

MANAGERIAL SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING AMONG CHINESE STUDENTS IN NEW ZEALAND

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The management literature in gender issues argues that in spite of the progress made in the last few decades, women still face difficulties in being accepted and recognised as managers because the manager's role has been perceived as masculine. Gender stereotypes, hence, continue to become a barrier to women's access to top management position. This study examines the perceptions of the relationship between sex role stereotypes and the perceived characteristics necessary for managerial success among Chinese students in New Zealand. The study sample consisted of 94 male Chinese students and 119 female Chinese students studying in New Zealand. In order to allow for cross-cultural comparisons, this study used a direct replication the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) from previous study (Schein & Mueller, 1992).

The male and female perceptions on the relationship between sex role stereotypes and characteristics were analysed separately. The results revealed that both male and female Chinese students in New Zealand perceive that successful middle managers

possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women in general. In addition, the results were compared with previous studies conducted in China and Japan, New Zealand, America, Britain, Canada, and Germany. Our findings conclude that Asian people are worse than Western people in respect to managerial sex role stereotyping, particularly, Chinese males who show a very strong degree of managerial gender stereotyping.

Multiple discriminant analysis was used to discriminate the relationship between men, women and middle managers on 92 items from the survey questionnaire. The analysis resulted in two separate canonical functions which distinguished between three groups (women, men and managers).

Keywords: stereotypes, sex roles, managers, culture, students.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
Chapter One Introduction	1
1.1 Scope of the Research	2
1.1.1 Further Analysis of Gender Stereotyping	3
1.1.2 The Method Employed in this Research was a Direct Replication of Schein and Mueller’s (1992) and O’Sullivan et al.’s (2002) Studies.	3
1.2 Aims and Objectives of this Research	5
1.3 Thesis Overview	7
Chapter Two Literature Review	8
2.1 Occupational Segregation in PRC	8
2.1.1 Definition of Occupational Segregation	8
2.1.2 Facts of Occupational Segregation in P. R. .C.	9

2.2 Causal Analysis of the Inequality in Managerial Role between Two	
Sexes in PRC	12
2.2.1 Women's Employment in China	12
2.2.2 Women's Education in China	14
2.2.3 Are Women Capable of Being Effective Managers?	18
2.3 Gender Stereotyping	21
2.3.1 How the Western World Views Stereotyping	21
2.3.2 How Chinese Society, History and Culture Influence the	
Stereotyping	26
2.3.3 Research on Students Stereotype	29
2.4 Research Questions	31
Chapter Three Methodology	36
3.1 Sample	36
3.2 Measuring Instrument	37
3.3 Procedure	39
3.4 Analysis of the Data	41
3.5 Multiple Discriminant Analysis	43
Chapter Four Results	44
4.1 Demographic Statistics	45
4.2 Additional Information about the Respondents	48

4.3 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients	50
4.4 Correlation Comparison	51
4.5 Length of Study and the Degree of Stereotyping	52
4.6 International Managerial Stereotyping	54
4.7 Discriminant Analysis	56
Chapter Five Discussions and Implications	60
5.1 Overall Results Analysis	60
5.1.1 Gender Stereotyping of the Managerial Role among Chinese Students in New Zealand.	60
5.1.2 Cross-Cultural Comparisons	62
5.1.3 Length of Study and the Degree of the Stereotyping	65
5.2 Limitations of the Method/SDI	65
5.3 Further Recommendation	66
5.4 Conclusion	68
References	71
Appendices	77
Appendix One: INSTRUCTIONS – SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (WOMEN)	77
Appendix Two: INSTRUCTIONS – SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (MEN)	82
Appendix Three: INSTRUCTIONS –SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (MANAGER)	87

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
2.1 Chinese Employed Females from 1949-2004	13
2.2 Education Received by Chinese Workers in 1990-1996	16
2.3 Increase in Education Received by Chinese Workers in 1990-1996	16
2.4 Male & Female Students in China 2004	18
2.5 Women's Share of Administrative and Managerial Jobs in 1997	33
4.1 Respondents' Nationality	45
4.2 The Percentage of Male and Female Respondents	46
4.3 The Age of Respondents	46
4.4 Percentage of Male & Female Respondents Completing the Three Forms of the Index	47
4.5 Respondents' Marital Status	48
4.6 Chinese Tertiary Students' (in New Zealand) Intraclass Correlation Coefficients	51
4.7 Comparison between Intraclass Correlation & Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients	52
4.8 Chinese Tertiary Students' (in New Zealand) Length of Study & Stereotyping Intraclass Correlation Coefficients	53
4.9 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients on Students Populations	55

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
2.1 Proportions of Male/Female in Formal Sector 1997	10
2.2 Enrolment in Chinese Compulsory Education in 2004	17
4.1 Length of Study in New Zealand	48
4.2 Respondents' Experience with a Female Boss	49
4.3 Boss Preference for Male and Female Subjects	50
4.4 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)	57
4.5 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for Length of Study in New Zealand –Less Than Five Years SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)	58
4.6 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for Length of Study in New Zealand –More than Five Years SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)	59

Chapter One

Introduction

The issue of gender stereotyping in the world of work is of vital importance to us all. It is evident that in many countries there are stereotypes about the characteristics of managers. These stereotypes discriminate against women and mean that many women are excluded from management positions.

Apart from the personal difficulties this may present, we are denied the services of many talented people in an area where we need all the talents that we can get.

In China, female participation in employment on a large scale was a phenomenon which emerged following the establishment of the socialist power in 1949 and owed much to the effort of the state, which has over the years introduced a succession of progressive regulations and official policies aimed at promoting equal opportunity and protecting women's rights and interests in their family and social life. Since the founding of the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, the population of employed women has been rising. In China, the employed females in 2004 accounted for approximately 45 per cent of the total labour force which was higher than the worldwide rate of 40 per cent (International Labour Organisation, 2004). Chinese women should legally enjoy equal rights with men in employment. However, in spite of this, a large inequality of managerial roles between men and women still existed in PRC (International Labour Organisation, 2004). Schein, Mueller, Lituchy and Liu

(1996) reported that only 8.9% of Chinese managers were women in 1996.

1.1 Scope of the Research

In order to explore the reasons inequality of managerial roles between men and women exists in PRC, this study sets out to review the following relevant factors.

- Employment law: Legally and theoretically, Chinese women are entitled to enjoy equal rights with men in employment. However, in practice, they are vastly under-represented in the managerial arena.
- Women's educational level: Women and men in China were equally represented in tertiary education after 1949.
- Women's capability of being a manager: Certain differences obviously exist between men and women in terms of their biological makeup. In terms of leadership or managerial effectiveness, however, women and men are expected to be differentially effective in different situations (Eagly, Kurau, & Makhijani, 1995). Further, Rosener (1990) suggested that women are more likely to adopt the "transformational" leadership style deemed necessary for successful business practice in the future. It is reasonable to suggest that both genders are capable of performing effectively as managers and are equally qualified for the positions, so it seems that the barriers inhibiting their advancement could be attitudinal or psychological (Rosener, 1990).

- Gender stereotyping: The analysis showing the causal relationship about the issue in discussion is that gender stereotyping has turned out to be the major cause of the inequality of managerial roles between men and women.

1.1.1 Further Analysis of Gender Stereotyping

Based on the aforementioned statements, it could be explained that such factors as unequal employment opportunity, lack of education, biological difference and women's incapability of being managers are not the decisive factors/barriers; if they are, there must be "something" more serious behind them. This "something" implies gender stereotypes. Under the issue of gender stereotyping, this study focuses on the overview of the following factors:

- Definition of stereotyping.
- How Chinese society, history and culture influence the stereotyping.
- Research on students' managerial stereotyping.
- Introduction of the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI).

1.1.2 The Method Employed in this Research was a Direct

Replication of Schein and Mueller's (1992) and O'Sullivan et al.'s (2002) Studies

Schein (1973) developed a 92-item inventory Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) to assess the sex role stereotypes which were inherent in American managerial samples.

Schein's findings were consistent with those of earlier research, indicating that

women were not perceived by others (both men and women) to possess the attributes necessary for managerial success.

SDI has served as a “barometer” of the influences and changes of stereotyping of the managerial positions over the years (Schein & Mueller, 1992). Recently, replications of Schein’s (2007) work have found that men still hold the same masculine stereotypical view of the successful manager but that females no longer stereotype the managerial position. This perceptual change has been found in both managers (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989), and students (Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989). These promising results suggested that these women, who become contemporary or prospective managers, are much more likely to make decisions for gender neutral employment than their male counterparts.

SDI has been also been used in a cross-cultural context. Schein and Mueller (1992) compared results obtained from managerial students in Britain, Germany and USA. In addition, Schein and Mueller (1992) found that male students in all three countries perceive successful middle managers to possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments, which are more commonly ascribed to men than to women in general. Women, however, differed in their perceptions in that German stereotyped the managerial role as masculine strongly, British mildly, and however, USA women did not stereotype the managerial role. On the other hand, Canadian men believed that masculine traits were associated with managerial characteristics (Orser, 1994). However, Canadian women stereotyped the managerial role as the least masculine if

compared with other countries (Orser, 1994).

O'Sullivan, Sauers and Kennedy (2002) carried out a replication of Schein and Mueller's (1992) study again, and their results indicated that New Zealand men strongly perceived masculine characteristics as managerial ones. However, New Zealand men were found to perceive a stronger relationship between women and managers than men in other countries. New Zealand female students perceived both men and women as possessing the characteristics necessary for managerial success.

1.2 Aims and Objectives of this Research

The communist revolution of 1949 swept away thousands of years of traditional Chinese governance and customary relationships under which the cultural values and beliefs had been established. The legal status of women in China changed dramatically. The Chinese Communist Party and the peoples' government recognised that the liberation of women, who constituted half the population of China, was necessary for the country to realise complete emancipation (Zhang, 1999). The new government promulgated a series of laws, policies and regulations protecting women. The Chinese Constitution of the early 1950s clearly stated that Chinese women should enjoy equal rights with men in political, economic, social, cultural and family life (Hao & Zhou, 1985). Since the establishment of Communism in 1949, lower levels of revolution have taken place. This has seen the establishment of a more liberal economic stance with capitalist enterprises set up all over the bigger cities of China, beginning on the Southern sea boards. These radical changes are expected to influence

the older, cultural stereotypes of gender roles so that younger Chinese people have different attitudes to their parents and grand parents. In addition, to a large extent, students studying commerce and management outside China are expected to experience changes in their attitudes, specifically for those about gender roles and management. It is reasonable to expect that Western cultures may have some effects on their views, and that the longer any persons have stayed away from China, the more their attitudes may be changed.

It is safe to assume that many of the students will earn influential positions in China. If the students achieve positions that they hire entry and middle levels of managers, their attitudes towards women in management positions may reflect in their levels of recruitment of female managers. It is therefore important that attention is paid to the attitudes and stereotypes these students have and hold at this stage of their lives.

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between gender stereotyping and relevant management characteristics among Chinese students in New Zealand, and to compare the results with previous studies conducted in China and Japan, New Zealand, America, Britain, Canada and Germany. In particular, this research attempts to find out whether young Chinese students' views have been changed with their longer exposure to a new kind of Communist regime accompanying the Western style business expansion and an exposure to Western cultural values influencing their attitudes through their study in New Zealand.

1.3 Thesis Overview

This thesis is divided into five chapters. The nature and purpose of the study were discussed in the Chapter One. In Chapter Two, first of all, the literature reviews and explains the possible causes of the inequality of managerial roles between men and women in PRC; secondly, this chapter examines gender stereotyping; finally, the review follows up with research questions. Chapter Three describes the methodology and research design of this study. Particularly, the subjects, the procedure, the research instrument and the data analysis procedures are discussed in Chapter Three. Chapter Four presents the results of the quantitative analysis. Chapter Five offers the findings of data analysis, limitations, and future directions for this area.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The common thread throughout this review centres on the causal analysis of the inequality of managerial roles between men and women in PRC. There are four sections in this part.

- The first section shows the real situation of occupational segregation between men and women.
- The second section explores the relevant factors that may affect women's access to managerial roles such as employment legislation, education, and female capability of being managers.
- The third section focuses on the study of gender stereotyping.
- The final section proposes research questions.

