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CROSS CULTURAL COMPARISON BETWEEN THE UNITED
STATES AND JAPAN: EXECUTIVE TRAITS

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology:
Industrial/Organizational

by
Yoshimi Ishibashi

March 2007

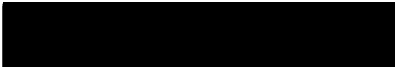
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Approved by:


Janet L. Kottke, Ph.D., Chair, Psychology

2/26/2007
Date


Mark D. Agars, Ph.D.


Janelle D. Gilbert, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

This study examined comparisons of gender stereotypes of executives in two cultures. Undergraduate students in Japan and the U.S. estimated the extent to which executives-in-general, male executives, and female executives possessed person-oriented and task-oriented leadership traits. Students also rated themselves on whether they possess these leadership traits. I also examined whether Confucian values influenced the ratings students made of the Big Five personality associated with an effective leader. As additional analyses, students rated the importance of leadership traits for executive groups and for themselves. The results revealed that managerial stereotyping was not consistently found for men and women in either the U.S. or Japan. Furthermore, Confucian values did not appear to influence the ratings of the Big Five personality for an effective leader. Contrary to predictions, some similarities between countries were found.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Cross Cultural Comparison

A large number of researchers and companies have focused on, and discussed, diversity issues for a long time in the United States. Due to many efforts, the working conditions of women have been improved and the number of female workers has gradually increased (Catalyst, 2003a). As a result of the increased monitoring of the number of female workers, the number of women in managerial positions has gotten more attention than in years past. According to Catalyst (2003a), 13.6% of board seats of the Fortune 500 companies in 2003 were women, an increase from 9.6% in 1995. Furthermore, they reported that women held 15.7% of corporate officers/executive managers in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2003b). Although there are still small numbers of women in higher positions, the number of women in these top positions has increased gradually.

In contrast, only recently has the idea that men and women should be treated more equally in Japan been seriously considered. With the revision of the Equal

Employment Opportunities Law (1999), the government has tried to improve the situation of working women. A survey by the Japan Institute of Workers' Evolution revealed that of those eligible to work, the percentage of women working was 48.3% in 2003, compared to men whose rate was 75.1%; it is evident from these data that men predominate the Japanese workforce. In 2003, the percentage of women in various managerial classifications in Japan was as follows: 2.7% in director posts, 5.0% in section manager jobs, and 11.0% in section chief positions. The Wall Street Journal (Woods, 2005) pointed out that only a few women are promoted to management positions in Japan. As Woods (2005) mentioned in his WSJ article, at the U.S. computer company, Hewlett-Packard (HP), over 25 percent of its female workforce are in managerial posts in the United States. On the other hand, fewer than 4 percent of the women working for HP in Japan have managerial jobs. In addition, Sony Group compared the female management level ratios within their companies in U.S. and Japan. According to figures released by Sony, 32.7% of managerial positions were held by women in the U.S. in 2004 whereas in 2005 only 2.9% of the managers of the Japanese Sony workforce were women. Why are there such

huge differences in the U.S. and Japan? Specifically, why are there very small numbers of Japanese women in managerial positions? To consider the possible reasons, we should compare the working situation in both countries and consider what prevents women from attaining managerial positions. First, I will discuss the barriers to women in the United States. Then, I will discuss the circumstances for Japanese women who aspire to managerial jobs.

Barriers to the Advancement of Women in the United States: Structural Considerations

Giscombe and Mattis (2002) noted that major barriers for women and minorities have been lessened at the recruitment and job entry stage, but there are still major barriers in later advancement. Catalyst, a nonprofit organization that conducts research into women's employment prospects around the world, but especially within the United States, has extensively investigated the barriers to women's advancement. Catalyst (2003c) identified the following top five factors that hold women back:

- Lack of significant general management or line experience
- Exclusion from informal networks
- Stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities
- Failure of senior leadership to assume accountability for women's advancement
- Commitment to personal/family responsibilities (Catalyst, 2003c, as cited in Catalyst, undated)

Both women managers and CEOs consider the lack of significant general management/line experience as the top barrier to their advancement (Catalyst, 2003b). The same research by Catalyst (2003b) also reported the strategies successful women took. For example, 69% of women polled by Catalyst (2003b) considered consistently "exceeding expectations" as the most critical factor for their advancement, followed by successfully managing others (49%). Among these women who had not been successful in attaining managerial posts, many women thought they would have consistently exceeded expectations and been more likely to be promoted if they had received adequate

opportunities for management experiences. However, as about 50% women are not satisfied with their management experience, it is apparently still difficult for women to receive tasks conducive to promotion.

Forming informal networks for women are also critical for women's advancement. Kilian, Hukai, and McCarty (2005) stated "executive women and people of color both report that having a mentor has been particularly important to factor in their career development" (p. 156). Considering the high correlation between having multiple mentors and high promotion rates (De Janasz, Sullivan, & Whiting, 2003), not having a mentor would have a negative impact on women's advancement. However, it is harder for women to find a satisfactory mentoring relationship than it is for men. Women encounter some unique barriers to mentoring relationships: the shortage of female mentors for professional women, concerns about potential sexual issues for male mentors and female protégés, the fear of being seen as aggressive, and the limited access to powerful mentors and to social settings (Ragins & Cotton, 1989, 1993).

Third, a number of researchers have investigated the relationship between sex stereotypes and women's leadership. In particular, two studies tell us sex role stereotypes affect our perception of a leader. Eagly, Makhiyani, and Klonsky (1992) examined whether people are biased against female leaders and managers and found female leaders were evaluated slightly more negatively than were male leaders. In addition, Pelletier and Kottke (1999) investigated how participants reacted to directive and participative styles of female leaders. Specifically, they examined whether participants' perceptions of leadership would be different when the leader exhibited participative versus directive leadership styles, and when the leader was acting according to or deviating from sex-role expectations. The results revealed participants were more satisfied with their leaders when the leaders' behavior was aligned with participants' perceptions of sex-role expectations. Therefore, it is evident that women have disadvantages when they undertake roles that traditionally have been male dominated.

As another point, gender stereotypes have been underexamined as a causal factor although they play a powerful role in maintaining the glass ceiling (Agars,

2004). One of the reasons why an underexamination of gender stereotypes continues is a result of observed effect size. There are limited investigations of the impact of gender stereotypes on personnel decisions and the demographic differences in upper management. Agars (2004) considered effects cumulatively, and found that stereotypes are likely contributors to the limited presence of women in high-level positions.

Because sex role stereotyping is such a critical factor in the proposed research, I will discuss it in connection with leadership in more detail after I discuss the remaining barriers to women's advancement.

The fourth factor is failure of senior leadership to assume accountability for women's advancement. In their article, Kottke and Agars (2005) argued that there are several aspects of top management that preclude accountability for women's advancement. The "good old boys club"—of which the top management is likely to be—is likely to feel threatened by women in nontraditional roles. As women have more job opportunities and receive promotions to the higher positions, men may feel threatened. Policies and systems that support women's advancement threaten men and make them feel insecure

about their jobs. In addition, the perceived threat would reinforce gender stereotypes in personnel decisions, and limit women's involvement in projects and in both formal and informal networks. Therefore, the failure of accountability for women's advancement might be influenced by the perceived threat to men in powerful positions. Further, Kottke and Agars (2005) noted that the measurement of women's gains has not been well formed. In other words, it is not possible to have accountability without measurement and without ready metrics; most managers will not attempt to provide the necessary support for promoting women into management.

The last factor often blocking women to move up is women's commitment to personal and family responsibilities. There are many studies about women's work-family conflict issues. For example, Lundberg and Frankenhaeuser (1999) examined women's stress associated with family responsibilities and their careers and found that women were more likely to report that having a child had a negative impact on their career opportunities than men. Eighty percent of American women become mothers, and as a result, more women leave and re-enter the work force than men do; women also work part-time at about double

the rate of men (Wells, 2001). Considering these facts, Wells assumed "some employers may hire women for less important, lower paying jobs to limit the impact of a future decision to leave" (Wells, 2001, p. 45).

Women face a number of difficulties to work in organizations, and especially to advance in those organizations. Although Kottke and Agars (2005) and Kilian et al. (2005) suggested techniques that organizations could implement to remove barriers to women's advancement, it may still be harder for women to receive promotions as men do because there still are structural barriers.

Gender Stereotypes and Leadership Evaluation

Gender stereotypes have received a great deal of attention, especially in relationship to the question of why women do not achieve many high-level management positions. The problem posed by the research is based, in part, on the traditional function of management. Management requires, among other skills, the ability to lead that may necessitate a particular leadership style not correspondent with many women's preferred leadership styles. For example, women may prefer participative

styles and men may prefer directive styles; employees expecting directive guidance may not accept participative approaches well, putting women at a disproportionate disadvantage in management roles. In addition, if women exhibit directive styles, this behavior may be discounted or used to criticize them for acting out of role (Pelletier & Kottke, 1999). Furthermore, researchers note that leadership is a complex phenomenon; a general definition of leadership would be "Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives" (Yukl, 2002, p. 7). Yukl (2002) mentioned that this definition focused on efforts to influence the current work of the group or organization as well as to ensure that it is prepared to achieve future challenges.

Before elaborating on leadership, a quick note regarding "leadership" and "management" is in order. The differences between leadership and management depend in part on the situation (Kotter, 1990). As an organization becomes more multifaceted, management is more important than leadership. On the other hand, as the external

environment becomes more dynamic and vague, the need for leadership comes to the forefront (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005).

There are several approaches to describe leadership. One of the original but enduring theories of leadership is trait theory. This approach emphasizes attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values, and skills. The assumption underlying this approach is that some people are natural leaders who are endowed with certain traits not possessed by other people (Yukl, 2002). A great deal of research has examined the traits that are believed to be possessed by good leaders. And, although considerable research has focused on behaviors and situational constraints, there are a number of personal attributes that are expected in good leaders. For instance, Lord, Foti, and De Vader (1984) found several traits characterized leaders in many situations. Specifically, 59 leader and 26 nonleader attributes were found in their study. The 59 attributes (e.g., intelligent, honest) were strongly correlated with leader prototypicality ratings. The 26 nonleader traits (e.g., Blue Collar, Coordinated) were negatively correlated with leader attributes. Following this study, Lord, De Vader,

and Alliger (1986) reexamined how personality traits are related to the perception of leadership. They used a meta-analysis and found that intelligence, masculinity-femininity, and dominance were significantly related to leadership perceptions. Leaders were perceived to be more intelligent, more masculine and more dominant than non-leaders.

A very popular trait approach to defining people's unique characteristics is the Big Five personality typology. Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) used the five-factor personality model as a framework to estimate relations between personality and leadership. In addition, using two criteria—leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (Lord et al., 1986)—Judge et al. (2002) estimated personality-leadership relations. Their findings that most of Big-Five traits were significantly related to both leadership criteria (except for agreeableness and leadership emergence, which did not significantly correlate) suggest that the Big Five typology is useful to examine the dispositional predictors of leadership. Specifically, extraversion and conscientiousness were most strongly correlated to leadership emergence. After these traits, openness was

the next strongest correlation to leadership emergence. Concerning leadership effectiveness, extraversion, openness, and neuroticism were strongly correlated to this leadership criterion. Agreeableness and conscientiousness were more variable and did not show high correlations to leadership effectiveness.

Eagly, Karau & Makhijani (1995) questioned whether there is a sex difference in the effectiveness of leaders' roles and whether there are conditions that produce sex differences in the effectiveness of leaders and managers. They proposed that people tend to evaluate one sex better than the other in gender-congruent settings. Thus, this tendency leads raters to prejudiced reactions to men or women who are out of role and then to rate their performance on the basis of gender congruence rather than actual effectiveness. As already noted, Pelletier and Kottke (1999) found support for this conjecture.

In general, prejudice toward female leaders exists when many people perceive incongruity between the characteristics of women and the required attributes of leader roles. There are two kinds of norms or expectations when looking at indicators of social roles:

descriptive norms and injunctive norms (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Descriptive norms are defined as "consensual expectations about what members of a group actually do" (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574), and injunctive norms are defined as "consensus expectations about what a group of people ought to do or ideally would do" (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574). These expectations tend to result in prejudice towards a particular social group (i.e., women leaders and managers) as well as perceived incongruity in those types of groups.

To understand and eventually eliminate gender stereotype based-prejudice, we should consider what kind of expectations people have towards men and women as leaders and managers. Eagly and Karau (2002) argued that there are two attributions that people perceive consistently with each sex. One is that communal characteristics are attributed more strongly to women. These characteristics include person-oriented factors such as affectionate, helpful, kind, and so on. On the other hand, agentic characteristics are ascribed more strongly to men. These characteristics include task-oriented factors such as assertive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, and independent. These communal and agentic

attributes especially illuminate the issues surrounding prejudice against women in high-level leadership positions. Using both social role theory and the previous work on communal and agentic attributions, Eagly and Karau (2002) developed congruity theory. Based on congruity theory, they argued that the perception of incongruity between leaders' roles and female gender roles leads people to hold a more negative view of females in leadership roles. Female leaders face two types of disadvantages according to congruity theory. One is that "the descriptive aspect of the female gender role is the perception of women as possessing less leadership ability than men" (p. 588). This disadvantage is based on how people perceive the combination of the descriptive aspects of gender and leader roles. This idea leads people to perceive that women possess "less agency and more communion" (p. 589) than men. Thus, people see women as less qualified to be leaders. The second disadvantage for women in this theory derives from the fact that "the female gender role is the less favorable evaluation of behavior that fulfills the prescriptions of a leader role" (p. 588). That is, in addition to women being seen as less qualified, the expectation is that the behaviors

necessary to be a leader are evaluated less favorably in women.

Perceptions of Women as Managers

As mentioned before, a number of researchers have focused on women's advancement since the 1970s. In particular, Schein's program of research about the relationships between sex stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics has influenced several researchers who hoped to identify barriers to women's advancement (Deal & Stevenson, 1998; Dennis & Kunkel, 2004; Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989; Kunkel, Dennis, & Waters, 2003).

Schein (1973) identified a key psychological barrier to women's advancement: "think manager—think male." She developed a 92-item survey in which respondents described "women in general," "men in general," and "successful middle managers." Her scale has been used to assess sex-role stereotypes and the characteristics people typically attribute to successful middle managers. In the early 1970s, she revealed from her empirical investigation that "think manager—think male" was a strongly held belief among middle managers in the United States. In 1973,

Schein examined how much male managers believed successful middle managers should possess those characteristics, attitudes and temperaments, and whether those attributes were more commonly ascribed to men in general than women in general. In addition, Schein (1973) hypothesized that the association between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics would be stronger among younger managers than older managers. Based on the previous research (Bowman, Worthy, & Greyser, 1965), she assumed that male acceptance of women managers would increase with the age of the respondent because older managers have had more work experience, including more experience working with women. Her research results confirmed the first hypothesis that men in general were more likely to be perceived as successful middle managers than women in general. In examining age, the results showed that there was a small but significant difference between older managers and younger managers in their perceptions. The data from the older managers did not support the association between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, but younger managers did. To explain the general findings of stereotyping, Schein argued that the

male managers preferred to maintain their cognitive consistency by not choosing women as successful middle managers. For the age effect, however, she suggested that the more women become active participants in the labor force, and the more experience people have with working women, the relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among all age groups will decrease. These findings may hold promise for enhancing the status of women in management for the future. Therefore, even though there was a strong belief in "think-manager-think-male," the findings suggested that with time the differential stereotypical perceptions of men and women would lessen.

After the first empirical study, Schein (1975) replicated the study using the same materials among female managers and compared the results to the earlier 1973 study. She examined the same hypotheses and found similar results with the exception of the age variable. Even though she had found different associations between sex role stereotype and requisite management characteristics among younger male managers than older male managers, there was no association found between sex role stereotyping and management characteristics for

younger female managers and older female managers. Younger and older female managers tended to ascribe male characteristics to managers in general. Taking the results of the 1973 study together with the 1975 study, Schein (1975) suggested that the association between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics perceived by both men and women would indicate that managers see women as less qualified than men and explain, in part, why women fail to advance to higher levels.

More recently, Schein repeated the study using students as participants. In her later work, Schein, Mueller, and Jacobson (1989) examined management students' perceptions in the U.S. and then Schein and Mueller (1992) compared the results with students from Great Britain and Germany. First, Schein et al. (1989) conducted the survey to investigate the relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among male and female management students in the U.S. The first hypothesis was that characteristics of a successful manager would be more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. The second hypothesis was that female management students would also perceive successful managers as possessing those

characteristics more commonly ascribed to men in general rather than women in general. According to the results, male students confirmed the first hypothesis but the results from the female students did not confirm the second hypothesis. Schein et al. (1989) also compared these results with the data from the managers studied 15 years earlier. The results from male management students were similar to the results from the study done in 1973. Men still perceived that successful middle managers would have those characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women. However, the results among female participants were different from the study in 1975. Female management students in the 1989 study did not perceive that successful middle managers would require masculine characteristics. Schein assumed that female management students perceive women and men as equally likely to possess requisite characteristics for successful middle managers.

Schein and Mueller (1992) also examined whether there was a relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics in samples drawn from Great Britain and Germany. She compared the results of this study to the previous 1989 study of the U.S.

sample. The results from male management students revealed the same pattern across the three countries. Male students saw managers as more similar to men in general than women in general. On the other hand, female students showed differences across countries. As mentioned above, the female students in the U.S. perceived women and men to have similar characteristics as a successful manager. German female students provided similar responses as their male counterparts, in which men were rated more similarly to managers than women were. Finally, British female students showed similar responses as their male counterparts even though to a lesser extent than German students did.

