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Gender Stereotypes against Workers in Leadership Positions

A comparative research between Austria and Hungary

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Abstract

In the past decades, the inequalities between men and women in the labour market have become an important issue. Although the proportion of genders in different professions and higher education is becoming more balanced, only a lower number of women are able to reach higher positions. Gender stereotypes against our own sex and the opposite gender can provide explanations.

Several studies from different parts of the world have shown a particular pattern in the ratings of successful middle managers by using the Schein Descriptive Index. The European Commission is monitoring its member countries' gender ratios but not the stereotypes connected to leadership, meaning that apart from Germany and the UK, there have been no measures introduced regarding gender stereotypes against workers in leadership positions in the EU. This study has been conducted using an Austrian and Hungarian sample in order to discover the differences between these two neighbouring countries.

95 business workers from each country were asked to fill out the Modern Sexism Scale by Swim and the SDI in order to find out whether any differences in the two nations' stereotypes existed, and if there were any gender differences in the ratings. It was found that the Hungarian sample followed the international pattern, namely, that managers are perceived more masculine, whereas in the Austrian sample men received the lowest ratings, and women scored closer to managers. Contrasting international findings, female participants in the Hungarian sample rated their own gender the lowest.

The results imply that a deeper understanding of this issue is needed in order to avoid gender inequalities.

Keywords: gender stereotypes, leadership positions, manager, inequalities, Austria, Hungary, European Union, SDI, business workers

In den letzten Jahrzehnten haben sich immer mehr Studien auf die Ungleichheiten zwischen Frauen und Männern auf den Arbeitsmarkt fokussiert. Die Genderproportion in verschiedenen Professionen gleicht sich immer mehr an, aber erstaunlich wenige Frauen können höhere Positionen erreichen. Geschlechtsstereotypen können die Erklärungen dafür sein.

Es gibt viele Forschungsprojekte aus vielen verschiedenen Orten weltweit. Die Ergebnisse folgen einem besonderen Muster, wenn der Schein Descriptive Index genutzt wurde. Dieser dient dazu „Middle Manager“, Frauen und Männern zu bewerten und herauszufinden, ob es Unterschiede in der Bewertung gibt. Die Europäische Kommission überwacht die Geschlechterverhältnisse der Mitgliedsstaaten in verschiedenen Arbeitsfeldern. Diese Studien behandeln aber nicht den Einfluss von Geschlechtsstereotypen im Bereich der Führungspositionen.

Bis auf Untersuchungen in Deutschland und in Großbritannien gibt es keine Studien zu Genderstereotype in Führungspositionen innerhalb der EU. Diese Studie dient deshalb dazu, die Unterschiede zwischen zwei Nachbarstaaten, Österreich und Ungarn, zu untersuchen.

95-95 ArbeiterInnen aus Österreich und Ungarn aus dem Business-Bereich wurden jeweils gebeten die „Modern Sexismus Scal“ und die SDI auszufüllen. Ziel war es, herauszufinden, ob Stereotype über Geschlechter existieren und ob Unterschiede in der Bewertung von Personen in Führungspositionen zwischen den beiden Staaten existieren.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass die ungarische Stichprobe dem internationalen Muster folgt und die Manager mit eher maskulinen Merkmalen positiv bewertet wurden, während in die Männer in der österreichischen Stichprobe eher negativ. Die ungarischen Frauen haben ihr eigenes Geschlecht in Bezug auf Führungspositionen sehr schlecht bewertet, was im Kontrast zu den internationalen Ergebnissen steht.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie machen deutlich, dass tieferes Verständnis des Themas notwendig ist, um Ungleichheiten zwischen Frauen und Männern zu vermeiden.

Introduction

Today, gender fairness is a significant issue within the European Union. It is one of the founding values of the European community. It promotes the idea that men and women should receive equal treatment and should not be discriminated on the basis their gender. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights also seeks to achieve this goal in social situations, such as at democratic institutions and the workplace. The principle of equal pay for equal work was already present in the Treaty of Rome (1958), and it is also a core value in the Lisbon Treaty (2007) (the European Union, 2013).

Since then, this matter has played an important role in EU politics, and many changes have been successfully made by adopting equal treatment legislation, mainstreaming gender and specific measurements for the advancement of women. A work programme for the period between 2012 and 2015 provides a coordinated framework comprising five priority areas for promoting gender equality in all policies of the European Union.

These include the “Equality in decision-making”, which is still a problematic issue. Although more and more women enter the labour market, their proportion in leading positions is unbalanced. Not only is it present in the political field (only 28% of the members of different countries’ parliaments are women), but even in areas where female workers are overrepresented, the managers are still primarily males. According to the European Commission’s research, the situation is the worst in business leadership: only 20.2% of board members are women (European Commission, 2014).

Instead of explaining the background of these gender differences only by women’s skills, as in these countries women are well educated, we should emphasize attributes and interiorized stereotypes. The environment where a woman works is influenced by their managers’ attributes, naturally, as they employ the workers, but it is also influenced by the attitudes of their co-workers. Their stereotypes and the overall working atmosphere also have a great impact on women’s career choices. The school also has an important role; which toys, games and

behaviours are considered “boyish” or “girlish”, whether one is punished or ostracized if he or she is not following these unwritten rules, or how adolescents are viewed and how the teachers interact with the students.

And of course, the attitude of the also family also has an effect on how people view the other and their own gender, and what a men or a women should achieve in life. Stereotype threat also plays a role in girls’ performance and career goals: it refers to a self-confirming belief that one may be at risk of being evaluated based on a negative stereotype about one's group (Steele & Aronson, 1995).

Several studies have been conducted in different countries around the world with the aim of finding patterns of gender stereotypes – and successfully they have: research carried out in the U.S., the UK, Germany, China, Japan, New Zealand, Hawaii and South Africa found that successful leaders were characterized as more feminine than masculine (Schein, 2001; de Pillis et. al., 2008; Sauers, Kennedy & O’Sullivan, 2002; Booysen & Nkomo, 2010).

However, there were some differences in the strength of these stereotypes among the countries. For example, the Chinese male sample exhibited the highest degree of “Men-Manager” similarity, while Japanese females see no similarity between women and managers. There were also a few exceptions: a study conducted in Canada (Orser, 1994) and the black sample of the South African research (Booyesen & Stella, 2010) suggested that women prefer feminine characteristics over masculine ones in a leader.

Although these studies were carried out in various locations around the world, only two EU countries, Germany and the United Kingdom were examined, although there is a vast cultural diversity within the Old Continent as well.

Therefore, there is also a need to discover the gender stereotypes in European countries. In my Master’s thesis, I am focusing on two neighbouring countries, Austria, where I am currently doing my Master studies, and Hungary, the country where I am from.

Austria is a parliamentary representative democracy with 8.5 million inhabitants, and one of the richest countries in the world (13th–17th position in the ranking of

the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and the CIA World Factbook), which has been a member of the European Union since 1995.

Hungary is a democratic parliamentary republic with an upper-middle-income and a population of 9.8 million. It joined the European Union in 2004. Although they share some of their history and culture, the two countries are significantly different in several cultural aspects. It poses an interesting question to investigate how much they differ in terms of gender stereotypes. For this purpose the already existing theories must be introduced.

Theory

Cognitive processes

To investigate gender stereotypes first we must define them. Stereotypes are simplistic generalizations applied to members of various groups, and gender stereotypes are based on the individual's sex. It contains gender attributes, differences in physical appearance, personality traits, domestic behaviours, roles, and occupations. We can differentiate between descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes – the former defines what women and men are like, while the latter defines what women and men should be like (Heilman, 2012).

Descriptive stereotypes can promote negative expectations about female performance by creating a “Lack of Fit” phenomenon: the perceived attributes connected to women are incompatible with the attributes thought necessary for success in traditionally male positions. Prescriptive stereotypes can lead to the devaluation and derogation of women who violate the normative expectations for gender-related behaviour (Heilman, 1983).

These can lead to practical phenomena in the labour market. The so-called “Glass Ceiling” is a phenomenon in which a smaller-than-expected proportion of females attain leadership positions at the highest levels in organizations (Hogue & Lord, 2007). However, not only does it appear in the workplace but also during education. The organization Statistics Austria found that in the last decades, more women have finished secondary school than men (from 1981), and since 2010, slightly more women have participated in tertiary education (in 2012, 14.9% of the population in Austria were male and 17% were female students).

These tendencies are also apparent in higher education. In the year 2012/13, 58.7% of university students were female, but in PhD studies men are overrepresented by 6.3%, and also more men are staying at universities to teach as professors. This, and the tendency that more women leave university during their studies, is called the phenomenon of the “Leaking Pipeline” (Statistics Austria 2012).

Why do these differences occur? As Vinkelburg and his colleagues (2002) suggested there are three different explanations for women's slow movement into management positions:

- Individual differences or deficits
- Structural barriers or discrimination
- Gender roles and stereotypes

These create a complex and cohesive background. There is a large number of studies about gender differences according to personality traits, attitudes, cognitive and motivational resources, career vs. family orientation, or leadership styles. The vast majority of these studies show that there are no considerable gender differences. Structural barriers are situational, depending on factors such as professional field, the size and nature of the organization, and company policy (Kirchler, 2008).

Eagly came up with the idea of the Social Role Theory (1987), which strives to explain the minority position of female leaders. It suggests that stereotypes emerge from the observation of other individuals in their social roles. This leads to different expectations according to gender not only about the roles of others but also those of our own.

This idea implies that the more women obtain typical male roles, the more the stereotype changes because of personal observation. This is what Stoker, Van der Velde and Lammers (2011) also found, namely that if one works in a company with high percentage of female managers, there is a bigger chance that he or she prefers feminine characteristics in a leader more than employees in a more masculine working environment. Their results suggest that increasing the proportion of female managers is an effective way to overcoming managerial stereotyping.

Following this idea, Kirchler, Rodler and Hölzl (2001) conducted a longitudinal study about the changes in general gender stereotypes. They had an indirect approach by examining death notices from 1974, 1980, 1986, 1992, and 1998. They focused on death notices of company managers, and analyzed adjectives and nouns describing the person which suggested stereotypes that indicated

“what a leader was supposed to be like”. By running a correspondence analysis, they found that between 1974 and 1986, the descriptions of male and female leaders were substantially different from the ones published between 1992 and 1998. Men were characterized as person-oriented and women as more task-oriented. However, in the last decade, these differences have become less apparent.

Certain other aspects can also play a role, including practical causes such as women’s competing responsibilities at home (Schwartz, 1994) and fear of success (Hoffman, 1972). This motive may be explained by the expectancy-value theory of motivation. It is identified as an internal psychological representative of the dominant societal stereotype, which views competence, independence, competition, and intellectual achievement as qualities basically inconsistent with femininity albeit positively related to masculinity and mental health (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). The expectancy that success in achievement-related situations will be followed by negative consequences instils fear of success in otherwise achievement-motivated women, which then inhibits their performance and levels of aspiration.

