

# Women and international strategy: preliminary results

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Mariasole Bannò - Giorgia Maria D'Allura - Emilia Filippi

## Abstract

**Framing of the research.** Although the large literature focuses separately on women in the upper echelons and firm internationalization, gender differences in international business research have received little attention. We enrich this field by adopting the liberal feminist theory to enlarge the way to study the relationship between women in the upper echelons of firms and international strategy.

**Purpose of the paper.** Our research question considers the role of women on international strategy. By relying on the liberal feminist theory we suggest that while men and women are equally capable to internationalize, women may face gendered barriers within and outside the firm, which hinder internationalization. Thus, we aim to detect if and how the (internal and external) context moderates the impact of women in the upper echelons on internationalization.

**Methodology.** To examine the relationship between the presence of women in the upper echelons and internationalization and the moderating role of the (internal and external) context, we performed an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis on a dataset of 2,861 Italian firms referring to 2017.

**Results.** Our analysis shows that when the (external and/or internal) context is non-egalitarian, women-led firms are less likely to internationalize due to the existing barriers.

**Research limitations.** The general limitation in the quantitative research design could be addressed with a deeper analysis of the characteristics of women directors. The limitation regarding observation time could be faced considering the period women have been on the board. Women's roles (e.g., CEO) could also be investigated.

**Managerial implications.** Remedial strategies should focus on the firm's development to make it more egalitarian. Moreover, public incentive programs should address impediments such as non-egalitarian attitudes or other gendered barriers.

**Originality of the paper.** We enriched the theory of international businesses by adopting the liberal feminist theory, envisioning a "feminist international business theory". We search for discrimination and/or barriers within the firm (i.e., internal context) and in the external context as they can negatively affect the effectiveness of women directors when internationalizing.

Key words: women; upper echelon; internationalization; FDI; context; empirical analysis

## 1. Introduction

This paper aims to advance our knowledge of the role of women on international strategy. We rely on the liberal feminist theory and suggest

that while men and women are equally capable of internationalising, women may face gendered barriers within and outside the firm, hindering internationalisation.

Women represent both a potential source of economic and social development (Ahl, 2006; Farrell and Hersch, 2005; Jennings and Brush, 2013) but they are underrepresented in firm's upper echelons: women were only 32% of directors in European largest firms in 2022 and 8% of chief executive officers and board directors in 2020 (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2022). In recent years, the presence of women in organizations has been considered crucial to achieving sustainable development goals (Eden and Wagstaff, 2021; Akter *et al.*, 2019). At the policy level, since 2013 the European Commission has started to provide direction to improve gender balance on boards and more efforts have been taken towards greater involvement of women during the decision-making process within firms (Berenguer *et al.*, 2016; Martín-Ugedo and Minguéz-Vera, 2014; Nielsen and Huse, 2010). Policy interventions should therefore lead to an increase in the presence of women in firms. We consider that this topic needs further development and, in particular, as management scholars, we should start to consider the influence of women on a firm's strategies.

Specifically, this paper aims to develop a deep analysis of the role of women in the internationalization strategy by adopting the liberal feminist theory (Black, 1989).

Firm internationalization has received attention as it benefits businesses at different levels (Dagnino *et al.*, 2019). It enhances organizational capabilities and generates new resources crucial to firm performance, survival and growth (Chen *et al.*, 2016; Freixanet and Rialp, 2020). The few existing studies focus on aspects such as the driving forces, the challenges faced, and the strategies adopted by women-led firms (Dean and Ford, 2017; Stead, 2017; Tlaiss, 2015). Furthermore, this still tightened but increasing literature has produced mixed findings suggesting either a negative or an insignificant relationship (Pergelova *et al.*, 2018; Karam and Zaki, 2020). Marginally gender is considered by relying on the feminist theory. To the best of our knowledge, only four studies apply them (i.e., Moreira *et al.*, 2018; Orser *et al.*, 2010; Pergelova *et al.*, 2018; Ramón-Llorens *et al.*, 2017). Then, the need for further research evidence is more than essential (Alsos *et al.*, 2013; Bullough *et al.*, 2017; Moreira *et al.*, 2019). Specifically, we aim to develop a framework that builds a bridge between the two strands of literature: international business and feminist theory. In line with liberal feminism's view, we assume that men and women are essentially the same regarding their ability to internationalize (Ahl, 2006). Still, women may face discrimination and/or gendered barriers within the firm (i.e., internal context) and in the external context, which both can act as non-egalitarian and limit them to internationalize. Consequently, while many studies focus on the barriers women face in reaching the board of directors (Grosvold, 2011), we build our rationale on liberal feminism and searching for discrimination and/or barriers within the firm (i.e., internal context) and in the external context as both can act as non-egalitarian and thus negatively affect the effectiveness of women directors. Every culture aspires

to egalitarianism (Siegel *et al.*, 2011), defined as “the belief that all people are of equal worth and should be treated equally in society” (Schwartz, 2001, p. 65). Still, evidence reveals that this is not the case (Gundlach and Sammartino, 2019). We believe that all the identified moderating factors in the relationship between women in the upper echelons and firm internationalization (e.g., sector, dimension, and country) should instead be considered in light of the liberal feminist theory and therefore regarded as gendered barriers.

To reach our goal, we conduct a theoretical review of the relationship between women in the upper echelons and firm internationalization, adopting the lens of feminist theory and providing a set of two hypotheses that will be empirically tested on a sample of 2,861 Italian firms. Our findings confirm our rationale and demonstrate that women-led firms are less likely to internationalise when the external and/or internal contexts are non-egalitarian. Our contribution goes to advancing the understanding of strategic decisions related to internationalization, providing immediate applicability to managerial issues and policy recommendations.

