WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN NEW ZEALAND.

A STUDY OF

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA, MANAGERIAL STYLE AND SEX ROLE SELF-CONCEPT.

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Abstract

In New Zealand, women form three point nine percent (3.9%) of the managerial population. In considering this overall lack of women in management and accepting that both males and females possess equal potential for developing management expertise, the three areas selected for investigation in this study of one hundred and thirty female managers are biographical information, managerial style and sex role self concept.

The biographical information was directed at eliciting life history items pertaining to those areas of development and experience likely to provide predictors of managerial effectiveness. The critical factor is the development of an internalized locus of control, in that the girl who perceives herself as controlling and mastering her adolescent environment is likely to become the woman who succeeds in management.

Across all occupational and managerial function groupings and when managing a female staff, a high relationship - low task managerial style was used by the majority of the women managers, but those women managing men used a high relationship - high task style. This style shift indicated female managers capability of synthesizing managerial style with subordinates expectations.

The majority of the women managers in this sample presented an androgynous self-concept, implying a high degree of acceptance of both male and female qualities. While these women accepted their femininity, they also endorsed the assertive action oriented cluster of characteristics stereotypically attributed to males.

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INTRODUCTION

In the review of literature pertaining to women in employment and in management, the following aspects are considered.

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Aspirations of Women and Career Expectations

Although the number of women in the labour force throughout the world has increased steadily in the past two decades, the majority of jobs women enter are of low status and earn low financial rewards. They continue to staff the clerical jobs, the primary schools and shops and hospitals. They are almost never vice presidents, high school, or even primary school, principals, or hospital administrators. Women complain that the labour market is most often divided into men's jobs and women's jobs arbitrarily; that their pay is much lower than men's and even when both are employed to do the same job, there are still signifcant wage differentials; and that they are over educated for the jobs they do, with consequent under-utilization of ability.

The dissatisfaction with the domestic role so well documented (Friedan, 1963; Gavron, 1966; Greer, 1971) seems to have spilled over into the work situation. It is evident that there is widespread discontent in regard to women's work especially with the inferior status of women in the occupational hierarchy, and that the problems of combining a career and marriage, of coping with home management and the outside job is far from solved (Boserup, 1970; Kreps, 1971; Sullerot, 1971; Mitchell 1971; Fogarty and Rapoport, 1972; Bird, 1973; Rowbotham, 1973; Sutch, 1973; Davies 1975.)

While it is true that some women work at virtually every job listed in the Census returns, the occupations in which the vast majority of women work are remarkably similar to those historically held by women. The concentration of women in the accepted female occupations for New Zealand of primary teaching, nursing, clerical and service jobs, would seem to indicate a reluctance on the part of employers to offer women wider job options, with prejudice against employing women and a reluctance on the part of women to venture into men's territory. This raises the issue of just why so many women enter the same low paying, low status jobs year after year. This selection of low income occupations is a contributory source of male-female wage differentials, for if women persist in going into those jobs which have traditionally paid low wages, improvements in pay scales can only occur if the demand for these services far outstrips the plentiful supply of workers. Since that seems unlikely we need to consider whether there are non-monetary rewards in certain careers which more than offset the low pay. Do women choose to become teachers because the work can be viewed as providing an extension of the feminine role? If these conditions are all important to women, can they be applied to the business world, and in particular to the managerial sphere? Or are women choosing work that is intrinsically appealing to provide satisfaction and achievement?

It would seem not. Since women tend to think that their initial time in the work force will probably be short, followed perhaps by a decade of home duties, with an eventual possibility only of returning to the labour force, they are not likely to make long run career plans. Nor have they generally been counselled to plan long term, for both women and their advisers tend to look toward immediate jobs and earnings, rather than considering investment in advanced education. Though most of her working life will occur after she has had children and reared them to school age, this is not readily apparent to a girl at high school. When she is ready to return to a job the skills that were acquired in the previous work experience are no longer up to date. At this stage there are few chances for additional education

or training especially in the management field. So even if a woman has high work aspiration, the threat of discontinuity in work life, of the marriage and children drop out, is the most widely used argument against the payment of higher wages to young women. For older women returning after child rearing, the lack of job experience and minimal previous job tenure is equally damaging to her earnings potential. It is noted that the 1976 Census returns show that the earnings of the majority of males is from five thousand to six thousand dollars, whereas there is a two thousand dollar drop for the majority of females who earn from three to four thousand dollars.

Societal Pressure, Role Expectations and Motivational Models

Kreps (1971) in commenting that women do not opt for occupations that are dominated by males yet include some females, asks if it is inevitable that in an insurance company men sell insurance and women do the typing. It may well be so, if the brochure issued by the Insurance Council of New Zealand to Vocational Guidance offices remains in its present form, with references to men in insurance, thus, "most insurance men", "the men at the top" and "you can enter insurance at sixteen - many boys do - but employers are now tending to select young men of seventeen or eighteen, after they have completed a sixth form course". This brochure represents the combined interests of fifty two companies, and although it is stated on the inside cover that in insurance "we need young men and women who can think big enough to fit into our world", their world cannot apparently think big enough to acknowledge that there can be men and women in insurance, let alone that there can be men and women in top positions.

Resistance to entering men's jobs and factors influencing work choice can be related to feminine role expectations. It is no surprise to find that in the image of the perfect woman, the values and norms revolving about the female role and the participation of women in the professions and business world there are contradictory elements and sources of strain. For the woman who wishes equality in the work situation, ambivalence arises from the contradictions posed by the images of the female role as contrasted with the achievement oriented values of occupational roles.

The role models in children's books and women's magazines are usually of mothers busy with cooking, cleaning and home activities, despite the fact that many mothers work as heads of households to support their families. If women are featured as single and working, then popular magazine stories portray them as bitter and frustrated, until they marry MR. RIGHT and retire from the work scene. It is assumed that every woman yearns for a home and family and that when she has them, she must work at the domestic tasks, which they involve, herself. So women have to face self doubt and wonder how they fit into the female scope of things if they want more from life, a career, as well as, or instead of, the domestic life. It takes a tremendous amount of energy to combine this role with career commitment. The stresses stemming from this complex of role and value conflicts are major factors in the career development pattern of women, particularly at the time of initial decision regarding chosen entry and the measurement of success in life, both as a woman and as a worker.

Education for a role.

Sutch (1973), commenting on the evolution of the New Zealand education system, from the provision at the turn of this century of cooking classes for girls, to the inclusion of Home Science as a school certificate subject and to the establishment of a university to study domestic sciences, concludes that women are trained for a narrow role. The roles expected by parents and most of society for boys and girls were formalized and emphasized by the acceptance that woodwork classes are for boys and cooking classes for girls. In New Zealand, societal expectations of the role of women are strengthened by the secondary schools conservatism and emphasis on homecraft and commercial courses as providing for girls' vocational needs. Thus, long before a career decision has been made, girls find that they have already limited their options by deciding at age thirteen and entry to high school, to take a homecraft or commercial course in preference to studying a wider group of options. These attitudes are frequently reinforced by the parents despite efforts to encourage a wider perspective.

Perusal of a sample of pamphlets and materials used in vocational guidance counselling in New Zealand, with the exception of the previously quoted insurance example, does not reveal differential sexual expectations, when preparation for a management career is

discussed. No apparent sex discrimination is discernible in the resume of the financial and management skills required of graduates in the banking system, yet women do report great difficulty in gaining promotion in such institutions where they are traditionally tellers rather than bank officers. In fairness, it must be said that in the main, women are not obtaining the commerce and business degrees which would enable them to enter as graduates. In 1974, of those members of the labour force with a bachelors' degree, only 18% were women.

It would seem that the greatest problem facing vocational guidance officers is to encourage girls to think of their life as a whole, instead of coming to a halt as a teenage bride after two or three years in the work force. Attempts are being made to encourage girls to think beyond the traditional occupational range by presenting through counselling talks, examples of women in unusual occupations, and by encouraging talks and contact with women who are combining marriage with a career commitment.

Motivational Models

But such efforts are frequently frustrated by the lack of career women models serving as motivators in the magazines girls read. Maconie and Townsley (1969) in a survey of the reading patterns of fourth form boys and girls report that the girls' preference is for light romance, the works of Mary Scott being the most widely read New Zealand fiction of this type, and that love comics, of the true confession type, predominate in magazine reading. All this material provides a love-marriage life style in such profusion that it is indeed no wonder that it is hard for girls to understand that there is a working life beyond the teenage bride. Maconie and Townsley (ibid) make the point that so many girls who are reading these magazines are asking for real life in books - "about what teenagers really feel and do" (page 25) and about "sex, love and all the problems of living." (page 36). Although apparently real life still doesn't include a concept of a working life, let alone a career commitment.

This is not surprising when it is considered that career women models are not only lacking in books, but also in real life. Even if the majority of teachers at school are female, the principal is, ninety nine percent of the time, male, thus reinforcing the traditional sex role belief that requires men to be in authority

over women, rarely the reverse. Unfortunately, there is evidence that not only are men reluctant to work under the supervision of women, but they may be unable to cooperate with them as colleagues. (Caplow 1964). Not only is there a lack of female models occupying authority positions, but there is also a lack of female students with whom to compare ambitions and goals, for progressively fewer girls than boys stay on at school in New Zealand to gain higher qualifications. Of the pupils obtaining School Certificate in 1974, fifty seven percent (57%) were boys, forty three percent (43%) were girls, and for University Entrance, sixty six percent (66%) were boys, and thirty four percent (34%) girls, and this proportion of males to females remains constant when considering the full time students studying at New Zealand universities. (New Zealand Year Book 1976). Even when the teaching staff is considered, the number of males far outweighs the number of female teachers, except in that traditonal stronghold of women, the primary school where female teachers comprise sixty percent (60%) of the staff. In secondary schools, female teachers number 40%, in teachers training colleges, 20%, and in universities the female staff is eight point five per cent (8.5%) of the total, with a total of six female and three hundred and sixty five male professors (ibid). It is therefore not surprising, that with so few models of feminine achievement in their most immediate world, career choice expectations are set at a low level by the majority of girls. There is little encouragement from her peer group for the girl with high aspirations and little chance for discussion of ideas. Some positive reinforcement is now and again presented by newspaper reports of women who are happily and profitably pursuing careers in non-traditional areas, but such examples are the exception rather than the rule. (New Zealand Herald November 10th, 1976, November 17th, 1976).

Furthermore, a woman who has proved her abilities in training generally cannot count on society for encouragement or her colleagues for fair treatment. She faces a difficult decision in weighing whether to begin on a career that will almost inevitably involve her in conflict with the traditonal image of her place in society and perhaps with her own image of personal fulfillment. Once past the initial barriers she may be forced repeatedly to review her decision as she faces successive conflicts between her

personal life and her career. She also has to decide whether to aim for the rewards of money, prestige, power and work satisfaction which men would expect as a matter of course. Whatever her decision, it is likely that she will have to compromise far earlier and for far less than men. Conflict faces the would-be career woman, for the core of attributes found in most professional and occupational roles is considered in masculine terms. These attributes, stereotypically ascribed to males, include persistence and drive, personal dedication to work, aggressiveness and an emotional detachment seen as a matter-of-factness equated with intellectual performance (Lippitt, This and Bidwell 1971). It is arguable that this is a male only pattern, but instead is characteristic of some people, both males and females. The critical factor is that society rewards this pattern in a man but denigrates it in a woman. So even if a woman feels that she herself possesses these qualities, there is little encouragement to use such attributes and aim for responsible positions in business and profession. Every guideline given by society indicates that she is ignoring her feminine qualities and not being true to herself as a woman. There is little encouragement to seek broader options at the time of initial thought about future work, or to make a firm career commitment, and most discouraging of all, society views the wife and mother as the most successful woman. It is a rare woman who can overcome these obstacles, acquire the appropriate training, suffer the hostility and ridicule of male workers and of society, to work successfully in a male dominated occupation. To eliminate occupational segregation by sex there needs to be a radical change of attitude by males. For women there needs to be an increase in rewards for skill and experience, and an increase in access to education and training as well as increased vocational support. (Power 1975).

Women in Employment

The proportion of women in paid employment and their range of occupations are related both to the stage of urban industrialisation in a country, and to the social conception of the feminine role as translated into cultural norms and institutional patterns.

Boserup (1970) considered that a sex distribution of about 30% women and 70% men was an almost invariable proportion which held for industrialised countries in all parts of the world. But the ILO Yearbook for 1975 gives higher figures, as presented in Table 1.

Table 1

The participation of women aged 15-64 years expressed as a percentage of total labour force:

United Kingdom	1971	51.9
Sweden	1970	45.5
United States America	1970	46.0
Australia	1971	42.3

The provisional national statistics, compiled from the 1976 Census returns provide a figure for New Zealand of 414,560 working women in the labour force total of 1,276, 120. Thus thirty-two point four eight percent (32.48%) of the population actively engaged in the labour force in New Zealand are women. The number of women who are working for pay has increased rapidly. Between 1926 and 1970, the female labour force increased by about two hundred percent (200%), while the increase in the male labour force in New Zealand was about ninety percent (90%). (Sutch, 1973). The census figures also show the increase in the percentage of married women in the New Zealand work force. In 1936, eight point five percent (8.5%) of the female labour force was married, by 1966 the percentage had increased to forty-one point five percent (41.5%) and by 1971 to forty-nine point nine percent (49.9%).