2.1 Occupational Segregation in PRC

2.1.1 Definition of Occupational Segregation

Occupational segregation is the division of labour in the context of paid employment as a result of which men and women (or members of different ethnic or religious groupings) are channelled into different types of occupational roles and tasks, such that there are two (or more) separate labour forces (Marshall, 1998). It is conventional to distinguish vertical job segregation by which male or white employees are

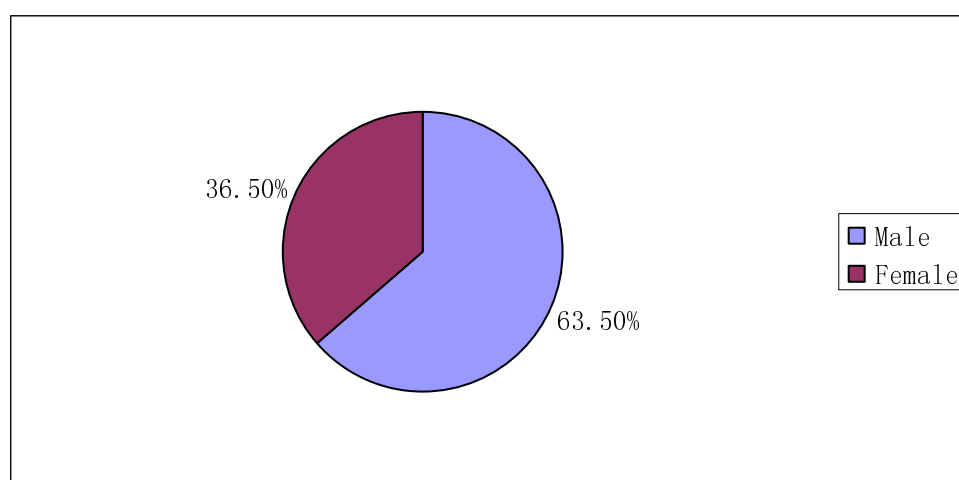
concentrated in the higher-status and better-paid positions from horizontal job segregation (where different sexes or ethnic groups work in different types of occupations—men are engineers, women are typists, and so on.) (Marshall, 1998).

2.1.2 Occupational Segregation in PRC

Fang (2001) pointed out that male workers are usually considered to be more capable than female workers with higher participation rates, stronger adaptability, better mobility and attendance records, and a longer working life in China. Many employers are unwilling to recruit females because women deem “inferior” to men and because of the “fuss” and cost associated with women’s physiological conditions such as periods, illness, childbearing and caring, extra legal protection, etc (Fang, 2001). Despite significant changes in cultural attitudes towards the roles of women and men in China, gender stereotyping and gender segregation are still remained in vocational and job choices (ibid.). For example, men make up the majority of employees in most occupations and in state-owned sectors where average earnings are highest (Stockman, 1994). Conversely, women make up the majority of employees in occupations where average earnings are lowest and in collectively-owned or privately owned sectors which are, on average, smaller and with lower pay and less welfare (Whyte, 1984; All-China Women’s Federation Research Institute, 1991). In 1997, 63.5% of males worked in the formal sectors of the economy whilst only 34.7% of females worked in this sector (The Ministry of Statistics, 1998, see Figure 2.1). Amongst the 60 million

workers employed in non-formal, private and individual businesses, over 50% of workers were females (Jiang, 2000).

Figure 2.1 Proportions of Male/Female in Formal Sector 1997



Source: The Ministry of Statistics (1998).

Occupational segregation also has been identified as an important factor behind the pay gap which continues to exist between employed males and females despite the laws in place to ban gender discrimination (O’Sullivan et al., 2002). In China, the principle of equal pay for equal work for men and women is firmly in place, namely, people in the same industry, doing similar kinds of work and having the same technical skills, receive the same pay regardless of sexes (Information Office of the State Council of the People’s Republic of China, 1994). However, due to current differences in cultural perceptions and professional competence as well as occupational composition, some real income gaps still exist between men and women (ibid.). A survey conducted in 1990 showed that the average monthly incomes for male and female workers in urban areas were ¥193.15 and ¥149.60 respectively,

with women receiving only 77.4% of the pay earned by men (ibid.). Another investigation conducted by the PRC Ministry of Statistics in 1999 showed that the earning gap between men and women has been increasing every year (Jiang, 2000). For example, the income ratio between men and women had been increasing from 1: 0.83 in 1990 to 1: 0.77 in 1999 (Jiang, 2000).

The women's participation in the political arena is similar to occupational segregation in the managerial workforce. According to the report issued by Information Office of the State of the People's Republic of China (2005), female membership in the Communist Part of China (CPC) was 12.956 million, accounting for 21.6 percent of all CPC members; women cadres at county (division) or prefecture (department) level accounted for 21.2 percent and 17.1 percent respectively of all cadres at the corresponding level in all Party committees, people's congresses, governments, CPC organisations, courts, procurator democratic parties and mass organisations across the country; and women cadres at or above the provincial (ministry) level accounting for 12.7 percent of the total at that level. Compared with their male counterparts, the aforementioned figures showed how disproportionately women worked as senior or middle ranking state cadres.

Korabik (2006) pointed out that a key factor, which acts to hinder women's advancement in the past and continues to exist in China today, is the fact that women are not encouraged to pursue careers in science and technology. Owing to this, women are forced to transfer into management from non-technical backgrounds, and

to concentrate in areas like Human Resource Management which do not position them in line for top level jobs. Wu (2000) showed that only 30% of scientific researchers and 21.3% of technicians are women in China. A survey conducted by All-China Women's Federation Research Institute showed that "women's mobility in their life-long career tends to be horizontal while men's mobility is upward" (Zhang, 1994, p. 73).

2.2 Causal Analysis of the Inequality in Managerial Role

Section One gives a general picture of how real is the situation of occupational segregation in PRC. Specifically, only 8.9% of managers were female in China in 1996 (Schein et al., 1996). Although accurate figures for 2008 are not available, anecdotal evidence suggested that a small change has occurred. The exploration of reasons why women in China are not represented in greater numbers in the managerial ranks will start with women's employment legislation in PRC.

2.2.1 Women's Employment in China

With the establishment of PRC, women enjoyed equal rights with men in employment. The new government promulgated a series of laws, policies and regulations that protected women and their status. The Chinese Constitution of the early 1950s clearly stated that Chinese women enjoyed equal rights with men in political, economic, social, cultural, and family life (Hao & Zhou, 1985). The state protected women's rights and interests, practised equal pay for equal work, and provided equal

opportunity for women’s training and promotion. Equal opportunity was high on the agenda with a series of regulations being issued since the open door policy in the early 1980s. In the opening speech at the Fourth Women’s Conference of the World in 1995, Chairman Jiang Zemin further raised the profile of equal opportunity in China by promoting it to become one of the principal national strategies.

Table 2.1 shows that the population of employed women has been constantly rising since 1949. The number of urban working women was 600,000 in 1949. From 1949 to 1992, it went up to 56 million; while their share of the country’s total working population went up from 7.5% to 38% (Information Office of the State Council of the People’s Republic of China, 1994).

Table 2.1 Chinese Employed Females from 1949-2004

	Population of employed women	Share of the total working population %
1949	0.6 million	7.50%
1992	56 million	38.00%
1997	330 million	47.00%
2004	337 million	44.80%

Source: Information Office of the State Council of the People’s Republic of China (1994).

In China, a female workforce of 0.33 billion represented 47% of its total workforce, which was 11% higher than the world average in 1997 (The Chinese Ministry of Statistics, 1998). According to the official statistics, approximately 40% of seven millions of new workers employed each year are women (Gao, 2000). By the end of 2004, the number of both urban and rural women workers reached 337 million

nationwide, accounting for 44.8% the total employed; and the number of women workers in urban work units stood at 42.27 million, accounting for 38.1% of the national total. Although the figures do not recognise which types of working males and females are engaged in, they are provided as an indication of general changes occurring within China's labour force. Today, women's employment rate in China is much higher than the world average (Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2005).

Paralleling the equal rights laws has been the introduction of legislation banning discrimination based on the sexes of employees and against women in general. The most significant of these laws includes: the Labour Insurance Regulation of the People's Republic of China in 1953, the Announcement on Female Workers' Production Leave by the State Council for 1955, Female Employment Labour Protection Regulations in 1988, Regulations of Prohibited Types of Occupational Posts for Female Employees in 1990, the PRC Law on Protecting Women's Rights and Interests in 1992, and the Labour Law of China in 1994.

The aforementioned literature showed that there is no problem in women's employment with regard to legislation and laws in China.

2.2.2 Women's Education in China

China is a culturally and historically Confucian country. According to Confucian famous saying, "Those who excel in office should learn; those who excel in learning

should take office,” which was translated by Dawson (1993, p. 70), has dominated the selective principle of government officials over thousands of years, and similarly, this also influences selection of leaders in the business world. To what extent does knowledge or educational level really matter in terms of managerial roles for women in China? The answer to this question becomes a key factor that the review should attempt to deal with.

In general, the more education women have, the more likely they are in the labour force (Hao & Zhou, 1985). Given the responsibility and status of managerial positions, appropriate educational qualifications are likely to be considered as important determinants of an individual’s suitability selected for the role (ibid.). It could be posited that prior to 1949, Chinese female educational status was definitely a cause of under-representation in management positions. Before 1949, 90 percent of Chinese women were illiterate or semiliterate (Hao & Zhou, 1985). In addition, most women were considered less inferior, capable and intelligent than men (ibid.). Feudalism forced Chinese women to believe that it is a virtue if a woman does not have ability. Therefore, most Chinese women existing in old China were forced to abandon their educational rights (ibid.).

After 1949, when the new China was founded, Chinese women gained the same right to be educated as men and were encouraged to do more study (Croll, 1983). From 1949, women in China have been educated, trained and instilled in a sense of self-respect, self-confidence, self-reliance, and strength. The percentage of educated

women in China has been increasing quickly. Hao and Zhou (1985) showed that women attending college was nine times higher in 1983 than in 1949.

Fang (2001) pointed out that the education level of Chinese women has been constantly rising. In addition, the author said that in general, Chinese women's educational level is lower than men's, but women's levels have been rising at a faster rate than men's. According to Table 2.2, the average years for males and females in education were 7.70 and 6.50 respectively. In addition, the average years of education received by workers, men, and women were 7.57, 8.06, and 7.01. Therefore, the difference in the average years of education in men and women was 1.05. However, compared with the figures in 1990, the average years of education for workers, women and men went up by 0.47, 0.51 and 0.36 respectively (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.2 Education Received by Chinese Workers in 1990-1996

	Male's average	Female's average
1990	7.70 years	6.50 years
1996	8.06 years	7.01 years

Source: Fang (2001).

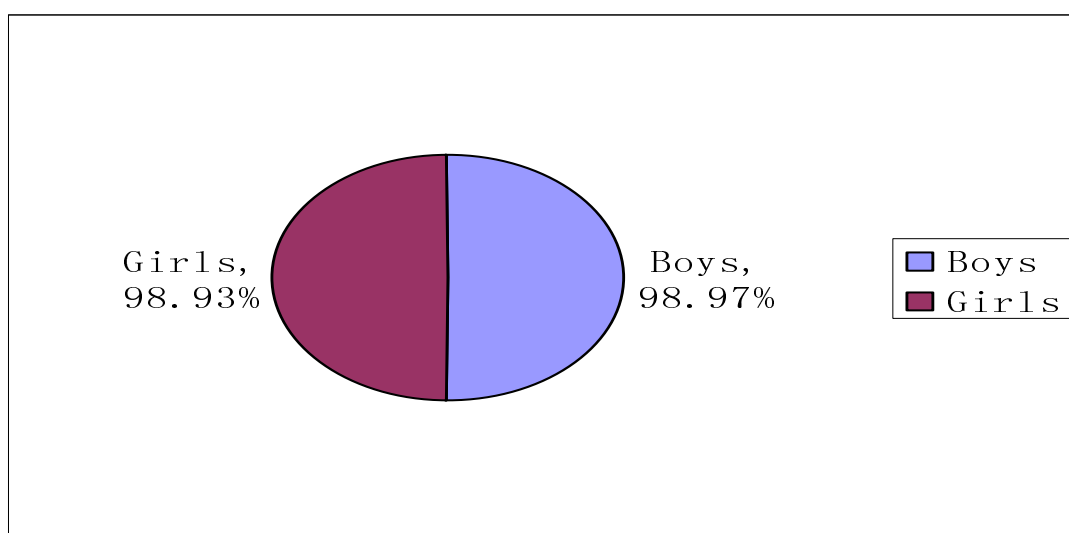
Table 2.3 Increase in Education Received by Chinese Workers in 1990-1996

Male's average of education years went up	Female's average of education years went up	The average years of education of the working population went up
0.36 years	0.51 years	0.47 years

Source: Fang (2001).

