 2016). This is similar to the revelation that an individual's attitude at work does not equate to his or her attitude at home, in that equality may be preferred in work relationships while as the same time viewing men as the protectors of women (a paternalistic view): a mixture of egalitarian and traditional attitudes (Sarlet et al., 2012).

The disparity in attitudes between work and family can explain why protective paternalism is maintained in male-female relationships (Sarlet et al., 2012). Also, benevolent sexism which characterizes women as nurturing and caring, but infers that women are inferior to men and in need of protection (Miller & Borgida, 2016; Sarlet et al., 2012). Both men and women identified protective paternalism as less acceptable at work, but women did not identify this protective behavior as considerably sexist, which can explain why protective paternalism is maintained in male-female relationships (Goh et al., 2017; Sarlet et al., 2012). Both Donnelly et al. (2016) and Sarlet et al. (2012) highlighted how attitudes regarding women's roles were inconsistent between work and home, thereby supporting the goal for this study of examining the effects on communication and support in work relationships; as women will continue to work

outside of the home there is a need for programs that support working women (Donnelly et al., 2016). Although the inconsistency of attitudes served to maintain traditional role expectations of women between work and home, this study provided further support for the need of programs to support, rather than exclude, to maintain work-life balance.

The repercussions suffered from a violation of prescriptions in romantic contexts, as identified by Sarlet et al. (2012), were noted in the avoidance of work roles that violate social expectations (Sobiraj et al., 2015). Sobiraj et al. (2015) surveyed men in female-dominated occupations and men in male-dominated occupations and found that men tended to avoid work that was considered feminine, and when a man with a masculine ideology took on a role in a female-dominated occupation, he suppressed his behavior to cope with his work role. However, the man's suppression of his identity provoked negative social reactions and led to psychological strain (Sobiraj et al., 2015). The social role violation of men failing to take on the protective role with women in romantic contexts is viewed unfavorably (Sarlet et al., 2012), just as the violation of social rules by men taking on feminine work roles was likewise viewed unfavorably, and the men were stressed by the perceived violation (Sobiraj et al. (2015).

Sobiraj et al. (2015) suggested that future research evaluate how supervisors and peers react to men in female-dominated occupations where they maintain ideologies of masculinity to assist with comprehending social interaction at work. Although Levant and Richmond (2016) found the strength of traditional norms may be dissipating, traditional masculinity ideology continued to encourage men to comply with the masculine

behaviors expected of their male role norms. Another interesting future research suggestion was to explore whether the coworkers and supervisors of the men also experience social stressors and strain from males being in female-dominated roles or if masculinity ideology is just a dysfunction for the men themselves (Sobiraj, 2015; Pleck 1981, 1995). Addressing this question is a major factor in this premise of gender role expectations affecting communications and support levels in relationships. If gender ideology does indeed predict how men and women interact and support one another, such a factor is pertinent to developing teams and maintaining organizational health.

In a quantitative examination of the relationships between gender, job insecurity, and stress, Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) surveyed married employees and identified the role gender ideology played in job insecurity and level of stress. Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) found that, in situations where men and women both exhibit traditional gender ideologies, men experienced more job insecurity and stress than women. Similarly, Sobiraj et al. (2015) identified the tendency of men to avoid female-dominated industries because it contradicts the social norm regarding masculinity and could lead to elevated levels of stress. Each supported the premise that gender ideology affects attitudes regarding gender roles so strongly that deviations are not easily acceptable and lead to stress (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007; Sobiraj et al., 2015). Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) suggested the need for some form of intervention for men with traditional gender ideologies, which supports a negative effect of gender attitudes on employee well-being but does not specifically address employee interactions and impressions toward one

another. However, the connection of stress level to an individual's gender attitudes supports the significance of further examining the effects of gender ideology.

Gender Role and Role Congruity Studies

Gender role beliefs can be traditional in that men are supposed to be the financial providers of families (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007; Kray et al., 2017; March et al., 2016), and that men are the protectors of women (Sarlet et al., 2012). Role beliefs can also be more egalitarian (Kaufman & White, 2016; March et al., 2016), which is a more non-traditional attitude of equality. Women are sometimes viewed as nurturing and communal in nature (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2015), whereas men may be viewed as assertive (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Wahl, 2014). Also, the high agency perception of men is viewed as necessary for leadership (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

Using computer-based information searches, three types of studies were conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990): organizational studies, as in an examination of leadership styles in an organizational (workplace) setting; laboratory experiments; and assessment studies. Eagly and Johnson (1990) compared the leadership styles of men and women to identify whether stereotypic sex differences were less obvious in organizational studies in comparison to laboratory studies and found that the criteria used for manager selection and how the managers socialized into their roles affect their leadership behavior. The women abandoned stereotypical feminine leadership styles in situations where female leadership was rare. The suggestion was that women would need

to adopt the styles of men to maintain authority, especially when positioned in male-dominated roles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Eagly and Johnson's research supported the effect of gender attitudes on individual behavior but did not specifically address gender attitudes' effects on male-to-female interaction.

Workplace inequality was seen in the devaluing of feminine skills; masculine cognitive abilities were found to be more significant than feminine cognitive abilities when it comes to occupational success (Gipson, Pfaff, Mendelsohn, Catenacci, & Burke, 2017). Men were placed at higher levels of influence and power, and women were expected to be complacent. Men and women were socialized to maintain the expectation of men in higher status than women; this expectation affected the way men and women interact socially in a way that encouraged them to hold to their respective social roles (Eagly, 1983). The possibility exists that these social expectations of power for men and complacency for women leads to the issues women face in the workplace, as there was a routine lack of support for women, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014), and there was sometimes bias against women and preference toward men in leader evaluations (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

Brass (1985) emphasized the importance of gaining influence in an organization and of understanding factors that affect the perception of influence. In a quantitative study of the interaction patterns and the relationship of those patterns to the perception of male and female influence levels, Brass (1985) surveyed nonsupervisory male and female

employees and found that women were not perceived as influential as the men. Women

received fewer promotions than men in male-dominated networks; this disparity occurred

despite a lack of difference on a majority of predictor variables such as performance

(Brass, 1985). Similarly, Windels and Mallia (2015) found that women lacked legitimacy

and were limited to types of work based on gender expectations. Women were less

included in male-dominated networks, and this exclusion was greatly related to the

women's influence level within the workplace and career advancement, in other words

"the glass ceiling" (Brass, 1985). When women are excluded and have limited

collaboration opportunities, their power and effectiveness in the organization are

hindered (Brass, 1985) as well as their learning (Windels & Mallia, 2015).

The Brass (1985) study supported how gender attitudes affect intergender

interactions in terms of not being conducive to effective collaboration. Conducting this

study has taken research a necessary step further by examining the dynamics of the male-

female employee interaction regarding gender expectations, thereby adding the

dimension of gender expectations to the issue of exclusion and limited collaboration

found by Brass (1985) and Windels and Mallia (2015). There were notable insights

gained from this study.

In an effort to determine whether differences in motivation for power attributed to

the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions, Schuh et al. (2014) found that

women scored lower in power motivation; although lower power motivation was one

factor for the underrepresentation of women, explicit and implicit gender discrimination

contributed substantially to the gender differences in leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Schuh et al., 2014). The implication was that fostering motivation within women can help with a more equal distribution of gender in leadership (Schuh et al., 2014). However, the real issue can be why women have lower power motivation and lower representation.

Although Schuh et al. (2014) identified the benefit of increasing women's power motivation, a study that gets to the root of the lower motivation, such as gender role expectations, would be practical in addressing the deeper concerns. Women were seen in a negative light when displaying assertiveness (Wahl, 2014), which is socially attributed as male behavior (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). Evidence has shown that marital satisfaction suffers for traditional men with working spouses (Minnotte et al., 2010). A working woman violates the gender role expectation of taking care of the household. Likewise, gender role expectations are prevalent in the workplace, as seen by the preference of men as leaders (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Stoker, Van der Velde, and Lammers, 2012) and how men were perceived as more suitable for leadership (Wahl, 2014). Although there appears to be a shifting of perception of women's leadership effectiveness over men's (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014), women are still not being compensated in the same way regarding pay and promotions (Dworkin, Schipani, Milliken, & Kneeland, 2018). Low power motivation in women is a concern (Schuh et al., 2014); the hope was that by examining the role of gender expectations in gender relationships the reasons behind the attitudes of peers towards one another in the workplace would be revealed.

