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SEX, ETHNICITY, AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AS MANAGERS AND PERCEIVED CAREER IMPEDIMENT: A STUDY OF YOUNG ADULTS IN MALAYSIA

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements of the degree

MASTER OF ARTS IN PSYCHOLOGY

At the

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May 2018

We hereby approve this thesis

For

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for the Department of Psychology

and

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Date

May 18, 2018

_____

Student's Date of Defense

DEDICATION

This master's thesis is dedicated to my parents, Albert and Diana, for supporting me financially and emotionally, and for always believing in my dreams.

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I would first like to thank my thesis advisor, Dr. Chieh-Chen Bowen at Cleveland State University, for her unwavering support and guidance. I would also like to acknowledge and thank my thesis committee members, Dr. Kenneth Vail and Dr. Michael Horvath for their expertise, and for guiding me in the right direction. Without their participation, effort, flexibility, and input, this thesis could not have come to fruition.

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SEX, ETHNICITY, AND SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AS MANAGERS AND PERCEIVED CAREER IMPEDIMENT: A STUDY OF YOUNG ADULTS IN MALAYSIA

LI TENG VOON

ABSTRACT

The current study aims at examining the effects of sex, race, and socioeconomic status on young Malaysians' attitudes toward women as managers and the perceived barriers to their own careers. This paper also examined a moderated mediation, with the moderator being the working status of an individual's mother and the mediator being gender role attitudes. A great wealth of research in this area has been conducted in the Western culture, but much less is known about Malaysia and its young adults. This study provides a historical and sociocultural overview of Malaysia, and how its unique sociopolitical and societal structure impacts the relationships among the variables. Results indicated that women have more favorable and positive attitudes toward women as managers than their male counterparts; individuals who have higher socioeconomic status have more favorable and positive attitudes toward women as managers, and individuals with higher socioeconomic status also seem to perceive fewer barriers to employment than those with lower socioeconomic status. Results also indicated that contrary to what previous literature have demonstrated, the working status of an individual's mother did not play a significant role in the relationship of the examined variables. This paper also discusses some practical implications for policy makers and organizations.

Keywords: Attitudes toward women as managers, career-related barriers, gender role attitudes, maternal employment, sex, ethnicity, socioeconomic status

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholars have also frequently argued that traditional beliefs of gender-role attitudes play a role in the inequalities between men and women (Inglehart and Norris, 2003). It is important to understand attitudes toward gender equality and women in the workplace because it can be advantageous to businesses and the wider economy (Sani & Quaranta, 2017). Many studies examining the attitudes toward women in the workplace have been conducted (Davidson & Burke, 2004; Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Gheradi, 1994).

Specifically, these studies were conducted in the context of Western culture, but less is known about the attitudes of young adults toward women in the workplace in Malaysia. It is crucial to understand the attitudes of young adults because it may influence policies that promote gender equality, and the choices they make in the future (Burt & Scott, 2002). Government efforts have been made to increase female participation in the labor force in Malaysia, but growth is still relatively slow. Thus, while more women are participating in higher education, this trend is not reflected in the labor force participation rate for women.

Malaysia's New Economic Policy (NEP) was first introduced in the 1970s, as a result of a riot that occurred in 1969, due to economic disparity between several racial groups present in Malaysia, mainly the Malays and non-Malays. In an attempt to prevent further violence from breaking out, affirmative action policies aimed at eradicating poverty and achieving socio-economic goals to aid the Malays were created (Jomo, 2004). These ethnic-based affirmative action policies have led to educational and economic reform, giving preference to the Malay majority. These policies have granted Malays more access to opportunities in the labor market and tertiary education, than the non-Malays, but surprisingly this seemed to bring about negative socio-economic consequences for Malays (Lee & Khalid, 2016). Because of unequal access, certain groups of individuals may perceive there to be more barriers to employment than others.

Barriers can create different paths for young adults who are either about to enter their career path or one that's deciding to change their career path (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Sociopolitical, cultural, and other variables such as gender and socioeconomic status can create barriers for individuals, which in turn impacts their career choices, educational and career goal attainment, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations (Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001). It is also important to understand how the perception of career barriers differ when evaluating sex and ethnic differences and the factors that impact the career development of women and ethnic minorities. For example, do non-Malays perceive there to be more barriers than Malays because of the affirmative action policies? While studies have been conducted to examine how barriers shape career decisions, less is known about the impact of social, cultural and political contexts that controls access to work, especially in the context of Malaysia.

This study (1) seeks to understand potential barriers that are impeding women from advancing in their careers and the barriers they face entering the industry, (2) shed light on the perceptions of young adults on women in the workplace, specifically looking at leadership qualities and what their perceptions of women as authoritative figures are, and (3) to examine the effects of Malaysia's ethnicity-based affirmative actions on young Malaysians' perception of barriers to their careers, and if they differ across ethnic groups.

Specifically, I wish to examine the possibility of perceived ethnic discrimination in employment due to the implementation of these affirmative actions. I will also be examining how gender role attitudes mediate this relationship, and how the working status of the individual's mother moderate this mediating relationship.

Historical and Political Context of Malaysia

Located in Southeast Asia, Malaysia is a multi-ethnic, multi-religious society with a population estimated at 31.7 million (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2016). The population is made up of 68.6 percent Malays and indigenous groups (also known as Bumiputeras), 23.4 percent Chinese, 7 percent Indians, and 1 percent other races/ethnicities. Prior to the country's independence in 1957, Malaysia was colonized by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, followed by the Dutch in the eighteenth century, then the British in the nineteenth century. During this period, Christianity and the economic and political system of the West were introduced, and new institutions were formed (Selvarajah & Meyer, 2008). Due to a high demand for labor during the colonial period, a massive wave of immigration of Chinese and Indians flooded the country (Taman, 2009), resulting in a religious and cultural exchange.

The British's "divide-and-rule" policy resulted in segregation among the ethnic groups that would later cause conflict. Specifically, four separate education systems were established: Malay, Chinese, Tamil, and English. The separate education systems functioned as a way to provide each ethnic group with their own curriculum and instruction, as well as their language of choice to teach. The Malays would use the language of Malay (Bahasa Melayu), the Chinese with the language of Mandarin, and the Indians with the language of Tamil. There are four main political parties in Malaysia. They are the United Malays National Organization (UMNO), Malaysian Chinese Association (MCA), Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC), Democratic Action Party (DAP), and Gerakan Party. In 1957, an agreement was made to release Malaysia from the colonization of the British: Immigrants from China and India would be granted citizenship in exchange for granting political control to Malays who controlled UMNO.

Under this agreement, UMNO, MCA, and MIC formed the Alliance coalition in which UMNO became the dominant party. The Malays thus engaged in political control and agriculture, while the Chinese focused on economic advancement, controlling a sizable portion of Malaysia's economy (Phang, 2000). Research that examined majority-minority relations have most commonly been conducted in the Western world and the dominant group is often categorized as the majority (Taman, 2009). This study, however, will focus on the Malays. They are the majority, but they are not the dominant group economically. The Chinese on the other hand, although are considered the minority, have been more dominant economically.

By the 1970s, an overwhelming majority of Malays lived in rural areas, where they engaged in traditional methods of agriculture and fishing. The immigrant population

of Chinese and Indians, on the other hand, were involved in commercial production in mostly urban areas. The Malays made up 72 percent of the labor force in agriculture, the Chinese made up roughly 17 percent, and the Indians made up roughly 10 percent. In terms of administrative and managerial occupations as well as clerical and sales related occupations, the Malays made up only 24.1 percent and 26.7 percent, while the Chinese made up 62.9 percent and 61.7 percent. This led to the economic disparity between the ethnic groups, and the Malays and Indians were poverty stricken.

New Economic Policy. In an election in 1969, the majority of the Chinese voted for other opposition parties, such as DAP, rather than the Alliance coalition. This caused a stir in the Malay community, as they perceived the loss of seats as a threat to their political dominance. In the wake of their loss and the economic disparity, ethnic tension grew, and violence between the Malays and Chinese broke out in various parts of the country (Christie & Noor, 2016). To prevent further violent outbreaks, the government decided to take matters into its hand by implementing a new policy, the New Economic Policy (NEP) to address the economic disparity between the Malays and Chinese. The NEP served to obtain two goals: (1) to reduce and eradicate poverty regardless of ethnicity, and (2) to restructure society to eliminate the identification of race with economic function (Shamsuddin, Liaw, & Ridzuan, 2015). This led to the Malays dominating the political system, including the police force, the army, and the civil service (Ng et al., 2003); trade and business, education and language, and culture (Haque, 2003).

To narrow the economic disparities between the ethnicities, the NEP aimed at accelerating the process of restructuring Malaysian society to correct the economic disparity and imbalance (Economic Planning Unit, 2017). This process involves the

modernization of rural lives, a rapid and balanced growth of urban activities and the creation of a Malay commercial and industrial community in all categories and at all levels of operation, so that Malays and other indigenous people will become full partners in all aspects of the economic life of the nation (Bowie, 1991). With the new policies implemented, it also gave rise to huge changes in public education. The tension between the ethnic groups grew when different groups debated over what the primary language in schools should be (Christie & Noor, 2016). The Malay language became the primary and official language, and English was gradually phased out of public schools. Chinese and English private schools were the exceptions and were allowed to teach courses in English or Chinese.

Malay schools were given priority for funding (Koon, 1997) and scholarships. Quotas were also put in place, providing an advantage to the Malays. The NEP was later reviewed and reformed in 1990. The establishment of the NEP was successful in that Malay ownership in corporate stock rose from 1.5 percent to 18 percent (Jomo, 2004). The NEP has since been revised and replaced by the National Development Policy. However, the Malays still lag behind in the economic sphere compared to their Chinese counterparts (Taman, 2009).

The employment restructuring affected access to business opportunities, employment opportunities, and tertiary education for different ethnicities. The Malays perceiving the policies as a way to right past discrimination, and that was seen as "positive discrimination", while the Chinese and Indians viewed the policies as pro-Malay and ethnic discrimination. The economic disparity did decrease because of the implementation of affirmative action policies, but the interethnic tension did not reduce.

Malaysian Culture

There are three main ethnic groups in Malaysia: Malays, Chinese, and Indians. To understand Malaysian culture, we must first understand that individuals from a multicultural society exist within many cultural contexts simultaneously, each context influencing these individuals to some degree (Bonn & Tam, 2016). Although most of the Chinese or Indian Malaysians are multiple generations away from their Chinese or Indian ancestors, the traditions, cultural norms, religious beliefs and linguistic identification of their heritage are maintained. While the majority of individuals from their respective ethnic group speak their mother tongue, they are able to speak Malay as a second language. The constitution states that a Malay is someone who practices Malay customs, speaks the language of Malay, and practices the religion of Islam (Bonn & Tam; Nirenbger, 1997). The Malay social code discourages communication that is too direct or forthcoming, especially when providing criticism or negative feedback, as this may come across as rude (Nirenberg, 1997). This can be said the same for Chinese Malaysias, as it is important to preserve "face" (jaga maruah in Malay, mian zi in Mandarin).

Chinese Malaysians primarily practice Buddhism, Taoism, or Christianity, and speak different dialects of Mandarin. Their heritage can be traced back to the regions of Guangdong and Fujian in China (Gabriel, 2014). The Malaysian Indians primarily practice Hinduism or Christianity and speak Tamil. Their heritage can be traced back to Gujurat and Sind in North India, and from Chettinad in South India (Selvarajah & Meyer, 2008).

Although the Chinese and Indian Malaysians share some religious, cultural, and linguistic tradition with Mainland China and Indian, they are inherently different as they

have not been subjected to the political and historical events of the Motherland (Bonn & Tam, 2016). Malaysia is a collectivistic culture, with a heavy emphasis on in-group cohesiveness, collective distribution of resources and collective action (Hofstede, 1980). While all communities are free to practice their own religious beliefs and customs, Islam is the official religion of the federation (Taman, 2009).

Attitudes toward Women's roles and Work

Gender roles. Gender roles are behaviors and expectation of behaviors associated with one's gender. They reflect the societal and cultural differences between what behaviors we expect to see from men and from women (Eagly, 1987). Gender roles describe how household labor is being divided, segregation of jobs, and differences in status and authority between genders. Most researchers classify sex-role ideologies along a continuum ranging from traditional to modern. Traditional ideologies grant men with higher social status and greater power than women, also linking women to roles that involve caretaking while men are linked to the role of being the breadwinner. They also legitimize male domination and control over women in terms of economic and political resources. In contrast, modern ideologies allow a more egalitarian distribution of social status and power (Best and Williams, 1997).

Regardless of ethnic group, men and women in Malaysia are raised with strict and traditional cultural values. Men are expected to be independent and assertive, while women are expected to be feminine and polite. Gender roles are also more prominent and less flexible in Malaysia than the United States. In various Asian countries, women are expected to follow their prescribed gender roles, such that they are to be committed to family responsibilities, while men are solely responsible for the finances. Women are

responsible for homemaking and for caring for their children, while men are the bread-winners (Abdullah, Noor, & Wok, 2008). The Malays have their own customary laws (Adat), that governs social etiquette, ceremonies, and marriage, among many other things (Noor & Mahudin, 2016).

According to the Malay customary law (Adat Perpatih), Malay women from two of the states in Malaysia, mainly Negeri Sembilan and Malacca, are allowed to own land, inherit assets, and hold positions of power. The very core of these customs is matriarchal. The remaining 11 states, however, obey a different customary law (Adat Temenggung), which is patriarchal in nature (Noor & Mahudin, 2016). Traditional values and gender roles are practiced more often in rural areas than in urban areas. Research has shown that gender and age can be predictors of gender-role attitudes. Indeed, studies have reported that women tend to hold more egalitarian beliefs toward gender roles than men (Crompton, Brockmann, & Lyonette, 2005; Sani & Quaranta, 2017; Treas & Widmer, 2000; Valentova, 2013). One possible explanation as to why men are lagging on changes related to gender-role attitudes is that in order to maintain a masculine identity, men will support the stereotypical model of bread-winner. Paid employment is seen as one of the main sources of their masculine identity (Riley, 2003).

Older women have been found to hold more traditional views on gender-roles than younger women. In a study by Abdullah et al. (2008), older women (31 years and above) were found to more likely agree with the statement that "a woman's place is in the kitchen," than younger participants, regardless of their education level. They also perceived that women have to make sacrifices, and exhibit more feminine (such as being

shy and gentle) behaviors than younger participants. Malaysian women between the ages of 20 and 30 seemed to endorse more egalitarian values and liberal views on gender roles.

Women as Managers. Despite an increase in women's participation in the workforce over the years, gender inequality still exists in the domain of employment (Bettio, Plantenga, & Smith, 2013), the division of household labor, and representation (Krook, 2010). Scholars have also argued that traditional attitudes toward gender-roles have allowed gender inequality between gender, keeping women from obtaining primary roles in the domains with decision-making power (Farre & Vella, 2013; Inglehart & Norris, 2003).

In the context of women and work, research has also demonstrated that women tend to hold more egalitarian and liberal beliefs than their male counterparts when it comes to gender equality at the workplace. Several studies looking at individuals' perceptions of women have been conducted in Hong Kong and China, and results demonstrate that women do indeed express less traditional beliefs toward women in the workplace (Leung & Ng, 1999) and have more favorable and positive attitudes toward women as managers than their male counterparts (Bowen, Wu, Hwang, & Scherer, 2007). If women were not accepted as managers, it was unlikely that women were treated as equal in the workplace.

In another study examining University students' attitudes towards gender roles and gender quality in Malaysia, the majority of female participants reported positive attitudes towards gender equality and held more egalitarian values toward gender roles (Sultana et al., 2015). Studies conducted in the United States have also yielded similar

results (Cotter, Hermsen, Vanneman, 2011; Donnelly et al., 2015; Spence & Hahn, 1997).

While Malaysian women have made slow, but noteworthy progress in areas of education and employment, the gender division remains stubbornly rooted. The traditional values are further reinforced with a report on gender equality. Article 8 (2) of the Federal Constitution of Malaysia, states:

Except as expressly authorized by this Constitution, there shall be no discrimination against citizens on the ground only of religion, race, descent, place of birth or gender in any law or in the appointment to any office or employment under a public authority or in the administration of any law relating to the acquisition, holding or disposition of property or the establishing or carrying on of any trade, business, profession, vocation or employment.

The constitution guarantees gender equality particularly from the perspective of employment in the private sector; special attention is given to issues concerning pregnancy and gender discrimination. The first attempt made by the Malaysian government to aid women in advancement was highlighted in the Sixth Malaysian Plan of the NEP, between the years or 1991 and 1995. In the Sixth Malaysian Plan, an emphasis was placed on strategies and projects for women's development and identifying barriers that were inhibiting women from fully involving themselves in the workforce. The following plans (Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, and Tenth) placed emphasis on enhancing the roles and status of women, particularly by providing more educational and training opportunities to improve their upward mobility in the market (Abdullah et al., 2008); providing tax incentives to encourage organizations to train female employees; grants for

renovation and creation of childcare facilities within government offices (Tenth Malaysia plan, 2010).

However, while more women than men are enrolled in secondary (72.3 percent for women, and 65 percent for men) and tertiary education (31.8 percent for women, and 20.8 percent for women), there is still a lack of representation of women at high-level positions. According to statistics from the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2016), the female labor force participation rate in Malaysia was 53.7 percent in 2014, 54.1 percent in 2015, and 54.3 percent in 2016. The male labor force participation rate, however, was 80.6 percent for both 2014 and 2015, and 80.2 percent in 2016. The female labor force participation rate is still lagging far behind the male's labor force participation rate.