## 2. Theoretical framework

### 2.1 *The missed link between women in upper echelons and firm internationalization*

The presence and the role of women inside firms will increase due to the changes and the supportive policy suggestions that are taking place in the last decades. Consequently, the management field needs to advance on this topic, considering women's role in the strategic decision process. Instead, how women in the upper echelons influence firm internationalization has been under-researched and the few studies are purely phenomenon-driven without a theoretical approach. Furthermore, existing studies have not produced consistent results (Orser *et al.*, 2010; Amoros *et al.*, 2016; Welch *et al.*, 2008) despite generally finding a negative or no impact (e.g., Berenguer *et al.*, 2016; Watkins-Fassler and Rodríguez-Ariza, 2019). However, few existing studies focus on light forms of internationalisation, such as exporting.

According to many studies, women entrepreneurs are associated with a lower internationalization propensity (e.g., Alves *et al.*, 2017; Giotopoulos *et al.*, 2017; Marques, 2019; Nissan *et al.*, 2012) and intensity (e.g., Berenguer *et al.*, 2016; Giraldez and Berenguer Cárceles, 2016; Westhead *et al.*, 2001). On the contrary, other studies find no impact (e.g., Mohan, 2019; Ramón-Llorens *et al.*, 2017; Zimmerman and Brouthers, 2012). Indeed, the gender of the entrepreneur is not the main determinant of internationalization (Grondin and Schaefer, 1995; Williams, 2013) but it affects internationalization only indirectly via other factors (Karam and Zaki, 2020; Marques, 2015).

Other figures (i.e., women managers and directors) have received further less attention in the literature, and again, the results are mixed. Turning to women directors, their presence negatively affects the propensity

to internationalize (Bordean and Borza, 2013; Lukason and Vissak, 2020). However, this negative relationship disappears when women directors take advantage of network advice (Idris and Saridakis, 2020). The presence of a women CEO also reduces the propensity to internationalize (W. S. Lee *et al.*, 2016). Focusing on internationalization intensity, while according to some studies, it is negatively affected by the presence of women on the board of directors (Bordean and Borza, 2013), other studies find opposite results. For example, according to Rivas (2012), firms with a higher presence of women directors are more likely to internationalize than firms with fewer women on boards; Berenguer *et al.* (2016) find that women directors do not impact international intensity; according to Lukason and Vissak (2020), the level of internationalization between women- and men-led firms is not significantly different.

Compared to export, the heavier forms of internationalization such as foreign direct investment have received even less attention. While Niñerola *et al.* (2016) found that gender diversity of top management teams increases the likelihood of success of the investment, Rashid (2020) demonstrates that women directors do not significantly impact foreign equity ownership.

Concluding, it seems that a pure phenomenon-driven approach has degenerated into mere empiricism. To advance theoretically on this topic, we aim to provide a framework to interpret the relationship between women in the upper echelons of firms and the decision to internationalise.

## 2.2 Towards a feminist approach in international business

Moving to analyse how international business has considered women in the upper echelons, we have a surprising result. Until now, no theory has adequately captured firm performance's gendering and gender differences in internationalization. Uppsala model of incremental internationalization and Dunning's OLI paradigm and "eclectic theory" (Dunning, 2015), later the resource-based theories of the firm (Buckley and Casson, 1976), recently "dynamic capabilities" (Barney, 1991) and related rationales that describe firm internationalization (Jones and Coviello, 2005) are mute concerning the influence of women in upper echelon positions. To cover this gap, we propose to adopt the liberal feminist theory.

First of all, feminism refers mainly to "a system of values that challenges male dominance and advocates social, political, and economic equity of women and men in society" (Riger, 2002, p. 731); thus, what causes feminism is the identification of women's subordination in society and the need and the aspiration to put an end to this situation (Calás *et al.*, 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2019). In particular liberal feminist theory states that men and women are equal as they are endowed with the same rational capacities (Black, 1989). However, according to society, men and women are not equal and societal incidences of women's subordination result from discrimination and/or structural barriers (Byrne, 2010). Indeed, the differences between the actions of men and women found in the literature are not innate characteristics, but rather the result of fewer opportunities and gendered barriers (Ahl, 2006). Following liberal feminism, we posit that women realize their full potential less frequently because they are

deprived of essential educational opportunities, excluded from key financial networks or employed in lower-paying jobs (Verheul and Thurik, 2001). A growing literature in experimental research demonstrates the influence of environmental factors on women's competitiveness and that women are more sensitive to context (Amore *et al.*, 2014).

Furthermore, societies reveal common stereotyping practices that may generate significant gendered barriers (Eagly and Karau, 2002). A stereotype is "a belief about a group of individuals" (Kanahara, 2006) and, in our specific case, a stereotype is a widely shared belief about men's and women's innate characteristics that reveal gender discrimination regarding what it means to be a woman or a man upper echelon in society. Evidence associated with women and men stereotypes is abundant: people believe that each gender has typical-and divergent-traits and behaviours (Diekmann and Eagly, 2000; Powell, 2018). These beliefs about gender pertain to communal and agentic attributes (Eagly, 1987). Communal characteristics describe a concern with the welfare of other people-for example, affectionate, helpful, kind, and sympathetic- and are typically women attributes (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Agentic characteristics describe an assertive, controlling, and confident tendency -for example, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, independent, and self-confident- and are typically men's attributes (Wajcman, 2013). Both beliefs are the source of prejudice that we consider relevant to improve our understanding of the relationship between women in the upper echelons and firm internationalization.