Desai et al. (2014) identified the need to concentrate more on women's attitudes in the workplace. Women in male-dominated fields who failed to strongly identify with their female gender group tended to favor male over female subordinates (Kaiser & Spalding, 2015), leading to kicking rather than lifting: a within-gender expression of bias attributed to social role beliefs. Kaiser and Spalding (2015) surveyed a majority of white females and recognized the need for future research to examine scenarios where women have greater representation to provide insight into what produces the instinct within the weakly identified to kick other women instead of advancing them. An individual is considered weakly identified when a particular gender group is not essential to who they are, as opposed to the strongly identified when a gender group is a necessary part of self-image (Kaiser & Spalding, 2015). Kaiser and Spalding's recommendation was to examine the weakly identified men to see if the tendency exists to kick women when advancing in female-dominated occupations. As when a man with masculinity ideology took on a role in a female-dominated occupation and suppressed his behavior to cope with his work role (Sobiraj et al., 2015), would such an individual help or hinder a woman in the workplace based on his gender role ideology? As suggested by Minnotte et al. (2010) and Desai et al. (2014), this study took both male and female attitudes into account in an effort to understand these opposite gender relationships.

Women who experienced negative conflicts with other women were perceived negatively as petty grudge-holders in comparison to men who disagreed with male peers (Sheppard & Aquino, 2013). It is a logical conclusion that some women may not be as

supportive of other women or weakly identified men (Kaiser & Spalding, 2015)? As a

premise of this study does a traditional attitude regarding gender roles inhibit support for

those displaying incongruent behavior in the workplace? Women tended to lack the

confidence and comfort to help when observed, to help more when unobserved, and

receive more help from men than from other women (Crowley, 1986; Eagly, 1983). Is a

woman's instinct to not help in public due to her traditional, expected social role in

society?

Research revealed that both women and men endorse traditional gender beliefs,

including those with positive undertones, i.e., benevolent sexism (Miller & Borgida,

2016; Sarlet et al., 2016). However, men expressed lower marital dissatisfaction when

their spouses violate traditional gender expectations (Desai et al., 2014; Minnotte et al.,

2010). Desai et al. (2014) examined whether attitudes toward women in the workplace

was related to marriage structure; the authors found that dissatisfaction resulted from role

congruence violations, as expressed by men in traditional marriages having a tendency to

look unfavorably upon women in the workplace. Although the Desai et al. (2014) study

and others (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017) focused on the domestic

relationship, the premise supported this study's hypothesis of negative workplace

relationships based on gender ideology.

Using a psychological construct called the separate spheres ideology (SSI) scale,

which claims gender differences are innate, Miller and Borgida (2016) surveyed

undergraduate and adult men and women to conduct a quantitative examination of the

types of individuals most likely to discriminate against those committing role violations.

There was a heightened reliance on traditional gender roles that continue to justify and

maintain gendered segregation (West & Zimmerman, 1987; Miller & Borgida, 2016);

also, to reject some attitudes and maintain others (Donnelly et al., 2016; Sarlet et al.,

2012). Future examination of the role of SSI in the workplace would be beneficial (Miller

& Borgida, 2016). Miller and Borgida's (2016) demonstrated that women hold traditional

attitudes just like men and the authors' suggestion of future research supports the goal of

this study to examine how individual attitudes can lead to workplace relationship issues.

In a quantitative examination of managerial stereotypes, Stoker, Van der Velde,

and Lammers (2012) surveyed employed senior professionals and found that men

preferred male leaders and men disliked female leadership traits in those organizations

with rare instances of female leadership. Along the same line of social role incongruence,

Coughlin and Wade (2012) measured relationship quality in terms of genuineness and

communication and found relationship quality suffers with traditional men when women

earn higher incomes. The men viewed the income disparity negatively; income was

operationalized as a subjective viewpoint of the individual (Coughlin & Wade, 2012).

The subjectivity of the individual noted by Coughlin and Wade (2012) aligned with the

findings of Miller and Borgida (2016) in that the individual endorsement of these gender

role beliefs is what leads to gender inequality and relationship conflict. This study

examined the role of individual attitudes in workplace relationships. The existing

research supports the premise that traditional men and women will most likely not

support women in the workplace due to gender role beliefs and will alienate women from significant networks (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Using a sample of 177 male and female science professors at research universities, Parker et al. (2018) investigated participant responses to evidence that gender was a factor in the evaluation of female lab manager applicants and the decision on hiring these applicants. This was similar to Hoyt and Burnette (2013) where negative attitudes and stereotypes were expressed through biased evaluations against women from perceived role incongruence in leadership positions. This was also similar to gender bias in hiring (Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Brescoll, Graham, & Handelsman, 2012). The Parker et al. (2018) results expressed hope for the future regarding confronting individuals who express bias. People were more likely to accept confrontation about their bias when presented with clear evidence, which suggests such confrontations can motivate an individual to regulate their responses and control their gender bias in the future (Parker, et al., 2018).

Parker et al. (2018) expressed the difficulty of generalizing the findings to real world situations, as there are limited opportunities for confronting people with concrete evidence of negative treatment; also, research suggests the men would resist evidence of gender bias (Handley, Brown, Moss-Racusin, & Smith, 2015; Parker et al., 2018). The suggestion was to instead focus on diversity training with activities that actively highlight biases and the negative results (Parker et al., 2018). Despite the caveats, the study supported how individual awareness of gender bias and evidence of the harmful

repercussions can encourage people to monitor and control their perceptions in the future (Burns, Monteith, & Parker, 2017; Parker et al., 2018).

Communication and Support

There appears to be a variance in how individuals behave toward one another in the workplace, presumably from beliefs about the appropriate roles and behavior for men and women in society, such beliefs as men are supposed to be the financial providers of families, and women are more aligned with homemaker roles (Kaufman & White, 2016; Kray et al., 2017; March et al., 2016). Research has indicated that gender attitudes led to negative effects in terms of challenges with communication (Randles, 2016) and support (Glass & Cook, 2016), as well as exclusion and discrimination of women (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Hofmann (2011) used 203 independent samples of published and unpublished studies to perform a meta-analysis to test the association between job demands and employee burnout, safety, and engagement in work environments. The authors found that knowledge and support motivated employees toward higher engagement and emphasized how supportive environments were critical to increasing motivation and mitigating burnout. Women were more likely to be promoted to CEO than men in struggling organizations, but when the promotion was achieved, there was a routine lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks critical to their productivity and success (Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). The Nahrgang et al. (2011) study suggested the establishment of

supportive work environments is among the best ways to improve safety. As such, the current study supports organizations' awareness to the impact of gender bias on work relationship quality, and the study provides emphasis upon the need to cultivate attitudes that promote social support and establish a more supportive climate for all employees (both male and female).

Kraus and Chen (2009) found that people gravitate toward that which leads to achievement of their goals. If employees are only gravitating toward those with whom they can better relate (e.g., male-to-male), and exclude women from necessary networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014), the potential exists for the outsider peers to feel alienated due to the low engagement. Supportive environments led to healthier relationships, and lack of support and validation led to dissatisfaction (Nahrgang et al., 2011).

Coworker incivility was significantly related to negative emotions, in that coworker incivility was positively correlated with emotional strain and led to counterproductive work behaviors (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Sakurai and Jex (2012) surveyed full-time employees at a mid-sized university in a two-wave study and found that when employees experience a low level of social support, negative emotions were strongly related to work effort decreases. Incivility may be difficult to identify or control because the targeted employee may not always make a formal complaint about interpersonal mistreatment; however, it is recognized that employees have to work with others who have different values and standards regarding what is and what is not

acceptable (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Gender inequality with regard to attitudes and different expectations of behavior for men than women leads to negative feelings and lower quality communication (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Schuh et al. (2014) conducted four studies using different populations and found that women have a lower power motivation than men, as represented by the unequal representation of women in leadership positions in comparison to men. Power motivation and gender discrimination are factors contributing to these gender differences in leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Schuh et al., 2014). In alignment with social role theory's position of differentiated social roles and behaviors, women expressed feelings of alienation and an inability to identify with those perceived to be real executives (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Also, women executives experience a lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016). Sakurai and Jex (2012) recognized that low social support is associated with counterproductive work. As a man's ideology and resulting behaviors shape his relationships (Lersch, 2016; Minnotte et al., 2010), and negative influence can result when women exhibit non-traditional gender roles (Minnotte et al., 2010; Pedersen, 2017), supportive behaviors should be recognized as a potential means of reducing workplace stress (Sakurai & Jex, 2012).

Culture and Ethnicity

In terms of culture and ethnicity, European American students were the least traditional and Asian American students were the most traditional; individuals with at

least one parent born outside of the United States held more traditional attitudes as compared to those with two United States-born parents (Goldberg et al., 2012). If gender ideology predicted workplace relationships, it would be expected that Asian Americans may have less tolerance than European Americans in terms of gender role violations in the workplace. As such, it is essential to examine such factors that can potentially harm organizational effectiveness.