The Leader Categorization Theory by Lord (1984) implies that the leader prototype is a multidimensional, widely shared, trait-based knowledge structure that is formed early in life. It allows individuals to both understand and respond to managerial behaviours. The leader prototype is a social-cognitive category that organizes our memories of leadership, guides how leadership information is processed, and mediates our perception of leadership.

In most cases, these leader prototypes do not overlap with the attributes of a woman (Heilman, 1983). It is believed that male-gender-typed positions (including top management positions) necessitate characteristics that concede more with stereotypic conceptions of men than those of women. These stereotype-based negative-performance expectations have a profound effect on information processing, prompting cognitive distortions, and promoting negative expectations about a woman’s performance.

As a result, women are thought to be deficient in qualities required for upper-level positions. The “think manager–think male” metaphor was a strongly held belief among middle managers. Schein used her own tool to study the international presence of this phenomenon. Using the Schein Descriptive Index she examined the sex role stereotypes of successful middle managers in the U.S., the UK, Germany, China, and Japan (Schein, 2001). Her main focus was whether there were differences in women’s and men’s perceptions of a leader, and she found that a good leader was characterized globally more as masculine, and differences could only be found in women’s stereotypes against their own gender – women’s attitudes were more feminine in search for a leader than those of men.

In 1989, she conducted a study in the U.S., where middle-line managers from manufacturing companies were surveyed. The results revealed that there was a large resemblance in the ratings of men and managers by male participants, and only an insignificant, near-zero correlation between women and managers was found. Female participants tended to rate women similarly to managers, meaning they did not sex-type managerial positions.

In Germany and in the United Kingdom (Schein & Mueller, 1992) the outcomes for both genders were similar to the results of the U.S. sample. The Chinese male sample rated the men-manager similarity the highest. In the female sample there was a reasonably large and significant resemblance among the countries: the scores given by women were not as close to managers as those of men, as they rated their own gender lower. Japanese women saw no similarities between women and managers. In the U.S. it was not the case. However, it was clear that male participants had a strong “Think manager-Think male” mindset.

Other cross-cultural studies showed similar tendencies: research conducted in Hawaii (de Pillis et. al., 2008), New Zealand (Sauers, Kennedy & O’Sullivan, 2002) and South Africa (in the white sample, Booysen & Nkomo, 2010) produced the same results as Schein’s, namely that there is a gap between the grading of successful managers and women, and that this difference is less significant in the female sample. Only one study in Canada (Orser, 1994) and the black sample of the South African study (Booyesen & Stella, 2010) suggested that women preferred feminine characteristics over masculine ones in a leader, while in other studies

the Women-Manager correlation was stronger in the female sample than in the male one, although it did not exceed the Men-Manager level.

Another international survey carried out by Cathalyst among 26 leading business schools in Asia, Canada, Europe and the U.S. found that women received fewer “hot jobs”, that is, positions with high visibility, mission-critical roles and international experiences that would be essential for climbing the corporate ladder at global companies (2012). The unequal accessibility of these jobs can be the underlying cause of the persistent gender gap at senior levels. Even leadership trainings do not help reduce this gap.

It was reported that men led projects with larger budgets (more than twice the size of women’s), larger teams (more than three times as many staff), and held more positions with critical responsibility (56% to 46%). International assignments were achieved more frequently by men than women (35% to 26%), and fewer women were offered this opportunity (64% to 55%), but not because women did not wish to participate.

Statistics from Austria and Hungary

There are already a lot of studies available that analyse countries from different perspectives, which helps us compare the two samples from Austria and Hungary. In addition to worldwide statistics there are some that were conducted in the European Union as well.

The Global Gender Gap Index “is a framework for capturing the magnitude and scope of gender-based disparities and tracking their progress” (World Economic Forum, 2014). It was created in 2006, and has four pillars: *Economic Participation and Opportunity*, *Educational Attainment*, *Health and Survival* and *Political Empowerment*, which are composed of 14 indicators. Its aim is to measure gaps and not developmental levels of countries, and it evaluates countries based on outcomes rather than inputs. In the 2013 ranking, Austria was 19th, while Hungary was 87th out of 136 countries. Hungary scored very low in *Political Empowerment* (120th), while Austria reached 19th position on this subscale. Austrians are at the top of the *Educational Attainment* list and in 47th place in *Health and Survival*.

Hungary scored lower in *Educational Attainment* (62th) but higher on the *Health and Survival* scale (34th). The only similarities can be in *Economic Participation and Opportunity*, where Hungary was 68th and Austria was 69th.

As the European Commission has been monitoring the decision-making position of EU countries for years, they have gathered a great database of changes in gender proportions. In most countries women are underrepresented in leading positions, especially in the business field: in October 2014, it was revealed that in the European Union, only 20.2% of board members at the largest publicly listed companies were women.

Although the latest, Q4 2014 data shows a slight improvement in gender equality in certain fields (public administration, environmental bodies, national social partner organizations), in the business field the situation is still rather disappointing. The Commission's research covered the largest publicly listed companies in each country (meaning that the shares of the company are traded on the stock exchange). They were looking at the positions of CEOs (chief executive officers), executives and non-executives. Their latest data shows that in the 28 member states of the EU, 21% of non-executive positions are held by women, 13% of executives are female, and only 3% of CEOs are women at the 613 companies examined.

The database also shows the proportions separately for Austria and Hungary. While in Austria the percentage of female workers in non-executive positions is higher (17% compared to the Hungarian 8%), there are only 4% represented in executive level and 0% in chief executive or equivalent positions at 20 business companies. At the 14 Hungarian companies, this ratio is 11% for executive and 7% for CEO positions. Interestingly, in April 2014, Austria had 10% female leaders at these companies, but other than this quarter, there were no female presidents in either year back until 2007.

Smaller enterprises were also monitored, and it was found that Austria and Hungary were head to head from 2005 to 2010 with approximately 30% of leaders being female.

There is another EU study that has been published recently: the Eurobarometer measures the perceptions of European citizens of gender inequalities within their own country and Europeans' general attitudes towards this issue.

The general results indicated that 94% of participants agree that equality between men and women is a fundamental right, and 62% think that inequalities between men and women are widespread in their country. When asked in which field it is the most prevalent (school, media, work, sports, advertising, politics, other), they responded that it was primarily perceivable at the workplace. Although almost all Europeans disagreed with traditional perceptions of gender roles at home and at the workplace, most thought that family life suffered when the mother had a full-time job. 68% disagreed that women were less willing to make a career for themselves than men, and almost everyone agreed that the economy would grow if more women were present on the labour market.

The Austrian and Hungarian samples showed similar results in the study. There are some differences in the perception of gender inequalities: 66% of Austrians believe that they are widespread, while in Hungary it has decreased by 10% since 2009 (from 67% to 57%). In Austria there has also been a sizeable shift in public opinion since 2009 regarding the item whether "gender inequalities in their country are now less widespread than ten years ago". Their opinion is now more positive, as it increased from 51% to 65% in 2014.

The Hungarian rating did not show a significant growth. As to the question, "In your opinion, should taking inequality between women and men be a priority for the EU?", 77% of Austrian participants said yes, while only 71% of the Hungarians responded positively. At a multiple choice item which was concerned about in which ways the EU could achieve an increase in the number of women in the labour market, Austria showed an above-average percentage (the highest per item, 27%) for the option "making sure it is beneficial financially to work for a woman", and believed that the best solution would be to "make sure women earn the same as men for the same work". Meanwhile in Hungary, the most effective way seemed to be to increase flexible work arrangements (48%).

The contrast is also visible in wages. Both Austria and Hungary are at the bottom five countries with the greatest gap in wages: the estimated EU average is 16.4%, while in Hungary it reaches 20.1% and in Austria it is the highest with 23.4% (European Commission, 2012).

Country	Gender Pay Gap 2012
EU27	16.4
Belgium	10
Bulgaria	14.7
Czech Republic	22
Denmark	14.9
Germany	22.4
Estonia	30
Ireland	14.4
Greece	15
Spain	17.8
France	14.8
Croatia	18
Italy	6.7
Cyprus	16.2
Latvia	13.8
Lithuania	12.6
Luxembourg	8.6
Hungary	20.1
Malta	6.1
Netherlands	16.9
Austria	23.4
Poland	6.4
Portugal	15.7
Romania	9.7
Slovenia	2.5
Slovakia	21.5
Finland	19.4
Sweden	15.9
United Kingdom	19.1

Source: Eurostat 2012 except for EL (2010).

1. table: Gender Pay Gap in the EU

Another study pointed it out the disparities between managerial wages in the private sector. In Hungary it is 24.6% while in Austria 32.1%, pushing it down to the bottom five countries. In Hungary the gender payment gap is larger in decision-making in the public and private sectors than the average gap (Eurostat, 2011). Hungarian male managers and business leaders receive 33% higher payment as women, according to a study by Workania (2012).

It is clearly visible that there are obvious differences between these two European countries in general attitudes, employment rates and wages, therefore work-related gender stereotypes should be examined to explore the causes of these dissimilarities.

Research questions and hypotheses

Naturally, there are a lot of elements that can affect stereotypes in these nations, and they may also have a combined effect. A nation's culture, history, heritage, economy, education, media and politics all play a role. Moreover, we should not forget that it is not only the environment that can affect attitudes but it also works the other way around, so this complex, multidirectional background should not be oversimplified. Therefore, I will only attempt to discover gender stereotypes in the field of work, and strive to explore their psychological background.

As a result of dissimilarities listed above, we might ask the question: are there actual differences between the stereotypes of the two countries? We could also suspect that there must be differences also in the gender attitudes of Austrians and Hungarians. Therefore, my first hypothesis is concerned with this issue.

H.1.: Differences between gender stereotypes can be measured in the Austrian and the Hungarian sample.

To follow up previous studies by Schein, which pointed out that people globally tend to connect masculine features with a leader, our next research question is the following: are the stereotypes of a manager are more masculine or feminine in these two uninvestigated countries? I am inclined to think that the "Think manager–think male" mindset appears in these two countries as well.

H.2.: The stereotypes of a good manager are more masculine than feminine in both the Austrian and the Hungarian sample.

It is also an aspect of analysis to measure the differences in the strength of the stereotypes of the two samples. Given the better ranking of Austria in gender gap indices, it would not be surprising if the attitudes of the citizens were not as strong as those of Hungarians. It can be suspected that the gap between feminine characteristics and the traits of a manager is smaller in the Austrian sample.

H.3.: Gender stereotypes are weaker in the Austrian sample than in the Hungarian one.

As shown by previous studies, there are differences in the rating of male and female participants. Women tend to give a lower score to their own gender than men. There might be gender differences in the strength of the stereotypes, which could show up in the case of these two countries.

H.4.: There are gender differences in the rating of women in both the Austrian and the Hungarian sample.

Let me introduce the tools that were used to find out whether these hypotheses can be accepted or rejected.