Several factors contributed to the changing work patterns of women. A longer life expectancy especially for women (from 48 years in 1900 to 74 years in 1966), resulted in an overall increase in population, changing the ratio of men and women available to work. The increasing demand for labour as economic structure shifted job growth from agriculture to consumer goods production meant that there were opportunities available to women, especially in the urban areas. Women are marrying younger today, and in the main, the average woman has borne her last child at twenty-five to

thirty years of age and is in her mid thirties when all her children are in school and her family responsibilities considerably decreased. Stimulated by such factors as economic pressures, rising aspirations towards a higher standard of living and education, lighter housekeeping tasks and better job opportunities in rapidly expanding services, many women are re-entering the workforce for another twenty to twenty-five years. This increase of women in the labour market would be expected to have an effect on society's views about the traditional roles of women. But the women in the labour force are not spread evenly over all occupations, and are moving only slowly into what have been considered male fields of employment, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Percentage Women Employed in Major Industry Divisions:

Occupational Division	Percentage
Community, Social and personal Service	32.2
Wholesale and retail trade, Restaurants - hotels	22.9
Manufacturing	19.9
Financing, Insurance, Real Estate & Business Services	8.5
Transport, Storage & Communication	5.5
Agriculture	5.0
Public utility	4.7
Mining, quarrying	0.4
	100%

(Source: Provisional National Statistics 1976)

Examination of the New Zealand employment statistics for 1926-1976 indicates that there has been a slow increase in the proportion of women in the labour force, a rapid and accelerating increase of married women in employment, but little change in the range of occupations undertaken by women. Gilsom (in Forster 1969) suggests that this may be because of New Zealand society's interpretation of the feminine role as being sharply differentiated

from the male role. Men for outside work, women for the home and family. The education system contributes to this state of affairs, reinforcing the rigid adherence to the traditonal male - female roles which has prevented significant expansion of the employment area equally accessible to men and women. There are few women working in engineering, accountancy, banking management and politics. The changing pattern of New Zealand women in employment is seen as a compromise between the social and economic forces which are encouraging increased participation, and the cultural and institutional resistances which are inhibiting the increase and full use of women's potential.

Sutch (1973) points out that perhaps the most important fact about the participation of women in paid work comes out in the group aged from fifteen to nineteen years, where the Australian and New Zealand participation was very much higher than in Sweden or the United States. A comparison is given in Table 3. These figures are a reflection of the much longer period of schooling common in Sweden and the U.S.A. Very many girls in New Zealand leave school at the age of fifteen to be shop, office or factory workers, as in Australia. Since New Zealand has a preponderance of young women, who if they do return to employment after child rearing, will still be without the qualifications they left school too early to gain, as well as such a low percentage of women entering higher education, it is probably not surprising that there is also a low proportion in managerial positions.

Table 3

Labour force participation of women aged 15-19 expressed as percentage of female workers:

New Zealand	56.9%
Australia	52.1%
United Kingdom	55.7%
Sweden	29.3%
U.S.A.	29.2%
U.S.S.R.	9.0%

(Source: ILO Year Book 1975)

Number and Status of Women in Management

Employment opportunities for women in management have never been particularly favourable, as compared with that for men, and the figures for women who are employers of labour or who work on their own account are very low in comparison with men. Of the employers of labour in New Zealand only fourteen point five per-cent (14.5%) are female and eighteen point three percent (18.3%) of the self-employed are female (New Zealand Year Book 1976).

Although statistically there has been some increase in the number of women found in policy making positions in top corporations, numerically their numbers remain low in comparison to the number of men in the same type of position. Whilst the percentage of employed men in managerial positions is 2.2% in New Zealand and 8.6% in Australia, the percentage of employed women in similar situations is 0.3% in New Zealand and 2.5% in Australia, while in the U.S.A. women managers comprise 4.5% of the female workforce. (N.Z. Census 1971, Oppenheimer 1970, O.E.C.D. 1973). The situation is much the same in the public service. Although women comprise thirty percent (30%) of the public servants, only point four percent (.4%) are in high executive positions on the permanent staff, in comparison with the thirteen point three (13.3%) of men who are in the same category. (Labour and Employment Gazette, May 1975). There are certain occupational areas in the Public Service where women form the majority of the staff (e.g. in nursing, library work and social welfare) but there is still a tendency for men to occupy the very top positions.

Data presented by Swartz (1969) indicates that in the U.S.A. women have made the greatest penetration into management in big business in general administration, data processing, accounting and production, whereas in small businesses, the greatest penetration was in production management, followed by general administration, accounting and data processing. Further analysis shows that most women managers are usually working at low level executive positions, e.g. as Accountants, Personnel Officers, factory, advertising, research and office managers. (O.E.C.D. Aust. 1973). A British study revealed that of the 5% of women employed in managerial positions, the majority were managers of smaller establishments. (Hunt 1968).

Basil (1972) reports that the most common types of management positions held by women to be office or personnel managers. Since three out of five women in the labour force are employed in white collar clerical jobs, it is only to be expected that the opportunities for managerial positions for women are much greater in the office. The majority of women now employed in management work at the first or supervisory level, and rarely reach the higher levels of management. In spite of the growing proportion of women in all types of industry, the proportion at or near the top has remained essentially unchanged at about two per cent (Basil 1972) although Bartol & Bartol (1975) place this figure at closer to one percent. Women tend to be managers only in certain sectors, particularly those with low prestige.

In New Zealand the situation is by no means clear, for although the census returns provide a breakdown of the numbers of women employed in each category, there are few clear indicators of the numbers of women managers in each occupational category, except in the public service as previously cited. But as the overall figure of women providing three point nine (3.9%) of all managers, is low, it is suspected that each category will contain a minimal representation of female managers. (ILO Year Book 1975). The majority are likely to be office managers or to be owners of small businesses, boutiques and shops, offering a variety of services as well as providing outwork office services such as duplicating. The provisional census returns for 1976 list five hundred and fifty (550) women who earn over twenty thousand dollars ($20,000). By looking at the occupations of these women, presented in Table 4, some clues may be gained as to the placement of women executives, although they are more likely, especially in relation to agriculture, to be property owners.

Table 4

Occupation and numbers of women earning $20,000

Agriculture	200
Wholesale and retail, Hotels and restaurants	140
Community, Social and personal services	110
Financing, Insurance, Real Estate	50
Manufacturing	30
Construction	10
Not clearly defined	10
Total	550

New Zealand women managers will not be found in the highest paid positions, that is, as graduates, unless they avail themselves of the appropriate educational qualifications more than they have done. More managers are now salaried, and fewer are self-employed, and the salaried manager increasingly tends to be a university graduate. As we have already noted, the New Zealand girl falls behind educationally even while still at high school, and if she wishes to realize her potential to the full in the management field, she needs first of all encouragement to continue her education, and then further preparation through a commerce or business administration degree. Without such commitment and preparation neither the quantity nor the quality, in terms of numbers and status, will improve for the woman manager in New Zealand.

Prejudice and negative attitudes towards women in managements

A woman who enters management is confronted with problems her male counterpart does not have. The traditional attitudes of male supremacy and dominance lead to the situation that men are preferred to women as supervisors and a reluctance by top management to provide training and positions for women. Obstacles to executive status are found within the job requirements and structure of the company and in prejudice expressed by both sexes

at all levels. Some attack can be made through anti-discrimination laws, but attitude and prejudice forms a more invidious behaviour.

Employers argue that men give more time and effort to the job because they have no domestic responsibilities, that they are more useful because of greater mobility and will not withdraw for marriage and child bearing. Reasons given against the hiring of women include higher absentee and labour turnover as well as lower productivity rates. These externally oriented objectives can be factually refuted. Labour turnover rates are influenced more by the skill level of the job, the age of the worker, the worker's record of job stability and length of service with the employer, rather than the sex of the worker. Thus comparison of male/female absenteeism and turnover rates have to be related to comparable jobs and circumstances. By occupation the study by the U.S. Dept. of Labour Women's Bureau (1969) indicated that the women who had the greatest job stability were in occupations that required the most training or experience. This indicates that a woman who is interested enough in her work to be prepared to spend time training, is not likely to waste her efforts and give up working. What she may do is to change her job if she finds no opportunities for advancement, which may well be denied her just because she is female. This cycle thus set up becomes self-confirming.

But the most commonly expressed prejudice against women in management concerns emotional aspects. Women's psychological make-up makes them unfit for work that requires objective, analytical skills or careful reasoning; women cannot take the pressures required of an executive, as they become tense under stress and let intuition take over instead of thinking through to a logical conclusion; women lack the fundamental ability to organise units without over concern for detail; women are not objective enough to organise other people. (Kreps 1971; Basil 1972; Fogarty el al 1971; Bird 1973). Women are assumed to be emotional, in the sense of not having the capacity to control or channel their emotions in productive ways. For example, a study of employment practices showed that women were denied advancement, especially to executive position, because employers felt they were "too emotional", though it was observed that no employer objected to the man who might "blow his stack". (Grinder 1961).

It is often difficult for a woman to find a management position, just because she is female. In many companies, management training programmes are one of the ladders to management positions. Traditionally, few, if any women, have been admitted to these programmes. Neither do women graduates find it much easier to gain access to the avenues of organisational power, influence, responsibility and rewards available to those men who excel academically. Even women M.B.A. graduates from Harvard Business School report this experience. (Bird 1968). Many women who are employed in lower level management positions find it impossible to advance through the "invisible ceiling" to top level positions. Many of these women have trained the men who have been appointed to the senior positions. Even with an excellent performance rating, promotion is rarely available to a woman, and she frequently finds a less qualified man appointed above her. (Wells 1971, Lippit 1971).

One aspect that may well operate to negate female advancement to executive status is the protege system, typical of many professions. It operates both to train personnel in certain specialities, and to assure continuity of leadership. The sponsor is most likely to be male, and may have trouble in identifying a female assistant as his successor. He may consider that she lacks commitment, being easily deflected from career by marriage and family. Or he may go the other extreme, and ignore completely her other roles as wife and mother. There may be jealousy factors from sponsor's wife, and protege's husband. The sponsor may not give support to enter a profession or may not exert influence to promote a woman. There is a problem in that so many of those sponsoring and introducing proteges to the right people find that contacts may be made in an all male club, in an after work drinks atmosphere, where club membership is denied to women. But some peer group support for women in management positions is obtained by the sharing of experiences and ideas amongst the members of female membership only organisations for women executives such as Zonta and Business and Professional Women's Clubs.

It is expected that these attitudes could be overcome albeit slowly, as the new generation grows up more in contact with the liberation ideals. But there is still a long way to go. A British survey in 1971 (Fogarty et al) revealed a high degree of negativism in attitudes of undergraduates, the majority considering that subordinates of women felt insecure and inferior. Many male students felt that women did not belong in management because of their sex. The one bright ray is that men who had actually worked with competent women accepted them as people. It is hard to counteract such attitudes as expressed in the preface to a management training book - "This book is about men who are trying to become managers in American industry. We have written it primarily for other young men in college and at work who would like some day to be managers themselves." (Dill et al 1962). There is nowhere any mention that women would be as acceptable and as capable. But a study by Ledbetter (1974) does indicate that although there is continued prejudice against women by top management, there has been a slight tendency toward greater acceptance of women in management. Few investigators however, match the positive thinking of Killian (1971) who considers that women have advantages over men with a greater empathy and human insight, sincere feelings for the needs of people, and the mental ability required for leadership. These qualities are needed for participative leadership styles which could use women's potential, giving them opportunity to assume responsible roles.

Attitudes in New Zealand

The attitude towards women in management in New Zealand reflects the pattern of prejudice found elsewhere. The Society for Research on Women (1971) reported that employers attitude is overwhelmingly that management is a man's job (p22) and that women in general could not "be expected to do" or were not "suitable for" (p31) such jobs which required long term commitment and acceptance of responsibility. Furthermore the majority of men interviewed thought that their usually longer time span of commitment to work was sufficient reason for the promotion of a male in preference to a female.

Comments by women working in management, and perusal of advertising of managerial positions, do not indicate a greater acceptance of women as managers since that survey. Women report that their sex hinders promotion and some advertisements downgrade the qualities of women managers, whilst others openly state a preference for men.

In an advertisement for an office manager whose duties were primarily accounting the female administrator sought is required to have a good typing standard and a working standard of shorthand. Would any male accountant be required to be also a typist if hired as an office manager? (New Zealand Herald Wednesday May 8, 1974). A firm advertising for a group personnel officer stipulated that the applicant must be a male graduate, because continuity of employment was essential for the management development training given (Broadsheet August 1974), indicating a preformed opinion that no woman would give such commitment. Yet some women do give such commitment to their work, and then find that even so, they are not promoted as would be their male counterparts. The first woman to be appointed manager of a Savings Bank branch after twenty years of working in the bank, commented that it had been most frustrating to have young men with less experience promoted before her. (New Zealand Herald, May 23, 1974). A manager in the travel industry, reported that she considered being a woman hindered her promotion in one firm, so that she terminated her employment, working instead for another firm in the same type of industry which she considered rewarded ability without sex discrimination. (Signature, May 1976).

Employers do make it very clear that their preference is for male managers. A survey of the managerial situations vacant advertised on the business pages of "The New Zealand Herald" of February 12, 1977, revealed that for these top management positions, seventy-three percent (73%) of the advertisers refered to the applicant as male. While it is true that these advertisements were not headed "male manager wanted", requesting instead a product or marketing manager or perhaps a financial controller, nevertheless they went on to state that men with sound administrative backgrounds, or that astute businessmen were required, and thereafter referred to

the applicant as "he" throughout the listing of qualifications required. Only two advertisements sought people, sex unspecified, and these were for computer operations managers, an area in which women are gaining acceptance. Firms advertising for accountants (not for managerial positions) also refrained from specifying the desired sex of the qualified accountants required. Two advertisements only were worded to include both sexes for consideration for the situation - one used the he/she format in the wording, whilst the other, in advertising for a product manager, stated that the position would definitely be attractive to the right man or woman. There is overall still a long way to go in New Zealand for the acceptance of management as a job for either sex, especially when it is noted that in a woman's fashionwear firm a man is specifically sought for the senior management position.

Self-Concept and Sex Role Stereotypes

Despite the prejudice which undoubtedly operates in the business world, Killian (1971) believe that women's biggest obstacle in their search for equal status, compensation and prospects in higher level executive positions, is their lack of self-confidence, so that in essence they are defeating themselves while striving to achieve their goal. Women tend to sell themselves too short. They need higher goals and better personal adjustment in order to progress on the job. Women's expectations of themselves and what they can do on the job are usually too low. This may seem surprising in view of women's struggle for equal opportunity in jobs and promotion but her newness and unfamiliarity with business, her conditioned inclination to accept leadership from men and uncertain tenure of employment all work to lower her self-esteem. (Johnston 1974). Hacker (1951) considers that not only must a woman possess characteristics considered male attributes if she is to be successful in business, but she must also bear the added burden of women's generally low evaluation of themselves. Hacker identifies this as minority group self hatred, stemming from the subordinate group's acceptance of stereotypic concepts of itself held by the dominant group. Since both men and women devalue the work

done by women, it is not surprising that women do have a low opinion of their abilities. (Goldberg 1968; Bardwick 1971; Rosenkrantz et al 1968; Mischel 1974).

Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) find that this lack of self esteem is most marked among the eighteen-twenty two years old college women, and suggest that this may be related to their sense that they have less control over their own fates than men do. Since this time is important for career choice, this may well be a factor influencing a woman to make her choice among the traditional feminine occupations. There is no real tradition of women in leadership roles in the business world, and even in female occupations, executive posi ions are held largely by males. Women clearly need to be encouraged from a very early stage in their education to regard themselves as capable of doing jobs which are not traditionally women's and to "think big" and not be deterred from applying for promotion or change simply by lack of encouragement from above.

The existing sex role sterotypes with distinctions between male and female valued components, have important implications for self-concept. Recent investigators have expressed concern over possible detrimental effects of sex role standards upon the full development of the capabilities of both men and women. (Horner 1969; Carlson 1972; Maccoby & Jacklin 1974). Existing sex role standards exert real pressures upon individuals to behave in prescribed ways, for these stereotypes are widely held (Lunneborg 1970), persistent and highly traditional (Komarovsky 1950), with strong consensus about the differing characteristics of men and women existing cross groups which differ in sex, age, religion, marital status and education, (Broverman et al 1972). The positively related masculine traits seem to form a "competency cluster" of such behaviours as independence, objectively, active, competitive, logical, skilled in business, able to make decisions easily, self-confident, a competent leader and ambitious. A relative absence of these traits characterised the sterotypic perception.

Female valued items form a "warmth and expressiveness cluster", and include being gentle, sensitive to the feelings of others, tactful, neat and quiet, with an interest in art and literature.

Broverman a et al (1972) report that a sample of college men perceived the male valued traits as significantly less desirable for women than are female traits valued for men. Elman et al (1970) investigated ideal sex role concepts of both men and women. Their results indicated that the concepts of the ideal man and the ideal women, for both men and women subjects, closely parallel the male and female sex role stereotypes. The social desirability of an item is known to increase the likelihood of that item's being reported as self descriptive on personality tests (Edwards 1957).

This tendency to align oneself with socially desirable behaviours, together with the fact that the feminine stereotype embodies may characteristics which are less socially desirable than those of the masculine stereotype, implies that women ought to reject the negatively valued feminine characteristics in their self-reports. However, findings indicate that women incorporate such negative aspects as relative incompetency, irrationality, passitivity into their self concepts along with the positive feminine aspects of warmth and expressiveness. Since more of the feminine traits are negatively valued than male traits, women tend to have a lower self esteem than do men. The tendency of women to downgrade themselves in this manner can be seen as evidence of the powerful social pressures to conform to the sex role standards of society.

Despite historical changes in the legal status of women, and despite the changes in permissible behaviours accorded men and women, the sex role stereotypes continue to be clearly defined and held in agreement by both sexes. Thus both men and women agree that a greater number of the characteristics and behaviours stereotypically associated with masculinity are more socially desirable than those associated with femininity. It is not surprising then that women hold negative values of their worth relative to men, and lack of self confidence in ability in management. Loring & Wells (1972) in describing the achieving woman with management potential, mention a strong self-esteem as a necessary prerequisite to advancement. Without this, woman's greatest problem is certainly within herself.

CHAPTER 2.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Choice, definiton and Measurement of Variables.

From the review of the literature, the three variables selected for further investigation in relation to the study of women as managers are biographic information, management style and self-concept.

Biographical Information.

The biographical information required for this study is concerned with the life history items relating to those areas of development and experience likely to provide predictors of managerial effectiveness for women.

Since so few women enter other than the traditional feminine areas of secretarial, social work, nursing and teaching, it is suspected that the widespread belief in the people-caring trait of women means that girls are counselled towards a work choice in these areas. From the fifth form onwards there are less girls than boys in each year of extra schooling, so it is not surprising that less women than men occupy high level work positions. Nothing indicates that girls are less intelligent or less able to achieve than boys, but the situation continues of their failure to aim for a work goal which can utilise to the full their potential ability. The critical stage in this area is considered to be the job decision made while still at school. Since present vocational choices for women are still very restrictive, a need is seen for means of identifying girls likely to succeed in business administration, so that an appropriate course of study can be followed with the aim of entry into business as a manager, rather than as a secretary.

It is hypothesized that women working as managers will exhibit a pattern of interests and attainment in their youthful life style as well as in their life style as working adults, and that analysis of such information will provide some items in common which could be viable as indicators of aptitude for a managerial career. Close attention will be paid to items relating to adolescent activities, to determine any early predictors of suitability for a management career. This information could be usefully employed in providing the supportive encouragement needed to enable girls

to make a definite career choice towards using their indicated aptitude for a business career. The relevant biographical information is elicited by using the questionnaire developed for this study as described in a later chapter.

Management Style.

The argument regarding the suitability or unsuitability of women in management positions centres around their ascribed emotionality, in that they are believed to manage situations with more regard for feelings than for facts. Because of this women are not believed to work effectively in high level administrative positions, and since the majority of women in management are working at first or supervisory levels, it is concluded that this prejudice may be working as an effective barrier against advancement. It therefore seems important to show more precisely whether such prejudice is warranted in terms of the managerial style used by women.

Management style is defined as that cluster of behaviours a manager applies to her work situation. In this study such clusters of behaviour are named according to the intent of the behaviours they encompass to provide a specific style. The characteristics of each of the eight styles are described in detail in the later chapter outlining the rationale for the selection of the Management Position Analysis Test (Reddin 1970) to test the hypothesis that there is an identifiably female style of management.

Sex-role Self concept.

The notion of the sex role self concept is defined as the way a person views themselves in relation to the specific behavioural expectations and standards culturally determined as appropriate to males or to females.

The review of literature suggests that the model for a successful person, is a masculine one. The good manager is aggressive, competitive, firm and just, never soft or yeilding or intuitive in the womanly sense. The expression of emotion is

viewed as a feminine weakness that would interfere with effective business procedure. Yet the fact is that all these emotions are part of the human nature of men and women alike. Cultural forces have not shaped their existence but rather their acceptability. So it is widely accepted that being a manager requires masculine traits in a man's world, and it seems difficult for men to accept in women, the qualities they find important in successful men

In this masculine oriented system, it is hypothesized that the sex-role self-concept of the female manager will likely include a synthesis of male and female role expectations to give an androgynous self-concept, androgyny being defined as the acceptance of qualities within oneself stereotypically attributed to the other sex, and co-existing with same sex qualities. The sex role self concept and the rationale leading to the choice of the Bem Sex Role Inventory as an instrument suited to testing the hypothesis, is presented in a subsequent chapter.

Subjects: Selection and Definition.

In 1971, of 28,289 people employed in the administrative and managerial category, 27,234 were males and 1,055 female. (ILO Year Book 1975) The Provisional National Statistics for 1976 state that 43,200 people are employed in the administrative-managerial category, but these provisional figures do not give a breakdown in terms of the male/female ratio within the category.

In defining suitable subjects, the salient criteria were considered as the combined parameters set by Mahoney, Jerdee and Nash (1964) of managers as accomplishing results through the direction and co-ordination of others, and the New Zealand Census categorising of managerial workers as having significant policy and decision making functions.

There are no available listings of women managers to which the principles of random selection of subjects could be applied. To find women managers involved making contact through such organisations as Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Zonta International, Federation of University Women, using listings in New Zealand's

Who's who in Business and news media information regarding managerial appointments. Research information was sent to each executive asking for her co-operation in supplying the necessary data. One hundred and fifty five female managers were contacted in New Zealand. Of these, twenty two were not suitable as they did not have responsibility in directing staff activities, for eight were company directors not actively working in the company, whilst the remainder of the non-respondents were working proprietors of one woman businesses.Each respondent provided data regarding biographical information, managerial style and a sex-role self-concept measure by using the appropriate sections in the questionnaire booklet as shown in Appendix 1. The data from three respondents was discarded from the analysis because at least one of the three areas under investigation was incomplete, to leave a sample of one hundred and thirty female managers. The distribution of the sample in comparison with the distribution of employed women within the labour force is shown in Table 5. No managers are included from agriculture or from mining and quarrying occupations.

Table 5

Distribution of Labour Force

Comparison of employed females with sample respondents.

(Percentages)

Industry	New Zealand ⊠	Sample
Community, Social, personal services.	32.2%	34.0%
Wholesale & retail trade, restaurants & hotels.	22.9%	27.0%
Transport & communication.	5.5%	6.0%
Manufacturing.	19.9%	15.0%
Public utility - electricity, gas, water.	4.7%	7.5%
Finance, insurance, real estate, business services.	8.5%	9.0%
Construction.	0.7%	1.5%
Agriculture.	5.0%	-
Mining and quarrying.	0.4%	-
	100%	100%

⊠ Source: New Zealand Provisional National Statistics 1976

The representation is sufficiently close to the actual distribution tc be considered as a valid statistical sample. Female managers formed three point nine per cent (3.9%) of the labour force categorised as administrative and managerial in 1971. In relation to these figures the ratio of sample size to population is 130 : 1,055, a proportion of 12.3%. However, it is considered more realistic to consider sample size in relation to the increased administrative and managerial population since 1971. Because the 1976 census returns show that this category has increased by some sixteen thousand persons, it is reasonable to assume some increase also in the number of female managers, with a suggested rate of increase considered to be such that females will provide some five to six per cent of all managers in New Zealand. A projected

growth rate to five per cent of all managers being female, would provide a figure of 1,948 females within the 43,200 administrators and managers listed in the 1976 census returns. Thus it seems appropriate to consider the sample size of one hundred and thirty in relation to a population of two thousand, a proportion of six point five per cent (6.5%), which provides a reasonable sampling proportion to permit some generalization to the female managerial population as a whole.

CHAPTER 3.

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Personal background data are often used in occupational selection and in vocational advisement and placement, largely because this information is relatively easy to obtain, generally less subject to distortion than responses to personality measures, and has good face validity, since a great deal of research indicates that what a person has achieved, or failed to achieve in the past, will, with some degree of assurance, indicate what may be achieved in the future. (Super 1960, Thorndike 1963, Baehr & William 1967, Owens 1971).

The basic measurement axiom, that past performance predicts future behaviour, can also be applied to members of a defined sub-group. Persons within a sub-group have similar patterns of experience, as expressed in similar biographic profiles, and should thus tend, by hypothesis, to exhibit similar patterns of concurrent and future behaviour. If we know that meaningful, distinctive, differential behaviour is associated with sub-group membership, we may then identify an individual to be assessed, match their biographic profile with the sub-group profile it most closely resembles, and predict the modal or typical behaviour of this sub-group for the individual. The meaningfulness of the individual's biographic data is commensurate with knowledge of the repertoire of the sub-group behaviours. To get this sub-group knowledge, an appropriate biographic form needs to be administered to large numbers of subjects in order to provide a base for concurrent and longitudinal studies of the affinity of sub-groups for various criteria of performance. Here the first problem arises. Women have just not been studied as a managerial sub-group. This is not surprising since women managers and administrators are a minority group in the managerial population. Work on developing scales for the identification of managerial talent has only applied to men, for example, the Managerial orientation scale for the Strong Vocational interest Blank, while covering a wide range of subjects and occupations, is nevertheless normed only for men. If more women are to hold managerial positions, then it becomes equally important to be able to identify female managerial talent early.

So the development of this biographic inventory is regarded as largely exploratory of women as a managerial subgroup, and as a basis for the development of an instrument useful in the vocational guidance of high school girls at the time of career decision and entry to a suitable course of further study.

There is a continuing need for developing more qualified managers, and with the recognition that women are a major under utilized resource, the field seems wide open for the identification of women with management potential, so that qualified women will be advancing into business administration courses rather than into secretarial - office practice training. The effective identification of management potential is a prerequisite for successful management development. The improved recruitment and selection of managerial talent probably offers potentially greater improvement of managerial performance than any other single aspect of managerial development.

Since women have not been documented biographically as a managerial sub-group, to decide what items are likely to be of use in a biographic inventory it is necessary to look at the literature regarding effective male managers, and decide what items may provide meaningful information in a female context; or even more importantly, to decide what items are likely to be useful to both male and female managerial sub-groups.

Mahoney, Jerdee & Nash (1964) sought measures of personal characteristics and managerial effectiveness. From their biographic measures, they report the following criteria as being significant predictors -

Number of memberships in high school organisations.
Number of sports and hobbies at age 25.
Number of offices held in fraternal and professional organisations at age 25.
Highest educational level attained.
Wife's educational level, and number of years worked after married.
Sport, fraternal organisations, and particulars about a wife, make this a male oriented pattern.

Super (1960) postulated five major categories of experience which could be measured through biographical data, although he did not relate these specifically to a managerial sub-group.

There variables are -

1. independence
2. family cohesiveness
3. social mobility
4. cultural stimulation
5. socio-economic status

Of these variables, the development of independence, and the cultural stimulation provided, are hypothesised to be of critical importance in determining whether girls set their career sights on management or on a secretarial position.

Nash (1965) reports four roughly identifiable factors which have been found to consistently relate to managerial effectiveness.

1. Social service, humanitarian, people oriented interests.
2. Persuasive, verbal literary interests.
3. Rejection of skilled trades, scientific, and technical interests.
4. Interests in business, business and closely related occupational contact.

Nash reviewed studies by thirty two authors from 1944 - 1962, none of whom identified the sex of their respondents, who are all assumed to be male. The first three factors could be considered strongly feminine, so that it could be said on this basis that women rather than men would be ideally suited for management positions, but for one important finding. For the first line supervisors and up to middle management, the more effective managers consistently scored higher on social service people orientation. But for the higher level managers, the reverse relationship appears to exist. Leaving aside the question of what this implies for management style in general, what are the implications for women who are stereotyped as being consistently more people oriented? It is suggested that top level managers must use the more masculine aggressive qualities, and that the clue to women's success in progressing from lower level to top management, lies in her ability

to relate in a people oriented manner as required with employees, and using the masculine qualities in co-ordinating and planning for top level administrative requirements.

