

**MANAGERIAL
SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING
AMONG
NEW ZEALAND
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

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This study examined the relationship between sex role stereotypes and the characteristics perceived necessary for managerial success among New Zealand students. The sample consisted of 204 males and 248 females enrolled in commerce subjects at Lincoln University. In order to allow cross cultural comparisons, the method by which the study was undertaken was a direct replication of earlier research utilising the Schein Descriptive Index.

Male and female perceptions were analysed separately and results were compared with similar populations in America, Britain, Canada and Germany. Results indicate that New Zealand men strongly associate masculine traits with managerial characteristics. This finding is consistent with the results obtained in the other countries. However, New Zealand men were found to perceive a stronger relationship between women and managers than did the men in the comparison countries. New Zealand female students perceived both men and women as possessing the characteristics necessary for managerial success. Further analysis into the effects of subjects' experience with a female boss on perceptions, found

that experience significantly influenced females' perceptions and slightly influenced males' perceptions.

The validity of the research instrument was determined by performing a multiple discriminant analysis on the 92 items, confirming their ability to distinguish between men, women and managers. The limitations of this study are discussed along with the identification of directions for further research.

Key words: Stereotypes, sex roles, managers, culture, students.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Attitudes, not legislation, are stopping

equal pay in New Zealand

Jenny Shipley (Minister of Women's Affairs, 1995)

The progression of women into employment in New Zealand has had, and will continue to have a significant impact on both our economy and society as a whole. Having recognised the significance and importance of Equal Employment Opportunities in New Zealand, the government introduced the Equal Pay Act in 1972, the Human Rights Commission Act in 1977, and more recently, the Human Rights Act in 1993. One of the key objectives of the Human Rights Act is to protect New Zealanders from being discriminated against in their working lives (Preemployment Guidelines, 1993), and the Equal Pay Act provides that a woman must receive wages equal to a man doing the same or substantially the same work for the same employer (N.Z. Statutes, 1972).

Census figures for New Zealand show an almost 200% increase in the numbers of women employed between 1961 and 1991 and women now make up almost half of New Zealand's total workforce (N.Z. Yearbook, 1993). However, despite these facts, women in New Zealand are still poorly represented in senior or managerial roles. In a recent survey of New Zealand companies employing 70,411 workers of whom 34% were female, women were found to occupy only 15.7% of management positions (McGregor, Thomson & Dewe, 1993).

Certain differences obviously exist between men and women in terms of their biological makeup. 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, Kurau & Makhijani, 1995). Further, women are more likely to adopt the “transformational” leadership style deemed necessary for successful business practice in the future (Rosener, 1990).

Although women possess the ability to perform as effectively (if not more) than their masculine counterparts in business in the future, women are still not being accepted into the managerial ranks. Given that women and men in New Zealand are equally represented in tertiary education, lack of education does not seem to be the reason for this underrepresentation. In sum, both sexes are capable of performing effectively as managers and they both are equally qualified for the positions, so it seems that the barriers inhibiting their advancement must be attitudinal or psychological.

Research undertaken overseas strongly indicates that attitudinal or psychological barriers are the reason why women are inhibited from advancing in the workplace. In New Zealand, O'Driscoll, Humphries and Larsen (1993) found entrenched sexist attitudes in their sample, which suggests that New Zealand managers do not consider women to possess the skills and attributes necessary to become a successful manager.

Sex role stereotyping is one such psychological barrier. Sex role stereotypes are perceptions and expectations of what is appropriate behaviour for males and females (O'Leary, 1974). The association between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics can be 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 management characteristics increases the likelihood that a male rather than a female will be promoted to or chosen for the managerial position (Schein & Mueller, 1992).

A good deal of research into sex-role stereotyping has been undertaken overseas. Virginia Schein developed a 92-item inventory (SDI) to assess the sex role stereotypes inherent in American managerial samples. Her findings were consistent with those of earlier research (Basil, 1972; Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965), indicating that women are not perceived by others (both men and women) to possess the attributes necessary for managerial success (Schein, 1973 and 1975).

The Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) has served as a "barometer" of the influence and changes of stereotyping of the managerial position over the years (Schein & Mueller, 1992).

Recently, replications of Schein's 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 suggest that as contemporary or future managers, these women would be

much more likely to make gender neutral employment decisions than their male counterparts.

The 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 the U.S. They found male students in all three countries perceive successful middle managers to possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. Women, however, differed in their perceptions in that Germans sex typed the managerial role as masculine strongly, British mildly, and U.S. women do not stereotype the managerial role. Canadian men also believe that masculine, not feminine traits are associated with managerial characteristics but compared to other countries, Canadian women sex type the managerial role least strongly (Orser, 1994).

1.1 Aims and Objectives of Thesis

In New Zealand, students born and raised under the Equal Pay Act (1972) and the Human Rights Act (1977) are now attending our Universities. While any given student(s) may or may not become tomorrow's manager(s), many are certain to emerge from this group. It is therefore important that attention is paid to the attitudes and stereotypes these students have and hold at this stage of their life. The purpose of the present research is to examine the relationship between sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics

among commerce students at Lincoln University and compare the results to similar British, Canadian, German, and U.S. samples.

1.2 Thesis Overview

This thesis is divided into five chapters. The nature and purpose of the study were discussed in the first chapter. In the second chapter, the status of women's employment in New Zealand is explored, together with an examination of the attitudes towards women in management both in New Zealand and overseas. The second chapter then focuses on the sex role stereotyping research that has been undertaken overseas and at the conclusion, several research questions are advanced. The third chapter describes the methodology and research design of the study. In particular, the subjects, the procedure, the research instrument and the data analysis procedures are discussed. The results of the quantitative analysis are presented in the fourth chapter. In the final chapter, the findings pertaining to each of the research questions are discussed and the implications of these findings for women in management and management education in New Zealand are assessed. In addition, the limitations of the study are explicitly recognised and future directions for research in this area are proposed.

CHAPTER TWO

A Review of the Literature

Of all the changes that have taken place during my long life, perhaps the most fundamental is the altered place occupied by women.

Helen Wilson, NZ Pioneer and writer.

It is generally accepted that gender relations in Western democracies have markedly changed in the post war period. Increases in the employment levels of married women; the number of women returning to work after maternity; dual career families; later marriages; divorce rates; contraceptive controls and delays to the starting of families have led to changes in family, and more specifically, women's lifestyles (Collinson, Knights & Collinson, 1990). These lifestyle changes have significantly altered women's standing in society:

“Women can no longer be seen as “marginal” workers whose attachment to paid employment is only temporary because of their household responsibilities. Through their paid work many women are able to support themselves, many others are jointly contributing the income upon which households depend, and some women are providing the only employment income for their families” (All About Women in New Zealand, p. 81).

This chapter explores the literature relevant to women's experiences in the workplace and (more specifically) in management, both in New Zealand and overseas. To begin, the focus will be on the New Zealand context – exploring women's status in employment, occupational segregation, and women's education levels in our country. The review will then focus on the extent to which men and women actually differ, and then the focus will turn to the research undertaken on attitudes towards women in management, firstly overseas and then in New Zealand. The chapter will then explore the nature of sex role stereotyping of the managerial role and review the studies undertaken in several countries. Finally, the hypotheses and research questions for this study will be stated.

2.1 Women's Employment in New Zealand

In 1891, women in New Zealand made up just under 20% of the labour force and except during periods of war, their representation barely increased over the following 60 years (All about Women in New Zealand, p. 79). However, as with the trends evident in other developed countries, women's participation in the labour force over the past few decades has increased at an extraordinary rate. Census figures in New Zealand show a 182% increase in the numbers of women in paid employment between 1961 and 1991. By the early 1990s, women accounted for 43% of New Zealand's total labour force. This trend is projected to stabilise at around eight women for every ten men in the labour force by the year 2011 (N.Z. Official Yearbook, 1993). While the future in employment looks promising for women, the number of New Zealand men in paid employment has fallen

substantially. Between 1986 and 1991, women in paid employment had increased by 2.4% while the number of men in paid employment had decreased by 9.1% (Status of New Zealand Women, 1992). These figures do not distinguish between the types of work males and females are engaged in, but they are provided as an indication of the general changes occurring within New Zealand's labour force.

Paralleling the changes has been the introduction of legislation banning discrimination based on the sex of employees and against women in general. The most significant of these laws include the Equal Pay Act (1972), the Human Rights Commission Act (1977), the Employment Contracts Act (1991), and the Human Rights Act (1993). However, although the government has banned gender discrimination and employment prospects look promising for New Zealand women in the future, occupational segregation is a persistent feature of our (and most countries') labour force.

2.2 Occupational Segregation

Occupational segregation refers to the different distribution of men and women across industries and occupations. It has been identified as an important factor behind the pay gap which has continued to exist between employed males and females despite the laws in place to ban gender discrimination (see Chapter 1). Smith (1983) conceptualised the occupational segregation of white collar workers in New Zealand by two distinct categories: horizontal segregation and vertical segregation.

Horizontal segregation is found where males and females are employed in different types of occupations. It is characterised by two separate labour markets and/or a lack of competition between the sexes. According to Smith (1983), female dominated occupations are described as disproportionately female if women form a higher proportion of workers in that occupation than they do in the labour force as a whole. Conversely, male dominated occupations are disproportionately male if men form a higher proportion of the workers in that occupation than they do in the labour force as a whole. Horizontal occupational segregation in New Zealand sees women dominating and confined to six traditional female occupations: teaching, medical work, typing, clerical work, book keeping, and shop assistants (New Zealand Social Trends – Work, 1993). Women are found to be concentrated in the lower paid or lower status occupations. Moreover, average ordinary hourly earnings are \$16.20 for men but only \$13.15 for women. Men earn, on average \$619.40 per week, while women's weekly earnings are \$478.01 (N.Z. Yearbook, 1995, p. 331). Some research suggests that the pay difference between men and women is a function of the variations in terms of the perceived value of occupations. Bond and Kemp (1991) found female-dominated occupations to be perceived as less valuable, on average, than male-dominated occupations. It therefore seems that women are getting paid less because they are working in occupations which are valued less than occupations which are dominated by men. Reasons for this difference in occupational value are less clear than the facts. Discussion of possible reasons for this occupational segregation will be undertaken later in the chapter.

Unlike horizontal segregation, vertical segregation exists where males and females are found within the same occupation but at different levels. Characteristically, even in female-dominated fields, males tend to hold higher positions than females. This is clearly demonstrated in New Zealand's teaching profession. Figures show that in 1990, although women made up 71 percent of all full-time permanent primary school teachers, only 25 percent of primary school principals were women. In addition, it was noted that many women principals were at small schools. Similar statistics were found in secondary schools in which women comprised 50 percent of all teachers but only 19 percent of the principals (An Overview of EEO in The Teaching Services, 1992, p. 3).