According to a study conducted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Project (2014), statistics in 2011 demonstrated that the labor force participation rate for Malay men was at 81.1 percent, followed by Chinese men at 78.5 percent, and Indian men at 77.6 percent. In terms of the women, Malay women were at 43.7 percent, followed by Chinese women at 49.9 percent, and Indian women at 43.4 percent. According to the Global Gender Gap Index in 2017 (World Economic Forum, 2017), Malaysia ranked 104 out of 144 countries. Similar rankings of other countries include Brunei, Hungary, and China. As of 2017, the percentage of Malaysian women in positions of legislators, senior officials, and managers is 20.6 percent, while the percentage of Malaysian men in similar positions is 79.6 percent. In terms of women in political positions, only 10.4 percent of women are members of the parliament, while only 8.3 percent of women hold ministerial positions. According to the Eleventh

Malaysia Plan (2015), women only accounted for 10.2 percent of directors on the boards of publicly listed companies in 2014.

While policies and the constitution have been geared toward gender equality in the workforce, equal opportunity and rights given to women in the workplace are still lacking and are often unenforced. Compared to the U.S. and Europe, the percentage of women holding managerial and executive positions in Asia is even lower. On average, only 6 percent of seats on corporate boards, and 8 percent of seats on executive committees are held by women in the ten largest economies in Asia. This statistic is much higher for the U.S., with 15 percent and 14 percent of seats being accounted for by women (McKinsey & Company, 2012).

Research has demonstrated that women managers face significantly greater challenges in their middle-management careers that hindered their progress into more senior roles (Davidson & Burke, 2004; Eagly, 2007). Through gender-prescribed roles and divisions of labor in families where women are expected to be homemakers, men are expected to focus on developing skills that would allow them to be successful in the workforce (Fagenson, 1990). In addition, men are often viewed as appropriate candidates for managerial positions as they are attributed to having qualities that are often masculine and needed in managerial positions, while women are perceived as possessing more feminine attributes involving a supportive and nurturing role, rather than the decision-making role of management, making them seemly unfit for managerial positions (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Gheradi, 1994). Schein's (1975) research demonstrated that the position of a manager is often perceived as a male occupation and qualities such as competitiveness,

leadership, objectivity, ambition, and aggression are often assumed to be characteristics of men but not women.

Women have also been found to be subjected to harsher and biased evaluations than their male counterparts (Eagly, 1992; Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Lyness & Heilman, 2006). A meta-analysis by Eagly (1992) demonstrated women leaders were evaluated much less favorably than men, even when both genders exhibited similar leadership qualities, suggesting that different judgments were made for both men and women, even though leadership qualities were similar. Another study by Heilman et al. (2004) found that women who excelled in leadership and hence were perceived to have violated their prescribed feminine gender stereotypes were given harsher penalties for their success than their male counterparts. In their study, women who exhibited high levels of competence in a stereotypically male-dominant role (such as Vice President) was considered more hostile by participants of the study than their male counterparts. Participants were also more likely to provide a recommendation for compensation to male leaders than their female counterparts.

Due to prescriptive gender-roles, women in leadership positions face a double bind: In order to be regarded as a competent leader, women have to exhibit behaviors such as aggressiveness and objectivity; however, to prevent violating the prescribed gender-roles, women have to also be seen as warm and nurturing (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, & Reichard, 2008). Because of these prescribed expectations, women often struggle with dual responsibilities of family and work. The low workforce participation rate of women in Asia could be due to the fear that their work responsibilities (long hours, travelling, etc.) would prevent them from carrying out their family responsibilities

(Yukongdi & Benson, 2005). In another study by Ng and Chakrabarty (2005) demonstrated that women managers in Hong Kong were more likely to be single than their male counterparts. In a study by Noor (1999), it was found that when women were given a choice between work and family, 89.9% of the women chose family. With the rise of dual-earner families, women have to cope with the heavy demands of family and work responsibilities.

Maternal Employment

A positive association between parents' and children's egalitarian gender role attitudes has been regularly observed by researchers, and such transmission has been due in part to the structure of children's home environments (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Children with mothers who are employed are often found to have less traditional beliefs on work and family related issues (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). However, there have been concerns about the potential negative effects of maternal employment on children's social and academic well-being, despite research evidence that says otherwise (Goldberg, Prause, Lucas-Thompson, & Himsel, 2008). Husbands who have employed wives were also found to have more egalitarian attitudes and are more likely to reject more traditional roles (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004). These egalitarian beliefs are often reflected in their family dynamic, specifically, the division of household labor. When a child grows up in a home environment with parents who share these beliefs, they are more likely to also adopt those beliefs.

Despite an increase in women's participation in the labor force over the last few decades, gender inequality is still prevalent in various domains such as employment, pay, and political participation. Striving toward gender equality is essential for a number of

reasons. For example, gender equality in the workplace and in the domain of employment is advantageous to organizations and for the wider economy (Sani & Quaranta, 2017). Due to cultural and religious expectations, many women in Malaysia leave the workforce in their late 20s to early 30s, to care for their families and parents. Statistics have also shown that while 70% of Malaysia's university graduates are women, they make up only 53.6% of the workforce and that 41.6% of Malaysians who are unemployed claim that they are not participating in the workforce due to housework/family responsibilities (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2014).

Overall, studies have suggested that younger individuals, women, and more educated people hold more positive attitudes about maternal employment. Older individuals, men, and those with religious affiliations are less supportive and hold less positive attitudes about maternal employment. While previous research on gender-role attitudes among adults have been conducted (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Fortin, 2005; Zuo & Tang, 2000), not much is known about attitudes towards gender roles among younger adults in Asia, especially when considering the role culture and religion plays in the development of young adults' gender role attitudes. How the younger population perceives women and men's place in society is crucial as their attitudes may be linked to the choices they make in the future (Burt & Scott, 2002).

Since maternal employment have been demonstrated to play a role in the development of an individual's gender-role attitudes, I hypothesize that the presence of a working mother while growing up will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the dependent variables, as well as moderate the direct effects of the predictors on the dependent variables.

H1a: Men will have more negative attitudes toward women as managers than women.

H1b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between sex and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the sex-attitudes toward women as managers relationship as well as the direct effect of sex on attitudes toward women as managers.

Race/Ethnicity. By examining the impact between race and gender in the United States, studies have demonstrated that African American women tend to hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes than African American men, White women, and White men (Kane, 2000; Kane & Kyyro, 2001). These differences between races may be due to the differences in their experiences. African American women are more likely to be the head of the household and to hold full-time positions than White women (Farley, 2005). Kane (1992) also argues that as African American women continue to participate in the workforc and hold foundational roles at home, they foster more egalitarian gender role attitudes than White women.

A study by Herring and Wilson-Sadberry (1993) suggested that African American women and girls are more likely to view paid employment as a form of maternal responsibility, while White women and girls were less likely to share the same perception. Research conducted on the differences between African American males and White males have been more difficult to determine. Specifically, a study by Cazenave (1983) demonstrated that African American men held more egalitarian gender role attitudes than White males, but other studies have suggested otherwise, demonstrating

that African American men actually hold more traditional attitudes on issues such as women's role at home and women in politics (Kiecolt & Acock, 1988; Wilson, Tolson, Hinton, & Kiernan, 1990).

Another study by Blee and Tickamyer (1995) demonstrated that African American men tend to hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes toward women working than Whites. The authors also suggest that since the African American men in their sample had mothers who were employed, they were more likely to hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes and were more accepting toward women working, as they recognize it as an economic necessity. Studies conducted in this area suggests that there are important cultural and structural racial differences for individuals in different racial/ethnic groups. For the purpose of this study, I will be examining the different ethnic groups present in Malaysia (Malay, Chinese, Indian, Indigenous and Other) and their attitudes toward women as managers.

H2a: Chinese individuals will have more positive attitudes toward women as managers.

H2b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between ethnicity and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the ethnicity-attitudes toward women as managers relationship, as well as the direct effect of ethnicity on attitudes toward women as managers.

Family Influence on Gender Role Attitudes

Gender role attitudes have been shown to be affected by a number of socializing agents including, but not limited to, culture, mothers' gender role attitude, and parents' household division of labor (Kroska & Elman, 2009). Additionally, gender role attitudes have become less traditional and rigid over the years. A study conducted in the United States showed that in comparison to participants who were studied in 1975, a younger generation of participants assessed in 2000 demonstrated different attitudes toward work-related issues due to changing educational and workplace environments (NiDitale & Boraas, 2000).

Socioeconomic status. Research has also provided support for factors that may affect gender role attitudes, such as socioeconomic status, higher educational attainment, and income. Individuals who have high socioeconomic status and educational attainment have been found to be more egalitarian. (e.g., Crompton & Lyonette, 2005). Parents who received an education are exposed to egalitarian ideas and both female and male role models. It was also reported that the higher the level of educational attainment of an individual's mother, the more egalitarian beliefs their children have, suggesting that they may have been exposed to less traditional gender-role attitudes (Sani & Quaranta, 2017). In addition, higher education levels provide both genders with training and credentials for higher paying jobs, thus allowing them to contribute to the family economy (Crompton & Lyonette, 2005). Studies have shown that wives tend to hold more egalitarian beliefs when they contribute to the family income (Zuo & Tang, 2000), which in turn affects the way children are raised in the household.

Some researchers have found that parents in traditional families had significantly lower income than those in egalitarian families and that there is a positive relationship between gender role attitudes and income, while some researchers have found family income to be insignificant in predicting gender role attitudes (Blee & Tickamyer, 1995; Kucinskas, 2010). Social learning proposes that children develop their gender identity and gender role beliefs from their environment; therefore, children from more economically advantaged family backgrounds also have more egalitarian attitudes (Antill, Cunningham, & Cotton, 2003).

A study of selected successful career women in Malaysia, for example, revealed that women with parents and husbands that have a positive attitude towards women working were related to higher educational attainment of women, which in turn could influence women's participation in the labor force (Bakar & Abdullah, 2007). Thus, young women and individuals from a higher socioeconomic status background should hold more egalitarian and liberal beliefs toward gender roles and will have more positive attitudes toward women as managers.

H3a: Individuals with higher SES will have more positive attitudes toward women as managers than those with lower SES.

H3b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between SES and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the SES-attitudes toward women as managers relationship, as well as the direct effect of SES on attitudes toward women as managers.

Perceived Barriers to Employment

Perceived barriers to employment can be defined as the degree to which an individual perceives hindrances to achieving their career goals (Mejia-Smith & Gushue, 2017). A framework that have often been used to explain how the process of socialization forms career interests and paths is the social cognitive career theory (SCCT), and empirical studies have suggested that SCCT is useful for examining the career paths of minorities (Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Gushue, 2006; Gushue & Whitson, 2006; Navarro, Flores, & Worthington, 2007). SCCT focuses on how cognitive variables play a role in the interaction between those variables and the individual's environment, which shapes the interest and path of careers of these individuals (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Specifically, Lent et al. (1994) suggests that there are two levels of theoretical analysis.

The first level comprises of cognitive-person variables, and the second level comprises of other variables (e.g. gender, race, socioeconomic status) and the environment. Together, these variables influence an individual's self-efficacy (defined as a person's belief in their ability to carry out a task) (Bandura, 1986) and their expectations of a certain outcome, which in turn shapes an individual's career choices. Variables such as financial constraints related to socioeconomic status, racial, ethnic, as well as gender discrimination are common barriers. These conceptualized variables can shape the experiences and career interests and choices of individuals. An individual may possess high educational attainment, career self-efficacy, and interests, but may still decide on a different career path or to avoid a particular career if they perceive there to be barriers to career attainment (Lent et al., 1994).

Socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status can shape the important aspects of an individual's life, such as educational attainment, income, occupation, and access to certain things such as quality health care (Fouad & Brown, 2000; Turner & Lapan, 2003). Having limited access to these and other areas can often limit an individual's options and influence how they set career and educational goals. While research on SES has been conducted in the career development literature, it is rather limited. Research on Socioeconomic status and occupational expectations have consistently demonstrated that SES is positively associated with occupational expectations (Mello, 2009), such that SES influences the perception of opportunities and access an individual has to educational and occupational resources.

According to SCCT, an individual from a lower SES background will more likely have lower quality education, have less exposure to career role models, and receive less financial support for educational and career options than those from a higher SES background. This results in low self-efficacy beliefs and influence their outcome expectations for certain types of occupations, and in turn influence the way individuals set goals and expectations during the career development process (D'Andrea, 1995).

Researchers have suggested that the variations in expectations stem from the individual's awareness and understanding of perceived barriers to future employment opportunities, and that those who anticipate, or experience barriers may reduce their expectations (Mello, 2009). A study by Mello (2009) demonstrated that individuals higher in SES were much more likely to expect a professional occupation in adulthood, while those lower in SES were much less likely to share the same expectation. Another study by Blustein et al. (2002) demonstrated that higher SES participants perceived

themselves to have more access to resources, better self-concepts and that they had more flexibility in their choice of careers. These studies have suggested that individuals from different SES backgrounds experience career development differently.

H4a: Individuals with higher SES will perceive fewer barriers than those with lower SES.

H4b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between SES and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the SES-perceived barriers to employment relationship, as well as the direct effect of SES on perceived barriers to employment.

Sex. It is commonly believed that an individual's attitudes toward occupations are formed by socialization, and when one gender dominates a given occupation or field of work, the profession becomes sex-typed (Parsons & Bales, 1995). Despite having high educational attainment, women might still perceive more barriers than their male counterparts. Specifically, research has shown that ethnic minorities and women tend to perceive more barriers to employment that are directly related to their ethnicity (Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001) and sex, (Cardoso & Marques, 2008; Rivera, Chen, Flores, Blumberg, & Ponterotto, 2007) than the majority group. Research conducted over the years have suggested that some of the perceived barriers women have related to child rearing, family issues, and limited education/no experience, and these barriers are often perceived more greatly than their male counterparts (Russell & Rush, 1987; Swanson & Tokar, 1991).

To examine Malays women's perceptions of their roles and how they affect their progress, Abdullah et al., (2008) surveyed over a thousand Malay women in their early 30s. Results demonstrated that the participants perceived women's primary roles to be of the homemaker and to be willing to make sacrifices when necessary. In terms of employment opportunities and progress, employed women reported that husbands and in-laws hinder their progress. Those that were unemployed reported that money, lack of opportunities to improve, and education were their main obstacles. Women who were between the ages of 15 and 30 reported their parents' financial ability and general knowledge as their main obstacles.

In order to increase female participation in the labor force, we must first understand the barriers that may be preventing women from entering the workforce or from progressing in their career, since perceived barriers may play a role in an individual's career decision-making process. This can be addressed by evaluating the gender differences in the perception of career-related barriers.

H5a: Women will perceive more barriers to employment than men.

H5b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between sex and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the sex-perceived barriers to employment relationship, as well as the direct effect of sex on perceived barriers to employment.

Ethnicity. It is suggested that minorities are more likely to encounter racial and ethnic discrimination during the employment selection process due to stereotypes and

biases. When a certain occupation is highly dominated by a specific race, those who are not under the dominant race will more likely assume that they cannot succeed in that occupation, or successfully gain employment in that field. Thus, their self-efficacy is also affected.

Affirmative action policies are established to attempt to decrease discrimination of certain protected groups and to mitigate the effects of past discrimination (Kravitz & Platania, 1993). In the United States, these policies usually apply to ethnic minorities and women, as both groups have suffered economic and social discrimination over the years. However, these policies have been stigmatized over the years and have often been criticized for causing reverse discrimination, deeming them to be unfair and exclusionary, and in part responsible for the organizations that hire under-qualified applicants who are in protected groups as a way of mitigating discrimination (Kuklinski et al., 1997). In Malaysia, however, the affirmative action policies (NEP) were established to aid the majority, Malays, not the minority, since they have been economically disadvantaged since the 1970s.

The steps taken to reduce the economic disparities between the ethnicities in Malaysia was to be achieved primarily through affirmative action and policies including, but not limited to, quotas for school admissions and employment opportunities, which caused several problems. Some of the methods employed by the government to redistribute wealth are to buy corporate shares and hold them until the general Malay public can afford to buy the shares themselves (Koon, 1997). While the economic disparity between the majority and the minority have decreased since the pre-NEP days, racial tension is still evident.

The NEP policies can be perceived as pro-Malay, and efforts to eradicate poverty seems to have been focused on rural areas with Malays being the majority. Ethnic discrimination is also most acute amongst the business community and the middle class. While there is little doubt that the policies aided in reducing economic disparity over the years, it is unclear whether such achievement led to an improvement in relationships among the ethnicities. Due to the access and opportunities Malays have when it comes to business and employment, it is not difficult to imagine that the Chinese and Indians, who are deprived of those opportunities, would hold resentment and suspicion against the majority.

Due to the nature of the policies and the group it applies to, this presents an interesting case for discrimination, bias, and perceived barriers in the Malaysian workplace. One would assume that Malays would generally feel more secure when it comes to employment and business opportunities, given the access they have to aid them in achieving certain career goals. In that sense, the Malays should perceive fewer barriers to employment. However, Lee and Khalid (2016) state otherwise. They conducted a field experiment and sent out made-up resumes that clearly identifies the "job applicant" as Chinese or Malay, fluent in Chinese or English, high or poor GPA to real job openings at companies in the private sector and examined the rate of callbacks for each resume.

The results showed that fluency in Mandarin Chinese made an applicant more attractive, Chinese and foreign-owned companies are more likely to favor Chinese applicants over Malay applicants, and high academic achieving Malays applicants were less likely to receive a call-back as compared to a below average, poor academic achieving Chinese applicant. More interestingly, the results suggested that not only were

Malay owned companies less inclined to provide a call-back to Malay applicants, they were 1.6 times more likely to call Chinese applicants.

In another study by Faaland, Parkinson and Saniman (2003), the authors found that income for Malays to be significantly lower than their Chinese counterparts, specifically 32 percent lower. Not only do Malays face challenges in entering the workforce, they may continue facing discrimination, mainly in promotion and advancement, in the workplace. The authors stipulate that language and cultural compatibility might be one of the reasons why Chinese applicants are favored over Malay applicants, and another reason stems from the biases employers have against Malay graduates, possibly resulting from the establishment of the NEP. Employers may perceive that quotas and preferential access to education affect academic quality, and they may presume that Malays benefit from systemic grade inflation. With these affirmative action policies changing public education and employment opportunities that resulted in preferential treatment, employers may perceive Malays as less capable and have reduced work ethic.