Several other researchers have conducted research using the Schein Descriptive Index (Deal & Stevenson, 1998; Heilman, et al, 1989). Kunkel and Dennis (2003) replicated Schein's findings using CEOs as the targets rather than middle managers. They hypothesized that men in general would be seen as more likely to have characteristics as successful CEOs than females in general. Using undergraduate students as the participants, the results confirmed their hypothesis. However, they found "the gaps between male and female

CEOs' similarities and between successful male and female CEOs' similarities to prototypically successful executives were smaller than reported in the 1970s." So, there has been some progress in attitudes in the United States.

Women in Japanese Society

The Equal Employment Opportunities Law was revised by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare in 1997. The law prohibits gender discrimination at every stage of working lives starting from classified advertisements, recruitment and promotion process, and employment until retirement (Sakai, 2001). The revised EEO law was put into force in 1999, and Japanese women must be treated equally to men in the workplace. At the time of the revision of the law, a survey conducted by the Cabinet Office, Government of Japan (2004) showed that the percentage of disagreement with the statement "men at work and women at home" was slightly higher than that of agreement. Further, women disagreed with the statement more than men did. It is evident that women are less satisfied than men with the traditional sentiment expressed in the sentence. That the Japanese government

conducted a survey might be good sign for women and may help to begin the removal of some long standing barriers for working women.

Nevertheless, it is clear that Japanese women still face difficulties in terms of working in organizations and living in Japanese society. Bankart (1985) noted the strongly held beliefs about traditional women's roles in Japan. In her study, she examined attitudes toward women's role in Japanese society. As already noted, American women have accepted an increased egalitarian role definition since the 1970s. Further, Schein (2001) confirmed that American female students have less strongly held sex-typed beliefs about managerial characteristics relative to 20 years ago. By virtue of this trend, the women have experienced positive employment, and people tend not to see the traditional female role as the ideal or only role for women in the U.S. Because some of the same societal changes (i.e., more women working outside of the home) that shaped U.S. attitudes are now present in Japan, Bankart (1985) expected to see positive change among the Japanese people. Her findings from the research on Japanese attitudes toward women revealed that Japanese men

continue to hold a more conservative view than women. Women with children were more liberal and unmarried college women were the most liberal about the appropriate role of women in Japanese society. Despite those women's points of view, women have been unable to gain equal access to management jobs because male workers occupy most managerial positions.

To understand Japanese cultural background more precisely, we should appreciate how powerfully Confucian ideology has shaped and continues to shape social roles in Asian cultures. Chinn (2002) defined Confucian ethics and explained the impact of Confucianism on social structures and roles. Confucius lived as a Chinese philosopher and teacher 2,500 years ago during a period of great social turmoil. His fundamental ideals of teachings were "to establish stable, reciprocal, ethical, but fundamentally nonegalitarian social relationships based on gender, age, and position in society" (p. 304). Confucian ethics defined relationships between ruler and the governed, father and son, husband and wife, elder and younger brother, even those between friends with the goal of establishing a stable society. It was to be so honorable that there would be no need for a legal system.

Confucianism's nonegalitarian ideology continues to have a strong influence on social roles not only in China's educational, bureaucratic, and legal systems but also in Japan and Korea (Chinn, 2002). Confucian relationships still have a strong impact on the family structure and governmental resources even though legal systems have attempted to modernize society by liberating women.

Some researchers have examined the influence of Confucian values. Chiu and Kosinski (1994) investigated the influence of Chinese values (Confucian values), especially in choosing conflict-handling styles. They compared the score of Chinese values and investigated which style participants chose. The participants were male graduate business students in Hong Kong and the United States. The results revealed the Hong Kong sample showed the influence of Chinese values more than the U.S. sample. Further, there was a strong relationship between Chinese values and the choice of conflict handling style. Leung and Bozionelos (2003) looked at the Confucian principles in conjunction with the five-factor model (FFM) of personality, using a Hong Kong sample. They examined which traits of the FFM were influenced by the Confucian principles as important to the effective leader.

They wanted to examine whether there were traits or personalities unique to the Confucian culture. FFM personality consists of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Reflecting characteristics of the Confucian culture such as "industriousness, sacrifice of personal interests over group interest, concealment of emotions, and low profile" (Leung & Bozionelos, 2003, p.64), Leung and Bozionelos (2003) expected that extraversion and openness would be negatively related to the prototypical notion of the effective leader in a Confucian culture. Extraversion is associated with ambition and high profile, and openness is associated with low conservatism. Therefore, they hypothesized that the characteristics of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability (low neuroticism) would be positively associated with the prototypical notion of the effective leader in Hong Kong. Their results revealed that the characteristics of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability (low neuroticism) were positively associated with the prototypical notion of the effective leader, as predicted. Considering the expected negative association, openness was not strongly related to the prototype of the

effective leader in the Confucian culture. Contrary to their expectations, extraversion was the most strongly associated of the Big Five personality traits with the prototypical notion of the effective leader. The primary limitation of this study was the sample was from Hong Kong, which has experienced a long-term British influence. Therefore, the authors argued that the sample might not be entirely representative of individuals fully influenced by Confucian values.

How might Confucian principles affect expectations of the managerial role in Japan? Concerning the relationship between stereotypes and Confucian culture, Whitehill (1992) noted that the Confucian doctrines of unquestioned obedience to the family, loyalty to one's superior and reverence for education are evidenced in the disciplines of Japanese management practices. One of the reasons that male workers in Japan have occupied most managerial jobs is adherence to Confucian principles. Isram (1997) also suggested that the relationships inherent in Confucian principles have transferred to Japanese companies, especially, "a paternalistic management style, loyalty to company, distinction between juniors and seniors, work based on group and differential

treatment between male and female" (p. 152). Therefore, it is understandable why it is easier for men than for women to succeed in organizations in Confucian-oriented societies.

Sugihara and Katsurada (2000) focused on gender-role personality traits in Japanese culture and considered the historical background of Japanese gender roles. They mentioned, "Although the modern constitution declares that all citizens are equal, the traditional social systems and laws, which were established on the basis of gender inequality, still have a strong influence on many aspects of people's lives in Japan" (Sugihara & Katsurada, 2000, p. 310). According to Sugihara and Katsurada (2000), Japanese society still has a strong belief in a gendered division of labor in which men are at work and women are at home. This result seems to contradict the recent survey result by the Japanese government (2004). Therefore, although Japanese society has changed to give opportunities for women to work outside the home, it is evident that androcentric rules still operate to prevent many women from working in organizations and promoting to managerial levels.

Other Barriers to the Advancement of Women in Japan

In addition to the strong Confucian influence, other factors prevent Japanese women from getting promoted and make it difficult for them to work at higher managerial levels. First, traditional Japanese Human Resource Management (HRM) policies are unique in their characteristics, which have helped Japan to be independent as a highly self-reliant nation in the world after the Second World War but at the same time disadvantaged Japanese women (Islam, 1997). The traditional Japanese HRM has been extremely inflexible because of lifetime employment or senior-based pay systems (Morris, Hassard, & McCann, 2006). However, by increasing the number of women in the workplace, implementing the EEO law, developing high technology, and so on, companies have started to change the traditional HRM policies in recent years. For example, job advertisements are open to both men and women, selection and recruitment procedures are improved, and women are provided more job choices. However, there is very little change in the policy direction of HRM in the areas of job rotation, transfer and promotion, areas that are

important for women who want to advance to management. Islam (1997) indicated the seniority rules, in terms of age and continuity of service, serves as a criterion to provide promotion and penalties. This rule creates a barrier to women's career development since women tend to leave the company because of family issues, even for a short time, and therefore bear a penalty such as loss of all accumulated years of service. In Japan, women have historically been considered short-term employees and unable to satisfy the requirements of continuous job rotation: thus, this is another reason for preventing women from promoting to the higher levels.

Hashizume (2000) focused on gender issues among Japanese women associated with the caregiving for elderly parents and parents-in-law. In fact, the population over 65 stood at 17 percent in 2000. A survey by Women's Online Media indicated, "Japan will be the first country in the world with more than 20 percent of the total population being over 65" (Higuchi, 2001). According to Hashizume (2000), many women still feel a strong responsibility to take care of their parents and parents-in-law although Japanese women report that they prefer self-realization rather than self-sacrifice. Considering

this issue, the care giving for elderly parents might become more of a pressure, rather than less, and thus prevent women from working outside the home.

Specifically, if women want to work continuously and receive more promotions, they are likely to face escalating conflicts between family and work.

Another piece of evidence for the difficulty associated with balancing family and work comes from a cross-cultural study by Ono (2003). Ono (2003) found interesting results of the relationship between women's employment and their marriage prospects in Japan, U.S. and Sweden. She examined whether an inverse relationship between women's economic standing and marriage timing existed in all national contexts or only in national contexts with a relatively high degree of role differentiation by gender. She collected longitudinal data and used standardized methods to determine whether the inverse relationship was present in three industrialized countries that differed in their degree of role differentiation by gender. The results confirmed that the inverse relationship existed in nations that have a high differentiation by gender. A higher level of women's income decreased the chance of first marriage

among Japanese women but increased the chance of first marriage among both American and Swedish women. Thus, it is clear that Japanese women have some comparable but also different kinds of barriers to women's advancement when compared to American women.

Comparison of Japanese with United States Managers

Although American and Japanese women are from clearly, culturally different societies, both societies are seen as highly developed capitalistic countries (Suzuki, 1991). Moreover, Robins-Mowry (1983) mentioned that there are strong similarities between the modern life styles of Japanese women and those of American women. Another study examined a cross-cultural comparison of sex role attitudes in U.S. and Japan. Suzuki (1991) compared and contrasted the sex role attitudes of American and Japanese women and examined the demographic variables, education, work experience, and age in predicting attitudes toward men and women's sex roles. She used the Japanese Form of The SESRA (the Scale of the Egalitarian Sex Role Attitudes) for Japanese participants and the English Form for American participants. The

purpose of her study was to assess how these variables affected female participants' egalitarian sex role attitudes. According to the findings, American women who had a job were more egalitarian than women without jobs. On the other hand, Japanese women with professional/managerial jobs had more egalitarian sex role attitudes than all other women, with or without jobs. Therefore, it is evident that, overall, Japanese women tend to have lower egalitarian sex role attitudes than American women. Even though America and Japan are highly developed countries, there is a huge difference in their expectation of egalitarian sex roles.

Turning to the effects of sex role expectations of managers, Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, and Liu (1996) conducted a survey to examine the relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among management students in Japan and the People's Republic of China. She compared the results of this study with the results of her previous studies, which were done in the U.S. (1989), Great Britain and Germany (1992). According to the comparison in these five countries, male management students perceived men to be more likely to have successful management

characteristics; this effect held across all countries studied. The results of the degree of managerial sex typing showed that male students in all five countries exhibited high and significant expectations of male-manager similarity. On the other hand, the degree of female-manager similarity was low and close to zero among male students.

Female participants revealed different perceptions regarding the managerial sex typing across the five countries. Although females in four countries perceived that women were less likely to have the managerial characteristic than men, American women rated men and women most similarly in possession of requisite management characteristics. The degree of male-manager similarity among female students from all four countries revealed their ratings of men were significantly associated with managers' characteristics. On the other hand, the degree of female-manager similarity was different in each country. Of the four countries studied, there was a low (Germany $r = .19$ and China $r = .28$) or moderate (U.K. $r = .31$ and U.S. $r = .43$) positive significant resemblance between descriptions of women and

managers. Ratings from the Japanese female students, however, exhibited no significant resemblance between descriptions of women and managers ($r = - .04$). It is more difficult for Japanese women to be recognized to have the requisite management characteristics compared to other countries. Schein et al. (1996) suggested that the variations in the degree of managerial sex typing among female students might reflect their perceptions of opportunities for promotion and actual participation of women in management. In the United States where there are comparatively more women in management, female participants do not rate the manager job as exclusively male. In contrast, females in Japan have far fewer female role models in management.

No research has examined the gender stereotypes of leader traits in Japan. However, Sczesny, Bosak, Neff, and Schyns (2004) examined the gender stereotypes and the attribution of leadership traits in Australia, Germany, and India; based on their findings, some hypotheses can be formulated about Japan. Sczesny et al. (2004) conducted a survey to analyze the impact of cultural background on the perceptions of incongruity between the

feminine and leader roles and on how male and female participants described themselves on those leadership characteristics. They speculated that people in the countries in which there was a high degree of actual participation of women in leadership (holding top political offices and executive positions in companies) would perceive women as more fit in the leader role compared to the countries in which there was a lower degree of the actual participation of women in leadership. To formulate their research hypotheses, they examined information from the United Nations (UN) about the equality of women and men in those countries. Specifically, as a guide to assessing women's roles in their respective countries, they used the Gender-related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure.

The UN publishes a Human Development Report about the achieved equality of women and men in the studied countries to describe the different levels of male-female equality. The UN developed the Human Development Index (HDI), which measures a country's achievements regarding three aspects of human development: longevity, knowledge, and standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth; knowledge is measured by a

combination of the adult literacy rate and enrollments of girls and boys at primary, secondary, and university levels; and standard of living, as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita. The HDI is used to highlight human outcomes, rather than economic data. However, the HDI does not include the information regarding gender inequalities or political participation. To reflect gender inequalities or political participation, the UN also developed the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM).

The GDI is a special form of the HDI and measures the average achievement of each country in life expectancy, literacy, school enrollments, and incomes, taking into account any disparities in achievement between men and women. Although the GDI and HDI measure the same variables, the GDI adjusts the average achievement to account for inequalities between men and women regarding the three key dimensions measured. The higher the GDI value, the more women and men are treated equally on the three dimensions: a long and healthy life, knowledge, and adequate standard of living. For the samples in Sczesny et al.'s study (2004), the GDI

indicated that Australia ranked 4th, Germany ranked 15th, and India ranked 112th of the 143 countries the UN had assessed. As another indicator, Sczesny et al. used the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), which measures these three basic dimensions—economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making, and power over economic resources. Two indicators measure economic participation and decision-making power—women and men's percentage shares of professional and technical positions. Political participation and decision-making power are measured by women and men's percentage shares of parliamentary seats. Finally, power over economic resources is measured by women and men's estimated earned income. As the GEM focuses on women's opportunities rather than their potential, it accounts for existing gender inequality in the above named dimensions. The higher the GEM value, the more gender equality in the areas such as economics and politics. For the samples, used in the Sczesny et al.'s study, on GEM, Australia was ranked 9th, Germany was ranked 5th, and India was ranked 95th of 102 countries.

First, Sczesny et al. (2004) hypothesized that participants in all three countries would be expected to

perceive no differences in the characteristics of male executives and executives-in-general. Second, regarding the leadership characteristics of female executives and executives-in-general, they expected that women would perceive no differences in Australia and Germany while participants in India would report distinct differences (because fewer female role models exist in India). For the third hypothesis, they assumed that cultural background would influence the self-descriptions of women and men in terms of possessing leadership traits. Thus, Sczesny et al. hypothesized that men in all three countries would perceive that they were less likely to possess person-oriented leadership traits than women were. In contrast, they assumed that gender differences in self-descriptions of task-oriented characteristics would reflect cultural background, such as women's actual participation in leadership. Therefore, female participants from the countries in which women's participation is higher, Australia and Germany, were expected to report that they are willing to possess task-oriented leadership traits to a similar extent as men. On the other hand, female participants from India, in which women's actual participation in leadership roles is

lower, would report fewer leadership traits in themselves.

According to their findings, the male participants in all three countries as well as German female participants reported the strongest stereotypes about leaders-in-general. That is, they viewed leaders to possess more male oriented traits than did women in Australia and India, who had less stereotypes of the leader role. Regarding leadership traits, while participants in Australia and India perceived that task-oriented traits were less valued than person-oriented traits, task-oriented were evaluated as more important in Germany. Thus, the results in Germany are consistent with the phenomenon "think-manager-think-male." In summery, Sczesny et al.'s results (2004) support that gender stereotypes still have an impact on the perception of leadership. In addition, they found the perception of leader role and leadership traits varied with culture.

Rationale for Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to analyze the influence of cultural background on the perceived incongruity between female and leader roles and

investigate for potential differences in leadership characteristics between U.S. and Japanese samples. First, similar to Sczesny et al. (2004) who examined the gender stereotypes and the attribution of leadership traits in Australia, Germany, and India, I replicated their study to investigate the cultural impact on female leadership roles in the U.S. and Japan. Sczesny et al. had used the GDI and GEM values as overall indicators of the relative equality of men and women in a country. Following the strategy of Sczesny et al.'s study, I also examined the GDI and GEM values for Japan and the U.S. According to the GDI rank, the U.S. ranked 5th of 144 countries while Japan ranked 13th. As another indicator of gender equality by national background, the GEM ranks show that the U.S. ranked 10th in 70 countries while Japan ranked 44th. For both the GDI and GEM ranks, it is clear that there is less equality between men and women in Japan than in the U.S. Further, the Schein studies have demonstrated that there are continuing differences in how men and women view leadership, especially when participant gender is taken into account. Therefore, I expected that there would be significant differences in

the ratings of relevant traits for executives in Japan and in the U.S.

Following previous studies (Schein, 2001; Schein et al., 1996; Sczesny et al., 2004), I predicted:

H1a. Male executives and executives-in-general will be rated the same on person-oriented and task-oriented traits.

That is, there will be no difference in the ratings of male executives, and executives-in-general on either the person-oriented or task-oriented traits. This lack of difference will be found, regardless of nationality of participants.