Males in New Zealand predominate among those who are self-employed or who employ others. In 1994, 70% of persons in these categories were male. Similarly, females dominate among those working unpaid in a family business. Females made up approximately 67% of this category (N.Z. Yearbook, 1995 p. 319).

Women's representation in the managerial workforce has increased from 3% in 1971 to 21% in 1991 (New Zealand Social Trends – Work, 1993). Additionally, as noted in Chapter one, MacGregor, Thomson and Dewe (1994) discovered from their nation-wide survey covering all industries (private and public, New Zealand and overseas owned) in New Zealand, men clearly dominate managerial positions within organisations despite the fact that women comprised over a third of all employees in their study. The authors concluded from their study that in New Zealand “at entry level management, women are substantially under-represented, under-paid, and there is little incentive for women to press on towards senior management” (MacGregor et al., 1994).

The fact that women are underrepresented in managerial positions is unquestionable. Why women are not entering the managerial ranks is less clear. The following section will explore one possibility – women's educational status in our country.

2.3 Women's Education in New Zealand

An important factor contributing to labour force participation is the level of educational attainment. In general, the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to be in the labour force. In 1986, women with a university degree were more than twice as likely to be in the full-time labour force as those with no school qualifications (Women In New Zealand, 1990).

Given the responsibility and status of the managerial position, appropriate educational qualifications are likely to be important determinants of an individual's suitability for the role. It could therefore be assumed that the answer to our country's underrepresentation of women in management positions may lie in their current educational status.

However, figures show that women are now more highly represented in tertiary education than ever before. In 1991, women accounted for half of all tertiary enrolments, up from one in every ten in 1971. The most substantial increase has been at polytechs where women's representation has more than doubled since 1971. The increasing presence of

women in tertiary education is further reflected in the growing proportion of women enrolled in subjects once thought of as primarily male preserves. Over the past ten to twelve years, women have substantially increased their representation among students in dentistry, commerce, science, and medicine, and have become the majority of those students studying veterinary science and law (All About Women in New Zealand, 1993). Although men still outnumber women in all postgraduate awards, the numbers of women and men obtaining bachelor honours degrees in 1991 were almost equal. Relatedly, recent examination results of first year students at Victoria University have shown that women perform better than men (Ministry of Education, 1993, cited in All About Women in New Zealand, 1993, p. 71). Combining this better performance with the rapid increase in female participation, women's future representation among graduates looks very promising.

In their research into women in management in New Zealand, MacGregor et al. (1994) found that women managers were equal to the male managers in terms of their personal educational attainment. Combining completed tertiary qualifications across the tertiary sector, the women managers were marginally better qualified (55% to 53.8% of male managers in these categories). Further, a slightly higher percentage of the women managers' group (8.4% compared to 6.4%) were undertaking qualifications.

With this observed equality in qualifications, there is no evidence to suggest that education is the reason for the lack of women achieving high status managerial roles in New Zealand.

The next section will explore whether or not there are differences between the two sexes in terms of psychological and biological traits. Unquestionably, men and women have certain

physical differences, so it seems possible that women do not possess the necessary biological or psychological characteristics to perform in managerial roles as effectively as men.

2.4 Differences Between Men and Women

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) in their review of the literature on gender personality traits, found that nearly all widely held beliefs about sex differences have not been confirmed empirically in any consistent way; the only consistent difference was the tendency for men to be more aggressive than women. Reif, Newstrom and Monczka (1975) refer to a comprehensive examination of investigations concerning biological and socialisation factors which concludes that the only difference between women and men that biologists, psychologists, socio-psychologists and sociologists seem to agree on was the greater interest of women in relation to others. Further, the greater aggression in men and the nurturing, compliance qualities found in women can be explained biologically in terms of the higher levels of testosterone in men and estrogen in women (Lindsey, 1990).

Nash (1992, p. 39) discovered the nerves which connect the left and right sides of the brain differ between men and women. The greater interaction between the brain hemispheres seems to work to the advantage of women in tasks such as communication, but to their disadvantage in others, such as visual-spatial tasks. However, the implications of biological differences between the sexes are to be interpreted with caution, as they appear to be “malleable and subject to change by experience” (Nash, 1992, p. 43, cited in Humphries &

Grice, 1995, p. 209). Deaux (1984) in a review of the work on sex differences, found that variation explained by sex is at the most 5%, and concluded that “overall, the differences between men and women are minimal.”

In terms of personality, Steinberg and Shapiro (1982) in their analysis of 71 MBA students found that both men and women scored highly on many of the traits that were perceived as being necessary for management. Similarly, when education and level in the organisation are controlled, female leaders and managers are found to be no more or less effective than male leaders and managers (Brenner, 1982; Melamed & Bozionelos, 1992). Furthermore, women in general do not differ from men in general, in the ways in which they administer the management process (Donnell & Hall, 1980). Research has found women to be equally (Miner, 1974), if not more (Donnell & Hall, 1990), motivated than men, and the perceived lower competence of women managers seems to be caused more by the situation than by the individual characteristics of females (Liden, 1985; Riger & Galligan, 1980). To sum up, Hollander (1992) stated that there is no difference in leadership effectiveness “although women begin with an initial hurdle to attaining legitimacy” (p. 72).

However, were gender entirely irrelevant to leadership or managerial effectiveness, women and men would fare equally as managers or leaders across all organisations or groups, but this is clearly not the case. The importance of context can be explained by contingency theory which argues that appropriate managerial action depends on the particular parameters of the situation. As such, there is not one *universal* principle that can be applied to every situation, but rather appropriate managerial styles depending on the characteristics of the situation (Bartol & Martin, 1991, p. 67). In line with the contingency approach,

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). Similarly, Eagly, Kurau and Makhijani (1995) found female and male leaders to be differentially effective in many settings. Women were found to fare poorly in settings in which leadership was defined in highly masculine terms, especially in military settings. Men fared slightly worse than women in settings in which leadership was defined in less masculine terms, especially in educational organisations and in governmental and social service organisations.

Cann and Siegfried (1987) discovered that stereotypically masculine directive behaviours impressed and appealed to supervisors but subordinates maintained a clear preference for more consideration and stereotypical feminine behaviours. As a result, the authors concluded that the effective manager would seem to require an androgynous style. According to Bem (1974; 1975), the concepts of masculinity and femininity are not necessarily precise correlates of biological sex. Androgynous individuals are characterised by both masculine and feminine traits. Other studies support this idea and posit that an androgynous leadership style may help women overcome stereotypes that have prevented them from being viewed as leaders in the past (Korabik, 1990). Similarly, Kent and Moss (1994) found that the possession of feminine characteristics does not decrease an individual’s chances of emerging as a leader as long as the individual also possesses masculine characteristics. It therefore seems that the most effective leader would have the flexibility to engage in both masculine and feminine styles in order to adapt to different situations appropriately.

2.5 The Management Style of the Future

Increased competition both nationally and internationally has been the inevitable result of business globalisation. The turbulent business environment of the future will require businesses to constantly change and reevaluate their practices. By reviewing what it does, by whom and how, a business is more likely to succeed. According to Smith and Smits (1994):

“The call seems to be for flexibility and creativity in developing ideas, organising resources and empowering people, it is a call which will be best answered by utilising the complementary skills of men and women in management. This multifaceted challenge, if accepted, could see a transformation of management and leadership, one which might to some be called feminised, but which should more properly be seen as synergised”(p.43).

As such, the traditional "transactional leadership" style (i.e., formal, status conscious, directive and controlling) which has predominated in the past is unlikely to suffice in the future. In its place, "transformational leadership" is likely to emerge as the crucial determinant of successful growth and maturity. Transformational leadership is empowering, sharing and collaborative (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1993). In New Zealand, deregulation has increased the awareness and significance of transformational aspects of management. Hamilton, Dakin and Loney (1991) found that three quarters of their Canterbury CEO respondents believed themselves to be using coaching or supportive styles as opposed to the traditional direction/close supervision style. Additionally, participative management styles with open communication are widely encouraged (Pettigrew & Whipp,

1991). However, although awareness of the changing management style is increasing, other studies suggest that New Zealand firms are not readily adjusting to the changes (Corbett, 1990; Walker & Vitalis, 1991), which may suggest the necessity of further training, awareness and education in our country.

More generally, since the traits associated with this form of leadership are more consistent with the traits normally associated with the feminine stereotype, and women are more likely than men to prefer the transformational style (Rosener, 1990), the "feminine in management" paradigm may face a promising future.

We can deduce, therefore, that women are as likely as men to be effective managers, and the future managerial styles deemed necessary for managerial success may favour women.

We have also established that the grounds on which women may face discrimination in terms of their educational status, biological or psychological traits cannot be substantiated.

However, the fact is that men clearly dominate positions of authority and seniority in contemporary society.

It seems then that the most influential force inhibiting women's progression into senior or managerial ranks lies in the mentality and negative attitudes towards women, as held by individuals and/or by the organisation through its policy and practice (Gold & Pringle, 1988). In order to understand the influence these forces have, it is important that we focus our attention on the research that has been undertaken to ascertain the attitudes prevalent in organisations. Research of this sort is minimal in New Zealand (and will be explored later in the chapter), so it seems beneficial to explore the findings obtained overseas in order to

better understand the dynamics and significance of these attitudinal barriers in our own country.

2.6 Attitudes Towards Women as Managers - Overseas

Since a strong relationship exists between attitudes and behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the impact discriminatory attitudes have on women's progression into managerial ranks has been studied and documented all over the world. The aim of this section is to briefly review this literature and give the reader a broader, more historical perspective on these attitudinal barriers.

Bowman, Worthy and Greyser (1965) conducted a classic study of American male attitudes toward women executives. The study found that while the males sampled felt that women in management had no appreciable effects on efficiency and production, one third of those sampled felt that females in managerial positions had a "bad" effect on employee morale. Fifty-one percent of the male respondents felt women were temperamentally unfit for management. Eighty-one percent did not agree that men feel comfortable with a female boss. Only twenty seven percent indicated that they would feel comfortable working for a woman.

The general, and widely-held view that women do not fit into the managerial mold can be exemplified in the original managerial model cited by Douglas McGregor (1967):

“The model of a successful manager in our culture is a masculine one. The good manager is aggressive, competitive, firm and just. He is not feminine, he is not soft and yielding or dependent or intuitive in a womanly sense. The very expression of emotion is widely viewed as a feminine weakness that would interfere with effective business processes.”

Models similar to that outlined above, not only exemplify, but also serve to perpetuate the prevailing attitudes throughout society.