An ethnically diverse sample of female business undergraduates in Canada showed women who take on leadership roles are seen as aggressive, which is contrary to their expected social behavior (Ezzedeen et al., 2015), and men who take on positions of caregiving are seen as conflicting with expectations of masculinity and experience the similar backlash for violating role expectations (Miller & Borgida, 2016). Such perceptions could explain the routine lack of support given to women executives, as shown by exclusion from social and professional network within the workplace (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Impressions Toward Opposite Gender

In a qualitative study, Glass and Cook (2016) explored the conditions under which women are promoted to high-ranking leadership positions, as well as the challenges and opportunities they have after their promotions, using trajectory data of all women who served as Fortune 500 CEOs along with a matched sample of men CEOs and interviews with women executives. The authors found that women are more likely to be promoted to CEO than men in struggling organizations, but when the promotion was

achieved, there was a routine lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). This negative effect on communication between men and women in the workplace aligns with Desai et al. (2014) who found that men were more likely to deny qualified women promotions in the workplace. Women were found to fall behind regarding career advancement and pay (Shen, 2013) because of the lack of access to the knowledge and resources that are helpful and necessary to mature and succeed in the workplace (Timberlake, 2005; Salas-Lopez et al., 2011). The lower advancement of women can not only be attributed to the lack of support, but also to how women have come to have lower expectations than men in the workplace (Huang & Gamble, 2015). Women accepted their gender expected roles in the workplace and sought support and positive self-concept outside of work in their homes and community (Windels & Mallia (2015).

There is a form of cognitive dissonance that appears when an individual is in a position perceived as incongruent to where they should be; there is a tendency for men to avoid female-dominated industries because it contradicts the social norm regarding masculinity (Sobiraj, Rigotti, Weseler, & Mohr, 2015). Similar to how men tended to avoid work roles that are not traditionally masculine, Sobiraj et al. (2015) and Ezzedeen et al. (2015) suggested the stereotype threat that women are less committed than men, which prevents women from making career choices that are inconsistent with their cultural norms. This avoidance led to feelings of alienation from the more career-focused executives with whom these women cannot identify (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Ezzedeen et

al. (2015) used a discourse analysis approach to explore women's concerns with perceived barriers to advancement in a qualitative study using a sample of undergraduate women in business. Women agreed the glass ceiling remains; however, the perception of the pre-career women was women's prioritization of family over career perpetuates the stereotype that they lack the same level of commitment to their careers (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Unlike females, men with children were not seen as liabilities (Salas-Lopez et al., 2011). This study provided further support on how gender ideology lends to this differentiation between those who identify as female as opposed to male and the obstacles they needlessly face due to the social roles within which they fall.

Goh et al. (2017) surveyed 30 mixed-gender participants from Northeastern University to examine bias and accuracy in judgment of sexism in mixed-gendered interactions. The authors found greater accuracy at detecting benevolent sexism within gender than opposite gender, or women were more accurate in judging benevolent sexism in females, and men were more accurate in detecting benevolent sexism in males. The suggestion was the lack of accuracy in detecting intergender sexism was due to the limited expressive cues making accurate judgments difficult. The limitation of the Goh et al. (2017) study was that the research was within the context of initial impressions between individuals who were unfamiliar with one another. However, the relevance of the study is in the revelation that mixed-gender interactions are underexamined.

Existing studies failed to address the dynamics of male-female relationships in the workplace: there was no focus on how gender ideologies affected the behavior of men

and women toward one another in terms of communication and support. Using a sample

of married, heterosexual men, Desai et al. (2014) partially met this objective in their

quantitative study through their finding of how men in traditional marriages are more

likely to deny qualified women promotions in the workplace. However, study participants

were all male, and the focus was only on one direction, men's attitudes toward women, as

opposed to also examining women's behavior toward men (Desai et al., 2014). Sarlet et

al. (2012) used both men and women in two of five studies, but the focus was to explore

how protective paternalism is maintained by gender norms and how it is a form of

benevolent sexism. Sarlet et al.'s (2012) findings highlight a contradiction in which both

sexes indicated that benevolent sexism was acceptable in a romantic context, but it was

not viewed as acceptable in a work environment. The findings indicated that social

inequalities persist, but the focus did not go beyond that of protection in male-female

workplace relationships.

　　　　To gain a complete understanding of how experiences, attitudes, and perceptions

shape people's perspectives, there is a need to take both male and female gender

ideologies into account (Minnotte et al., 2010). A quantitative study of dual-earner

couples revealed that men with the lowest marital satisfaction levels are those who are

highly traditional but are in relationships with highly egalitarian women, suggesting the

nature of relationships change based on similarity and difference in ideologies (e.g.,

traditional or egalitarian; Minnotte, et al., 2010). Extending this to workplace

relationships should show how having similar gender ideologies can lead to a more

comprehensive look at workplace relationships, and perhaps more productive and less stressful work relationships.

The findings of Minnotte et al. (2010) were highly relevant to this study in that they highlight the need to take both male and female gender ideologies into account to gain a complete understanding of each person's perceptions, and in predicting relationship outcomes. Similarly, Kaufman and White (2016) recommended future research examine both husbands' and wives' ideals and realities. In a study on men's attitudes toward their wives entering the workforce, Kaufman and White (2016) found that the traditional man's ideal is for the spouse to work at home versus the reality and expectation of the spouse's monetary contribution to the household. A limitation of the Kaufman and White study, like Minnotte et al., was that it only took into account the male perspective, so there was no confirmation as to whether the male and female attitudes aligned. However, the focus of these studies was on marital outcomes as opposed to workplace relationships. Although there was potential for a similarity of results in this study, an individual's specific gender ideology at home could potentially differ from his or her gender ideology in the workplace.

Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) conducted a quantitative study using 203 married employees; they used gender ideology as an independent variable and emphasized the necessity of taking the ideology of the individual into account to understand various gender-related circumstances at work and home. Gaunt and Benjamin's (2007) findings showed that in situations in which men and women both exhibit traditional gender

ideologies, men experienced more job insecurity and stress than women. Egalitarian women may be just as stressed as men by job insecurity; like the results observed with men, women also found their jobs to be important to their identity and were thereby similarly vulnerable to work-related stress (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007). This finding supported the need to look beyond gender stereotypes when evaluating factors for employee well-being; however, there was no focus on male-female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker, even as a potential source of the job-related stress.

Summary and Conclusion

In summary, a recurring theme in gender ideology literature is the exclusion of women from significant networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016). Desai et al. (2014) also found that domestic relationships suffer from the female partner's involvement in the workplace. However, existing research does not reflect whether there is a direct correlation of gender ideology to the impressions on behavior of workplace coworkers toward one another. Negative communication between male and female work counterparts can possibly be assumed as linked to chauvinism, but the hypothesis of this study goes a lot deeper to explain more fully the influences of gender beliefs and the dynamics of these workplace relationships. Identifying the underlying factors behind the thoughts and actions of workplace associates should provide awareness, and possibly lead to future improvement of workplace interactions with improved productivity and employee satisfaction.

Only one study (Desai et al., 2014) examined the relationship between gender ideology and attitude toward working women; however, study participants were all male and the focus was only on one direction, men's attitudes toward women, as opposed to also examining women's behavior toward men. Minnotte et al. (2010) examined the nature of relationships, but only on a domestic level; it cannot be presumed that the findings extend to workplace relationships without additional study specific to workplace relationships. Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine how gender ideology influences employees' impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support, and whether the gender identity moderates the relationship.

There are no existing studies that explore the effect of gender ideology on the impressions of men and women and on how they communicate and support their opposite-gendered coworkers in the workplace, although the Parker et al. (2018) study supported how individual awareness of gender bias and harmful repercussions can encourage people to monitor and control their perceptions in the future. The current study addressed the recommendations for further exploration of the dynamics of male-female relationships (Minnotte et al., 2010; Zosuls et al., 2011), as well as sexism in mixed-gender interactions (Goh et al., 2017), thereby examining this gap in literature. The current study was a unique endeavor because it provided a more in-depth exploration of how conflicting gender ideologies could impact employee exchange in terms of communication and support. Motschnig-Pitrik and Barrett-Lennard (2010) found that unconditional support has a positive effect on individuals and their relationships.

Recognizing those factors that make individuals thrive, such as support, should assist with successfully identifying ways of improving employee mindsets and interactions.

Chapter Two reflected an integrated review of current literature, highlighting identified gaps and justification for new research. Chapter Three goes through a discussion on data collection for this study, as well as research methodology and procedures. Through quantitative research methods and a web-based survey for data collection, this study examines whether a statistically significant relationship exists between gender ideology and an individual's impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, thereby making a theoretical contribution to gender role theory.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This chapter includes a description of this study's research methodology and procedures, instrumentation, sample, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations. This chapter provides a detailed discussion on the quantitative research methods, the web-based survey for data collection, and the rationale for the chosen design. At the conclusion of this chapter is a discussion on the threats to validity, as well as the ethical procedures involved in the process.