Method

Instruments

Two matching instruments were used for the operationalization of the aforementioned questions regarding genders: the Modern Sexism Scale (MSS) by Swim, Aikin, Hall and Hunter (1995) and the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) (Schein, 1973). The former contains nine items with five-point Likert-scales, and is translated to several languages. It is a widely used, short scale used to measure covert or subtle forms of sexism (hidden or unnoticed as a result of becoming cultural norms) against women (Swim & Cohen, 1997).

The latter was created by Schein, it has three versions and contains 92 adjectives that must be rated on a Likert-like scale based on to what degree they match 1) a successful middle manager (*version1*), 2) a man (*version2*) or 3) a woman (*version3*). It is suitable for our goals to analyze the strength of stereotypes against these groups. The higher rate means a more positive view of the given group.

The Hungarian version was used in a thesis written at Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE) of Budapest, therefore I used that (Csizmazia, 2013). Although Schein has carried out a few studies in Germany, no German translation has ever been published. That meant that I needed to translate the original English with the help and supervision of one Austrian and two German colleagues and make sure that the meaning of the adjectives is equivalent to the Hungarian version in order to avoid any questionnaire bias. It was a challenge to find words that were also understandable for the wider public.

The purpose of using these two tools was to see whether there was a connection between sexism and how managers were viewed according to their gender. At first, I used an online platform to inquire about descriptive data (gender, age, residency, education), including their position (if they answered that they had employees, another page showed up asking how many they had, and if they needed to report to someone – in this way, it was visible based on their answers whether they were employees, middle managers or managers).

After filling out the MSS, the participants received one particular version of the SDI. This platform was able to randomly create 3 groups of the participants for each SDI version, so each participant had to fill in only one of them. I informed them about the purposes of the study (claiming that it is about leadership behaviour, not to ruin the real purpose, which was then explained after the completion of the survey), the time it required, and that it was completely anonymous. I also provided them with my university e-mail address in case they had questions or would be interested about the final results.

Sample

Although previous studies inquired business students and managers about their attitudes (Schein, 1989, 1996; Booysen & Nkomo, 2010; Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012), I believe that they do not show a representative image of a given population. First of all, the general atmosphere affects not only workplace norms but also the upbringing and future career goals of girls, and not only those who are in leadership positions. Second, not all managers will have completed business studies and not every business student will end up in high positions.

Therefore, my intention was to gain an insight into the thoughts of the wider population. However, in order to make the Hungarian and the Austrian samples comparable, I needed to narrow down the circle of participants so that they did not differ significantly. For this, by using the groups determined by the European Commission, a criterion was set that only workers of the business sector could participate in the study. This is a field that contained various jobs and positions and where a sufficient sample size was achievable. Workers from all kinds of companies that produce and sell goods (employees of companies that offer services, such as hair dressers, restaurants, touristic firms, etc. could not participate) were asked.

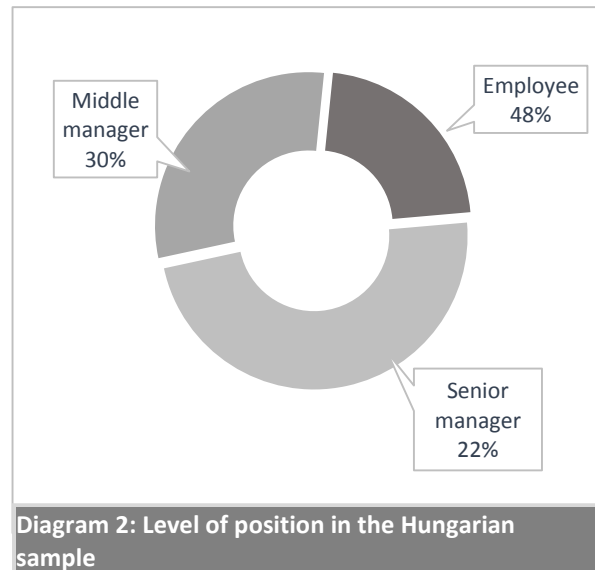
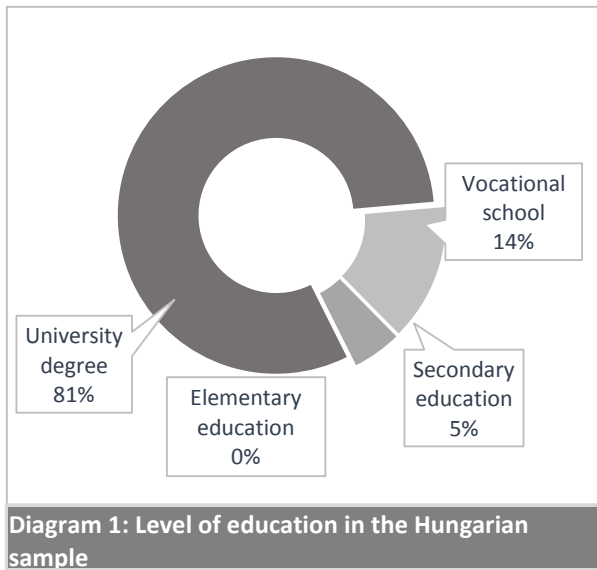
Procedure

First, I reached out to people whom I had personally known in this field, and asked them whether they could write me their colleagues' e-mail addresses or forward the survey to them. I searched for different types of companies, mainly suppliers (in the case of the automotive industry), clothes and jewellery shops, flower and gift shops, kitchenware and grocery stores. I began with the Hungarian sample; I sent approximately 230 e-mails to companies I had had no contact with before, and in three weeks I received 95 responses. Next, I shifted my focus to the Austrian sample. however, I faced an unexpected obstacle: for some reason, the Austrian sample grew substantially slower than the Hungarian. With the same technique I needed to send circa 1,200 e-mails to receive 95 responses. I had not expected such a vast difference in the participation rate, so data collecting required much more effort and time than it had been previously calculated.

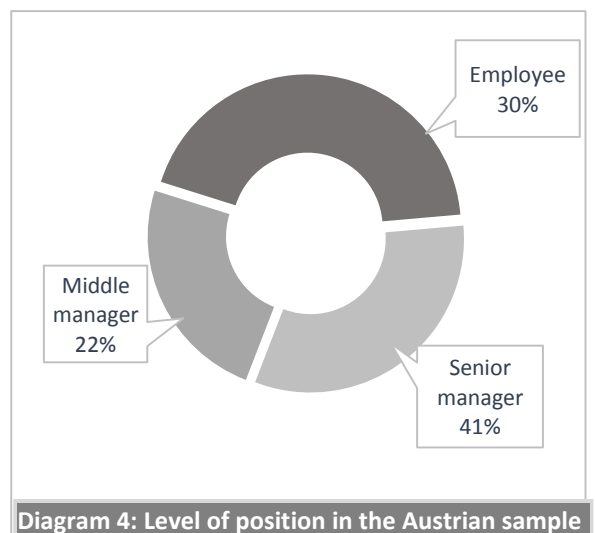
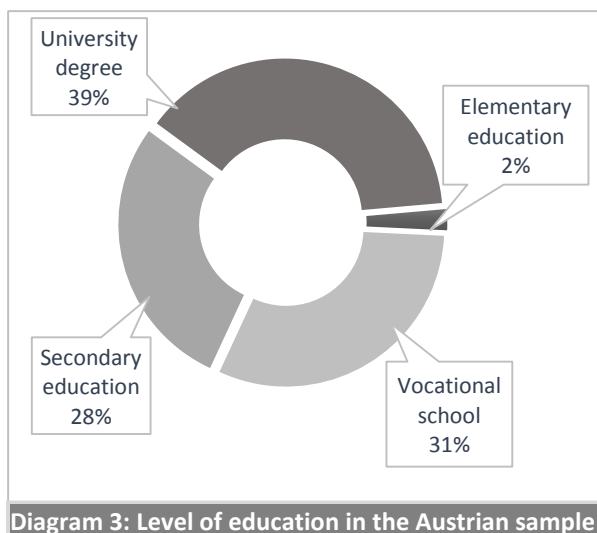
Results

The Hungarian sample contains 95 participants, 53% female, 47% male. The mean age was 42 years, between 20 and 66 years. Almost every participant was from a larger city (41% from Budapest, 51% from county seats), and only 8% from a town or village.

Most of them, 81% had a university degree, 14% finished vocational school, only 5% stopped studying after secondary education, and no one had only elementary education (visible on Diagram 1). Almost half of the participants, 48%, were employees, 30% said that they had employees and needed to report to a superior, therefore they can be considered middle managers. 22% were the head of a given department, which means that almost one quarter of the sample held a senior manager position (Diagram 2). The managers had 100–400 employees.



In the Austrian sample there were 45 male and 50 female participants between the ages of 21 and 71 years. Their mean age was 41.28 years. Slightly more than fifth of the sample (21.3%) lived in a village, 41.7 % in a city, and 30% in Vienna, the capital. Two persons' highest educational level was primary school, 29% finished vocational school, 26.2% had their high school diploma, and 35.9% had a university degree (Diagram 3). According to their responses, 30% were employees, 22.3% middle managers, and 40.7% held a position in top management (Diagram 4).



Their profession varied from entrepreneur through company owner, logistician, accountant, sales director, planner, production manager, engineer, shop assistant, to jeweller etc.

For the statistical analysis the programme SPSS was used. Univariate analysis was used to test hypotheses. Non-parametrical probes could not analyze more variables, therefore after running a One-Way ANOVA – which was not significant – I decided to work with univariate analysis. Given items needed to be reversed (see appendix), and the maximum score, the most positive rating was 460. In order to avoid any misunderstandings, I will use the term “man” and “woman” for the SDI (ratee) and “male” and “female” for the gender of the participant (rater). The country refers to the nationality of the participants. With univariate analysis I was able to test all four hypotheses. Through comparing the data from the SDI, nationality and gender, the following results were found.

Table 2: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Austrian sample			
Source	df	F	Significance.
SDI	2	4.96	0.009
gender	1	2.31	0.132
SDI * gender	2	0.54	0.588

Table 3: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Hungarian sample			
Source	df	F	Significance
SDI	2	7.45	0.001
gender	1	6.56	0.012
SDI * gender	2	1.88	0.158

Table 4: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects in the whole sample			
Source	df	F	Significance
Country	1	6.205	0.014
SDI	2	7.562	0.001
Gender	1	4.532	0.035
Country * SDI	2	5.278	0.006
Country * gender	1	0.998	0.319
SDI * gender	2	2.667	0.072
Country * SDI * gender	2	0.036	0.965

Table 2 and 3 show the between-subject effect of different variables (which version of the SDI was filled out, the participant’s gender, and the effects of both). In the Austrian sample, the participant’s gender and version of SDI have no co-

effect, nor the gender of the participant, while every other variable had an impact on the rating. In Table 3 the results of the Hungarian sample are visible. Here both the SDI version and gender separately had an effect on the outcomes.

Table 4 shows the overall effect of these variables. Gender, nationality, the version of SDI separately and the country-SDI coefficient all had a significant effect on the ratings.