H6a: Malay individuals will perceive more barriers to employment than Chinese individuals.

H6b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between ethnicity and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the ethnicity-perceived barriers relationship, as well as the direct effect of ethnicity on perceived barriers to employment.

Tying in socioeconomic factors, gender role attitudes, and maternal employment, young adults who were raised without financial constraints are more likely to be able to attain higher education, which could result in those individuals having higher qualifications and better job experiences to explore their career options. They are more likely to perceive fewer barriers to employment. Women who are raised in a less traditional household where their mothers were permitted to work outside the home, are more likely to view working and having children at the same time as a possibility. This may result in fewer perceived barriers to employment as compared to women who grow up with a mother who did not work outside the home. It would also be interesting to examine young Malaysian adults' perception of employment opportunities, and whether there are differences in perception for different ethnicities.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Participants between the ages of 18 and 35 from various backgrounds were recruited from Malaysia. The survey's default language is English, and translations to two different languages (Malay and Mandarin Chinese) were developed to better accommodate participants whose native language is not English to ensure accuracy of responses. The platform I used to run the survey was Survey Hero, since it allowed for multiple translations to be available to the participants. For the purpose of my study, the participants had to be Malaysian citizens. I used TurkPrime to crowd source participants, since Mechanical Turk is limited to certain geographical locations.

After participants completed the survey, they were redirected to TurkPrime where they were compensated with the amount that they have agreed to with the platform they entered the survey with. TurkPrime were screened the participants for specific qualifications to ensure that they are eligible and that they meet the qualifications of the study. Only eligible participants were selected to complete the survey.

After screening the data and excluding participants who failed the attention check questions, the final sample consisted of 302 participants. The final sample varied in ethnicity and age; 57.3% were Malay (N = 173), 32.5% were Chinese (N = 98), 2.9% were Indian (N = 9), 4.9% were Indigenous (N = 15) and 2.3% listed themselves as Other (N = 7). The mean age of participants was 27. The sample included 144 men and 158 women, with 72.8% of the participants reported having no children (N = 220). 59.2% of the participants were employed full-time (N = 179); 17.9% were employed part-time (N = 54); 22.8% had no paid employment (N = 69); 24.5% reported themselves as unemployed (N = 74). Of those who were employed, 42.7% of them held professional jobs (accountant, nurses, teachers, etc.)(N = 100); 22.2% were in Sales (retail, wholesale, etc.) (N = 52), 11.1% were in Information Technology/Computer Science (N = 26), 9.8% were in service positions (restaurant, cleaning, etc.) (N = 23), 9.4% were in technical positions (plumber, cable, etc.) (N = 22), and the remaining were laborers (construction worker, etc.) (N = 11). 33% (N = 101) of participants chose to complete the survey in English, 57.2% (N = 173) participants completed the survey in Malay, and 9.3% (N = 28) participants completed the survey in Mandarin Chinese.

Procedures

Participants who were interested were given a link to my survey to complete scales that assessed the participants' attitudes toward social roles, attitudes toward women as managers, perceived barriers to employment, and lastly, demographic questions such as age, income, ethnicity, etc. Upon completing the survey, participants were redirected to Turk Prime's platform, and compensated the amount to which the participant had agreed upon when they first entered TurkPrime.

Measures

Knowledge Check. A short introduction regarding the policies of the NEP was given to the participants before the demographic survey. Participants were instructed to choose which ethnic group corresponds with the NEP (see Appendix B). The knowledge check questions are based on policies listed on the official website of the Economic Planning Unit of Malaysia.

Demographic Survey. Participants were instructed to self-report their sex, age, ethnicity, religion, marital status, educational attainment, employment status, and questions regarding their employment (see Appendix C).

Social Roles. To measure participants' perceptions toward social roles, the Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) by Barber and Tucker (2006) was used. The scale was revised to assess at least two different ways of thinking about gender and social roles and was developed by the authors as a way to measure more nuanced beliefs about social roles. The scale consists of 13 items. A principal components analysis conducted by the authors indicated that two factors emerged. The first factor assesses how individuals perceive gender in a nondichotomous way, with a Cronbach's alpha of .8. Respondents were required to rate on a 0% to 100% scale. The higher the percentages they rate, the more they agree with each statement. Sample items include "People should be treated the same regardless of their sex." and "Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys." (see Appendix D).

Attitudes toward women as managers. To measure the participants' attitudes toward women as authoritative figures in the workplace, the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) by Terborg, Peters, and Smith (1977) was used. The scale was developed to

measure stereotypes and attitudes of individuals toward women as managers and has a split-half reliability of .91 and a Cronbach's alpha of .77. The scale consists of 21 items and respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 being 'Strongly Disagree' and 7 being 'Strongly Agree'. Sample items include "On the average, women managers are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals than are men." and "It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men." (see Appendix E).

Perception of barriers to employment. To measure the participants' perceived barriers to employment, only five items from the 32-item Perception of Barriers Scale (POBS) by Luzzo and McWhirter (2001) were used. The items were also modified to reduce the priming effect. Items such as "In my future career, I will probably be treated differently because of my sex" was modified to "In my future career, I will probably be treated differently". The remaining items in the survey were items that have been commonly administered in previous studies' surveys (e.g., Hong, Polanin, Key, & Choi, 2014). Respondents were asked to rate on a 7-point Likert scale instead of a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being 'Strongly Disagree' and 7 being 'Strongly Agree', for consistency. A reliability analysis indicated that the scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .8. Sample items include "My employment opportunities are as good as anybody else's." and "My family has negative attitudes about me seeking employment." (see Appendix F).

Attention Check. To ensure that participants were paying full attention while completing the survey, and to avoid receiving poor-quality data, two attention check questions were included. In a study by Hauser and Schwarz (2016), the authors used "Which of these activities do you engage in regularly? (click on all that apply)", along

with sports response options, as their instructional manipulation check. Instead of having participants respond with their options, they instructed them to select “Other”, and type the response “I read the instructions”. Adopting a similar attention check question used in Hauser and Schwarz’s (2016) study, I instructed participants to select a specific option as their response. The attention check questions developed for this study instructed participants to select specific answers. For example, “To show that you are paying attention, select ‘Blue’ for this question.”

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Scale means for Gender Role Attitudes, Attitudes toward Women as Managers and Perceived Barriers to Employment were computed. The variable, socioeconomic status, was measured by four variables: personal income, personal educational level, parents' income and their father and mother's educational level. Since income was measured as thousands of dollars, the responses were transformed to Z scores. The mean score was then calculated for the socioeconomic status variable to create an SES scale. Reliability analysis for all three scales indicated that the alpha level was at a .7 or higher, suggesting that there is good reliability, therefore no items were deleted. Means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas and correlations can be found in Table 2.

Hypothesis tests

H1a: Men will have more negative attitudes toward women as managers than women.

To test for hypothesis 1a, an Independent Samples T - test was conducted to compare attitudes toward women as managers in men and women. Results indicated that there was a significant difference between men (M = 4.7, SD = .85) and women (M= 5.3,

SD = .53), $t(300) = -6.05$, $p < .01$. Specifically, women have more positive attitudes toward women as managers (WAM) than men (see Table 3). Hypothesis 1a is supported.

> **H1b:** Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between sex and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the sex-attitudes toward women as managers relationship as well as the direct effect of sex on attitudes toward women as managers.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if sex and gender role attitudes significantly predicted participants' attitudes toward women as managers through the mediator, gender role attitudes (GRA). In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of sex on attitudes toward women as managers, ignoring the mediator, was significant, B = .574, $p < .01$. Step 2 of examining the relationship between sex and the mediator indicated that the relationship was significant, B = .319, $p = .02$. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and attitudes toward women as managers were also found to be significant, B = .369, $p < .01$. The final step of examining the relationship between sex (B = .465, $p < .01$) and the mediator (B = .342, $p < .01$), and attitudes toward women as managers were found to be significant.

The results of the regression indicated that the predictors explained 32% of the variance (R^2=.32, $F(2,299) = 70.64$, $p < .01$). Participants' predicted attitudes toward women as managers is equal to 2.58 + .465(Sex) + .342(Gender Role Attitudes). The results indicated that there was mediation. Coefficients of the final model can be found in Table 4.

To test for hypothesis 1b, I conducted a formal test of the conditional indirect effect of Sex (female vs male) → GRA → WAM with the working status of mother using Model 8 of the PROCESS statistical macros for SPSS to test for the moderated mediation (Hayes, 2013). This model used a bootstrapping method to estimate the path coefficients specified in Figure 4. The model indicated that the moderator, working status of mother (WSM), was found to be not significant since the interaction term $a_{3,}$ was not statistically different from zero, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.30 and .80, indicating that the effect of sex on GRA is not dependent on the participants' working status of their mother. This was also the case for the direct effect of sex on the participants' attitudes toward women as managers (WAM), such that the interaction term c'_3 is not statistically different from zero, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.43 and .24, indicating that the direct effect of Sex on WAM is not significantly related to WSM (see Table 5). Because the moderated mediation was found to not be significant, hypothesis 1b is not supported.

H2a: Chinese individuals will have more positive attitudes toward women as managers.

Ethnicity consists of 5 categories – 1=Malay, 2=Chinese, 3=Indian, 4=Indigenous, 5=Other. The categories were dummy coded into 4 different categories – Chinese, Indian, Indigenous, and Other. Malay was used as the reference category.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if the different categories of ethnicity significantly predicted participants' attitudes toward women as managers through the mediator, gender role attitudes. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of the categories, Chinese (B

= .030), Indian (B = .059), Indigenous (B = .373), and Other (B = -.002) on attitudes toward women as managers, ignoring the mediator, was found to be non-significant, $p > .05$. Step 2 of examining the relationship between the categories and the mediator indicated that between Chinese (B = .574, $p < .01$), Indian (B = .219), Indigenous (B = .290), and Other (B = 1.04, $p = .02$), the relationship was only significant for Chinese and Other. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and attitudes toward women as managers were found to be significant, B = .369, $p < .01$. The final step examining the categories and the mediator indicates that the relationship between categories and attitudes toward women as managers were non-significant, $p > .05$ and only the mediator was found to significantly predict attitudes toward women as managers (B = .388, $p < .01$). The interaction between ethnicity and gender role attitudes were found to not be significant. The results indicated that there was no mediation.

Therefore, the category Chinese and Other only predicted gender role attitudes, but the direct effects of ethnicity on attitudes toward women as managers were not significant. The results of the regression indicated that when all predictors were included in the model, it explained 27% of the variance, $R^2=.27$, $F(5,296) = 21.75$, $p <.01$. Participants' predicted attitudes toward women as managers is equal to the regression equation $\hat{Y} = 2.59 - .458(\text{Other}) + .388(\text{Gender Role Attitudes}) + .229(\text{Indigenous}) - .198(\text{Indian}) - .163(\text{Chinese})$. Hypothesis 2a is not supported. Coefficients of the final model can be found in Table 6.

H2b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between ethnicity and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the ethnicity-attitudes

toward women as managers relationship, as well as the direct effects of ethnicity on attitudes toward women as managers.

Since the regression analysis indicated that ethnicity does not significantly predict attitudes toward women as managers, hypothesis 2b is also not supported.

H3a: Individuals with higher SES will have more positive attitudes toward women as managers than those with lower SES.

A simple correlation analysis was conducted to test if individuals higher in SES will report more positive attitudes toward women as managers. The results indicated that there is a significant and positive correlation, $r = .18$, $p < .01$. The higher the participants' SES, the more positive their attitudes toward women as managers (see Table 7). Hypothesis 3a is supported.

H3b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between SES and attitudes toward women as managers. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the SES-attitudes toward women as managers relationship as well as the direct effect of SES on attitudes toward women as managers.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if SES significantly predicted participants' attitudes toward women as managers through the mediator, gender role attitudes. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of SES on attitudes toward women as managers, ignoring the mediator, was significant, B = .140, $p < .01$. Step 2 of examining the relationship between SES and the mediator indicated that the relationship was significant, B = .163, $p < .01$. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and attitudes toward women as

managers were also found to be significant, B = .369, $p < .01$. The final step of examining the relationship between SES (B = .082, $p = .037$) and the mediator (B = .357, $p < .01$), and attitudes toward women as managers were found to be significant. The results indicated that there was mediation.

The results of the regression indicated that the predictors explained 26% of the variance, (R^2=.26, F(2,299) = 53.02, p <.01). Participants' predicted attitudes toward women as managers is equal to regression equation: $\hat{Y}$ = 2.51 + .357(Gender Role Attitudes) + .082(SES). Coefficients can be found in Table 8.

Hypothesis 3b was tested using a formal test of the conditional indirect effect of SES → GRA → WAM with the status of working mother using Model 8 of the PROCESS statistical macros for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). The moderator, status of working mother, was found to be not significant since the interaction term a_3, was not statistically different from zero, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.45 and .07, indicating that the effect of SES on GRA is not dependent on the Status of Working Mother. This was also the case for the indirect effect of SES on WAM, such that the interaction term c'_3 is not statistically different from zero as well, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.26 and .08, indicating that the direct effect of SES on WAM is not significantly related to WSM (see Table 9). Because the moderated mediation was found to not be significant, hypothesis 3b is not supported.

H4a*:* Individuals with higher SES will perceive fewer barriers than those with lower SES.

The Perceived Barriers scale is on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 being 'Strongly Disagree' and 7 being 'Strongly Agree'. The more the participant agrees with the

statement, the higher their scores, the less barriers they perceive(d). To test for hypothesis 4a, a simple correlation analysis was conducted. The results indicated that SES was significantly and positively related to perceived barriers to employment, $r = .13$, $p = .03$. The higher the individual's SES, the less barriers they perceived (see Table 10). Hypothesis 4a is supported.

H4b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between SES and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the SES-perceived barriers to employment relationship as well as the direct effects of SES on perceived barriers to employment.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if SES significantly predicted perceived barriers to employment through the mediator, gender role attitudes. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of SES on perceived barriers, ignoring the mediator, was significant, B = .09, $p = .03$. Step 2 of examining the relationship between SES and the mediator indicated that the relationship was significant, B = .163, $p < .01$. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and perceived barriers were also found to be significant, B = .129, $p < .01$. The final step of examining the relationship between SES (B = .071, $p = .085$) and the mediator (B = .118, $p < .01$), and perceived barriers, indicated that when both SES and the mediator were included in the model, SES was no longer significant. The results indicated that there was mediation.

The results of the regression indicated that the predictor explained 4.5% of the variance, $R^2=.045$, $F(2,299) = 7.04$, $p <.01$. Participants' predicted perceived barriers to

employment is equals to regression equation: $\hat{Y} = 3.37 + .118$(Gender Role Attitudes) + .071(SES). Coefficients can be found in Table 11.

To test for hypothesis 4b, I conducted a formal test of the conditional indirect effect of SES → GRA → PB with the status of working mother using Model 8 of the PROCESS statistical macros for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). The moderator, status of working mother, was found to be not significant. The interaction term a_3, was not statistically different from zero, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.45 and .06, indicating that the effect of SES on GRA is not dependent on the Status of Working Mother. This was also the case for the indirect effect of SES on PB, such that the interaction term c'_3 is not statistically different from zero as well, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.10 and .26, indicating that the direct effect of SES on PB is not significantly related to WSM (see Table 12). Because the moderated mediation was found to not be significant, hypothesis 4b is not supported.

H5a: Women will perceive more barriers to employment than men.

An Independent Samples T-test was conducted to compare the perceived barriers to employment. Results indicated that there was a significant difference between men (M = 4.15, SD = .77) and women (M= 4.44, SD = .83); $t(300) = -3.14$, $p < .01$. Specifically, women perceived fewer barriers to employment than men (see Table 13). Hypothesis 5a is not supported.

H5b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between sex and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother, will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the sex-perceived

barriers to employment relationship as well as the direct effects of sex on perceived barriers to employment.

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if sex significantly predicted perceived barriers to employment through the mediator, gender role attitudes. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of sex on perceived barriers, ignoring the mediator, was significant, B = .289, $p < .01$. Step 2 of examining the relationship between sex and the mediator indicated that the relationship was significant, B = .319, $p = .02$. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and perceived barriers were also found to be significant, B = .129, $p < .01$. The final step of examining the relationship between sex (B = .252, $p < .01$) and the mediator (B = .114, $p < .01$), and perceived barriers were found to be significant. The results indicated that there was mediation.

The results of the regression indicated that the predictors explained 5.9% of the variance, R^2=.059, F(2,299) = 9.43, p <.01. Participants' predicted perceived barriers to employment is equal to regression equation: $\hat{Y} = 3.44 + .252(\text{Sex}) + .114(\text{Gender Role Attitudes})$. Coefficients can be found in Table 14.

To test for hypothesis 5b, I conducted a formal test of the conditional indirect effect of Sex → GRA → PB with the status of working mother using Model 8 of the PROCESS statistical macros for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). The moderator, status of working mother, was found to be not significant. The interaction term a_3, was not statistically different from zero, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.30 and .80, indicating that the effect of sex on GRA is not dependent on the Status of Working Mother. This was also the case for the indirect effect of sex on PB, such that the

interaction term c'_3 is not statistically different from zero as well, with the 95% confidence interval ranging from -.61 and .13, indicating that the direct effect of sex on PB is not significantly related to WSM (see Table 15). Because the moderated mediation was found to not be significant, hypothesis 5b is not supported.

H6a: Malay individuals will perceive more barriers to employment than Chinese individuals.