Research Design and Rationale

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the extent to which gender ideology predicts employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. I used gender ideology as the predictor variable, and I used male and female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as the criterion variable to determine whether gender ideology predicts an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker. Using quantitative methods increases generalizability and reduces the subjectivity of the research, because quantitative methods produce concise numerical data that are relatively independent of the researcher (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Because the goal was to improve intergender employee relationships on a large scale, generalizability and credibility were factors for success of this study. The quantitative approach was supported by Kraus and Chen (2009) who concluded that lack of support and validation leads to dissatisfaction, and supportive environments lead to healthier relationships. Kraus and Chen used

quantitative methods to show that supportive environments lead to healthier relationships and elevated self-esteem.

To examine to what extent gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, a linear regression was performed using a predictor variable to predict the outcome variable. The purpose was to determine if the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers differs depending on whether it is women rating their interactions with opposite-gendered coworkers or men rating their interactions with opposite-gendered coworkers

In this quantitative research, I addressed whether a person's gender ideology is positively linked to his or her engagement with peers. As the goal was the examination of a significant association between these variables, a quantitative approach appeared to be the best method for this research. To discover the basis of this problem and develop meaningful intervention methods, it was necessary to understand what factors may be involved in improving employee mindsets and strengthening their engagement with one another.

Methodology

This section consists of the techniques used to select, process, and analyze the data involved in this research. The purpose of these details is to allow critical evaluation of this study's reliability and validity. Understanding of how the data were collected and analyzed is useful to comprehending the significance and to enhancing the process for future research in the area of workplace gender relations.

Population

The population consisted of middle- to upper-level management employees from various areas. A method of convenience sampling was used to arrive at the required sample. Although convenience sampling has the potential to introduce bias because this method cannot obtain the views of the whole population, bias is reduced because the social media sites varied and did not reflect the attitudes of specific groups. The members of the population included anyone matching the criteria and opting to participate; they were anonymous and not specifically chosen.

For this quantitative research, middle- to upper-level managers from various areas were surveyed. As industry type was not specified, industry cannot be characterized as either male- or female-dominated, which prevents any potential skewing of results. The sample for this study consisted of both men and women of varying ethnicities (e.g., Hispanic American, Asian American, African American, European American, and Native American).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

In a previous gender-based study, Gaunt and Benjamin (2007) obtained a sample size of 203 participants by distributing 400 questionnaires deriving an effect size of $r =$ .045. An effect size of .20, which is one-fifth standard of deviation and considered a small effect size (Cohen, 1988), should allow for a meaningful interpretation of results. The sample size was derived using a power analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) that indicated 200 individuals were required. A power of .80 was selected to minimize a Type II error.

Based upon a G* Power analysis (Faul et al., 2007), it was presumed that sending out approximately 700 requests would yield the 200 required participants; however, social media sources were used instead to achieve the required number of participants. Pinto, Patanakul, and Pinto (2015) used a sample size of 281, consisting of project managers, executives, and support members, to find evidence of cross-gender bias in perceptions of trust. Pinto et al. recommended future researchers compare perceptions of male and female evaluators across the management levels. The suggestions from the Pinto et al. and the Kerr and Holden (1996) research were accounted for in this study. Also, a power analysis (Faul et al., 2007) using a power of .80, an effect size of .20, and an alpha of .05 confirmed the determined sample size of 200 for this research was sufficient.

The intention was to send survey requests via email until the appropriate number of responses from both male and female participants were received for this research.

However, because the use of social media sites allowed for simultaneous announcements to numerous individuals, it was not necessary to measure by number of requests. I repeated the posts until the required number of participants was achieved. Because it was assumed that all management employees have access to computers, written correspondence with an introduction to the study and an informed consent form were communicated to the employees via social media sites. The informed consent form included background information on the study, procedures for participating, a note on how participation is voluntary, a discussion of confidentiality, and the ethical considerations. I provided an email address to ask additional questions regarding participation in the study.

Participants received invitations for closed questionnaires, which consisted of responses from which the respondent must choose, rather than open questions, which require more elaborate, open-ended responses. The desire was to maintain an equal quantity of men and women in the sample. As the invitation to participate was not to a specific organization, the organization representations cannot be considered predominately one gender; however, because there was gender imbalance in the final sample, more requests were posted in an attempt to achieve the desired demographic balance. A demographic question was included to determine the gender of the participants.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

Permission was received from the institutional review board (IRB) to use the

Walden Participation Pool and the social media sites Facebook and LinkedIn to conduct

the study with management-level employees. I posted requests for survey participation in

each of the aforementioned sites. Those interested in participating in the survey were

asked to click on a link to the informed consent form and the survey.

Participants were selected for the following reasons: (a) they were of an age to

provide informed consent, (b) they were in an accessible population, (c) they had

experience working with both male and female employees, (d) they had the educational

background necessary to comprehend and complete the questionnaires, and (e) they held

the position of middle- to upper-level manager.

Data were collected via Survey Monkey, which is an online survey service. The

online survey is a cost-effective method for collecting data. Links to surveys, which

included the consent form notifying participants of confidentiality, were included in the

invitation to survey. Also included was my contact information with instructions to

contact me if there were questions about the research project. The participants were

instructed to follow the directions included in the survey, and the participants had the

option to opt out for any reason. Surveys invitations were to middle-to upper-level

managers to examine the relationship between gender ideology and employee

impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and

support.

Participants completed two surveys: the Gender Role Ideology measure, which assessed attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women, and the Coworker Resource Scale, which evaluated the nature of the relationship between coworkers regarding their impressions of communication and support. After the participants completed the surveys, I manually exported the survey details from Survey Monkey into an Excel spreadsheet.

Before starting the survey, the participants were presented with an informed consent form notifying them that their responses were confidential. The survey respondents were instructed to keep all opposite-gendered coworkers in mind when responding to survey questions, as opposed to answering survey questions about opposite gender individuals, as stated in the assumptions. An exit link was included in the survey that led to an exit letter thanking the individual for participating.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The Gender Role Ideology Measure was used to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women, and the Coworker Resource Scale was used to evaluate the nature of the relationship between coworkers. Operational definitions should provide increased clarity. Operationalizing the variables removes ambiguity and allows measurement quantitatively.

Gender Role Ideology Measure

Gender ideology was defined as an individual's attitudes and beliefs regarding the appropriate roles and behavior for men and women in society (Frable, 1989; Kerr &

Holden, 1996; Lersch, 2016). A traditional gender role belief is that men are supposed to be the financial providers of families (Kray et al., 2017; March et al., 2016), or the paternalistic view of men as the protectors of women (Sarlet et al., 2012). For gender ideology, the Gender Role Ideology measure developed by Fuwa (2014a) was used to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women. Fuwa (2014b) used the Gender Role Ideology measure to assess women's gender role ideology and avoid confusion with the women's economic resources in assessing marital attitudes. One item gauged opinion on whether family life suffers when a woman works full-time by asking, "All in in all, family life suffers when the woman has a full-time job" (Item d). Another item gauged opinion on whose role it is to earn money versus looking after the home by asking, "A man's job is to earn money; a woman's job is to look after the home and family" (Item c). Use of this measure assisted in determining where individuals fell on the traditional to egalitarian spectrum and assisted in a proper assessment on the role of gender ideology in workplace relationship issues.

The Cronbach's alpha for the Gender Role Ideology measure was .70, which indicates acceptable internal consistency for this index. An alternative scale, Gender Ideology Scale (Hahn, Banchefsky, Park, & Judd, 2015), included a more thorough evaluation of gender attitudes, including gauges on gender blindness and gender awareness; however, the Gender Ideology Scale did not specify how to assess levels of traditional to egalitarian attitudes, which was critical to this study. Permission was

obtained from the publisher to use the Gender Role Ideology measure as a student user to complete a dissertation. The permission letter is included as an appendix.

The Gender Role Ideology measure is composed of five statements with responses ranging from 0 = *strongly agree* to 4 = *strongly disagree*, and scores are from 0 being the *highest traditional attitude* to 20 as the *highest egalitarian attitude*. The data collection was performed electronically for this study and took an average of 1 minute to address the five statements. For the purposes of distinguishing an individual's attitude category, any score 10 and under was defined as *traditional* and scores 11 and above were defined as *egalitarian*.