Table 5: Multiple Comparisons in the Austrian Sample			
Tukey HSD	SDI version		Significance
	Manager	Man	0.006
		Woman	0.251
	Man	Manager	0.006
		Woman	0.192
	Woman	Manager	0.251
		Man	0.192

Table 6: Multiple Comparisons in the Hungarian sample			
Tukey HSD	SDI version		Significance
	Manager	Man	0.587
		Woman	0.002
	Man	Manager	0.587
		Woman	0.020
	Woman	Manager	0.002
		Man	0.020

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of SDI ratings in the Austrian sample (total scores)			
SDI	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation
Manager	Man	276.1176	10.73477
	Woman	274.8333	17.48024
	Total	275.4571	14.40250
Man	Man	259.6667	19.75455
	Woman	262.9091	14.63185
	Total	261.2174	17.18074
Woman	Man	274.5000	24.11638
	Woman	264.9524	12.65889
	Total	269.0811	18.82430
Total	Man	271.1556	19.68035
	Woman	268.0600	15.55820
	Total	269.5263	17.60370

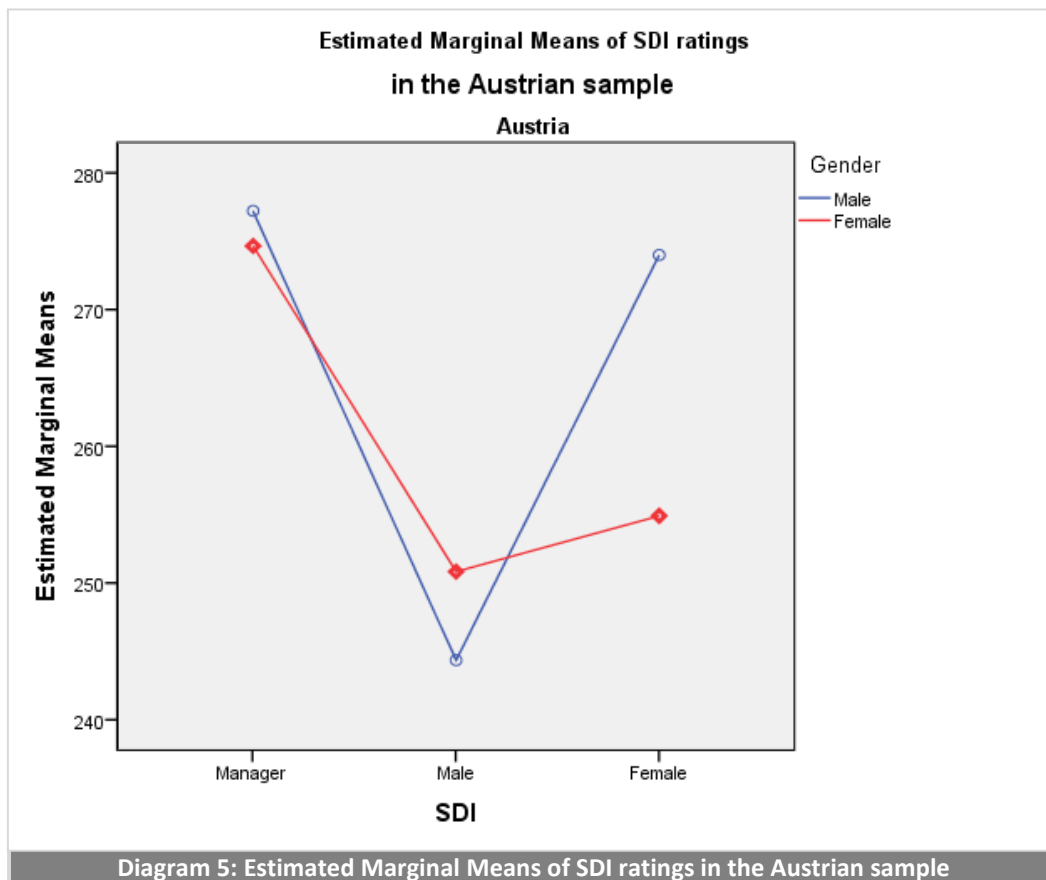


Table 7 and Diagram 5 show the Austrian sample's rating in the three different SDI groups. The results of the different genders are also visible. In Diagram 5 it is apparent that the scores given to men and women are following a similar structure in terms of the grading of managers, who were rated the highest (276.1 by male and 274.8 by female participants), and men received the lowest scores (259.7 and 262).

A gap can be noticed in the rating of women – female participants rated them significantly lower than men ($p=0.01$). The differences between groups are only significant between the male and manager group ($p=0.006$).

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of SDI ratings			
in the Hungarian sample			
SDI	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation
Manager	Man	272.4286	9.48452
	Woman	265.0000	14.58767
	Total	268.4667	12.82974
Man	Man	265.5000	12.44186
	Woman	265.0952	16.20464
	Total	265.2703	14.50603
Woman	Man	262.3333	9.94030
	Woman	249.1538	13.36567
	Total	256.2143	13.24514
Total	Man	266.6000	11.32455
	Woman	260.9200	16.30054
	Total	263.6105	14.37588

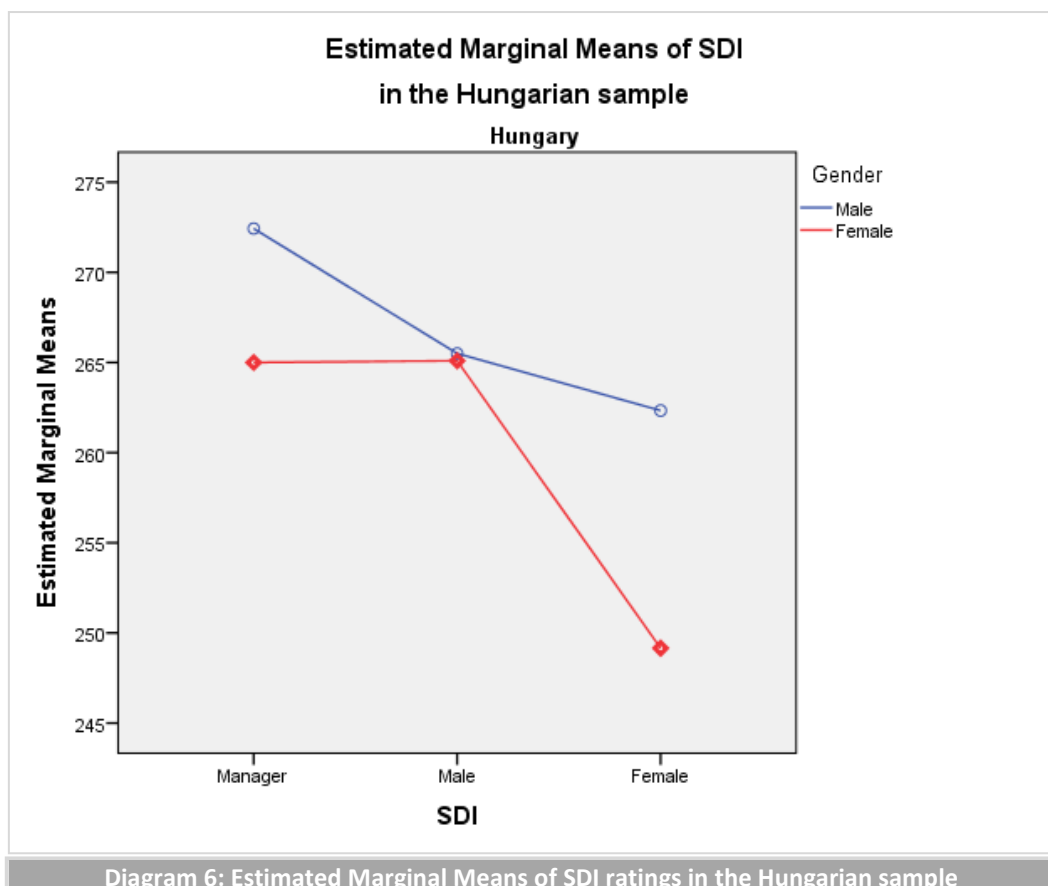
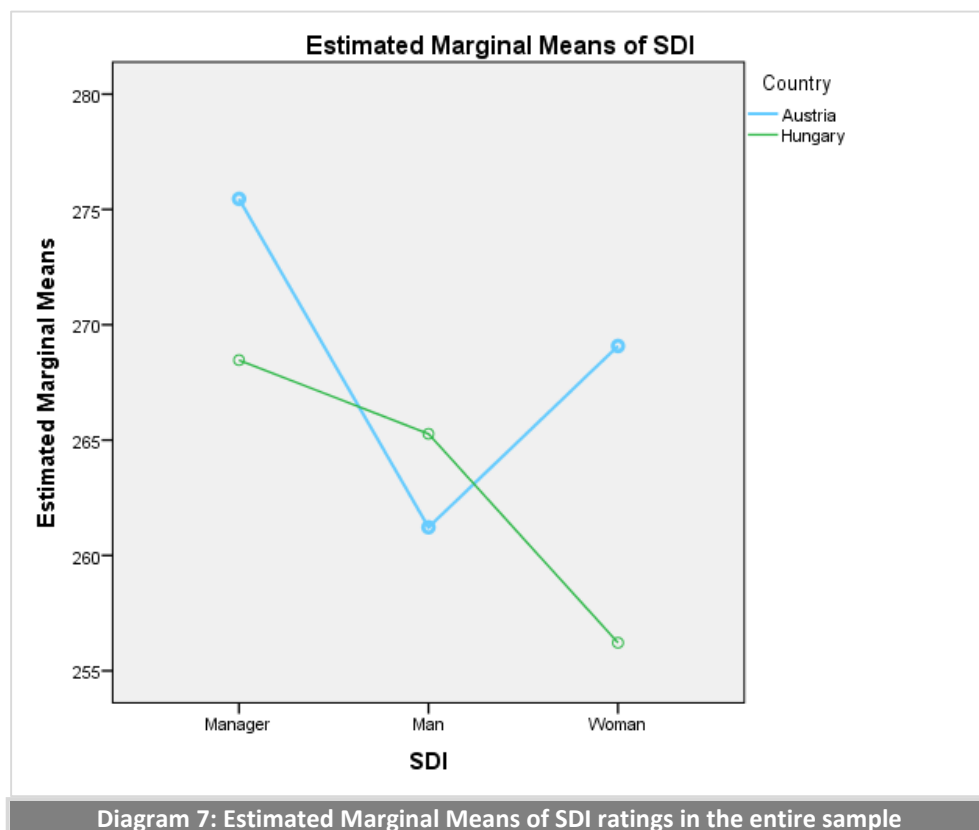


Diagram 6: Estimated Marginal Means of SDI ratings in the Hungarian sample

The means of the Hungarian sample's rating are shown In Diagram 6. Here the scores of men are close for both male and female participants (265.5 and 265.1). Women rated managers only slightly below men (272.4 to 265), and their own gender was rated remarkably low (249.1). The scores given by men are notably different: they rated women higher (262.3) and managers the highest (272.4) (visible on Table 8).