In their research into the way American managers perceive women and their relationship to work, several factors influencing men’s ability to accept women on an equal basis were revealed by Bass, Kursell and Alexander (1971). They found that women were not actually perceived as less capable than men, but rather, the managers indicated that other men and women would prefer having male supervisors and that they themselves would be uncomfortable with a woman supervisor. The other factor that influenced managers in their negative perception of women at work was women’s perceived lack of dependability, as a function of women’s “biological” and “personal” characteristics. Similarly, in a national survey conducted by Rosen and Jerdee (1978), American male managers were found to view women as inferior to men in motivation, skill and decision-making ability. A more recent poll on women in business indicated that although American executives hold more favourable views of women than they did 20 years previously, the majority of

respondents still believed that only a truly exceptional women could survive in the business world (Sutton & Moore, 1985).

Although some more research suggests that the barriers preventing women from leading or managing organisations are coming down (Chusmir & Koberg, 1991), many people still express a preference for a male boss (Gallup, 1990; Rubner, 1991; Simon & Landis, 1989). In a survey of 201 CEOs of America's largest companies, all of whom were men, only 2% considered it very likely that their company would have a female CEO within the next decade (Fisher, 1992, p. 44). Expressing similar sentiments, 70% of the 400 American female managers surveyed by *Business Week* continue to see "...the male dominated corporate culture as an obstacle to their success" (Segal & Zellner, 1992, p. 74).

2.7 Students' Attitudes Towards Women as Managers

Many students attend University with the aim of enhancing their opportunity for entry into senior, managerial or professional positions. Some of these students will, in fact, become our future managers. The attitudes held by these students may serve as an indication of the extent to which women will face discrimination in the future. Given these implications, research has been undertaken to measure and explore the attitudes towards women in management, held by University students.

Dubno (1985) in his longitudinal study on MBA students' attitudes towards women in management, demonstrated that "between 1975 and 1983, male MBA students retained consistently negative attitudes towards women as managers, whereas their female counterparts were consistently positive." Dubno (1985) remarked that the finding that male MBA students held more negative attitudes than did the females was in itself not surprising but during the eight year period, the feminist movement and the drive for the Equal Rights Amendment were at intense levels, yet neither male nor female MBA students changed their attitudes towards women as executives in organisations

Frank (1988), also noting the significance of research into students' perceptions, surveyed American male and female undergraduate business majors regarding their perceptions of women in management. Results showed that males perceived female managers to be less knowledgeable and possessing poorer managerial skills than male managers. Males were also less accepting of women in the labour force. Female students showed a greater preference for a male boss. Their descriptions of women were more positive regarding competency, but emphasised an interpersonal rather than a task orientation. When comparing her results to earlier research, Frank (1988) concluded that perceptual stereotypes have not radically altered over the years.

A replication of Frank's (1988) study on students in Singapore (Lee & Hwee Hoon, 1993) found similar results in that the attitudes towards women in management positions among Singapore students had not changed over the years, despite increases in women's education and participation in paid employment. A similar study on Canadian business students' attitudes towards women as managers found that men had significantly more negative

attitudes than did women. Further, students scoring higher on the Masculinity scale of the Bem Sex Role Inventory were found to have more negative attitudes towards women as managers (Burke, 1994).

In reference to the future, McKeen, Beatty, and Kurdyak (1993) and Beatty, McKeen and Kurdyak (1993) reported data from their sample of 1991 business school graduates which indicated that both men and women *hoped* they would have egalitarian relationships with their partners but both *expected* that the men's career would take a much higher priority than the women's.

2.8 Attitudes in New Zealand

The prevalence of attitudinal barriers faced by women in New Zealand organisations is clearly described in the following conclusion made by McLennan et al. (1987):

"The picture painted of the position of women at work (in New Zealand) shows prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination operating against them at almost every turn. Women are being sat upon by the inbuilt biases of our organisations and society. Inequality and discrimination are deeply embedded in our attitudes, our behaviour, our enterprises and our nation and are hence highly resistant to change" (p. 245).

The effects of New Zealand attitudes towards women in employment have determined to a large extent the hiring, assignment, training and promotion of women. Despite the dearth of empirical research done on women in management in New Zealand, a sufficient number of studies have been undertaken to enable a review of the progress (or lack of) that has taken place in employers' attitudes in New Zealand over the past twenty years.

In 1973, the Society for Research on Women (SROW), reported that employers' attitudes are "Overwhelmingly that management is a man's job and that women in general could not be expected to do or were not suitable for such jobs that required long term commitment and acceptance of responsibility" (cited in Place, 1981, p. 42). Furthermore, SROW reported that men felt as though their longer term commitment to work was sufficient reason to warrant promotions of men over women. Similarly, in her study of New Zealand executive recruitment consultants, Place (1981) found that her subjects considered employers to believe that women managers lacked the long-term commitment needed for management, were resented by male employees, were not accepted by female employees and did not aspire to top level management.

New Zealand banks have also been found to hold these discriminatory attitudes towards female employees (Stechman, 1983). Bank employees believed that women were less suitable for management positions. Specifically, one bank openly stated to all employees that management positions were exclusively reserved for the male employees. Similarly, slow progress for women within banking has been reported by Sarr (1988) and the Finance Sector Union report (1990).

Comparatively promising results were discovered in a mail survey carried out by Gill Ellis on 550 New Zealand private and public sector managerial and administrative executives. Specifically, the subjects had generally positive attitudes about women's suitability and future prospects in management (Ellis, 1991).

Unfortunately, the results found in Ellis's (1991) study have not been replicated. In 1993, Gatfield and Gray found slow progress for women within the legal profession. More generally, O'Driscoll et al. (1993) found negative contemporary attitudes in their study investigating how managers had learned and developed the various skills and attitudes required for their managerial work. As part of this research, a number of questions were asked about the presence of women managers in their organisations and the ranges of opportunities available to them. Explanations for why there were not more women in senior positions varied. Some managers believed women were not being trained for industry. Others spoke of "institutionalised sexism" and "stereotyping of an industry" (Gatenby and Humphries 1991, p.32). Some managers made their reasons for not promoting women quite explicit, for example "... I think women should be mothers," and "Wives should be at home." One manager reported that if two people applying for a job were equally qualified, he would appoint the man every time. A variety of other reasons were given including sexual harassment, the absence of role models, personal characteristics of women themselves, lack of mobility, their tendency to follow their husband's career opportunities, and that they simply do not want to be managers. Only one manager linked the apparent lack of female aptitude and aspiration to lack of real opportunities to progress within his organisation. When the managers were asked to reflect on the opportunities for

women in the future, a mixed response was received. The authors concluded that although a few managers were optimistic, the organisational structures and cultures within which women must attempt to do their jobs are profoundly affected by sexist attitudes (O'Driscoll et al., 1993).

In order to study the actual employment experiences of recent female management graduates, a longitudinal career development project is currently being undertaken in New Zealand. Preliminary results (obtained via correspondence with the author – Maria Humphries, in 1995) suggest these women are constantly faced with sexism, ranging from the subtle to the overt. In the face of such sexism, a number of women in the study have chosen to find other employment. The women report a great commitment to their organisations yet also envisage taking on the roles of spouses and mothers. These women see themselves as competent people, worthy of respect and investment but their experiences suggest a misfit between the image they have of themselves and those images of women described by the managers in the attitudinal study undertaken by O'Driscoll, et al. (1993). Further, O'Driscoll and Humphries (1994) investigated the job and off-job time demands women executives faced and the coping mechanisms they employed. Their results supported women's capacity to function effectively as managers by disqualifying the notion that off-job commitments (defined as family, community, social and political activities) interfere with the quality of their work.

As can be seen, the existence of a bias against women inhibiting their ability to enter the managerial ranks is unquestionable. The next section explores the nature of, and research undertaken on sex role stereotyping. Sex role stereotypes are strong, underlying forces governing and contributing to the attitudinal barriers preventing women in our society from gaining managerial positions.

2.9 Sex Role Stereotypes

“The power of socially prescribed roles to shape our attitudes, our behaviour and even our sense of self is nowhere more evident than the way society implants ideas about masculinity and femininity and the ways men and women should act” (Myers, D. p. 200).

Sex role stereotypes are the perceptions and expectations of what is appropriate for males and females (O’Leary, 1974). People selectively notice, attend to, and encode stimuli that are consistent with their stereotype, making only those stimuli available to memory. Additionally, information that is inconsistent with the stereotype may be ignored or neglected (Beall & Sternberg, p. 67). These sex role stereotypes unconsciously affect our perceptions of women and men.

According to Ellis and Wheeler (1991):

"In management, it [sex role stereotyping] means a woman manager's subordinates and superiors assess and interact with her on the basis of assumed differences, social conventions or norms, and learned behaviours about what women are like and how they act" (p. 39).

The characteristics associated with male sex role stereotyping are seen as being those that are more appropriate for managerial positions. Characteristics such as self-reliance, independence, aggressiveness and domination are associated with the successful manager, while feminine characteristics such as non-aggression, spiritual values, artistic inclinations and concern for the welfare of others are not viewed as traits deemed necessary for management (Orser, 1994).

More generally, these sex role stereotypes are in a large part responsible for the widely held beliefs regarding women's unsuitability in the business world. Lussier (1993 p. 506) identified some common labels or perceptions that evolve from these stereotypes (see Table 2.1):

Table 2.1

Common stereotypes that occur in business

MAN	WOMAN
A business man is aggressive	A business woman is pushy
Careful about detail	Picky
Loses temper - so involved with his job	Bitchy
Follows his work through	Doesn't know when to quit
Makes wise judgements	Reveals her prejudices
Says what he thinks	Opinionated
Discreet	Secretive
Stern taskmaster	Difficult to work for

As can be seen, whereas men's actions are viewed positively, women's efforts to perform effectively in the managerial role are hindered by prejudices and stereotypes which distort the reality.

To believe that it is males who possess the necessary characteristics to perform the managerial role effectively, is to incorrectly assume managerial skills are masculine characteristics. A good deal of research has been undertaken to directly measure the relationship between sex role stereotypes and the perceived requisite personal characteristics for the middle management position. Virginia Schein (1973) began a series

of studies using an instrument of her own design, the Schein Descriptive Index. In her initial (1973) study, Schein found that American male middle managers perceived successful middle managers to possess characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. These findings were consistent with those that had been reported earlier by others (Basil, 1972; Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965). Two years later, Schein (1975) replicated her study using American female middle managers and found similar results. As such, both male and female American managers in the early seventies perceived that the characteristics required of a successful middle manager were more commonly held by men in general than by women in general. From these results, Schein (1975) concluded that female managers are as likely as male managers to make 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 developments or changes in attitudes over time, the SDI has served as a useful instrument. There are some indications that little, if anything, has changed. Massengill and DiMarco (1979) and Powell and Butterfield (1979) found managers to be depicted in predominantly masculine terms by supervisory personnel and business students, respectively. In a recent replication of their earlier work, Powell and Butterfield (1989) demonstrated that this view still prevails. Another study among male managers in the USA also showed that men in general are described in terms more similar to successful managers than are women in general. Further, even when women were depicted as managers, perceived differences in many attributes central to managerial performance persisted (Heilman, Block, Martell & Simon, 1989).