Coworker Resource Scale

The criterion variable was male and female impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker, so the Coworker Resource Scale developed by Omilion-Hodges and Baker (2013a) was used to assess the nature of coworker relationships. Omilion-Hodges and Baker (2013b) used the Coworker Resource Scale to assess the socially significant relationships between peer workers. The nine subscales were statistically verified dimensions of coworker exchange, and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the Coworker Resource Scale to ensure high internal and external consistency (Omilion-Hodges & Baker, 2013b).

The CFA revealed high consistency, internal and external, and face validity. The Cronbach's alpha for this the Coworker Resource Scale was high (.85 - .94), confirming high internal consistency. Permission was obtained from the publisher to use the

Coworker Resource Scale as a student user to complete a dissertation. The permission

letter is included as an appendix.

The Coworker Resource Scale uses a Likert-type response (rating scale). The 40-

item scale consists of nine subscales (career advancement, friendship, nonverbal

communication, verbal communication, affective, developmental, evaluative,

informational, and temporal resources), and it was used to evaluate the nature of the

relationship between coworkers. Values for each of the 40 items range from 1 to 7 and

scores were interpreted from a scale of *very high* to *very low*. Participants were expected

to respond to all 40 items. Total scores were calculated for each participant, so the lowest

possible score per participant is 40 and the highest 200. Upper-range scores indicated

higher quality exchanges and lower-range scores indicated lower quality exchanges. The

data collection was performed electronically and was estimated to take approximately 15

minutes to complete; however, the average was 7 minutes. Participants were instructed to

keep all employees of the opposite gender in mind while addressing Coworker Resource

Scale questions.

Data Analysis Plan

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 software was used

for this analysis. Survey responses were transferred from Survey Monkey to an Excel

form and then to SPSS for quantitative analysis. It was assumed the participants would

follow the survey instructions and the participants willingly, honestly, and thoroughly

responded to the survey questions. I assessed each missing value to determine if the

participant did not answer the question or if it was a data entry error. I also noted any data sets with missing data from participant omission in the limitations section.

Linear regression was used with gender ideology as the predictor variable and the impressions of an individual toward opposite-gendered coworkers as the criterion variable. A statistically significant finding would indicate that the strength of an individual's particular ideology negatively correlates with the level of interaction in terms of communication and support, (i.e., the stronger a man's position of a traditional ideology, the lower his communication and support level with a woman in a role that does not fit within this ideology). The quality of the male and female interaction would tend to decrease when the woman's function within the workplace falls outside of the scope of the man's perception of what her role should be. I stopped reviewing here. Please go through the rest of your chapter and go through the rest of your chapter and look for the patterns I pointed out to you. I will now look at Chapter 4.

To examine whether the nature of the opposite gender relationship moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, a moderated multiple regression was performed. The variables were the predictor variable, the moderator, and the interaction between the predictor variable and the moderator. Multiplying the predictor variable and the moderator after centering both to a mean of 0 created the interaction. The dependent variable in this study was impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. If the interaction was significant, the moderation would have been supported for this study. In this way, it would have

determined that the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward

opposite-gendered coworkers differs depending on whether it is women rating their

interactions with male coworkers or men rating their interactions with female coworkers.

RQ1: Does an individual's gender ideology predict his or her impressions toward

an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support?

$H_0$1: Gender ideology as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale does not

predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured

by the Coworker Resource Scale.

$H_1$1: Gender ideology as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale does

predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured

by the Coworker Resource Scale.

RQ2: Does an individual's gender identity moderate the relationship between

gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of

communication and support?

$H_0$2: Gender identity does not moderate the relationship between gender ideology

and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers.

$H_1$2: Gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and

impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers.

As stated previously, the instruments were scored by computer and SPSS was

used to analyze the data. In linear regression, a linear relationship is required to

accurately determine a relationship between the predictor variable (gender ideology) and

the dependent variable (impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers). An examination of scatter plots was also performed to determine whether a linear or nonlinear relationship exists. Selection of a low probability level reduced the potential of a Type I error of stating a relationship where none existed. Data were analyzed in a single analysis for each research question and any difference found at the .05 level would have been considered significant.

The Gender Role Ideology measure is composed of five statements with responses ranging from 0 = *strongly agree* to 4 = *strongly disagree*. A score 10 and under was defined as *traditional*, and scores over 10 were defined as *egalitarian*. The Coworker Resource Scale uses a Likert-type response (7-point frequency ratings scale) with values from 1 to 7. The 40-item scale consists of nine subscales (career advancement, friendship, nonverbal communication, verbal communication, affective, developmental, evaluative, informational, and temporal resources). There are 40 items, so the lowest possible score is 40 and the highest 280. Participants responded to each of the 40 items using the following responses: 1-*Never*; 2-*Rarely*; 3-*Occasionally*; 4-*Sometimes*; 5-*Frequently*; 6-*Usually*; 7-*Every time*. Scores were interpreted as follows: *very high* = 233 to 280, *high* = 185 to 232, *moderate* = 136 to 184, *low* = 88 to 135, and *very low* = 40 to 87. Upper-range scores indicated higher quality exchanges and lower-range scores indicated lower quality exchanges.

Threats to Validity

There were several threats to validity that were of concern. External validity was addressed by targeting participants from a variety of organizations. Internal validity was addressed by ensuring brevity and anonymity. Finally, construct validity was addressed by assurance that the conclusions drawn were directly from the study results.

External Validity

To address the external validity threat of generalizability, the participants for the study were from various areas. Targeting managers in actual organizations who regularly interact with others in the workplace should increase generalizability to similar organizations. Since social media was used and no specific industry or organization was targeted, it was presumed that the managers responding to the surveys were from various areas and not one specific organization. The probability is great because the criteria specifically stated that all participants should be management professional adults (middle- to upper-level).

Internal Validity

Internal validity can be threatened in several ways. However, there is no long-term maturation threat because the participants were only surveyed once. The potential for boredom or inattentiveness was reduced as it is anticipated that the participants would take the surveys when in the mindset to complete them. Also, there was the potential for participants to have different understandings of questions in the survey. To ensure

consistency of responses, the instructions were clearly stated, and contact information was provided so the participants could feel free to ask questions for additional clarity.

The selection of online versus print surveys addressed any potential privacy concerns. Although online interactions via online surveys have a risk of interception, it still adds a level of privacy over group settings and personal interviews. I assured anonymity among participants to reduce social desirability bias. When the participants are anonymous, they should feel free to respond to personal questions in an unrestrained manner; this is particularly so if the wording of the questions, as well as placement, is appropriate. Via selection of the instruments in this study, I displayed sensitivity to the participant's feelings through the appropriate wording of survey questions. Appropriate wording increased participant retention odds. Although the instruments chosen for this study were thoroughly assessed for appropriateness, the lack of personal interaction with the participants made it more difficult to judge the quality of the responses (Trochim, 2006). The length of the questions was assessed as well to ensure they were not too long and to decrease the likeliness of the participant losing interest and dropping out of the online survey. The participants could access the informed consent document at any time to review for understanding, if necessary; they could also print the document. The contact information was provided for further questions, and this was easily accessible as well.

Construct Validity

There is no evidence of threat to validity from instrumentation as both the Gender Role Ideology measure and Coworker Resource Scale each demonstrated high validity

based on previous studies (Fuwa, 2014b; Omilion-Hodges & Baker, 2013b). The chosen instruments were direct and concise, and anonymity was used to reduce the potential for survey respondents to provide responses that are socially desirable (Bäckström & Björklund, 2013; McKibben & Silvia, 2016). Any potential for threat was further reduced by ensuring confidentiality in reporting to ensure respondents feel no threat of self-incrimination for responding honestly. Any threat from researcher expectancy was eliminated from quantitative use of scores derived from validated instruments. Although I presented the hypotheses in this proposed study, I ensured researcher bias was reduced through direct use of the generated scores and by consciousness of potential bias when developing conclusions. All drawn conclusions were directly from the study results.

Ethical Procedures

Protection of privacy for participants is primary for this study. As required by the American Psychological Association's ethical guidelines, specifically Standard 8.02a, informed consent was obtained from participants (2010). This included informing them of the research purpose, expected duration and procedures, confidentiality limits, their rights to decline and withdraw, and any foreseeable consequences of doing so (American Psychological Association, 2010). Fiske, Gilbert, and Lindzey (2010) stated informed consent ensures the research participants have a reasonable amount of details about the research. The consent electronic form listed my contact information in case of potential questions. All questions and concerns were immediately addressed to ensure participant

comfort and retention for this study. The Certification in Protection of Human Research Participants is attached (Appendix A).