In addition, the Chinese government attempted to eliminate gender disparities by means of compulsory education (6-year primary school and 3-year junior middle school), for instance, the enrolment rates of boys and girls were 98.97% and 98.93% respectively in 2004 (see Figure 2.2). The difference in access to education between boys and girls was very little (Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2005). In secondary and tertiary education, figures show that Chinese women are currently more highly represented than before because the state makes great efforts to ensure that women have equal opportunity to receive secondary and higher education (ibid.). In 2004, the proportions of female students in senior middle schools, vocational schools, colleges, and postgraduate schools reached 45.8%, 51.5%, 45.7%, and 44.2% respectively (see Table 2.4).

Figure 2.2 Enrolment in Chinese compulsory education in 2004



Source: Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China (2005).

Table 2.4 Male & Female Students in China 2004

	Male Students %	Females Students%
Senior middle schools	54.2%	45.8%
secondary vocational schools	48.5%	51.5%
college students	54.3%	45.7%
Postgraduate Students	55.8%	44.2%

Source: Information Office of the State Council of the People’s Republic of China (2005).

With this observed equality in qualifications, no evidence suggested that education is the problem to prevent Chinese women from achieving higher managerial positions.

2.2.3 Are Women Capable of Being Effective Managers?

Obviously women and men are physically different – but then so are men and men – no research showed that this could make any difference in someone’s potential to be a manager. For example, due to their different levels of testosterone, men tend to be more aggressive than women (Lindsey, 1990). However, the significance of these differences is minimal as the amount of variation explained by sex is at the most five percent (Deaux, 1984). In terms of leadership or managerial effectiveness, women and men are expected to be differentially effective in different situations (Eagly et al., 1995). Furthermore, Rosener (1990) suggested that women are more likely to adopt the “transformational” leadership style deemed necessary for successful business practice in the future.

According to Elkin, Jackson and Inkson (2004, p. 197), “leadership is one of the key tasks of management.” In an organisation, an effective leader should influence the

organisational staff to achieve the tasks well. This may propose one question, “who can make an effective leader?”

Powell (1993) noted that “women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favour women and others favour men” (p.175). Some studies indicate that women may be better managers in some situations than men and vice versa. Eagly et al. (1995) found that female and male leaders are differentially effective in many different settings. Women were found to fare poorly in settings in which leadership was defined in highly masculine terms, particularly in military settings. Alternatively, men fared more slightly than women in the settings in which leadership was defined in less masculine terms, particularly in educational organisations and governmental and social service. In addition, Jogulu and Wood (2006) reported the differences in the specific work-related behaviours, attitudes, and skills of men and women in management, particularly in the area of leadership. Their large scale meta-analytical review of 162 studies on gender and leadership style compared the leadership styles of women and men and concluded that some differences existed. In addition, Jogulu and Wood (2006) found that male and female leaders perform similarly in both interpersonally oriented and task-oriented styles in the organisations. Namely, women were equally capable of leading in a task-oriented fashion, while men were equally capable of leading in an interpersonal manner. Also, women exhibited a more participative or democratic style whereas men exhibited a more directive, autocratic style. As a result, effective managers would seem to require an androgynous style (Jogulu & Wood, 2006). Similarly, Kent and Moss (1994) found

that the possession of feminine characteristics does not decrease an individual's chance of emerging as a leader as long as an individual possesses masculine characteristics. It therefore seems that the most effective leader should have the flexibility to engage in both masculine and feminine styles in order to adapt to different situations appropriately.

Jogulu and Wood (2006) explained that research in 1990 began to report gender differences in leadership styles with female managers being seen in positive terms as participative, democratic leaders. On the other hand, some researchers reported that women are believed to exhibit a more transformational leadership style than their male colleagues, and this is equated with effective leadership in modern organisations (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990). However, all of the earlier theories on leadership excluded female characteristics and this exacerbated the problems of women who were not seen as an appropriate fit in a management or leadership roles. Recent findings clearly suggested that the transformational qualities of leadership, which characterises the female leadership, are required by the flatter organisational structures of today (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990). Therefore, a more positive outcome for women advancing to senior roles of management or leadership may be observed in the future.

In summary, it can be assumed that women are as likely as men to be effective managers, and the future managerial styles deemed necessary for managerial success may even favour women. However, the fact is that men clearly dominate positions of

authority and seniority in contemporary society, both in China and, to different extents, in other countries.

Based on the aforementioned statements, therefore, it could be explained that such factors as unequal employment opportunity, lack of education, biological difference and women's incapability of being managers are not the decisive factors/barriers. There must be "something" more serious behind this phenomenon. The most likely candidate for this "something" is believed to be gender stereotypes. The next section explores the nature of and research undertaken on gender stereotyping.

2.3 Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotypes are strong, underlying forces governing and contributing to the attitudinal barriers preventing women in China society from gaining managerial positions. This section attempts to grasp a much fuller picture of the research in this area of the western world at first including a much closer look at the application of SDI, an researching instrument designed by Schein (1973) to examine the relationship between the managerial roles and gender stereotyping, to show how Chinese culture, history and society influence Chinese people's stereotyping, and to see students attitudes toward women as managers in the previous studies.

2.3.1 Definition of Stereotyping

Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso (2003) viewed gender stereotypes as powerful barriers prohibiting females from being accepted and recognised as managers.

Elkin, Jackson and Inkson (2004) defined stereotypes as “beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviours of members of certain groups” (p. 26). Elkin et al. (2004, p. 26) provided some examples of stereotyping: “she is an accountant—she must be well-organised; he wears glasses—he must be intelligent; she is a woman, so she will be more emotional than a man would be.” These simple stereotyping examples showed that stereotypes are inaccurate because they use a category (e.g., “women,” “people with glasses,” and so on.) to characterise individuals, and moreover, they are often based on folklore rather than facts. However, stereotyping is an enduring human phenomenon, partly because stereotypes are convenient to use.

Marshall (1998) defined the gender stereotype as “treats men and women differently, these are one-sided and exaggerated images of men and women which are deployed repeatedly in everyday life” (p. 251). For example, women are expected to perform menial jobs rather than men such as tea making, and the idea that men are more suitable for managerial roles.

Research undertaken overseas strongly indicates that attitudinal or psychological barriers are the reason why women are inhibited from advancing in the workplace (Loughlin, 1999). Gender stereotypes imply perceptions and expectations of what is appropriate behaviour for males and females (Loughlin, 1999) and this is a classic example of this. The association between gender stereotypes and requisite management characteristics can be considered as a factor in limiting the number of

women in managerial positions. The premise is that, all else being equal, the perceived similarities between male and managerial characteristics increase the likelihood that males will be promoted or chosen as a managerial position instead of females (Schein & Mueller, 1992).

Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso (2003) explained that masculine stereotyping has been associated with instrumentality, dominance, dynamism and autonomy, while the feminine stereotype has been associated with passiveness, submission, dependency and expressiveness of emotions and feelings towards others. In other words, it is gender asymmetry that comes out of those results, and an asymmetry reveals the unequal social value of the quality given to gender stereotypes.

Many previous studies indicated that gender stereotypes influence personnel decisions such as hiring and promotion, particularly for top executives and leaders (e.g., Bass, Kursell, & Alexander, 1971; Rosen & Jerdee, 1978; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Gallup, 1991; Rubner, 1991; Fisher, 1992). An expectation arises that leaders in most professional and managerial positions are self-reliant, driven, independent, aggressive, and authoritative (Orser, 1994) and therefore, possess and present traits associated with the “masculine” rather than the “feminine” (Schein, 1973, 1975; Massengill & DiMarco, 1979; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 2002; Heilman, Block, Martell, Simon, & 1989; Frank, 2001; Fernandes & Cabral-Cardoso, 2003).

Dennis (2004) explained that masculine characteristics are viewed as the standard in leadership and management, while feminine characteristics, such as supportiveness,

attentiveness, and collaboration are marginalised, if not dismissed, even though these characteristics tend to enhance morality and productivity.

The aforementioned statements give an overview of research in the western world. As this study uses SDI as a research instrument to gather data, the emphasis will be naturally given to the application of SDI.

Schein (1973, 1975) attempted to demonstrate the relationship between gender stereotypes and the perceived characteristics as essential requisites for the manager's success. The author also found that male and female managers perceive the successful manager as possessing the characteristics, attitudes, and behaviours more commonly ascribed to men, and to a lesser degree, women in general.

Schein (1973, 1975) concluded that independently of the managers' gender, women were perceived as not having the essential qualities to be successful in management.

Schein (1975) mentioned that female managers are as likely as male managers to make the selection, promotion, and placement decisions in favour of men, so increasing the number of women in management was not likely to significantly enhance the ease of entry of other women into the management ranks.

In order to gauge or ascertain the development or change in attitudes over time, different studies using the SDI instrument with samples of managers (Brenner et al., 1989), and management students (Orser, 1994; Schein et al., 1989; Schein & Davidson, 1993), arrived at similar results for the masculine samples. However, these

studies found that women tend to perceive the manager as being nearer to the perceived image of men. The results obtained from female samples were related to the way women tend to construct an image of the female manager that was closer to the image of the male manager.

Although worldwide ramifications have been recognised, American research has been conducted on the significance of gender stereotyping. Schein and Mueller (1992) addressed the need to focus on both commonality of barriers to women in management and the differential dynamics of these barriers within different countries. In a study comparing the relationship between gender stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among management students in America, Britain and Germany, Schein and Mueller (1992) found that males in those countries characterise the successful manager with stereotypical male traits. Among the females, the U.S sample had the highest degree of similarity between the descriptions of women and those of managers, and moreover, the sample was similar to the perceived resemblance of men and managers. In addition, the British female sample exhibited a fairly high degree of similarity between the descriptions of women and those of managers, whereas degree of similarity in the German female sample between descriptions of women and those of managers was much smaller than those found in the British and the USA female samples.

Similar results were obtained in a recent Canadian study. Male students associated masculine traits with managerial characteristics instead of feminine characteristics

(Orser, 1994). Comparatively, female students in Canada indicated the highest degree of similarity in their descriptions of women and managers (Orser, 1994).

Schein et al. (1996) obtained 361 males and 228 females from management students in Japan and China to examine the relationship between gender stereotypes and characteristics perceived as necessary for management success. The results revealed that males and females in both countries perceive that successful middle managers possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than women in general.

In addition, Schein (2007) re-examined whether manager – “think male” attitude has changed and considered the implications of the outcomes for women’s advancement in management today. It has been thirty years since Schein’s initial research. However, Schein’s (2007) result indicated males in USA continue to view men as more qualified than women for managerial positions.

2.3.2 How Chinese Society, History and Culture Influence Gender

Stereotyping

Traditionally, a husband in China is the head of the household, and his role is to earn money to support his wife and family (Lu, Maume, & Bellas, 2000). The most important thing for a Chinese woman is to look for a husband who was rich or capable of earning money. These views have been deeply rooted in Chinese peoples’ mentality. However, women’s jobs and careers are still considered secondary. Consequently,

Chinese women today continue to look for a husband who is more capable and holds a higher position than they do. Chinese men continue to choose wives based on beauty, gentleness and femininity, virtue, domestic capability and their potential as a good mother. This results in some strong women with trouble in finding a spouse. A Chinese saying is, “Good men always get married, while good women remain single.” Therefore, strong, independent women in China prefer to choose a career over family, and to remain single.

China is both an old country and a new country, after existing as a feudal society for nearly 3,000 years; the new China emerged with the establishment of PRC in 1949 (Heng, 1990). The modernisation in China has been remained in the last 60 years with the institution of economic reform and a policy of interaction with the outside world. However, traditionally feudal thoughts and stereotypes appear to continue affecting Chinese men’s and women’s social positions. These feudal thoughts assumed that males are superior to females (Judd, 1990). Women generally remain ignorant and obey their fathers; then after marriage, their husbands; during widowhood, their sons (Bian, 2002). During the feudal period, it was a dream for Chinese women to have the same rights as men. Therefore, women could not enter into society and were not allowed to go to work, and it was impossible for women to have a leadership position in an organisation.

Owing to the establishment of PRC, the status of women in China is changed dramatically. The Chinese Communist Party and the people’s government recognised

that the liberation of women, who constituted half the population of China, was necessary for the country to realise complete emancipation and make a progress (Zhang, 1999). The new government made a series of laws, policies and regulations that were used to protect women. The Chinese Constitution of the early 1950s clearly stated that Chinese women enjoyed rights as equally as men in politics, economy, social, culture and family life (Hao & Zhou, 1985). The state protected women's rights and interests, practiced equal pay for equal work, and provided equal opportunity for women's training and promotion. Compared with the old society, women can now be employed; however, women continue to take the primary responsibility for bearing and rearing children, and doing their housework (Zhou, Dawson, Herr, & Stukas, 2004). However, three thousand years of feudal stereotyping could not be eradicated in a short period. Therefore, Chinese men still occupy more powerful positions than women; moreover, males play a role of leaders in most of the organisations.