Other studies, however, have had more promising results. Specifically, although male managers still perceive that successful middle managers possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general, female managers no longer sex type the managerial role, but see women and men as equally likely to possess the characteristics necessary for managerial role success (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989). Considering the implications for the future, Schein's research then turned to focus on the sex role stereotypes evident in student populations. In 1989, similar results were found for students (Schein, Mueller and Jacobson, 1989) as were obtained for managers in America. Specifically, both male managers and management students perceived male middle managers as possessing the characteristics commonly ascribed to men, but both female managers and management students perceived women and men as equally likely to possess the characteristics required for managerial success.

2.10 Sex Role Stereotypes: The Cross Cultural Perspective

Adler and Izraeli (1988) bring attention to the lack of women in management positions worldwide and consider the reasons to be fairly similar internationally. These include cultural sanctions, educational barriers, legal restrictions, corporate obstacles and women's disinterest in pursuing a traditional masculine career. They further state that the importance of each of these reasons and their dynamics will vary from country to country. Although recognising the worldwide ramifications American research has had on the significance of

sex role stereotyping, Schein (1992) addressed the need to focus on both the commonality of barriers to women in management and the differential dynamics of these barriers within different countries. In a study comparing the relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among management students in America, Britain and Germany, Schein (1992) found that males in all three countries characterise the successful manager with stereotypical male traits. Among the females, the U.S sample had the highest degree of resemblance between the ratings of women and of managers, which was similar to the perceived resemblance between men and managers. The British female sample also exhibited a fairly high degree of resemblance between the descriptions of women and the descriptions of managers, whereas the German female sample's degree of resemblance between descriptions of women and descriptions of managers was much smaller than those found in the British and the U.S. female sample. This pattern was also confirmed in a study among managers in Britain in a large financial services organisation (Daly, 1992). Schein (1992) remarked on the significant relationship evident between the strength of the stereotypes and the opportunities available for women in business in each of these countries. Relatedly, Ely (1995) demonstrated how the proportional representation of women in positions of power affects professional women's gender identity at work. Results found that in firms in which few women were in positions of power, sex roles were more stereotypic.

Similar results were obtained in a recent Canadian study. Once again, male students associated masculine traits with managerial characteristics and not feminine characteristics (Orser, 1994). Comparatively, however, female students in Canada showed the highest degree of similarity in their descriptions of women and managers.

A further study on students in Canada and America explored the impact of mother's education and employment history on the pattern of sex role stereotyping. Results found no significant differences between national samples, and regardless of mother's background, male college students characterised the managerial job in distinctly masculine terms whereas female students did not (Norris & Wylie, 1995).

Different, but very interesting results were obtained by Foster (1994) in a study of U.K. academic staff. Specifically, her study found a difference in terms of the academic level of subjects. Males working at lower levels did not sex type the managerial role whereas males in senior levels strongly sex typed the managerial role in masculine terms. Women (who were significantly concentrated in the lower levels) also sex typed the managerial role in strongly masculine terms. In explaining her findings, Foster (1994) brings attention to the significant lack of women in senior academic positions, which in a narrower sense, seems to support Schein's conclusion regarding the relationship between women's perceived opportunities and their sex typing of the managerial role. Equally interesting is the fact that lower level males rated women in general and men in general as equally having the characteristics of successful middle managers. However, it is not possible to know from these results whether the attitudinal differences are a reflection of age, seniority or cohort, so whether or not these attitudes will persist as some of these males progress into senior management is uncertain.

Although no formal replication of the research cited above has been undertaken in New Zealand, an informal, unpublished study of management students in the 1990s found that

when asked to draw a word portrait of “women”, “men” and “successful people”, the students listed a number of traditional stereotypical characteristics for Pakeha men and women. The results suggested that “successful people” and men were seen as strong, independent and professional. Women were perceived as caring, nurturing and supportive of others (Humphries, cited in Olssen (1992), p. 141).

Given the legislation and developments that have taken place in New Zealand over the past twenty years in a bid to lessen discrimination and bias against women in employment, it would be interesting to study the extent to which students, who have been raised amidst these developments, sex role stereotype the managerial role in New Zealand. As such, a replication of Schein and Mueller’s (1992) study is appropriate. By utilising the same measuring instrument, procedures and analyses on a New Zealand sample population, cross cultural comparisons with American, British, Canadian and German data will be possible.

2.11 Research questions

The fundamental research question investigated in this study is stated as follows:

1. Do New Zealand university commerce students sex role stereotype the managerial role?

In arriving at a hypothesis derived from this question, it is important to recap the relevant literature. As the reader will recall from the previous section, research of this sort has been undertaken extensively. In general, a pattern has emerged. In the past, both males and females perceived successful middle managers as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general (eg. Schein 1973; 1975; Massengill & DiMarco, 1979). Recent research has found that although males continue strongly to believe that masculine rather than feminine traits are associated with managerial characteristics, females do not sex type the managerial position as strongly, and in some cases, view women and men as equally likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success (eg. Schein & Mueller, 1992; Norris & Wylie, 1995; Orser, 1994).

Given this trend, it is therefore hypothesised that:

- H1. Male New Zealand commerce students will perceive successful middle managers as possessing characteristics more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general, while their female counterparts will sex type the managerial role less strongly.

A second research question to be explored in this study is:

2. How do New Zealand commerce students' perceptions of the managerial role compare to those found in similar American, British, Canadian and German samples?

In the words of Schein (1992):

The intraclass correlation coefficients derived from the Schein Descriptive Index research serve as a barometer of women's views of their opportunities and of their actual participation as well.

The opportunities for women in management may be therefore reflected in the actual numbers of women currently holding managerial roles in each country. In Germany, only 1.5% of leading positions in German firms are held by women, and even those are clustered in female domains, such as personnel (Anata & Krebsbach-Gnath, 1988 in Schein & Mueller, 1992). In Great Britain, it is estimated that twenty percent of all managers are women (Hirsh & Jackson, 1989 in Schein & Davidson, 1993). In the U.S, 41% of all managers are women, although they comprise of only 4.8% of senior executives (U.S. Bureau of Statistics, 1991, in Fisher, 1992, pp. 45-46, cited in Norris and Wylie, 1995). The percentage of women in management in Canada is likely to be similar to the percentage in the U.S.

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, in New Zealand, women were found to comprise only 21% of managerial positions, despite comprising 43% of the workforce. Given this figure in comparison to the number of women in management in other countries, it is hypothesised that:

H2. New Zealand students will perceive a greater resemblance between women and managers than the German students, a similar resemblance to the British students, and less resemblance than their U.S. and Canadian counterparts.

The third research question addressed in this study can be stated as follows:

3. Does experience with a female boss influence the degree to which an individual sex types the managerial role?

According to Ely (1995), despite balanced representation of women and men at lower levels of organisations, sex role stereotypes are more stereotypical and more problematic in firms with relatively low proportions of senior women. It seems then, that experience with women in senior roles would result in both males and females sex stereotyping the managerial role to a lesser extent than those without the experience.

Therefore, it was hypothesised that:

H3. Students without experience of a female boss/supervisor will sex type the managerial role more strongly than those students that have had experience with a female boss/supervisor.

2.12 Chapter Summary

Over the past thirty years or more, New Zealand has witnessed significant advances in terms of women's increased representation in the labour force. Women and men are employed in almost equal proportions. Paralleling this increase has been a rise in the number of women enrolled in tertiary education.

Despite the enhanced status of women, occupational segregation prevails in New Zealand society. As a result, women are found concentrated in traditionally female occupations and are significantly underrepresented in traditionally male domains. Management is one such "male" occupation.

Although women and men may be differentially effective in different situations, research suggests that sex differences in terms of managerial effectiveness cannot be substantiated. In fact, the managerial style deemed necessary for managerial success in the future is more likely to be adopted by women than men. Additionally, men and women are equally well qualified in terms of educational achievement.

Psychological or attitudinal barriers are one of the most influential forces working against women gaining entry into managerial positions. Attitudes which discriminate against gender are prevalent in New Zealand's male dominated society. It is imperative therefore, that research focuses on these barriers in order to attain a full understanding of how these barriers work and to determine ways in which they can be diminished. Research into sex role stereotyping is one means by which such an understanding can be enhanced.

Sex role stereotypes are significant forces underlying biased perceptions or attitudes. Overseas, research into sex role stereotypes has been undertaken. Contemporary findings suggest that whereas males in all countries perceive that middle managers possess characteristics more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general, females' perceptions are country specific, apparently varying according to the opportunities they see for themselves in management.

Based on the forementioned literature which suggests the need for research of such a nature in New Zealand, research questions and hypotheses are proposed for the study. In sum, the main focus of this study is to ascertain the extent to which sex role stereotyping of the managerial role is prevalent among New Zealand university commerce students.

Additionally, a cross cultural comparison will be made between our data and that obtained for similar American, British, Canadian and German samples. Finally, the study seeks to ascertain the influence which experience of a female boss has on students' perceptions.

CHAPTER THREE

Method

3.1 Overview

The method employed in this research project was a direct replication of Schein and Mueller's (1992) study. The rationale behind this replication was to ensure a legitimate comparison between the results found in New Zealand and those found in America, Britain, Canada and Germany. This chapter begins with a description of the sample population used in this study. The second section describes the measuring instrument (the Schein Descriptive Index) which was distributed to, and completed by the subjects. A detailed account of the procedure by which the study was undertaken is then given. The third section describes the Intraclass correlation coefficients and the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients that were used to analyse the data. The data analyses were used to determine the degree of correspondence and the linear relationship (respectively) between the ratings of successful middle managers and men in general and successful middle managers and women in general. The final section of this chapter deals with the multiple discriminant analysis was undertaken to determine the extent to which the independent variables (the 92 items) discriminate between the three groups (men, women and successful middle managers).

3.2 Sample

Firstly, New Zealand students i.e., those who identified themselves as New Zealand European or Maori in the nationality question, were separated from the rest of the respondents. This was done in order to determine the perceptions which reflect New Zealand's educational, social, political and legislative influences. The sample therefore consisted of 153 male and 165 female stage one, two and three New Zealand commerce students enrolled at Lincoln University. Their ages ranged from 18 to 39 years, with a median age of 21 years. Each student was present in one of the five commerce classes targeted due to their large size, for participation in the study.

3.3 Measuring Instrument

The 92-item Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) was used to define sex role stereotypes and the characteristics of successful middle managers. The index was developed by Virginia Schein (1973).