### 2.3 Hypotheses development

For a long time, international business studies have looked at the external environment of the firm and its internal structure as they impact its international development (Buckley and Casson, 2021). In the same vein, research regarding the upper echelon has considered both the internal structure of the firm and its external environment, as considering them separately is misleading. By integrating the feminist theory, we believe that the institutional context both of the firm (i.e., internal context) and of the country of origin (i.e., external context) may influence internationalization by moderating the role of women (Karam and Zaki, 2020). Numerous studies focus on the discrimination affecting women in management (Powell, 2018). Similarly, in the case of firm internationalization, we believe that women in the upper echelons face barriers both from the internal and external contexts that impede them from realizing their full potential. This paper focuses on non-egalitarian contexts, i.e., men-oriented and patriarchal contexts in which differences between genders are considered pervasive and significant. In these contexts, gender differences are more accentuated; on the contrary, in egalitarian contexts, these differences are less marked (Wood and Eagly, 2002). We evaluate how women in the upper echelons pursue an internationalization strategy when operating in an environment characterized by gendered beliefs and relations (Jennings and Brush, 2013). Specifically, we consider both the influence of the external and the internal contexts on their internationalization strategy.

### 2.3.1 External context

The economic behaviour of firms is affected by the external context (Gimenez and Calabrò, 2018), which refers to the country of origin and aims to frame the peculiarities of a specific area in terms of the cultural barriers embedded in its history (Naldi *et al.*, 2021). The traditional and non-egalitarian perception of women's role in patriarchal society generates a less favourable social climate concerning women in the upper echelon, discriminatory treatment by the state administration and/or reduced access to resources (Winn, 2005). In line with this view, structural barriers in the economy prevent women from access to markets or resources necessary for entrepreneurship because they are not listened to (Brush *et al.*, 2004). Evidence in this regard is abundant. Bannò *et al.* (2019) analyse how lenders' stereotyped view of women in the boardroom affects firms' availability of external financing as the outcome of the social construction in a specific institutional context. Access to financing is crucial in the case of firm internationalization as capital is a fundamental source in pursuing this strategy (Winn, 2005). It has been proved that exporting ventures owned by women face greater difficulties than men-led ventures in accessing capital (I. H. Lee *et al.*, 2016). Overcoming these obstacles is extremely important since access to funding is particularly beneficial for export expansion in women-led firms (Karam and Zaki, 2020). Gendered barriers also affect other aspects, including firm competitiveness and performance. For example, preferential treatment favouring men-led firms regarding the timing and delivery of orders may negatively impact the competitiveness of women-led firms (Weiler and Bernasek, 2001). In addition, being known is extremely important for attracting resources efficiently and economically, successfully operating in a competitive environment (Buttner and Moore, 1997), and participating in business associations, which is critical for accessing information and training and starting new collaborations (Gimenez and Calabrò, 2018). Regarding firm performance, Amore *et al.* (2014) show that the positive effect of women in the upper echelons on firm performance is reduced when the firm is located in geographic areas characterized by gender prejudices.

Based on the above, the following hypothesis that relies on the feminist theory is advanced:

*Hypothesis 1: External context moderates the impact of gender on internationalization, so that for non-egalitarian external contexts, women-led firms are less likely to internationalize than men-led firms.*

### 2.3.2 Internal context

Internal context refers to the features of the organizational form and its governance. To reach strategic goals, firms must adapt the internal structure (e.g. labour division, hierarchy, skills acquisition) (Chandler, 1977). For example, the transition from the small to the big stage emanates from factors such as increased professionalization and formalization. In an open, innovative, heterogeneous and dynamic environment, those

organizational futures state for an egalitarian context. In these contexts, where the barriers as mentioned earlier do not exist, the strategic choices of women in the upper echelons can be realized. Instead, in non-egalitarian contexts women risk not being listened to as they belong to a minority group. They thus risk being a symbol without visibility and power, not receiving recognition for their contribution (neither for a formal position in the firm) and, in short, not receiving the same consideration as their men counterparts.

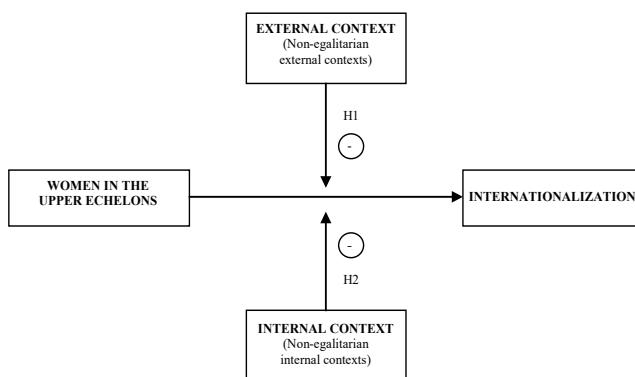
Gendered barriers generated from the internal context are the result of several causes: gender discrimination and stereotypes, undervaluation of women's work, gender-based labour market segmentation, a culture that leads to treating men and women unequally, and finally, the issue of work-life balance (Eden and Wagstaff, 2021; Eden and Gupta, 2017). The non-egalitarian internal context also stems from the complexity generated by multiple causes, the lack of a dominant solution and complex linkages with other social issues. The non-equal internal context may manifest divergent views on the problem, no agreed definition, and large differences in values, underlying beliefs and interpretations of outcomes (Schmitt *et al.*, 2017).

Based on the above, the following hypothesis that relies on the feminist theory is advanced:

*Hypothesis 2: Internal context moderates the impact of gender on internationalization, so that for non-egalitarian internal contexts, women-led firms are less likely to internationalize than men-led firms.*

The theoretical arguments and expectations are captured in the framework shown in Figure 1.