Table 9: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects			
	df	F	Sig.
Country	1	5.428	0.021
SDI	2	7.3	0.001
Country * SDI	2	4.653	0.011

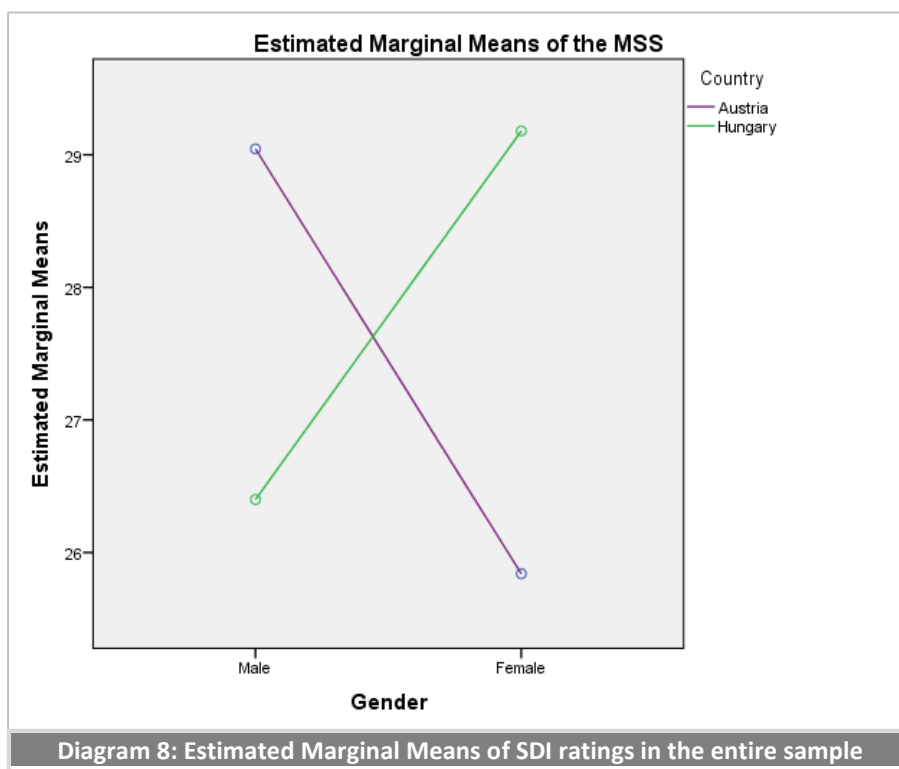
Table 10: Multiple Comparisons			
Tukey HSD	SDI version		Significance
	Manager	Man	0.006
		Woman	0.004
	Man	Manager	0.006
		Woman	0.998
	Woman	Manager	0.004
		Man	0.998



In Diagram 7 we can see the plots for the entire sample independently of the gender of the participant. Austria has the highest mean score for managers (275.5) and also women (269.1). The overall rating of men is somewhat lower than in the Hungarian sample (261.2 to 265.3). This score is the lowest in the Austrian sample. In the Hungarian sample the overall rating of managers is the highest (268.5), however it is still below the Austrian ratings, while the scores given to women are the lowest in the whole sample (256.2). Table 10 shows the significance of these results.

In the MSS there were specific items that needed to be reserved (item number 1, 3, 4, 6, and 8), and I made three groups in order to be able to make a comparison with the results of the SDI: the least sexist (35.4% of the entire sample), the average (31.3%) and the most sexist group (33.3%). I was interested whether there was a correlation with the ratings of the SDI.

Table 11: Multiple Comparisons of MSS		
MSS groups		Significance
Manager	Man	0.407
	Woman	0.155
Man	Manager	0.407
	Woman	0.858
Woman	Manager	0.155
	Man	0.858



As Table 11 suggests, there is no significant difference between the Modern Sexism Scale and the SDI ratings.

There were no significant differences found either between different levels of education, types of residency or the level of position the participants had.

Running a comparative analysis with univariate of the MSS scores it was found that Hungarian men were less sexist than women with the same nationality, and it was the other way around in the Austrian sample: male participants were significantly more sexist than female ones.

In previous studies, intra-class coefficients were used, therefore I also used this analysis in order to be able to compare the results. It is important to note, however, that those tests were carried out mainly by manager students and managers. Table 13 shows the correlations between all countries where this analysis was run.

The comparison between managers and women were similar in both samples, all strongly correlating ($p < 0.01$). Some differences can be seen in the correlation between men and managers: in the Austrian sample the correlation is less substantial than in the Hungarian one (0.633 to 0.894). In the following table the different correlations are visible according to country:

Table 12: Intra-class coefficient		
	Country	ETA
Men-Manager	Austria	0.842
	Hungary	0.873
Women-Manager	Austria	0.633
	Hungary	0.894
Men-Women	Austria	0.721
	Hungary	0.866

Table 13: Intra-class coefficient from previous studies													
	Canada	China	Germany	Japan	UK	USA	New Zealand	Sweden	Turkey	South Africa	South Africa	Austria	Hungary
Males										White males	Black males		
Managers and men	0.66	0.91	0.74	0.54	0.67	0.70	0.72	0.71	0.57	0.68	0.78	0.721	0.866
Managers and women	0.00	-0.04	-0.04	-0.07	0.02	0.11	0.36	-0.03	0.11	0.41	0.27	0.842	0.873
Females										White female	Black females		
Managers and men	0.38	0.91	0.66	0.68	0.68	0.51	0.66	0.67	0.59	0.56	0.51	0.795	0.894
Managers and women	0.47	0.28	0.19	-0.04	-0.04	0.43	0.46	0.22	0.34	0.54	0.64	0.894	0.873

Source: Booyesen, L., & Nkomo, S. (2010).

A factor analysis was run to see whether the factors were different in the two countries. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy in the Hungarian sample was rather low (0.146), meaning that the factors are not trustworthy, however, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, therefore a factor analysis could be carried out.

Table 14: KMO and Bartlett's Test on the Austrian sample		
sample		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.146
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10100,49
	df	4186
	Sig.	0.000

Table 15: KMO and Bartlett's Test on the Hungarian sample		
sample		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.341
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9268,99
	df	3916
	Sig.	0.000

I used a varimax rotation with a maximum iteration for convergence of 50 in order to be able to differentiate the factors. The screen plots suggest that there are 3–6 factors in both samples. As the sample size was close to a hundred, I set 0.512 as a minimum correlation to consider an item as part of a given factor.

Looking at the rotated component matrix there are 51 items in one factor, 15 in a second one, and 10 in a third one. The other factors would have contained only one item each, therefore I rejected them. The first factor's Cronbach's alpha is very high (0.961), suggesting that the meaning of a number of items is almost the same and perhaps the same results could be achieved with a smaller amount of items. This factor lists adjectives such as *competent, ambitious, firm, industrious, high need for power* etc., as a result of which this factor was named as "leading skills".

There are five items that also overlap with other factors. If I had removed them, the Cronbach alpha would have been only slightly stronger, however, seeing their meaning (*quarrelsome, uncertain, helpful, grateful, understanding*) I realized they would suit other factors better. As a result, there would only be 46 items in the first factor, making the dispersion better.

After adding these overlapping items into the second factor, it contains 15 items with meanings including *nervous*, *deceitful*, *selfish*, *dominant* or *hasty*. This factor can be called “undesirable features”. Its Cronbach’s alpha is also high (0.909).

The third factor comprises 10 items including the overlapping ones. The adjectives *helpful*, *sympathetic*, *tactful*, *grateful*, etc. can be summarized as “pleasant characteristics”. The Cronbach’s alpha is strong (0.856), as it is visible on Table 16.

Table 16: Reliability Statistics in the Austrian sample		
Factors	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
F1: Leading skills	0.963	46
F2: Undesirable features	0.909	15
F3: Pleasant characteristics	0.856	10

Table 17: Reliability Statistics in the Hungary sample		
Factors	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
F1: Leading skills	0.972	35
F2: Pleasant characteristics	0.882	9
F3: Acceptance and rewards	0.706	3
F4: Look and finances	0.771	3
F5: Careerist	0.857	3

The Hungarian sample’s rotated component matrix shows that there are 6 factors that contain at least 3 items. After a close examination it can be seen that the third factor only includes 2 items, which are already present in the first factor but with a negative correlation. Therefore I decided not to consider these items as a new factor but rather keep them in the first one. In this way the first factor contains 35 items, such as *logical*, *analytical ability*, *persistent* and *forceful*. There are 28 items that overlap with the Austrian sample’s first factor, therefore I used the same name, “leading skills”. The Cronbach’s alpha is also high (0.972).

In the second factor there are 9 items, 4 of them overlapping with the Austrian third factor, containing words such as *kind*, *generous* or *humanitarian values*, therefore in this case the same name, “pleasant characteristics” can be used. The Cronbach’s alpha is strong (0.882).

The third factor of three items, *strong need for monetary rewards*, *strong need for achievement* and *strong need for social acceptance* imply that the name “Acceptance and rewards” would be a suitable name for this factor. The Cronbach’s alpha is acceptable (0.706).

The fourth factor is about “Look and finances” because of its three items *neat*, *interested in own appearance* and *strong need for monetary rewards*. The Cronbach’s alpha is good in this case as well (0.771).

The items *competitive*, *wavering in decision* and *high self-regard* can be moved to a fifth factor called “Careerist”. Without the last item the Cronbach’s alpha would be 0.975, but even with it, it is sufficiently strong (0.857). These data are shown in Table 17.

The overlapping items of the first factor can be seen in Table 18 with their original English names from SDI.

Table 18: Factor analysis: "leading skills" factor		
Austrian sample	Overlapping items	Hungarian sample
	Well informed	
	Self-controlled	
	Competent	
	Decisive	
Easily influenced - reversed	Skilled in business matters	
Helpful	Desires responsibility	
Sophisticated	Prompt	
Passive	Intelligent	
High self-regard	Ambitious	
Sociable	Firm	
Vigorous	Self-confident	
Competitive	Logical	Obedient
Intuitive	Leadership ability	Deceitful – reversed
Industrious	Analytical ability	Able to separate feelings from ideas
Self reliant	Steady	High need for autonomy
Devious	Consistent	Forceful
Desire to avoid controversy - reserved	Frank	
Humanitarian values	Emotionally stable	
Vulgar - reserved	Knows the way of the world	
Talkative	Demure	
Speedy recovery from emotional trauma - reserved	Bitter -reversed	
Cheerful	Creative	
Understanding	High need for power	
	Courteous	
	Persistent	
	Quarrelsome – reversed	
	Shy – reverse	

Discussion

To test out the four hypothesis, namely, the differences between gender stereotypes can be measured in the Austrian and the Hungarian sample (H.1.), the stereotypes of a good manager is more masculine than feminine in both the Austrian and the Hungarian sample (H.2.), gender stereotypes are weaker in the Austrian sample than in the Hungarian one (H.3.), and there are gender differences in the rating of women in both the Austrian and the Hungarian sample (H.4.), univariate analysis was used, and for a deeper insight I also run intra-class coefficient and factor analysis. I will now introduce the findings of the two tools, the SDI and the MSS separately.