As Schein found that American women had a less gender stereotypic view of leadership roles than men, I predicted that American female students would report a less gender stereotypic view of leadership than Japanese female students. As Sczesny et al. (2004) hypothesized, I expected that women in the U.S. would be expected to perceive no differences, regarding the leadership traits of female executives and executives-in-general. In contrast, in Japan, female students would hold the traditional view of leadership. That is, the female students would report pronounced differences between

female executives and executives-in-general. Therefore, two hypotheses were,

H1b1. The U.S. female students will report no differences between executives-in-general and female executives on both traits.

H1b2. The Japanese female students will perceive differences in executives-in-general and female executives on both traits, reflecting a gender stereotypic view of leadership.

On the other hand, for the male students in both countries, I predicted they would hold traditional views of leadership traits for female executives. Therefore, I expected,

H1b3. Male students in both countries will report differences between executives-in-general and female executives.

Gender differences in the self-description ratings of leadership traits are influenced by both gender roles expectations and cultural background (Sczesny et al., 2004). Therefore, I predicted:

H1c1. Male participants in both the U.S. and Japan will report they are less likely than

female participants to possess person-oriented leadership traits.

H1c2. Male participants in Japan will report that they are more likely to possess task-oriented leadership traits than will Japanese female participants; no difference is predicted for males and females in the U.S. sample in possessing task-oriented leadership traits.

Taking into consideration the impact of Confucian culture, there are likely to be differences in the perceived leadership characteristics of American and Japanese samples using the Big Five personality traits that are associated with the prototypical notion of the effective leader. Therefore, I predicted,

H2a. Extraversion and Openness will be the lowest rated traits for the prototypical leader in the Japanese sample. Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Emotional Stability will be the highest rated traits for an effective leader in the Japanese sample.

Because no study was found that asked U.S. participants to rate the Big Five personality factors of their leaders, I had no direct research evidence upon

which to base my hypotheses for the U.S. participants. There has been considerable research, however, examining how the Big Five are revealed in leadership behaviors. For example, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) found using meta-analysis that extraversion, conscientiousness and openness had the strongest and most consistent correlations with leadership success. Specifically, extraversion was the most important trait of effective leaders. To the degree that participants who observe leaders accurately detect those personality characteristics, all five-personality dimensions are positively associated with the prototypical leader in the U.S. To summarize the expected outcomes:

H2b. Japanese participants will rate the Extraversion and Openness of prototypical leaders lower than will U.S. participants.

H2c. No differences by sample will be found in the ratings of Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, or Emotional Stability.

I also focused on how the cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan influence their leadership perceptions. Therefore, to examine the cultural

differences between the U.S. and Japan, I hypothesized that:

H3. Japanese participants will score higher on Confucian values than U.S. participants.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

Following the previous studies (Schein, et al., 1989; Schein et al., 1996; Sczesny et al., 2004), I surveyed undergraduate students in the United States and Japan whose major was business-related or who planned to work (in an organization) after graduation.

There were 394 surveys in total returned; of these, 105 surveys were not usable (see Table 1). For the U.S. sample, there were 39 students whose major was not business-related and whose plans were not to work after graduation. Also, 18 participants chose English as their second language and 14 participants were international students. Finally within the U.S. sample, 34 surveys had pages left blank or evidenced haphazard responding. For the Japanese sample, there were four surveys, which were not usable. These surveys were incomplete and evidenced haphazard responding. When these surveys removed, 289 surveys were usable (see Tables 2, 3). There were 148 usable American surveys (56 male and 92 female) and 141 usable Japanese surveys (85 male and 56 female).

For the U.S. sample, I collected surveys at California State University, San Bernardino by approaching faculty members in the Psychology and Management Departments. I asked these faculty members if I could distribute the survey in their classes. Two professors from Psychology and three professors from Business agreed to allow me to distribute the surveys to their classes. For collecting the Japanese sample, I used an Internet search to find possible university samples. Because the primary focus was university students whose major was management, I contacted 25 professors of management who had put their email address on their school websites. Four professors responded and two of them at Toyo University and Senshu University allowed me to have my survey administered in their classes. I also used personal contacts and found professors willing to administer the survey at Wakayama University.

First, I collected the surveys from 31 students at the Department of Business Administration at Toyo University, and then 35 students at the Department of Business Administration at Senshu University. Finally, surveys from 79 students at Wakayama University were collected.

Toyo University is a university in Tokyo and has 27,521 students including graduate students (2006). Senshu University is also a private university in Kanagawa prefecture located adjacent to Tokyo and has 19,559 undergraduate students (2006). Finally, Wakayama University is one of the national universities in Wakayama prefecture located in southwestern Japan. The university has 4,090 undergraduate students (2006) and offers Master's programs for most of the same disciplines as its undergraduate degrees and one doctoral program in system engineering. Therefore, one of the reasons for choosing Wakayama University was to represent as closely as was possible the similarity between state sponsored schools (CSUSB and Wakayama University) regarding type and size of school.

The participants were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions. Their participation was voluntary and participants were treated in accordance with the APA Standards.

Demographic Sheet

With the demographic sheet (see Appendix A), I asked participants their age, gender, employment status (full

time, part time, or not currently employed), student status (1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year, 4th year, or other), and major. Besides that demographic information, I asked participants of the American sample if they were international students to clarify their status as American students. Additionally, there was a question of their primary language to confirm the cultural background of the American sample. To include participants who were business-oriented, all participants were asked about their plans after graduation. Therefore, not all their majors were business-related (e.g. psychology, literature), but participants whose plans were business-oriented (e.g. working in an organization upon graduation) were included. Finally, I asked all participants whether they had studied abroad. I expected Japanese students who had experienced living in foreign countries might have a more liberal view of female leadership. The effect of studying abroad may not represent a similar effect on American students, but was asked for comparison to the Japanese sample. The responses to the key dependent variables were compared for those who have studied abroad to those who had not.

Materials

I used a questionnaire to collect all data for this thesis research. The U.S. participants were administered an English version, and the Japanese participants answered a version in the Japanese language. The materials for the Japanese sample were translated from English into Japanese by the author (a native speaker of Japanese) and back translated by another native speaker of Japanese who also is fluent in English (a faculty member at CSUSB). Unfortunately, after administration had begun, an error was detected in the Japanese version survey. One row of the Big Five personality survey was missing. This omission affected two items of Extraversion, and one item of both Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability. Item means were used in subsequent analyses as long as there were six valid item responses available.

Design for Hypothesis 1

The design to address the first set of hypotheses followed the method used by Sczesny et al. (2004). In all, four factors were assessed: type of leadership trait, executives' sex, country of participants, and participants' gender. Three surveys were constructed that

varied by the executives' sex to be evaluated by the participants. One survey used "all executives" (gender neutral), another used "male executives" as the target stimulus to be evaluated, and the third used "female executives" as the target stimulus.

Variables

Type of Leadership Trait. Leadership-specific characteristics provided the dependent variables. As I will describe later, there were two types of leadership traits: person-oriented and task-oriented traits. Person-oriented traits consisted of 16 items and task-oriented traits consisted of 18 items (see Table 4). The classification of the items to the two types of traits was based on a pretest developed by Sczesny, et al. (2004). Participants were asked to evaluate these items with regard to target stimulus.

Executive Target Conditions. There were three executive targets: executives-in-general, male executives, female executives. Participants were assigned to one of the three types of target condition and asked to estimate the percentage to which the group possesses two types of leadership traits, which were person-oriented and task-oriented.

Country of Participants. Because I wanted to assess the possible impact of culture, participant background (Japanese and American) was used as an independent variable.

Participants' Gender. To assess the effect for gender, both men and women were included as participants and gender was used as an independent variable.

Therefore, the experimental design of the hypotheses (1a and 1b) described so far was a 2 (country) \times 2 (type of executive target conditions: executives-in-general and male/female executives) \times [2 (type of traits)] repeated-measures ANOVA. Type of traits (person-oriented and task-oriented) was a within-subjects or repeated measure. All participants rated the target conditions on person-oriented and task-oriented traits.

In addition to rating the target stimulus and again following the previous study's procedure (Sczesny et al., 2004), I examined whether men and women had stereotypical views of themselves in terms of leadership traits (Hypothesis 1c). These data were used as a within-subjects factor to evaluate the participants' self-ratings by country and gender. This design was a 2

(country) × 2 (participants' gender) × [2 (types of traits)] repeated-measures ANOVA design.

Measures

Percentage Estimates of Person-oriented and Task-oriented Leadership Traits. Participants were asked to estimate the percentage of a given stimulus groups/person (i.e., executives-in-general, male executives, and female executives) that possess a specific leadership characteristic. Sczesny et al. (2004) developed and pilot tested 16 person-oriented and 18 task-oriented leadership characteristics that were used for the final version of this study's questionnaire. As shown in Appendix B, the questionnaire followed the sentence that provides the target stimulus: "In your opinion, what percent of [all executives; male executives; female executives] possess this characteristic?" Each question was answered on a scale from 0 to 100% in ten percent increments (i.e., 0%, 10%, 20%, 30% etc).

Self-description Ratings. Participants were asked to evaluate whether they possessed the given characteristics of person-oriented and task-oriented traits. As shown in Appendix C, in rating themselves (self-descriptions), participants were asked whether the respective

characteristics described them by using a 4-point rating scale: 1, no; 2, rather no; 3, rather yes; or 4, yes).

Design for Hypotheses 2 and 3

Measures

Big Five Mini-marker. The second set of hypotheses investigated personality traits associated with the prototypical image of the effective leader by using the Mini-Marker survey of the Big Five personality traits (Saucier, 1994). Saucier (1994) developed the Mini-Marker subset based on Goldberg's (1992) Big Five factor structure. The Mini-Marker subset contains 40 adjectives. As shown in Appendix D, participants were asked, "How much should an effective leader possess the following characteristics?" They answered by using a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (extremely: should not possess) to 9 (extremely: should possess).

For the subsequent analyses, a profile analysis was applied to examine the cultural differences regarding Big Five personality traits. In addition, a contrast analysis was used to evaluate Hypothesis 2.

For analysis of Big Five personality traits between two countries, several items were reversed in the scoring

process (see Table 5). To account for these items, I recoded them before creating composite scales.

Chinese Value Survey. To verify any cultural differences that can be attributed to the differences in Confucian culture, I included the Chinese Value Survey. In 1978, the Chinese Culture Connection, an international network of colleagues, developed an instrument to measure Eastern value systems. They created the Chinese Value Survey (CVS) and administered it to university students in 22 countries around the world. The CVS consisted of 40 items whose degree of perceived importance was rated on a 9-point scale. The items chosen were considered fundamental to Chinese culture by a group of Chinese scholars and include basic components of the Chinese traditions such as moderation, ordering relationships by status, benevolent authority, being conservative, and having a sense of shame. Four factors emerged from the factor analysis: Integration (CVS-I), Confucian Work Dynamism (CVS-II), Human-Heartedness (CVS-III), and Moral Discipline (CVS-IV). Regarding factor scores of the U.S. and Japan, Japanese scores were higher than the U.S. scores on all factors. The researchers of the Chinese Culture Connection argued that the eight items of CVS-II

could be considered unique to Eastern culture and heavily Confucian.

In addition, Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung, and Terpstra (1992) conducted a survey to extend the previous study (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987) and to examine the differences and similarities in values among managers in the United States, Hong Kong, and the People's Republic of China (PRC), using the CVS dimensions. On the Confucian Work Dynamism scale (CVS-II), all comparisons in three countries were significant: The PRC sample reported the highest mean score, followed by the Hong Kong and then the U.S.

As the two previous studies (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Ralston et al., 1992) showed, Confucian Work Dynamisms would be an important indicator to identify the cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan.

Because the focus of my research was about the work situation, I returned two items from the original study to the work dynamism subscale. Although "Industry (working hard)" and "Loyalty to superior" did not load significantly on the original scale (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987), the two items would seem to be

consistent with the work dynamism construct. Therefore, I included the 10 items for the Confucian work Dynamism scale. As shown in Appendix E, participants were asked to rate the importance of each item for themselves. They answered by using a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (of no importance to me at all) to 9 (of supreme importance to me). For analysis of Confucian values, four items were reversed in the scoring process. I recoded these reversed items before creating the composite scale.

For analyzing Confucian values, a t test was applied to compare the mean score between the student samples of the two countries. In addition, I examined if the Confucian value scores were correlated with the Big Five personality scores by sample.

Additional Analyses

With respect to the first hypothesis, additional analyses (no hypotheses were generated but to be consistent with the analysis done by Sczesny, et al., 2004) of the importance ratings for each executive target condition and self-description were conducted. Also, I examined what gender group participants imagined when they had received the executives-in-general condition.

Measures

Importance Ratings of Leadership Traits. As shown in Appendix F, to examine the importance of the leadership-specific characteristics, I asked participants to rate each type of executive target condition by using a 7-point rating scale that ranged from 0 (not at all important) to 6 (extremely important). For evaluation of the target stimulus (executives-in-general, male executives, and female executives), I asked, "How important do you find this characteristic to be for an executive?"

Importance Ratings of Self-descriptions on Leadership Traits. As I asked participants about the importance of the leadership-specific characteristics, there was a question to rate the importance of their self-descriptions. As shown in Appendix G, the participants were asked, "How much do you consider the respective characteristics to be important for you to possess?" by using a 7-point rating scale that ranges from 0 (not at all important) to 6 (extremely important).

Image of Executives-in-General. Besides the above, and again following the procedure of Sczesny et al. (2004), I also asked people to identify gender of their

image of executives-in-general. Participants who were assigned to the "executive-in-general" condition were asked to answer which group they imagined while they were responding to the questions: male executives, female executives, or both male and female executives. As shown in Appendix H, the question asked was "Which group did you imagine while answering the questionnaire?"

For the design of this variable, chi-square was applied to ascertain if there was any relationship between students' gender in each country and their values of executives-in-general. Through the analysis of chi-square, I reported the number of students in each cell and percentage of each combination (country and students' gender).

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Data Screening

Prior to beginning data analysis, the assumptions of normality were evaluated through SPSS. The variables of interest in this prescreening were: sample (Japanese and U.S.), type of executive target condition (executives-in-general, male, or female executives), gender, leadership traits (person and task), importance ratings of the traits, self-description ratings of the traits and their importance, Big Five personality traits (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Openness), and Confucian values. Data were collected from 289 undergraduate students in Japan ($n = 141$) and the U.S. ($n = 148$).

Several variables had missing data. However, there were no variables with 5 percent or more missing values, and there were no significant patterns of missing data using a criterion of $p < .001$. For all subsequent data analyses, missing data were excluded.

Using a criterion of $z = |3.3|$, $p < .001$, twelve cases with extremely low z scores on one or more

variables were found to be univariate outliers. Therefore, these cases were deleted. To detect outliers among dichotomous variables, I applied 90-10 splits. There were no univariate outliers among the dichotomous variables. After detecting univariate outliers, I checked for multivariate outliers. With Mahalanobis distance statistic, I used $\chi^2 = 16.266$ ($\alpha = .001$ with $df = 3$) as a criterion. There were no significant multivariate outliers.

To examine normality of the distributions of the individual variables, I checked skewness and kurtosis using a criterion of $z = |3.3|$. Using a z of 3.3, skewness was detected in task-oriented traits ($z = -3.39$), self-descriptions of importance ratings for person-oriented traits ($z = -3.36$), and Conscientiousness of Big Five personality traits ($z = -6.27$). However, considering the self-report nature of the questionnaire, and because this skewness could be expected, I did not apply any transformations to reduce the skewness of these variables.

Because the majority of hypotheses were to be assessed with ANOVA, tests for homogeneity were conducted. The assumption of homogeneity of variance-

covariance matrices was met, except for percentage estimates (Hypothesis 1b), the self-ratings, and the Big Five personality. According to Box's test of equality of covariance matrices, the significance of both percentage estimates (H1b1), self-description ratings and Big Five personality was $p = .001$. Therefore, the assumption of sphericity was violated. The Greenhouse-Geisser correction (G-G correction) was applied for the first two analyses, reducing the degrees of freedom. [Even with these reduced degrees of freedom, the results were the same as for the uncorrected ANOVAs (i.e., significance was achieved in both cases in which the G-G correction was applied)]. For the analyses related to the Big Five personality, because the number of degrees of freedom already was one, it was not necessary to apply any correction.

After deleting all outliers and the evaluation of the assumptions, 277 cases were left for analysis. There were 136 cases in the Japanese sample and 141 cases in the U.S. sample.

Overview of the Planned Analyses

Repeated-Measures Analysis of Variance

Repeated-measures ANOVA using SPSS General Linear Model (GLM) was conducted for examining the first two hypotheses (1a and 1b). Because a priori differences were predicted, I specifically examined F tests and mean differences using pairwise comparisons.

The perception of leadership traits (Hypothesis 1a and 1b) was examined through 2 (country) \times 2 (type of executive target condition: executives-in-general and male or female executives) \times 2 (participants' gender) \times 2 (percentage of types of traits) analysis of variance. In addition, Self-descriptions (Hypothesis 1c) were analyzed through 2 (country) \times 2 (gender) \times 2 (self-ratings of types of traits) analysis of variance.

Additional analyses (no hypotheses were generated but to be consistent with the analysis done by Sczesny, et al.), of the importance ratings for each executive target condition and self-description were conducted. The importance ratings for executives on leadership traits were examined through 2 (country) \times 2 (type of executive target condition: executives-in-general and male or female executives) \times 2 (participants' gender) \times 2

(importance ratings of types of traits) analysis of variance. The self-description of importance ratings was revealed through 2 (country) \times 2 (gender) \times 2 (self-ratings of importance of types of traits) analysis of variance. To decompose the predicted interactions, the simple main effects were evaluated through pairwise comparisons.

Profile Analysis

To examine the cross-cultural differences regarding the Big Five personality of effective leaders, a Profile Analysis (repeated measure ANOVA) was conducted with planned contrasts.