Similar to the analysis for hypothesis 2a, a regression analysis was first conducted to test if the different categories of ethnicity significantly predicted perceived barriers to employment through the mediator, gender role attitudes. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of the categories, Chinese (B = -.805, p = .403), Indian (B = -.406, p = .142), Indigenous (B = .058, p = .791), and Other (B = .490, p = .116) on perceived barriers, ignoring the mediator, was found to be non-significant. Step 2 of examining the relationship between the categories and the mediator indicated that between Chinese (B = .574, p < .01), Indian (B = .219), Indigenous (B = .290), and Other (B = 1.04, p = .02), the relationship was only significant for Chinese and Other. Step 3 of examining the relationship between the mediator and perceived barriers were found to be significant, B = .129, p < .01. The final step examining the categories and the mediator indicates that the relationship between categories and perceived barriers were non-significant, p > .05 and only the mediator was found to significantly predict perceived barriers (B = .137, p < .01). The results indicated that there was no mediation.

The results of the regression indicated that the predictor explained 5.7% of the variance, R^2=.057, F(5,296) = 3.55, p <.01. Participants' predicted perceived barriers to employment is equal to regression equation: $\hat{Y}$ = 3.489 + .137(Gender Role Attitudes)

-.436(Indian) + .018(Indigenous) + .348(Other) - .164(Chinese). Hypothesis 6a is not supported. Coefficients can be found in Table 16.

H6b: Gender role attitudes will mediate the relationship between ethnicity and perceived barriers to employment. The moderator, working status of mother will moderate the mediating effects of gender role attitudes on the ethnicity-perceived barriers to employment as well as the direct effect of ethnicity on perceived barriers to employment.

Since the regression analysis indicated that ethnicity did not significantly predict perceived barriers to employment, hypothesis 6b is not supported as well.

Knowledge Check Question – The NEP

A simple cross-tabulation also indicated that a total of 58.6% of participants (N = 177) chose the right answer, which is "Bumiputeras (Malays and other indigenous peoples). 29% of participants (N = 88) chose "Chinese Malaysians"; 2.6% of participants (N = 8) chose "Indian Malaysians'; 4.3% of participants (N = 13) chose "Non-Malaysian citizens", and 5.3% of participants (N = 16) chose "Other". That indicates that 58.6% of participants selected the correct answer, while 41.4% of participants selected the incorrect answer.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The results of this study confirm that on average, Malaysian women have more favorable and positive attitudes toward women as managers than their male counterparts; individuals who have higher socioeconomic status (defined by their personal income, their parents' income, the individual's educational attainment and their parents' educational attainment) generally have more favorable and positive attitudes toward women as managers, and individuals with higher socioeconomic status also seem to perceive fewer barriers to employment than those with lower socioeconomic status.

This study seeks to contribute to the literature and understanding on the attitudes of young adults and their perceptions of women as managers and perceived career impediment in an Asian context. This study also aimed at examining the effect of socio and political climates, such as the implementation of ethnicity-based affirmative action policies, on an individuals' perception of barriers to employment. Previous gender and discrimination research had examined individuals' attitudes in the West and the East, sometimes in a cross-cultural fashion, but there are limited literature and research on young adults in Malaysia.

One of the significant findings this study found was that consistent with research, Malaysian women held more positive attitudes toward women as managers than Malaysian men. Even though women and men in Malaysia are typically raised in a more traditional household than those in the West, where women are expected to follow their prescribed gender roles, results indicate that Malaysian women, in general, have more held more liberal beliefs when it comes to gender equality at the workplace than Malaysian men. An interesting finding of this study also indicates that on average, Chinese Malaysians had more liberal gender role attitudes than Malays, although the study did not find a significant effect for ethnic categories on attitudes toward women as managers.

While research in the area of SES has found mixed results, this study provides some contribution to the literature that an individual's SES might predict their gender-role attitudes and overall attitudes toward gender equality in the workplace. However, the effects discovered in this study for SES was relatively small. Consistent with prior research, individuals high in SES may perceive to have the ability to obtain the necessary training, resources and credentials to be successful in their choice of employment, and they may perceive women and men to be equally as capable if they had positive female and male role models while growing up (Crompton & Lyonette, 2005; Sani & Quaranta, 2017). Research has also found that individuals themselves who have higher educational attainment, as well as their parents, are more likely to be exposed to egalitarian gender-role beliefs

Surprisingly, while the study hypothesized that women would perceive more barriers to men, the results suggest the complete opposite. Not only were there significant

differences in the perception of barriers to employment between both sexes, female participants reported that they perceived fewer barriers to employment than their male counterparts. This is somewhat shocking, as previous research has consistently demonstrated that women perceived more barriers to employment due to various factors such as gender discrimination, family/child responsibilities, multiple role-conflict and limited education (Cardoso & Marques, 2008; Rivera, Chen, Flores, Blumberg, & Ponterotto, 2007).

In an attempt to further understand these results, a multiple regression was conducted to examine the interaction between sex and SES. Results indicated that separately, both SES (B = .096, $p < .05$) and sex (B = .298, $p < .01$) was found to significantly predict perceived barriers to employment. However, when SES and sex were included in the analysis as an interaction term, the interaction was found to be significant (B = .244, $p < .01$), but the main effects of sex and SES on perceived barriers were no longer significant. This suggests that men who reported low SES perceived a whole lot more barriers to employment than women who reported high SES. The regression equation is $\hat{Y} = 4.22 - .336(Sex) - .028(SES) + .244(Sex*SES)$. Given men are coded 0 and women are coded 1, the regression equation for men is $\hat{Y} = 4.22 + 2.6(-.028)$ and the regression equation for women is $\hat{Y} = 4.22 - .336(Sex) + (-.028\ [SES] + .244[Sex*SES])$. The calculated means for men is 4.15 and the mean for women is 4.45.

To examine whether having children or not played a role in producing these results, I ran a three-way ANOVA with sex, education level, and number of children. For sex, men were coded as 0 and women were coded as 1. For education level, those without

a college diploma were coded as 0 and those with a college diploma or higher were coded as 1. For number of children, those without children were coded as 0 and those who reported having children were coded as 1. Results indicated that only the interaction term for education and sex was found to be significant, and whether the individual had children or not was found to be not significant. Surprisingly, the graph from the analysis also indicated that men who had at least a college education in this study reported perceiving more barriers to employment than men who had no college education. As for women, those who had no college education perceived more barriers to employment than women who had at least a college education (see Figure 18). When comparing both men and women, women who had at least a college education perceived a whole lot less barriers to employment than men who equally had a college education. Since education level is a factor that was considered in the variable SES, this may explain why men in this study reported perceiving more barriers to employment than women.

Unlike the West, new parents in Malaysia are offered more options for childcare. It is less expensive to enroll children in day care, and it is also part of the Malaysian culture for in-laws and relatives to step in when it comes to taking care of the children of new parents. This may explain why having children were found to not be a factor when considering barriers to employment.

This study also did not find significant results for ethnicity and attitudes toward women as managers and perceived barriers to employment, contrary to findings from prior research that suggests otherwise. Specifically, no significant differences were found for the ethnic groups Malay and Chinese. While the experiment conducted by Lee and Muhammad (2017) on fresh graduates in Malaysia demonstrated that regardless of the

organizational sector (government, private or multinational), employers consistently seem to favor Chinese applicants. Specifically, Chinese applicants received more callbacks for interviews than Malay applicants, demonstrating that limited job opportunities for Malays may be influenced by the indirect effects of the NEP. The NEP, which consists of ethnicity-based affirmative action policies, have been seen as pro-Malay. The belief that Malays have benefited from these policies may have created the stereotype that Malays are less capable.

One possible explanation as to why this study did not find significant results for ethnicity and perceived barriers to employment could be due to the lack of familiarity of the NEP. A knowledge check question on the survey assessed the participants' familiarity and understanding of the NEP. A short description of the policies was given to them and they were required to pick the right ethnic group to which the policies were meant to address. Results indicated that only a little over half of the sample answered the question correctly, and surprisingly, out of the participants who chose the option "Chinese Malaysians" (N = 88), 40.9% of them were Malay (N = 36) and 53.4% of them were Chinese (N = 47).

This indicates that these Chinese and Malay participants believed or assumed that these policies were meant for Chinese Malaysians, instead of Bumiputeras. Therefore, individuals who participated in this study may not perceive any barriers to employment or perceive to have any benefits or advantages in terms of employment, due to the lack of awareness for these policies. If the individual is actually not aware of how the policies may be beneficial or detrimental to their employment due to their ethnicity, they would not perceive their ethnicity as a reason to have more or fewer barriers to employment.

Therefore, while employers and organizations may have a prejudice against Malays due to the NEP, job-seekers who are oblivious of the policies may not aware of the implications of such policies.

This study also did not find significant results for the moderated mediation, such that the presence of a working mother did not significantly predict their gender role attitudes, attitudes toward women as managers, and perceived barriers to employment. This was the case for participants regardless of their SES, sex, and ethnicity. This is also somewhat surprising since previous research has demonstrated the effects of maternal employment on an individual's gender-role attitudes to be positive (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Fortin, 2005; Sani & Quaranta, 2017; Zuo & Tang, 2000). In a study conducted by Peus, Braun, and Knipfer (2015) examining women managers in East Asia and the U.S., the researchers found that Chinese female managers consistently mentioned their mothers as their role model and the reason behind why they were able to challenge prescribed gender role attitudes.

Specifically, they believed that women could have a career and a family if they wanted to. However, research has also indicated that in order for there to be a positive effect on a child's gender role attitudes, the structure and home environment has to reflect an equal household division of labor. That is, the father and mother both equally take on family-related responsibilities such as child rearing, cooking, cleaning, and other duties that are traditionally viewed as the role of a woman or mother (Peus, Braun, & Knipfer, 2015).

One possible explanation as to why the moderator in this study was found to not be significant may be that having a mother that worked while growing up may not have a

significant impact on the individual's gender role attitudes and attitudes toward women as managers if their mother still held more traditional gender role beliefs or carry more traditional behaviors of household division of labor and employment. For instance, an individual's parents may be dual-earners, but still enforce traditional gender role attitudes at home, thus lacking the structure and environment at home required for the individual to develop egalitarian gender role attitudes.

Their mothers may carry the belief that women should primarily take on minor roles at work that are deemed as more cooperative or helpful than leadership positions. They may also be engaging in paid employment for financial necessity and may still practice traditional gender role attitudes at home. Further speculation and examination of the behaviors of the mothers are required. Thus, there might need to be a combination of maternal employment, parents' egalitarian gender role attitudes, as well as the appropriate structure at home for the effects of maternal employment to be significant. The present study did not assess the gender role attitudes of the individuals' parents.

Practical implications

This study has some important implications for organizations and the policy makers in Malaysia. The results of this study also indicated that differences toward women as managers are determined more by one's sex and SES than ethnicity. The indication that men have less favorable attitudes toward women as managers are also consistent with findings from prior research (Bowen, Hwang, & Schere, 2007; Leung & Ng, 1999). Since men are more actively participating in the labor force, and with the majority of executives and managers being male, they are most likely the ones to make important decisions at work such as hiring and promoting. There is evidence that these

perceptions of young adults and the differences between sexes are due to prescribed gender roles, which in turn results in men having less favorable attitudes toward women as managers. These perceptions have important implications for practice and organizations should strategize and implement various ways to leverage qualified women who are trying to advance in their careers.

A lack of awareness and actual practice could continue to impede women from advancing in their careers and cause barriers. This is also important for organizations in industries that are more male-dominated or positions in organizations that are more male-dominated such as corporate leadership. Hiring managers, as well as managers that are involved in expatriate assignments, should also be aware of how cultural background interacts with their attitudes toward women as managers. In terms of the role of SES on perceived barriers to employment, educational counselors and professionals in organizations should be more aware of the role SES plays in career aspirations of individuals from financially disadvantaged backgrounds. Organizations can develop appropriate interventions and strategies such as development assessment centers and mentoring to enhance those aspirations. Similarly, organizations may also provide opportunities for volunteering to allow employees to gain exposure by working and interacting with various groups of people and settings.

If future research is able to determine the positive effects of maternal employment, consistent with research conducted by other researchers, this may influence policy makers when developing strategies and tools for promoting gender equality, especially in the workplace. This would further strengthen the notion that empowering women in the workplace and in society can be beneficial to society.

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study involves the translated measures. Since the measures were originally developed in English, and later translated to two different languages for the purpose of this study, we assume that the translated measures necessarily share the same connotations and carry the same weight as they do in English. More research is required to gain a more accurate understanding of the connotations that vary across different languages. Another potential limitation could be that participants did not pay as much attention as they could or spend as much time as compensation for completing the survey may not have been as attractive. However, given the nature of the crowdsourcing platform, TurkPrime, I am unable to tell if compensation could have posed a potential problem since TurkPrime handles the compensation. Two attention check questions were also included throughout the survey to help reduce the limitation of participants not paying attention. The responses of those who failed the attention check questions were not included in the data.

Another possible limitation is the priming effect, and that the order of the questions led to response bias. Prior to answering questions regarding their perceived barriers to employment, participants were asked to answer questions that measured their attitudes toward women as managers. Questions such as “Women have the capability to acquire the necessary skills to be successful managers”, “The possibility of pregnancy does not make women less desirable employees than men” and “It is acceptable for women to compete with men for top executive positions” were asked. Results indicated that women have more positive attitudes toward women as managers, indicating that they agreed or strongly agreed with those statements. Due to that prior measure, they may be

more inclined to agree more strongly with the next set of questions. Female participants may perceive women to be just as capable in terms of becoming a manager or advancing in the workplace, thus responded to the perceived barriers measure in a way that reflected that perception of ability, instead of actual barriers they may have perceived. This could explain why the study found significant differences such that females reported fewer barriers to employment than males.

Another limitation is that data was collected in one sitting, and at only one point in time. For the perceived barriers measure, participants were required to recall instances where they may or may not have experienced issues such as negative comments, discrimination, etc. at work. They may have recalled the information wrongly, or they may be too early in their careers to have had those experiences. Participants may also have underestimated the degree of those experiences.

Directions for future research

Future research could examine young adults and older adults and compare their perceived barriers to employment. Since young adults may still be in the early onset of their careers and may still be naïve with the harsh realities of the workplace, comparing both samples might give us more insight as to whether or not that is the case, and if older adults report perceiving more barriers to employment. Researchers should also consider determining the dimensionality of the Women as Managers Scale (WAMS) to allow for more comparisons of specific dimensions of the measure between sexes. Since this present study found significant differences for that measure, it would be interesting to be able to determine for which component of WAMS were the differences between sexes different.

Research has suggested that one of the most common barriers are organizational politics and interpersonal relationships with the individual's co-workers. Future research could examine the role of those variables on perceived barriers to employment and career advancement. The study could also further expand to examine career goal attainments (Such as promotions) and the role organizational politics and relationships at work may play. Another variable researchers could examine in the future is the period of time the individual has spent in their current industry, role, and organization.

Another avenue for future research is to conduct this study longitudinally instead of collecting data during one period of time. Researchers will then be able to examine the effects of organizational tenure as well as whether perceptions of barriers to employment changes over time with age. Participants can be given the perceived barriers survey at one point in time and later be given the same measure. To reduce the priming effect, researchers in the future should also consider spreading out the measures throughout the study instead of having the participants answer both WAMS and the perceived barriers scale right after one another.

Researchers could also focus more methodically on the relationship between parents' and the child's gender role attitudes since the present study did not collect such information. Specifically, assessing the gender role attitudes of their mother and their attitudes toward women as managers and examining the effects of their gender role attitudes on their child's attitudes toward women as managers. Researchers could assess the individual's beliefs on household division of labor and whether or not the division of labor was segregated (to indicate more traditional gender role attitudes). For example,

mothers completing more female-typed work and fathers completing more male-typed work at home.

If researchers in the future are able to find a significant relationship, it would also be interesting to see if there are significant differences between males and females. That is, are the positive impacts of maternal employment (if any) significant and equal across females and males? Finally, researchers may consider including more knowledge check questions related to the NEP to assess participants' familiarity with the policies as well as only including participants who passed the knowledge check questions and rerun the analysis for the effects of ethnicity and perceived barriers to employment.

Lastly, future research could consider a new mediation model (without the moderator, working status of mother) by looking at the indirect effects of the variables, specifically sex and SES, on attitudes toward women as managers and their perceived barriers to employment through gender role attitudes, as well as the direct effects of sex and SES on attitudes toward women as managers and their perceived barriers to employment (for the conceptual diagram, see Figure 19). Using Model 4 of the PROCESS statistical macros for SPSS to test for the mediation of this new model, results indicated that the indirect effects of sex on attitudes toward women as managers through gender role attitudes were found to be significant, thus the mediation is supported. This was also the case for SES. Similarly, the indirect effects for sex on perceived barriers through gender role attitudes were also found to be significant. The mediation is also supported.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

It is crucial to understand the perceptions of young adults, especially their attitudes toward women as managers and barriers they may be facing, as they enter the workforce. Consistent with prior research conducted on Malaysian women and men over the last decade, it seems like women still hold more liberal gender-role attitudes as well as have more favorable attitudes toward women in leadership than men. While much progress has been accomplished in the past few decades, it seems unlikely that the gap will be closing any time soon. Hopefully, with policies in place to support the advancement of women, it would assist in narrowing the gap further. Future research is also needed to dive deeper into structural barriers that may be impeding individuals from certain ethnic groups or gender from fully participating in the workforce.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1

Socio-demographics of females and males

	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Age						
18 -24	54	17.8	53	17.5	107	35.4
25 -31	54	17.8	70	23.1	124	41.05
32 and over	36	11.9	33	10.9	69	22.8
Marital Status						
Married	44	14.6	58	19.2	102	33.8
Single	94	31.1	99	32.8	193	63.9
Divorced	3	1	1	0.3	4	1.32
Widowed	1	0.3	0	0	1	0.3
Separated	2	0.7	0	0	2	0.6
Ethnicity						
Malay	83	27.4	90	29.8	173	57.3
Chinese	42	13.9	56	18.5	98	32.5
Indian	7	2.3	2	0.7	9	2.9
Indigenous	8	2.6	7	2.3	15	4.9
Other	4	2.3	3	1	7	2.3
Children						
No children	100	33.1	110	36.4	220	72.8
Two or below	34	11.3	37	12.3	71	23.5
Three or over	8	2.6	11	3.6	19	6.3
Education						
No schooling	4	2.3	5	1.7	9	2.9
Primary school	3	1	1	0.3	4	1.3

Secondary school	39	12.9	35	11.6	74	24.5
Trade/Technical/Vocational Training	14	4.6	10	3.3	24	7.9
College diploma	29	9.6	36	11.9	65	21.5
Bachelor's degree	44	14.6	64	21.2	108	35.8
Master's degree	8	2.6	6	2	14	4.6
Doctoral degree	3	1	1	0.3	4	1.3
Employment Status						
Employed part time	27	8.9	27	8.9	54	17.9
Employed full time	86	28.5	93	30.8	179	59.2
No paid employment	31	10.3	38	12.6	69	22.8
Unemployed	34	11.3	40	13.2	74	24.5

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Working Status of Mother	.62	0.5						
2.	Gender Role Attitudes	6.4	1.2	.090	.774				
3.	Attitudes Toward Women as Managers	4.9	0.9	.023	.501**	.766			
4.	Perceived Barriers to Employment	4.3	0.8	.070	.188**	.276**	.803		
5.	SES	2.6	1.1	.202**	.154**	.180**	.125*		
6.	Sex	.52	0.5	.009	.135*	.330**	.179**	-.045	

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level, p<.05

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level, p<.01

Note. Working Status of Mother was coded as 0=No working mother and 1=Working mother; Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female. Cronbach's alphas are found in the diagonals.