Baehr & Williams (1967), from the responses of a vocationally heterogeneous sample of six hundred and eighty males to a wide spectrum of commonly used personal details derived fifteen interpretable first order factors with significant ratios. These factors are -

1. school achievement
2. higher educational achievement
3. drive
4. leadership and group participation
5. financial responsibility
6. early family responsibility
7. parental family adjustment
8. situational stability
9. school activities
10. professional successful parents
11. educational - vocational consistency
12. vocational deciseveness
13. vocational satisfaction
14. selling experience

The first eight factors are considered by Baehr & Williams to have most potental for operational use. But the situation may well be different for women. Early family responsibility, defined by Baehr & Williams as "early marriage with sole responsibility for family support", may well provide an achievement spur to a man, in providing financial support while his wife cares for their family, but would certainly be detrimental to a woman trying to establish her career. Family responsibility, is more likely to provide impetus to career development at a later stage for women. Of interest is the "situational stability" factor - defined as "establishment and maintenance of stability in occupation and home environments", which would be considered a negative factor for managerial success for women. This whole area suggests a continuation of the present situation, with women continuing to enter the

same occupations as they have traditionally done, for nursing, teaching, social and secretarial work, absorb seventy per cent of employed women.

In a 1968 study Baehr & Williams report further on biographical details useful in distinguishing upper and lower rated sales groups. The picture that emerges of the successful sales manager is a background of competent handling of personal economy; an early vocational start with prime or sole responsibility for managing family finances; a past history of sales achievement, and present stability in work and family situation. Again, this was a male only sample, but it is considered that effective managers, both male and female will have exhibited a measure of financial stability and control.

Johnson & Dunette (1968) obtained results for the Strong Vocational Interest Blank which suggests that patterns of personal preferences are stable over long periods of time. Their results confirmed that the pattern of managerial effectiveness preferences documented by Nash, appear rather early (before, during or shortly after University training) and persists over time. In this work the more effective managers placed emphasis on risk taking, action oriented behaviour, independence of thought, with a striving for dominance in interpersonal contacts. This data provided support for arguing that potentially effective managers may be identified by a specific pattern of biographical information. But yet again the sample was male only, and there is nothing to say that all effective managers, male or female, would exhibit such characteristics; or whether this is a male only pattern, and that women managers, while equally effective, may well exhibit a different pattern of characterisitics and preferences.

In discussion about developing biographic data instruments Owens (1971) suggests the inclusion of such areas as early background, patterns of test scores, academic achievements, choice of career, pattern of extracurricular activities, type of job held, promotion rate and other such job related aspects, as well as community activities. Rawls J & Rawls D (1974) considered that the advantage of using biographical data in the study of management personnel, is that the information produced pinpoints certain critical experiences lacking in the individual's background which can be provided for in training. They give a managerial effectiveness index related to

position level, salary history and effectiveness rankings.

Bull (1975), from a factor analysis of biographical data collected in a vocational guidance study, of New Zealand fifth and sixth formers, gives eight factors as being important indicators -

1. family achievement
2. family education
3. vocational decisiveness
4. academic concern
5. career preparation
6. academic success
7. individual - people orientation
8. autonomy

Bull found that these factors related realistically to the expressed vocational choice of the students who intended to enter the following career groups, secretarial, nursing, teaching, accounting, draughting - commercial art, and skilled trades. The first three occupations of secretarial, nursing and teaching were selected mainly by girls and three factors group around this distinction. The boys felt that they were more adequately prepared for their career than the girls. Their scores were negative on the people orientation indicating a higher income expectancy and a lesser involvement with social types of work. Girls felt more restricted in their autonomy than boys, possibly because of more restrictive parental attitudes. Vocational decisiveness was positive in only the secretarial and accountancy groups because in New Zealand their vocational decision was involved with curricula choices made early in the secondary school. Academic success measured highly on teaching, accountancy and draughting aspirants, and low in the skilled trades and secretarial work which is the expected pattern.

Further supporting evidence of the usefulness of biographic information for the New Zealand situation is provided from a comparative study of Teachers College Students, Teachers College dropouts and graduates of the Teachers College with six years of teaching experience by Isherwood (1975). The biographic information showed that in general the dropouts were more subject to concern about their academic work, their family's educational background was lower than for the continuing Teachers College, and their family's perceived achievement level was less. In a further investigation of the utility

of such data Bull (1976), in a study of successful salesmen for a large New Zealand firm, (success being defined in terms of total sales and length of job tenure,) found that financial control and stability as determined from biographic information separated the successful from the unsuccessful salesmen for eighty per cent of the sample. Thus by obtaining biographic information at the time of job application, it was possible to eliminate those applicants not fulfilling the relevant financial criteria and therefore unlikely to be successful salesmen. In this way labour training costs were reduced, as was labour turnover by utilising the comparatively simple and quickly administered biographic information profile.

The pattern of evidence is that biographic data is providing information usefully differentiating categories of subjects in both overseas and New Zealand studies. The evidence provided from the literature regarding biographical information and its predictive ability regarding managerial effectiveness, suggests that such information may reasonably be expected to yield worthwhile results in identifying a pattern of successful female managers in New Zealand. From this pattern it should be possible to identify the characteristics which distinguishes the female manager from her employees, and to apply this knowledge to the development of a biographical information profile useful in vocational counselling to identify those girls most likely to succeed in the managerial world. Then such girls can be encouraged to further their education in commerce or business administration as an active preparation and commitment for a career in management.

To compile a useful biographic information profile, it was considered necessary to investigate both youthful development as well as the adult life pattern of women managers. In the selection of items relating to home, school, early adulthood and career choice, it seemed as though key areas were adequate education, parental encouragement for a career, and development of independence. In regard to the life style of women managers, it was considered important to look at recreational and community interests, work attitudes and financial stability to see if any clearly identifiable pattern emerged, although it is hypothesized that a confident self-image is the critical concept at this stage.

From the work of Baehr & Williams (1967,68) Super, (1960) Mahoney, Jardee and Nash (1960) Nash (1965) Johnson and Dunnette (1968) the following categories were expected to provide the most useful information -

1. Demographic data - age, marital status, place of birth etc. to identify subjects.
2. Education - formal qualifications, size of school, subjects studied.
3. Independence and development of autonomy - class or group leader.
4. Family background - association with business, parental occupation family cohesion, influence, social life, health.
5. Interest, recreation, organisational participation - offices and participation in organisations.
6. Self-image, positive - opportunities, risk taking decisions making.
   or negative - creativity, self confidence.
7. Work habits, job stability - group interaction, time in situation.
8. Attitudes to work - responsibility, important work features, managerial success.
9. Financial control - investment, life insurance, saving.

The questions to fit these categories were largely selected from the item pool book developed by Owens (1971), with reference to the items used by Bull (1975) to enable selection of items with face validity suited to New Zealand cultural conditions. Care was taken to select items equally suited to male and female respondents, since one of the purposes of the development of this biographic form was to elecit such male/female differences or similarities which would be useful in the selection management positions. The original ninety items were administered to a male and female pilot sample, and analysis then made of the

response patterns, with the hope of discarding those items which failed to discriminate usefully between males and females, or to be useful to the female population.

Since the biographic form was to be administered along with other test items, it was also necessary to shorten it somewhat to provide a less time-consuming instrument, as thirty minutes was considered a reasonable length for respondents, although it was desirable to bear in mind that a female - managers biographic inventory was largely exploratory at this stage. Each item of the original ninety questions was subjected to a Chi square analysis of variance between the male and female responses, as well as a Kendall's rank correlation to detect the existence of association in the population.

Not all items significantly differentiated between male and female samples. But since similarities as well as differences are important, or may well be equally important, in looking at a managerial biographic pattern, care was taken not to discard items, which although not making a significant statistical contribution at this stage, were nevertheless considered from the literature review to contribute meaningfully to the selected categories.

A somewhat more stringent selection process could perhaps have reduced the length even further, but this was not considered desirable or necessary at the present stage of development of this biographic instrument. Women have traditionally confined themselves in occupational choice, without, in the main, being aware of the options available and without being aware that they have the ability to succeed in different occupations. Each individual is unique and the use of biographic interest inventories helps to mirror the individual's uniqueness and to suggest vocational alternatives particularly suited to that individual. With women, at this point in our society such approaches seem particularly relevant. It is important that every suggestion, interest pattern, and every aptitude high score be taken seriously. A woman may decide not to use her education and training in the working world during the period of childrearing and family commitments, but she cannot decide to use education or training which she does not have. In regard to item content it is thus important

to cast the net widely in terms of interests in what may be regarded as a pilot survey of women as managers. The time to reduce, if necessary, the length of the biographic form, is after identifying a pattern of female managerial interests and life history.

RESULTS

Biographic Data of Respondents - 100 Female Managers

Age, birth order and marital status

The age range presented in Table 6 shows the majority of respondents as being over thirty years of age, with the largest cluster in the 40/49 age group.

TABLE 6

Age range of respondents

Age group	Percentage
20-29	8%
30-39	19%
40-49	36%
50-59	33%
60 and over	4%
	100%

The birth order of respondents is given in Table 7. It is noted that 28% are firstborn, and 21% are second children with an older brother.

TABLE 7

Birth order	Percentages
First child	28%
Second child older brother	21%
Second child older sister	16%
Only child	14%
Youngest of three or more	12%
Other	9%
	100%

Tables 8 and 9 indicate that 32% of the sample is married, 29% single with 39% widowed or divorced, and that most of the women had married between twenty and twentytwo years of age.

TABLE 8

Marital Status of respondents

	Percentages
Single	29%
Married	31%
Widowed	11%
Divorced	29%
	100%

TABLE 9

Respondents' age when married

Age in years	Percentage
19 or less	15%
20 - 22	32%
23 - 25	16%
26 - 30	5%
31 and over	3%
	100%

Of this sample of women managers, 48% have no children, with the family size of the remainder ranging from one to six, with 29% having two or three children (Table 10).

TABLE 10

Family size of respondents

Number of children	Percentage
None	48%
One	10%
Two or three	29%
Four or five	12%
Six or more	1%
	100%

Family background and early life

Tables 11 and 12 indicate that 25% of the sample came from a farming background, and that 24% of respondents had grown up in cities with a population greater than one hundred thousand people, with all but 12% of the women having lived in several different places while young.

TABLE 11

Respondents' Residence while growing up

Location	Percentage
Farm	25%
Town population less 2,000	15%
Town population 2-10,000	9%
Town population 10-50,000	10%
City, population 50-100,000	17%
City, population over 100,000	24%
	100%

TABLE 12

Cities and towns lived in by respondents during youth.

Number	Percentage
One	12%
Two or three	48%
Four or five	21%
Six or more	19%
	100%

Parental background information shows that the majority of mothers were not employed outside the home and that only six per cent were in business or self-employed. In contrast 42% of the fathers were self-employed, with their own business or farm, with 20% working as unskilled labour. (Table 13).

TABLE 13

Occupation of Fathers

Category	Percentage
Self employed	42%
Unskilled labour	20%
Skilled tradesman	11%
Clerical-sales-supervisory	10%
Professional	9%
Managerial-administrative	4%
Social work-teaching	4%
	100%

The majority of respondents viewed their father as being in varying degrees successful in his field, with 20% judging their father as unsuccessful. Sixtytwo per cent (62%) of the parents had continued in a marriage relationship during the respondents youth and early adulthood. Such stability no doubt contributed to the high percentage of respondents who had been included in parental activities (Table 14). Since the majority of the sample (60%) considered that their parents participation in social activities had been minimal as shown in Table 15, it is possible that family type activities were more the norm.

TABLE 14

Inclusion of respondents in parental activities

	Percentages
Most of the time	37%
Frequently	23%
Occasionally	22%
Rarely	14%
Never	4%
	100%

TABLE 15

Parents participation in social activities
Percentages

Very active	39%
Usually some social activity	28%
Seldom interested	28%
Not very active	4%
	100%

Education and career choice

Table 16 presents a comparison between the highest educational attainment of respondents and their partents. Mothers had less schooling than did the fathers, who in turn were not as well educated as their daughters, of whom 11% gained a degree, the majority in business and commerce.

TABLE 16

Compared Education of respondents and parents
Percentages

	Sample	Mother	Father
Fifth form only	20%	64%	49%
School Certificate	17%	10%	22%
University entrance	13%	13%	6%
Some university	24%	-	-
Bachelor's degree	10%	2%	13%
Postgraduate	1%	1%	-
Skilled diploma	13%	10%	4%
Trade certificate	2%	-	6%
	100%	100%	100%

At school 67% of the sample had been a class leader, prefect or sports team captain and 53% had been a leader of a young peoples church group or had acted as a patrol leader within an organisation such as the Girl Guides movement. Table 17 shows that academic studies were selected by the majority and were also rated as being their most successful field.

TABLE 17

Selected school subjects and subjects rated most successful
Percentages

Subjects	Subjects studied	Rated most successful
Academic studies	54%	53%
Business and commercial	36%	-
Athletics	-	16%
Club activities	-	4%
Drama-art-music	4%	13%
Student publications	-	5%
Student activities	-	7%
Debating	-	2%
Trade	1%	-
Homecraft	5%	-
	100%	100%

Table 18 indicates that few of the sample had known what career they wished to follow during schooling, but 53% of their parents were interested and helpful regarding career choice. (Table 19). That so few did have decided thoughts about career choice at school leaving age, supports the reasoning that those girls who ultimately entered the business world as managers, could well have benefitted from positive guidance toward pursuing a degree in business and administration as career preparation.

TABLE 18

Timing of career choice by respondents
Percentages

As a child	18%
At secondary school	11%
When leaving school	26%
None of these	45%
	100%

TABLE 19

Parental attitude to career choice

Percentages	
Interested and helpful	53%
Interested but didn't understand	21%
Little interest shown	14%
Strongly directive	7%
Opposed	5%
	100%

For the majority of respondents, their families had had little association with people in busines. With only 31% having had close contact, business association is not likely to have been a directly contributing factor in the choice by respondents of a business career. (Table 20).