Women cannot do both domestic duties and external jobs easily. Therefore, most women do not choose senior positions because they need to balance their work and life. Owing to the Chinese economic reforms and a new open policy, there have been an increasing proportion of female managers and leaders. Traditionally, when women obtain a higher position, they are called "strong and capable women". This title is not good for women because it implies that women emphasise their careers over their roles as wives and mothers, and that they ignore their families (Zuo & Bian, 2001).

2.3.3 Research on Students' Managerial Stereotypes

Many students attend university with the aim of enhancing their opportunity for entry into senior, managerial or professional positions. If students achieve positions where they hire entry/middle-level managers, their attitudes towards women in management positions will influence acceptance of female managers in the future. Therefore, it may indicate whether there will be barriers to females in the prospective managerial area.

Owing to the rapid economic reforms in PRC and the opening up to the Western world, many students spending years studying in New Zealand and elsewhere may be expected of the weakening of the stereotyping about managerial roles.

In the following paragraph, a comparison of students' views in both PRC and elsewhere is explicitly explained.

Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso (2003) conducted a study on Portuguese undergraduate management students' attitudes towards women in management, indicating that both male and female students tend to perceive the "manager" category as closer to the masculine stereotype than the feminine stereotype. In addition, in terms of male students, the "man manager" and "manager" are more similar to each other than the "woman manager" and "manager" categories.

Alternatively, Powell, Butterfield and Parent (2002) undertook a research project, indicating that a proportion of women managers in the US increased from 21% in

1976 to 46% in 1999. However, they found that most male and female students have ascribed a good manager to being a male, although the preference for masculine characteristics decreased in the scores for two of the subgroups.

Frank (2001) examined the significance of research on students' perceptions in a comparison study between China and USA, using a survey of 72 management majors attending a prestigious business university in Beijing of China. The results indicated that women were less likely to prefer working for a woman than for male managers. Women were described as slower, weak, more incompetent, more a follower-than-a-leader, more lenient, more democratic, friendlier, and less active than male managers. Generally, women were more adequate to become both professionals and wives. The results reflected a similar attitudinal position to the USA women. Therefore, the conclusion is that it will not be easier for Chinese women to succeed than women in USA.

O'Sullivan et al. (2002) examined the relationship between gender stereotypes and the characteristics perceived necessary for managerial success using commerce students in New Zealand as samples. The results were compared with those from previous studies conducted in USA, Great Britain, Canada, Germany, Japan, and PRC. Both male and female participants perceive successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments which are more associated with men than women.

Given the legislation and development that have taken place in China since 1949 in a bid to lessen discrimination and bias against women in employment, it was unexpected that there was not less gender stereotyping. A replication of Schein and Mueller's (1992) study that examines the views of Chinese university students in a Western setting (e.g., Christchurch, New Zealand) is appropriate. Therefore, based on the aforementioned sections, research questions will be proposed in the following section.

2.4 Research Questions

The fundamental research questions investigated in this study are stated as follows:

Q1. Do Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand gender stereotype the managerial role?

In the past, some researches found that both sexes perceived successful middle managers as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than women in general (Schein 1973, 1975). On the other hand, some researchers found that females do not stereotype the managerial position strongly although males strongly continue to believe that masculine characteristics rather than feminine ones are more associated with managerial characteristics; moreover, in some studies, females view women and men as equally likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success (Schein & Mueller, 1992; Orser, 1994; Schein et al., 1996; O' Sullivan et al., 2002).

Given this trend, it is therefore hypothesised that:

H1: Male Chinese students in New Zealand will perceive successful middle managers as possessing characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than women in general, while their females' counterparts will stereotype the managerial role less strongly.

The second research question in this study is proposed:

Q2. How do Chinese students in New Zealand perceptions of the managerial role compare with previous studies done in China and Japan, New Zealand, America, Britain, Canada and Germany?

In the words of Schein and Mueller (1992, p. 445):

“The Intraclass Correlation Coefficients derived from the SDI research serve as a barometer of women’s views of their opportunities and of their actual participation as well.”

According to the report of International Labour Organisation in 1997, the opportunities for women in management may be therefore reflected in the actual number of women currently holding managerial roles in each country (see Table 2.5).

Table 2.5 Women's Share of Administrative and Managerial Jobs in 1997

Country	Administrative and Managerial Jobs (%)
U. S.	46
Canada	42
UK	33
Germany	12
Japan	9

Source: International Labour Organisation (1997).

O'Sullivan et al. (2002) reported that women were found to occupy only 15.7% of managerial positions in New Zealand in 1993, while Schein et al. (1996) reported that only 8.9% of Chinese managers were women in 1996.

According to Global statistics for females sharing the managerial job compiled by the International Labour Organisation (2004), progress is being made in many countries; however, the rate of progress is slow and uneven. In Austria, Germany, Greece, Israel, Peru and Singapore, women typically hold approximately between 20 and 30 percent of legislative, senior official, and managerial positions. Alternatively, women hold about 31 and 39 percent of such managerial jobs in New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, and the UK.

In addition, International Labour Organisation (2004) reported that in general, there is a higher share of women with management jobs in North America, South America and Eastern Europe than in East Asia, South Asia and the Middle East.

As mentioned above, women were found to comprise only 8.9% of managerial positions in New Zealand. When this figure compared with the number of women in management in other countries, it is hypothesised that:

H2: Chinese students in New Zealand will perceive a greater similarity between women and managers than the Chinese students in China, but less similarity than other countries' respondents.

The last research question is to take a tentative look at the issue of changing stereotypes. This is something that is believed to be difficult to accomplish and there has been some effort made to determine the conditions under which stereotypes can be changed (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996). Most explanations for this are made based functional utility models – that is – they are useful in some way (Tan et al., 2001) and so people do not desire to let go of them. Two models are proposed as being possible change pathways: the book-keeping model (Rothbart, 1981) – an incremental process, and the conversion model (Hamilton & Sherman, 1994) where change can occur suddenly. This research can, to a limited extent, test these models to see if it is possible that either some incremental or sudden change has occurred over time while studying in a different culture.

Q3. To investigate whether the length of time spent outside China would affect stereotyping?

The sample population in this study consists of students who are studying in a first-world democratic community of New Zealand. According to O'Sullivan et al.'s (2002), men in New Zealand perceived a stronger relationship between women and managers than those in other countries. Female students in New Zealand were found to perceive both men and women as possessing characteristics necessary for successful managers.

Therefore, international tertiary Chinese students in New Zealand may be expected to have a weakening of the stereotyping about managerial roles in depending on how long they have studied in New Zealand.

It was hypothesised that:

H3. Students with longer study time in New Zealand will gender stereotype the managerial role less than those students who have studied in New Zealand for a shorter time.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The method employed in this research was a direct replication of Schein and Mueller's (1992) and O'Sullivan et al.'s (2002) studies. The rationale behind this replication was to ensure a legitimate comparison between the results obtained from Chinese students in New Zealand and those found in America, Britain, Canada, Germany, New Zealand and PRC This chapter includes five sections:

- To describe the sample population of this study.
- To describe the measuring instrument (the Schein Descriptive Index).
- To outline the information gathering procedure.
- To describe Intraclass Correlation Coefficient and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient.
- To describe Multiple Discriminant Analysis.

3.1 Sample

Chinese students in New Zealand, for example, those who identified themselves as Chinese from Mainland China or Chinese from Mainland China holding New Zealand Permanent Residence (PR) in terms of the difference in nationality, were excluded from Hongkongnese and Taiwanese respondents in order to reflect their perceptions of Chinese educational, social, political and legislative influences. The sample therefore

consisted of 94 males and 119 females from the under-graduate, graduate and post-graduate Chinese students at the different divisions enrolling of Lincoln University. Their ages ranged between under 20 and over 40.

3.2 Measuring Instrument

A lot of research has been undertaken to directly measure the relationship between gender stereotypes and the perceived requisite personal characteristics for middle management positions. The 92-item SDI developed by Schein (1973) was used to define gender stereotypes and the characteristics of successful middle managers.

In developing the questionnaires, Schein (1973) formulated a preliminary form of the Descriptive Index, consisting of 131 items to describe males and females differentially. Then, using the form, a pilot study was undertaken on a small group of college students—half of whom were given the Women Form while the other half were accepted the Men Form. Schein stated (1973):

“In order to maximise the differences in the descriptions of Women and men, an analysis of all the means and standard deviations was performed and an item was eliminated if (a) its mean descriptive rating was the same for both Women and Men, (b) it was judged by the experimenter and a staff assistant independently to be similar in meaning to one or more other items but it had a smaller mean difference between descriptions of Women and Men, or (c) its variability on both forms was significantly greater than the overall mean variability. The final form of the Descriptive Index had

92 adjectives and descriptive terms” (p. 96).

The use of the Index in replicated studies has gauged the developments and changes in gender stereotyping of the managerial position over time. The validity of SDI has been fully supported by comparative results from a similar study using the 24-item Personal Attribute PAQ (Norris & Wylie, 1995), indicating that results found in the SDI studies are not artifacts of the research instrument.

The questionnaires are made up of three different forms: men, women and managers. Each form consists of the same 92 items ordered from 1 to 92.

The instructions on the three forms of Index are (Schein, 1973, p. 96):

“On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think successful middle managers (men and women) in general are like. In making your judgement, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful middle manager (men and women). Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of successful middle managers (men and women) in general.”

Ratings are made using a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (not characteristic) to 5 (characteristic).

Data on the sex, age, year of study, subject major, ethnicity, marital status and working experience of respondents will be collected. Furthermore, the respondents will be required to respond to whether they worked for female bosses before and which sex they prefer as their boss. This information was used to determine the demographic composition of the sample.

3.3 Procedure

Firstly, this project has been reviewed and approved by the Lincoln University Ethics Committee before distributing the questionnaires.

Secondly, the researcher emailed those lecturers who had Chinese students in their classes in order to obtain the permission to have an access to the students for data collection.

Thirdly, after accepting the lecturers' approval, the researcher entered each class to make an introduction to herself and the content of the questionnaire. Then, the students would be required to provide the following key information:

- a) The questionnaires are in three forms. Each of them is written in a Chinese version and needs to be responded in Chinese.

- b) The questionnaires are about students' perceptions of male, female and managerial characteristics.
- c) Some of the terms are positive and negative in connotation, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.
- d) The questionnaire takes respondents approximately 10 minutes to complete the form.
- e) The participation in this research is completely voluntary and responses are anonymous.
- f) If students choose to participate in this project, all they have to do is to fill out the questionnaire. There are no right or wrong responses and their views are as important and relevant as anyone else's. Therefore, participants are not supposed to consult with each other while filling out the questionnaire.
- g) There is also a detachable entry form for the Lotto Prize Draws so that they can be included in a draw for one of 15 Lotto tickets

Fourthly, the questionnaires were left in a pile with the first questionnaire about women characteristics, the second men, the third managers, the fourth again women, and the fifth again men in different classes. This successive order was applied to ensure that the survey could be equally completed on the characteristics of women, men or managers.

Finally, the completed questionnaire should be folded and returned to Box 24, on the ground floor of the Commerce Division. At the same time, the detached Lotto prize

entry form with the students' contact details were placed in the same place. This information was detached from the survey form so that no one was able to identify the other respondents' responses.

3.4 Analysis of the Data

In the first instance, students identifying themselves as Hong Kongers or Taiwanese were eliminated from the sample. The descriptive statistics were only obtained from Mainland Chinese respondents to ascertain the accurate composition of the group.

In order to determine the degree of correspondence between descriptions of successful middle managers and men in general and those of successful middle managers and women in general, Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) was applied. Specifically, ICC was calculated using Shrout and Fleiss' (1979) formula, that is,

$$ICC = \frac{MS_{\text{Between-subjects}} - MS_{\text{Within-subjects}}}{MS_{\text{Between-subjects}} + MS_{\text{Within-subjects}}}$$

where $MS_{\text{between-subjects}}$ is the mean-square estimate of between-subjects variance, and $MS_{\text{within-subjects}}$ is the mean-square estimate of within-subjects variance. The "subject" in this study is an item rating of either men and managers, or women and managers.