Table 3

T – test Results Predicting Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (AWAS) by Sex (Hypothesis 1a)

	Sex								
	Male n = 144			Female n = 158			95% CI for Mean Difference		
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		t	df
Attitudes Toward Women as Managers	4.69	.846	144	5.26	.804	158	- .76, - .39	- .605**	300

*$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (AWAS) (Hypothesis 1b)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
Sex	.465	.267	5.55	.000**
Gender Role Attitudes	.342	.035	9.67	.000**

*p < .05; **p < .01
Note. Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.

Table 5

Moderated mediation process model statistics (Hypothesis 1b)

Outcome: GRA		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	6.12	.16	38.75	< .001
a_1	Sex	.16	.41	.75	.456
a_2	WSM	.09	.20	.36	.722
Outcome: WAM		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	2.55	.24	10.67	< .001
b	GRA	.35	.04	9.67	< .001
c'_1	Sex	.52	.14	3.85	< .001
c'_2	WSM	.10	.12	.081	.935
c'_3	Sex x WSM interaction (WAM)	-.09	.17	-.549	.583
a_3	Sex x WSM interaction (GRA)	.25	.28	.89	.376
Conditional direct effects on WAM		Coefficient	SE	LLCI	ULCI
	Working Mother: Sex	.43	.11	.22	.64
	No Working Mother: Sex	.52	.14	.26	.79

Conditional indirect effects on WAM	Coefficient	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Working Mother: Sex via GRA	.14	.06	.03	.26
No Working Mother: Sex via GRA	.06	.08	-.10	.21

Note. GRA = Gender Role Attitudes; WSM = Working Status of Mother; WAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers. Working Status of Mother was coded as 0=No working mother and 1=Working mother; Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.
LLCI = Lower limit 95% confidence interval; ULCI = Upper limit 95% confidence interval.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (AWAMS) (Hypothesis 2a)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
Ethnicity				
Chinese	-0.163	-0.088	-1.67	0.096
Indian	-0.198	0.257	-0.769	0.442
Indigenous	0.229	0.203	1.13	0.258
Other	-0.458	0.292	-1.56	0.119
Gender Role Attitudes	0.388	0.035	5.55	0.000**

*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 7

Correlation Results of SES and Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (AWAMS) (Hypothesis 3a)

	Variable	1	2
1	SES		
2	Attitudes Toward Women as Managers	.18**	

*p < .05; **p < .01

Note. SES = Socioeconomic Status.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (AWAMS) (Hypothesis 3b)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
SES	0.082	0.267	2.093	0.037
Gender Role Attitudes	0.357	0.485	9.639	0.000**

*p < .05; **p < .01
Note. SES = Socioeconomic Status.

Table 9

Moderated mediation process model statistics (Hypothesis 3b)

Outcome: GRA		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	5.56	.28	19.9	< .001
a_1	SES	.28	.11	2.56	.011
a_2	WSM	.62	.35	1.75	.081
Outcome: WAM		**Coefficient (b)**	**SE**	***t***	***p***
	constant	2.41	.27	8.79	< .001
b	GRA	.36	.04	9.54	< .001
c'_1	SES	-.043	.12	-.341	.731
c'_2	WSM	.15	.23	.638	.524
c'_3	SES x WSM interaction (WAM)	-.09	.09	-1.07	.285
a_3	SES x WSM interaction (GRA)	-.19	.13	-1.45	.148
Conditional direct effects on WAM		**Coefficient**	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
	Working Mother: SES	.06	.05	-.03	.15
	No Working Mother: SES	.15	.07	.01	.29
Conditional indirect effects on WAM		**Coefficient**	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
	Working Mother: SES via GRA	.03	.03	-.02	.09
	No Working Mother: SES via GRA	.10	.05	.01	.19

Note. GRA = Gender Role Attitudes; WSM = Working Status of Mother; WAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers; SES = Socioeconomic Status. Working Status of Mother was coded as 0=No working mother and 1=Working mother; Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.
LLCI = Lower limit 95% confidence interval; ULCI = Upper limit 95% confidence interval.

Table 10

Correlation Results of SES and Perceived Barriers (Hypothesis 4a)

	Variable	1	2
1	SES	-	
2	Perceived Barriers to Employment	.13*	-

*$p < .05$.; **$p < .01$.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Perceived Barriers (Hypothesis 4b)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
SES	.071	.041	-1.67	.085
Gender Role Attitudes	.357	.485	5.54	.003**

*p < .05; **p < .01

Note. SES=Socioeconomic Status.

Table 12

Moderated mediation process model statistics (Hypothesis 4b)

Outcome: GRA		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	5.56	.28	19.9	< .001
a_1	SES	.28	.11	2.56	.011
a_2	WSM	.62	.35	1.75	.081
Outcome: PB		**Coefficient (b)**	**SE**	***t***	***p***
	constant	3.46	.30	11.97	< .001
b	GRA	.12	.04	3.04	< .001
c'_1	SES	.01	.08	.141	.887
c'_2	WSM	-.13	.24	-.554	.580
c'_3	SES x WSM interaction (PB)	.08	.09	.872	.384
a_3	SES x WSM interaction (GRA)	-.193	.13	-1.45	.148
Conditional direct effects on PB		**Coefficient**	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
	Working Mother: SES	.09	.50	-.01	.19

No Working Mother: SES	.11	.08	-.14	.16
Conditional indirect effects on PB	Coefficient	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Working Mother: SES via GRA	.01	.01	-.01	.03
No Working Mother: SES via GRA	.03	.02	.003	.07

Note. GRA = Gender Role Attitudes; WSM = Working Status of Mother; WAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers. Working Status of Mother was coded as 0=No working mother and 1=Working mother; Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.
LLCI = Lower limit 95% confidence interval; ULCI = Upper limit 95% confidence interval.

Table 13

T – test Results for Perceived Barriers to Employment by Sex (Hypothesis 5a)

	Sex								
	Male n = 144			Female n = 158			95% CI for Mean Difference		
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		t	df
Perceived Barriers to Employment	4.15	.764	144	4.44	.826	158	- .47, - .10	- 3.14**	300

*$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 14

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Perceived Barriers (Hypothesis 5b)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
Sex	0.252	0.156	2.755	.003**
Gender Role Attitudes	0.114	0.167	2.954	.006**

*p < .05; **p < .01

Note. Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.

Table 15
Moderated mediation process model statistics (Hypothesis 5b)

Outcome: GRA		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	6.12	.16	38.75	< .001
a_1	Sex	.17	.22	.745	.457
a_2	WSM	.09	.20	.439	.661
Outcome: PB		Coefficient (b)	SE	*t*	*p*
	constant	3.32	.26	12.72	< .001
b	GRA	.113	.04	2.92	.004
c'_1	Sex	.40	.15	2.71	.007
c'_2	WSM	.21	.14	1.58	.116
c'_3	Sex x WSM interaction (PB)	-.24	.19	-1.27	.205
a_3	Sex x WSM interaction (GRA)	.25	.28	.89	.376
Conditional direct effects on PB		Coefficient	SE	LLCI	ULCI
	Working Mother: Sex	.16	.11	-.07	.39
	No Working Mother: Sex	.39	.14	.11	.69
Conditional indirect effects on PB		Coefficient	SE	LLCI	ULCI

Working Mother: Sex via GRA	.05	.03	.01	.10
No Working Mother: Sex via GRA	.19	.03	-.03	.09

Note. GRA = Gender Role Attitudes; WSM = Working Status of Mother; WAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers; PB = Perceived Barriers to Employment. Working Status of Mother was coded as 0=No working mother and 1=Working mother; Sex was coded as 0=Male and 1=Female.
LLCI = Lower limit 95% confidence interval; ULCI = Upper limit 95% confidence interval.

Table 16

Multiple Regression Results Predicting Perceived Barriers (Hypothesis 6a)

Variable	B	β	*t*	*p*
Ethnicity				
Chinese	-0.164	0.103	-1.60	0.112
Indian	-0.436	0.271	-.092	0.109
Indigenous	0.018	0.214	.005	0.933
Other	0.348	0.308	.065	0.261
Gender Role Attitudes	0.137	0.04	.200	0.001**

*$p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1

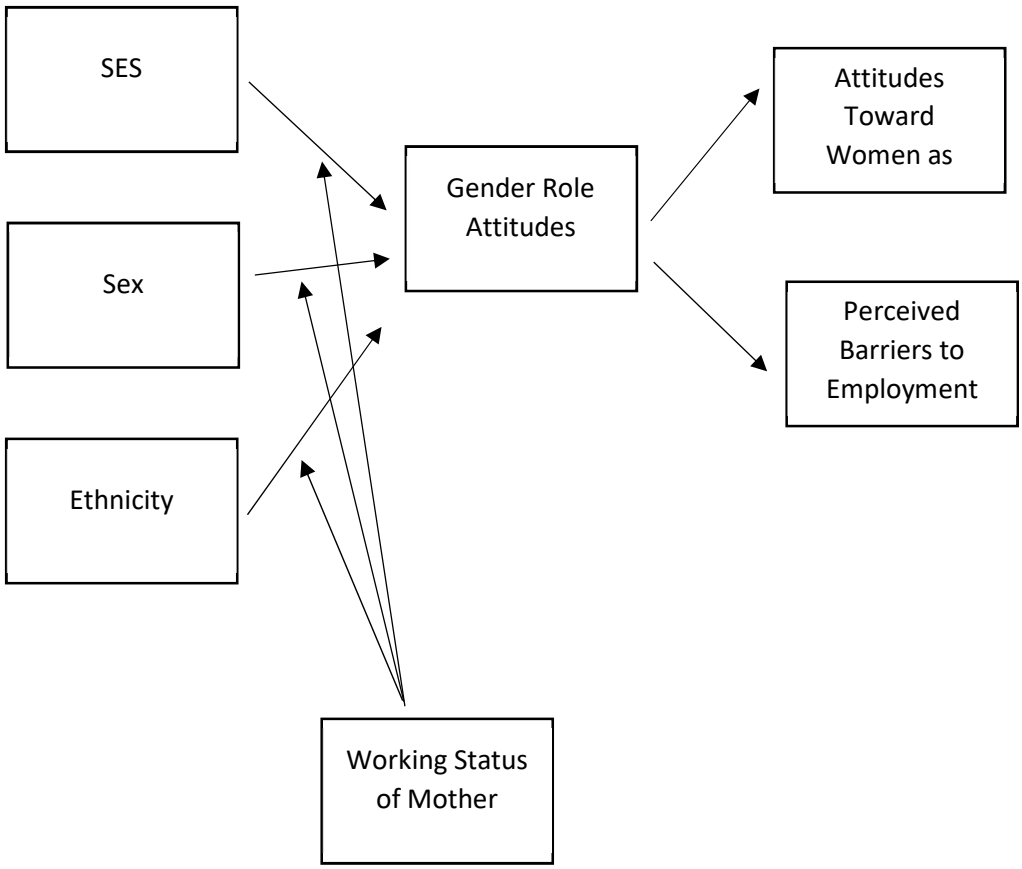

SES
Sex
Ethnicity
Gender Role Attitudes
Attitudes Toward Women as
Perceived Barriers to Employment
Working Status of Mother

Figure 2 (Hypothesis 1)

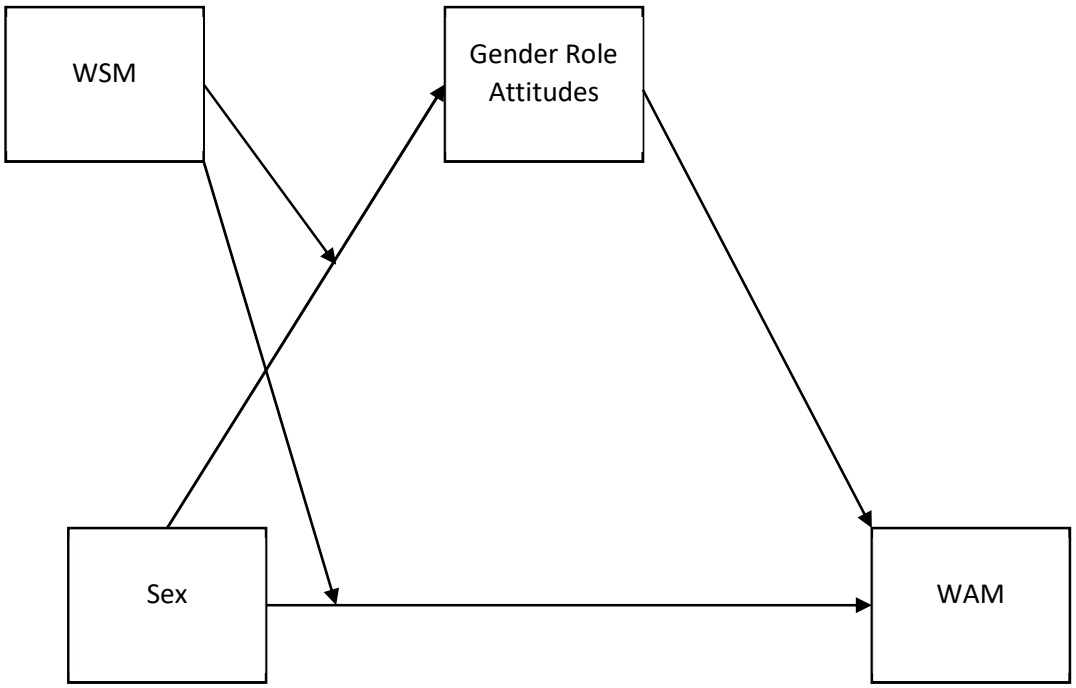
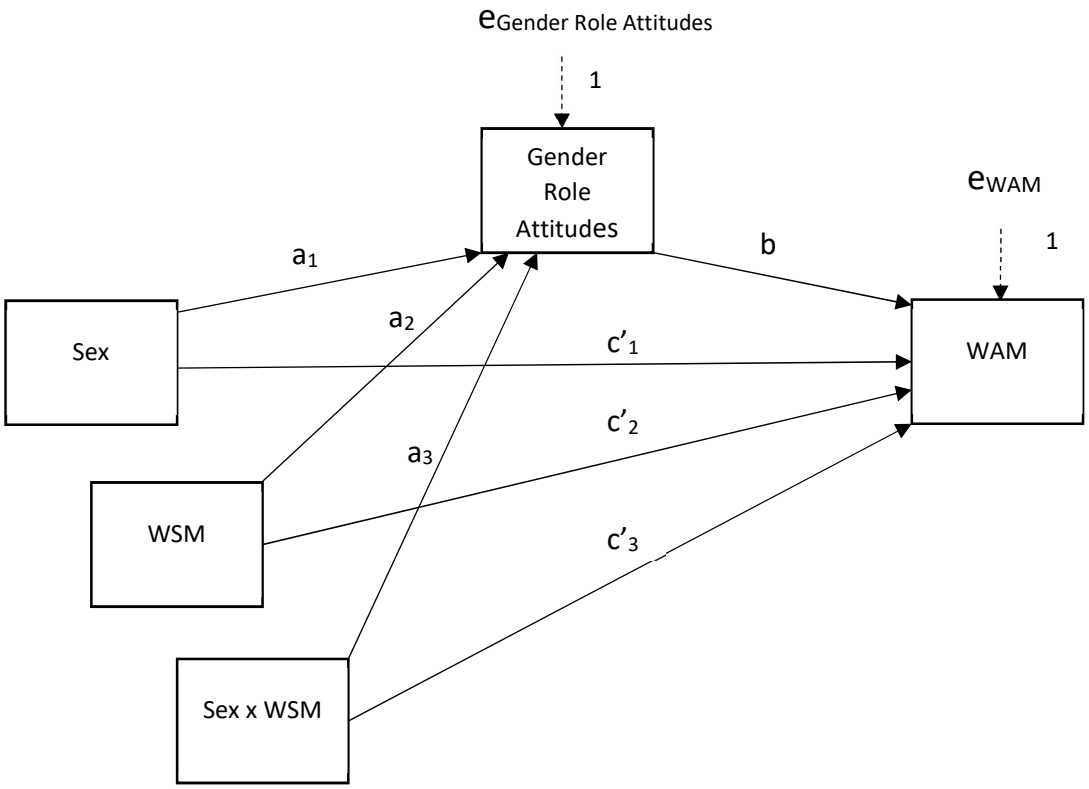