TABLE 20

Association respondents' family with business

Percentages	
Very little contact	27%
Some association	25%
No contact	17%
Constant association	20%
Close business friends	11%
	100%

Recreation and organisation participation

Table 21 indicates that 44% of respondents report a preference for such recreational activities as reading and listening to records where they can be alone, although the majority are actively involved in organisation participation, for 77% hold, or have held, several positions as officers during the past five years (Table 22).

TABLE 21

Recreation preferred

	Percentages
Reading, listening to records	44%
Social parties, meeting people	35%
Sports spectator	11%
Competitive individual	7%
Team sports	3%
	100%

TABLE 22

Organisation participation

	Percentages
Held several positions	48%
Held one office	29%
Don't belong	13%
Like to hold office in future	4%
Reliable attender, but not an officer	3%
Not very active	3%
	100%

Since reading is a major recreational interest of these women it is interesting to note that 57% report that their present professional reading has increased in amount and diversification, (Table 23), since their training period, with 49% reading five or more serious non-fiction books in a year, as listed in Table 24.

TABLE 23

Present amount of professional reading

	Percentages
Same in amount and diversification	19%
Same in own area, less in others	7%
Less	17%
More	23%
Much more	11%
Considerably more in amount and diversification	23%
	100%

TABLE 24

Non-fiction read by respondents

Number of books	Percentage
None	6%
One	9%
Two - four	36%
Five - eight	28%
Nine or more	21%
	100%

Self-confidence

One indicator of the development of independence and self-confidence in early adulthood was the age at which respondents learnt to drive a car, and the age at which they first left home to become responsible for their own living arrangements. This information presented in Table 25 shows that 52% of respondents have learnt to drive by eighteen years of age and that 53% have left home by the age of nineteen.

TABLE 25

Age respondents learnt to drive and left home.

	Percentages	
Age	Learnt to drive	Left home
Fifteen	15%	-
Fifteen - Sixteen	11%	-
Sixteen - Seventeen	-	17%
Seventeen - eighteen	26%	-
Eighteen - nineteen	-	36%
Nineteen - twenty	12%	-
Twenty - twentyone	-	21%
Twentyone and over	34%	26%
	100%	100%

In adult life, the majority of respondents reported that they had had at least one good opportunity in their business career. Only eight per cent (8%) considered that they had failed to take advantage of available opportunities in life. This low percentage is to be expected when it is considered that 76% of the respondents view themselves as moderate risk-takers, who would be unlikely to bypass a promising opportunity. The majority of respondents viewed themselves as quite self-confident, but 39% would like to be more confident socially and intellectually (Table 26). In view of this, it is not surprising that the major accomplishment outside of work, as presented in Table 27, was considered by 62% to be self-development.

TABLE 26

Felt self confidence
Percentages

Very confident all activities	7%
Confident - intellectually, not socially	12%
Quite confident both areas	27%
Confident socially, not intellectually	15%
Like to be more confident both areas	39%
	100%

TABLE 27

Major accomplishment outside work
Percentages

Family activities	15%
Community activities	16%
Self-development	62%
Social development	3%
Other	4%
	100%

The personal qualities which respondents consider important for success are presented in Table 28, with 37% considering as most important their ability to meet and deal with many people.

TABLE 28

Personal qualities and success
Percentages

Ability to get along with co-workers	15%
Ability to get on with supervisor	1%
Organising work details	19%
Skills and experience	28%
Ability to meet and deal with many people	37%
	100%

Table 29 presents a comparison of job aspects according to respondents' assessment of difficulty. The easiest task for the majority is the writing of reports, while 31% find that their most difficult work task is to speak before a large group and for 41% it is most difficult to tell others about inadequate performance. Forty three percent (43%) of the sample is confident enough to express their views before others even if the group does not share their viewpoint.

TABLE 29

Comparison of difficulty of job aspects
Percentages

Job Aspect	Most difficult	Least Difficult
Writing reports	17%	41%
Selling ideas to boss	8%	15%
Speaking before large groups	31%	19%
Telling others of inadequate performance	41%	2%
Selling others on job importance	3%	23%
	100%	100%

When asked how good they considered themselves as managers, 54% ranked themselves in the upper fifty percent, with only ten percent (10%) prepared to place themselves in the upper five percent bracket. (Table 30).

TABLE 30

Respondents rating of ability as a manager

	Percentages
In upper 5%	10%
In upper 20%	31%
In upper 50%	54%
In lower 50%	5%
	100%

Work attitudes

A good deal of responsibility in their work is considered desirable by 78% of the sample, who prefer broad supervision which leaves them free to try new ideas. The type of work that they do is the most important job feature for 63% of respondents (Table 31) while for 51% the main reason for changing their job is to secure more interesting work.

TABLE 31

Most important job features

	Percentages
Type of work	63%
Step to better job	21%
Security	13%
Pay	2%
Status of work	1%
	100%

The average length of service in previous jobs is three to four years for 25% of respondents, with 22% having a job tenure of ten years or more (Table 32).

TABLE 32

Average time in previous jobs.

Tenure in years	Percentage
Less than one year	3%
one - two years	14%
Three - four years	25%
Five - six years	16%
Seven - eight years	6%
Nine - ten years	8%
Ten or more years	22%
No previous job	6%
	100%

Table 33 indicates that in relation to their work, respondents consider that in creativity, decision making and overall success they are much the same as other people, although 30% of the sample sees themselves as less successful.

TABLE 33

Compared creativity, decision making and success
Percentages

	Creativity	Decision Making	Success
More than others	44%	40%	24%
Same as others	48%	60%	46%
Less than others	8%	-	30%
	100%	100%	100%

Financial control

A pattern of saving and investment is reported by this sample of female managers. Fortynine percent (49%) consider that in their life style with 75% owning their own homes that they have the things they need and are also able to save and invest (Table 34). The majority of women in this sample have provided a home for themselves, since only 32% of the total sample is married and thus could be considered to jointly own a home with their husband.

TABLE 34

Financial situation

	Percentages
Difficult to meet commitments	4%
Income just sufficient for commitments	16%
Little income left after commitments met	31%
Pay commitments, save and invest	49%
	100%

Industry and work position data

Table 35 indicates that the sample respondents are located in a variety of occupational categories.

TABLE 35

Occupational location of sample respondents.

	Numbers
Office administration	22
Hospital matron	16
Retail trade	15
Government department	13
Public utility	10
Publishing	10
Hotel management	9
Heavy manufacturing	4
Light manufacturing	4
Insurance, finance	4
Advertising	4
Communication	4
Food processing	3
Broadcasting	3
Data processing	3
Real estate	3
Construction	2
Scientific research	1
	130

The major managerial functional groupings of sample respondents, is listed in Table 36, with twenty five respondents working as managers having finance - accounting responsibility, twenty three as personnel managers and twenty two working as general administrators in office management.

TABLE 36

Managerial Function	Numbers
Finance and accounting	25
Personnel	23
General office administration	22
Marketing and sales	18
Hospital matron	16
Production	13
Company director	6
Research	2
Advertising	4
	130

Table 37 shows that 57% of the sample had been with their present company nine years or less. Sixty percent (60%) had worked between four and nine years in their present position, while 39% had been between one and four years in their present position after working for the same length of time in the immediate lower level. Twenty seven percent had been from one to four years working in their function area, with 24% having worked from nine to twelve years in the same area.

TABLE 37

Comparison of respondents' working years in each area.

	Percentages Number years at each level.					
	Less 1	1-4	5-9	10-12	13-16	17+
Years with present company	5%	29%	28%	14%	7%	17%
Years at present level in any company	11%	39%	27%	12%	5%	6%
Years at immediate lower level	9%	39%	24%	14%	6%	8%
Years in function area	4%	27%	21%	24%	5%	6%
Years in present position	16%	32%	28%	10%	6%	8%

Of the sample, only five percent of respondents were themselves top managers, with 24% reporting to the top manager and 21% having one level between themselves and top management, as indicated in Table 38.

TABLE 38

Levels from respondents management position to the top manager.

Number of levels	Percentage
Report to top	24%
One level	21%
Two levels	15%
Three levels	13%
Four levels	16%
Five levels	6%
Top manager	5%
	100%

The category of staff managed by respondents is shown in Table 39. Staff workers are supervised by 42% of the sample, and line workers by 20% of respondents

TABLE 39

Category of staff managed.
Percentages

General - one level office staff	14%
Line workers	20%
Staff workers	42%
Line or staff supervisors	11%
Manager of supervisors	8%
Manager of managers	5%
	100%

Sixty seven per cent (67%) of the sample has from one to six persons reporting directly to them, with twelve percent (12%) being directly responsible for thirteen or more of a staff (Table 40).

TABLE 40

Number of persons directly supervised by respondents.

Percentages.

One - three	39%
Four - six	28%
Seven - nine	9%
Ten - twelve	12%
Thirteen or more	12%
	100%

The hospital matrons and administrators within government departments had larger work forces below them and more staff reporting to them than did the majority of respondents. Table 41 shows the total number of workers in the organisation below the respondents management level.

TABLE 41

Total workers below respondents.

Number of workers	Percentage of respondents
Less than nine	57%
Ten - forty nine	26%
Fifty - ninety nine	8%
One hundred - four hundred and ninety nine	4%
Five hundred or more	5%
	100%

Table 42 presents a breakdown of workers supervised according to the gender of the staff. Twentyseven percent (27%) managed women only, 26% a staff of some men but mostly women,

and 20% a work staff composed of men and women in approximately equal numbers. Men only were managed by 16% of the sample and 11% managed a staff of some women but predominantly men.

TABLE 42

Sex of staff managed

	Percentages
Women only	27%
Mostly women - some men	26%
50% women-50% men	20%
Men only	16%
Mostly men - some women	11%
	100%

Table 43 shows that half of the sample were holding their first management position by the time they were thirty years of age.

TABLE 43

Respondents age at first management position

Age group in years	Percentage respondents
20 - 25	26%
26 - 30	24%
31 - 35	26%
36 - 40	13%
41 - 45	8%
46 and over	3%
	100%

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Factor analysis was used to identify any underlying dimensions in the item responses. The factor analysis of the biographic responses yeilded twenty factors on the first analysis. Since the first ten factors accounted for fifty per cent of the variance, it was decided to consider these factors in relation to all items. This second analysis produced five factors which appeared to represent broad behaviour patterns associated with the areas hypothesized as relevant in managerial identification.

These factors are labelled self-confidence, social conformity, socio-economic status, competence drive and financial control according to the theme of item content related to each factor. Those factors which relate to early influences are self-confidence and social conformity. The socio-economic factors relate not to the family of birth, but to the status of the husband, to whom the social standing of a family is usually attributed. Competence drive and work choice are associated with early adulthood.

The major items loading on the self-confidence factor are parental education, respondents' education, family association with business life and the respondents' expressed confidence in themselves, and in their ability as a manager. The relevant questionnaire item numbers and the response range for each item is listed below.

Factor 1 SELF CONFIDENCE

22	Education mother	High school only	Degree
23	Education father	High school only	Degree
9	Own education	High school only	Degree
14	Family association with business	None	Considerable
44	Expressed self-confidence	None	Very
46	Expressed self-confidence as manager	Upper 5%	Lower 50%

Since educational background relates negatively to self-confidence, this factor is viewed as a breaking away from the home and social background. This would be in keeping with the middle class value that young people expect to gain economic and

social success through their own efforts, rather than deriving status from their parents. The emphasis which middle class parents place on independence training rests on the assumption that the environment can be controlled and mastered. This would encourage an internal control through developing the idea of self-motivation toward social mobility by rising above circumstances. Many of the fathers are self-employed, a way of working which if successful, certainly models mastery of the environment. Since the daughters in the main perceived their fathers as successful, it is likely that such mastery was internalized from observation of their father's work style.

Those items which formed a grouping relating to activities of young adulthood important in determining social attitudes as working adults, are presented as forming the social conformity factor.

Factor 2 SOCIAL CONFORMITY

13 Leader young peoples group	Yes	No
20 Included in parents leisure activities	Often	Never
27 Parents support of career choice	Helpful	Opposed
81 Restrictive physical handicap	Yes	No

The social conformity factor has as related items school activities as a class leader or prefect and out of school leadership in young peoples church groups, providing an independence - leadership dimension. Other items loading on this factor relate to closer association with parents through their support of career choice and inclusion with them in social activities. The high loading of a restrictive physical handicap is considered to relate to the idea that such a person would be more likely to spend more time with and be more dependent on parents. This factor is viewed as an affiliative people oriented factor, maintaining a social norm of family cohesiveness, respectability and early grooming for community involvement and responsibility. It is allied with the acceptance of socially approved behaviour, that is, approved by adults, of conforming to their social conventions thus reinforcing people orientation and social orientation through adult approval.

This does not appear a logical factor in relation to those women who break the social norms and choose such non-traditional careers as management. But it must be remembered that the majority of women in this sample are administrators in occupations with a predominantly female work force. That is, they have not been innovative in career choice but rather have risen to senior positions in feminine occupations, and thus have conformed more to the social expectations for women rather than following a non-conformist pattern.

It is noted that children who score highly on social dependency tend to be less task oriented than the low scorers. The majority of the women in this sample do score relationships oriented on the leadership style test. But there is a grouping of women managers who score task oriented instead and who work in non-traditional occupations. It is suggested that these women as girls may well not have followed the socially accepted norms and may not have been class leaders, or church leaders or remained socially close to parents and adults. It is not suggested that they may have chose other activities to form an unusual youthful pattern, but rather they may have preferred not to identify closely with the system. It is noted that women managers preferred solitary recreation rather than social activities, which hardly suggests that social dependency is a prime motivating factor in selection of recreational activities. When this grouping of women is abstracted from the main sample and considered as a separate entity in a later chapter, consideration will be given to any differences which may occur in this area of social conformity and social dependency.

Those items which load on the competence factor further expand the idea of the development of locus of control as an important criterion in life style choice.