The first analysis was made up of the 92 mean item ratings of men and managers. The second analysis consisted of the 92 mean item ratings of women and managers. These analyses were conducted separately for male and female participants, and then for students with length of study and degree of gender stereotyping. As noted by Heilman

et al. (1989), ICC was often used to determine several judges' similarity in the rating of an object. However, this study (as in the previous SDI studies) used the calculation to determine the similarity of the SDI ratings of men, women, and successful middle managers in general.

Shrout and Fleiss (1979) pointed out that the larger the ICC, the more similar do observations in the same treatment category tend to be, relative to observations in different categories. This study focused on the similarity between respondents' descriptions of successful middle managers and men in general, and of successful middle managers and women in general. A high coefficient then implies more similarity between the two groups, such as the way men and managers are viewed by students.

Furthermore, ICC and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were applied to determine the linear relationship between the mean ratings of successful middle managers and men in general, and of successful middle managers and women in general.

ICC is an useful instrument to determine the relationship between the groups, and important for comparison with earlier results, in particular, they are very strong on two sets of interchangeable measurements. However, the appropriateness of the intraclass correlation calculation is doubted for the study using SDI measures with 92 different things on two groups whose measurements are not interchangeable. Moreover, ICC is not expected to analyse how all three groups (men, women and

manager) relate as a whole. As such, multiple discriminant analysis was used for further analysis.

3.5 Multiple Discriminant Analysis

In order to statistically distinguish between two or more groups of cases, multiple discriminant analysis was preferred to be applied. According to Klecka (1975), “the mathematical objective is to weight and combine the discriminating variables in a way that the groups are forced to be as statistically distinct as possible” (p. 435). In this study, discriminant analysis was conducted on the types of questionnaires used, for instance, men, women and successful middle managers. The discriminant variables that measured the characteristics on three types of questionnaires were expected to differ consisted of 92 descriptive items. That is,

$$G_i = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \dots + b_{92}x_{92}$$

where G_i is the predicted Z-score for group i , x_j is the j th item with $1 \leq j \leq 92$, the a is a constant and the b s are the coefficients measuring the contribution of the associated variable to the discrimination specified by the function. To understand between which groups the function discriminates, one can look at the group centroids which are the Z-score of the function evaluated at the group mean values of the items.

Chapter Four

Results

The results of the research are reported within six sections.

- Section One examines the composition of the sample. In this section, demographic statistics pertaining to the gender, marital status and length of study are reported in order to clarify the composition of the sample population.
- Section Two focuses on additional information consisting of subjects' experience with a female boss and the boss gender preference for both male and female respondents.
- Section Three presents the results obtained from the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient computations.
- Section Four presents a comparison of the results with Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Intraclass Correlation Coefficient.
- Section Five offers a table allowing a cross-cultural comparison of Intraclass Correlation Coefficients obtained from the samples in USA, UK, Canada, Germany, Japan, and China, and moreover, the sample from Chinese students studying at Lincoln University of New Zealand.
- Section Six reports the results of the multiple discriminant analysis which determines the 92 items that distinguish the relational characteristics among men, women and managers most clearly. Specifically, this section focuses on

distance between different two group centroids, such as men and managers, and women and managers.

4.1 Demographic Statistics

Since this study focused on Chinese students' (in New Zealand) gender stereotyping of the managerial role, students identifying themselves as Chinese from PRC have been separated from the rest number of the respondents. As explained in Chapter Three, the Chinese students who have been excluded from Hong Kong and Taiwan were required to reflect their perceptions of Chinese educational, social, political and legislative influences.

Of the 213 PRC respondents, 206 (96.7%) identified themselves as Chinese from PRC and 7 (3.3%) identified themselves as Chinese from PRC but holding New Zealand Permanent Residence (see Table 4.1). 94 (44.1%) and 119 (55.9%) respondents were male and female respectively (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.1 Respondents' Nationality

	NO.	%
Chinese (from main land)	206	96.7
Chinese(hold New Zealand PR)	7	3.3
Total	213	100.0

Table 4.2 The Percentage of Male and Female Respondents

	NO.	%
Male	94	44.1
Female	119	55.9
Total	213	100.0

Table 4.3 displays the aged range of sample population. The biggest age group of respondents ranged from 21 to 25 (41.3%). The second biggest group (37.1%) was between 26 and 30 years old. The other groups were 20 years old or under (6.1%), 31 to 35 years old (8.5%), 36 to 40 years old (6.6%), and over 40 years old (0.5%).

Table 4.3 The Age of Respondents

	NO.	%
<=20	13	6.1
21-25	88	41.3
26-30	79	37.1
31-35	18	8.5
36-40	14	6.6
>40	1	0.5
Total	213	100.0

Table 4.4 shows the percentage of male and female students who completed each of the three forms of the index, for instance, perceptions of a man, woman, or successful middle manager. As shown in this table, the forms were almost evenly distributed with similar proportions of male and female respondents.

Table 4.4 Percentage of Male & Female Respondents Completing the Three Forms of the Index

Forms	Males		Females	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Man	33	15	29	14
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Woman	32	15	57	27
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Manager	29	14	33	15
	NO.	%	NO.	%

Figure 4.1 exhibits Chinese students' length of study in New Zealand. The biggest group of respondents (45.1%) has studied in New Zealand for more than five years. The second biggest group (18.3%) has studied in New Zealand for three years. 11.3% and 15.5% of respondents have studied in New Zealand for two years and four years respectively. Only 10 students (4.7%) have studied in New Zealand for one year, and 11 students (5.2%) have studied in New Zealand for less than one year.

Figure 4.1 Length of Study in New Zealand

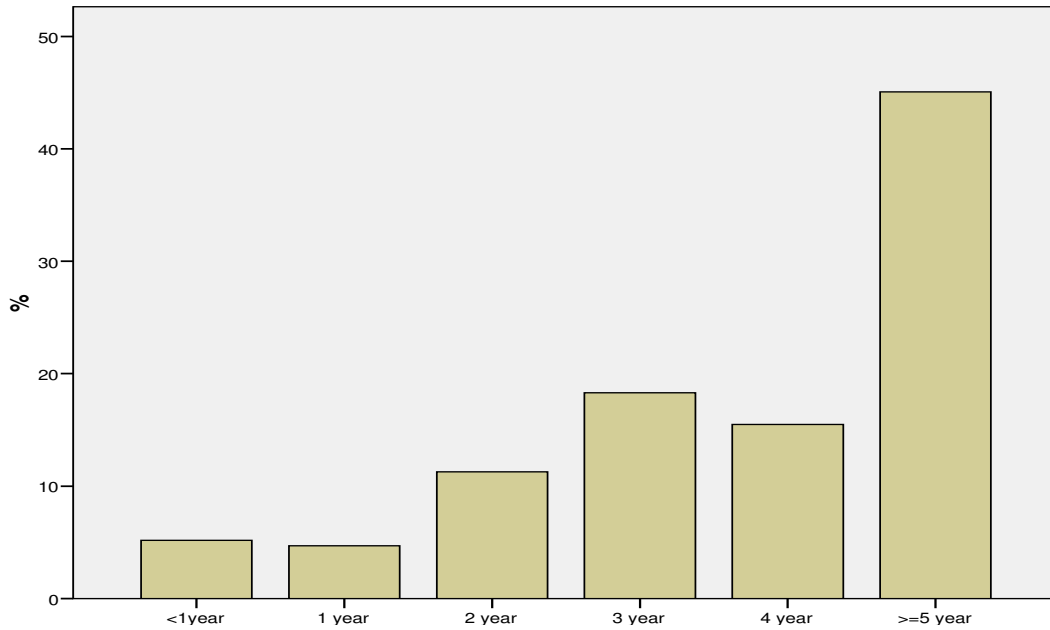


Table 4.5 shows that 164 (77%) students were single, and that they were the majority of the sample group. In addition, 43 (20.2%) respondents were married, and six (2.8%) of them were divorced.

Table 4.5 Respondents' Marital Status

	NO.	%
Single	164	77.0
Married	43	20.2
Divorced	6	2.8
Total	213	100.0

4.2 Additional Information about the Respondents

71.8% of respondents indicated that they worked for a female. In contrast, 28.2% of the respondents showed that they worked for female bosses (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Respondents' Experience with a Female Boss

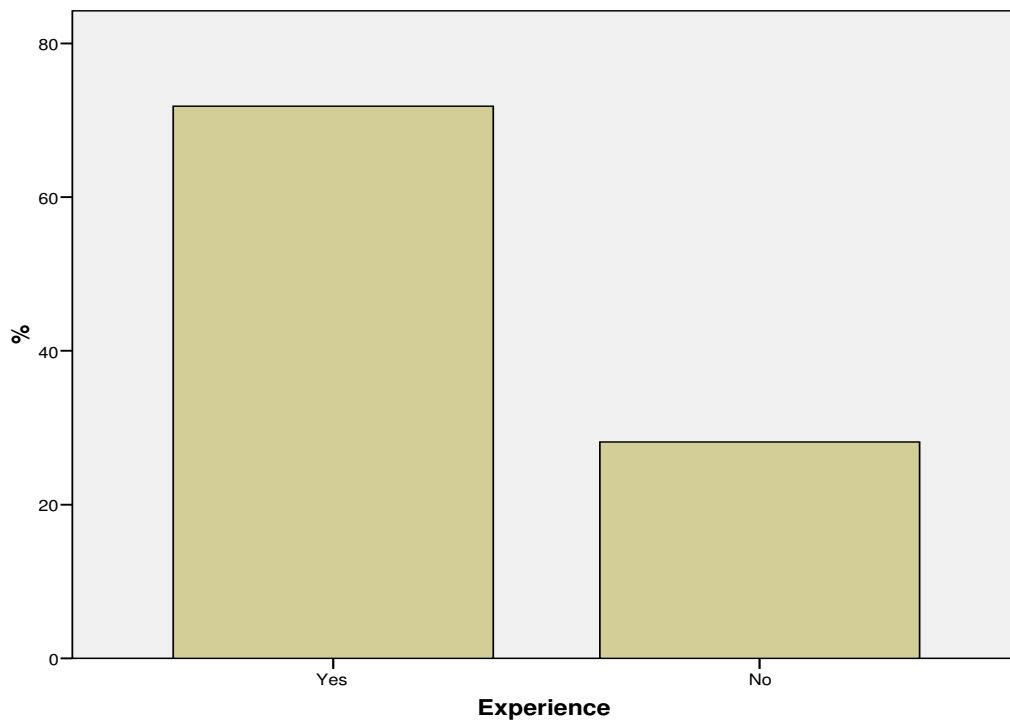
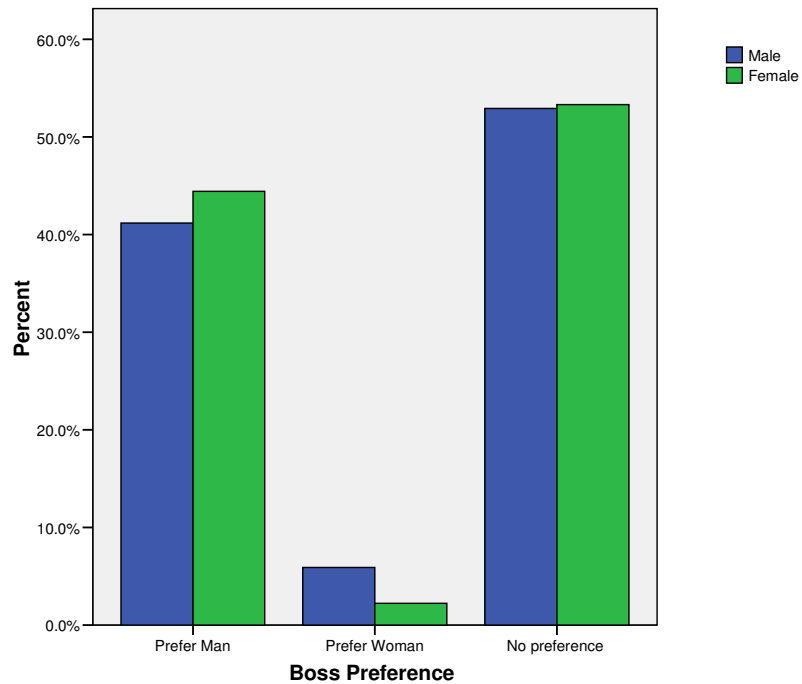


Figure 4.3 exhibits gender preferences for their bosses. In this figure, “no preference” was the most common response for both male and female respondents. However, male bosses were preferred by over 40% of male respondents and nearly 45% of female respondents. On the other hand, female bosses were preferred by roughly 3% and 5% of female and male respondents respectively. Leaving aside the 50%+ that chose the “no-preference” category, the remaining 40%+ that chose the “prefer man” category and comparing this to the 3-5% that chose “prefer woman,” it can be seen that there is a vast preference for male managers compared to female managers.