Figure 3


eGender Role Attitudes
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Gender Role Attitudes
eWAM
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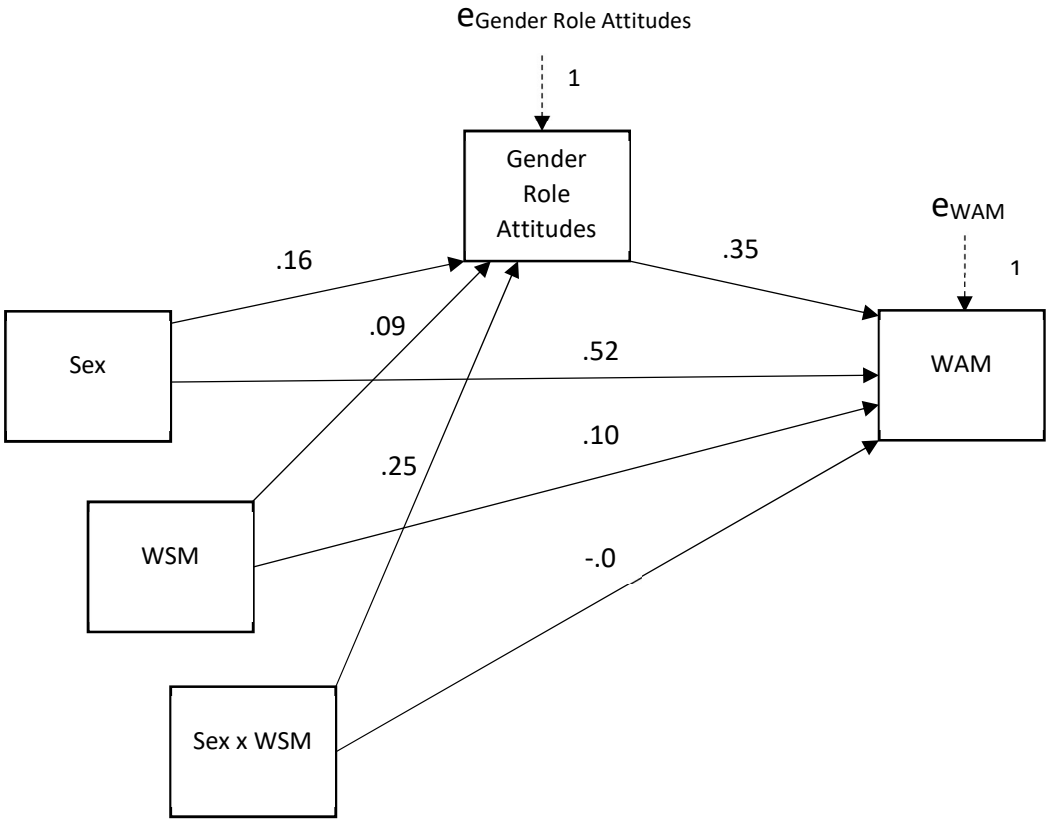
c'3
Sex
WSM
Sex x WSM
WAM

Figure 4



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the meidating effect of sex (females vs males) on the effect of gender role attitudes on WAM. Figure 2 depicts the conceptual model, Figure 3 depicts the statistical model, and Figure 4 depicts the results. The model was found to be non-significant.

Figure 5 (Hypothesis 2)

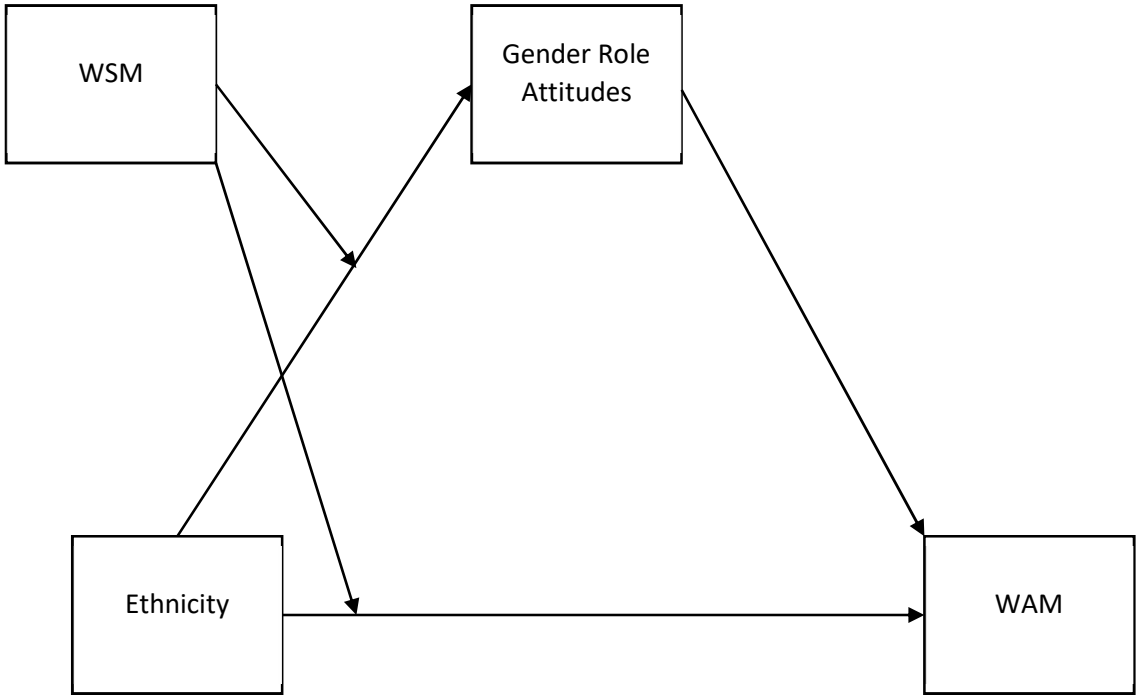
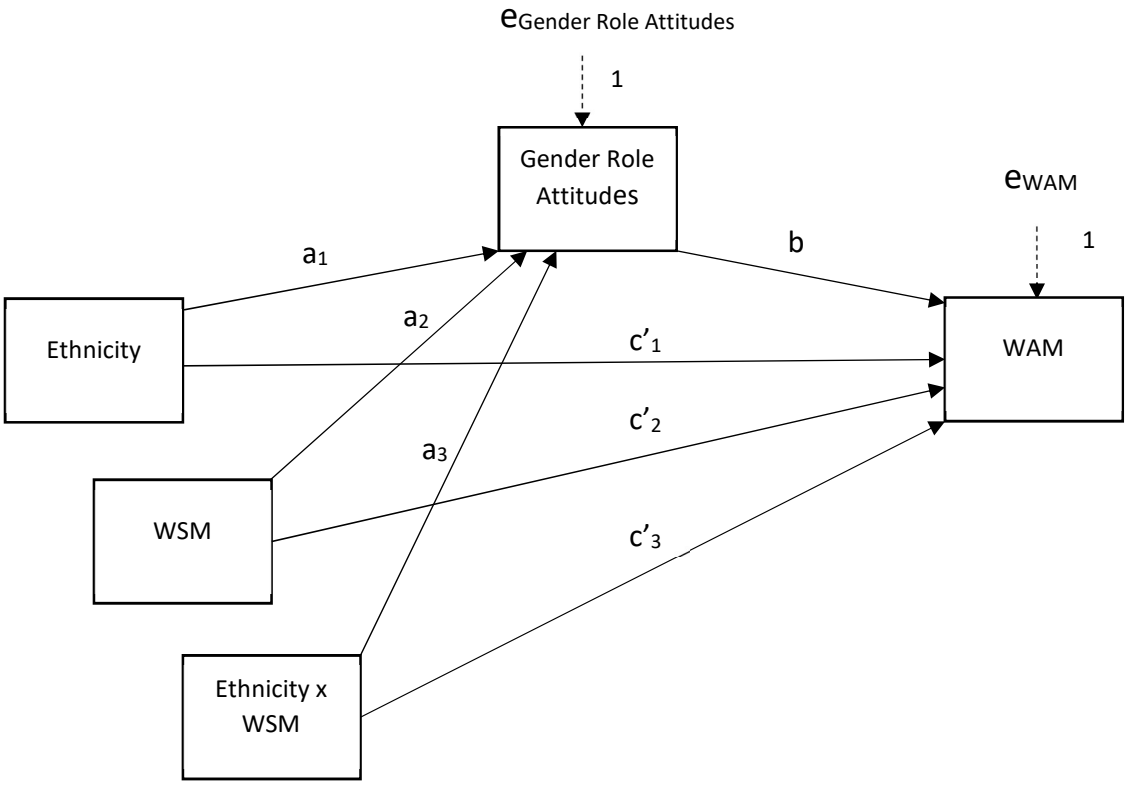


Figure 6



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the meidating effect of SES on the effect of gender role attitudes on WAM. Figure 5 depicts the conceptual model and Figure 6 depicts the statistical model. No figure depicting the results were created since analysis using PROCESS was not conducted.

Figure 7 (Hypothesis 3)

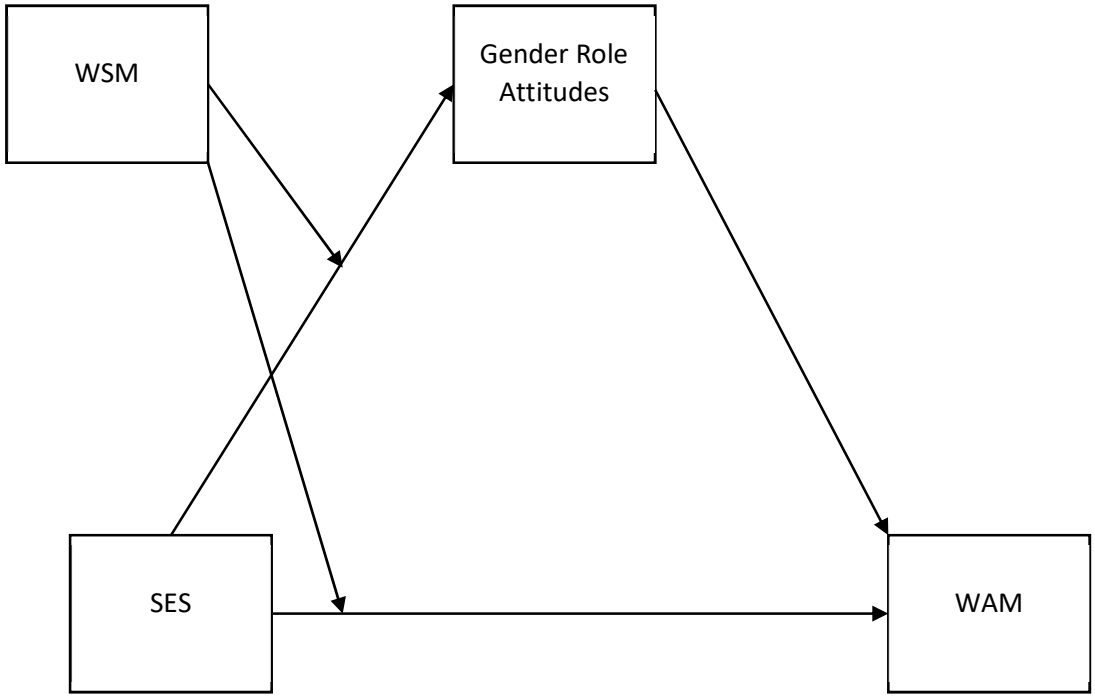
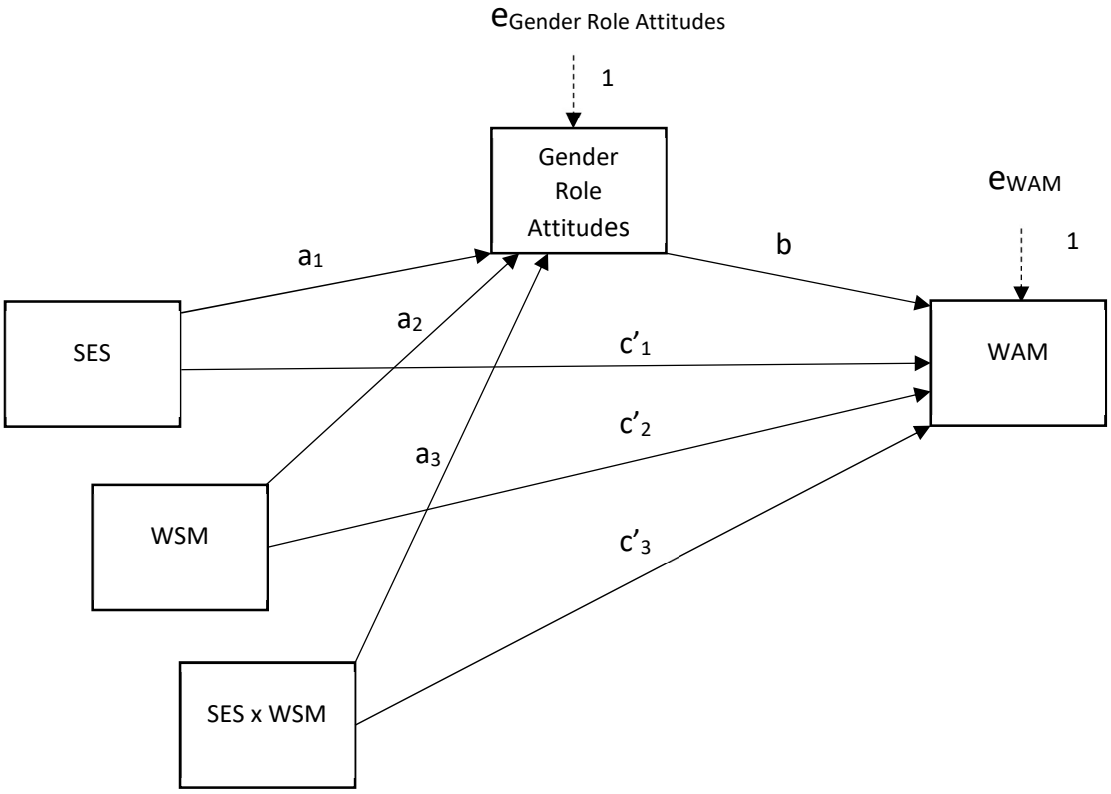


Figure 8


e Gender Role Attitudes
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Gender Role Attitudes
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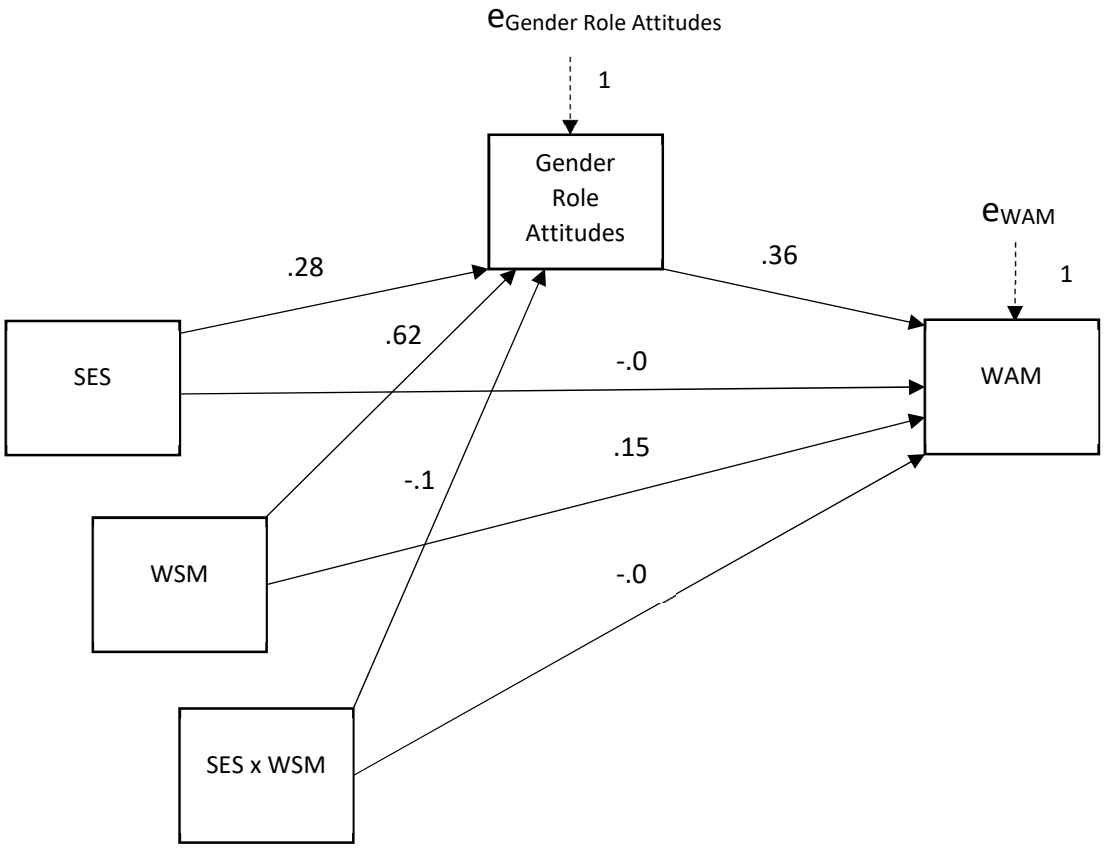
WSM
SES x WSM
WAM

Figure 9



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the meidating effect of SES on the effect of gender role attitudes on WAM. Figure 7 depicts the conceptual model, Figure 8 depicts the statistical model, and Figure 9 depicts the results. The model was found to not be significant.