*Fig. 1: Impact of women in the upper echelons on internationalization: a conceptual framework*



Source: our elaboration



### 3. Empirical analysis

#### 3.1 Data and sample

The Italian context is suitable for this analysis as Italian outward foreign direct investments (FDIs) are about 24% of GDP in 2019 and Italy ranks 13th worldwide for the amount of FDI in 2019 (OECD, 2020). Italy has therefore a significant presence in foreign countries (Botero *et al.*, 2015; De Massis *et al.*, 2018).

Data for the analysis, referring to 2017, are derived from three databases: Reprint, Aida (Bureau Van Dijk), and Espacenet. The Reprint provides a census of Italian firms that have made outward FDIs since 1986. It was employed to define the variables of internationalization. The Aida database, which contains information on Italian companies, was used to collect financial data and details on the composition of the board of directors - specifically, the presence of women directors. Finally, the Espacenet database provides information from approximately 90 million patent documents worldwide, including information about inventions and technical developments from 1836. Espacenet provided us with the number of patents owned by each firm.

The sample for this study consists of 2,861 Italian firms, of which 1,600 are multinational enterprises, and 1,261 are domestic firms. Firms were selected randomly; therefore, each firm had the same probability of being selected. As an additional check, the representativeness of the sample was evaluated:  $\chi^2$  tests on the distribution of firms based on their mode of entry in the foreign market, effort (i.e., number of FDIs), and geographical dispersion revealed a nonsignificant difference between the selected sample and the entire population.

#### 3.2 Variables and Econometric Models

**Dependent variable.** The dependent variable Internationalization is measured as the number of total FDIs made by the parent firm in foreign markets (Dunning and Lundan, 2008; Alessandri *et al.*, 2018). We acknowledge that FDIs are just one of the possible ways to go abroad; however, FDIs are a better proxy for international business than alternative options such as export (Arregle *et al.*, 2017). FDIs are a demanding mode of internationalization because they require higher investment costs and committed human resources. They, therefore, require more difficult and critical strategic choices. The selection of FDIs as a dependent variable should therefore provide a clearer picture of the impact of women directors on strategic decisions when internationalizing.

To identify the FDIs to be considered, an evaluation based on economic materiality rather than legal-administrative criteria was done, thus excluding FDIs carried out by financial institutions. However, intermediate, difficult-to-classify forms exist, such as private equity and merchant bank funds, which operate based on targeted business strategies, acquiring controlling interest in firms belonging to selected industries and directly intervening in their management. These investments were included in our analysis.



Instead, we excluded interest acquired from investment funds, private equity funds and merchant banks as part of management buy-outs, and when there was no direct participation in the management of the investee firm (for additional details, see Mariotti and Mutinelli, 2017). Finally, as many firms do not internationalize, this dependent variable takes the value zero for domestic firms and positive values for multinational ones.

**Independent Variables.** Consistent with our logic, we operationalize women in the upper echelons through the key dimension of the number of women directors (Bear *et al.*, 2010; Ben-Amar *et al.*, 2017).

Further, considering that in contexts in which women operate there may be gendered barriers related to cultural and personal factors (e.g., lack of respect by men and refusal to do business with women), we consider the role that the context exerts on women-led firm internationalization (Gundlach and Sammartino, 2019). Specifically, the external context refers to the country of origin and aims to frame the peculiarities of a specific area in terms of cultural barriers embedded in its history, traditions, value and informal norms (Dacin *et al.*, 2002). In our paper, we exploit a unique feature of the Italian context: the great differences across Italian regions regarding gender roles. Recent studies show the non-egalitarian context of Southern Italy where a traditional, patriarchal, and men-oriented view is the predominant: the woman is traditionally seen as the homemaker while the man is the breadwinner. On the contrary, in Northern Italy, this belief is not dominant (Amore *et al.*, 2014; Wright *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, the European Quality of Government Index (Charron *et al.*, 2019) identifies Southern Italy as the worst in Europe regarding institutional quality. Thus, the variable External context takes value one if the firm is located in Southern Italy, and zero otherwise. Instead, the internal context refers to the firm size of the firm considering that big firms present a higher level of formalization (such as procedure, tasks and role), which is evaluated as a measure of egalitarian context. The dummy variable Internal context (equal to one if the firm is a small or medium one) refers to the increase of the level of internal process formalization that relates to the increase of firm size (from small to big). Both of those aspects create the conditions for an egalitarian attitude reached by a small and medium firm (low) and a big firm (high) (Orser *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, in large firms, gender stereotypes might be less frequent and policies favouring careers may be adopted (Amore *et al.*, 2014).

**Control Variables.** In line with previous studies, we control for several firm-specific characteristics. Managerial and well-established firms are more experienced and prone to collecting information, which is essential for starting an effective expansion process. Firm size and firm age were included as control variables as they proxy for organizational complexity and experience and tend to be positively correlated with firm internationalization (Camisón and Villar-López, 2010; Dunning and Lundan, 2008). Firm size is measured as the total of domestic sales (Dillen *et al.*, 2014) while Firm age as the number of years since the firm foundation (Hölzl, 2014). Board dimension captures the number of members. Innovation is treated with a dummy variable equal to one if the firm holds at least a patent. Innovation (firm's R&D output) proxies