Figure 4.3 Boss Preference for Male and Female Subjects



4.3 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients

Table 4.6 presents the result of the analyses of the Intraclass Correlation Coefficients.

In this table, there is a strong similarity between the ratings of men and managers through both of the female ($r = 0.571$) and male ($r = 0.714$) respondents. However, the degree to which the male component of the sample perceived as similarity between the ratings of men and managers was stronger than the female component of the sample. In addition, there was an insignificant similarity between the ratings of women and managers through both of the female ($r = -0.090$) and male ($r = -0.367$) respondents. However, the female component of the sample perceiving no significant similarity between the ratings of women and managers was less than the male component of the sample perceiving no significant similarity between the ratings of

women and managers. Therefore, the results in this table satisfied Research Question One (Do Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand gender stereotype the managerial role?). Like other participants in other studies conducted through SDI, Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand gender-stereotyped the managerial role. Managers were perceived to possess characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than women.

Table 4.6 Chinese Tertiary Students' (in New Zealand) Intraclass Correlation Coefficients

	Men & Managers	Women & Managers
Female Sample	0.571**	-0.090 n.s.
Male Sample	0.714**	-0.367 n.s.

** = 0.01 level of significance

4.4 Correlation Comparison

Table 4.7 compares the results of Intraclass Correlation Coefficient and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient through the sample of respondents. Clearly, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient showed the same general pattern as Intraclass Correlation Coefficient. However, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient tended to be slightly higher in most cases.

**Table 4.7 Comparison between Intraclass Correlation & Pearson Product
Moment Correlation Coefficients**

	Chinese Students Studying in New Zealand	
	Intraclass	Pearson
Male Sample		
Men and Managers	0.714**	0.732**
Women and Managers	-0.367 n.s.	-0.471 n.s.
Female Sample		
Men and Managers	0.571**	0.588**
Women and Managers	-0.090 n.s.	-0.144 n.s.

** = 0.01 level of significance

4.5 Length of Study in New Zealand and the Stereotyping Degrees

To test the possible effect of length of study in New Zealand on stereotyping (Research Question Three), the samples were divided into two groups: one group consisted of Chinese students who have studied in New Zealand for less than five years while the other one was composed of Chinese students who have studied in New Zealand for more than five years. This study attempted to investigate whether the length of time respondents spent outside of China would affect their stereotyping. As shown in Table 4.8, there was a strong similarity between the ratings of men and managers through both of the less than 5-year group ($r = 0.729$) and more than 5-year

group ($r = 0.838$). In addition, there was an insignificant similarity between the ratings of women and managers through both of the less than 5-year group ($r = -0.506$) and more than 5-year group ($r = -0.535$). Therefore, the response to Research Question Three (To investigate whether the length of time spent outside China would affect stereotyping) through the sample indicated that there was no difference between the two groups, and that length of study had no effect on stereotyping.

Table 4.8 Chinese Tertiary Students' (in New Zealand) Length of Study & Stereotyping Intraclass Correlation Coefficients

	Men & Managers	Women & Managers
Less than 5 years	0.729**	-0.506 n.s.
More than 5 years	0.838**	-0.535 n.s.

Since there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of stereotyping, it could be inferred that respondents who commenced their studies in New Zealand relatively more recently may hold different views. Thus, those who studied in New Zealand for less than 2 years were singled out for whom the aforementioned ICC analysis was repeated. However, a similar result indicated that the ICC between men and managers was 0.61, which was a significant value. Alternatively, there was an insignificant value of -0.34 between women and managers.

4.6 International Managerial Stereotyping

Table 4.9 displays the Intraclass Correlation Coefficients obtained from international Chinese students in New Zealand, along with the relevant outcomes found in Schein and Mueller's (1992) study on male and female British and German management students, Schein et al.'s (1989) study on male and female USA management students, Orser's (1994) study on Canadian final year business students, Schein et al.'s (1996) research on male and female Chinese and Japanese management students, and O'Sullivan et al.'s (2002) study on male and female New Zealand commerce students. The comparison revealed that males from UK, Germany, USA, Canada, China, Japan and New Zealand perceived successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than women in general. Male students from UK, USA and New Zealand and Canada perceived that correlation coefficients were less and closer to zero, indicating that there was similarity between ratings of women and those of managers. On the other hand, males from China, Japan, and Germany, and male Chinese students from New Zealand perceived no significant similarity between the rating of women and that of managers. The Chinese males displayed the highest degree of male managers' similarities, suggesting the greatest degree of managerial stereotyping.

The female respondents in all seven countries perceived a high similarity between the rating of men and that of managers. Females from China, Germany, UK, USA, Canada and NZ perceived a significant similarity between the rating of women and

that of managers, but the degrees of similarity between the descriptions of women and those of managers were different. The highest degree of similarity as perceived by women and managers was found in Canada, USA and NZ.

As shown in Table 4.9, only Japanese female students and Chinese students obtained from the female sample in New Zealand exhibited that there was no significant similarity between the ratings of managers and that of women.

Table 4.9 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients on Students Populations

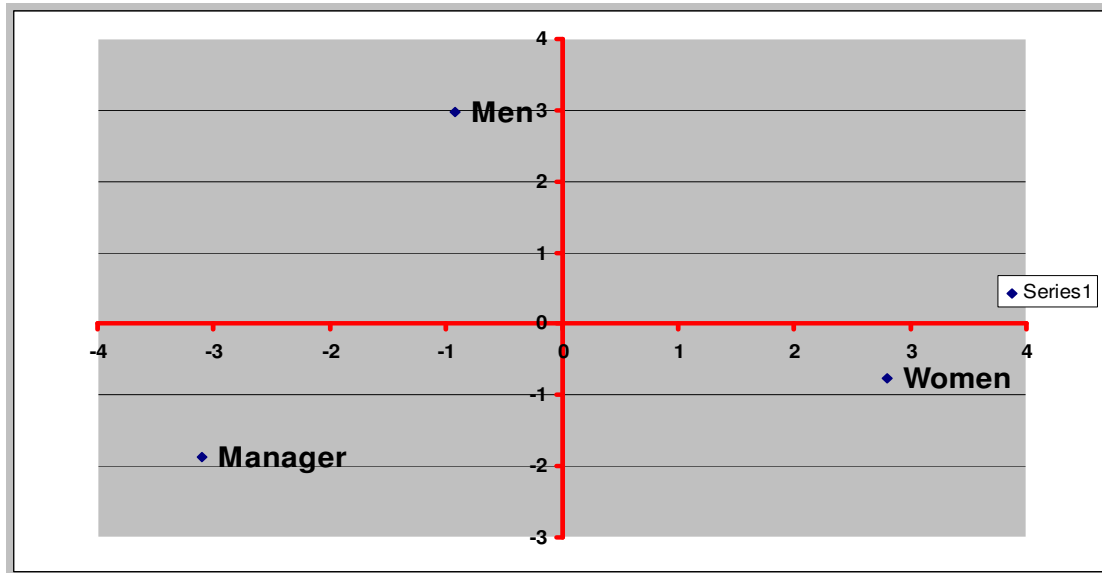
Source	China	Japan	Germany	UK	USA	Canada	NZ	Chinese in NZ
Male Sample								
Men & Managers	0.91	0.54	0.74	0.67	0.70	0.66	0.72	0.714
Women & Managers	-0.04	-0.07	-0.04	0.02	0.11	0.00	0.36	-0.367
Female Sample								
Men & Managers	0.91	0.68	0.66	0.60	0.51	0.38	0.66	0.571
Women & Managers	0.28	-0.04	0.19	0.31	0.43	0.47	0.46	-0.090

4.7 Discriminant Analysis

As explained in Chapter Three, a multiple discriminant analysis was applied to determine the 92 items which best described men, women and managers. The analysis resulted in two separate canonical functions which distinguished within three groups. The first function accounted for 62% of the variance while the second function accounted for 38% of variance.

Figure 4.4 exhibits the group centroids for each type of questionnaire. Group centroids were the mean values for the discriminant Z-score for men, women and managers. The horizontal axis displayed function one. As shown in this table, the items with a high, positive loading on function one were consistent with the women questionnaires where as those items with a negative loading on function one were more likely to be consistent with the men and/or manager questionnaires. The vertical axis represented function two. The items with a high loading on function two were likely to be consistent with the men questionnaires, and those with negative loading on function two were likely to be more consistent with the manager questionnaires. The large the distance between two group centroids, the less similar are the two groups. As such, men and managers seem to look more alike than women and managers.

Figure 4.4 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)

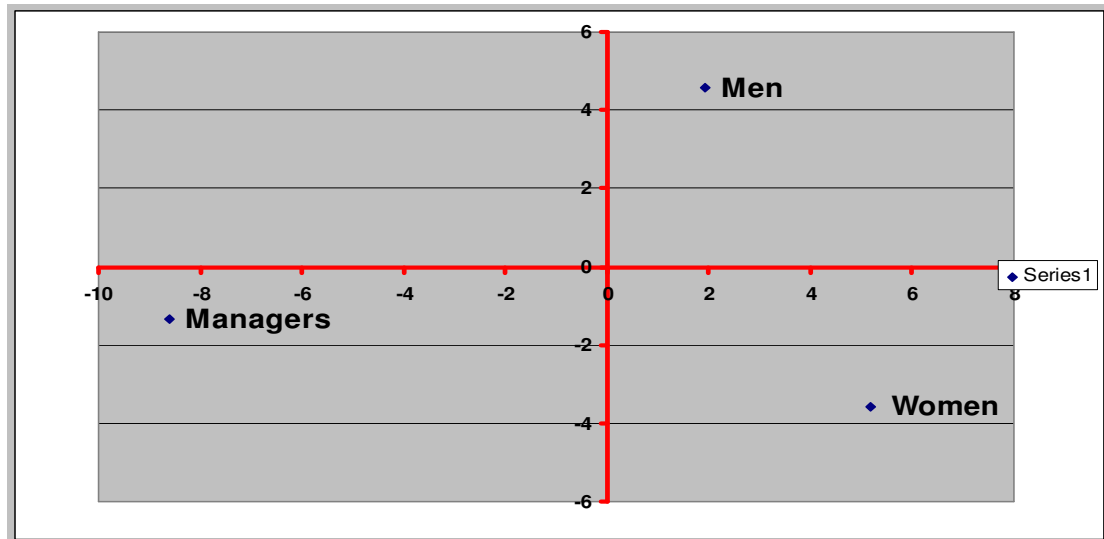


Horizontal axis = function 1
Vertical axis = function 2

According to the classification matrices, the discriminant functions in this study had high validity as they accounted for 98.6% of original grouped cases which were correctly classified.

Figure 4.5 presents the group centroids for each type of questionnaire that Chinese students have studied in New Zealand for less than five years. To compare the distance between the managers' group centroid and the men's group centroid with the distance between the managers' group centroid and the women's group centroid, the former was shorter than the latter. Therefore, it implies that the group who has studied in New Zealand for less than 5 year believes that men and managers look more alike than women and managers.

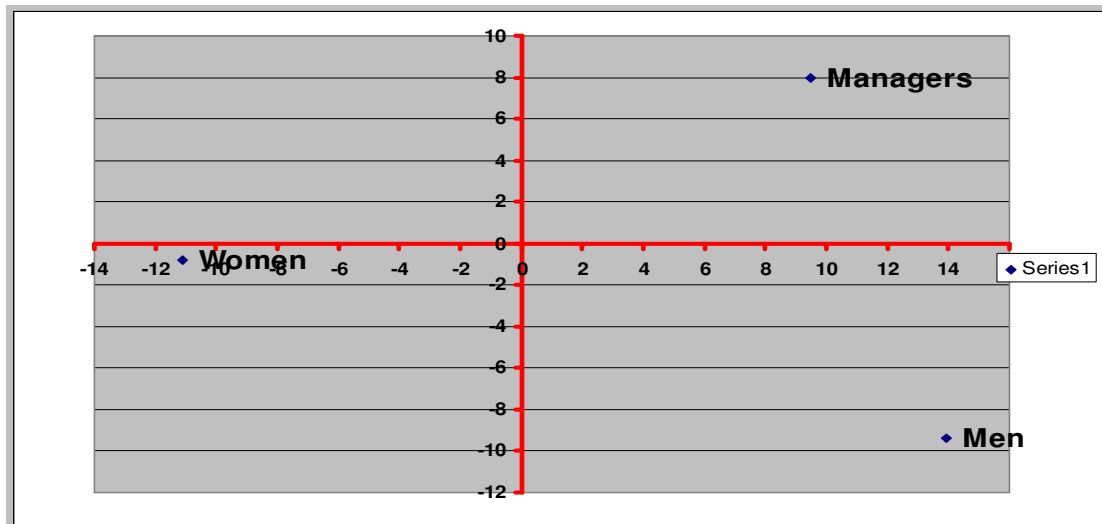
Figure 4.5 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for Length of Study in New Zealand –Less Than Five Years SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)



Horizontal axis = function 1
Vertical axis = function 2

Figure 4.6 displays the group centroids for each type of questionnaire that Chinese students have studied in New Zealand for more than five years. To compare the distance between the managers' group centroid and the men's group centroid with the distance between the managers' group centroid and the women's group centroid, the former was shorter than the latter. Therefore, it means that the group who has studied in New Zealand for more than 5 year believe that that men and managers look more alike than women and managers.