The consent form included the right to terminate at any time. Israel and Hay (2006) summarized some of the ethical concerns by stating the issues of personal disclosure, research report credibility and authenticity, as well as the issues with privacy when it comes to collecting data through the Internet. Although online interactions have a risk of interception, it still adds a level of privacy over group settings and personal interviews. Participants were informed that participation in this study was strictly voluntary and in no way connected to their employment, and that all information provided was used only for this study and kept confidential. Name and address fields were avoided in the surveys to maintain anonymity. Reports did not include any identifying information and data are being kept secure on a USB drive that is password protected. Because the participants were anonymous, they could feel free to respond to personal questions in an unrestrained manner. To ensure the comfort of the participants, they could access the informed consent document at any time to review for understanding.

As per the general principals of the code of ethics, other ethical concerns can include the need to ensure the researcher and the participants each benefit from the research. There is also the need to consider an improvement of the human condition when conducting sensitive interviews about the participant's workplace interactions (American Psychological Association, 2010). As stated previously, the instruments were reviewed

and selected for their appropriateness. Per Standard 9.11, there is the need to protect the privacy of the participants by safeguarding disclosed information (American Psychological Association, 2010). I am the only one with access to the data, and any potentially identifying data (e.g., IP address) will be discarded five years after the study. Also, the potential benefits of this study are: knowledge useful to employees in shifting their gender ideologies, increasing levels of employee interaction (communication and support), and moving toward a more supportive and satisfactory existence in the workplace.

The instruments for this study were selected specifically because, as required by Standard 9.02, the scales are useful for, and align with, the purpose of this study (American Psychological Association, 2010). Regarding Reporting Research Results, Standard 8.10a states that a psychologist does not fabricate the derived data (American Psychological Association, 2010). Data were reported honestly and were not adjusted to suit the hypothesis. Standard 8.10b stated that if significant errors were found in the published data, the psychologist must take reasonable steps to correct the errors via an appropriate means (American Psychological Association, 2010). The data were reviewed multiple times to ensure accuracy, and when errors were found, items were corrected.

Informed consent, as well as consideration of the other potential ethical concerns, was ensured to reduce any level of risk that could possibly be associated with this study. However, if a participant decided to withdraw for any reason, steps to do so were outlined in the informed consent. Walden University's IRB approval number for this

study 12-17-180268613 was included. The IRB ensured this research complies with ethical standards.

Summary

Chapter three discussed data collection for this study, as well as research methodology and procedures. This quantitative correlational study focused on the examination of the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. The targeted population was managers in various organizations who regularly interact with others in the workplace.

Also included was a detailed description of the instruments chosen for this study. The study participants were asked to complete two surveys: The Gender Role Ideology measure (Fuwa, 2014a) to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women, and the Coworker Resource Scale (Omilion-Hodges & Baker, 2013a) to assess the nature of coworker relationships.

Any potential threat to validity from instrumentation was addressed by the assurance of confidentiality in reporting to eliminate feelings of self-incrimination for honest responses, and by providing the scales electronically; the simplicity of electronic responses should increase response rate. Also, ethical concerns were addressed by obtaining informed consent, ensuring actual benefits from the research, and ensuring accurate reporting of research results.

Chapter four contains the statistical analysis and research results. Using an alpha of .05, the findings from the chosen statistical analysis indicated whether a significant relationship existed between gender ideology and the impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker. Chapter five includes conclusions and recommendations based upon study results.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, I review the data collection procedures, introduce the statistical analysis used to address the research questions, and discuss the research results. The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study using linear regression analysis was to address the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support (i.e., comparative impressions of male-to-female and female-to-male pairs). For the first research question, the null hypothesis was that gender ideology does not predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker. The alternative hypothesis was that gender ideology does predict an individual's impressions toward and opposite-gendered coworker.

In the second research question, I examined whether the nature of the opposite gender relationship moderates the relationship between gender ideology employee impressions. By using gender identity as the moderating variable, the intention was to determine whether the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers differs depending on whether it is women rating their interactions with male coworkers or men rating their interactions with female coworkers. The null hypothesis for the second research question was that gender identity does not moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. The alternative hypothesis was that gender identity does moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered

coworkers. The Gender Role Ideology measure (Fuwa, 2014a) was used to assess attitudes/perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women, and the Coworker Resource Scale (Omilion-Hodges and Baker (2013a) was used to evaluate the nature of the relationship between coworkers regarding their impressions of communication and support.

The Gender Role Ideology measure (Fuwa, 2014a) is composed of five statements with responses ranging from 0 = *strongly agree* to 4 = *strongly disagree*, and scores are from 0 being the *highest traditional attitude* to 20 as the *highest egalitarian attitude*. For distinguishing an individual's attitude category, any score 10 and below was defined as *traditional*, and scores 11 through 20 were defined as *egalitarian*.

The Coworker Resource Scale (Omilion-Hodges & Baker (2013a) was used to assess the nature of coworker relationships. The 40-item scale consists of nine subscales (career advancement, friendship, nonverbal communication, verbal communication, affective, developmental, evaluative, informational, and temporal resources), and it was useful in evaluating the nature of the relationship between coworkers. Response values for each of the 40 items range from 1 to 7 and scores were interpreted from a scale of *very high* to *very low*. Participants were expected to respond to all 40 items. Total scores were calculated for each participant, so the lowest possible score per participant was 40 and the highest 200. Upper-range scores indicate higher quality exchanges and lower-range scores indicate lower quality exchanges.

RQ1: Does an individual's gender ideology predict his or her impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support?

$H_0$1: Gender ideology, as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale, does not predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured by the Coworker Resource Scale.

$H_1$1 Gender ideology, as measured by the Gender Role Ideology scale, does predict an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker as measured by the Coworker Resource Scale.

RQ2: Does an individual's gender identity moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support?

$H_0$2: Gender identity does not moderate the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker.

$H_1$2: Gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred over the course of 6 months. Recruitment was via a combination of social media and the Walden Participation Pool, with most participants from social media sources. The social media vehicles were Facebook and LinkedIn. The original preference was to use the email distribution of a particular telecommunications company to send the 700 surveys needed to yield a minimum of 200 survey responses,

but the legal department of the targeted telecommunications company did not grant permission.

Surveys invitations were to middle- to upper-level managers to examine the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. The invitations listed the characteristics needed for participation. Those interested in participating in the survey were asked to click on a link to the informed consent form and survey. Participants were selected for the following reasons: (a) they were of an age to provide informed consent, (b) they were an accessible population, (c) they had experience working with both male and female employees, (d) they had the educational background necessary to comprehend and complete the questionnaires, and (e) they held the position of middle- to upper-level manager.

Data were collected via Survey Monkey, which is an online survey service. Links to surveys, which included the consent form notifying participants of confidentiality, were included in the invitation to survey. Also included was my contact information with instructions to contact me if there are questions about the research project. The participants were instructed to follow the directions included in the survey, and the participants were informed of their option to opt out for any reason.

A demographic question was included to determine the gender of the participants. The desire was to maintain an equal quantity of men and women in the sample. As the invitation to participate was not to a specific organization or industry, representations

could not be considered predominately one gender. However, there was gender imbalance in the final sample. The final sample consisted of 147 females (72%) and 56 males (28%). As industry type was not specified, industry cannot be characterized as either male- or female-dominated, which prevented any potential skewing of results. For example, if a female-dominated industry was selected as opposed to a male-dominated industry, it could be assumed to have a more egalitarian population. Because industry was not specified, the sample can be assumed to be more representative of an average population with an average mix of traditional and egalitarian mindsets. Also, as social media sites have a diverse population of users, it was assumed that the sample for this study consisted of men and women of varying ethnicities (e.g., Hispanic American, Asian American, African American, European American, and Native American).

The data collection over a period of 6 months consisted of a total survey response of 210, but responses with significant missing data were eliminated. Survey responses where individuals neglected to complete one or both scales were discarded due to the nature of the research questions. Survey responses without indication of gender identification were discarded because of the basis of the research questions. It would be impossible to determine whether gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker if the gender identity was not specified. The final survey response count was 203.

Study Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated to reflect the score percentages of both females and males for each measurement, prior to running the regression analysis (Table 1).

Table 1

Standard Deviation and Percentages for Management Adults on Demographic Variables ($n_{total} = 203$)

	Gender		SD
	Female	Male	
	($n = 147$)	($n = 56$)	.448
Gender Ideology Measure*			4.052
Traditional	19%	32%	
Egalitarian	81%	68%	
Coworker Resource			35.427
Scale**			
Very Low	0%	2%	
Low	6%	11%	
Moderate	31%	30%	
High	52%	46%	
Very High	10%	11%	

Note. * For the Gender Ideology Scale, a score of 10 and under were defined as traditional, scores of 11 through 20 were defined as egalitarian.

**For the Coworker Resource Scale, *very high* = 233 to 280, *high* = 185 to 232, *moderate* = 136 to 184, *low* = 88 to 135, and *very low* = 40 to 87.