for accumulated knowledge (Kafouros *et al.*, 2008; Kotabe *et al.*, 2002), which is a well-known stimulus for internationalization (Guadalupe *et al.*, 2012). We control for Return on equity, Return on assets, Return on investments and Productivity (measured as the value added per employee), as firms with high profitability and productivity tend to internationalize more (Lu and Beamish, 2001). Leverage, equal to the ratio between debt and equity, and Financial independence index, measured as the ratio of equity and capital investment, were included as control variables given that both the availability and the cost of financial resources can hinder firm international growth (Wiklund *et al.*, 2009). Risk, computed as the standard deviation of return on assets in the last five years (Miller and Chen, 2004), was also included. Following Alessandri *et al.* (2018) and Daniel *et al.* (2004), three measures of slack resources were considered: Available slack resources, equal to cash flow on assets (Jain and Nag, 1998); Recoverable slack resources, given by capital investments on sales (Henderson and Fredrickson, 1996); and Potential slack resources, equal to long term debt on assets (Harrison *et al.*, 1993). Slack resources can affect upper echelons' intentions by offering them room to explore new alternatives abroad and by encouraging complacency. Finally, since the type of industry affects both growth dynamics and the choice to pursue internationalization (Villalonga and Amit, 2010), five industry dummies were included based on the Pavitt Taxonomy (Bogliacino and Pianta, 2016): Pavitt science based, Pavitt specialised suppliers, Pavitt scale and information intensive, Pavitt suppliers dominated industries, and Pavitt other.

Table 1 reports the sources and definitions of the variables used in the empirical analysis.

Econometric Models. To test our hypotheses, we develop three econometric models, which assess the separate impact of Women directors (Base Model) and the effect of a moderating term in which the variables proxying Internal context (Model 1) and External context (Model 2) moderate Women directors. Three different models can therefore be used:

*Base Model:*

*Internationalization = f(Women directors; External context; Internal context; Control variables)*

*Model 1:*

*Internationalization = f(Women directors; Women directors X External context; External context; Internal context; Control variables)*

*Model 2:*

*Internationalization = f(Women Directors; Women directors X Internal context; External context; Internal context; Control variables)*

To test our hypotheses, we perform ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis (Greene, 2003).

Tab.1: Definitions and sources of the variables used in the empirical analysis

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Giorgia Maria D'Allura  
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| Variable                               | Definition  | Source    |
|--|---|-----------|
| Dependent variables                    |   |           |
| Internationalization                   | Number of total FDIs made by the parent firm  | REPRINT   |
| Independent variables                  |   |           |
| Women directors                        | Number of women directors   | AIDA      |
| External context                       | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is located in the South of Italy and 0 otherwise                              | AIDA      |
| Internal context                       | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is a small or medium firm and 0 otherwise                                     | AIDA      |
| Control variables                      |   |           |
| Firm size                              | Domestic sales  | AIDA      |
| Firm age                               | Number of years since firm foundation   | AIDA      |
| Innovation                             | Dummy variable equal to one if the firm holds at least a patent and 0 otherwise                                     | ESPACENET |
| Board dimension                        | Number of directors (men and women)   | AIDA      |
| Return on equity                       | Net income on equity  | AIDA      |
| Return on assets                       | Net income on assets  | AIDA      |
| Return on investment                   | Net income on investment  | AIDA      |
| Productivity                           | Value added per employee  | AIDA      |
| Leverage                               | Debts on equity   | AIDA      |
| Financial independence index           | Ratio of equity and capital investments   | AIDA      |
| Risk                                   | Standard deviation of return on assets on the last five years   | AIDA      |
| Available slack resources              | Cash flow on assets   | AIDA      |
| Recoverable slack resources            | Capital investments on sales  | AIDA      |
| Potential slack resources              | Long terms debts on assents   | AIDA      |
| Pavitt science based                   | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm operates in a Pavitt science based industry and 0 otherwise                   | AIDA      |
| Pavitt specialised suppliers           | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm operates in a Pavitt specialised suppliers industry and 0 otherwise           | AIDA      |
| Pavitt scale and information intensive | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm operates in a Pavitt scale and information intensive industry and 0 otherwise | AIDA      |
| Pavitt suppliers dominated             | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm operates in a Pavitt suppliers dominated industry and 0 otherwise             | AIDA      |
| Pavitt other                           | Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm operates in an industry not listed above and 0 otherwise                      | AIDA      |

Source: our elaboration

## 4. Results of the empirical analysis

### 4.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics for the whole sample are reported in Panel A of Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the two subsamples with and without women directors are reported in Panel B of Table 2.

The dataset used to conduct this research comprises 2,861 Italian firms where only 43% register at least one woman among the board members. 1,454 out of 2,861 firms (around 54%) are multinational; on average, each firm carried out more than 5 FDIs. Firms with women directors made more FDIs (about 7) than those without women directors (about 4).