Chi-square

To assess the expected with the observed values of the executives-in-general (image of executives-in-general), a chi-square analysis was used. For reporting the results, the number and the percentage of students' responses in each cell within gender are shown.

T-test

To assess the cultural difference in Confucian values between the U.S. and Japan, a t test was applied. Using the t-test, I examined whether the mean of the U.S.

sample was significantly different from the mean of the Japanese sample.

Correlation Analysis

To assess the correlation (by sample) between Confucian value scores and Big Five personality, Pearson product moment correlations were calculated.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a

Regarding executives-in-general and male executives, I predicted:

H1a. Male executives and executives-in-general will be rated the same on person-oriented and task-oriented traits, regardless. This lack of difference will be found, regardless of nationality of participants.

To examine this hypothesis, I used the data from the students who rated executives-in-general and male executives. Ninety-nine students in total rated executives-in-general and 80 students rated male executives.

First, main effects were examined through between-subjects ANOVA. Concerning the effect of executive target condition, no significant mean differences were found for either rating of traits, person, [$F(1, 171) = 3.43$, $p = .066$] and task, [$F(1, 171) = .857$, $p = .356$] (see Table 6 for person, Table 7 for task). Although no significant differences by executive target condition were found, subsequent analyses demonstrated differences by country. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported.

Other effects from this ANOVA were examined. For the effect of country, the person-oriented result was not significant, $F(1, 171) = 3.07$, $p = .081$. For the interaction effect, the person-oriented result was not significant, $F(4, 171) = 1.68$, $p = .157$. (see Table 6). However, the task-oriented results by country were significant, $F(1, 171) = 15.12$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .081$. As shown in Table 7, the U.S. participants ($M = 77.49$) rated the target higher on task-oriented traits than the Japanese participants did ($M = 71.84$). Although I predicted no effect of country on both traits, the task-oriented traits differed. The task-oriented result was significant, $F(4, 171) = 5.12$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .107$. The mean scores of person-oriented traits are shown in

Table 6 and in Figure 1 for male participants and Figure 2 for female participants. The mean scores of task-oriented traits are shown in Table 7 and in Figure 3 for males, Figure 4 for females.

Hypothesis 1b

To test the hypotheses 1b, there were data available from 176 students (male: 89 and female: 87) who were assigned into one of two conditions: executives-in-general (n = 99) and female executives (n = 77). There were three hypotheses for these conditions. Hypothesis 1b1 and 1b2 focused on female students in two countries. Hypothesis 1b3 analyzed the ratings made by male students in their reactions to the two conditions. The results of person-oriented traits are shown in Table 8 and in Figure 5 for males and Figure 6 for females. The results of task-oriented traits are shown in Table 9 and in Figure 7 for males and Figure 8 females.

United States Female Students (Hypothesis 1b1). For the U.S. female students, I predicted that they would not show the stereotypic views of leadership. Specifically, I expected,

H1b1. The U.S. female students will report no differences between executives-in-general and female executives on both traits.

To examine this hypothesis, pairwise comparisons were conducted. As I predicted, the ratings of both traits were not significantly different in the U.S. female students, thus supporting the hypothesis, person, $[F(1, 168) = 3.11, p = .080]$ and task, $[F(1, 168) = .176, p = .675]$.

Japanese Female Students (Hypothesis 1b2). Contrary to the U.S. females, Japanese females were expected to perceive stereotypic views of leadership traits.

Therefore, I predicted for the Japanese female students,

H1b2. The Japanese female students will perceive differences in rating executives-in-general and female executives on both traits, reflecting a gender stereotypic view of leadership.

Through the analysis of the pairwise comparisons, I examined this hypothesis. Although the Japanese females were expected to report differences in rating two executives' conditions, the results did not show differences on either trait, person, $[F(1, 168) = .058, p$

= .810] and task, [$F(1, 168) = 1.65$, $p = .201$]. That is, they did not differentiate between executives-in-general and female executives and thus the data did not support the hypothesis.

Male Students in Japan and the United States
(Hypothesis 1b3). For the male students in both countries, I predicted they would hold traditional views of leadership traits. Therefore, I expected,

H1b3. Male students in both countries will report differences between executives-in-general and female executives.

Using pairwise comparisons, this hypothesis was examined. The U.S. male students differentiated between executives-in-general and female executives on person-oriented traits, person $F(1, 168) = 4.65$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .027$. The mean scores are shown in Table 8. U.S. male participants perceived that female executives were more likely to have person-oriented traits than executives-in-general. However, for the perception of task-oriented traits, participants did not differentiate these executives' conditions, task $F(1, 168) = .454$, $p = .501$. Therefore, my prediction was not supported.

For the Japanese male students, the results were unexpected. According to the results, the ratings by the Japanese male students of both person-oriented and task-oriented traits were significantly different, person, $[F(1, 168) = .4.11, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .024]$ and task, $[F(1, 168) = 17.42, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .094]$. The mean scores are shown in Table 8 for person-oriented traits and Table 9 for task-oriented traits. Although they differentiated on both traits, they rated executives-in-general higher on both traits than those of female.

Hypothesis 1c

To examine how both gender role expectations and cultural background influenced participants' self-descriptions of leadership traits, two hypotheses (Hypothesis 1c1 and 1c2) were proposed and tested. There were 270 students who rated themselves on leadership traits. The U.S. students numbered 136 and Japanese students numbered 134. Regarding gender, there were 130 male students and 140 female students.

Person-oriented Traits (Hypothesis 1c1). Following the previous study by Sczesny et al., (2004), I predicted gender differences in the self-ratings of person-oriented traits,

H1c1. Male participants in both the U.S. and Japan will report that they are less likely than female participants to possess person-oriented leadership traits.

According to the results of pairwise comparisons (see Table 10, Figure 9), no significant mean differences were found in self-description ratings between males and females among the Japanese participants, person, $F(1, 266) = 1.02$, $p = .313$. Likewise, no significant mean difference in self-descriptions between males and females in the U.S. participants was found, person $F(1, 266) = 1.48$, $p = .224$. Although I predicted the differences between males and females in both countries, no significant differences by gender were revealed for person-oriented traits.

Task-oriented Traits (Hypothesis 1c2). For task-oriented traits, I predicted that the U.S. and Japanese sample would report differently the ratings of themselves.

H1c2. Male participants in Japan will report that they are more likely to possess task-oriented leadership traits than will Japanese female participants; no difference is predicted

for males and females in the U.S. sample in possessing task-oriented leadership traits.

The results of pairwise comparisons revealed the Japanese male students reported that they were more likely to possess task-oriented traits, compared to the Japanese females, as I predicted (see Table 11, Figure 10). However, the result of the U.S. sample also revealed significant differences between males and females (see Table 11 and Figure 10). The U.S. males also perceived that they were more likely to possess task-oriented traits than the U.S. female students. Therefore, hypothesis 1c2 was partially supported. Japan, [$F(1, 266) = 6.51, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .024$] and U.S. [$F(1, 266) = 9.68, p < .05, .035$]. The mean scores are shown in Table 11.

Big Five Personality Traits

To examine how cultural background influenced the perception of an effective leader, the five-factor model was applied. There were 268 students who rated the ideal Big Five personality traits of a leader (the U.S. $n = 139$ and the Japanese $n = 129$). Following the study of Leung et al. (2003), I predicted,

H2a. Extraversion and Openness will be the lowest rated traits for the prototypical leader in the Japanese sample. Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Emotional Stability will be the highest rated traits for an effective leader in the Japanese sample.

Using a within-subjects contrast, I compared Extraversion and Openness with Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Emotional Stability for the Japanese sample. The results showed that these contrasts were not significantly different, $F(1, 128) = .118, p = .731$. Contrary to the prediction, Japanese students did not rate Extraversion and Openness as effective leaders' traits lower than Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Emotional Stability.

The second hypothesis focused on the traits, Extraversion and Openness. I predicted for the U.S. and Japanese sample,

H2b. Japanese participants will rate the Extraversion and Openness of prototypical leaders lower than will U.S. participants.

To examine this hypothesis, I used pairwise comparisons. According to the results of this analysis,

the ratings of Extraversion and Openness were not significantly different in the U.S. and Japan (see Table 12). Therefore, contrary to the prediction, the results did not differ in these countries, Extraversion, [$F(1, 266) = 3.10, p = .080$] and Openness, [$F(1, 266) = 2.80, p = .096$].

Following the second hypothesis, the third hypothesis focused on Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Emotional Stability. Contrary to the second hypothesis, because I expected that the Japanese participants would rate higher on these three traits, I predicted the participants in the U.S. and Japan would rate a prototypical leader to a similar extent. Therefore, I hypothesized,

H2c. No differences will be hypothesized in the ratings of Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, or Emotional Stability by sample.

Using pairwise comparisons, the ratings of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability were different in the U.S. and Japanese sample. Specifically, the ratings of the U.S. score were higher than their Japanese counterparts (see Table 12 and Figure 11). That is, the U.S. students were more likely to

consider that an effective leader should possess these traits, compared to the Japanese students, Agreeableness, [$F(1, 266) = 24.97, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .086$], Conscientiousness, [$F(1, 266) = 21.12, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .074$], and Emotional Stability, [$F(1, 266) = 50.91, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .161$]. The mean scores are shown in Table 12.

Chinese Value Survey

To examine one possible cultural difference between the U.S. and Japanese sample, the Chinese Value Survey (Confucian values) developed by the Chinese Culture Connection (1978) was used. Because I assumed that the perception of leadership traits could be influenced by the cultural difference, I predicted,

H3. Japanese participants will score higher on Confucian values than U.S. participants.

After excluding the missing data, 270 surveys (the U.S. $n = 136$ and Japanese $n = 134$) were analyzed on this Confucian variable. The result of a t test revealed that the mean scores of the U.S. sample and the Japanese counterparts were significantly different in Confucian values, $t(268) = -2.43, p < .05$. As I predicted, the mean scores of the Japanese sample ($M = 5.41$) were higher

than their U.S. counterparts ($M = 5.25$). The expectation that there would be the cultural differences between the two countries regarding Confucian values was found.

I also examined the correlations between Confucian value scores and Big Five personality scores for participants in both countries. These scores were not significantly correlated (see Table 13). Therefore, Confucian values did not impact Big Five personality scores, regardless of the mean differences of Confucian variables in the two countries.

Additional Analyses

Importance Ratings

Executives-in-General and Male Executives. Through pairwise comparisons, the results showed the U.S. female students valued task-orientation as less important for male executives than for executives-in-general. The mean scores of person-oriented are shown in Table 14 and Figure 12 for males, Figure 13 for females. The mean scores of task-oriented are shown in Table 15 and Figure 14 for males, Figure 15 for females.

To investigate the impact of each main effect on the individual DVs, univariate analyses were performed.

Concerning the effect for country, a significant differences were found on both traits, person, [$F(1, 181) = 24.19, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .118$] and task, [$F(1, 181) = 26.17, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .126$]. For the person-oriented traits (see Table 14), the U.S. students ($M = 5.05$) rated higher than the Japanese counterparts ($M = 4.52$). For task-oriented traits (see Table 15), the U.S. ($M = 5.05$) rated higher than the Japanese counterparts ($M = 4.57$). For the effect of gender, the ratings of person-oriented traits were not significantly different, $F(1, 181) = 3.76, p = .501$. On the other hand, the ratings of task-oriented traits were significantly different, $F(1, 181) = 5.44, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .029$. For the interaction effects, the ratings of both traits were not significantly different, person, $F(4, 181) = 1.12, p = .350$ and task, $F(4, 181) = .634, p = .639$.

Executives-in-General and Female Executives. For the effect of country, U.S. students rated significantly higher than Japanese students on both leadership traits, person, [$F(1, 178) = 25.75, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .126$], and task, [$F(1, 178) = 20.31, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .102$]. For the effect of executives' conditions, students in both countries rated executives-in-general higher than

female executives on person-oriented, $F(1, 178) = 4.40$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .024$. On the other hand, they did not rate these type of executives on task-oriented traits differently, $F(1, 178) = 2.48$, $p = .117$. For the interaction effect, person, $F(1, 178) = .890$, $p = .471$ and task, $F(1, 178) = 1.54$, $p = .192$. Using pairwise comparisons, I found that the U.S. male students were more likely to value person-oriented traits as less important for female executives than for executives-in-general. The mean scores of person-oriented traits are shown in Table 16 and Figure 16 for males, Figure 17 for females. The mean scores of task-oriented traits are shown in Table 17 and Figure 18 for males, Figure 19 for females.

Self-description Ratings. I asked students to rate how important each leadership characteristic would be for them. There were 271 students who rated themselves on importance ratings of leadership traits. The U.S. students were 137 in number and Japanese students were 134. Regarding the gender, there were 131 male students and 140 female students.

For the effect of country, the ratings of both traits were significantly different. U.S. students rated

themselves higher than Japanese students did on both traits, person, [$F(1, 267) = 29.80, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .100$], task, [$F(1, 267) = 42.30, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .137$]. For the effect of gender, male and female students were not different in rating themselves on both traits, [person: $F(1, 267) = .075, p = .785$, task: $F(1, 267) = 2.12, p = .146$]. Likewise, the interaction effects were not found, person, $F(1, 267) = .709, p = .400$ and task, $F(1, 267) = .624, p = .430$. Pairwise comparisons did not reveal any significant differences. The mean scores of person-oriented traits are shown in Table 18 and Figure 20. The mean scores of task-oriented traits are shown in Table 19 and Figure 21.

Image of Executives-in-General

Following the previous study of Sczesny et al. (2004), I examined how students perceived "executives-in-general." Students who were assigned to the "executives-in-general" condition were asked to answer which gender grouping they imagined while they were responding to the questions: male executives, female executives, or both male and female executives. There were 101 students who responded to this question (Japan $n = 58$ and U.S. $n = 43$).

The results of chi-square test were significant only in the U.S. sample, overall $\chi^2(2, N = 101) = 6.68, p < .05$. Whereas men imagined no female executives and mostly male executives, women reported that they had imagined both male and female executives. However, no significance was found in Japan, overall $\chi^2(2, N = 101) = 3.60, p = .166$. For the Japanese sample, that lack of difference appears to reflect that men and women alike imagined male executives (see Table 20). Therefore, gender stereotypes were still found in the students' perceptions.

Overseas Experiences

Finally, I compared students in both countries who had studied abroad to those who had not on each hypothesis. As I assumed, U.S. students ($n = 6$) showed no difference in rating each type of executive regardless of their overseas experiences.

However, within the Japanese sample there were some differences between students who had studied abroad and those who had not. There were 29 Japanese students who have studied abroad (male = 16 and female = 13). Regardless of their experience studying in foreign countries, Japanese students rated executives-in-general

higher than male or female executives on leadership traits. In other words, all Japanese students rated executives-in-general higher than male or female executives on leadership traits. Although the experiences of studying abroad were not clearly found in rating executives, self-description ratings were found to be different between the two groups. Through an analysis of pairwise comparisons, Japanese students who had studied abroad rated themselves higher on both leadership traits than those who had not. In addition, those who had studied abroad rated Extraversion of Big Five personality higher than those who had not; there were no other differences between the Japanese students who had studied abroad and those who had not for the Big Five traits.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The present study examined cultural differences of gender stereotypes in management. To investigate whether these stereotypic views exist, three hypotheses were examined. To address the first two hypotheses, students were asked to estimate the percentage to which one of three executive target conditions possessed person-oriented and task-oriented leadership traits. The third hypothesis was examined by analyzing whether students perceived themselves as possessing leadership traits.

In addition to examining these hypotheses, I analyzed cultural variations of perspectives of an effective leader. In particular, I examined whether there was the influence of Confucian culture in the ratings of Big Five personality. As additional analyses, I asked students to rate each executive target and themselves on importance ratings of leadership traits. Finally, I also examined the image of executives-in-general.

Executives-in-General and Male Executives

Following the results of Schein et al. (1996) and Sczesny et al. (2004), I expected that management students would not differentiate in their ratings of leadership traits for executives-in-general and male executives. Specifically, as many people perceive that men are more likely to have successful managerial characteristics than women (Schein, et al., 1996), I expected that the ratings of the characteristics of executives-in-general and male executives would be similar. Regardless of country or gender, these similarities of leadership characteristics between executives-in-general and male executives were expected. For the ratings of person-oriented traits, participants did not differentiate between executives-in-general and male executives as I had predicted. However, the results of task-oriented traits revealed differences by country.

To look at the results precisely, pairwise comparisons were used. Through this analysis, Japanese male students revealed unexpected results in rating executives on both traits (see Figures 1, 3). They differentiated the leadership traits of these executives and rated executives-in-general on leadership traits

higher than male executives. There are several reasons to explain why this study's result was not consistent with the previous studies (Schein et al., 1996; Sczesny, et al., 2004). First, we may consider that the current Japanese society has been in a process of change since the revised EEO was put into force (1999). When Schein et al. (1996) conducted a survey for Japanese management students, the opinions of these students probably had not been influenced by the changing society due to the revised EEO. As one of indicators of the influence of this change of Japanese society, a survey by the Japanese government (2004) found that the percentage of disagreement with the statement "men at work and women at home" was slightly higher than that of agreement. These proportions by gender are fairly close to the results of the χ^2 in my study regarding which executive group the participants imagined when they responded to the executive-in-general condition. Perhaps the Japanese views of executives or leadership have been changing. Therefore, the unexpected results found in the Japanese male sample may reflect these Japanese current circumstances.

However, based on other analyses (i.e., the importance ratings), there are other explanations for these results. Because I personally did not distribute the survey for the Japanese sample, the students could not ask any questions about this survey. Therefore, their understanding of some questions may have been different from what I had intended. In addition, it is possible that some Japanese students may have felt some kind of pressure in answering this survey. While entering the data, I found one Japanese participant had written on his survey that his instructor had required students to put their names on the survey. This demand characteristic may have induced some students to alter their answers and thus could have contributed to the unusual findings for the Japanese male participants.