In developing the questionnaire, Schein (1973) formulated a preliminary form of the Descriptive Index, based on 131 items that had been found to differentially describe males and females by previous studies. Using the preliminary form of the index, a pilot study was undertaken on a small group of college students – half of whom were given the Women form, the other half the Men form. Then, according to Schein (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."

The use of the Index in replicated studies has gauged the developments and changes in sex role stereotyping of the managerial position over time. Comparative results from a similar study using the 24-item PAQ (Norris & Wylie, 1995), indicate that results found in the SDI studies are not artefacts of the research instrument, and therefore support the validity of the Schein Descriptive Index.

In order to avoid bias in terms of ordering effects, the questionnaires were split into four different types. The types consisted of the same 92 items ordered in four different ways. This control for ordering effects was specific to this study only. Within each type, three forms of the index were used, each containing the same descriptive terms and instructions, except that one form asked for a description of adult men in general (Men), one for a description of adult women in general (Women) and one for a description of successful middle managers (Managers).

The instructions on the three forms of the index were:

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 (women, men) in general are like. In making your judgements, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful middle manager (woman, man). Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of successful middle managers (women, men) in general.

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

Information was also requested on the sex, age, year of study, subject major, ethnicity, marital status and work experience of the respondents. Additionally, the respondents were asked whether they had worked for a female boss before and which sex (if any) they prefer as their boss. This information was used to determine the composition of the sample.

3.4 Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed by the author and an assistant to students present in five commerce lectures (stages one, two and three) on campus at Lincoln University. All the questionnaires were distributed on the same day. Respondents were asked to check if they had completed the questionnaire in another class and these forms were eliminated. In each lecture, an equal number of Men, Women and Manager forms were distributed in order to ensure randomisation. The questionnaires were completed during class time and returned to the researcher immediately after completion. Each student received only one form of the Index and was not made aware of the purpose of the study. To ensure less biased, more inherent stereotypes, students were encouraged to indicate their initial response to each item, rather than contemplating or spending undue time over their responses. Additionally, the subjects were assured that there was no right or wrong answers and their questionnaires were completely confidential. Dictionary definitions were provided via an overhead projector to aid students' understanding of some of the more unusual or difficult adjectives contained in the SDI questionnaire. The questionnaire took 10-15 minutes to complete. After collecting the questionnaires, subjects were debriefed and given the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

3.5 Analysis of the data

In the first instance, students who did not identify themselves as New Zealand European or Maori were eliminated from the sample and descriptive statistics were taken for the New Zealand respondents to ascertain the exact composition of the group.

Intraclass correlation coefficients were then calculated in order to determine the degree of correspondence between descriptions of successful middle managers and men in general, and descriptions of successful middle managers and women in general. The first analysis consisted of the 92 mean item ratings of men and managers, and the second analysis the mean item ratings of women and managers. These analyses were undertaken separately for male and female subjects, and then for students with and students without experience with a female boss. As noted by Heilman, Block, Simon and Martell (1989), intraclass correlation coefficients are often used to determine several judges' similarity in the ratings of an object, but this study (as in the previous SDI studies) uses the calculation to determine the similarity of the SDI ratings for men in general, women in general and successful middle managers.

Where:

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{2n} \left\{ \sum (x - \bar{x})^2 + \sum (x' - \bar{x})^2 \right\}$$

$$r = \frac{1}{ns^2} \sum \{(x - \bar{x})(x' - \bar{x})\}$$

\bar{x} = mean of all items in both groups
i.e., men and managers or
women and managers.

n = no. of items

s^2 = variance of item means

x = item mean for managers

x' = item mean for other group i.e.
men or women.

r = intraclass correlation coefficient

According to Hays (1963), the larger the Intraclass correlation coefficient, the more similar do observations in the same treatment category tend to be, relative to observations in different categories. In this study, the focus was 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, means more similarity between the two groups, such as men and managers in the way they are viewed by students. A low coefficient implies that members of one group, for example women, are viewed by students as more like each other than they are like the other group, for example managers.

In addition to Intraclass correlation coefficients, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were computed in order to determine the linear relationships between the mean ratings of successful middle managers and men in general and of successful middle managers and women in general.

Although the Intraclass correlations are useful in determining the relationship between the groups, and are important for comparison with earlier results, they are usually used on two sets of interchangeable measurements. The appropriateness of the intraclass correlation calculation is questionable for this type of study as the SDI measures 92 different things on two groups whose measurements are not interchangeable. Additionally, the intraclass correlation coefficients do not give a feel for how all three groups (men, women and manager) relate as a whole. As such, further analysis by means of a multiple discriminant analysis provided that information.

3.6 Multiple Discriminant Analysis

Previous studies in this area have performed various analyses on their data to determine the specific items on which men, women and managers differ (Schein, 1973; 1975; Massengill & Di Marco, 1979; and Heilman, Block et al, 1989), but none so far has performed a discriminant analysis on the data. Discriminant analysis is used to statistically distinguish between two or more groups of cases. 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 (Klecka, p.435). For this study, discriminant analysis was undertaken on the types of questionnaires used i.e., men, women and successful middle managers. The discriminating variables that measured the characteristics on which the groups were expected to differ, were the 92 descriptive items.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the methodological approach used to determine the relationship between the ratings of successful middle managers and men in general, and successful middle managers and women in general, in a New Zealand commerce student sample. The research replicated Schein and Mueller's (1992) study to ensure a legitimate comparison with results obtained in other countries. This chapter described the sample population, the research instrument, the procedure and the data analysis methods used in this study. Additionally, the multiple discriminant analysis technique which was used to determine the

items that distinguish best between the three groups (men, women and successful middle managers) was explained. The composition of the sample, the results of the intraclass correlation coefficient analyses, the comparisons with the America, Britain, Canada and Germany, and the discriminant analysis results are given in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

4.1 Overview

The results of the research are reported in seven sections. The first section (Section 2) examines the composition of the sample. In this section, demographic statistics pertaining to the gender, marital status and year of study are reported in order to clearly define the composition of the sample population. Section three looks at additional information consisting of subjects' experience with a female supervisor or boss and the boss gender preference for both male and female respondents. The fourth section presents the results obtained from the Intraclass correlation coefficient computations. Section five presents the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients in a table alongside the Intraclass correlation coefficients to allow a direct comparison of the two. The sixth section exhibits the results of the correlations undertaken to determine the difference between students with, and students without experience with a female supervisor or boss. Section seven presents a table allowing a cross cultural comparison of the Intraclass correlation coefficients obtained for American, British, Canadian, German, and our New Zealand sample. Section eight looks at the results of the multiple discriminant analysis which was performed to determine the items that distinguish most clearly between men, women and managers. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the results obtained in this study.

4.2 Demographic Statistics

Since the focus of this study was on New Zealand students' sex role stereotyping of the managerial role, students who identified themselves as New Zealand European or Maori were separated from the rest of the respondents. As explained in Chapter three, by separating out the New Zealand students, it was possible to determine the perceptions which reflect New Zealand's educational, social, political and legislative influences. The composition of the sample of New Zealand students was determined and is documented as follows:

Of the 318 New Zealand respondents, three hundred and eleven (98%) identified themselves as New Zealand European and seven (2%) identified themselves as Maori. One hundred and fifty three (48%) of the sample were male and one hundred and sixty five (52%) were female. As such, the questionnaires were sufficiently evenly distributed between the two sexes. The sample population ranged in age from 18 to 39 years. The median age was 21 years and the mean age, 21.9 years.

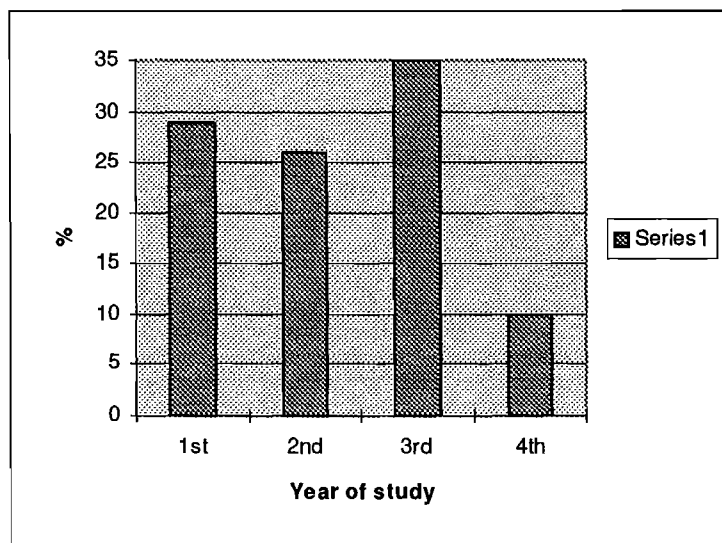
Table 4.1 displays the percentage of male and female respondents who completed each of the three forms of the index i.e., perceptions of a man, woman, or successful middle manager. As can be seen, the forms were evenly distributed with similar proportions of male and female subjects completing each of the three forms of the index.

Table 4.1. Percentage of male and female respondents completing the three forms of the index.

Form	Males	Females
<i>Man</i>	32%	33%
<i>Woman</i>	31%	30%
<i>Manager</i>	37%	37%

Figure 1 exhibits the year of study the subjects were in at the time they took part in this study. The biggest group (35%) of students were in their third year, with year one and two students comprising twenty six and twenty eight percent of the respondents respectively. Being undergraduate classes, it came as no surprise that only thirty two fourth year students (10%) were present in the targeted classes.

Figure 1. Year of study



300 single students formed the majority (93%) of the sample group, with fifteen (5%) of the subjects identifying themselves as married, and three (1%) as divorced.

4.3 Additional Information about the subjects

As displayed in Figure 2, when questioned about whether or not they had worked for a female boss or supervisor, 71% of the subjects indicated they had, whereas 29% indicated that they had not.