Factor 3 COMPETENCE

37 Taken advantage of opportunities	Always	Failed
43 Comparative task competence	Better	Not so good
52 Responsibility desired	Plenty	Little

The items which load on this factor relate to advantages taken of opportunities for advancement, perceiving oneself as more competent than others in the work situation and accepting of responsibility in the work situation. The perception of oneself as mastering the environment and in control of the situation are important elements in managerial positions for if the environment controls the manager, then the manager is certainly not managing the situation and cannot be functioning effectively.

Mastery of the environment starts young and each person has to become competent to participate in the processes of living. To internalize a sense of competence, positive reinforcement must occur from a young age and through school life, so that satisfaction is received from exploring many situational facets, discovering those aspects which can be controlled and those which defy mastery. People who consider that they have taken advantage of the opportunities, have undoubtedly manipulated their environment to further their own goals. This may be seen as an motive to achieve, especially in the work situation, for task competence in terms of years at different levels emerges as a separate dimension.

Socio-economic status as a factor is represented by loadings from the following items.

Factor 4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

2	Marital status	Yes	No
3	Children	None	Six
4	Age when married	19	30+
28	Husband's occupation	Unskilled	Professional
29	Education husband	High School only	Degree
45	Involvement outside work	Family	V Community

Socio-economic status as a factor is related to husband's educational and occupational standing if the respondent is married. The negative loadings for marital status and children suggest that for single women their own standing defines status, but when married the social convention of attributing status to the husband's occupation occurs. Age when married also loads on this factor,

highlighting that this is a critical variable for women in management, many of who do not marry or enter management positions until later in life when returning to the business world after the child rearing years.

Involvement outside of work, either in family, self-development or community commitments, also loads onto socio-economic status. This is not surprising for it is traditional for business men to be involved in such service organisation as Rotary, Lions, and Chamber of Commerce, and there are similar service type organisations especially for women of management status who form the membership of Zonta International, Business and Professional Women and Soropomist Clubs. It is considered that membership in such groups provides a vital support to the woman working in management. As a single career oriented woman (remember that only thirtyone percent of sample was married) her failure to fulfill the role expectations of society as a wife and mother act negatively against her. But in such group membership she can confirm herself and her status, both as a woman and as a manager, by comparison and evaluation of her own life style, her own success and failures, with that of other women working in similar situations.

Those major items loading on the factor financial control are as follows -

Factor 5 FINANCIAL CONTROL

57 Income saved or invested settlement	Low 10%	High 40%
58 Financial commitments	Difficult	Income left
59 Desirable reserve savings	Less than $100	High than $5000
60 Own savings kept	Yes	No
62 Own investments	Yes	No
63 Home ownership	Yes	No

Financial control contains loading from two categories of items. These are desirability judgmental items, that a certain percentage of saved income and reserve savings is desirable, a judgment of income in relation to commitments, and items relating to actual savings maintained, investments made and home ownership.

The judgmental items load negatively, so that important aspect of this factor is not that one should think about saving and investing, but that the theory should be practised, for the positive loadings come from actually doing so. It is socially desirable and expected that people should save, keep something by for emergencies as well as making these savings grow by investment. To do this is exhibiting financial control, particularly important since profitability is the ultimate criterion in determing the successful business venture and some understanding of the financial aspects of the organisation forms an integral part of the management process. The high positive loading in relation to savings held and the making of investments, indicate that a degree of financial acumen is necessary to the woman aspiring to a management career, and particularly so in relation to holding senior positions as a manager.

A factor analysis of the organisational characteristics produced seven factors, with the first three accounting for 52% of the variance producing the meaningful groupings of task competence, managerial status and industry choice.

The items loading on to the factor of task competence, given below, indicate that this is the only organisational factor containing loadings from biographic data.

Factor 6 TASK COMPETENCE

70 years at function level	- 1	17 +
72 years in function area	- 1	17 +
73 years in present position	- 1	17 +
26 Judgment fathers as successful	Very	Unsuccessful
15 Age learnt to drive car	-15	21 +

The task competence factor items relate to the time which has been spent in various stages of career development. The less the time in function area and function level before entering the present position indicates a competent mastery of the career path and organisation structure, especially if the present position is of high status by being top level management, or close to the top. The items from life history information relating to task competence are respondents judgment of father as successful, and the age at which they learnt to drive a car. Since women

in management are working within a stereotypically male framework, it is perhaps not surprising that a male model has provided an impetus for success in the work situation, especially when it is considered that for the women in this sample, there were few career mothers. The father thus provided the parental model of career commitment, whereas the mother's role was more reinforcing of traditional societal values.

Learning to drive a car is a critical step in mastery of the environment in a society where it has become the norm to drive from place to place for social contact, recreation and work. It is a critical step also in the development of independence and antonomy away from parental restrictions and surveillance, and may well also be a decisive first step for females in establishing freedom from male control. For girls this possibly represents the first break through from the popularly held teenage convention that the boys own and drive the cars and the girls ride in them. Thus the girl who has, at a relatively early age, established her own ability and independence, becomes the woman who can establish her own identity without relying on male support, that is, in terms of defining herself as a person in a work situation, rather than through the wife and mother role only. It is suggested that task competence relates not only to the current job, but is an internalized dimension of mastery, of confidence in oneself as having a competent ability to cope effectively with any situation.

Factor seven, managerial status, refers more particularly to the size of the organisation, the relevant items being as follows -

Factor 7 MANAGERIAL STATUS

69 Type staff supervised	line workers	Managers
74 Number supervised	10	13 +
75 Number workers below	10	500 +

The managerial status factor is associated with organisation structural characteristics, having as loading items the type of staff supervised - line, staff, or other managers, the number of staff reporting directly to the manager and a hierachical status

component of the organisational size in relation to the number of workers below the manager in the whole organisation.

These three areas are instrumental in placing the manager within the organisational environment and creating managerial status. They relate to a structural factor rather than a personal construct.

The eighth factor of work choice, relates to the type of industries in which the sample respondents are located, the loadings on this factor being represented by the following items.

Factor 8 WORK CHOICE

Item No.		
80	Work choice	Traditional
81	Work choice	Innovative
76	Sex supervised	Men or Women

This factor of work choice relates to industry characteristics, the separate items dividing the industries in which the managerial respondents are located into a traditional and innovative dichotomy. Item 80 covers the more traditional areas such as hospital administration whereas item 81 contains the more unusual occupations, hotel management, broadcasting and publishing, with fewer respondents in each area. The remaining item loading on this factor relates to the sex of staff supervised, men or women alone, or in varying combinations of both.

Since the eighty five variables of the combined biographic and organisation data exceeded the capacity of the computer input (sixty six input variables limit), it was necessary to reduce the input to enable investigation of the nine factors with the total item selection to check if any biographic dimensions accounted for variance in organisation factors. To accomplish this, those items which did not load at an acceptable level (0.4) on any factor were discarded, leaving sixty four variables for analysis. The varimax loadings for the principal components are shown in Table 44 with their eigenvalues and communalities. A profile of those characteristics shared by forty percent or more of the sample respondents is presented in Table 45.

TABLE 44

Significant varimax loadings of the principal components from the final 64 items of the basic data matrix.

Item Nos	Factors 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Communality
2		-.57							.60
3		-.71							.70
4		.83							.74
7	.48								.53
9			-.44		.41				.63
13				.70					.56
15				.29	.28	.39			.56
17			-.48				,33		.40
20				.44					.58
22			-.50						.40
23			-.53						.52
26						.41			.43
27				.50					.56
28		.72							.72
29		.71							.65
31				.68					.30
37					.48				.48
43					.64				.49
44			.54		.27				.50
45		.58							.49
46			.46						.21

TABLE 44 Cont'd

Significant varimax loadings of the principal components from the final 64 items of the basic data matrix.

Item Nos	Factors 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Communality
52					.73				.46
57	-.64								.45
58	-.63						.42		.57
59	-.54								.39
60	.62								.55
61									
62	.64								.55
64				.42	.33				.43
69							.63		.59
70						.71			.57
72						.69			.59
73						.82			.66
74							.73		.64
75							.79		.59
76							.39	-.45	.39
80								.70	.67
81								.54	.68
82									.63
83									.79
84									.79
85									.86
Eigenvalues	5.86	4.52	3.61	3.29	2.99	2.77	2.57	2.50	
% Trace	8.9	6.8	5.5	5.0	4.5	4.2	3.9	3.8	46.2

TABLE 45

Profile of characteristics shared by 40% or more of Female Managerial Respondents

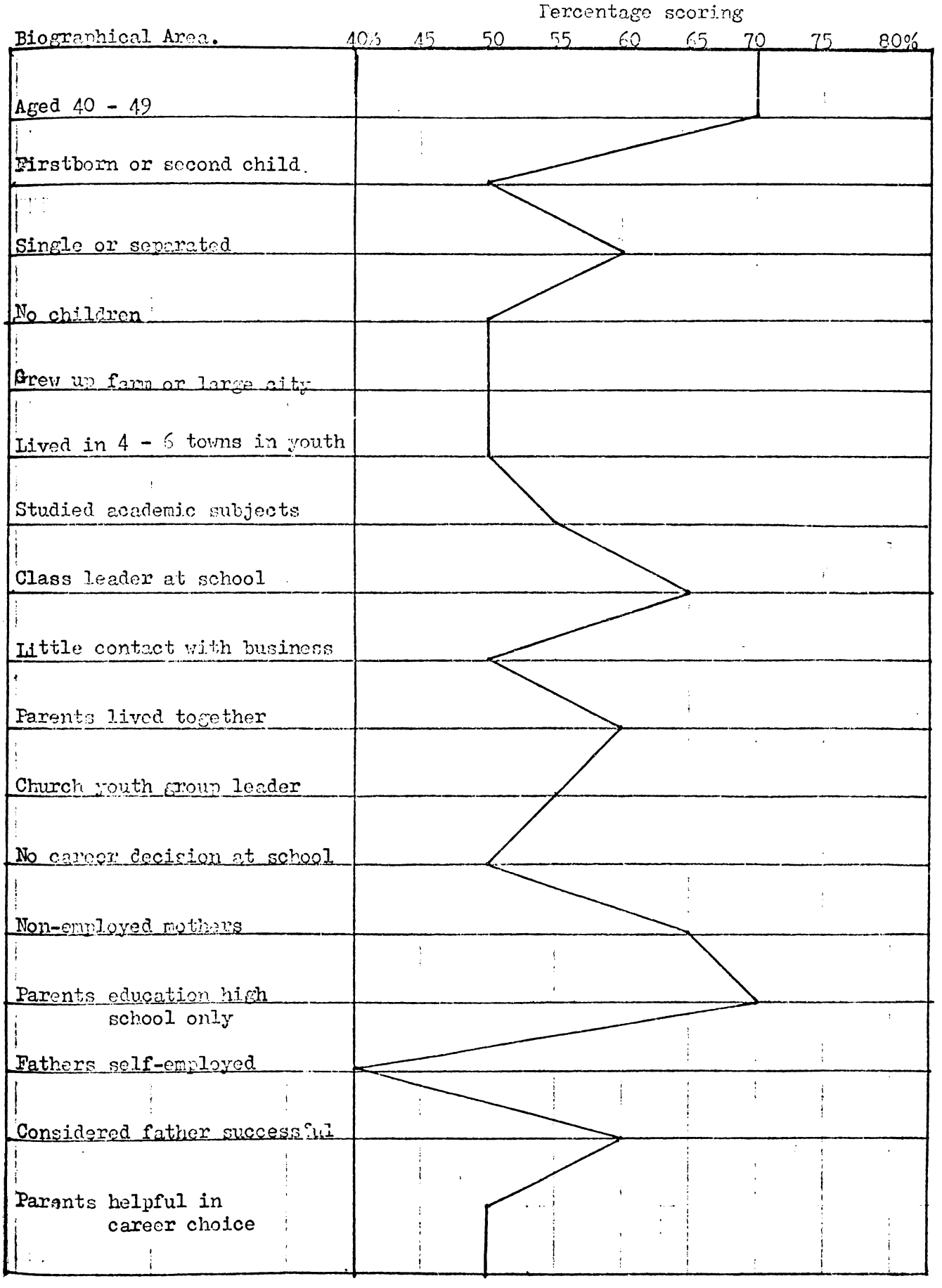
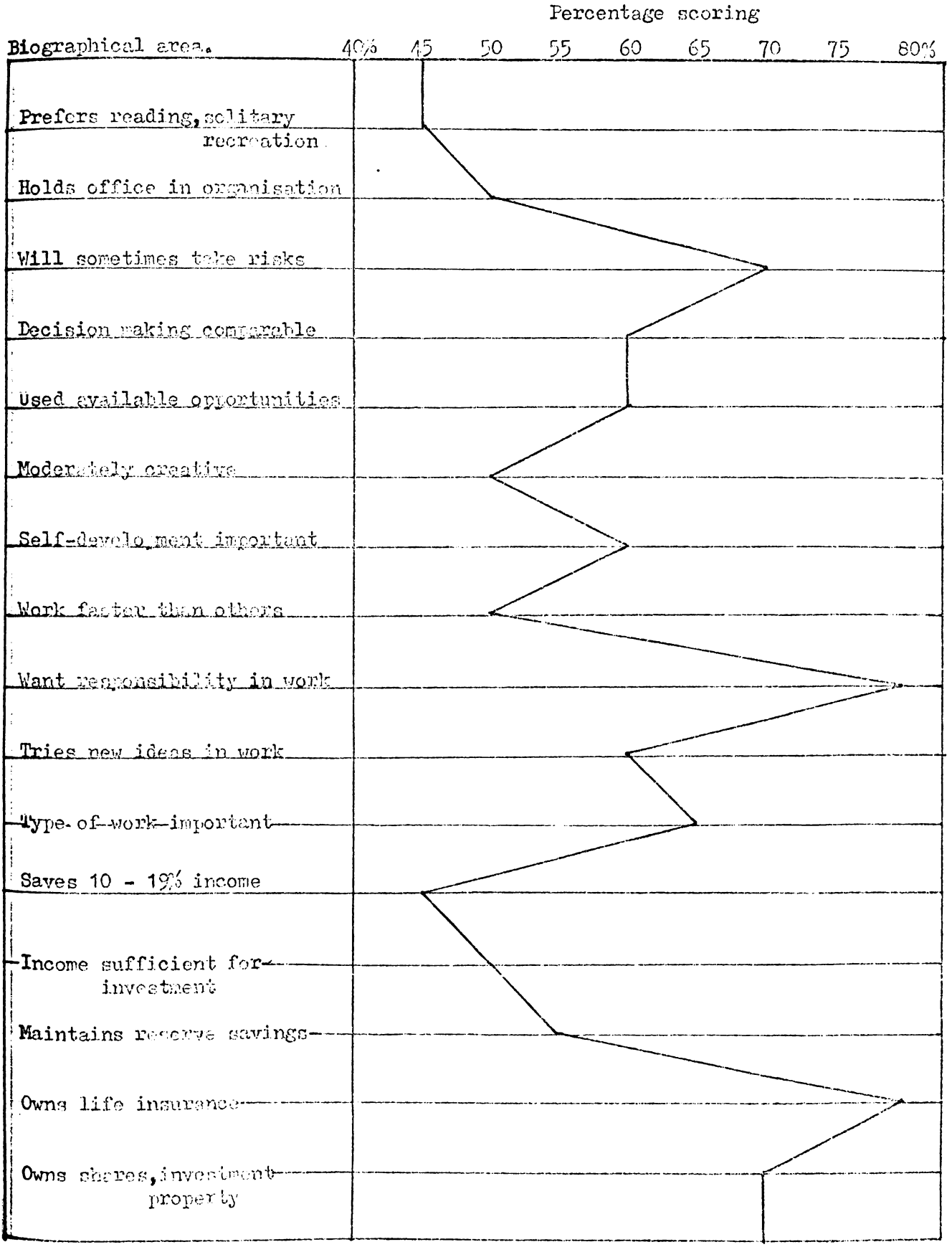


TABLE 45 cont'd

Profile of characteristics shared by 40% or more of

Female Managerial Respondents



CONCLUSION.