As an additional analysis, importance ratings of these executives were examined. Through the analysis of pairwise comparisons, I found that the U.S. female students valued task-oriented leadership traits less importantly for male executives than for executives-in-general. Schein et al. (1989) found in their study that the U.S. women's view of managerial competence was different from that of participants from the other

countries in her study; the female students in this thesis study also had different views when compared with the Japanese female students. Further, although the Japanese male students perceived differences in their rated percentage estimates of executives-in-general and male executives, they did not rate the two executive groups differently on the importance ratings of leadership traits. Because they reported that executives-in-general and male executives would desire to possess both leadership traits to a similar extent, the perception of Japanese male students toward these executives was more likely to be "think-manager-think male." Beside this analysis, the χ^2 was not significant because the proportions were fairly evenly distributed across women and men. Therefore, the analysis of the images of executives-in-general also revealed that Japanese students--both male and female--imagined predominately male executives, consistent with a stereotypic view of executives, "think-manager-think-male."

Executives-in-General and Female Executives

Schein et al. (1989) found that female management students reported different perspectives from their male counterparts in the U.S. Besides this result, with respect to the cultural differences, Schein (2001) also argued that participants' leadership stereotyping could be different if they perceive their opportunities for or actual participation in management. Therefore, following the strategy employed by Sczesny et al. (2004), I also described how the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) were indicators of the degree of gender equality in the U.S. and Japan. For GDI score, which measures a long and healthy life, knowledge, and adequate standard of living, the U.S. was 5th out of 144 countries while Japan was 13th out of 144 countries. For the GEM score, which measures economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making, and power over economic resources, the U.S. ranked 10th out of 70 countries, and Japan ranked 44th out of 70 countries. For this thesis, the GEM scores might be the more relevant as they represent the constructs of interest in this thesis study, those that relate to leadership models in the

workplace. The GDI scores, which reflect standards of living, did not differentiate Japan from the U.S. as much as did the GEM scores. The standards of living are relatively similar for Japan and the U.S. whereas the amount of political and economic power are much more divergent between the two cultures. Specifically, the GEM scores revealed that Japan ranked considerably lower than the U.S.

For the first hypothesis (Hypothesis 1b1), I predicted that the U.S. female students would not differentiate between executives-in-general and female executives in rating both traits. This hypothesis was in keeping with the GEM score and means that the female students would rate in accordance to their perception for opportunities in management. Therefore, regardless of types of leadership traits, the U.S. female students were expected to report the same scores in rating both trait types. The results of this study indicated that these students reported no difference in rating on both traits as predicted, results consistent with previous studies (Schein et al., 1989).

On the other hand, Japanese female students were expected to rate executives-in-general and female

executives differently. As the GEM score represents fewer economic and political opportunities for women in Japan, I anticipated that Japanese female students would not perceive many opportunities for management or actual participation in higher positions. Therefore, these students were expected to report that executives-in-general would possess different leadership traits than female executives. Contrary to this expectation, the Japanese female students did not differentiate between executives-in-general and female executives on either leadership trait. In other words, they perceived that executives-in-general and female executives would possess leadership traits to a similar extent. These results in the Japanese sample were not generally consistent with Schein and associates' previous study (Schein et al., 1996). Japanese female students did not perceive of executives-in-general as exclusively male when asked to indicate which group of executives they had imagined while rating the executive in general. This finding suggests that the Japanese female students might have optimistic views of opportunities for managerial positions.

Suzuki (1991) found that Japanese women with education and career-oriented managerial jobs tended to have an egalitarian sex role attitude in her study. When she conducted her research (1991), the egalitarian sex role attitude among U.S. and Japanese women were significantly different probably because of the differences in education or fewer opportunities for managerial jobs for Japanese women. However, as the number of Japanese women who pursue higher education has increased, an egalitarian sex role attitude might be more prevalent among Japanese females than ever before.

In addition to this perspective, Powell, Butterfield, and Parent (2002) suggested how undergraduate students were aware of their circumstances in terms of business settings. Powell et al. (2002) investigated whether the perception of gender stereotypes of managerial characteristics have changed with an increase in the proportion of women managers. They used the data collected in 1990 and compared these data with the data collected from the same two groups in 1984-1985 and 1976-1977. Powell et al. (2002) found that there had been a change in stereotyping across the decades studied. Powell et al. suggested that the personal experiences of

business students were a key factor in the reduction of stereotyping. In more recent years, more students had parents, relatives, or other models of women in the workforce. Considering the responses from Powell et al.'s sample, the Japanese sample in my study also may have seen some sort of change in the proportion of women in management through elders and public media. Therefore, the Japanese students, especially females, showed views that differed from the results of Schein et al.'s study (1996).

The latest study of gender stereotypes in Japan may also help to explain this result. Gunkel, Lusk, Wolff, and Li (2007) examined the effect of gender stereotypes on the importance of work-related goals, the preference for performance rewards, and the preference for management styles in Germany, China, Japan, and the U.S. From their study, Japanese full-time male and female employees exhibited similar patterns for managerial styles, especially for decision-making. This result was not consistent with the previously found characteristic of high masculinity for Japanese society on Hofstede's dimensions (1990). Therefore, the results of no differences between executives-in-general and female

executives among Japanese females have some consistency with previous studies (Gunkel, Lusk, Wolff, & Li, 2007; Suzuki, 1991).

Finally, I examined how male students rated executives-in-general and female executives in terms of leadership traits. Also following Sczesny et al.'s (2004) strategy, I predicted that male students would differentiate executives-in-general and female executives. I found that the U.S. male students rated female executives on person-oriented traits higher than executives-in-general. However, they did not rate differently the two executives' conditions in terms of task-oriented traits. This result was consistent with the perceptions of Australian male students in Sczesny et al.'s study (2004) and revealed that the U.S. male students still hold stereotypic views of female executives with regard to person-oriented traits. Perhaps, the male students rating female executives higher on person-oriented traits is not an altogether negative outcome. What one does not know is if those same students would respect the authority of a female executive who displayed person-oriented characteristics. These results are in keeping with some arguments made by Eagly (2007)

in which she compared the potential advantages for women in leadership positions in the U.S. with the known disadvantages to women. Considering the characteristics associated with leadership, women face a conflict with masculine leader roles and people's expectations of them as women. Although attitudinal prejudices toward female leaders yet remain in the U.S., women have steadily achieved more leadership and managerial positions over the years (Eagly, 2007). Relative to the findings in this study, Eagly suggested that there would be some situations (i.e., middle-level leadership positions) where women would be perceived to be more effective than men because these types of positions require communal or person-oriented skills. Therefore, female executives with person-oriented leadership traits might not be negatively evaluated in business settings.

The Japanese male students rated the executive targets in an unexpected way. Although they differentiated executives-in-general and female executives on both leadership traits, I had not expected that they would rate executives-in-general higher than female executives on person-oriented traits. As I found differences in rating executives-in-general and male

executives on task-oriented traits, the Japanese male students tended to have unique perspectives regarding leadership traits. As found in executives-in-general and male executives on task-oriented traits, I could explain this latter result by the same reasoning (e.g., the revised EEO, or changes in current Japanese society). Although Yuasa (2005) showed that the number of women employed has noticeably increased over the past forty years, there are still very few female managers in Japanese society because of its "male dominant culture" (Yuasa, 2005, p. 207). Considering this Japanese situation, it is not likely that the lack of differences in rating executives-in-general and female executives is a result of positive reasons (e.g., the revised EEO or the results from the survey by the Japanese government). Rather, it makes more sense that there are too few Japanese female managers as existing executive models for the male students to imagine "female" executives and rate them. Therefore, Japanese men may have rated female executives relatively similarly to executives-in-general because their only available examples of executives are men. Therefore, they may have had no image of female executives upon which to draw while completing the survey.

As an additional analysis, I examined importance ratings of these executives' conditions. Using pairwise comparisons, I found that the U.S. male students were less likely to value person-oriented traits for female executives than for executives-in-general. As one of the possible reasons to explain this result, the U.S. male students might perceive that task-oriented traits would be better traits than person-oriented traits for leaders to possess, which is consistent with previous research (Schein, 1973). Therefore, the U.S. males who perceived that female executives would display more person-oriented traits, compared to executives-in-general, valued those traits less.

Self-description Ratings

For rating person-oriented traits, I assumed that male participants would report possessing these traits to a lesser extent than female counterparts. Because men's view of leadership competence would be expected to be influenced by gender stereotypes (Sczesny et al., 2004), I predicted that men would be less likely than women to assign themselves person-oriented leadership traits (Hypothesis 1c1). However, this study revealed that men in both Japan and the United States reported themselves

as possessing person-oriented traits to a similar extent as women in the U.S. and Japan. Therefore, regardless of cultural background, not only the women's view, but also the men's view of themselves in terms of leadership traits was not apparently influenced by gender stereotypes (Sczesny et al., 2004).

For rating task-oriented traits, I expected cultural differences would be found. The Japanese men were expected to report that they possessed more task-oriented leadership traits than the Japanese women (Hypothesis 1c2). This study found results consistent with the prediction. Therefore, the Japanese male students tended to respond in concert with gender stereotypes in terms of task-oriented leadership competence.

For the U.S. sample, because Schein et al.'s (1989) more recent work suggested that female management students perceived women and men as equally likely to possess characteristics necessary for successful middle managers, I expected that the U.S. men and women would not differ in how they rated themselves as possessing task-oriented trait. Contrary to the prediction, U.S. males reported that they were more likely to have task-oriented traits, when compared to their female

counterparts. Therefore, men and women in both countries revealed gender stereotypic views in terms of rating their own characteristics related to leadership competence.

For the importance ratings of self-descriptions, the U.S. participants (men and women) rated themselves significantly higher on both leadership traits than their Japanese counterparts. However, male and female participants in each country perceived that they valued both traits to a similar extent. In a recent study conducted by Gunkel et al. (2007), men and women in both the U.S. and Japan did not reveal gender stereotypic views of work-related goals. Among the U.S. sample, men and women held closely to the gender stereotypes on work-related goals as predicted. Contrary to the expected gender stereotypes, Japanese men in the Gunkel et al. study perceived more favorably not only the masculine work attribute of advancement but also feminine factors such as fringe benefits. In contrast, Japanese women were more likely to value not only physical working conditions but also the challenging work that is supposed to be valued more highly by men. Thus, the results of my study

are comparable to the lowered gender stereotypical views found in Gunkel et al.'s study.

Big Five Personality and Confucian Values

Before analyzing the Big Five personality data, I investigated whether the Japanese participants would report greater emphasis on Confucian values. If the Japanese students achieved higher scores on Confucian values than the U.S. sample, this cultural difference would help to support the contention that cultural values may explain, in part, other results. Specifically, it would be helpful to investigate if the results of Big Five personality could be explained as influenced by Confucian values. As I predicted, the scores in the Japanese sample were higher than in the U.S. Therefore, the Japanese students are likely still being influenced by Confucian culture.

Reflecting Confucian values, Extraversion and Openness were expected to be rated lower as traits of an effective leader in Japan, compared to the other three traits of Big Five personality. Therefore, I predicted that the Japanese participants would report that an effective leader should not possess Extraversion and

Openness to any great extent. In addition, I predicted that they would report that an effective leader was more likely to possess Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability. However, the Japanese participants did not differentiate the first two traits (Extraversion and Openness) from the second three traits (Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability) as expected. A review of the graph in Figure 21 indicates that the lowest means were not Extraversion or Openness but Agreeableness and Emotional Stability. The result that Agreeableness and Emotional Stability were the lowest was in the opposite direction of the results of Leung and Bozionelos's study (2004). Despite the greater Confucian values found in the Japanese sample, there was no effect of Confucian culture apparent in the Big Five profiles. In addition, as Leung and Bozionelos found an effect for gender, I examined a profile analysis by gender in Japan. Contrary to the previous study, Japanese male and female students did not rate Big Five personality traits differently. Considering this analysis as well, the men and women in the Japanese sample in this study did not demonstrate a significant impact of Confucian values in rating the Big Five personality of the ideal leader.

Although overall, the impact of Confucian values was not found among Japanese students, the means for Conscientiousness, though not statistically significantly different, were in the direction of the previous study (Leung and Bozionelos, 2004). Therefore, the Big Five trait of Conscientiousness appeared to show some influence of Confucian values.

Second, I compared the U.S. score and the Japanese score on the ratings of Extraversion and Openness. I predicted the U.S. students would rate Extraversion and Openness higher than the Japanese students would (Hypothesis 2b). The results revealed that participants in both countries reported that an effective leader should possess Extraversion and Openness to a similar degree. Interestingly, regardless of cultural differences, students in both countries tended to expect a leader to have Extraversion and Openness.

In the ratings of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability, I predicted differences between the two countries. Reflecting the influence of Confucian values, I had anticipated that cultural differences would be found in these personality variables. As I predicted on Hypothesis 2a, I assumed that Agreeableness,

Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability would be more important for an effective leader in Japan. Therefore, I expected the Japanese scores would be higher on these traits, compared to the U.S. scores. However, this study revealed unexpected results. Although cultural variation was found on Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability, it was the U.S. students who rated these traits higher than the Japanese students.

As an additional analysis, I examined the correlations between Confucian value scores and Big Five personality scores in both countries. There were no statistically significant correlations between these scores for participants in either sample. The values expected in the Japanese sample as a result of a Confucian culture was found, relative to the U.S. sample, but in neither case did those values relate to personality dimensions.

Overall, I found little evidence that the Big Five personality of the prototypical leader was influenced by Confucian values, as was shown by Leung and Bozionelos (2003). One of the possible reasons for this result was that the questionnaire asked about "an effective leader." If I had asked students to rate themselves (e.g., self-

description ratings), the influence of Confucian values may have been evident in the ratings of the Big Five personality. Also, the lowest factor, Emotional Stability, has six negatively worded items out of eight items. Therefore, when Japanese students answered these items, the negatively worded items might have been less clear to them than the positively worded items. There is some evidence that scales with mixed items (both positively and negatively worded statements) may not yield comparable measurements when used cross culturally (Wong, Rindfleisch, & Burroughs, 2003).

Limitations

There are some limitations that must be considered for this study. First, all of the data were based on self-ratings. It is always possible that when participants rate themselves, they intentionally or unintentionally bias their ratings. The fact that this study revealed differences between the percentage ratings of the executive conditions and those of the importance ratings for the Japanese sample in particular suggests some possible distortion. That is, the importance ratings for the Japanese participants were more similar to

previous studies than were the percentage ratings of the executives, suggesting that some form of self report bias was operating. Second, for the Japanese surveys, I asked a third party (professors at each University) to collect the data. Therefore, if students had questions, no one knowledgeable about the survey could answer them. Considering this situation, perhaps students responded to questions despite potential difficulties in understanding the task. Because the original survey materials were in German and English, the translated surveys in Japan may not have conveyed the meaning intended. Although the translations and back translations were done by native Japanese speakers who also understood English, it is possible that the construct meanings were not equivalent. In addition, it is possible that the perceptions of "executives-in-general" are not commonly shared by individuals in different cultures (Sczesny et al., 2004). For instance, although Schein's studies showed people generally consider executives-in-general as male executives, Japanese male students in this study may not have considered "executives" as a similar concept to 'male' or 'female' executives. The concept of "executive" in Japan might express a certain status not similarly

communicated when that term is modified with an adjective, regardless of the type of modifier (i.e., gendered).

Considering no students held full time jobs in the Japanese sample, it may have been hard for Japanese students to imagine executives-in-general.

Future Implications

Although Schein (2001) suggested that there is a similar tendency in terms of attitudes between management students and organizational manager, it would be interesting to extend the cross-cultural investigation to managers' perception of leadership. Although students were targeted because they represent future employees and managers, their responses may not reflect what they would do when employed. Such research could positively influence the perception of female managers and increase opportunities of women for managerial positions. Although we did not find typical stereotypes in terms of the perception of executives, it is true that there are very few female managers in Japan (Yuasa, 2005). Therefore, besides gender stereotypes of managerial position, it may be useful to investigate structural factors that prevent women from being promoted. Finally, because this is

cross-cultural comparison, the survey materials had to be translated into Japanese. Considering the effect of translation, the surveys of this study may not have precisely represented opinions of Japanese people because the translation may not have adequately converged the same meanings to the participants as for the U.S. participants. This concern echoes other research into the difficulty of adequately capturing measurement equivalence across cultures (e.g., Wong, et al., 2003) and reinforces the need for additional cross-cultural research.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

The present study showed that gender stereotypes of executives (think-manager-think male) were not clearly found, compared to the results from Sczesny et al.'s study (2004). Although previous studies suggested Japan was a highly masculine country and I expected students to have more stereotypic views of executives than the U.S., the Japanese students' stereotypic views were always different when compared to the U.S. students. First, I found that Japanese males had different perspectives of executives-in-general and male executives in rating leadership traits. Although the gender stereotype of executives was expected to be high in a masculine society such as Japan, this study did not support my expectation. In addition, female students in both countries revealed similar tendencies in their perceptions of executives-in-general and female executives. This lack of stereotypic views among Japanese students may reflect changes in the current Japanese society. However, this optimism must be mitigated by one of the additional analyses (i.e. executives-in-general imagined gender) that suggested

gender stereotyping of executives among those in the Japanese sample. With respect to image of executives-in-general, men and women in Japan did imagine predominately male executives when rating executives-in-general.

Therefore, although Japanese students may not have gender stereotypical views of leadership traits, they may have gender stereotypic picture of leaders.