Figure 2. Subjects' experience with a female boss

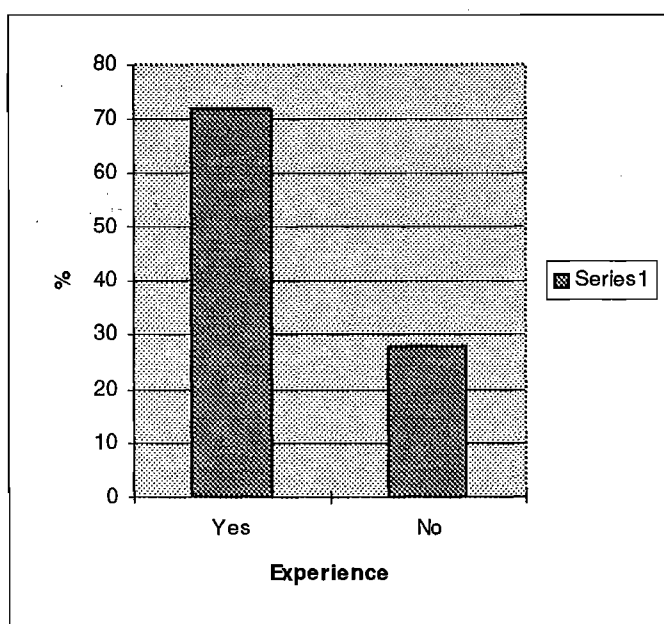
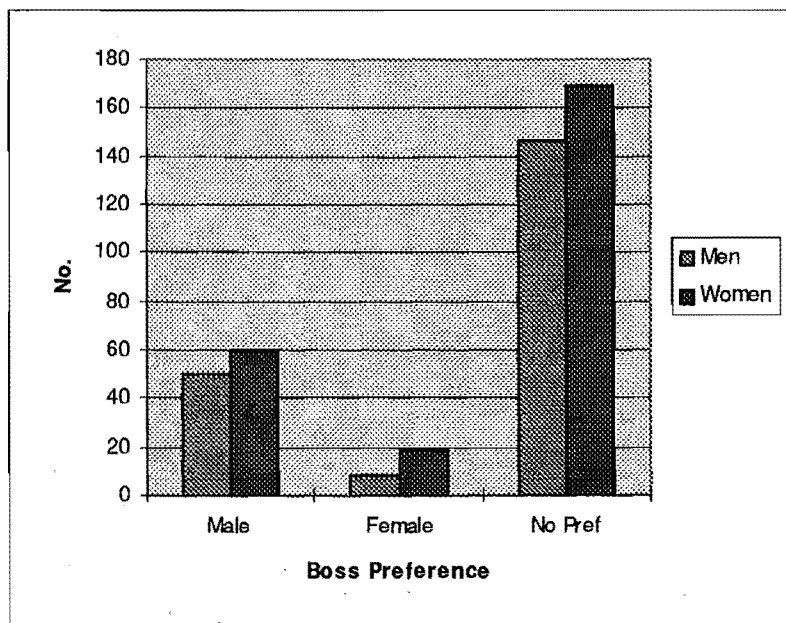


Figure 3 displays similar patterns evident in both sexes for boss gender preference. Clearly, “No Preference” was the most common response for both male (45%) and female (53%) subjects. Male bosses were preferred by 16% of males and 19% of females, while female bosses were preferred by only 2% of males and 6% of females. These results were obtained by running a cross tabulation on the data, seeking the relationship between subjects' sex and subjects' gender preference for boss.

Figure 3. Boss preference for male and female subjects

4.4 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients

Table 4.2 displays the intraclass correlation coefficients calculated to determine the sex role stereotypes inherent in the students. As can be seen, a strong resemblance was found between the ratings of Men and Managers by both female ($r = 0.66, p < .001$) and male ($r = 0.72, p < .001$) subjects. Additionally, there was a significant resemblance found between the ratings of Women and Managers by both female ($r = 0.46, p < .001$) and male ($r = 0.36, p < .001$) subjects. The resemblance between the ratings of men and women was found to be non significant for both male ($r = 0.19$ n.s.) and female ($r = 0.02$ n.s.) subjects. These results are comparative to Schein's (1973; 1975) original results whereby males perceived no relationship ($r = 0.06, n.s.$) and females perceived only a slight relationship ($r = 0.19, p < .05$) between men and women. Thus, the resemblance between women and managers is not a result of greater perceived similarity between men and women.

Table 4.2. New Zealand students' Intraclass Correlation Coefficients.

	Men & Managers	Women & Managers	Women & Men
Female Sample	0.66**	0.46**	0.02n.s.
Male Sample	0.72**	0.36**	0.19n.s.

** = .001 level of significance

* = .01 level of significance

4.5 Correlation Comparison

Table 4.3 compares the Intraclass correlation coefficients with the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients calculated for the students. Clearly the Pearson coefficients show the same general pattern as the Intraclass coefficients but in most cases, tend to be slightly higher.

Table 4.3. Comparison between Intraclass Correlation and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients

	New Zealand students	
	Intraclass	Pearsons
Male Sample		
Men and Managers	0.72**	0.81**
Women and Managers	0.36**	0.39**
Men and Women	0.19n.s	0.23n.s.
Female Sample		
Men and Managers	0.66**	0.69**
Women and Managers	0.46**	0.48**
Men and Women	0.05n.s.	0.02n.s.

** = .001 level of significance

* = .01 level of significance

4.6 Experience with a female supervisor or boss.

Table 4.4 displays the results of the Intraclass correlation coefficients and the Pearson product moment correlation coefficients calculated for students with and without experience with a female boss. For the male students, experience with a female boss slightly modifies their perceptions of the characteristics necessary for managerial success. Specifically, they view the relationship between men and managers a little weaker ($r = 0.66, p < .001$ compared to $r = 0.71, p < .001$) and the relationship between women and managers a little stronger ($r = 0.54, p < .001$ compared to $r = 0.45, p < .001$). However, for the females, experience with a female supervisor or boss modifies their perceptions considerably. Female students without experience with a female supervisor do not see any relationship between successful middle managers and characteristics commonly ascribed to women in general ($r = 0.08$ n.s.). However, female students with experience did view women as possessing the characteristics necessary for managerial success ($r = 0.63, p < .001$). Female students with experience saw more correlation between men and managers ($r = 0.74, p < .001$) than did those students without experience ($r = 0.44, p < .001$).

Table 4.4 Intraclass Correlation Coefficients and Pearson's Coefficients for subjects with and without experience with a female boss.

	Experience		No Experience	
	Intraclass	Pearsons	Intraclass	Pearsons
Male Sample				
Men and Managers	0.66**	0.74**	0.71**	0.74**
Women and Managers	0.54**	0.56**	0.45**	0.55**
Female Sample				
Men and Managers	0.74**	0.76**	0.44**	0.56**
Women and Managers	0.63**	0.65**	0.08 n.s.	0.09 n.s.

** = .001 level of significance

* = .01 level of significance

Table 4.5 displays the amount of male and female students who have and who haven't had experience with a female supervisor or boss. As can be seen, similar proportions of male students are evident in the two categories but female students are substantially better represented in the 'experience' than in the 'no experience' category. The low number of female subjects with no experience suggests that the Intraclass correlation coefficients calculated for this group should be interpreted with caution as the significance of the correlation (using such small numbers) is questionable.

Table 4.5 Percentage of male and female subjects with and without experience with a female boss.

	Percentage
Males	
<i>Experience</i>	57%
<i>No experience</i>	43%
Females	
<i>Experience</i>	86%
<i>No experience</i>	14%

4.7 A Cross Cultural Comparison

The Intraclass correlation coefficients obtained from the Schein and Mueller (1992) and Orser (1994, Canadian final year business students) studies are presented and compared with the results obtained in the present, New Zealand study in Table 4.6. As can be seen, males in all five countries consider the relationship between the characteristics deemed necessary for managerial success to strongly resemble those associated with men in general. However, New Zealand male students view the characteristics commonly associated with

Table 4.6. A cross cultural comparison of Intraclass Correlation Coefficients on student populations.

	Germany	Britain	Canada	U.S.	New Zealand
Male Sample					
Men and Managers	0.74	0.67	0.66	0.70	0.72
Women and Managers	-0.04	0.02	0.00	0.11	0.36
Female Sample					
Men and Managers	0.66	0.60	0.38	0.51	0.66
Women and Managers	0.19	0.31	0.47	0.43	0.46

women in general to resemble those necessary for managerial success considerably more closely ($r = 0.36, p < .001$) than do German ($r = -0.04, \text{n.s.}$), British ($r = 0.02, \text{n.s.}$), Canadian ($r = 0.00 \text{ n.s.}$), and American ($r = 0.11 \text{ n.s.}$) students. Among the females surveyed, New Zealand students perceive the resemblance between men and managers to be as significant as do German women ($r = 0.66, p < .001$) and more significant than other countries i.e. British ($r = 0.60, p < .001$), Canadian ($r = 0.38, p < .001$), and American ($r = 0.51, p < .001$) female students. However, they also see the relationship between feminine characteristics and those necessary for managerial success to be strong ($r = 0.46, p < .001$). The perceived degree of resemblance between women and managers is similar to that found in Canada ($r = 0.47, p < .001$) and America ($r = 0.43, p < .001$), higher than that found in Britain ($r = 0.31, p < .001$) and considerably higher than that found in Germany ($r = 0.19, p < .01$).

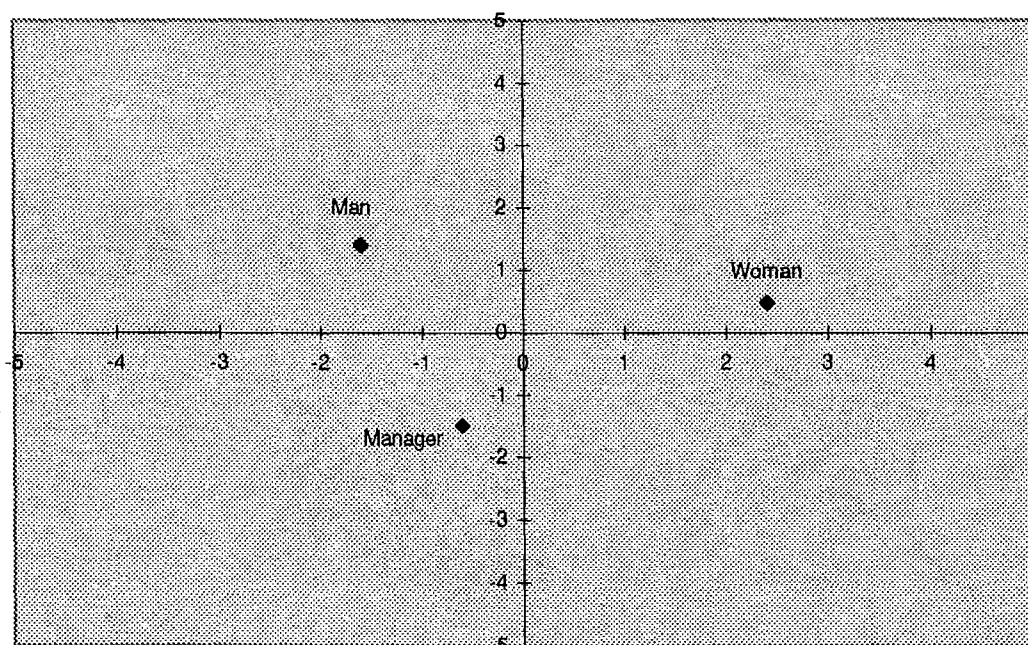
4.8 Discriminant Analysis

As explained in Chapter 3, a multivariate discriminant analysis was undertaken to determine the relationship between the 92 items and the type of questionnaire i.e., men, women and middle managers. The analysis resulted in two separate canonical functions which distinguished between the three groups. The first function accounted for 63.2% of the variance. The second function accounted for 36.8% of the variance.