Figure 4.6 Discriminant Analysis Group Centroids for Length of Study in New Zealand –More than Five Years SDI Types (Men, Women, & Managers)



Horizontal axis = function 1
Vertical axis = function 2

According to initial analysis in Table 4.8 and Figures 4.5 and 4.6 including both ICC and multiple discriminant analysis, there was no significant difference in the degrees of gender stereotyping between students studying in New Zealand for more than five years and less than five years. The reasons for this can only be guessed at with the data we have, but it seems safe to say that the general view that stereotypes are difficult to change appears to be true.

In terms of Chinese students studying in New Zealand more or less than five years, it may be that five years is simply not long enough to change their perceptions and stereotypes. Chinese students may remain Chinese culture in their minds.

In this study, therefore, length of study was considered an unimportant role in influencing the degrees of gender stereotyping.

Chapter Five

Discussions and Implications

This chapter provides a discussion of the results presented in Chapter Four, and implications and contributions to the study of gender stereotyping of the managerial role are also presented in this chapter. First, the discussion is divided into three sections as shown below:

- In Section One, the results pertaining to the research question are reviewed and implications are discussed.
- Section Two focuses on limitations.
- Section Three provides further recommendations.
- Section Four concentrates on conclusions.

5.1 Overall Results Analysis

5.1.1 Gender Stereotyping of the Managerial Role among Chinese Students in New Zealand

The first research question proposed in this study focused on whether Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand gender stereotyped the managerial role or not. The analysis of the data showed that not only men, but also women associated managerial roles with male characteristics. This is a serious public issue because PRC is likely to lose the services of some good potential managers. The results also identified the hypothesis that male respondents perceived successful middle managers as possessing

characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than women in general, while their female samples gender stereotyped the managerial role less strongly. Male students considered men more suitable to be managers than women. Although female students gender-stereotyped less strongly than males, Chinese female students in New Zealand considered men more suitable to be managers than women.

In China, the barrier derives from the belief that normally, only men possess the necessary skills (Zuo & Bian, 2001). Schein et al. (1996) pointed out that Chinese females have been considered as men's appendages during many thousands of years of feudal society. The feudal beliefs and values assumed that males were superior to females (Judd, 1990). However, females remained ignorant and were forced to obey – first, their fathers; then after marriage, their husbands; during widowhood, their sons (Bian, 2002). When females receive a higher position, they are often called “strong and capable women.” This title is not a good one for females because it means that the women are more concerned about their career than their roles playing as wives and mothers, and moreover, they have ignored their family (Zuo & Bian, 2001).

The sample population in this study consisted of students who were studying in a first world democratic community. If their young age and current education are taken into account, this implies that gender stereotyping is deep-rooted. On the other hand, the more deep-rooted gender stereotyping is, the more important the study of the gender stereotyping becomes.

5.1.2 Cross-Cultural Comparisons

The second research question described in this study dealt with a comparison between Chinese students in New Zealand and those studies conducted in other countries such as USA, UK, Canada, Germany, Japan, China and NZ.

Results from this study were not only consistent with the previous findings, suggesting that males perceived successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than women in general, but also found that PRC's gender stereotype was more obvious than Western people's.

In particular, the Chinese males in New Zealand showed a much greater degree of managerial gender stereotyping than those in other countries (see Table 4.9). Therefore, it does not seem that Chinese men will consider women as managerial ranks in the near future. These outcomes are perhaps not unexpected. However, if compared to the results in PRC, Chinese male students in New Zealand showed fewer adherences to the managerial gender stereotyping than Chinese students in PRC. It is possible that Chinese male students in New Zealand whose degree of gender stereotyping has been changed because students in New Zealand have been away from PRC for several years. According to the results of male students studying in New Zealand, it seems likely for male samples to accept women in the managerial role than men in other countries (O'Sullivan et al., 2002). Therefore, it is possible that the cultural beliefs of PRC students may have been influenced by residing in different

cultural settings.

The results from the Chinese female students in New Zealand were also compared across cultures. Chinese female students in New Zealand perceive similarity between men and managers to be weaker than Chinese male students in New Zealand. However, Chinese female students in New Zealand perceived similarity between men and managers to be stronger than females in USA and Canada. In addition, Chinese female students in New Zealand showed no similarity between women and managers, sharing the view of their male counterparts. Negative stereotypes about women seemed to be not only held by men, but this may make it more difficult for women to win support from other women.

It was hypothesised that Chinese students in New Zealand would perceive a greater similarity between women and managers than Chinese students in China, but less similarity than students in other countries. However, this hypothesis was not supported. In fact, both of the male and female Chinese students in New Zealand perceived no significant similarity between women and managers. Therefore, it is possible that neither Chinese men nor women will accept women as managers in the near future.

A lot of potential reasons could explain why the stereotypes remained existent. The first and most important reason could be inferred based on Chinese traditional cultures. Schein (2007) mentioned that Chinese history is actually different from history and culture in other countries.

As explained in Chapter Two, Chinese culture especially emphasised female roles and responsibilities in the family. Historically cultural constraints about the nature of women often serve to perpetuate discrimination and make it difficult for women to become leaders. It is generally held “it is a virtue if a woman doesn’t have ability,” which was not surprising in the past. Chinese women are socialised to be “shy” and “unassertive”. Although these values have been changing, they play an important role in influencing social behaviour.

According to Elkin et al. (2004, p. 199), “leadership involves power, and leadership also involves relationship” is widely acknowledged. According to the Chinese culture, it is generally held that particular attention is paid to relationships in all social contexts (Zhang, 1999). Establishing relationships with superior managers, peer managers and external business partners belongs to a part of a manager’s jobs. Most of the Chinese female managers encounter problems because most people need to build relationships with men. The female managers believe that they cannot build a close relationship with their male superiors as their male counterparts, because this will raise a suspicion that they can obtain benefit by using their sexuality (Zhang, 1999).

Further, in some occasions, there is the danger that women are expected to entertain their male business partners in social and recreational activities, which may cause great discomfort. The challenge to establish a relationship with external business partners may not only cause the hardship for women in their current work, but also

become a barrier to their advancement into upper management positions (Zhang, 1999).

5.1.3 Length of Study and the Degree of the Stereotyping

The last research question attempted to investigate whether the length of time spent outside China would affect the degree of stereotyping. However, according to ICC and discriminant analysis, there was no evidence to identify that the students with longer study time in New Zealand gender stereotyped the managerial role less strongly than those students who have studied in New Zealand for a shorter time.

Many reasons may explain why the length of time spent outside China does not appear to affect the gender stereotype of the managerial role. This conforms to the view that such stereotypes are hard to change and also may indicate that if the incremental, book-keeping change pathway (Rothbart, 1981) may need longer than five years to be effective.

Another possible reason may be based on the social circle. Chinese students in New Zealand spend most of their time with other Chinese students instead of local people and therefore may not be exposed to different stereotypes as much as they could be.

5.2 Limitations

First, this section will begin to address the issue of the reliability of the SDI instrument. Our confidence in the reliability of the instrument is increased by the fact

that a different instrument generates similar results. Some researchers like Foster (1994) and Powell and Butterfield (1989), using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), concluded that both sexes tend to perceive the manager as masculine. The authors have not yet used SDI, but they receive results which are similar to Schein's and the other authors' ones.

Second, the scale was developed based on American values which may hinder its validity when used in other cultures. For example, an item which has the same rating for women and men in America may be rated quite differently by women and men in other countries. Therefore, there is a need to develop a more Chinese-centric SDI

The third area of limitation in this study focuses on the sample population. Although Chinese students were collected from different tertiary schools in New Zealand, the students in the sample may not be generally applied to the New Zealand PRC university population.

5.3 Further Recommendation

There are physical or biological differences between men and women, yet the fact that certain personality traits or characteristics are ascribed to men and women in our culture and tradition is per se an act of stereotyping, which applies social constraints to both men and women. If these socialised norms and values are tied to managers in a male-dominated society, discrimination and inequality would be inevitable. The aim to decode these barriers to women's employment and try to remove them will justify

the worth and value of this kind of research.

This study has not explored the evidence on the gender stereotypes in other groups of Chinese students such as the Chinese students from Taiwan and Hong Kong due to no large enough samples of these subgroups. As such, only those students who identified themselves as Chinese from PRC were analysed. An area for further research would be suggested to obtain a sample population comprising significantly larger proportions of at least one Chinese group such as Taiwanese on campus and to compare their stereotypical views on men, women and managers with students from PRC. This would significantly enhance our understanding of educational, social, political and legislative differences and influences.

This research attempts to examine the effect on stereotyping of the length of study. However, because of the lower number of respondents, it was only practicable to divide the sample into two groups - more than five years and less than five years, and little effect was found. Therefore, further research using more respondents and longer time can test whether length of stay in different cultures affects the degree of stereotyping. If an effect is found, stereotypes can be changed through longer time education.

This study attempted to identify which gender the respondents preferred as their boss, and found that over 50% of respondents had no preference. It is possible that the “no preference” option was used as an easy choice, rather than a real one. It seems therefore, that if participants were forced to choose the response between the sexes,

for example, “would you prefer a male or female boss?” conducted in Frank’s study (2001). Therefore, respondents’ responses would reflect their actual preference more obviously. Similar studies in the future are suggested to include such as this question.

Last, if compared to the results in other countries, Chinese students in New Zealand appear to be more likely to reject women in the managerial role than students in other countries. However, these students have not been given the opportunity to identify themselves through their behaviour. It would therefore be interesting to replicate this study but the samples should be drawn from the managerial population in order to measure whether there is a difference between the stereotypes of Chinese students in New Zealand and the Chinese managers in New Zealand or not.

Additionally, as undertaken in USA, SDI research on students over an extended period of time as they progress in their working lives would give an indication of the societal or attitudinal changes that have taken place over the years.

5.4 Conclusion

In this section, this research aims to assess three things:

1. The level of gender stereotyping among P. R. Chinese tertiary students in New Zealand.
2. Whether gender stereotyping is likely to remain a major barrier to Chinese women’s career development in the prospective management area. It looks like it will.

3. Whether the strength of stereotyping would diminish as a function of the length of time spent studying in New Zealand.

Based on the literature review in Chapter Two, it is clear stated that the proportion of women in the workforce in PRC has been steadily increasing since 1949. However, women are still under-represented in the management roles in China.

In Chapter Two, the existing literature showed that there are no problems with women's employment in terms of legislation and laws in China. There is no evidence to suggest that education is the only reason to explain that Chinese women lack achievement to attain high status of managerial roles. Women become as effective as men to be managers. The prospective managerial styles deem necessary for managerial success, may even favour women. Therefore, it seems that the barriers to hinder women's advancement are attitudinal or psychological.

This study analyses the data result using two statistical measurements including intraclass correlation coefficient and multiple discriminant analysis. ICC calculations showed that both male and female students perceived a highly significant similarity between the ratings of men and that of managers, and no significant correlation between women and managers. Male Chinese students in New Zealand were found to gender stereotyped the managerial role in masculine terms more strongly than female Chinese students in New Zealand.

The perceptual evidence on students who have studied in New Zealand for more than five years was compared with those students who have studied in New Zealand for less than five years. The results indicated that both groups of males and females, who have studied in New Zealand for more or less than five years, perceived a strong significant similarity between the rating of men and that of managers and no significant correlation between women and managers.

When compared with similar cross-cultural studies, the Chinese male students in New Zealand exhibited a higher degree of similarity between males and managers, suggesting a greater degree of managerial stereotyping. The Chinese female students in New Zealand also associated managerial roles with male characteristics.