Figure 10 (Hypothesis 4)

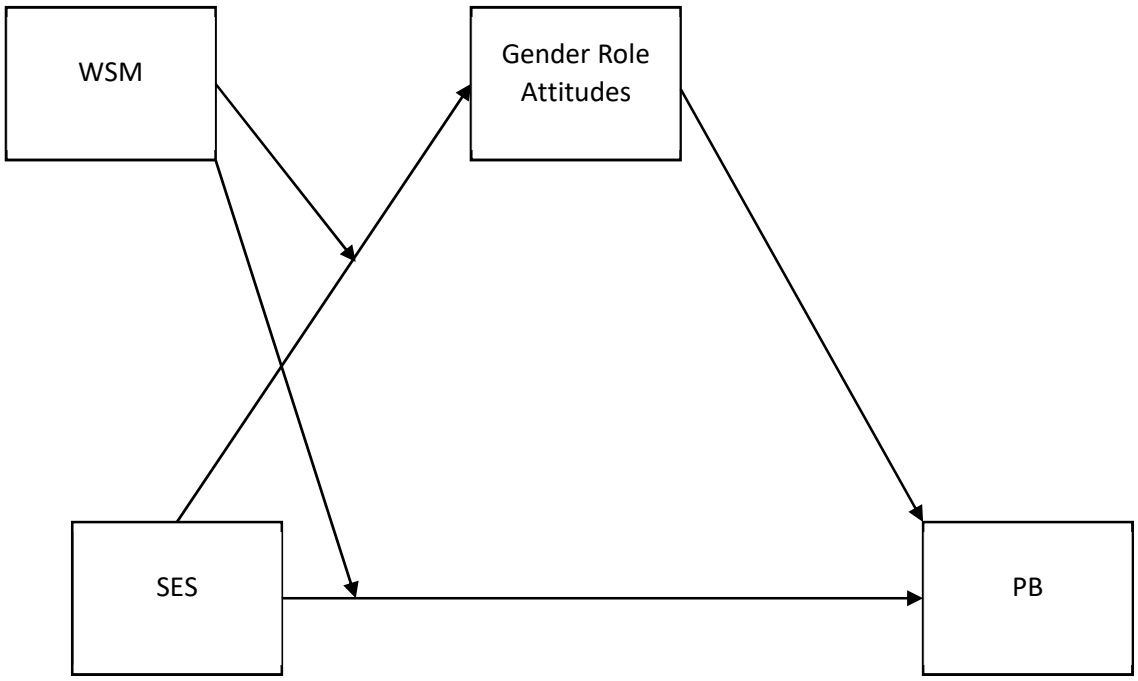
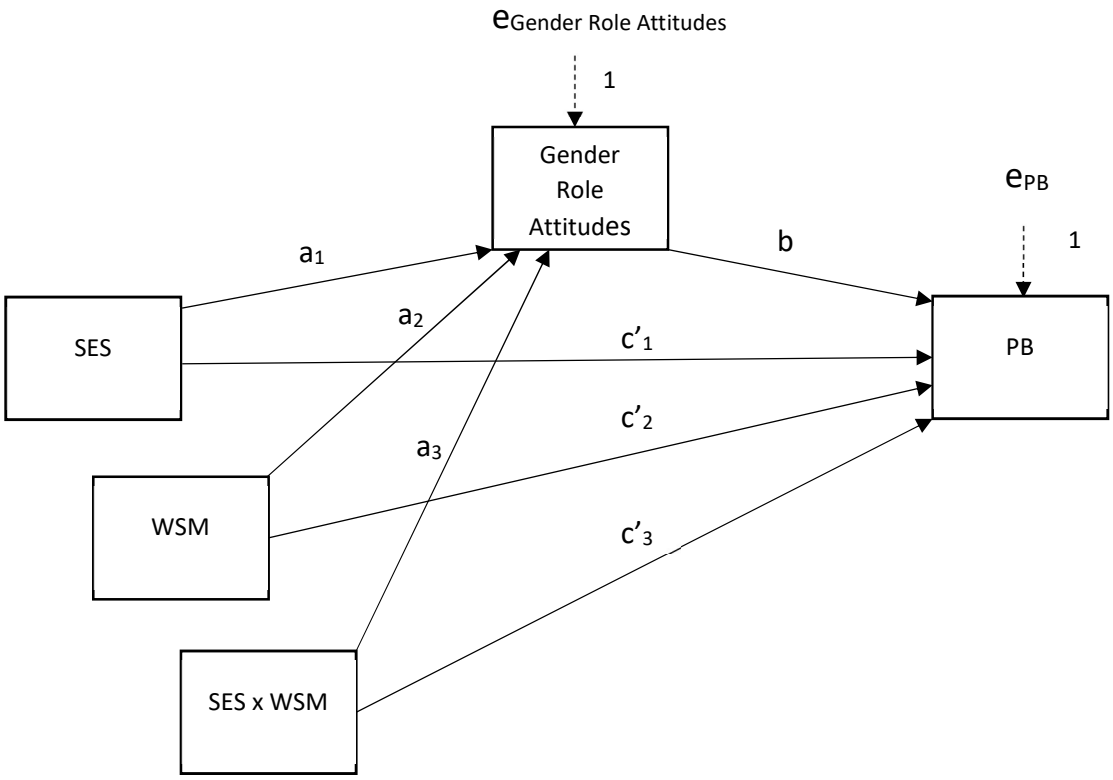


Figure 11


eGender Role Attitudes
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Gender Role Attitudes
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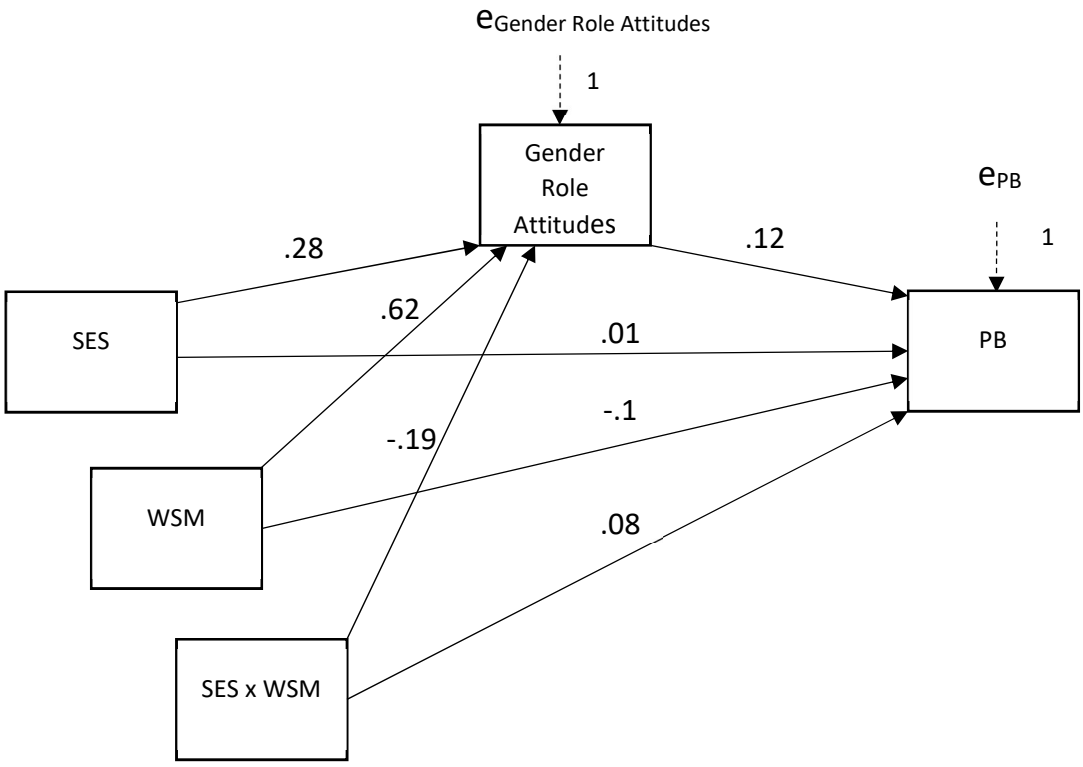
SES
c'1
PB
c'2
a3
WSM
c'3
SES x WSM

Figure 12



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the mediating effect of SES on the effect of gender role attitudes on PB. Figure 10 depicts the conceptual model, Figure 11 depicts the statistical model, and Figure 12 depicts the results. The model was found to be non-significant.

Figure 13 (Hypothesis 5)

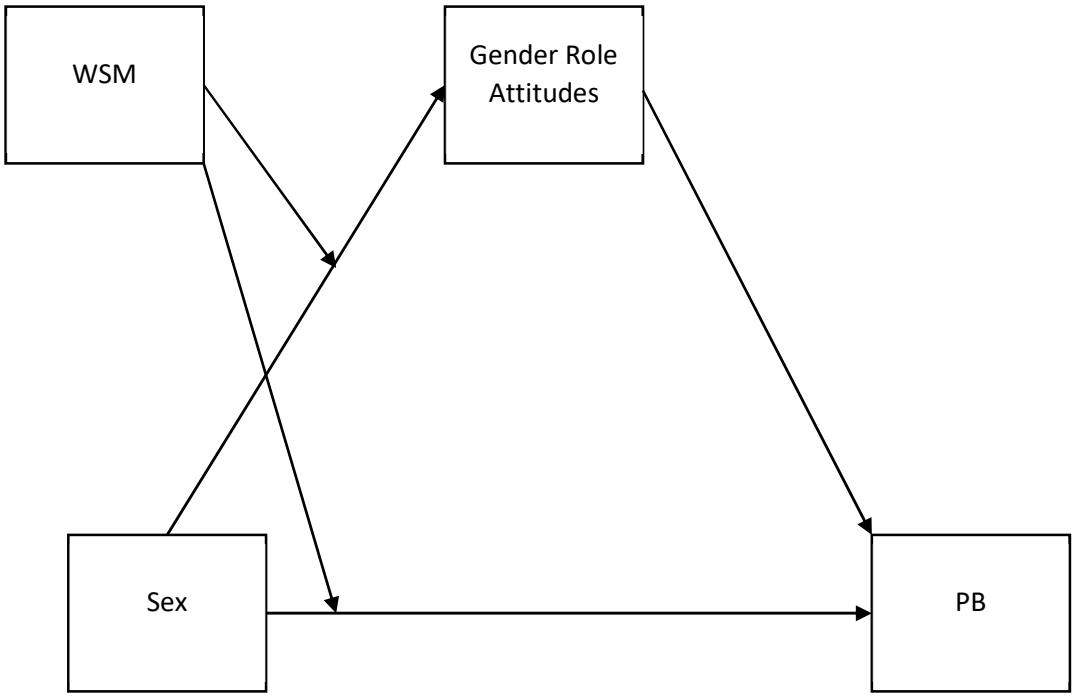
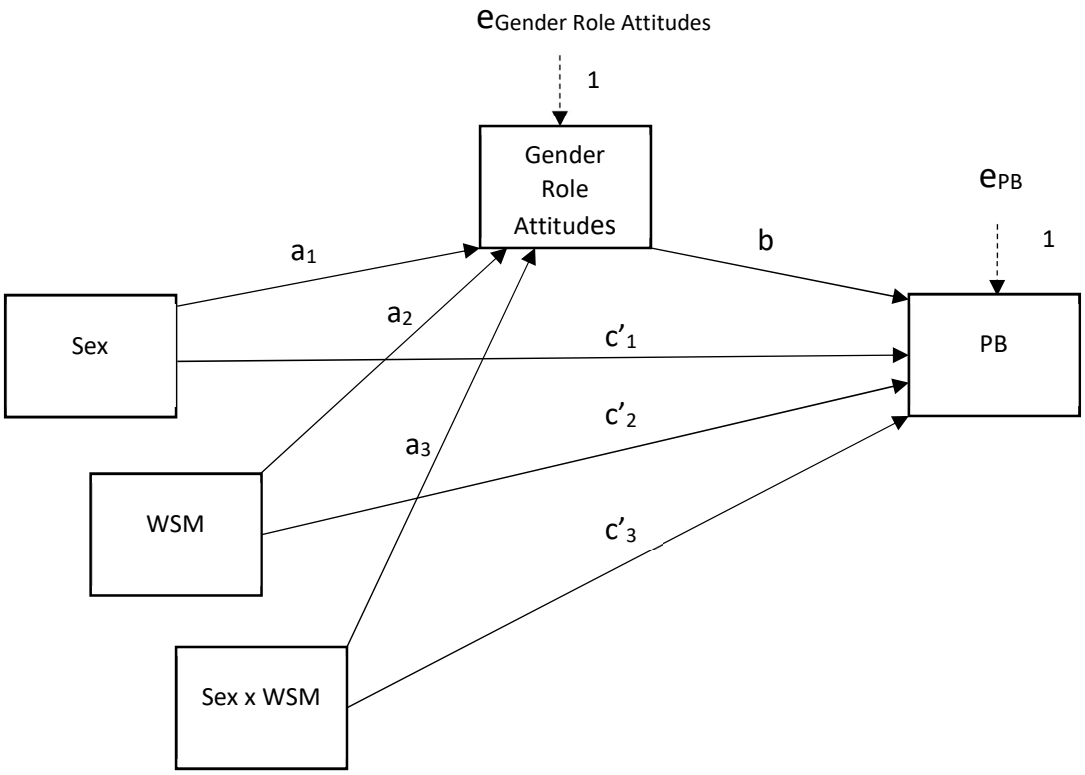


Figure 14


eGender Role Attitudes
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Gender Role Attitudes
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c'1
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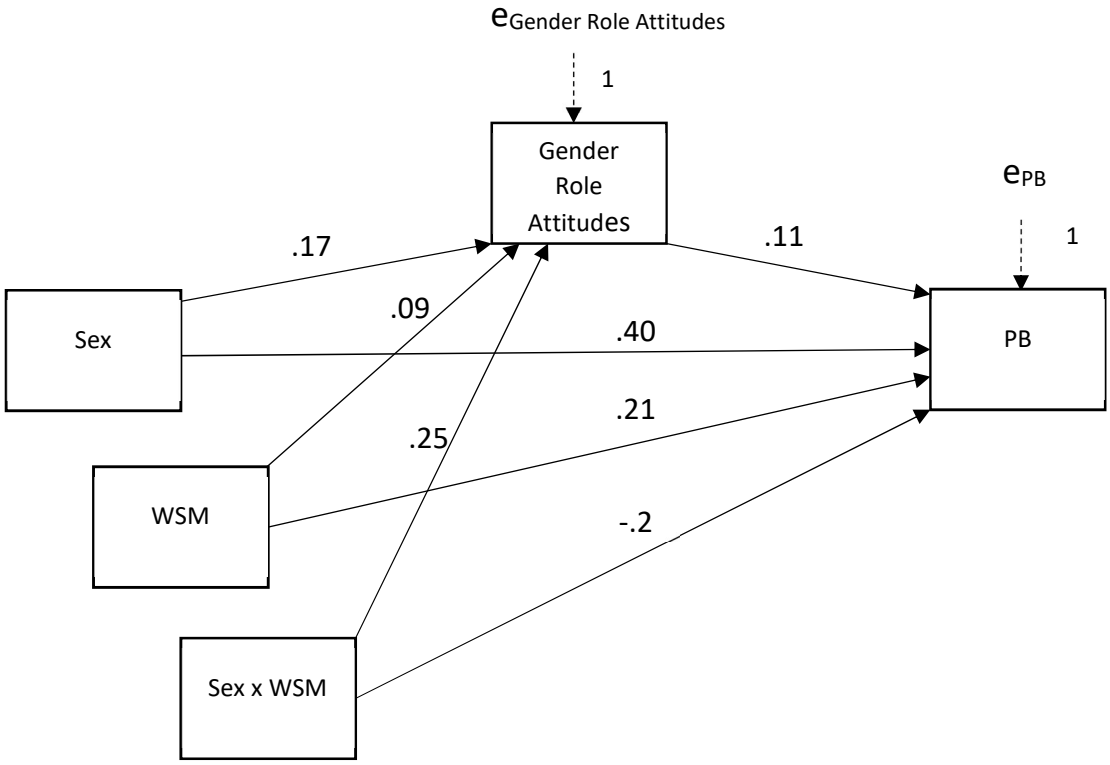
c'2
a3
WSM
c'3
Sex x WSM

Figure 15



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the meidating effect of SES on the effect of gender role attitudes on PB. Figure 13 depicts the conceptual model, Figure 14 depicts the statistical model, and Figure 15 depicts the results. The model was found to be non-significant.