Tab. 2: Descriptive statistics

| Variable                               | Panel A<br>Full sample<br>(2,861 firms) |                |            |                   | Panel B  |                |   |               |                |
|--|---|----------------|------------|-------------------|--|----------------|---|---------------|----------------|
|  | Mean/%                                  | Std. Dev.      | Min        | Max               | Firms with women directors<br>(1,226 firms, 43%) |                | Firms without women directors<br>(1,635 firms, 57%) |               |                |
| Internationalization                   | 5.29                                    | 17.61          | 0.00       | 462.00            | Mean/%   | 7.01           | 19.25   | 4.00          | 16.17          |
| Women directors                        | 0.79                                    | 1.26           | 0.00       | 11.00             | Mean/%   | 1.85           | 1.33  | 0.00          | 0.00           |
| External context                       | 21%                                     | 0.40           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 14%            | 0.35  | 26%           | 0.44           |
| Internal context                       | 83%                                     | 0.38           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 78%            | 0.41  | 87%           | 0.34           |
| Firm size                              | 106,541,210.35                          | 872,937,695.33 | 1,026.00   | 28,983,564,000.00 | Mean/%   | 160,696,338.88 | 1,244,197,676.47                                    | 65,933,144.56 | 411,546,905.29 |
| Firm age                               | 35.60                                   | 23.28          | 3.00       | 190.00            | Mean/%   | 39.00          | 23.81   | 33.05         | 22.55          |
| Innovation                             | 0.50                                    | 0.50           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 0.54           | 0.50  | 0.47          | 0.50           |
| Board dimension                        | 4.05                                    | 3.46           | 1.00       | 34.00             | Mean/%   | 5.42           | 3.97  | 3.02          | 2.59           |
| Return on equity                       | 8%                                      | 19.14          | -143.89    | 108.55            | Mean/%   | 8%             | 17.74   | 8%            | 20.13          |
| Return on assets                       | 4%                                      | 9.19           | -60.55     | 78.80             | Mean/%   | 4%             | 8.42  | 4%            | 9.72           |
| Return on investment                   | 6%                                      | 8.05           | -29.59     | 29.96             | Mean/%   | 6%             | 8.17  | %             | 7.96           |
| Productivity                           | 77,912.56                               | 54,130.80      | -49,300.00 | 496,090.00        | Mean/%   | 82,153.23      | 57,334.77   | 74,732.70     | 51,386.64      |
| Leverage                               | 5.11                                    | 19.85          | -11.00     | 300.00            | Mean/%   | 4.46           | 18.15   | 5.60          | 21.03          |
| Financial independence index           | 37.57                                   | 24.24          | -44.63     | 100.00            | Mean/%   | 39.70          | 23.80   | 35.98         | 24.46          |
| Risk                                   | 3.98                                    | 6.01           | 0.01       | 50.00             | Mean/%   | 3.50           | 5.25  | 4.35          | 6.49           |
| Available slack resources              | 0.05                                    | 0.10           | -1.00      | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 0.06           | 0.09  | 0.05          | 0.11           |
| Recoverable slack resources            | 8.13                                    | 41.95          | 0.00       | 500.00            | Mean/%   | 6.93           | 35.69   | 9.02          | 46.07          |
| Potential slack resources              | 0.13                                    | 0.16           | 0.00       | 1.29              | Mean/%   | 0.13           | 0.16  | 0.13          | 0.17           |
| Pavitt science based                   | 7%                                      | 0.26           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 8%             | 0.27  | 7%            | 0.26           |
| Pavitt specialised suppliers           | 32%                                     | 0.46           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 32%            | 0.47  | 31%           | 0.46           |
| Pavitt scale and information intensive | 11%                                     | 0.32           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 12%            | 0.32  | 11%           | 0.31           |
| Pavitt suppliers dominated             | 41%                                     | 0.49           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 41%            | 0.49  | 41%           | 0.49           |
| Pavitt other                           | 8%                                      | 0.28           | 0.00       | 1.00              | Mean/%   | 7%             | 0.25  | 9%            | 0.29           |

Source: our elaboration

In the full sample, the average number of directors (men and women) is 4.05, of which 0.79 are women. Firms with women directors tend to have larger boards of directors (with 5.42 directors on average, of which 1.85 are women) than firms without women directors (with 3.02 directors on average).

In the full sample, 21% of the firms are located in Southern Italy, while 83% are SMEs. Similar percentages of firms without women directors are located in Southern Italy (26%) and are SMEs (87%). Instead, firms with women directors tend to be located in other parts of the country (only 14% of them operate in Southern Italy) and to be larger (78% of them are SMEs).

Regarding size, firms without women directors are not surprisingly smaller than firms in the full sample and firms with women directors. The firm age in the full sample and in the two subsamples is similar and between 33 and 39 years.

In the full sample, firms own, on average, only 0.5 patents. On average, firms without women directors own fewer patents (0.47) than firms with women directors (0.54).

The average values in terms of returns (i.e., ROE, ROA and ROI) are almost similar in the sample of firms with women directors and in the one without them. Instead, firms with women directors tend to have higher productivity and financial independence and are less risky. Regarding slack resources, their amount is similar in the samples of firms with and without women directors; however, firms without women directors tend to have higher recoverable slack resources.

The distribution of firms in the full sample and in the two subsamples in the different industries is similar. In all samples, most firms operate in a Pavitt suppliers dominated industry (41%) or in a Pavitt specialised suppliers industry (31-32%). Another 11-12% of firms are active in a Pavitt scale and information intensive industry. The remaining firms operate in a Pavitt science based industry or in a Pavitt other industry.

The correlation matrix, available upon request, shows the acceptable correlation indexes (Greene, 2003).

#### *4.2 Empirical findings*

Table 3 shows the regression results for the three models developed, while Figure 2 reports interaction graphs.

Women directors has a positive and significant coefficient in all models ( $b = 0.6435$ ,  $p < .05$  in Base Model;  $b = 0.8383$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 1;  $b = 2.0829$ ;  $p < .01$  in Model 2), while Internal context has a negative and significant coefficient in all models ( $b = -9.4741$ ,  $p < .01$  in Base Model;  $b = -9.4525$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 1;  $b = -6.9620$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 2). External context is not significant in any model. The internal context reduces the positive effect of women directors.

Model 1 reports the interaction effects of Women directors and External context. The regression results reveal a negative and significant coefficient ( $b = -2.0562$ ;  $p < .01$ ), providing strong support for Hypothesis 1 as the effect of women in the upper echelons may be lower in cultures

characterized by discrimination against women. Thus, our results confirm that women in the upper echelons experience discrimination from a non-egalitarian external context, which impedes them to internationalize. Figure 2 Left Panel depicts the effect.