Figure 4 displays the group centroids for each type of questionnaire. Group centroids are the mean values for the discriminant Z-scores for men, women and middle managers. The

horizontal line represents function 1. As can be seen, variables (or items) with a high, positive loading on function 1 are consistent with women questionnaires where as those items with a negative loading on function 1 are more likely to be consistent with men and/or manager questionnaires. The vertical line represents function 2. Variables (or items) with a high loading on function 2 are likely to be consistent with men questionnaires, and those with negative loadings on function 2 are likely to be more consistent with manager questionnaires. The larger the distance between two group centroids, the less similar are the two groups. As such, it seems that men and managers are more like each other than women and managers.

Figure 4. Discriminant analysis group centroids for SDI types (men, women and managers).



Horizontal line = function 1
Vertical line = function 2

According to the classification matrices, the discriminant functions in this analysis have high validity as they account for 93.46% of the grouped items being correctly classified. However, this result may be subject to an upward bias as a holdout sample was not used, i.e., the classification overestimates the accuracy that would be obtained with a separate sample.

Table 4.7 displays the items that distinguished the women questionnaires most significantly (0.25 or above) from men and middle managers (as identified by function 1).

Table 4.7. Items discriminating women from men and managers according to function 1.

Item	Correlation within function 1
<i>Consistent with women</i>	
Sympathetic	.34729
Humanitarian values	.34006
Sentimental	.32935
Aware of feelings of others	.31045
Interested in own appearance	.29321
Values pleasant surroundings	.28375
Neat	.27074
<i>Consistent with Men and Managers</i>	
Feelings not easily hurt	-.28754
Aggressive	-.27856
Hides emotion	-.27034
High need for power	-.26532
Speedy recovery from emotional disturbance	-.25480
Dominant	-.25211

Table 4.8 displays the items that distinguished men most significantly (0.25 or above) from managers (as identified by function 2).

Table 4.8. Items discriminating men from managers according to function 2.

Item	Correlation with function 2
<i>Men</i>	
Vulgar	.29981
Dawdler and procrastinator	.27381
Shy	.26163
Nervous	.25609
<i>Middle Managers</i>	
Self-controlled	-.26707
Leadership ability	-.25763
Prompt	-.25336

All but five items in the Schein Descriptive Index were found to discriminate between Men, Women and Successful middle managers ($p = .01$). These significant levels were calculated from the univariate F-ratios (simple ANOVAs) for each of the independent variables. Table 4.9 displays the five items that did not discriminate significantly between the three groups.

Table 4.9. Items that did not discriminate significantly between men, women and successful middle managers

Item	Significance
Consistent	.1434
Forceful	.1074
Autonomous	.2273
Knows Way of the World	.1099
Modest	.5931

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the results of the analyses undertaken in the study. To recap, analyses were undertaken on New Zealand students only. The New Zealand students were separated from the rest of the students in order to ascertain the perceptions which reflect New Zealand's educational, social, political and legislative influences. Intraclass correlation coefficient calculations showed that both male and female students perceived a highly significant resemblance between the ratings of men and managers and a significant (although weaker) relationship between the ratings of women and managers. Male students were found to sex type the managerial role in masculine terms more strongly than female students. Both male and female students did not perceive a significant resemblance between ratings of men and women.

The perceptions evident in students who had experience with a female boss were compared with those students who had not had the experience. The results indicated that females with experience with a female boss perceived the relationship between women and managers to be significantly stronger than those without the experience. Additionally, females who had experience with a female boss also saw a stronger relationship between men and managers than did those without.

When compared to similar cross cultural studies, New Zealand men see the relationship between men and managers to be as strong as do men in other cultures and see the relationship between women and managers to be stronger than men in the comparison samples. New Zealand female students see the relationship between both men and

managers and women and managers as strong as (if not stronger) than the females in other cultures.

Finally, multivariate discriminant analysis which was used to determine how well the 92 items distinguished between men, women and managers, revealed that all but five items significantly distinguish between the three groups. The most and least significant items according to the two discriminating functions in this analysis were reported.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

This chapter provides a discussion of the results presented in Chapter Four and their implications for and contributions to the study of sex role stereotyping of the managerial role. The discussion is divided into five sections. In sections one, two and three, the results pertaining to each of the three fundamental research questions are reviewed respectively, and their implications discussed. In section four, the limitations of the current research are identified and explained. Finally, in the fifth section, possible directions for further research in this area are identified.

5.1 Gender stereotyping of the managerial role among New Zealand students.

The first and most fundamental research question posed in this study was concerned with whether or not New Zealand male and female commerce students perceive successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general or to women in general. The results of the study confirmed the hypothesis in that the males in the sample perceived successful middle managers as possessing characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women in general, while their female counterparts sex typed the managerial role in masculine terms considerably less strongly.

The implications of these findings are clear. Male students consider men to be more suited for the managerial role than women. Female students, however, see both men and women to be capable of successful management. Given that contemporary New Zealand organisations are substantially dominated by men who generally hold negative attitudes towards women in management (O'Driscoll et al. 1993), male students will be considerably more likely to attain, or be selected for managerial roles than their female counterparts. As such, the stereotypes evident in the male student of today may be an indication of the stereotypes held by the manager of tomorrow. The bias against women in terms of selection, training and promotion will therefore continue.

As was outlined in the literature review, the changing nature of the organisation as a function of globalisation deems a flexible, transformational leadership style as most appropriate and effective. Women are expected to have the skills and attributes necessary to perform as effective transformational leaders of the future. It seems then, that today's students (especially the males) would gain from education into the changing nature of the organisation, the different skills needed for organisational or managerial success, and women's ability to manage effectively in such roles.

Jones and Jacklin (1988) provide some promising evidence regarding the ramifications of such a project. By measuring the sexism towards women in both male and female students before and after they undertook a women's and men's studies course, the authors were able to ascertain the influence of such education. The results suggested that although male students were most consistently sexist towards women, the sexism in both male and female students

decreased significantly after students' participation in an introductory men's and women's studies course.

Waikato University developed and taught a "women and management" course to provide the ground for challenges to the traditional management disciplines, staff and students (Gatenby & Humphries, in Olssen (Ed), 1992). According to the authors:

"In the course, we begin by discussing the social construction of the female gender. We go on to consider women in relation to the other disciplines taught within management: law, communication, work and the economy, career development and management theory. Topics such as equal employment opportunity, pay equity and sexual harrassment are worked into the appropriate parts of the course."

The experience of such a course was found to be encouraging and beneficial for both students and staff. The authors suggest that gender issues be "mainstreamed" for the benefit of all students and all disciplines (p.142).

It therefore, seems appropriate to implement such a course in the Commerce Programme at Lincoln University. A "Women in Management" course would at least give the students an opportunity to explore the area and it should result in increased students' awareness and consequently decreased sex role stereotypes. At present, no such course is available for commerce students on campus. Additionally, gender issues should be incorporated in

appropriate proportions to other commerce subjects such as Human Resource Management, Organisational Behaviour and Business Management.

5.2 Cross Cultural comparisons

The second research question of concern in this study dealt with New Zealand's results in comparison with those found in other countries. As the reader will recall, the countries with which New Zealand was compared were America, Britain, Canada and Germany.

Results from this study were consistent with the previous findings, suggesting that males in general perceive successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. It therefore can be deduced that male students from Western countries generally consider men to be better suited to managerial positions than women.

Interestingly however, although New Zealand male students see a strong resemblance between the characteristics of men in general and successful managers, the results found in this study suggest they are more open-minded and accepting of females as possessing the characteristics necessary for managerial success than are male students in other countries. Specifically, New Zealand male students perceived successful middle managers as having characteristics commonly ascribed to women in general significantly more than did the male students in Canada, U.S., Britain and especially, Germany. As such, although men in New Zealand perceive masculine characteristics to be more suitable for the managerial role than feminine

characteristics, it seems that New Zealand men in the future may accept women into the managerial ranks a little more readily than their counterparts in other countries.

The results obtained for the New Zealand female sample were also comparable across cultures. Although New Zealand women perceive the resemblance between men and managers to be stronger than between women and managers, both men and women were viewed as possessing the characteristics necessary for managerial success. Given Schein's (1992) conclusion that the sex role stereotype research measures the degree to which women perceive opportunities for themselves as well as reflects their actual participation rates in management, it was hypothesised that New Zealand students would perceive there to be a greater resemblance between women and managers than German students, a similar resemblance to the British students, and less resemblance than their U.S. and Canadian counterparts. However, this hypothesis was not supported. In fact, New Zealand students saw the characteristics associated with women in general to resemble those associated with successful middle managers to the same extent as did the women from countries with apparently more opportunities for women, i.e., Canada and U.S. It seems then, that although the numbers of women in managerial positions in New Zealand are similar to the numbers in Britain, New Zealand women consider their careers and future prospects to be somewhat more promising than do their British counterparts.

One reason for New Zealand women's comparatively positive perception of women as managers may lie in the somewhat positive stereotypes regarding women's possession of managerial skills as held by their masculine counterparts. It seems that a generally more

accepting attitude towards women in management held by the male students will reflect on women's perceptions of themselves and their likelihood of obtaining a managerial position.

In considering efforts to enhance the status of women in Great Britain, Davidson and Cooper (1987, cited in Schein & Mueller, 1992), suggested the implementation of legislated affirmative action plans such as those in place in the U.S and Australia. In the New Zealand context, no such legislation exists, however other policies in place such as E.E.O., may account for the comparatively positive perceptions in our male and female students.

New Zealand as a nation is unique in terms of its geography, small size and youth. New Zealand women have made significant progress in terms of employment and education, and being the first in a self governing nation to win the right to vote in the general elections, they could be considered "pioneering" in terms of equal rights. It seems hardly surprising therefore, that female students who equal men in terms of their representation at universities in our country, consider themselves to be capable of performing effectively in managerial positions in the future.

However, despite the comparatively promising results in terms of both New Zealand women and men viewing the resemblance between women and managers as stronger than in other countries, the facts remain that men in New Zealand dominate managerial positions and both male and female students see men as more likely to possess the characteristics necessary for managerial success than do women.

5.3 The Effects of Experience with a Female boss

On the basis of Ely's (1995) work, the third focus of this study was to ascertain the influence which experience of a female supervisor or boss has on individuals' perceptions. The results proved to be very interesting. For the males in the sample, students who had experience working for a female boss saw the relationship between the characteristics of men and managers as slightly weaker, and between women and managers as slightly stronger than did the male subjects with no experience with a female boss.