Outcomes of the SDI

The results successfully point out the differences between the two samples. Interestingly, there are rather huge gaps not only according to nationality but also gender. In the Austrian sample men were rated the lowest independently of the gender of the participant. However, the ratings given by female participants show a surprisingly large difference: women rated their own gender less favourably than men.

Surprisingly, the Hungarian sample's diagram is significantly different. The male participants' plot does not have a steep angle, but it goes rather straight from top-rated managers to women at the bottom. The female participants' plot is almost a reflection of this: men's scores are very close to the ratings given by male participants, while managers are rated slightly below that, and they rated their own gender the worst in the entire sample.

Considering these, we can state that the first hypothesis (H.1.), namely, that there are noticeable differences in the stereotypes of the two samples, is confirmed. The plots show different tendencies, especially in terms of how men and women are rated.

Both nationalities gave high grades to managers. This raises the question why the perception of a successful manager is so positive. Is success always accompanied by good personality traits?

Naturally, it is not. In that case, then, why do we have in mind an image of a fair, kind, hard-working boss when it comes to this question? Does success always come with good personal traits?

Essentially, it can be affected by the subjective definition of success. If we look at the meaning of the word, it conveys something such as attainment of higher social status, achieving career or academic goals or something else that is desired, or that the person is able to avoid failures (Oxford Dictionary in English, 2003).

It conveys positive images and feelings, and this can cause cognitive bias such as the halo effect, which means that one favourable trait of a given person can lead us to think that there must also be other attractive features to them. This phenomenon is also present at the workplace, as Thorndike's studies from the first part of the previous century suggest (1920). It claims that the estimates of the same man in regard to several traits such as intelligence, technical skills, reliability, etc., were highly and evenly correlated. People tend to rate others in general as a rather good or a rather inferior person, and match adjectives with these ideas.

It can also result in a bias in the supervisors' opinion about the employees, as shown by a study by Schneider, Gruman and Coutts (2012). They found that even one single prominence, such as enthusiasm, could have an effect on the overall judgement of an employee, and he or she might receive a better performance score than it is justified based on his/her knowledge, skills or abilities.

This can lead us to think that perhaps the overall perception of a manager is not the same as that of a "successful manager". These two nations are both individualistic, hierarchy does not play such a huge role in their societies, although they still believe that powerful people need to have certain positive qualities.

Although there is no significant gap between the ratings of Austrians and Hungarians, there are some cultural differences owing to the socialist past of

Hungary. In the 1990's, after the political system had changed, the general atmosphere was optimistic, and the free market offered opportunities and made available goods that had not been within reach before.

The general opinion about a successful company owner was positive. People believed they had achieved their position by hard work. However, by the end of the decade, this view had turned around. More and more articles appeared about the connection between companies and crime, which also affected public opinion. By 1998, Felkai found that half the population agreed that entrepreneurs did not do anything useful but exploit others instead. Nevertheless, 80% of the participants agreed that the financial consolidation of entrepreneurs would help create more jobs. This suggests that Hungarians have an ambivalent view of successful company owners, but here it is clear that they received the highest scores.

After the end of World War II in 1945, Austria restored its former democratic constitution, and from 1955 it is a sovereign state with a parliamentary representative democracy (The World Factbook, 2015), therefore they did not experience such a substantial change in politics and everyday life as people in post-communist countries.

Why can we see such a duality in the ratings of genders? Why did Austrians rate women higher than men? We have now arrived to the second hypothesis (H.2.), namely, that the stereotypes of a successful leader suggest a more masculine, rather than feminine quality, independent of cultural differences. This hypothesis is rejected, as it is only true in the case of the Hungarian sample.

Furthermore, male participants rated males the lowest. In the Austrian female sample, in contrast with the international pattern, there was a higher Women-Manager correlation found than Men-Manager. The question is: why did this occur?

In 2012, Austria had the highest unadjusted gender pay gap in the EU-27: female workers earned 25.5% less than men (compared to the EU-average of 16.4%). It is not surprising, then, that in the past few years a strong gender equality movement has commenced. It also has its historical background: by the early-19th

century, feminists had already achieved certain rights, such as that married women were granted separate economy and the right to choose their own professions. In 1918, a few decades later than the first countries, Austria granted women the right to vote. The first women's association was founded in 1867, and already in 1869 girls had the right to continue their education at secondary level thanks to the Imperial Elementary School Law (Morgan, 1984).

Today, there are debates about the women's quota, and a change in gender fairness in the language is also an issue. There is a higher awareness of inequalities in education, and there are several legislative and private initiatives that help gain a better and fairer access to the talent pool (Morgan, 1984).

Today, Austria has a much better Gender Inequality Index (GII) and Gender Equity Index (GEI) than Hungary does. The former has been introduced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in order to measure inequalities against women in health, education and the labour market. GEI is designed to measure inequalities in various areas of the everyday lives of women and men in three dimensions: education, economic participation and empowerment. Austria's position on the GII list is 18/186 and 39/168 on the GEI as opposed to Hungary's position of 37/186 and 42/168, respectively.

Perhaps all these efforts and movements and a rather liberal mindset could result in such differences not only compared to Hungary but other countries, too. As it was introduced earlier, only one study conducted in Canada (Orser, 1994) and the black sample of the South African research (Booyesen & Stella, 2010) showed that women prefer feminine characteristics over masculine ones in a leader.

If we think about it, generally feminine characteristics, such as being emotional, caring, cooperative or intuitive, can also easily be suitable for a good leader. Although there are some work fields that are considered more feminine or masculine. Busch's research from 2011 shows that women in senior positions in typically "feminine" careers are paid significantly less than women working at the top in typically "masculine" careers.

It is a new finding that as opposed to the “Think Manager-Think Male” phenomenon managerial sex typing of Austrians was the opposite of Schein’s results and closer to the exceptions such as New Zealand and South Africa.

I suspected that the gap between the rating of Austrian men and women would be smaller than in the Hungarian sample. I expected the outcomes to be similar in both cases, namely, that women would be graded more negatively. However, it turned out rather differently, and it was positive in the Austrian sample. It means that the directions of the two samples are the exact opposite of each other, although we can still investigate the gap between genders. The difference is slightly more noticeable in the Austrian sample, but not significant, therefore the third hypothesis (H.3.), namely, that the strength of gender stereotypes is lower in the Austrian sample than in the Hungarian one, can be rejected.

It is obvious in both samples that male and female participants rated men and women differently. Austrian and also Hungarian male participants rated women significantly higher than female participants. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis (H.4.), suggesting that there are gender differences in the attributes, can be accepted.

Findings of the MSS

Another interesting aspect of my findings is the opposite tendencies in the scores in the Modern Sexism Scale. Hungarian male participants were less sexist than women, while in the Austrian sample it was the other way around. This underlines the results of the SDI. It seems that Hungarian women are more stereotypical against their own gender. However, Hungarians are still rather conservative in their stereotypes. Lévai (2000) writes that the Hungarian society is “gender-blind”, and the term “gender” with its social meaning does not exist. This could lead to women creating their identities according to cultural and social expectations. Family is still taking priority in women’s life, therefore it is harder to start a career and carry on with it after childbirth (Csontó, 2007). As also indicated by the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) rating of 0.52–0.78, Hungarians treat women slightly differently than Austrians.

Findings of the Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was used in order to obtain a deeper insight into the differences between items. Interestingly, the largest factor is very similar in the two samples; 28 items are overlapping. Most of them are connected to leading skills and characteristics, while some are personality traits, such as *bitter* (negatively correlating), *frank*, or *courteous*. The item *emotionally stable* also appeared here, suggesting that it is not only competence and skills that we connect with leadership but also certain positive emotional states.

It is also compelling that the Austrian sample has more items in its factors, while the factors in the Hungarian one are more separated. It is not only true in the case of positive and negative characteristics but also other traits, including connection with social and visual environment and one about competitive characterizations.

The rather high Cronbach's alphas, which suggest that with fewer items the same results could have been achieved calls our attention to the need for further studies to find out which items are necessary and how the SDI could be made shorter. We must consider, however, that there was no factor analysis performed on the original English SDI, therefore it is not comparable with our results.

Relevance and implications

It is remarkable that despite the differences, there is no significant contrast between the labour markets of the two countries. As it was mentioned earlier, only approximately 30% of the decision making positions are held by women at smaller businesses. If gender ratios in the labour market are almost equal in both countries, how can it be so that there is still a perceivable difference in the strength of gender stereotypes? Again, the correlation should not be oversimplified, there are several other factors that can also have an effect. Other gender stereotypes can also play a role, for example that women are more obedient, hard-working and precise, which can be desirable for certain tasks. The country's communist past can also leave a mark, namely that in those times men and women needed to work for the ideology as well. It is surprising that there were no previous studies with these countries and it would be worthwhile to investigate

more countries with different historical, economical and cultural background to see how strongly these gender stereotypes connect to the gender ratio in the labour market, or vice versa.

The ultimate solution to these gender employment problems would be changing the stereotypes, as governmental regulations cannot help effectively or in the long term. As Grésy wrote (2015), everyday sexism prevents women from escaping the stereotypical image of their place in society, and because they impose these ideas on themselves, it weakens their self-belief. She emphasizes the importance of childhood and school education that can deepen these stereotypes and help women and men be viewed in their real potential. She builds up a systematic approach through four levels of equality: sufficient childcare and family services could help mothers continue their careers more easily, and fatherhood could be more accepted if public bodies and companies fostered parental equality. She also supports quotas but only to be applied to boards of directors in order to smash the glass ceiling, and she would challenge representational systems (especially schools) to drive out anything that encloses “gender-based” behaviour.

As we can see there are several contradictions and disparities in the Austrian and Hungarian samples, which can be elucidated by several factors, including gender stereotypes. It is an interesting issue, and a deeper understanding can help decrease gender gaps in the work field in the future.

Self-reflection

Statistically speaking, the sample size was just sufficient to run the relevant analyses. In the future, it would be appreciated if more participants could be involved in the study through the cooperation of additional researchers or with the help of a multinational company that is present both in Austria and Hungary.

An independent variable could be created if the participants had or have had in the past a female direct manager. Personal experiences may also play a role in creating the image of a leader or have an effect on attitudes.

It would also be interesting to run a similar study in work sectors other than business. The political field is problematic in terms of gender-fairness, and it could

be examined in professions that are considered more “feminine” and overpowered by women. Perhaps the outcomes vary in other sectors.

Comparing the factors with other studies would provide us with a deeper insight in the rating of the 92 characteristics. The rating had not existed previously, but it would be desired to make it also for the English original.

Conclusion

This study, involving 95 participants from Austria and 95 participants from Hungary who filled out an online questionnaire containing MSS and SDI, implies that there are differences in these two nations’ gender stereotypes against workers in leadership positions.