Tab. 3: Empirical results

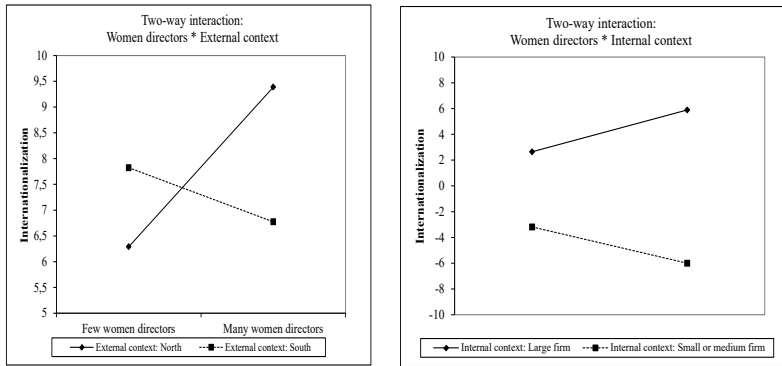
| <i>Dependent variable: Internationalization</i> | <b>Base Model</b>       | <b>Model 1<br/>External context</b> | <b>Model 2<br/>Internal context</b> |
|---|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Women directors                                 | 0.6435 **<br>(0.2698)   | 0.8383 ***<br>(0.2791)              | 2.0829 ***<br>(0.3811)              |
| Women directors * External context              |                         | -2.0562 ***<br>(0.7643)             |                                     |
| Women directors * Internal context              |                         |                                     | -2.4069 ***<br>(0.4522)             |
| External context                                | -0.0017<br>(0.7704)     | 0.9492<br>(0.8468)                  | -0.3918<br>(0.7702)                 |
| Internal context                                | -9.4741 ***<br>(0.8297) | -9.4525 ***<br>(0.8288)             | -6.9620 ***<br>(0.9511)             |
| Firm size                                       | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)  | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)              | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)              |
| Firm age  | 0.0821 ***<br>(0.0132)  | 0.0822 ***<br>(0.0132)              | 0.0815 ***<br>(0.0132)              |
| Innovation                                      | 1.9065 ***<br>(0.6086)  | 1.8885 ***<br>(0.6080)              | 1.9320 ***<br>(0.6057)              |
| Board dimension                                 | 0.3942 ***<br>(0.1102)  | 0.3895 ***<br>(0.1101)              | 0.3312 ***<br>(0.1103)              |
| Return on equity                                | 0.0316 *<br>(0.0181)    | 0.0303 *<br>(0.0181)                | 0.0290<br>(0.0180)                  |
| Return on assets                                | 0.0257<br>(0.0503)      | 0.0277<br>(0.0502)                  | 0.0235<br>(0.0500)                  |
| Return on investment                            | -0.1816 ***<br>(0.0405) | -0.1831 ***<br>(0.0405)             | -0.1830 ***<br>(0.0403)             |
| Productivity                                    | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)  | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)              | 0.0000 ***<br>(0.0000)              |
| Leverage  | -0.0063<br>(0.0143)     | -0.0053<br>(0.0143)                 | -0.0036<br>(0.0142)                 |
| Financial independence index                    | 0.0023<br>(0.0132)      | 0.0021<br>(0.0131)                  | 0.0045<br>(0.0131)                  |
| Risk  | -0.0293<br>(0.0467)     | -0.0266<br>(0.0467)                 | -0.0382<br>(0.0465)                 |
| Available slack resources                       | -6.7996<br>(4.3674)     | -6.9165<br>(4.3629)                 | -6.6343<br>(4.3467)                 |
| Recoverable slack resources                     | 0.0223 ***<br>(0.0067)  | 0.0224 ***<br>(0.0067)              | 0.0213 ***<br>(0.0066)              |
| Potential slack resources                       | 1.6453<br>(1.8015)      | 1.4665<br>(1.8008)                  | 1.2309<br>(1.7946)                  |
| Pavitt science based                            | -1.6529<br>(1.4013)     | -1.5332<br>(1.4004)                 | -1.5456<br>(1.3947)                 |
| Pavitt specialised suppliers                    | -1.8940 *<br>(1.0999)   | -1.8333 *<br>(1.0989)               | -1.7733<br>(1.0948)                 |
| Pavitt scale and information intensive          | -1.7151<br>(1.2635)     | -1.7056<br>(1.2621)                 | -1.4310<br>(1.2586)                 |
| Pavitt suppliers dominated                      | -1.3961<br>(1.0448)     | -1.3620<br>(1.0437)                 | -1.2056<br>(1.0404)                 |
| Intercept                                       | 7.2680 ***<br>(1.6208)  | 7.0482 ***<br>(1.6211)              | 5.5466 ***<br>(1.6452)              |
| Observations                                    | 2861                    | 2861                                | 2861                                |
| R <sup>2</sup> / R <sup>2</sup> adjusted        | 0.330 / 0.325           | 0.332 / 0.327                       | 0.337 / 0.331                       |

\* $p < 0.1$  \*\* $p < 0.05$  \*\*\* $p < 0.01$

Source: our elaboration

Fig. 2: Interaction effects

Mariasole Bannò  
 Giorgia Maria D'Allura  
 Emilia Filippi  
 Women and international  
 strategy: preliminary results



Source: our elaboration

Hypothesis 2 is confirmed as the interaction effect of Women directors and Internal context reveals a negative and significant coefficient ( $b = -2.4069$ ;  $p < .01$  in Model 2). Thus, our results confirm that women in the upper echelons experience discrimination from the internal context and an internal barrier to internationalization. Figure 2 Right Panel depicts the effect.