The goal of this study for research question one was to determine if a relationship exists between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support. A linear regression analysis using gender ideology as the predictor variable and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers showed there was no significant correlation between gender ideology and employee impressions, $F(1, 202) = 3.313$, $p = 0.70$ (Table 2).

Table 2

Linear Regression Analysis

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4110.805	1	4110.805	3.313	.070
	Residual	249418.909	201	1240.890		
	Total	253529.714	202			

Note. Dependent Variable: Coworker Resource Scale
Predictors: (Constant), Gender Ideology

The second research question used multiple regression to identify whether gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. Data did not support gender identity as a moderator of the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables, $F(1, 202) = 1.815$, $p = 0.166$ (Table 3).

Table 3

Multiple Regression Analysis

| Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4518.983	2	2259.492	1.815	.166
	Residual	249010.731	200	1245.054		
	Total	253529.714	202			

Note. Dependent Variable: Coworker Resource Scale
Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Gender Ideology

Hypothesis 1: To test whether an individual's gender ideology predicts an individual's impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support, results indicated no statistically significant relationship, $r = 0.127$, $p = 0.070$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Hypothesis 2: To test whether one's gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support, results showed no statistically significant indication that gender identity moderates a relationship, $r = 0.134$, $p = 0.166$. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

A simple linear regression scatter plot diagram using gender ideology as the predictor variable and impressions towards opposite-gendered coworkers as the criterion variable is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Simple Scatter Diagram
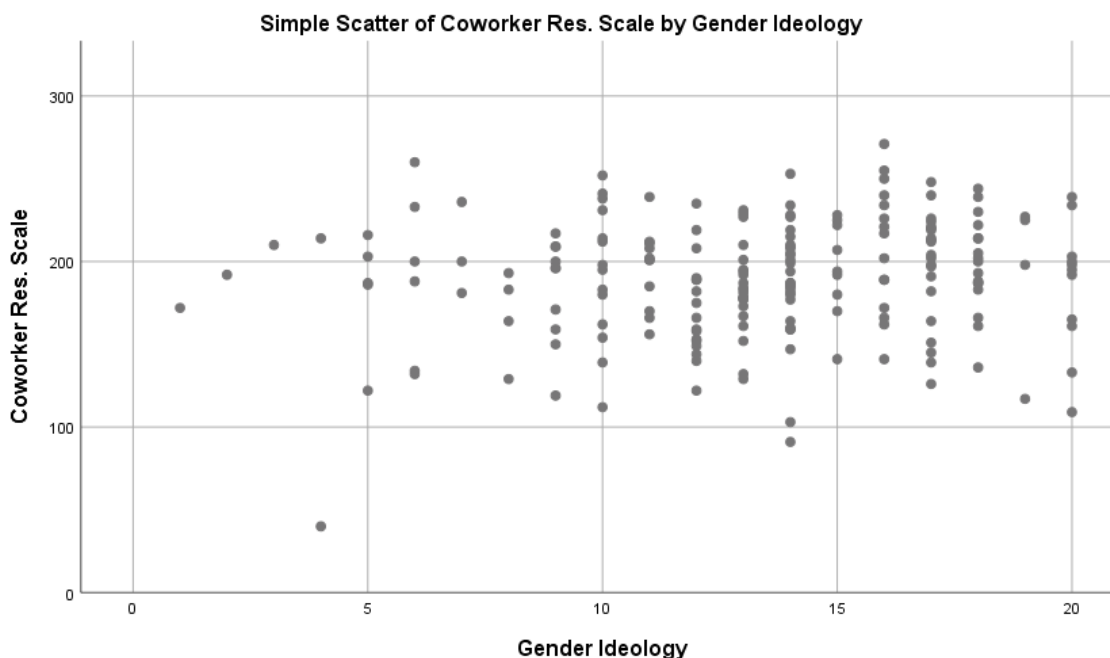
Figure 1. Plot of predictor and criterion variables to check whether a linear relationship exists between the variables.

Figure 1 depicts random scatter of the *n* = 203 scores. The scores are not that close together or far apart, meaning the scatter pattern does not indicate a strong relationship, nor is it weak. However, as the scatter plot does not support a strong association between the predictor and criterion variables, there is no statistically significant correlation between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. Therefore, these data support the conclusion to not reject the null hypothesis.

Discussion

Based on the present findings, it appears there is a low number of male and female employees identifying as purely traditional. Most individuals fell in the egalitarian

range. Although no statistically significant correlation was established between gender

ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, the Coworker

Resource Scale results showed a significant number of women rated in the high range. As

anticipated, this result may indicate that women are more prone to communicate with and

support their opposite-gendered coworkers regardless of whether their gender identity is

traditional or egalitarian. With regard to gender identity as a moderating factor to

determine whether a relationship between gender ideology and opposite-gendered

coworker impressions differ depending on whether it is women rating their interactions

with male coworkers or men rating their interactions with female coworkers, a significant

relationship was absent there as well. However, the results show a slightly higher

percentage of females than males exhibited high levels of support for their opposite-

gendered peers, again regardless of whether their gender identity was traditional or

egalitarian.

Summary

Overall, the results of the study indicated that there were no statistically

significant correlations between gender ideology and an individual's impressions toward

an opposite-gendered coworker in terms of communication and support, nor does data

support that gender identity moderates a relationship between the predictor and criterion

variables. The data suggest potential relevance regarding female gender identity in that

there was a large percentage of scores in the high range for coworker communication and

support. This result aligns with the expectation that females express greater support for

males. Chapter 5 will address the implications of these results in the context of workplace relationships. Chapter 5 will also address the limitations of this study, as well as provide recommendations for future research on opposite gender relations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers in terms of communication and support, as well as whether the nature of the opposite gender relationship moderates the relationship between these predictor and criterion variables. A goal of conducting this study was to take research a step further by examining the dynamics of the male-female employee interaction in terms of gender expectations. The hope was that by examining the role of gender expectations in gender relationships, I could better identify the reasons behind the attitudes of peers toward one another in the workplace.

A total of 203 participant responses were used for analysis, which consisted of 147 female and 56 male middle- to upper-level management employees from various areas. The participants were presented with an informed consent form notifying them that their responses are confidential. The participants were instructed to follow the directions included in the survey, and the participants had the option to opt out for any reason.

I found that there was no significant relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. However, there were some findings worth noting. There were a low number of both females and males identifying as traditional. Males identifying as traditional were somewhat low (32%), but the percentage was much higher than the female percentage (19%). Traditional individuals scored from 1 to 10 on the Gender Role Ideology measure, indicating highly traditional beliefs

regarding gender roles and expectations. Although there were a higher number of women responders, there was a larger percentage of men identifying as highly traditional. The highest percentage of individuals identified as egalitarian (81% of females, 68% of males).

I found that communication and support, as measured by the Coworker Resource Scale, indicated the largest levels for both females and males were high (52% of females, 46% of males) followed by moderate levels (31% of females, 30% of males). Although a significant relationship was not found between the predictor and criterion variable, and there was no evidence that the nature of the relationship (gender identity) moderates a relationship between the two variables, I found that a higher percentage of individuals identifying as female expressed greater support for their opposite-gendered coworkers.

Interpretation of Findings

This study was inspired by previous research on both gender ideology, with the intention to address the workplace gap, the nature of relationships in relation to opposite-gendered coworkers, and their respective gender ideologies. Researchers showed that there are perceived barriers to advancement for women (Ezzedeen et al., 2015), as well as biases against women and preferences toward men in leader evaluations (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). Although I found that there was no significant relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward-opposite gendered coworkers, I did find a positive trend toward more egalitarianism for males and females, and a higher percentage of females than males expressed great support for their opposite-gendered

peers. The hope was to use the results and interpretations from this research to assist organizations in developing appropriate interventions to improve the quality of the workplace relationships. Perhaps highlighting how biases still exist in the workplace (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013), and awareness that both females and males are moving toward egalitarianism although they differ in percentages, will be enough to spark proactive training in gender relations.

Glass and Cook (2016) examined the conditions under which women are promoted to high-ranking leadership positions, as well as the challenges and opportunities they have after their promotions, and found that women are more likely to be promoted to CEO than men in struggling organizations. However, when the promotion was achieved, there was a routine lack of support, including exclusion from social and professional workplace networks (Brass, 1985; Glass & Cook, 2016; Koenig & Eagly, 2014). This negative effect of exclusion of women from significant networks in the workplace aligns with Desai et al. (2014), who found that men were more likely to deny qualified women promotions in the workplace. Lower advancement of women can not only be attributed to the lack of support, but also to how women have come to have lower expectations than men in the workplace (Huang & Gamble, 2015). Applying this assertion to the hypothesis of gender identity as a moderating variable, highly traditional males would communicate with and support females less because of their belief in the roles and expectations for women. Traditional females would express higher communication with and support of males because of the belief that the male has an

earned place in the workplace role. Although previous scholars support these presumptions, they were not supported by the results of this study.