From the factor descriptions and reference to Table 45 can be constructed the biographic profile of women in management which has emerged in this study. Some areas suggested by previous researchers for male managerial patterns also emerge as pertaining to women. The most important of these are leadership in high school (Mahoney, Jerdee & Nash 1964); independence (Super 1960); drive and financial responsibility (Baehr and Williams 1967) and financial control (Bull 1975).

The family background of respondents had provided little contact with business so this was not a decisive factor in career choice. What does emerge as important is that the family background should provide impetus for developing a sense of self-confidence and environmental mastery. Biographic predictors in this area are the age of learning to drive a car, of having lived in either a large city or have come from a farming background. All of these can encourage independence and autonomy, with both farms and large cities demanding a self sufficiency of interests and mobility to master the environment. Farming backgrounds especially can breed a very strong sense of having to get out and away for social and academic achievement, while at the same time providing a model of a way of life that is independent self-controlling and self-fulfilling. Larger cities present the challenge of complex and extensive stimuli all competing for attention and which simply must be controlled if the individual is to establish a self-identity. The small town environment may be more comfortable, and less challenging, maintaining the status quo and failing to provide the stimulation needed to encourage girls to look beyond the traditional options in career choice.

The actual number of items loading on to the factors which related to early life and which could reliably be said to be important indicators of managerial career potential was disappointly small. However, this is supported by other findings. Wolfson (1976) in study of career development of women, found that none of the variables pertaining to subjects' home environment as students was statistically significant, although there were quantifiable differences among women who pursued different vocational patterns.

But these differences did not become apparent until some time after a woman had entered university, when a vocational major choice provided the best predictor.

Harmon (1970) also points to the dearth of career predictors for female college freshman and concluded that motivation for a career seems to arise at some point in time beyond the entrance to college. Johnson and Dunnette (1968) had suggested that the pattern of managerial effectiveness may appear before, during or after university and persists over time. It is suggested that during and after university identification of managerial talent is really too late and that there must be some factor which can provide an indicator that a business career would be a rewarding choice so that the girl who makes this decision would select a business or commerce degree to provide the necessary educational background. From the evidence of this study it would appear that the critical factor is development of an internalized locus of control, in that the woman who will succeed in management, develops from the girl who perceives herself as controlling, and mastering her adolescent environment.

Locus of control refers to whether a persons behaviours and throught patterns are perceived by the individual as causally linked to consequences (control), or not causally linked to consequences (chance). These two conditions specify that the locus of control lies either within (internal) or outside (external) the power of the individual. The fact that the external controller perceives that powerful others or "the system" determine how well she can do, appears to limit ability to consider innovative occupations. This is particularly relevant during school years. The importance of the social system within the school which tends to reward achievement and independence orientation in boys but not in girls, also is a decisive influence for the adolescent girl, vulnerable as she is to the influence of her peer sex group, whose occupational goals may well be more traditional than her own. Persons on the internal end of the scale perceive that their own abilities or skills help to determine the outcome of their efforts. Burlin (1976) maintains that these people are able to free themselves from environmental restraints because of a belief in their ability

to accomplish a rewarding goal, and found that internal controllers in a sample of fifteen year old girls aspired to more innovative occupations than did external controllers. Tangri (1972) had suggested that women who chose occupations dominated by men were more autonomous, individualistic and motivated more by internally imposed demands than women who chose traditional occupations.

The profile of women as managers following the managerial pattern that Johnson and Dunnette (1968) suggest of risk taking, action oriented behaviour and independence of thought, is displayed by the respondents in this sample, especially by those women who are working in innovative occupations and those criteria which are considered to be the characteristics of effective male managers and which are displayed also by those female managers must surely be regarded as qualities for overall managerial effectiveness, irrespective of the gender of the manager. The internal locus of control developed in youth remains as an important variable in the management situation. For women in management biographic information reveals a life style of competence, but it also reveals a lack of confidence in themselves as managers. In creativity, decision making and life success, the overwhelming majority view themselves as the same as others, yet they are all working in an area to which only point three percent of the female working population gains access. And as managers, only a small percentage classed themselves as being in the highest category of managerial ability. No doubt early identification of ability from the biographic predictors, and education in a business area, would develop for these women the confidence in themselves which their ability warrants.

CHAPTER 4

INVESTIGATION OF MANAGEMENT STYLE

Behaviours involved in Leadership

Fleishman and Peters (1962) consider that an essential element of leadership is the concept of interpersonal influence and that the essence of leadership is influencing the behaviour of others toward some goal. The success of the leadership lies in the extent that this interpersonal influence accomplishes the desired goals and the types of leadership acts attempted are a function of the interpersonal values held by the leader. Bowers and Seashore (1966) view leadership as behaviour by one member of a group toward another member or members which advances some joint aim. This behaviour cannot be measured by a single concept, but is a large aggregation of separate behaviours which may be grouped or classified in a variety of ways. Research shows that the notion of the types of interpersonal values held by the leader and the behaviours used by the leader to promote the desired goals do in fact combine to form a leadership style. Furthermore these styles of leadership do seem to be associated with a particular style of organisational climate, and there is a relationship between what the organisations leader does, and the effectiveness of the organisation (Korman 1971). Investigation of leadership behaviour of the Ohio State University program of post-war research 1946-1956 (Fleishman 1953; Stogdill & Coons 1957) isolated the concepts of "consideration" and "initiating structure" as basic dimensions, which Halpin & Winer (1957) found to account for 83% of the differences observed in leadership behaviour.

Fleishman and Peters (1962) defined these concepts in the following manner:- Consideration reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterised by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas and consideration of their feelings, providing an atmosphere of friendship and warmth. Initiating structure reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his role and his subordinates towards goal attainments. Concurrent with the Ohio State studies was a similar program at the University of Michigan

Four type models have been developed by Carron (1964) based on Leader Opinion Questionnaire scores, and by Halpin (1966) from Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire Scores, both basing the four styles on initiating and consideration dimensions. Likert (1967) outlined four systems relating to the style used by the leader, as did Davis and Valper (1968).

The model developed by Reddin (1974) uses task orientation and relationships orientation as a base, and develops four basic styles from the four possible combinations of above or below average scoring on these dimension. This model also includes an effectiveness dimension to extend the four styles to eight, which allowed more flexibility in the investigation of managerial style of female managers.

Sex differences and implications for Leadership style

Skill in human relations is a fundamental requisite for all managers. Women are believed more likely to possess perception and empathy, with emotional sensitivity to others, and since labour relations is an integral part of all leadership situations, women are often considered to be best suited for personnel management. But the research summary of Maccoby (1974) shows very little difference between the sexes in social relations skills. The male potential for empathic and sympathetic emotional reactions and the male potential for helpful behaviour towards others seems to have been seriously underrated. Women are not innately interpersonally more aware than men, but have been socialised to be so.

It could be argued that this socialization gives women a head start in implementing the leadership techniques advocated by the human relations schools of thought (Argyris, 1964; McGregor 1960; Likert 1967) as being most productive both in terms of output and personal satisfaction. In recent years this has resulted in a shift of emphasis from dominant aggressive leadership, to the team persuasive and humanistic leadership style, which should be able to use to the full women's potential for insightful interpersonal relationships.

Survey Research Centre. Approaching the problems of leadership style by locating clusters of characteristics which correlated amongst themselves and with effectiveness, two concepts were developed called "employee orientation" and "production orientation". (Katz, Maccoby & Morse 1950; Katz & Kahn 1966). Employee orientation is described as behaviour which indicates that the leader feels that the human relations aspects of the job are important, taking an interest in employees' individuality and personal needs. Production orientation stresses production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees considered as a means of getting the job done. These two dimensions of what might be broadly conceptualised as "work" and "people" seem fundamental to most of the leadership behaviour models outlined by researchers. Cartwright & Zander (1960) proposed "group maintenance functions" and "goal achievement functions", while McGregor (1960) identified "Theory X"and "Theory Y" as contributory factors.

Mann & Hoffman (1960) considered leadership to require a blend of three skills; human relations, with emphasis on interpersonal relations and motivation; technical skills necessary for the performance of specific tasks; and administrative skills to understand and act according to the goals and needs of the group.

Likert (1961) described five conditions which contributed to effective leadership behaviour. These include the principle of supportive relationships, where each member of the organisation views his working experience as giving a sense of personal worth and importance; group methods of supervision using group member interaction and loyalty; the setting of high performance goals; the use of technical skills and knowledge; and finally, the co-ordinating, scheduling and planning of tasks in accord with the values of the group.

Clearly, the two dimensions relating to task and relationship, consideration and initiating structure are present in each model and provide a base for investigating leadership behaviours and style. But these concepts are not mutually exclusive and may be combined in a variety of ways, so that a leadership style model using task and relationship such that the leader must be one or the other is too restrictive. It fails to provide for situational demands and outcome effectiveness.

For "democratic" "network" or group centred styles of management of the kind that have developed rapidly in recent years, women's tendency to an informal unbureacratic style of working might seem to fit very well (Killian 1971). But it does seem likely that in future there will be a greater overlap between the work abilities and interests of highly qualified men and women. This can happen not only through women developing skills and attitudes traditionally found among men, but also through men taking up those once characteristic of women. For example, by their developing the informal loose style of working appropriate to "democratic" or "network" management or taking a more relaxed attitude to work and moving toward a more equal balance between work, family and leisure activities.

Women do seem to have a more general type of work ambition, rather than an upward vertic al drive towards the peak of their profession. From a study of the statistics of women in employment, and the qualifications of the women now in management, it would appear that many more of them should be holding positions at middle management and corresponding professional levels than are in fact doing so. (Schlack 1974, Fogarty et al 1971).

Is this because of the prejudicial belief that women are characteristically unsuited because of emotional factors to work effectively in top administrative positions? Since the majority of women are working at first or supervisory level, there appears some barrier against advancement. Does this come from the women themselves, from outside pressures and prejudice, or perhaps a lack of aggressive push for the top?

In the area of aggression sex differences are clear and consistent with the widely held belief that males are more aggressive than females, and this is true from about two years of age. Bandura (1965) has suggested that the two sexes may be equivalent in their underlying potential for aggressive behaviour, but that girls inhibit the outward displays of aggression because they are more likely to be punished for it. Thus if the sanctions imposed on girls aggression were removed, girls would likely be as aggressive as boys.

Leadership or dominance appears to be achieved primarily by aggression in boys. But this weakens with maturity and there appears to be no intrinsic reason why the aggressive sex should be the dominant one in adult relationships. Aggression seems to be the only sex difference which might be related to management skills. But is aggression useful or necessary in management today? If aggression is defined as an authoritarian drive to be first, then this does not seem useful, and a leader of this type would be likely to provoke personnel problems. And it is in this type of aggression that there are clear male - female differences. There is no evidence of sex differences in achievement motivation, risk taking or task persistence, so the aggressive leader viewed in terms of the persons willingness to tackle challenging assignments, could be either male or female.

Trends in management suggest that aggression and dominance may not be the most productive style and because of this it is suggested that women may be particularly effective in their use of participative and team management styles, although Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) reports that this is pure speculation, and that research in this area could and should be done. The argument regarding the suitability or unsuitability of women in management positions centres around their presumed emotionality and the belief that this makes their basic orientation towards relationships and people, but it is not known whether this is indeed a valid argument in the management situation. There is no evidence offered that even if all female managers are people oriented, that this does always carry over into the work situation, but if this is indeed so, then both the sex of the manager, as well as the sex of staff supervised will influence the managerial style used, and the situational demands of the work position may not necessarily dictate an appropriate managerial style irrespective of the sex of the manager.

If it is shown that women in all managerial positions are always people oriented and not task oriented, then what will be the implications for women? Will they be still further confined to personnel functions and kept away from the production, profit making top administration functions because they will have been proven better at the housekeeping type of duties? Or will such

a finding place them securely in the vanguard of the democratic-participative style management advocated as most suitable for the better educated workforce of today, gaining acceptance of the idea that women will provide the best and most successful managers for the future?

Some answers to these questions will be sought through investigation of the following hypotheses -

1. It is hypothesized that women managers in different occupations will exhibit different managerial styles.
2. It is hypothesized that managerial style used will differ according to whether the manager has responsibility to -

    (a) manage females only,

    (b) manages males only,

    or (c) manages a mixed staff of both males and females.