For female students, the difference between having had experience and having had no experience with a female boss was highly significant. Females with experience saw both males and females as more likely to possess the characteristics required for managerial success than did the females with no experience. Specifically, there was a marked increase in the strength of the relationship perceived between women in general and successful middle managers.

The above findings suggest that experience with a female supervisor or boss expands an individual's perceptions of the requirements for success beyond stereotypically male characteristics to include characteristics stereotypic of women. Obviously then, the more experience these students gain with females in positions of power, the more accepting both male and female students will be of women's ability to manage effectively. Many of these students have never been employed full time or have had limited experience in part time work, so the university environment could serve to provide the opportunity to experience women in positions of power. Tidball (1980) found women's high achievement in women's colleges to be a function of the large proportions of faculty that were women. As such, Lincoln

University could benefit from increasing the numbers of women in its faculty, especially at higher levels. In doing so, both male and female students will be provided with a certain amount of experience with women in responsible, senior or managerial roles. As such, their perceptions of women's ability to perform effectively will be modified. In sum, it seems that women need the opportunity to prove themselves, and once this is achieved, they will be more likely to be seen as possessing the characteristics required for managerial success.

5.4 Limitations of the study

First and foremost, it is important to note that research of this nature has been criticised in the past for not being designed to take into account the subjects' complex or nuanced opinions. The way the research is set up often prevents these qualities from being expressed, and instead constructs stereotypes itself through "forcing" subjects to respond in simplified ways (Billing and Alvesson, 1994, p.83). As such, to what extent people really have the stereotypes put before them in this type of situation is hard to say. Additionally, the scale was developed according to American values which may hinder its validity when used on 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.

The second area of limitation in this study concerns the sample population. Although New Zealand students were separated from other ethnicities, the students in the sample may not be generalisable to the wider New Zealand university population. Firstly, Lincoln University itself is unique. Having previously been an Agricultural College, the university is the youngest in

New Zealand and is situated rurally. Given its circumstances, it seems fair to say that the students attending Lincoln University may differ from those attending other universities within New Zealand. Additionally, the subjects in the study were solely commerce students which means they are not representative of the Lincoln University population as a whole.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the results pertaining to experience with a female supervisor may be invalid for the female respondents in the sample. As was demonstrated in Table 4.5, the proportions of male students with and without the experience were relatively even, but the number of female students without experience was considerably smaller than the number with experience. Due to the very small sample size for females without experience, the results and significance of the intraclass correlation coefficients calculated for this group should be interpreted with caution.

In attempting to ascertain the ethnic composition of the sample, the author failed to include a "New Zealand citizen" category. The sample population consisted only of those who identified themselves as New Zealand European or Maori. As a consequence, the few (if any) respondents from other ethnic backgrounds, but who are New Zealanders, were not included in the sample.

Given the sample size and the homogeneity of the sample population, there were not enough subjects in other categories to allow intraclass correlation coefficients to be computed on age, ethnicity, major or work experience. As such, a complete analysis of the sample was not possible.

Another limitation of this study concerns the data collection phase. The data was collected on the same day in different commerce lectures. The classes were not chosen randomly, but rather for their size and timetable convenience. According to the lecturers, not all students enrolled in the subjects sampled were present in the lecture on that particular day. As such, it is questionable whether the students present in the class on the day were actually representative of the class population as a whole. Perhaps a more legitimate means of sampling the population would have been to obtain a list of all commerce students and randomly select them to attend a session in which the SDI would be distributed. This sampling method was not employed in this study due to obvious logistical problems.

However, despite the recognised limitations of this study, the method and procedures by which the study were undertaken were consistent with other studies of this nature and consequently allow for cross cultural comparisons to be made. Additionally, the multiple discriminant analysis performed on the data in this study proved that the 92 SDI items distinguish men, women and managers very well, and therefore, the results are not an artefact of the research instrument.

5.5 Directions for further research

As already mentioned, this study did not explore the sex role stereotypes evident in other cultures on campus due to not having large enough samples of these subgroups. As such, only those students who identified themselves as New Zealanders or Maori were analysed. An area for further research would be to obtain a sample population comprising significantly larger proportions of at least one other major ethnic group on campus and compare their

stereotypical views on men women and managers with those of the New Zealanders. This would significantly enhance our understanding of cross cultural differences within the university.

This study sought to ascertain which gender the subjects preferred as their supervisor or boss. and found most students had no preference. In retrospect it seems obvious that the “no preference” option was the most socially desirable, so the results are unsurprising. It seems therefore, that if subjects were forced to choose between the sexes i.e., “Would you prefer a male or a female boss?” (as was done in Frank’s 1988 study), perhaps more light could be shed on their actual preference. As such, similar research in the future could include such a question, although caution should be taken to avoid creating a difference where none actually exists.

In order to gauge the stereotypes in university students in New Zealand generally (as opposed to at Lincoln University only), replications of this study should be undertaken in all other New Zealand universities and collated to obtain a general or overall perspective.

Compared to the results obtained in other countries, New Zealand male students appear more likely to accept women in the managerial role than men in other countries. It is important, however, to remember that these students have not yet had the opportunity to prove themselves via their behaviour. It would therefore be interesting to replicate this study on a sample drawn from New Zealand’s contemporary managerial population in order to gauge whether or not there is a difference between the students’ and the managers’ stereotypes.

Additionally, as has been undertaken in America, longitudinal SDI research on students over an extended period of time would give an indication of the societal/attitudinal changes that have taken place over the years. Equally, or more interesting, would be a longitudinal study on the changes that occur as a result of these particular students becoming managers i.e., will the New Zealand students at Lincoln University stereotype the managerial role to the same extent as managers as they did as students, or does their experience modify their perceptions? Similarly, although New Zealand female students see women and men as equally likely to possess the characteristics necessary for managerial success, their perceptions after having had experience in the workplace would be interesting.

Another area worthy of research in the future would be a replication of Foster's (1994) study on British academics. Given the relationship between women's achievement at universities and numbers of women in faculty (Tidball,1980), such a study would result in a better understanding of the attitudes that may serve to influence the students' attitudes and perceptions in our Universities.

Given the significant results found in the discriminant analysis, it would be interesting to compare these results with future studies to determine how much the group centroids shift. Most interesting would be whether the group centroid for women questionnaires moves closer (or further apart) from the managers centroid. Such a shift would be an effective determinant of changing (or unchanging) perceptions. Additionally, discriminant analysis using Schein and Mueller's (1992) data would provide interesting cross cultural comparisons regarding the specific item differences in that the items that discriminate most significantly between women, men and managers may differ across cultures.

As mentioned previously, the introduction of a Women's Studies course on campus at Lincoln is likely to increase students' awareness of women's ability to perform effectively as managers in the future. A suggestion for further research in this area is the implementation of an appropriate test (the SDI or other) on students before and after participation in the course. Such a study would ascertain the impact such education has on the stereotypes or attitudes held by students in our Universities. If women are seen in a more favourable light after participation in the course, action should be taken to incorporate such a programme (or programmes) into the University for the benefit of all students. If, however, such an option is not immediately feasible, the inclusion of role models in course material (for example, case studies and tutorials) could be a more cost-effective means of achieving students' increased awareness.

5.6 Conclusion

Overall, it may be concluded that a woman's ability to perform successfully as a manager is more readily accepted by men in New Zealand than it is in other Western cultures. This is reflected in New Zealand female students' comparatively positive perceptions of women as managers, despite the lack of women currently occupying managerial roles in our country.

Experience with a female supervisor or boss was found to modify male students' perceptions mildly and female students' perceptions considerably. As such, it seems that women's increased representation in higher positions will provide them the opportunity to prove their

ability and eventually diffuse the stereotypes working against women in their efforts to enter the managerial ranks.

Given the implications of students' attitudes and stereotypes for the future, it is (among other things) recommended that commerce courses at Lincoln University be modified to incorporate gender issues. Additionally, a "Women in Management" course similar to that in place at Waikato University, would clearly be of benefit for female, and especially, male students.

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APPENDIX 1

INSTRUCTIONS - SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

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 judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know 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 scale:

- 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 _____

YEAR OF STUDY 1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____ POSTGRAD _____

MAJOR	_____	Accounting	_____	Hotel & Institute
	_____	Agriculture		Management
	_____	Applied Computing	_____	Marketing
	_____	Business Admin.	_____	Management
	_____	Economics	_____	Tourism
	_____	Finance	_____	Transport
	_____	Forestry	_____	Valuation &
	_____	Horticulture		Property Mgmt
		Other (please state)		

NATIONALITY	_____	European	_____	Samoan
		New Zealander	_____	Chinese
	_____	European (other)	_____	Malay
	_____	Maori	_____	Thai
	_____	Tongan	_____	Vietnamese
	_____	Niuean	_____	Japanese
	_____	Fijian		
	_____	Indian		Other : _____

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 have worked for both men and women, would you prefer to have a man or women as boss?

Please Tick One:

Prefer Man	_____
Prefer Woman	_____
No Preference	_____

- 4 - Somewhat characteristic
 3 - Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic
 2 - Somewhat uncharacteristic
 1 - Not characteristic

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

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 ____

P.T.O.

INSTRUCTIONS - SCHEIN DESCRIPTIVE INDEX

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 judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know 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 scale:

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 _____

YEAR OF STUDY 1st _____ 2nd _____ 3rd _____ POSTGRAD _____

MAJOR	_____	Accounting	_____	Hotel & Institute
	_____	Agriculture		Management
	_____	Applied Computing	_____	Marketing
	_____	Business Admin.	_____	Management
	_____	Economics	_____	Tourism
	_____	Finance	_____	Transport
	_____	Forestry	_____	Valuation &
	_____	Horticulture		Property Mgmt
		Other (please state)		

NATIONALITY	_____	European	_____	Samoan
		New Zealander	_____	Chinese
	_____	European (other)	_____	Malay
	_____	Maori	_____	Thai
	_____	Tongan	_____	Vietnamese
	_____	Niuean	_____	Japanese
	_____	Fijian		
	_____	Indian	Other :	_____

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 have worked for both men and women, would you prefer to have a man or women as boss?

Please Tick One: Prefer Man ___
 Prefer Woman ___
 No Preference ___

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

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| 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 ____ |

- 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 ____
16. Not conceited about
appearance ____
17. Strong need for social
acceptance ____
18. Hasty ____
19. Obedient ____
20. Desires responsibility ____
21. Self-controlled ____
22. Modest ____
rewards ____
23. Decisive ____
38. Generous ____
39. Bitter ____
40. Logical ____
41. Skilled in business
matters ____
42. Selfish ____
43. Demure ____
44. Kind ____
45. Strong need for monetary
46. Self reliant ____