The analysis showed that while Hungarians followed the intercultural pattern of rating successful – male and female – middle managers, namely, that women were rated the lowest, the Austrian results were different: men received the worst ratings. Gender differences were also visible: male and female participants rated these groups differently, giving lower scores to their own gender. The ratings given to men are contradictory. In the Austrian sample they received the lowest scores, while in the Hungarian sample women received the most negative ratings.

The analysis of the MMS showed that while Hungarian men are less sexist than women, it is the other way around in the Austrian sample, although it implied no significant correlation between the SDI and MMS scores.

These differences can only be explained with a complex historical, cultural, folk-psychological and economical background. Managers received the highest ratings in both countries; they were perceived as having desirable characteristics. The contradictory grades of men and women suggest that gender stereotypes are different in these two countries. While in Austria men received the lowest ratings, overall Hungarians gave the most negative ratings to women.

In the future it would be desirable to study other work fields and workers from other countries to achieve a deeper understanding of this complex issue and help

us find a solution for the uneven gender proportion in the labour market, especially in management level.

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Appendix

SDI

Reversed items: SDI: , 9, 16, 20, 24, 31, 37, 39, 42, 45, 48, 54, 55, 58, 63, 69, 72, 74, 78, 82
Univariate Analysis of Variance

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Country	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Austria	Corrected Model	11783.018 ^a	5	235.604	2.552	0.033
	Intercept	6526488.107	1	652648.107	7067,271	0.000
	Nation	0.000	0	.	.	.
	SDI	9154.872	2	457.436	4.957	0.009
	Gender	2130.736	1	213.736	2.307	0.132
	SDI * Gender	987.26	2	49.630	0.535	0.588
	Error	84036.735	91	923.481		
	Total	7004980	97			
	Corrected Total	95819.753	96			
Hungary	Corrected Model	3964.326 ^b	5	792.865	4.564	0.001
	Intercept	6436053.912	1	6436053.912	37045.597	0.000
	SDI	2605.095	2	1302.547	7.497	0.001
	Gender	1139.051	1	1139.051	6.556	0.012
	SDI * Gender	654.38	2	327.190	1.883	0.158
	Error	15462.264	89	173.733		
	Total	6621025	95			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			
	Total	6621025	95			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			
	Corrected Total	19426.589	94			

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Corrected Model	9355.554 ^a	11	850.505	3.705	0.000
Intercept	12960680.656	1	12960680.656	56456.892	0.000
Nation	1424.399	1	1424.399	6.205	0.014
SDI	3471.894	2	1735.947	7.562	0.001
Gender	1040.331	1	1040.331	4.532	0.035
Nation * SDI	2423.225	2	1211.613	5.278	0.006
Nation * Gender	229.133	1	229.133	0.998	0.319
SDI * Gender	1224.679	2	612.339	2.667	0.072
Nation * SDI * Gender	16.413	2	8.206	0.036	0.965
Error	40863.057	178	229.568		
Total	13551376.000	190			
Corrected Total	50218.611	189			

a. R Squared = 0.186 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.136)

Multiple Comparisons of SDI in the Austrian sample							
			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
(I) SDI	(J) SDI	Lower Bound				Upper Bound	
Tukey HSD	Manager	Man	8.5141 [*]	2.71255	0.006	2.1030	14.9252
		Woman	8.6923 [*]	2.65775	0.004	2.4108	14.9739
	Man	Manager	-8.5141 [*]	2.71255	0.006	-14.9252	-2.1030
		Woman	.1782	2.71255	0.998	-6.2329	6.5893
	Woman	Manager	-8.6923 [*]	2.65775	0.004	-14.9739	-2.4108
		Man	-.1782	2.71255	0.998	-6.5893	6.2329
Bonferroni	Manager	Man	8.5141 [*]	2.71255	0.006	1.9584	15.0698
		Woman	8.6923 [*]	2.65775	0.004	2.2690	15.1156
	Man	Manager	-8.5141 [*]	2.71255	.006	-15.0698	-1.9584
		Woman	.1782	2.71255	1.000	-6.3775	6.7339
	Woman	Manager	-8.6923 [*]	2.65775	.004	-15.1156	-2.2690
		Man	-.1782	2.71255	1.000	-6.7339	6.3775

Multiple Comparisons of SDI in the Hungarian sample							
		Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence Interval		
(I) SDI	(J) SDI				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Tukey HSD	Manager	Man	8.5141*	2.71255	0.006	2.1030	14.9252
		Woman	8.6923*	2.65775	0.004	2.4108	14.9739
	Man	Manager	-8.5141*	2.71255	0.006	-14.9252	-2.1030
		Woman	.1782	2.71255	0.998	-6.2329	6.5893
	Woman	Manager	-8.6923*	2.65775	0.004	-14.9739	-2.4108
		Man	-.1782	2.71255	0.998	-6.5893	6.2329
Bonferroni	Manager	Man	8.5141*	2.71255	0.006	1.9584	15.0698
		Woman	8.6923*	2.65775	0.004	2.2690	15.1156
	Man	Manager	-8.5141*	2.71255	0.006	-15.0698	-1.9584
		Woman	.1782	2.71255	1.000	-6.3775	6.7339
	Woman	Manager	-8.6923*	2.65775	0.004	-15.1156	-2.2690
		Man	-.1782	2.71255	1.000	-6.7339	6.3775

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

MSS

Descriptives								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Manager	67	269.4925	20.23077	2.47158	264.5579	274.4272	219.00	361.00
Man	59	265.7797	12.19252	1.58733	262.6023	268.9570	237.00	295.00
Woman	64	264.2344	14.70638	1.83830	260.5608	267.9079	210.00	292.00
Total	190	266.5684	16.30052	1.18256	264.2357	268.9011	210.00	361.00

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	958.244	2	479.122	1.819	0.165
Within Groups	49260.366	187	263.424		
Total	50218.611	189			

Multiple Comparisons with SDI ratings

Tukey HSD

(I) MMS	(J) MMS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Manager	Man	3.71288	2.89768	0.407	-3.1330	10.5587
	Woman	5.25816	2.83685	0.155	-1.4440	11.9603
Man	Manager	-3.71288	2.89768	0.407	-10.5587	3.1330
	Woman	1.54529	2.92930	0.858	-5.3753	8.4658
Woman	Manager	-5.25816	2.83685	0.155	-11.9603	1.4440
	Man	-1.54529	2.92930	0.858	-8.4658	5.3753

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Corrected Model	438.368 ^a	3	146.123	4.430	0.005
Intercept	144502.028	1	144502.028	4381.125	0.000
lfdn	5.729	1	5.729	.174	0.677
v_1	2.133	1	2.133	.065	0.800
lfdn * v_1	424.108	1	424.108	12.858	0.000
Error	6134.811	186	32.983		
Total	151418.000	190			
Corrected Total	6573.179	189			

The online questionnaire in German



24%


Liebe Teilnehmerin! Lieber Teilnehmer!

Ich bin Brigitta Szász, eine Studentin an der Universität Wien, und ich bitte Ihre Hilfe für meine Masterarbeit. Im folgenden Fragebogen geht es um Ihre Meinung zum Führungsverhalten.

Bitte lesen Sie die nachstehenden Angaben genau durch und antworten Sie auf alle Fragen. Es gibt dabei keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Für die Bearbeitung des Fragebogens werden Sie ca. 10 Minuten benötigen. Die erhobenen Daten werden anonym behandelt. Falls Sie Fragen haben, schreiben Sie mir an s1347751@unet.univie.ac.at

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!

[Continue](#)



29%

Ihr Geschlecht:

☐ männlich

☐ weiblich

Alter:

Wo leben Sie?

☐ in Wien

☐ in einem Stadt

☐ in einem Dorf

Was ist Ihre höchste Ausbildung?

☐ Pflichtschule

☐ berufsbildende Schule

☐ Matura / Abitur

☐ Universität / Fachhochschule

Was sind Sie von Beruf?

Sind Sie in einer Führungsposition?

☐ Ja, ich habe untergeordneten Kollegen/Kolleginnen

☐ Nein, ich habe keine untergeordneten Kollegen/ Kolleginnen

[Continue](#)



Bitte bewerten Sie die folgenden Aussagen!
Die folgenden Aussagen formulieren allgemeine Ansichten zu aktuellen gesellschaftlichen Geschlechterverhältnissen. Deren generelle Richtigkeit oder Falschheit ist dabei nicht relevant. Bitte geben Sie für jede Aussage an, wie stark Sie dieser zustimmen:

- Diskriminierung von Frauen ist in Österreich immer noch ein Problem.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- Frauen und Männer haben in der heutigen Gesellschaft die gleichen Chancen, etwas zu erreichen.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- Die Forderungen von Frauen nach Gleichberechtigung sind leicht nachzuvollziehen.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- In den Fernsehen gibt es häufig frauenfeindliche Darstellungen.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- Im Allgemeinen werden in unserer Gesellschaft Ehepartner gleichbehandelt.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- In der Schule werden Mädchen immer noch benachteiligt.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- Heutzutage werden Frauen im Berufsleben fair behandelt.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- Frauen finden häufig keine gutbezahlte Arbeit, weil sie diskriminiert werden.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.
- In den letzten Jahren haben die Politik und die Medien übermäßig viel mit der Problem der Behandlung von Frauen beschäftigt.**
Ich stimme nicht zu. ☐ ☐ ☒ ☐ ☐ Ich stimme völlig zu.

[Fortsetzung]



Auf den folgenden Seiten finden Sie eine Reihe von beschreibenden Begriffen, die häufig verwendet werden um Menschen zu charakterisieren. Die Begriffe sind verschieden konnotiert, sie können negativ, positiv bzw. neutral sein.

Wir möchten Sie darum bitten, mit Hilfe der Wörter in unserer Liste, aus Ihrer Sicht einen Mann zu charakterisieren. Es kann dabei hilfreich sein, sich vorzustellen, dass Sie einem Ihnen bisher unbekannten Mann, das erste Mal gegenüber sitzen.

Bitte bewerten sie jede Eigenschaft von 1 bis 5, dementsprechend inwiefern sie für einen Mann charakteristisch ist.