The findings of Minnotte et al. (2010) were highly relevant to this study in that Minnotte et al. highlighted the need to take both male and female gender ideologies into account to gain an understanding of each one's perceptions and in predicting relationship outcomes. Minnotte et al. revealed that men with the lowest marital satisfaction levels are those who are highly traditional but are in relationships with highly egalitarian women, suggesting the nature of relationships changes based on similarity and difference in ideologies (e.g., traditional or egalitarian). Extending this assertion to workplace relationships could provide an explanation for the high number scorers in the moderate and high ranges for communication and support in this study. I found a low number of purely traditional ideologies, especially for women, with a larger number of individuals expressing high support for their opposite-gendered peers. Considering both males and females were of egalitarian ideologies and highly supportive of the opposite gender aligns with Minnotte et al.'s implication that having similar gender ideologies can lead to more productive and less stressful work relationships.

Eagly (1983) and Parker et al. (2018) supported the existence of gender beliefs and gender bias. I found that there were fewer pure traditional attitudes than egalitarian. This low representation of traditionalists could contribute to the lack of statistical significance in this study in that the expectation was more communication and support toward opposite-gendered peers in egalitarian relationships than in traditional

relationships. Perhaps a more balanced mixture of traditional and egalitarian attitudes would have more clearly identified a significant relationship between the proposed predictor and criterion variables. Randles (2016) recognized the challenges with gendered communication because of socialized gender inequalities; the recommendation was to develop more egalitarian gender attitudes to overcome gendered power struggles and inequality. Therefore, the higher egalitarianism scores can be viewed as a positive result and a possible step toward overcoming gender-related issues.

Diekman and Goodfriend (2006), as well as Wilbourn and Kee (2010), showed the increase in the number of women choosing what were traditionally considered male roles indicates a shifting of attitude regarding occupational choices for women. However, the rate of this attitude change is not as prominent for men (Diekman & Goodfriend 2006; Wilbourn & Kee, 2010). I found that a lower number of traditional attitudes as opposed to egalitarian. The low percentages of traditional scores are beneficial in terms of reflecting a possible shift to egalitarianism. Although there appears to be a shifting of perception of women's leadership effectiveness over men's (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014), women are still not being compensated in the same way regarding pay and promotions (Dworkin et al., 2018). The results of the current study support a positive shift toward more egalitarian attitudes, regardless of whether lower levels of communication and support are indicated by this study's results.

Limitations of the Study

There are limitations that affect the findings and generalizability of this study, and these limitations should be considered when interpreting the data. The first limitation is regarding adjustments to data. I assessed each missing value to determine if the participant did not answer the question or if it was a data entry error. Survey responses where individuals neglected to complete one or both scales were discarded due to the nature of the research questions. Survey responses without indication of gender identification were discarded because of the basis of the research questions, as it would be impossible to determine whether gender identity moderates the relationship between gender ideology and impressions toward an opposite-gendered coworker if the gender identity is not specified. Data were not selectively eliminated but eliminated with cause.

The second limitation is regarding the change in the original recruitment method for survey participants. Instead of sending participation requests via email to employees spread across various organizations within a company, I used the social media sites Facebook and LinkedIn. Therefore, participants were limited to those who participate in those social media practices.

The third limitation is the assumption of honesty in participant reporting. It was assumed participants would provide honest responses to surveys, despite the flaws in self-reporting as expressed by Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) and Kroska (2009) where individuals respond in manners deemed socially acceptable as opposed to their true perspectives. Although it was expected that assurance of confidentiality would mitigate

any perceived threat of self-incrimination for honest responses, there was still the possibility of natural instinct to protect oneself from potential risks that could have affected honesty in responses. I mitigated this limitation by stating in the privacy section of the consent form how name and address fields were avoided in the survey to maintain anonymity, and by emphasizing that the identities of survey participants are unknown. I stopped reviewing here. Please go through the rest of your chapter and look for the patterns I pointed out to you. I will now look at your references.

A final limitation relates to international generalizability and ethnicity. The request for participation was sent to participants assumed within the United States, so it is plausible to consider generalizability domestically. Also, I did not post to any internationally focused groups, and my LinkedIn network is domestic. However, as Desai et al. (2014) explained, it is unclear as to how the study's results can be generalized to other countries with different gender attitudes. Also, it is not possible to confirm the ethnicities. Because of the diverse nature of social media, the sample for this study is presumed to consist of both men and women of varying ethnicities. However, I cannot confirm the diversity because participants were not required to self-identify.

Recommendations

Although a significant relationship was not found between gender ideology and employee impression toward opposite-gendered coworkers, it does not rule out a potential relationship between these variables in the workplace. This study should be considered as a beneficial means of examining the relationship between these predictor

and criterion variables, although it may be advisable to consider alternate scales of measurement for gender ideology and employee impressions in future studies.

Previous research (Gaunt & Benjamin, 2007; Giunchi, Emanuel, Chambel, & Ghislieri, 2016) indicated the role gender ideology played in job insecurity and level of stress. Goh, Rad, and Hall (2017) expressed how sexism in mixed-gender interactions has been overlooked in studies. Also, Zosuls, Miller, Ruble, Martin, and Fabes (2011) supported that there is limited research on ways gender affects communication and relationships with peers and other-gender relationships may be affected across time. This previous research supports the need for meaningful examination of male and female mindsets upon their engagement with one another in the workplace. The accumulation of data from past research warrants the performance of future research on this topic considering barriers to female leadership and disparate support levels continue to exist.

In an investigation of participant responses to evidence that gender was a factor in the evaluation of female lab manager applicants and the decision on hiring these applicants, Parker, Monteith, Moss-Racusin, and Van Camp (2018) asserted that people were more likely to accept confrontation about their bias when presented with clear evidence. The authors expressed the difficulty of generalizing the findings to real world situations, as there are limited opportunities for confronting people with concrete evidence of negative treatment. The suggestion was to instead focus on diversity training with activities that actively highlight biases and the negative results (Parker et al., 2018). Despite the caveats, the study supported how individual awareness of gender bias and

evidence of the harmful repercussions can encourage people to monitor and control their perceptions in the future (Burns, Monteith, & Parker, 2017; Parker et al., 2018). Although this current study did not find a significant relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions, future research can hone-in on gender identity and its potential relationship with employee impressions.

Implications

The goal of this study was to examine the relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers. If the results had established a statistically significant relationship and gender ideology did predict how men and women interact and support one another, such a factor would be pertinent to developing teams and maintaining organizational health. Although the results were not statistically significant, future examination of these factors, perhaps using different scales, is still warranted. This justification for future research is based upon the persisting gender issues (Glass & Cook, 2016; Randles, 2016) and the lack of research in the area of gender attitudes and relationships in the workplace. The proposed implications for positive social change from workplace attitude awareness include knowledge useful to employees in shifting their gender ideologies, increasing levels of employee interaction (communication and support), and, moving toward a more supportive and satisfactory existence in the workplace.

This study showed a higher percentage of males than females have traditional mindsets, whereas females had a higher egalitarian percentage and higher support scores.

Research supports there is an imbalance in critical communication and support in favor of males. Gender ideology may only be one factor, but it may not be enough of a factor alone to establishing differences in communication and support between opposite-gendered peers. However, additional focus in this area can provide increased awareness of the negative factors behind the problem and decrease the divide between genders in terms of success, comfort, and support in the workplace.

Conclusions

The results of this study did not establish a statistically significant relationship between gender ideology and employee impressions toward opposite-gendered coworkers, nor did data support that gender identity moderates a relationship between the predictor and criterion variables, but the data d some notable insights. The results showed higher levels of traditional mindsets for males than females, and higher percentages of females than males with egalitarian mindsets, as well as higher support levels. Gender ideology alone may not be a significant predictor of communication and support levels toward the opposite gender, or perhaps consideration of other scales of measurement can provide more statistical significance.

The success of this study falls in the contribution made to existing research through the exploration of gender ideology upon relationships. This research also added the element of gender ideology effects upon workplace relationships as opposed to domestic relationships, as existing studies highlight domestic relationships. The lack of support for women in leadership positions, including exclusion from social and

professional workplace networks, continues to be of concern. The findings of this study should be considered because of the notable data revealed. Further research is warranted regarding workplace attitudes and employee interactions to more completely establish the factors behind issues with intergender communication. Success in this research can assist in establishing healthier organizational relationships for the betterment of the workplace and of society.

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