Finally, multiple discriminant analysis group centroids were used to determine how close the relationship was between two groups: men and managers, and women and managers. The larger the distance between two group centroids, the less similar are the two groups. As shown in Figures 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6, the distances between the men group centroids and managers' group centroids were shorter than the distances between the women group centroids and managers' group centroids. Therefore, it seemed that men and managers looked more alike than women and managers.

In the future, this research is expected to enrich knowledge and understanding in this particular field and to conduct furthermore.

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Appendices

Appendix One

INSTRUCTIONS – SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (WOMEN)

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think women in general are like. In making your judgement, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about meet a person for the first time and the only thing you in advance is that the person is an adult female. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of women in general.

The ratings are to be made according to following scales:

- 5—Characteristic of women in general
- 4—Somewhat characteristic of women in general
- 3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of women in general
- 2—Somewhat uncharacteristic of women in general
- 1—Not characteristic of women in general

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) which most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

The following questions are for classification purposes, to help us put your answers into groups.

Age _____

Tick One:

Sex M _____ F _____

How Many Years Study in New Zealand? _____

Major

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| _____ Accounting | _____ Hotel & Institute Management |
| _____ Agriculture | _____ Marketing |
| _____ Applied Computing | _____ Business Management |
| _____ Economics | _____ Tourism |
| _____ Finance | _____ Transport |
| _____ Forestry | _____ Valuation & Property Management |
| _____ Horticulture | _____ Others (please state) _____ |

Nationality

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| _____ Chinese (from Mainland China) | _____ Chinese (from Hong Kong) |
| _____ Chinese (from Taiwan) | _____ others (please state) _____ |

Marital Status

Single _____ Married _____ Divorced _____

Work Experience

Years of full-time work experience: _____ yrs

Years of part-time work experience: _____ yrs

1. Have you ever worked for a female supervisor or boss? Yes _____ No _____
2. Whether or not you worked for both men and women, would you prefer to have a man or woman as boss?

Please tick one: Prefer Man _____ Prefer Woman _____ No preference _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

- 5—Characteristic
- 4—Somewhat characteristic
- 3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
- 2—Somewhat uncharacteristic
- 1—Not characteristic

1. Objective ()	24. Nervous ()
2. Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance ()	25. Direct ()
3. Shy ()	26. Hides Emotion ()
4. Firm ()	27. Authoritative ()
5. Prompt ()	28. Self-confident ()
6. Intuitive ()	29. Sentimental ()
7. Humanitarian Values	30. Steady ()
8. Knows the way of the world ()	31. Assertive ()
9. Dawdler and procrastinator ()	32. Feelings not easily hurt ()
10. Quarrelsome ()	33. Dominant ()
11. Industrious ()	34. Tactful ()
12. Well informed ()	35. Helpful ()
13. Not uncomfortable about being aggressive ()	36. Strong need for achievement ()
14. Reserved ()	37. Deceitful ()
15. Ambitious ()	38. Generous ()
16. Not conceited about appearance ()	39. Bitter ()
17. Strong need for social acceptance ()	40. Logical
18. Hasty ()	41. Skilled in business matters ()
19. Obedient ()	42. Selfish ()
20. Desires responsibility ()	43. Demure ()
21. Self-controlled ()	44. Kind ()
22. Modest ()	45. Strong need for monetary rewards ()
23. Decisive ()	46. Self-reliant ()

47. Curious ()	70. Vigorous
48. Consistent ()	71. Timid ()
49. High need for power ()	72. Sophisticated ()
50. Sympathetic	73. Talkative ()
51. Fearful ()	74. Strong need for security ()
52. Adventurous ()	75. Forceful ()
53. Leadership ability ()	76. Analytical ability ()
54. Values pleasant surroundings ()	77. Competitive ()
55. Neat ()	78. Wavering in decision ()
56. Uncertain ()	79. Cheerful ()
57. Creative ()	80. High need for autonomy ()
58. Desire to avoid controversy ()	81. Able to separate feelings from ideas ()
59. Submissive	82. Competent ()
60. Frank ()	83. Understanding ()
61. Courteous ()	84. Vulgar ()
62. Emotionally stable ()	85. Sociable ()
63. Devious ()	86. Aggressive ()
64. Interested in own appearance ()	87. High self-regard ()
65. Independent ()	88. Grateful ()
66. Desire for friendship ()	89. Easily influenced ()
67. Frivolous ()	90. Exhibitionist ()
68. Intelligent ()	91. Aware of feelings of others ()
69. Persistent ()	92. Passive ()

Appendix Two

INSTRUCTIONS – SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (MEN)

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think men in general are like. In making your judgement, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about meet a person for the first time and the only thing you in advance is that the person is an adult male. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of men in general.

The ratings are to be made according to following scales:

- 5—Characteristic of men in general
- 4—Somewhat characteristic of men in general
- 3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of men in general
- 2—Somewhat uncharacteristic of men in general
- 1—Not characteristic of men in general

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) which most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

The following questions are for classification purposes, to help us put your answers into groups.

Age _____

Tick One:

Sex M _____ F _____

How Many Years Study in New Zealand? _____

Major

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| _____ Accounting | _____ Hotel & Institute Management |
| _____ Agriculture | _____ Marketing |
| _____ Applied Computing | _____ Business Management |
| _____ Economics | _____ Tourism |
| _____ Finance | _____ Transport |
| _____ Forestry | _____ Valuation & Property Management |
| _____ Horticulture | _____ Others (please state) _____ |

Nationality

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| _____ Chinese (from Mainland China) | _____ Chinese (from Hong Kong) |
| _____ Chinese (from Taiwan) | _____ others (please state) _____ |

Marital Status

Single _____ Married _____ Divorced _____

Work Experience

Years of full-time work experience: _____ yrs

Years of part-time work experience: _____ yrs

1. Have you ever worked for a female supervisor or boss? Yes _____ No _____

2. Whether or not you worked for both men and women, would you prefer to have a man or woman as boss?

Please tick one: Prefer Man _____ Prefer Woman _____ No preference _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

5—Characteristic

4—Somewhat characteristic

3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic

2—Somewhat uncharacteristic

1—Not characteristic

1. Objective ()	24. Nervous ()
2. Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance ()	25. Direct ()
3. Shy ()	26. Hides Emotion ()
4. Firm ()	27. Authoritative ()
5. Prompt ()	28. Self-confident ()
6. Intuitive ()	29. Sentimental ()
7. Humanitarian Values	30. Steady ()
8. Knows the way of the world ()	31. Assertive ()
9. Dawdler and procrastinator ()	32. Feelings not easily hurt ()
10. Quarrelsome ()	33. Dominant ()
11. Industrious ()	34. Tactful ()
12. Well informed ()	35. Helpful ()
13. Not uncomfortable about being aggressive ()	36. Strong need for achievement ()
14. Reserved ()	37. Deceitful ()
15. Ambitious ()	38. Generous ()
16. Not conceited about appearance ()	39. Bitter ()
17. Strong need for social acceptance ()	40. Logical
18. Hasty ()	41. Skilled in business matters ()
19. Obedient ()	42. Selfish ()
20. Desires responsibility ()	43. Demure ()
21. Self-controlled ()	44. Kind ()
22. Modest ()	45. Strong need for monetary rewards ()
23. Decisive ()	46. Self-reliant ()

47. Curious ()	70. Vigorous
48. Consistent ()	71. Timid ()
49. High need for power ()	72. Sophisticated ()
50. Sympathetic	73. Talkative ()
51. Fearful ()	74. Strong need for security ()
52. Adventurous ()	75. Forceful ()
53. Leadership ability ()	76. Analytical ability ()
54. Values pleasant surroundings ()	77. Competitive ()
55. Neat ()	78. Wavering in decision ()
56. Uncertain ()	79. Cheerful ()
57. Creative ()	80. High need for autonomy ()
58. Desire to avoid controversy ()	81. Able to separate feelings from ideas ()
59. Submissive	82. Competent ()
60. Frank ()	83. Understanding ()
61. Courteous ()	84. Vulgar ()
62. Emotionally stable ()	85. Sociable ()
63. Devious ()	86. Aggressive ()
64. Interested in own appearance ()	87. High self-regard ()
65. Independent ()	88. Grateful ()
66. Desire for friendship ()	89. Easily influenced ()
67. Frivolous ()	90. Exhibitionist ()
68. Intelligent ()	91. Aware of feelings of others ()
69. Persistent ()	92. Passive ()

Appendix Three

INSTRUCTIONS – SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (MANAGER)

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think successful middle managers in general are like. In making your judgement, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about meet a person for the first time and the only thing you in advance is that the person is a successful middle manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of successful middle managers in general.

The ratings are to be made according to following scales:

- 5—Characteristic of successful middle managers in general
- 4—Somewhat characteristic of successful middle managers in general
- 3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of successful middle managers in general
- 2—Somewhat uncharacteristic of successful middle managers in general
- 1—Not characteristic of successful middle managers in general

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) which most closely represents your opinion on the line next to each adjective.

The following questions are for classification purposes, to help us put your answers into groups.

Age _____

Tick One:

Sex M _____ F _____

How Many Years Study in New Zealand? _____

Major

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| _____ Accounting | _____ Hotel & Institute Management |
| _____ Agriculture | _____ Marketing |
| _____ Applied Computing | _____ Business Management |
| _____ Economics | _____ Tourism |
| _____ Finance | _____ Transport |
| _____ Forestry | _____ Valuation & Property Management |
| _____ Horticulture | _____ Others (please state) _____ |

Nationality

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| _____ Chinese (from Mainland China) | _____ Chinese (from Hong Kong) |
| _____ Chinese (from Taiwan) | _____ others (please state) _____ |

Marital Status

Single _____ Married _____ Divorced _____

Work Experience

Years of full-time work experience: _____ yrs

Years of part-time work experience: _____ yrs

3. Have you ever worked for a female supervisor or boss? Yes _____ No _____

4. Whether or not you worked for both men and women, would you prefer to have a man or woman as boss?

Please tick one: Prefer Man _____ Prefer Woman _____ No preference _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

5—Characteristic

4—Somewhat characteristic

3—Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic

2—Somewhat uncharacteristic

1—Not characteristic

1. Objective ()	24. Nervous ()
2. Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance ()	25. Direct ()
3. Shy ()	26. Hides Emotion ()
4. Firm ()	27. Authoritative ()
5. Prompt ()	28. Self-confident ()
6. Intuitive ()	29. Sentimental ()
7. Humanitarian Values	30. Steady ()
8. Knows the way of the world ()	31. Assertive ()
9. Dawdler and procrastinator ()	32. Feelings not easily hurt ()
10. Quarrelsome ()	33. Dominant ()
11. Industrious ()	34. Tactful ()
12. Well informed ()	35. Helpful ()
13. Not uncomfortable about being aggressive ()	36. Strong need for achievement ()
14. Reserved ()	37. Deceitful ()
15. Ambitious ()	38. Generous ()
16. Not conceited about appearance ()	39. Bitter ()
17. Strong need for social acceptance ()	40. Logical
18. Hasty ()	41. Skilled in business matters ()
19. Obedient ()	42. Selfish ()
20. Desires responsibility ()	43. Demure ()
21. Self-controlled ()	44. Kind ()
22. Modest ()	45. Strong need for monetary rewards ()
23. Decisive ()	46. Self-reliant ()

47. Curious ()	70. Vigorous
48. Consistent ()	71. Timid ()
49. High need for power ()	72. Sophisticated ()
50. Sympathetic	73. Talkative ()
51. Fearful ()	74. Strong need for security ()
52. Adventurous ()	75. Forceful ()
53. Leadership ability ()	76. Analytical ability ()
54. Values pleasant surroundings ()	77. Competitive ()
55. Neat ()	78. Wavering in decision ()
56. Uncertain ()	79. Cheerful ()
57. Creative ()	80. High need for autonomy ()
58. Desire to avoid controversy ()	81. Able to separate feelings from ideas ()
59. Submissive	82. Competent ()
60. Frank ()	83. Understanding ()
61. Courteous ()	84. Vulgar ()
62. Emotionally stable ()	85. Sociable ()
63. Devious ()	86. Aggressive ()
64. Interested in own appearance ()	87. High self-regard ()
65. Independent ()	88. Grateful ()
66. Desire for friendship ()	89. Easily influenced ()
67. Frivolous ()	90. Exhibitionist ()
68. Intelligent ()	91. Aware of feelings of others ()
69. Persistent ()	92. Passive ()