Figure 16 (Hypothesis 6)

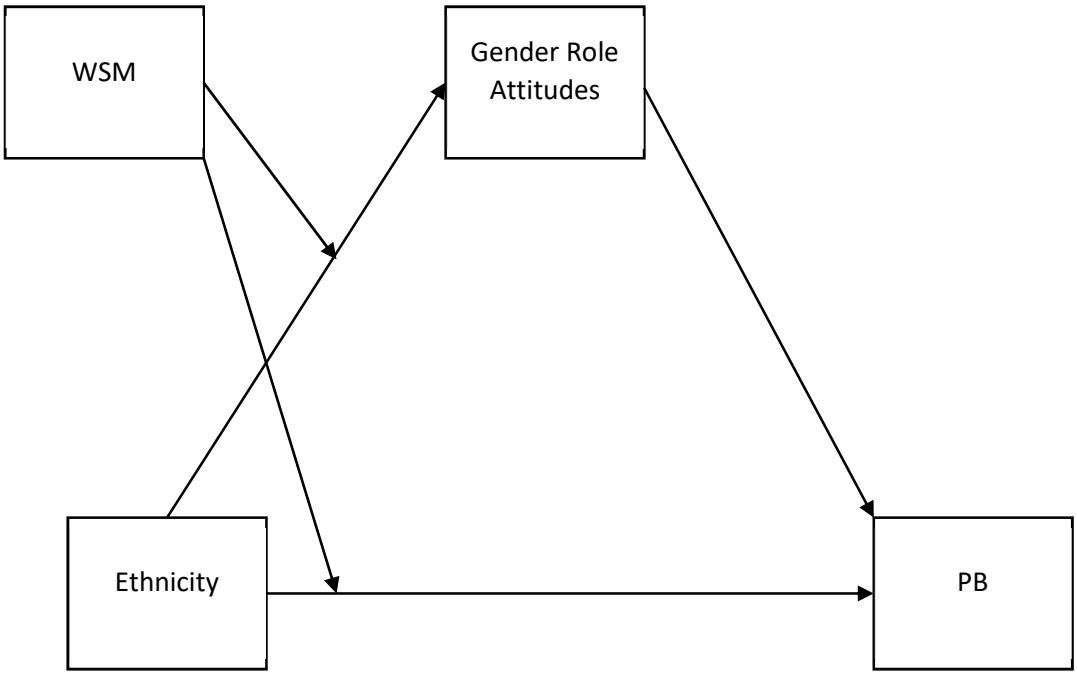
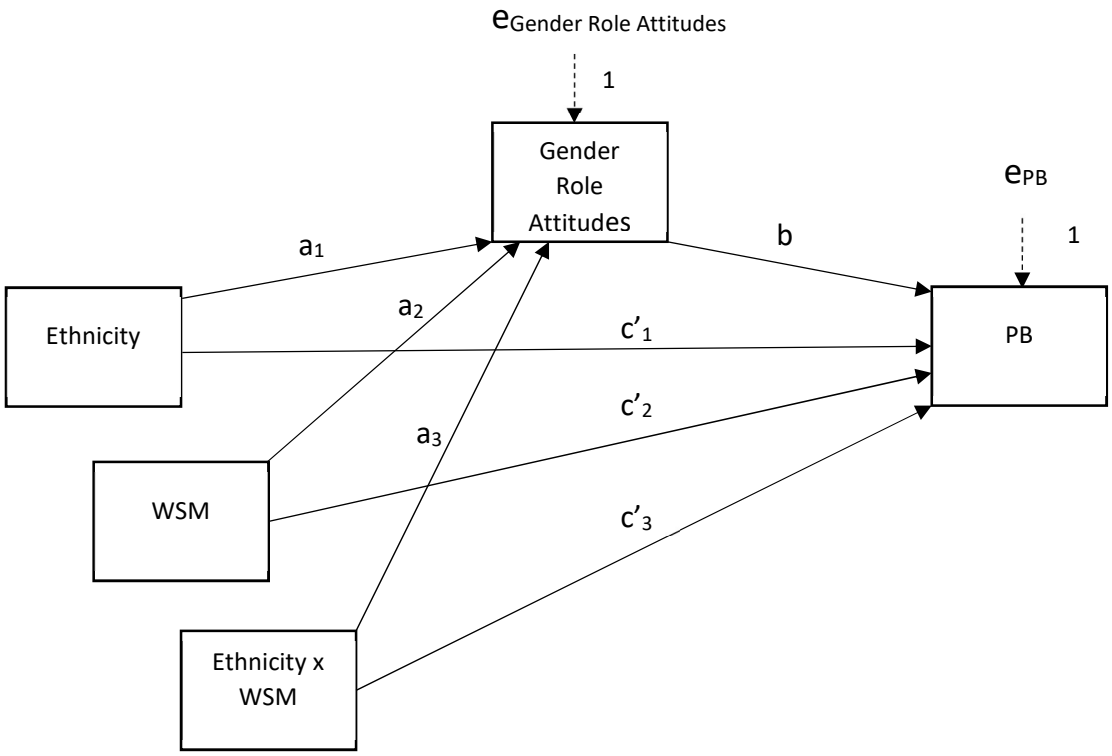


Figure 17



An illustration of the moderated mediation model, which tested whether WSM moderates the meidating effect of SES on the effect of gender role attitudes on PB. Figure 16 depicts the conceptual model and Figure 17 depicts the statistical model. No figure depicting the results were created since analysis using PROCESS was not conducted.

Figure 18

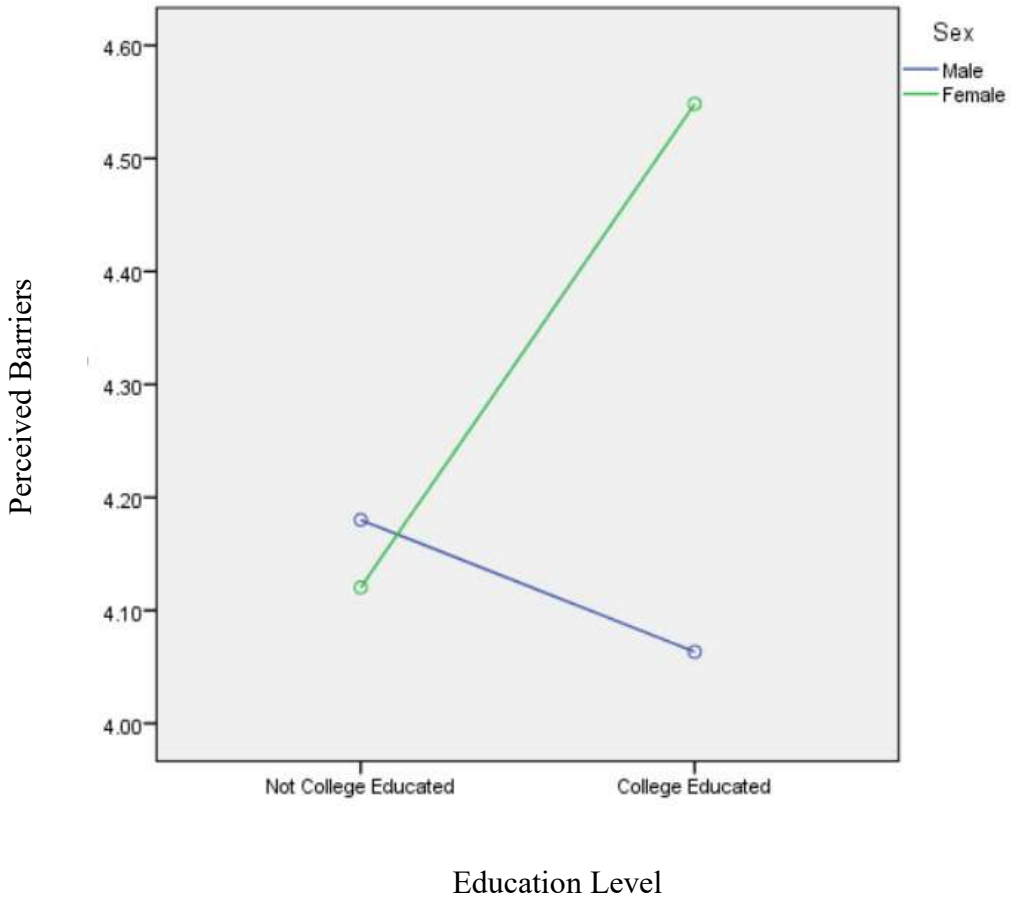
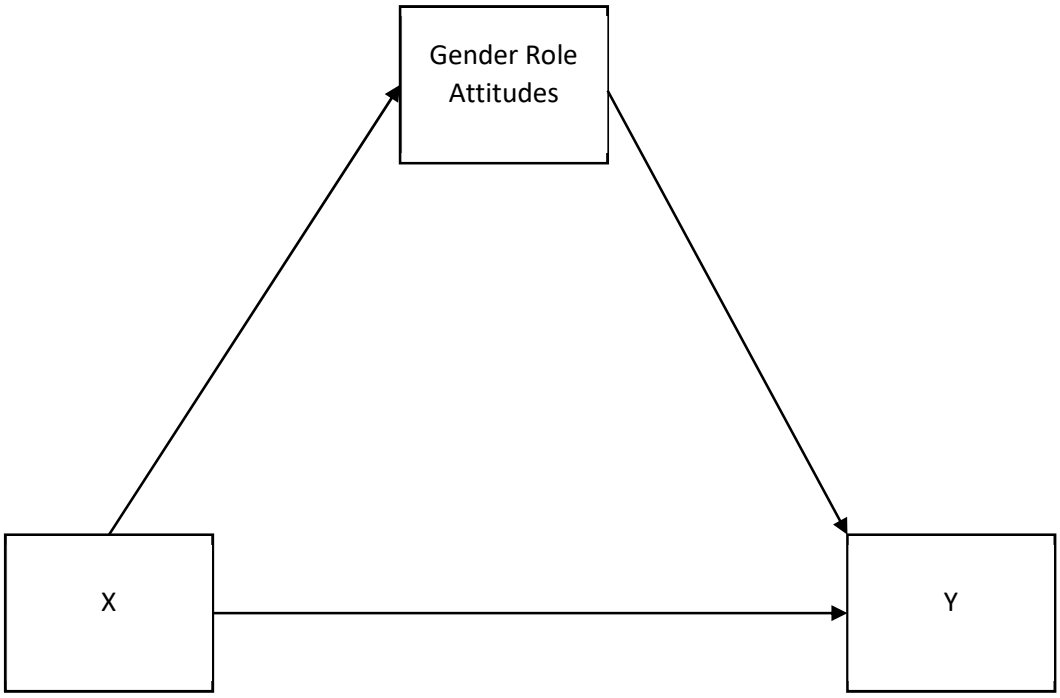

Perceived Barriers
4.60
4.50
4.40
4.30
4.20
4.10
4.00
Not College Educated
College Educated
Education Level
Sex
Male
Female

Figure 19



An illustration of a mediation model, which tests whether the mediator, gender role attitudes, mediates X on Y.

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

Dear Participant:

I am Voon Li Teng, a graduate student from the department of psychology at Cleveland State University. You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to look at beliefs toward leaders at work and job prospects. You will fill out a survey. You will also fill out a few personal information questions. You will be rewarded the amount that you have agreed to with the platform you entered this survey with. You will only be rewarded if you answer all the questions.

You do not have to participate if you don't want to. Responses will strictly be anonymous. Only the researchers will have access to the information. There are no known risks if you participate. You may stop at any time. However, you won't be rewarded if you don't complete the survey. The survey should take about 15 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Dr. Bowen at ccbowen249@gmail.com, or Voon Li Teng at litengthesis@gmail.com (or at +1 216 687 2582).

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant, you may contact the Cleveland State University Institutional Review Board at +1 216-687-3630.

Please indicate your agreement to participate by clicking on "Yes".

"I am at least 18 years old. I have read and understood this consent form. I agree to participate."

- o Yes
- o No

APPENDIX B

Knowledge Check Question - NEP

In wake of the racial riots that occurred in 1969 after the general election, the New Economic Policy (NEP) (Dasar Ekonomi Baru) in Malaysia was introduced in 1971 by the National Operations Council (NOC) in order to achieve socio-economic growth as a way of creating national unity. The policy has since undergone multiple revisions and is now known as National Development Policy (NDP).

The strategies of the policies include direct intervention from the government through the creation and implementation of specialized agencies to facilitate and assist participation of a particular ethnic group in the economy and equity ownership, specially designed rules and arrangements to assist those individuals, increase ownership through projects, and accelerated programs for education and training; which involves ethnic quotas in public education and more access to business opportunities.

Which of these groups of individuals were the policies designed to address?

- Chinese Malaysians
- Bumiputeras (Malays and other Indigenous peoples)
- Indian Malaysians
- Others
- Non-Malaysian citizens

APPENDIX C

Demographic Questionnaire

- What is your gender?
  - Male
  - Female

- What is your ethnicity?
  - Malay
  - Chinese
  - Indian
  - Indigenous
  - Other (please specify)

- What is your age?

- Please indicate your religious affiliation, if any (please select one):
  - Christian
  - Muslim
  - Buddhist
  - Hindu
  - Jewish
  - Spiritual (I believe supernatural beings exist, but I do not follow a specific religion)
  - Agostic (I'm not sure whether, or it is impossible to know whether, supernatural beings do or do not exist)
  - Atheist (I do not believe supernatural beings exist)
  - Other (please specify): _____

- What is your marital status?
  - Married
  - Single
  - Divorced
  - Widowed
  - Separated

- How many children do you have?

- What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, select the highest degree received.
  - No schooling completed
  - Primary school (Standard 1-6)
  - Secondary school (Form 1-6)

- Trade/technical/vocational training
- College diploma
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree (PhD)

- Did your mother have a paid employment while you were growing up?
  - Yes
  - No

If selected Yes…

- What was the nature of your mother's employment?
  - Full-time employment; outside of home
  - Part-time employment; outside of home
  - Full-time employment; stayed at home
  - Part-time employment; stayed at home

- The main reason your mother worked was…

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Neither Agree nor Disagree	5 Slightly Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
For financial necessity.							
Due to her own choice.							

- Are you a full-time student?
  - Yes
  - No

- What is your employment status?
  - Employed full-time
  - Employed part-time
  - No paid employment

If selected Employed full-time or employed part-time, proceed to question below.

If selected No paid employment, jump to "what are your parents' monthly personal income?"

- How many hours do you work per week?

- Please describe your work:
  - Employee for a for-profit company or business, for salary or commissions (Private)
  - Employee for a not-for-profit company or business (Private)
  - Employee of a multinational/International company or business
  - Government employee (Public)
  - Self-employed

- What position do you currently hold?
  - Service position (restaurant, cleaning)
  - Sales (retail, wholesale, B to B)
  - Technical position (plumber, cable)
  - Professional jobs (nurses, accountant, teachers)
  - Information technology/computer science
  - Laborer (construction worker, row crew)

- What is **your monthly** personal income?

- What are **your parents' monthly** personal income?

- What is your **father's** highest degree or level of school completed?
  - No schooling completed
  - Primary school (Standard 1-6)
  - Secondary school (Form 1-6)
  - Trade/technical/vocational training
  - College diploma
  - Bachelor's degree
  - Master's degree
  - Doctoral degree (PhD)

- What is your **mother's** highest degree or level of school completed?
  - No schooling completed
  - Primary school (Standard 1-6)
  - Secondary school (Form 1-6)
  - Trade/technical/vocational training
  - College diploma
  - Bachelor's degree
  - Master's degree
  - Doctoral degree (PhD)

APPENDIX D

Social Roles Questionnaire (Barber & Tucker, 2006)

*Using the percentages from 0 to 100% on the rating scale, mark your personal opinion about **how much you agree with each statement** in the blank that immediately precedes it. Remember, give your personal opinion according to how much you agree with each item. Please respond to all 13 items.*

Questions	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90 %	100 %
People can be both aggressive and nurturing regardless of sex.											
People should be treated the same regardless of their sex.											
The freedom that children are given should be determined by their age and maturity level and not by their sex.											
Tasks around the house should not be assigned by sex.											
We should stop thinking about whether people are male or female and focus on other characteristics.											
A father's major responsibility is to provide financially for his children.											
Men are more sexual than women.											
Some types of work are just not appropriate for women.											
Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up.											
Mothers should work only if necessary.											
Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys.											
Only some types of work are appropriate for both men and women.											
For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women.											

- To show that you are paying attention, please select 'Square' for this question.
    - Square
    - Circle
    - Triangle
    - Rectangle

APPENDIX E

Women as Managers Scale (Terborg, Peters, & Smith, 1977)

Using the numbers from 1 to 7 on the rating scale to the right, mark your personal opinion about each statement in the blank that immediately precedes it. Remember, give your personal opinion according to how much you agree or disagree with each item. Please respond to all 21 items.

Questions	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
It is less desirable for women than for men to have a job that requires responsibility.							
Women have the objectivity required to evaluate business situations properly.							
Challenging work is more important to men than it is to women.							
Men and Women should be given equal opportunity for participation in management training programs.							
Women have the capability to acquire the necessary skills to be successful managers.							
On the average, women managers are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals than are men.							
It is not acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men.							
The development community should someday accept women in key managerial positions.							
Society should regard work by female managers as valuable as work by male managers.							
It is acceptable for women to compete with men for top executive positions.							
The possibility of pregnancy does not make women less desirable employees than men.							
Women would no more allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior than would men.							
Problems associated with menstruation should not make women less desirable than men as employees.							
To be a successful executive, a woman does not have to sacrifice some of her femininity.							
On the average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside the home at least half time.							
Women are less capable of learning mathematical and mechanical skills than are men.							
Women are not ambitious enough to be successful in the working world.							
Women cannot be assertive in business situations that demand it.							
Women possess self-confidence required of a good leader.							
Women are not competitive enough to be successful in the working world.							
Women cannot be aggressive in business situations that demand it.							

APPENDIX F

Perception of Barriers to Employment Scale (Luzzo & McWhirter, 2001)

Using the numbers from 1 to 7 on the rating scale to the right, please respond to each statement below to the best of your ability.

Questions	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
It is difficult for me to find suitable opportunities for employment due to the demands from my family responsibilities.							
My employment opportunities are as good as anybody else's.							
My family has negative attitudes about me seeking employment.							
I feel I lack the skills to pursue my choice of employment.							
There is lack of support from my significant other to purse employment.							
There are limited employment opportunities due to my education.							
Lack of transportation prevents me from seeking employment.							
I feel I lack the necessary English skills to apply for the job I want.							
Financial pressure prevents me from pursuing my choice of employment.							

- To show that you are paying attention, select 'Blue' for this question.
    - Red
    - Blue
    - Orange
    - Purple

Are you currently employed?

If yes, skip to survey B
If no, skip to survey A

Survey A

Each of the statements below begin with "In my future career, I will probably…" Please respond to each statement according to what you think (or guess) will be true for you.

In my future career, I will probably…

Questions	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Be treated differently.							
Receive similar raises as everyone else.							
Experience negative comments.							
Have a harder time getting promoted than others.							
Be treated fairly.							
Have similar training opportunities as everyone else.							

Survey B

Each of the statements below begin with "In my current career, I have…" Please respond to each statement according to what you think is true for you.

In my current career, I have …

Questions	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Slightly Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Slightly Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Been treated differently.							
Received similar raises as everyone else.							
Experienced negative comments.							
A harder time getting promoted than others.							
Been treated fairly.							
Similar training opportunities as everyone else.							