Concerning the impact of cultural differences, Japanese students did not show the influence of Confucian values on Big Five personality in rating an effective leader. They perceived an effective leader should possess traits that are similar to those valued in Anglo-Saxon society. These results may represent a predictor of a positive influence for the Japanese society and augur well for women's advancement.

APPENDIX A
DEMOGRAPHIC SHEET

This survey consists of several sections. Before you start a section, please read the instructions carefully. Thank you.

Instructions Please Circle and Fill Out Blanks Below.

1. Age _____ years old
2. Gender Male Female
3. Please circle your current employment status.
a. Full time b. Part-time c. Not currently employed
4. Please choose your student status.
a. 1st year b. 2nd year c. 3rd year d. 4th year e. other

5. What is your major? _____
6. Are you an international student?
a. Yes b. No
7. What is your primary (or first) language?
a. English b. Other _____
8. What are your plans after you graduate? (e.g., go to work in business/organization, go to graduate school, not sure yet, etc...)

9. Have you ever studied outside of the U.S.? Please circle one.
a. Yes b. No
10. If *yes* to number 9, how long were you outside of the U.S.? _____ (in months)

Please continue to the next section.

APPENDIX B
PERCENTAGE ESTIMATES

Instruction

Over the last years, the effective selection of managers has been much discussed in research as well as in practice. Here, the question of relevant personality characteristics has been raised repeatedly. The following questionnaire is designed to assist in answering the question of which personal characteristics and behaviors are relevant in a leadership context. As a future manager, your participation is very important to us. We are very interested in your personal opinion on this topic.

In your opinion, what percent of [all executives, male executives, female executives] possess this characteristic? Using the following scale from 0 to 100%, mark one response for each characteristic.

Able to cope with stress	Cooperative	Honest	Persuasive
Administratively skilled	Courageous	Independent	Plans ahead
Ambitious	Decisive	Innovative	Rational
Assertive	Dependable	Inspirational	Self-confident
Career-oriented	Diplomatic	Intelligent	Team-builder
Communicative	Dynamic	Intuitive	Trustworthy
Compassionate	Effective bargainer	Just	Visionary
Competitive	Encouraging	Motivational	
Confidence-builder	Hard-working	Performance-oriented	

APPENDIX C

SELF-DESCRIPTION RATINGS

The following characteristic can be used to describe people. Please read each characteristic and consider whether the characteristic describes you. Please use the following scale for these items.

1 – No 2 – Rather no 3 – Rather yes 4 – Yes

Able to cope with stress	Cooperative	Honest	Persuasive
Administratively skilled	Courageous	Independent	Plans ahead
Ambitious	Decisive	Innovative	Rational
Assertive	Dependable	Inspirational	Self-confident
Career-oriented	Diplomatic	Intelligent	Team-builder
Communicative	Dynamic	Intuitive	Trustworthy
Compassionate	Effective bargainer	Just	Visionary
Competitive	Encouraging	Motivational	
Confidence-builder	Hard-working	Performance-oriented	

APPENDIX D
BIG FIVE PERSONALITY

APPENDIX E
CONFUCIAN VALUES

To express your opinions, imagine an Importance Scale that varies from 1 to a maximum of 9. 1 stands for “of no importance to me at all”, and 9 stands for “of supreme importance to me.” Circle **one** number (either 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 or 9) to each item below, to express the importance of that item to you personally. You can concentrate better by asking yourself the following question when you rate an item: “How important is this item to me personally?”

1. Having a sense of shame	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Industry (Working hard)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Loyalty to superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Ordering relationships by status and observing this order	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Persistence (Perseverance)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Personal steadiness and stability (R)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Protecting your “face” (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Reciprocation of greeting and favours, gifts (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Respect for tradition (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Thrift	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

* (R) represents reverse code items.

APPENDIX F
IMPORTANCE RATINGS

How important do you find this characteristic to be for [all executives, male executives, female executives]? Using the 0 as “not at all important” and 6 as “extremely important,” mark one response for each characteristic.

Not at all
Important

Extremely
important

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Able to cope with stress	Cooperative	Honest	Persuasive
Administratively skilled	Courageous	Independent	Plans ahead
Ambitious	Decisive	Innovative	Rational
Assertive	Dependable	Inspirational	Self-confident
Career-oriented	Diplomatic	Intelligent	Team-builder
Communicative	Dynamic	Intuitive	Trustworthy
Compassionate	Effective bargainer	Just	Visionary
Competitive	Encouraging	Motivational	
Confidence-builder	Hard-working	Performance-oriented	

APPENDIX G
IMPORTANCE OF SELF-RATING

How much do you consider the respective characteristics to be important for **you** to possess?" Using the 0 as "not at all important" and 6 as "extremely important," mark one response for each characteristic.

Not at all
Important
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
Extremely
important

Able to cope with stress	Cooperative	Honest	Persuasive
Administratively skilled	Courageous	Independent	Plans ahead
Ambitious	Decisive	Innovative	Rational
Assertive	Dependable	Inspirational	Self-confident
Career-oriented	Diplomatic	Intelligent	Team-builder
Communicative	Dynamic	Intuitive	Trustworthy
Compassionate	Effective bargainer	Just	Visionary
Competitive	Encouraging	Motivational	
Confidence-builder	Hard-working	Performance-oriented	

APPENDIX H

IMAGE OF EXECUTIVES-IN-GENERAL

Which group did you imagine while answering the questionnaire? Please mark one response.

Male executives

Female executives

Both male and female executives

APPENDIX I

TABLES

Table 1

The Summary of Unusable Survey Respondents in the U.S. and Japan^a

U.S. surveys	
Unusable survey <i>N</i>	105
Students whose first language is not English	18
International Students	14
Non-business related majors and plans	39
Blank or haphazard responding	34
Japanese surveys	
Unusable survey <i>N</i>	4
Blank or haphazard responding	4

^aReturned surveys *N* = 394.

Table 2

The Summary of Usable Surveys Respondents in the U.S^a

Majors	
Psychology	28
Businesses	103
Other	17
Employee status	
Full-time	50
Part-time	64
Not currently employed	32
Missing	2
Studied abroad	
Yes	8
No	140

^a $n = 148$ ($N = 289$)

Table 3

The Summary of Usable Surveys Respondents in Japan^a

Majors	
Psychology	0
Businesses	135
Other	6
Employment status	
Full-time	0
Part-time	80
Not currently employed	60
Missing	1
Studied abroad	
Yes	29
No	110
Missing	2

^a $n = 141$ ($N = 289$)

Table 4

Items of Person-oriented and Task-oriented Leadership Traits

Person-oriented	Task-oriented
Communicative	Able to cope with stress
Compassionate	Administratively skilled
Confidence-builder	Ambitious
Cooperative	Assertive
Dependable	Career-oriented
Diplomatic	Competitive
Encouraging	Courageous
Honest	Decisive
Innovative	Dynamic
Inspirational	Effective bargainer
Intuitive	Hard-working
Just	Independent
Motivational	Intelligent
Team-builder	Performance-oriented
Trustworthy	Persuasive
Visionary	Plans ahead
	Rational
	Self-confident

Table 5

Items of Big Five personality traits

Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Emotional Stability	Openness
Bashful (R)	Cold (R)	Careless (R)	Envious (R)	Complex
Bold	Cooperative	Disorganized (R)	Fretful (R)	Creative
Energetic	Harsh (R)	Efficient	Jealous (R)	Deep
Extroverted	Kind	Inefficient (R)	Moody (R)	Imaginative
Quiet (R)	Rude (R)	Organized	Relaxed	Intellectual
Shy (R)	Sympathetic	Practical	Temperamental (R)	Philosophical
Talkative	Unsympathetic (R)	Sloppy (R)	Touchy (R)	Uncreative (R)
Withdrawn (R)	Warm	Systematic	Unenvious	Unintellectual (R)

Note. (R) represents reverse code.

Table 6

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Percentage Estimates of Person-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Male Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 86)			
Japan	68.62 ^a	56.18 ^b	62.98
U.S.	67.40	65.51	66.66
Executives <i>M</i>	66.77	62.87	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 93)			
Japan	63.65	63.46	62.98
U.S.	67.40	66.34	66.66
Executives <i>M</i>	66.77	62.87	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in columns of means represent significant differences ($p < .05$).

Table 7

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Types of Executives Target Conditions on Percentage Estimates of Task-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Male Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 86)			
Japan	78.57 ^a	67.22 ^b	71.84
U.S.	75.04	79.44	77.49
Executives <i>M</i>	75.34	73.99	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 93)			
Japan	60.60	71.96	71.84
U.S.	78.15	77.34	77.49
Executives <i>M</i>	75.34	73.99	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in rows of means represent significant differences ($p < .001$).

Table 8

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Percentage Estimates of Person-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Female Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 89)			
Japan	68.62 ^a	60.30 ^b	64.36
U.S.	67.40 ^a	78.75 ^b	72.00
Executives <i>M</i>	66.77	69.59	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 87)			
Japan	63.65	64.88	64.36
U.S.	67.40	74.45	72.00
Executives <i>M</i>	66.77	69.59	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in rows of means represent significant differences ($p < .05$).

Table 9

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Percentage Estimates of Task-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Female Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 89)			
Japan	78.57 ^a	66.75 ^b	70.00
U.S.	75.04	77.49	77.50
Executives <i>M</i>	75.34	72.16	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 87)			
Japan	69.60	65.07	70.00
U.S.	78.15	79.31	77.50
Executives <i>M</i>	75.34	72.16	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in rows of means represent significant differences ($p < .001$).

Table 10

Mean Scores of the Interaction Effects of Country by Gender on Self-description

Ratings of Person-oriented Traits

Country	Gender		Country <i>M</i>
	Male	Female	
Japan	2.71	2.63	2.67
U.S.	3.38	3.29	3.33
Gender <i>M</i>	3.04	2.96	-----

Table 11

Mean Scores of the Interaction Effects of Country by Gender on Self-description

Ratings of Task-oriented Traits

Country	Gender		Country <i>M</i>
	Male	Female	
Japan	2.56 ^a	2.38 ^b	2.47
U.S.	3.42 ^c	3.20 ^d	3.31
Gender <i>M</i>	2.99	2.79	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in rows of means represent significant differences ($p < .05$). Different superscripts (c, d) in rows of means represent significant differences ($p < .01$).

Table 12

Mean Scores of Each Factor of Big Five Personality

Big Five personality traits	Country		<i>M</i> differences
	Japan	U.S.	
Extraversion	6.98	7.14	-.167
Agreeableness	6.78	7.38	-.601*
Conscientiousness	7.82	8.17	-.348*
Emotional Stability	6.35	7.22	-.864*
Openness	7.03	6.87	.165

* $p < .05$.

Table 13

Correlation between Confucian Value Scores and Big Five personality scores by Sample

Subscale	Extraversion	Agreeable ness	Conscientious ness	Emotional Stability	Openness
Japanese Sample					
Confucian Values	-.103	.025	.097	-.026	.043
U.S. Sample					
Confucian Values	.115	.093	.105	.044	.136

Note. No correlations were statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Table 14

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Importance Ratings of Person-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Male Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 92)			
Japan	4.53	4.26	4.52
U.S.	5.33	4.89	5.05
Executives <i>M</i>	4.89	4.68	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 97)			
Japan	4.63	4.67	4.52
U.S.	5.08	4.92	5.05
Executives <i>M</i>	4.89	4.68	-----

Table 15

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Importance Ratings of Task-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Male Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 92)			
Japan	4.81	4.57	4.57
U.S.	5.23	5.06	5.05
Executives <i>M</i>	4.90	4.73	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 97)			
Japan	4.42	4.48	4.57
U.S.	5.12 ^a	4.79 ^b	5.05
Executives <i>M</i>	4.90	4.73	-----

Note. Different superscripts (a, b) in rows represent significantly different ($p < .05$).

Table 16

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Importance Ratings of Person-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Female Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 92)			
Japan	4.53	4.42	4.54
U.S.	5.33	4.83	5.04
Executives <i>M</i>	4.89	4.69	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 94)			
Japan	4.63	4.58	4.54
U.S.	5.08	4.92	5.04
Executives <i>M</i>	4.89	4.69	-----

Table 17

Mean Scores of the Interaction between Countries and Executives Target Conditions on Importance Ratings of Task-oriented Traits

Types of executives target condition			
Country	Executives-in-general	Female Executives	Country <i>M</i>
Male Students (<i>n</i> = 92)			
Japan	4.81	4.60	4.62
U.S.	5.23	4.88	5.03
Executives <i>M</i>	4.90	4.75	-----
Female Students (<i>n</i> = 94)			
Japan	4.42	4.65	4.62
U.S.	5.12	4.88	5.03
Executives <i>M</i>	4.90	4.75	-----

Table 18

Mean Scores of the Interaction Effects of Country by Gender on Importance Ratings of Self-description of Person-oriented Traits

Country	Gender		Country <i>M</i>
	Male	Female	
Japan	4.71	4.63	4.67
U.S.	5.09	5.14	5.11
Gender <i>M</i>	4.90	4.88	-----

Table 19

Mean Scores of the Interaction Effects of Country by Gender on Importance Ratings of Self-description of Task-oriented Traits

Country	Gender		Country <i>M</i>
	Male	Female	
Japan	4.68	4.51	4.59
U.S.	5.12	5.07	5.10
Gender <i>M</i>	4.90	4.79	-----

Table 20

Executives-in-general as Stimulus Group: The number and Percentage of Students who Thought of Male Executives, Female Executives, or Male and Female Executives While Working on the Questionnaire

Type of executives target condition				
Gender	Male executives	Female executives	Both executives	χ^2
Japanese sample ($n = 58$)				
Men	33 (82.5 %)	1 (2.5 %)	6 (15.0 %)	
Women	11 (61.1 %)	2 (11.1 %)	5 (27.8 %)	
Total	44 (75.9 %)	3 (5.2 %)	11 (19.0 %)	
U.S. sample ($n = 43$)				
Men	9 (75.0 %)	0 (.0 %)	3 (25.0 %)	6.68*
Women	10 (32.3 %)	3 (9.7 %)	18 (58.1 %)	
Total	19 (44.2 %)	3 (7.0 %)	21 (48.4 %)	

* $p < .01$.

APPENDIX J

FIGURES

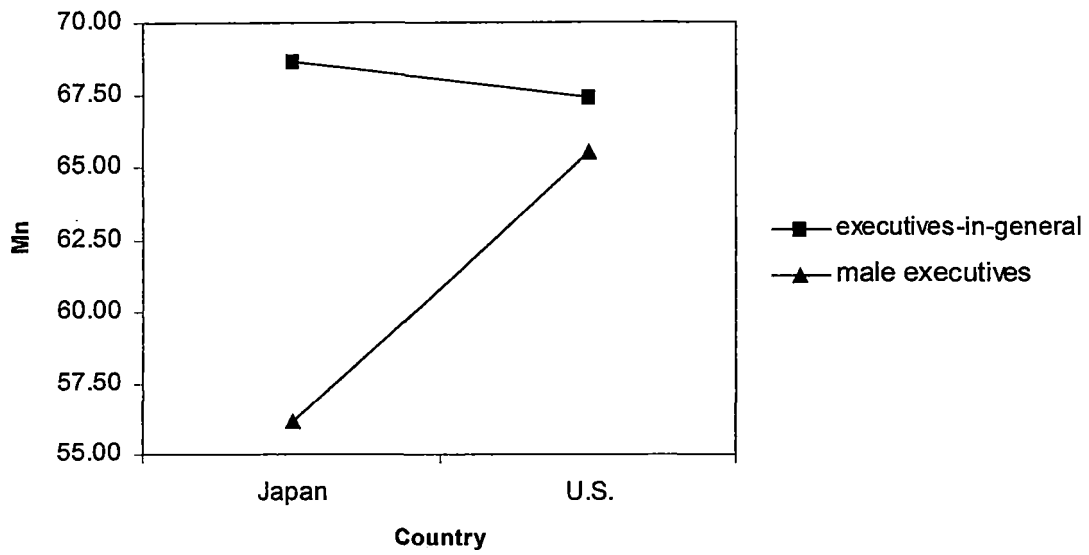


Figure 1.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and types of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on percentage of estimates of person-oriented traits among male students.

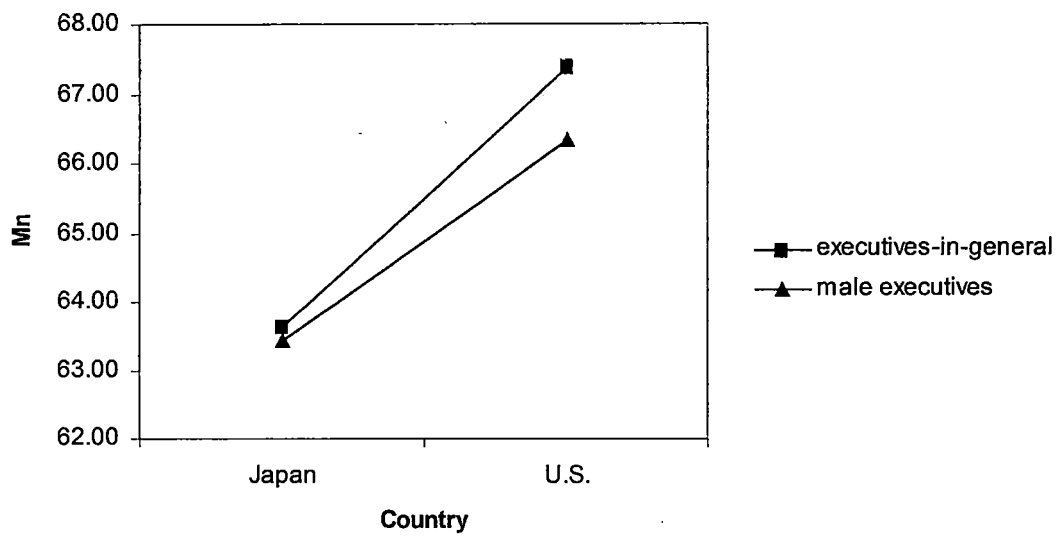


Figure 2.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on percentage estimates of person-oriented traits among female students.