The inclusion of control variables also yields interesting results. Board dimension, Firm size and Firm age are positive and significant in all models (coefficients range from 0.000 to 0.3942 and are all significant at  $p < .01$  in all models). Innovation is also positive and significantly different from zero in all models ( $b = 1.9065$ ,  $p < .01$  in Base Model;  $b = 1.8885$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 1;  $b = 1.9320$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 2); innovation allows the firm to develop new products or services to sell internationally. The variables measuring firm profitability matter regarding internationalization except for Return on Assets, which is never significant. Firm productivity has instead a null but significant impact on internationalization. Financial independence index and Leverage are not significant in any model. The same is true for variables measuring risk, available and potential slack resources. Instead, Recoverable slack resources are positive and significant in all models ( $b = 0.0223$ ,  $p < .01$  in Base Model;  $b = 0.0224$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 1;  $b = 0.0213$ ,  $p < .01$  in Model 2). This result confirms that financial resources availability is a basic requirement for developing a business outside national borders. Finally, some of the coefficients associated with the industry dummies are significantly different from zero in some models.

#### 4.3 Robustness check

We made many robustness checks and ran other additional models. First, we consider alternative measures of the presence of women in the upper echelons (e.g., the proportion of women), finding results consistent with previous ones. Second, other proxies for internal context have been considered in the analysis and have yielded the same results. Specifically, we considered innovation, which proxies for an open-mind and inclusive



internal context, and firm age, which gives an outline of the formalization of the internal context. Their coefficients indicate the role of the internal institutional context in moderating the impact of women in the upper echelons on internationalization. Third, we estimated the impact of women in the upper echelons on internationalization separately for small and large firms and the South and other regions. The coefficients report coherent results to our main regressions.

Due to the presence of both domestic and international firms, we made a Heckman selection model to check for possible selection bias, again finding the same results as the proposed Models in the second step.

In conclusion, all the alternative models produced the same results proposed in the paper.

Finally, endogeneity might not represent a major issue in our study because our hypotheses involve interaction effects. Recent advances in econometrics by Bun and Harrison (2019) report that endogeneity is minimized when interest results involve interactions. Our regressions are thus safeguarded against endogeneity.

## 5. Discussion and conclusion

Our paper aimed to develop a deep analysis of the role of women in the internationalization strategy by adopting the liberal feminist theory. Our paper has theoretical and empirical contributions and managerial and policy implications.

At the theoretical level, our first contribution is the framework proposed to create a theoretical bridge between the management literature and the feminist theory to develop our understanding and provide insights to overcome the stereotypical idea of women in management (D'Allura *et al.*, 2022). First, we provide evidence that literature on women in the upper echelons and international business is well-developed apart. The first consequence of this development is an extreme lack of coverage of when and how women internationalize. Further, our review underlines that some issues developed in feminist theories may influence the barriers women in the upper echelons of international business face. Building our rationale from the insights of the liberal feminist theory, we argue that men and women have the same capacity. Still, they face different barriers as a result of social construction. This advancement at the theoretical level introduces the role of the internal and external contexts. Thus, bridging feminist theory and management theory is useful to grasp the moderating effect of some aspects that are the clue argument on those and then advance the management theory using an interdisciplinary approach.

Then, we empirically demonstrate that internationalization is not necessarily related to whether the upper echelons are men or women. Still, there is instead a complex structure relating gender with its context of social configuration, class structure, and politics. As such, our results augment recent discussions of the contexts under which women in the upper echelons can be more effective in internationalization strategy (Amore *et al.*, 2014) and take a different voice on this topic. There is no

gendered competence. Prior contributions risk increasing discrimination. The risk arises when considering different firms' strategies due to women's or men's characteristics. Our effort in this paper aims to inspire further theoretical and empirical investigation to create a new basis of knowledge more inclusive of the feminist theory to appreciate the value of diversity and not the increase of stereotypes.

Moving on to managerial and policy implications, we argue that, while the fact that women's under-representation in top management or boards of directors may be due to their choice than the absence of opportunity (Winn, 2005), their capacity to internationalize is certainly not a choice but on the contrary the possibility to be heard. Specifically, if gender differences in internationalization are associated with the internal context, remedial strategies might best focus on the firm's development to make it more egalitarian. Otherwise, public incentive programs might need to be targeted toward addressing impediments, including non-egalitarian attitudes or other gendered barriers. Based on our findings, we call for a change of mind arguing that the cultural, entrepreneurial and managerial potential that women bring to business activity adds value to firm competitiveness and outcomes only if it is adequately exploited and by assuring - at the organizational level - the conditions to express themselves.

As with every work, this study is not devoid of limitations. First, our empirical analysis considers the Italian context. Future analysis should explore different contexts both to apply our framework to different social conditions and to explore how culture influences the role of women inside the organisation and in their role as decision-makers.

Concluding, there is a need for a political agenda to generate new knowledge, awareness and culture in the field. Policymakers require methodological reflexivity, the ability to see multiple worldviews, and the need to pay attention to the internal and external context of the firm (Eden and Wagstaff, 2021). Moreover, considering the Agenda 2030, it is important to stress that SDG 5 is not only about workplace gender equality but also about women's empowerment. We believe academic research can play a strategic role in improving our understanding of what and how (men's and) women's contribution is expressed in different internal and external contexts. In particular, we encourage other researchers to focus on the role of women in international business to revisit and rethink the key assumptions of the field. Both those aspects are strategic in the management field to shed light on the role that women may play inside the organisation and, specifically, in the strategic decision process such as internationalisation.

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### **Academic or professional positions and contacts**

**Mariasole Bannò**

Associate Professor of Management  
University of Brescia - Italy  
e-mail: mariasole.banno@unibs.it

**Giorgia Maria D'Allura**

Research Fellow of Management  
University of Catania - Italy  
e-mail: gdallura@unict.it

**Emilia Filippi**

PhD. of Management  
University of Brescia - Italy  
e-mail: emilia.filippi@unibs.it