- neugierig**
charakterisiert einen Mann vollkommen ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ charakterisiert kein Mann
- konsequent**
charakterisiert einen Mann vollkommen ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ charakterisiert kein Mann
- hoher Leistungsbedarf**
charakterisiert einen Mann vollkommen ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ charakterisiert kein Mann
- mitfühlend**
charakterisiert einen Mann vollkommen ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ charakterisiert kein Mann
- macht sich zu viele Sorgen**
charakterisiert einen Mann vollkommen ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ charakterisiert kein Mann
- mag Abenteuer**

SDI items in German:

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 1. neugierig | 23. intelligent | 44. exhibitionistisch |
| 2. konsequent | 24. hartnäckig | 45. ist sich der Gefühlen anderen bewusst |
| 3. hoher Leistungsbedarf | 25. energisch | 46. passiv |
| 4. mitfühlend | 26. schüchtern | 47. objektiv |
| 5. macht sich zu viele Sorgen | 27. anspruchsvoll | 48. erholt sich schnell nach emotionales Traumata |
| 6. mag Abenteuer | 28. gesprächig | 49. schüchtern |
| 7. hat Führungsfähigkeiten | 29. starkes Sicherheitsbedürfnis | 50. selbstsicher |
| 8. schätzt die angenehme Umgebung | 30. stark | 51. fleißig |
| 10. mag wenn Ordnung herrscht | 31. analytisches Denken | 52. intuitiv |
| 11. unsicher | 32. wettbewerbsfähig | 53. hat Humanistische Werte |
| 12. kreativ | 33. unausgewogene Entscheidungsfindung | 54. Weiß wie die Welt tickt |
| 13. konfliktvermeidend | 33. froh | 55. trödelnd und prokrastinierend |
| 14. demütig | 34. hohes Autonomiebedürfnis | 56. streitsüchtig |
| 15. ehrlich | 35. Kann Gefühlen von Rationalem trennen | 57. begeistert |
| 16. höflich | 36. kompetent | 58. gut informiert |
| 17. emotional stabil | 37. verständnisvoll | 59. kann sich ohne Probleme aggressiv verhalten |
| 18. schlau | 38. vulgär | 60. zurückhaltend |
| 19. Interesse am eigenen Aussehen | 39. kontaktfreudig | 61. ambitioniert |
| 20. unabhängig | 40. aggressiv | 62. nicht eingebildet was sein Aussehen betrifft |
| 21. sehnt sich nach neuen Freundschaften | 41. hohe Selbstachtung | 63. Wunsch für soziale Akzeptanz |
| 22. draufgängerisch | 42. dankbar | |
| | 43. einfach zu beeinflussen | |

64. leichtsinnig
65. gehorsam
66. übernimmt gerne Verantwortung
67. diszipliniert
68. bescheiden
69. entscheidungsfreudig
70. leicht erregbar
71. direkt
72. versteckt Emotionen
73. autoritär

74. selbstsicher
75. empfindsam
76. standhaft
77. selbstbehauptend
78. ist schwer zu beleidigen
79. dominant
80. rücksichtvoll
81. hilfsbereit
82. benötigt die Anerkennung
83. täuschend
84. großzügig

85. verbittert
86. hat logische Denkweise
87. hat Kompetenz in geschäftlichen Fragen
88. egoistisch
89. ausgeglichen
90. nett
91. benötigt finanzielle Belohnungen
92. selbstbewusst

The online questionnaire in Hungarian



Kedves Kibőltető!

Szász Brigitta vagyok, a Bécsi Egyetem végzős pszichológia szakos hallgatójaként szeretném a szakdolgozatomhoz kérni az Ön segítségét.

Az alábbiakban egy rövid, legfeljebb 10 percet igénybe vevő kérdőív kitöltésére szeretném Önt kérni, ami a munkahelyi vezetői viselkedéssel foglalkozik.

Olvassa el figyelmesen a kérdéseket és válaszoljon őszintén, nem létezik rossz vagy jó válasz, az Ön véleményére vagyunk kíváncsiak!

A kérdőív anonim, amennyiben kérdése lenne, az a1347751@unet.univie.ac.at e-mail címen tud elérni.

Köszönöm a kitöltést!

Continue



Neme:

☐ Férfi
☐ Nő

Kora:

Hol én Ön?

☐ Budapest
☐ városban
☐ faluban

Mi a legmagasabb végzettsége?

☐ Általános iskola
☐ Szakközépiskola
☐ Érettségi
☐ Főiskola/egyetem

Mi a foglalkozása?

Vezető pozícióban van?

☐ Igen, vannak beosztottjaim.
☐ Nem, nincsenek beosztottjaim.

Continue



Az alábbi állítások pár gyakran hangzottatott társadalmi véleményét tükröznék. Kérjük, értékelje az egyes állításokat annak megfelelően, hogy Ön mennyire ért egyet ezekkel.

A nők diszkriminációja még mindig probléma Magyarországon.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

Társadalmunkban ma már a nőknek és a férfiaknak egyenlő esélyük van az előrejutásra.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

Érthető a nők igénye az egyenlőségre.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

A tévében gyakran előítéletes módon ábrázolják a nőket.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

A társadalmunk általában egyenlően bánt a házastársakkal.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

Az iskolában a lányok még mindig hátrányos helyzetben vannak.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

Manapság a nőkkel igazságosan bánnak a munkahelyeken.

Teljes mértékben egyetértek. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Egyáltalán nem értek egyet.

Arra kérem Önt, hogy ezeknek az állításoknak a segítségével jellemezze, hogy Ön szerint milyen egy férfi. A döntés meghozatalához hasznos lehet, ha elképzei, hogy először találkozik egy személlyel, akiről csak annyi információja van, hogy férfi. Kérem, ítéljen meg minden állítást az alapján, hogy mennyire tartja jellemzőnek egy férfira vonatkozóan.

Kíváncsi	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Következetes	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Magas teljesítményszükségletű	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Együttérző	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Aggodalmaskodó	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Kalandvágyó	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Vezetői képességgel rendelkező	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.
Értékeli a kellemes környezetet	Teljes mértékben jellemző egy férfira.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Egyáltalán nem jellemző egy férfira.

SDI items in Hungarian:

- | | | |
|--|--|---|
| 1. Kíváncsi | 32. Döntéseiben hullámmzó (bizonytalan) | 61. Ambiciózus, törekvő |
| 2. Következetes | 33. Vidám | 62. Nem beképzelt a külső megjelenésére vonatkozóan |
| 3. Magas teljesítményszükséglet | 34. Magas autonómiaszükségletű (önállóság) | 63. Fontos számára a társas elfogadottság |
| 4. Együttérző | 35. Képes arra, hogy elkülönítse az érzéseit az ötletektől | 64. Elhamarkodott, meggondolatlan |
| 5. Félelmetes | 36. Kompetens – hozzáértő | 65. Kötelességtudó |
| 6. Kalandvágyó | 37. Megértő | 66. Igényli a felelősséget |
| 7. Vezetői képességgel rendelkező | 38. Közönséges | 67. Önfegyelmel rendelkezik |
| 8. Értékeli a kellemes környezetet | 39. Társaságkedvelő | 68. Szerény |
| 9. Rendes | 40. Agresszív | 69. Meghatározó |
| 10. Bizonytalan | 41. Magas önbecsülésű | 70. Ingerlékeny |
| 11. Kreatív | 42. Hálás | 71. Közvetlen |
| 12. Viták és ellentmondások kerülése | 43. Könnyen befolyásolható | 72. Elrejtí az érzelmeit |
| 13. Alázatos | 44. Magamutogató | 73. Parancsoló, ellentmondást nem tűrő |
| 14. Őszinte | 45. Tudatában van mások érzéseinek | 74. Magabiztos |
| 15. Udvarias | 46. Passzív | 75. Érzelgős |
| 16. Érzelmileg stabil | 47. Objektív, semleges | 76. Rendületlen |
| 17. Ravasz | 48. Érzelmi traumából/megrázkódtatásból gyorsan épül fel | 77. Önérvényesítő |
| 18. Fontos számára a külső megjelenése | 49. Félnék | 78. Érzéseit nem könnyű megsérteni |
| 19. Független | 50. Határozott | 79. Uralkodó |
| 20. Fontos számára a barátság | 51. Szorgalmas | 80. Tapintatos, kíméletes |
| 21. Könnyelmű | 52. Ösztönös | 81. Segítőkéssz |
| 22. Intelligens | 53. Emberbaráti értékeket vall | 82. Igényli az elismerést |
| 23. Kitaró | 54. Tisztában van a világ dolgaival | 83. Megtévesztő |
| 24. Élénk | 55. Piszmogó és halogató | 84. Nagylelkű |
| 25. Bátortalan | 56. Házsártos | 85. Elkeseredett |
| 26. Kifinomult | 57. Buzgó | 86. Logikus, ésszerű |
| 27. Beszédes – bőbeszédű | 58. Jól informált | 87. Üzleti ügyekben hozzáértő |
| 28. Fontos számára a biztonság | 59. Nem kényelmetlen számára az agresszív viselkedés | 88. Önző |
| 29. Erélyes | 60. Óvatos, tartózkodó | 89. Kiegyensúlyozott |
| 30. Elemzési képességgel rendelkezik | | 90. Kedves |
| 31. Versengő | | 91. Igényli az anyagi jutalmazást |
| | | 92. Öntudatos |

Acknowledgements

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Education	2010-2013	Universität Wien (Vienna) Psychology MA Specialization: Work and Organizational Psychology Master's thesis: Gender Stereotypes against Workers in Leadership Positions. A comparative research between Austria and Hungary
	2015 Summer semester	Charles University (Prague) Erasmus Semester
	2010-2013	Eötvös Lóránd Universität (Budapest) Psychology BA Bachelor's thesis: researches about the psychology of advertising
	2005-2007, 2008-2010	Kazinczy Ferenc High School (Győr) excellent high school graduation
	2007-2008	Huntington North High School (USA, Indiana) Exchange student
Work experience	10.2014-11.2014	Inter-personnel Kft. (Győr) HR consultant recruiting for engineer and technician positions, interviewing, administration
	05.2014-07.2014	Interface Consult GmbH. (Wien) Trainee assisting usability tests, eye-tracking, graphical corrections, managing database
	08.2013-09.2013	Workforce Kft. (Budapest) Trainee assisting recruiting projects (Coca-Cola, Swarovski), executive search, checking language skills of candidates
	07.2012-05.2013	Euwork Employment Agency (Budapest) Trainee, then HR-assistent interviewing, recruiting, administration, contacting foreign partners, translating, informing customers
Voluntary work	2012.10-2013.04	XVII. Budapest Psychology Days (Pszinapszis) PR Stuff contacting sponsors, managing offers, contacting foreign guests
	2011, 2012	18th and 19th Conference of Hungarian Psychoanalytic Association greeting guests, registration, technical assistance
Language skills		English – Advanced German – Advanced Hungarian – Native Czech – Beginner

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	05.2014-07.2014	Interface Consult GmbH. (Wien) Praktikantin assistieren Usability Tests, Eye-Tracking, graphische Korrektur, verwalten Datenbanken
	08.2013-09.2013	Workforce Kft. (Budapest) Praktikantin assistieren Recruiting Projects (Coca-Cola, Swarovski), Executive Search, prüfen Sprachkenntnis der BewerberInnen
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Freiwilligenarbeit	2012.10-2013.04	XVII. Budapester Psychologie Tagen (Pszinapszis) PR Arbeitsstab Sponsoren besuchen, Angebotsschreiben, Kontaktpflege zu den internationalen Teilnehmern
	2011, 2012	18. und 19. Konferenz der Ungarischen Psychoanalytischen Vereinigung Empfang von Besuchern, Registrierung, technische Hilfe
Sprachkenntnisse		Englisch – Oberstufe Deutsch – Oberstufe Ungarisch – Muttersprache Tschechisch – Grundstufe