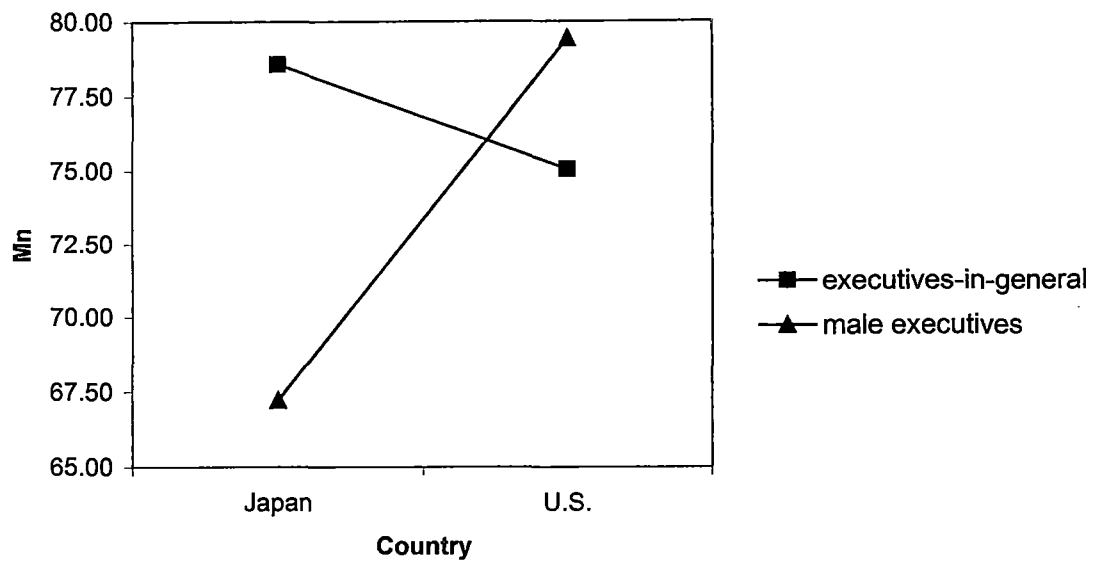


Figure 3.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on percentage estimates of task-oriented traits among male students.

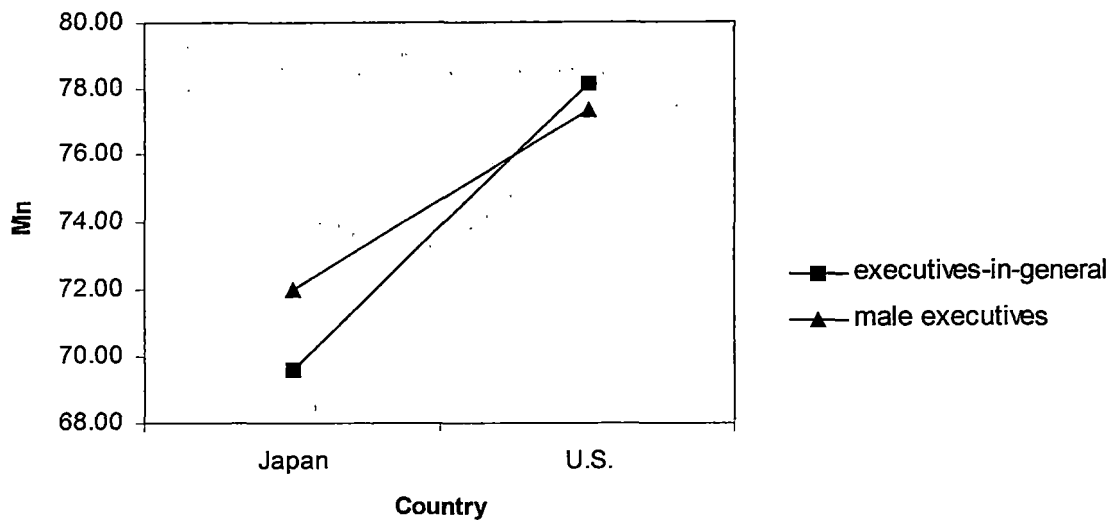


Figure 4.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executives target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on percentage estimates of task-oriented traits among female students.

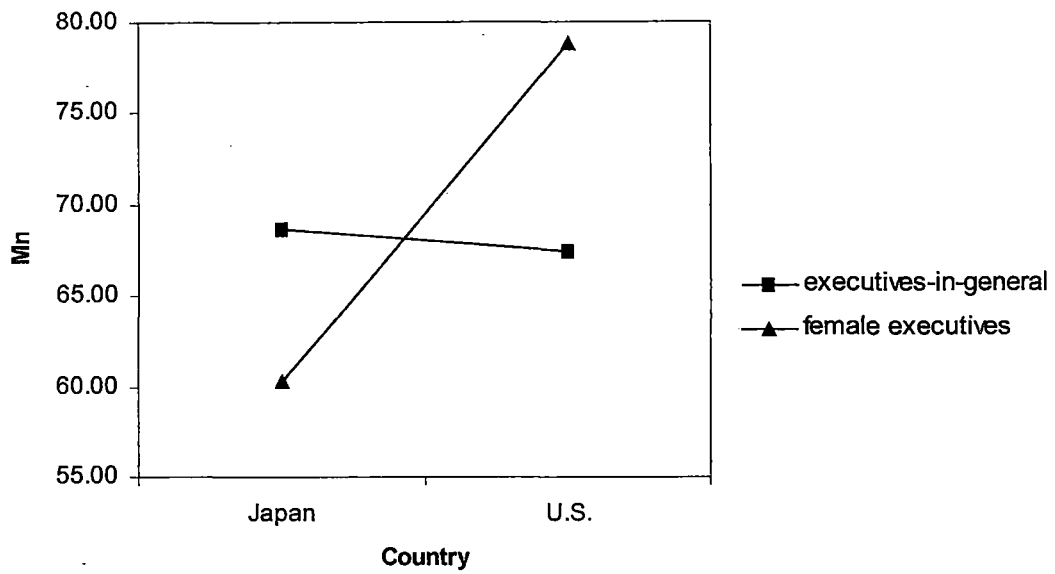


Figure 5.

Mean scores of the interaction between two country and type of executives target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on percentage estimates of person-oriented traits among male students.

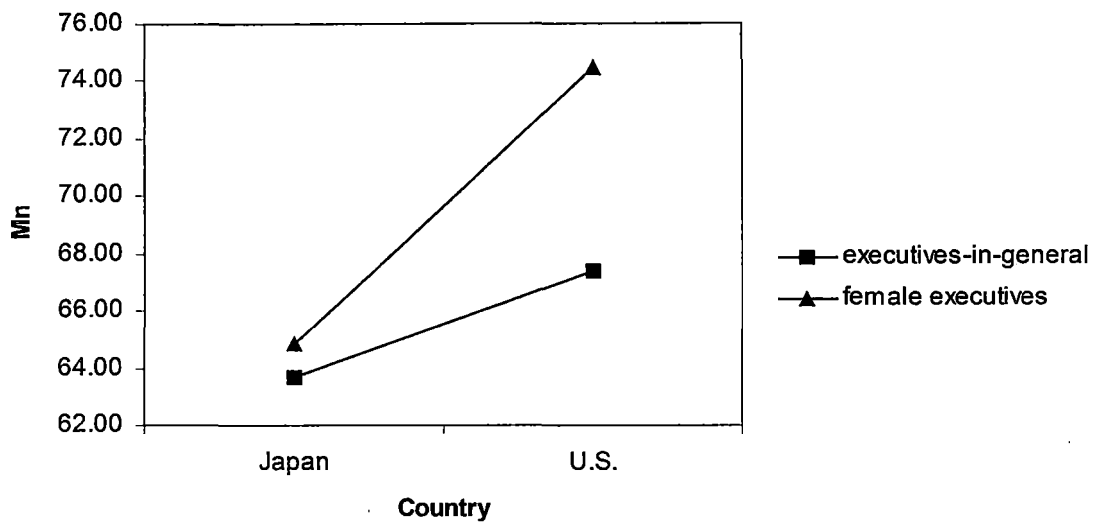


Figure 6.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on percentage estimates of person-oriented traits among female students.

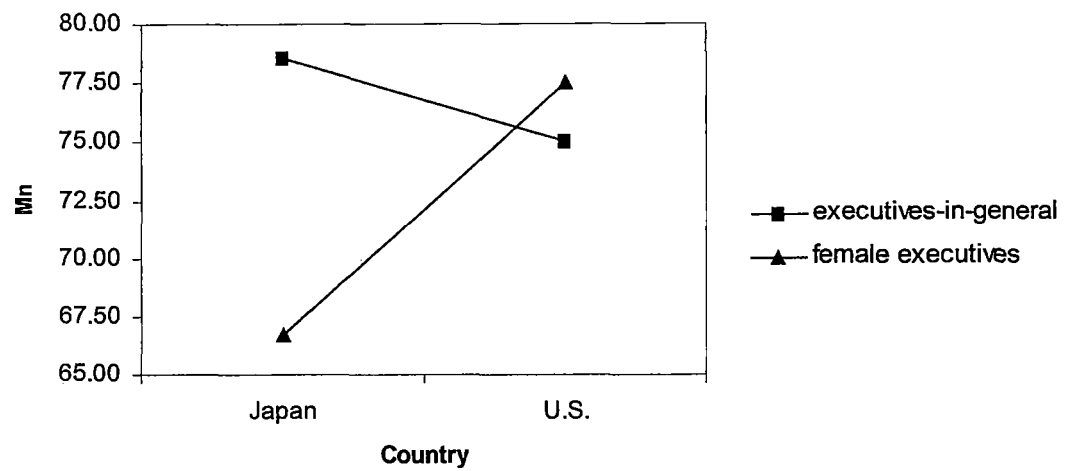


Figure 7.

Mean scores of the interaction between two country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on percentage estimates of task-oriented traits among male students.

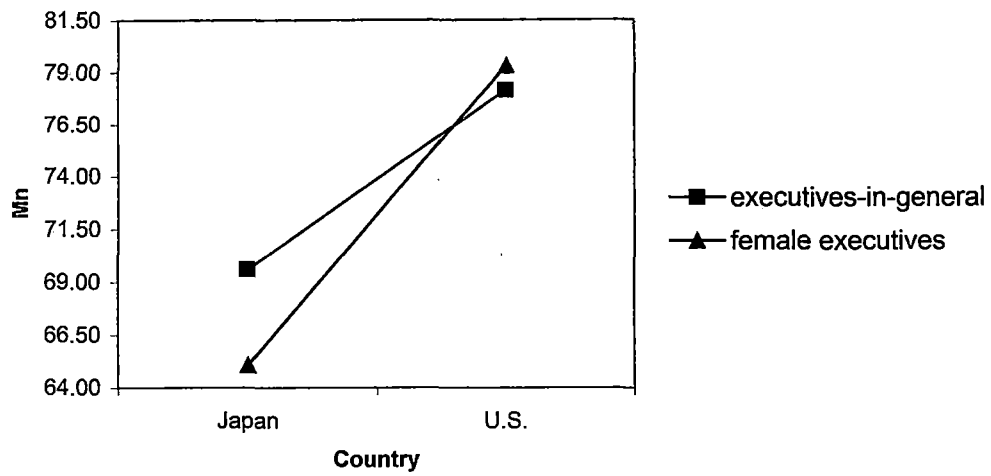


Figure 8.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on percentage estimates of task-oriented traits among female students.

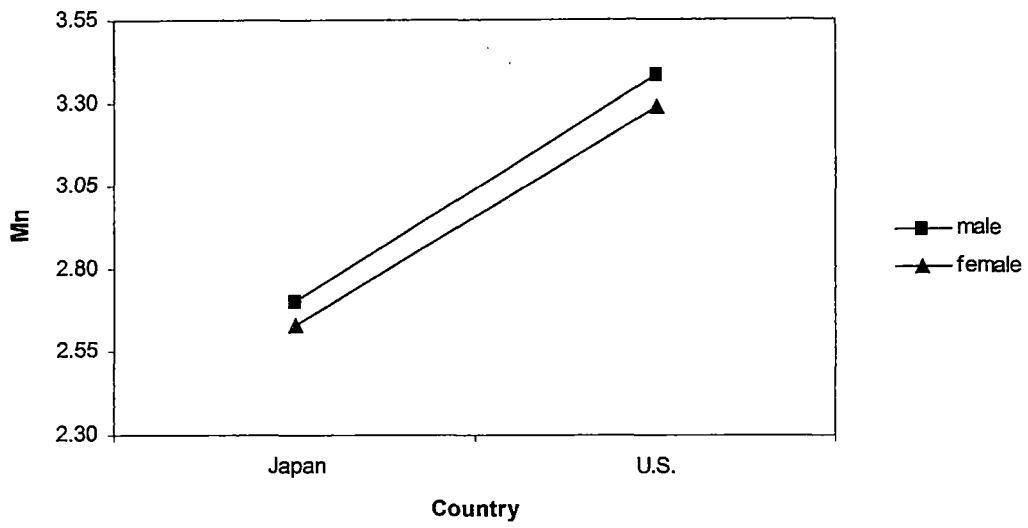


Figure 9.

Mean scores of the interaction effects of country by gender on self-description ratings of person-oriented traits.

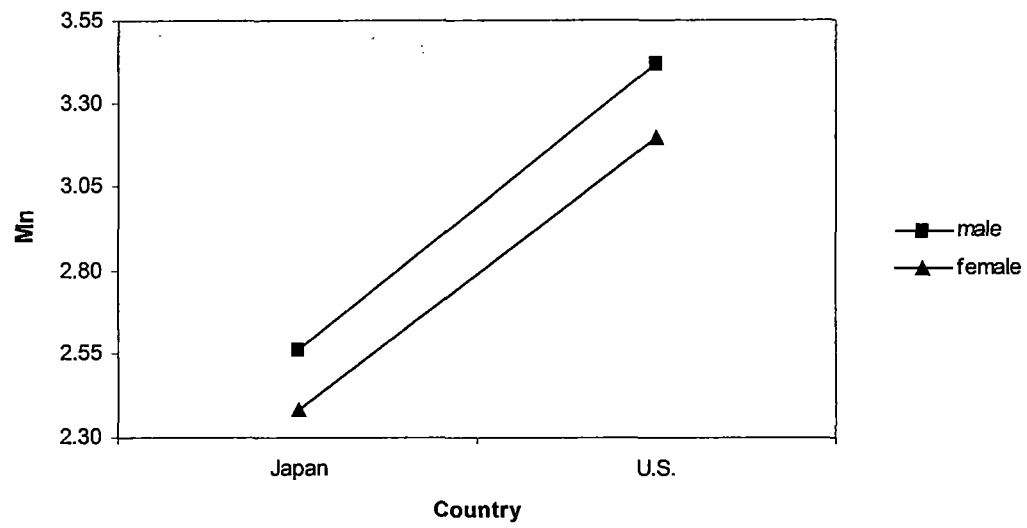


Figure 10.

Mean scores of the interaction effects of country by gender
on self-description ratings of task-oriented traits.

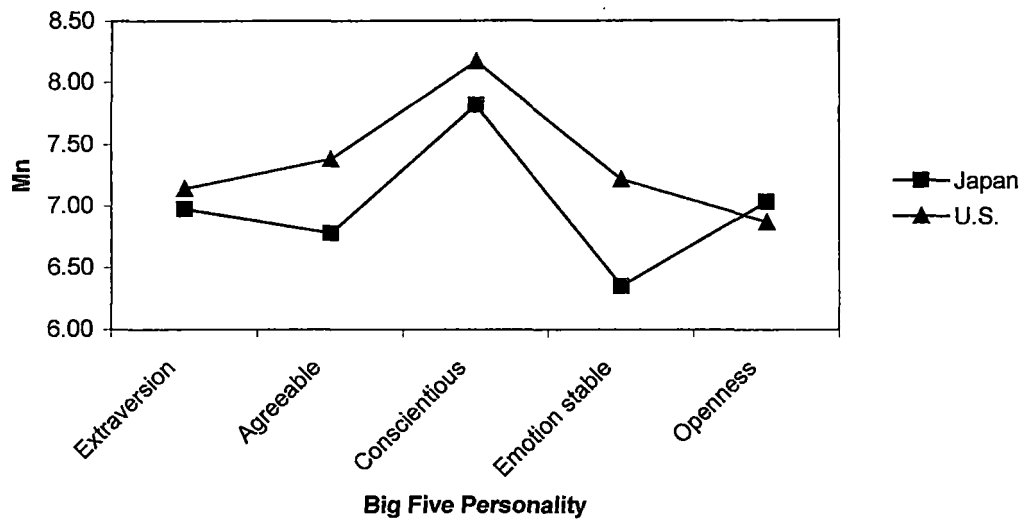


Figure 11.

Profile of big five personality variables by country

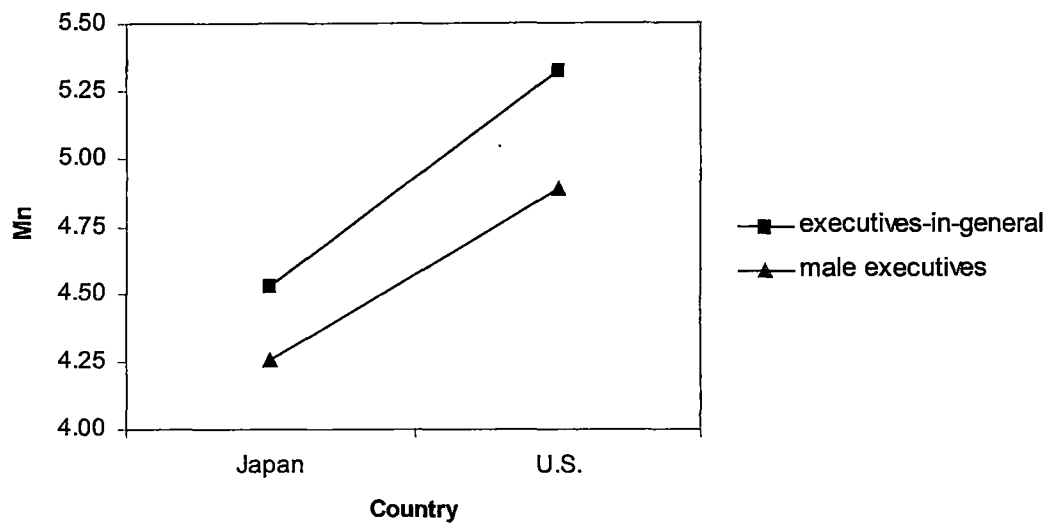


Figure 12.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on importance ratings of person-oriented traits among male students.

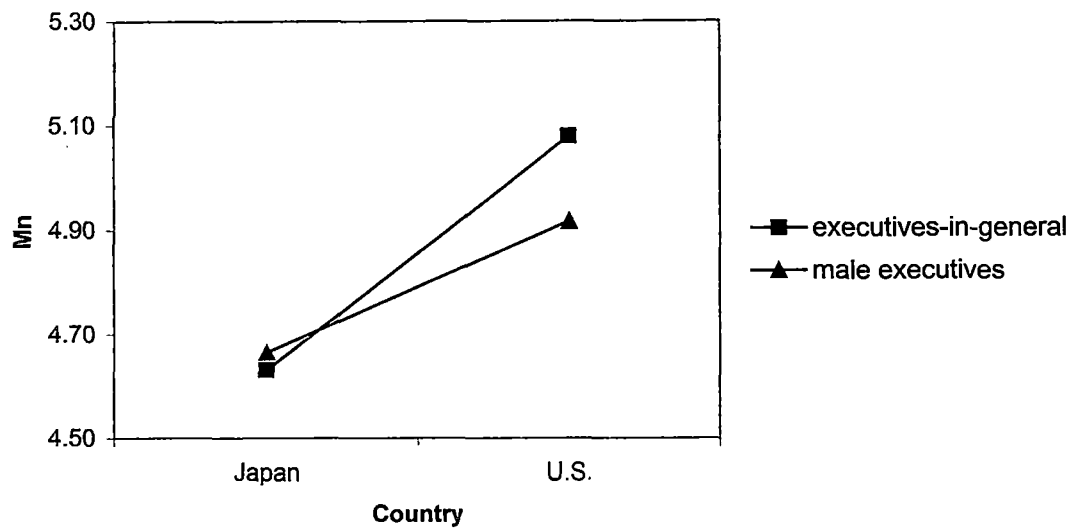


Figure13:

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on importance ratings of person-oriented traits among female students.

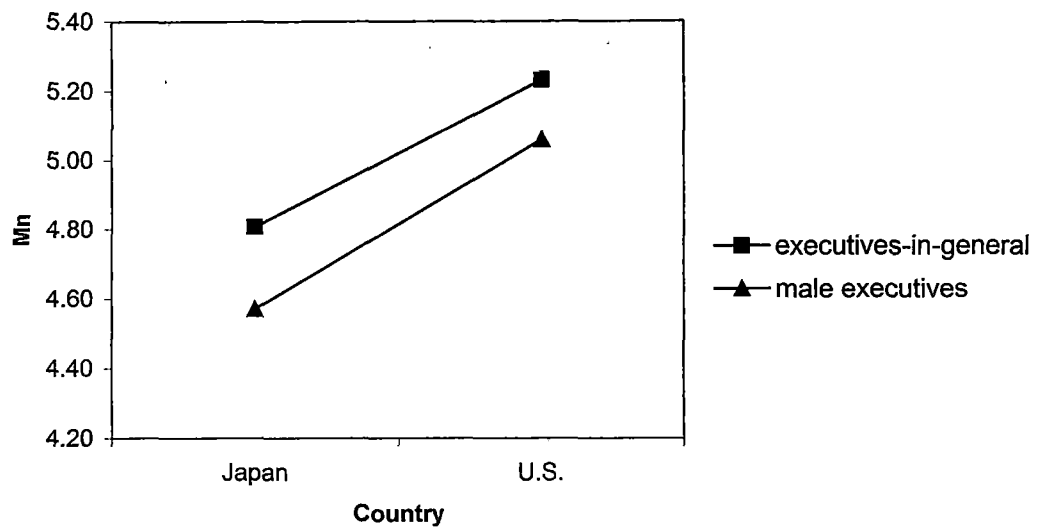


Figure 14.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on importance ratings of task-oriented traits among male students.

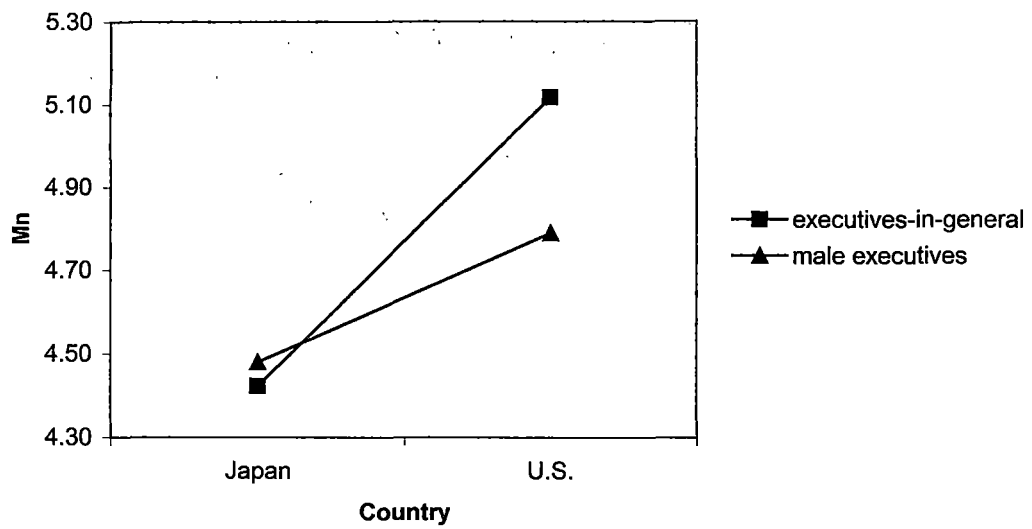


Figure15.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and types of executive target condition (executives-in-general and male executives) on importance ratings of task-oriented traits among female students.

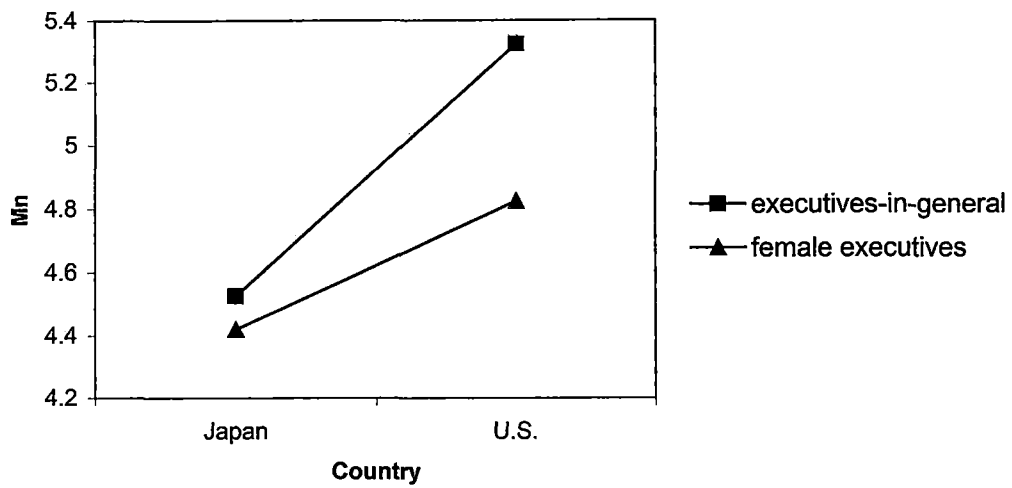


Figure 16.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on importance ratings of person-oriented traits among male students.

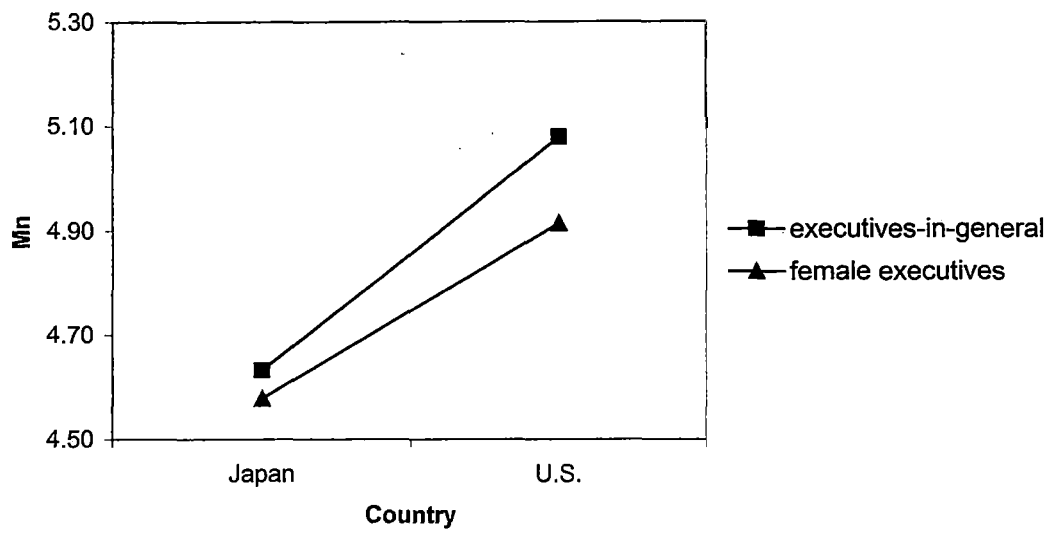


Figure 17.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on importance ratings of person-oriented traits among female students.

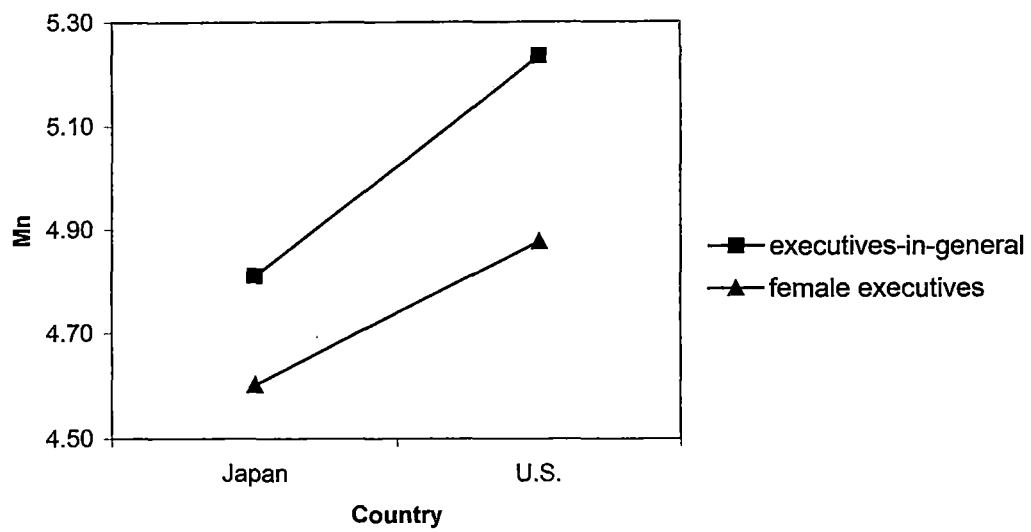


Figure 18.

Mean scores of the interaction between country and type of executive target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on importance ratings of task-oriented traits among male students.

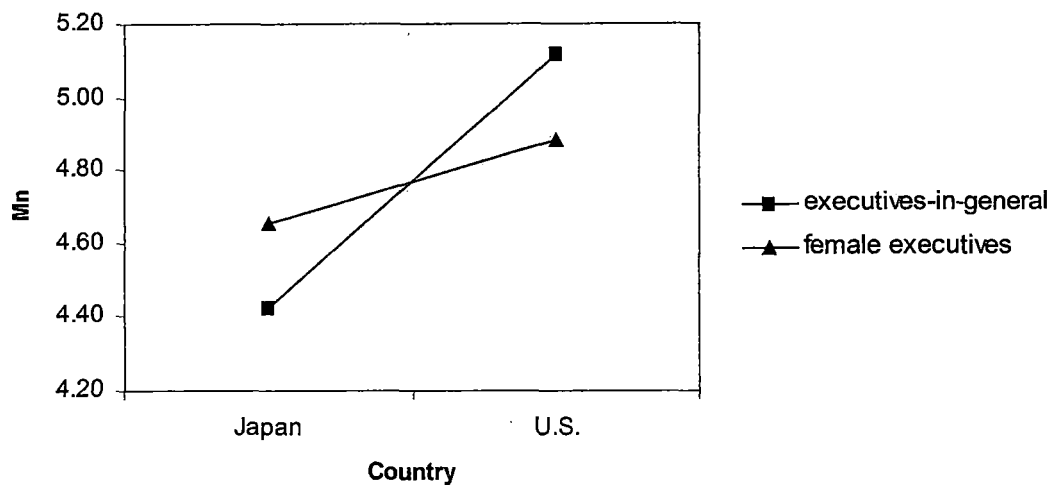


Figure 19.

Mean scores of the interaction between two countries and two types of executives target condition (executives-in-general and female executives) on importance ratings of task-oriented traits among female students.

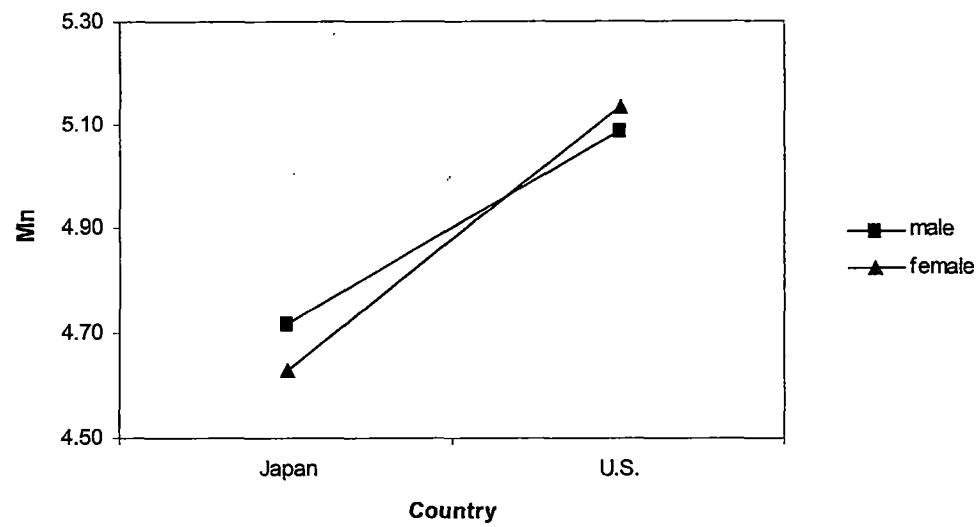


Figure 20.

Mean scores of the interaction effects of country by gender on importance ratings of self-description ratings on person-oriented traits.

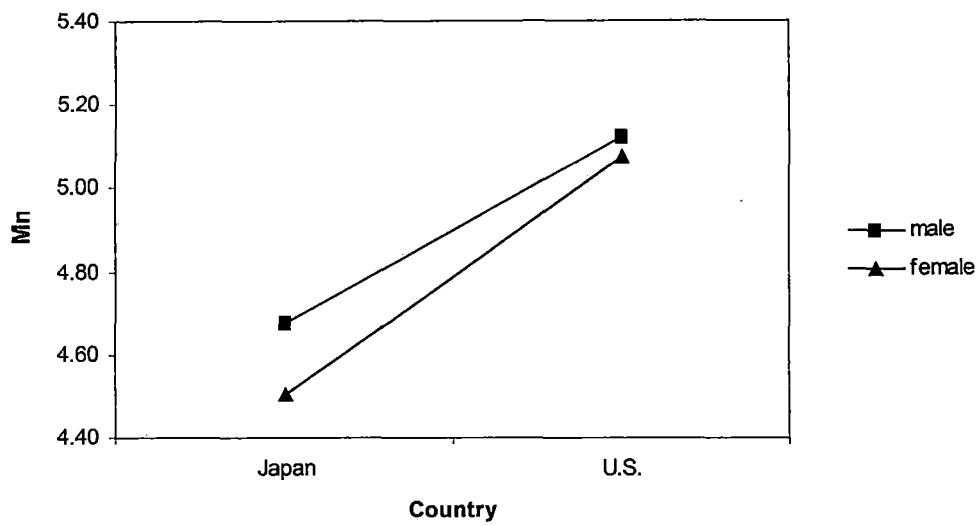


Figure 21.

Mean scores of the interaction effects of country by gender on importance rating of self-description ratings on task-oriented traits.

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