These hypotheses are investigated by using the Managerial Position Analysis Test (Reddin 1974) which provides an analysis of the managerial style used by the respondent in their current work situation, giving a measure of work behaviour rather than of leadership belief.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGEMENT STYLES AS USED IN THE MANAGEMENT POSITION ANALYSIS TEST

In this behaviour model, management style is defined as a behavioural predisposition across different situations. It is a characteristic mode of response across a variety of work situations. Style does not deal so much with the content of behaviour such as "correcting errors" but the manner in which the behaviour is expressed such as "correcting errors with emphasis on avoidance in the future rather than punishment for the past".

The area of situation over which style is seen to be operative is not only subordinates. It includes superior, co-workers, subordinates, technology and climate. Thus the term management style refers to a style a manager uses in response to many elements in his situation, not just his subordinates.

The Four Basic Styles

The behaviour model is built on two types of behaviour called task orientation and relationships orientation which have been found to account for most variation in leadership style. They are defined as:

Task Orientation (TO) The extent to which a manager directs his own and his subordinates' efforts; characterised by initiating, organising, and directing.

Relationships Orientation (RO) The extent to which a manager has personal job relationships; characterised by listening, trusting, and encouraging.

They are intended to represent two completely different and independent kinds of behaviour. A manager who is using one kind of behaviour may or may not be using the other. At any one time, a manager's behaviour may consist of any combination or degree of these two. These two independent orientations are combined to form four basic styles as shown in Figure 1. The

labels "integrated", "dedicated", "related", and "separated" were chosen to avoid the suggestion that some styles are much better than others. The integrated style, with high task orientation and high relationships orientation is so named as it describes managerial behaviour which combines task orientation and relationships orientation. The dedicated style describes managerial behaviour with high task orientation but low relationships orientation; that is, behaviour which is dedicated to the job. The related style having high relationships orientation alone is related to subordinates. The separated style is a basic style with both low task orientation and low relationships orientation. This style, then, is separated from both task orientation and relationships orientation. Table 46 presents a brief description of each of the eight styles as they are, and as they are generally perceived by others.

TABLE 46

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE EIGHT MANAGERIAL STYLES

Executive

A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as a good motivator who sets high standards, who treats everyone somewhat differently and who prefers team management.

Compromiser

A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as being a poor decision maker and as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much. Seen as minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long term production.

Benevolent Autocrat

A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as knowing what he wants, and knowing how to get it without creating resentment.

Autocrat

A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as having no confidence in others, as unpleasant and as being interested only in the immediate job.

Developer

A manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

Missionary

A manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as being primarily interested in harmony.

Bureaucrat

A manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, and as wanting to maintain and control the situation by their use. Often seen as conscientious.

Deserter

A manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as uninvolved and passive.

The Eight Managerial Styles

It is assumed that each of the four basic styles may be used in situations appropriate to them or in situations inappropriate to them. If appropriate to them effectiveness will result, if inappropriate to them it will not. This notion introduces the dimension of managerial effectiveness into the model. Managerial effectiveness is defined as:

> The extent to which behaviour is appropriate to the demands of the situation.

The four basic styles deal with behaviour only. By the addition of the effectiveness dimension the four style model is transformed to an eight style model. This transformation is as depicted in Figure 1 which shows the eight "Managerial" styles. Each basic style has its more effective and less effective counterpart labelled as a + or - after the style name. The front of the diagram is the plane of less effectiveness and the back is the plane of more effectiveness. For instance the less effective separated behaviour is labelled separated - and the more - effective version is labelled separated +. For training and development work using this model evocative style labels have been used. The scientific labels and more popular equivalents are:

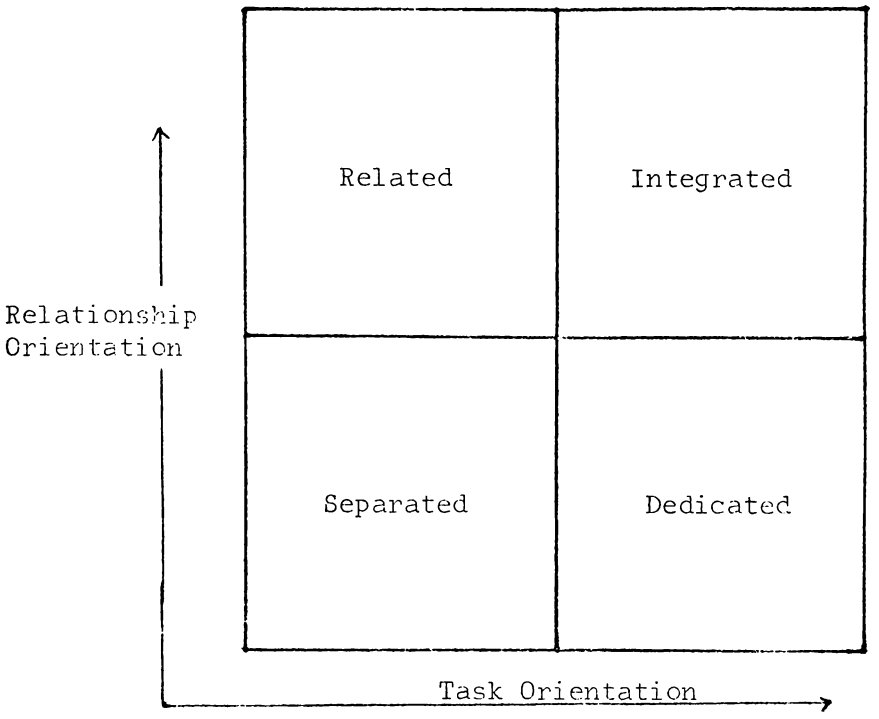
Separated-, Deserter; Separated+, Bureaucrat;
Related-, Missionary; Related+, Developer;
Dedicated-, Autocrat; Dedicated+, Benevolent Autocrat;
Integrated-, Compromiser; Integrated+, Executive.

The model does not posit an ideal style. It thus differentiates itself sharply from those well known models which propose such ideal styles as Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), 9.9 (Blake, 1964), and System 4 (Likert, 1967). Any one of the four basic styles of behaviour may lead to more or less effectiveness depending on the style's appropriateness to the situational demands. Thus any of the four basic styles has a more effective use and a less effective use.

For example, a related style when used in a situation where it is appropriate is called related +. The behaviour represented by the style need not change, only the effectiveness of its use. A related + style is seen as reflecting trust in people and as interest in their development as individuals. A related style when used in a situation where it is less appropriate is called related -. Again, the behaviour represented by the style need not change, only the effectiveness of its use. A related- style is seen as reflecting an interest in harmony. The descriptions of the effective and ineffective versions of the remaining three basic styles is included in the descriptions of each style provided in Table 46.

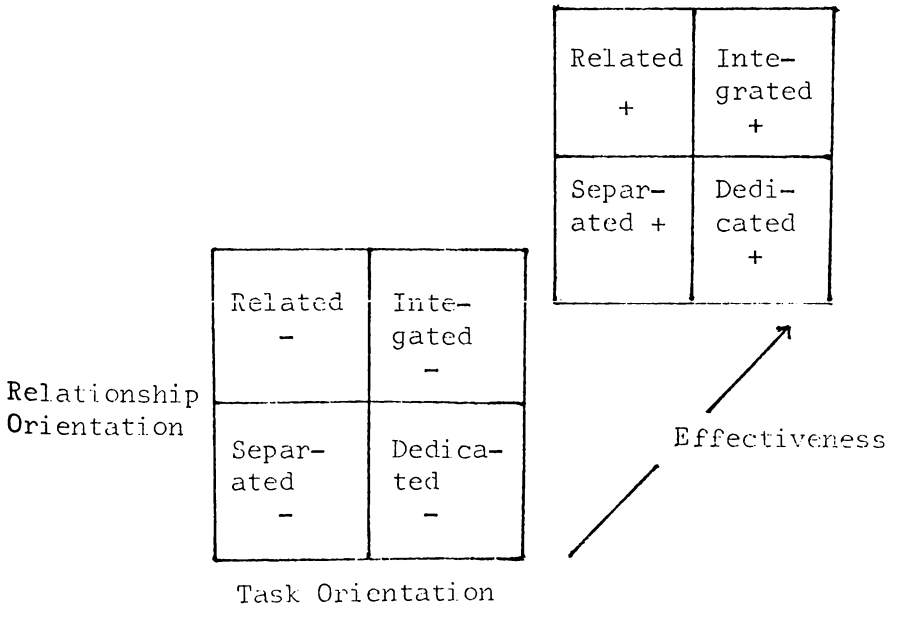
FIGURE 1

THE FOUR BASIC STYLES



As expanded to form

THE EIGHT MANAGERIAL STYLES



TEST CONSTRUCTION

The Management Position Analysis Test is designed to measure the demands any manager perceives on their particular managerial position and their behavioural response to these demands, and must be used with respondents who are responsible for the work of others. It is necessary for the executive to have a single specific position in mind when answering the test.

Statement matrix

All test statements are derived from a matrix composed of twenty elements related to eight styles. Each of twenty managerial position elements such as "creativity" are combined with statements related to each of the eight managerial styles such as "benevolent autocrat" to produce one hundred and sixty different statements.

The twenty elements are shown in Table 47. These twenty elements are grouped into three sets. The seven role set elements are: superior, co-workers, subordinates, staff advisors, union customers, and general public. These seven elements were chosen to include all the role set elements with which a manager might interact. The eight productivity set elements are: creativity, objectives, planning, change introduction, implementation, controls, evaluation, and productivity. These eight elements were chosen to represent the eight sequential steps from the development of an idea, creativity, to its eventual productive use productivity. The five interaction set elements are: communication, conflict, errors, meetings, and teamwork. These were chosen to represent five types of interaction.

TABLE 47

The Twenty Elements

Role set elements:	1.	Supervisor
	2.	Co-workers
	3.	Subordinates
	4.	Staff advisors
	5.	Union
	6.	Customers
	7.	General Public
Productivity Set elements:	8.	Creativity
	9.	Objectivies
	10.	Planning
	11.	Change introduction
	12.	Implementation
	13.	Controls
	14.	Evaluation
	15.	Productivity
Action set elements:	16.	Communication
	17.	Conflict
	18.	Errors
	19.	Meetings
	20.	Teamwork

Statement sets

The questionnaire consists of three hundred and twenty statements obtained by using each of the one hundred and sixty matrix statements twice. The test as developed by Reddin was worded so as to relate solely to the masculine case using he and his. It was considered replacing the masculine gender with a combined male - female, his - hers approach. This was cumbersome but more significantly, since it was considered important to remove any notion of sexual identification from the statements, a neutral version using "this manager" seemed more suitable. However, since this study was also to include women occupying such administrative positions as hospital matrons, it was considered more appropriate to use the term "this executive". Thus for the purposes of this study the Management Position Analysis Test was entitled "Executive Analysis."

Table 48 shows how the masculinity of each of the eight style statements of the element subordinate has been replaced by asexual phraseology. Similar alterations were made for each of the matrix statements. The questionnaire location of each of the listed statements is indicated within the concluding parenthesis.

TABLE 48

Eight style statements of the element "subordinate"

Comparison of masculine and asexual phraseology

Executive

He demonstrates that he expects high output from his subordinates yet recognizes and considers individual differences. This executive demonstrates that high output is expected from subordinates, yet recognizes and considers individual differences.(19c)

Compromiser

When dealing with subordinates he attempts to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other often suffers. When dealing with subordinates this executive attempts to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other suffers. (42d)

Benevolent Autocrat

He makes clear to subordinates what he expects of them. He shows that he values efficiency and productivity. This executive makes clear to subordinates what is expected of them, showing that efficiency and productivity are valued (73c).

Autocrat

He directs the work of his subordinates and discourages deviations from his plans. This executive directs the work of subordinates and discourages deviation from plans (6a).

Developer

His relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterized by mutual trust and respect. This executive's relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterized by mutual trust and respect. (69)

Missionary

He treats subordinates with great kindness and consideration. This executive treats subordinates with great kindness and consideration. (34b)

Bureaucrat

He thinks that things go best when subordinates understand and follow duties in their job description. (17a). This executive thinks that things go best when subordinates understand and follow the duties in their job prescription.

Deserter

He does not show too much interest in his subordinates. This executive does not show too much interest in subordinates. (36d)

The statement sets are arranged in sets of four. The first two of the eighty sets of four statements are presented below.

1.	This executive follows company policy and procedures when dealing with staff advisors.	This executive believes in the team approach to the extent of believing most problems are best solved that way.	This executive watches the implementation of plans by individuals and gives direct assistance and guidance where needed.	All inter-departmental differences in which this executive is involved are solved jointly.

2.	This executive feels it is not usually worth the effort to co-operate with staff advisors.	This executive believes that proper treatment of people is more important than productivity.	This executive watches implement-ation of plans closely, points out errors and criticizes where necessary.	This executive seems interested only in the task at some meetings and only in relationships at others.

Each set of four statements consists either of four different more effective styles, bureaucrat, developer, benevolent autocrat and executive, or four different less effective styles, deserter, missionary, autocrat and compromiser. Each odd numbered set contains four more effective styles, and each even numbered set contains four less effective styles. The style and element content of the statement sets given above, as as follows -

1.	Bureaucrat (Staff Advisors)	Developer (Teamwork)	Benevolent Autocrat (Implementation)	Executive (Co-workers)
2.	Deserter (Staff Advisors)	Missionary (Productivity)	Autocrat (Implementation)	Compromiser (Meetings)

The elements used in each set of four were assigned randomly over the first forty sets of statements, and again over the second set of forty statements. In answering the questionnaire, the key words of instructions to respondents were: "You are to select two statements in each set which best describe <u>what you actually do in the job which you now have</u>."

The emphasis is therefore on a specific situation. The executive is asked to select two out offour statements rather than one out of four as a correction for social desirability bias toward the executive and compromiser styles.

MANAGERIAL STYLE RESULTS FROM ONE HUNDRED AND THIRTY FEMALE MANAGERS IN NEW ZEALAND

The biographic information of the respondents is further extended by analysis of the managerial style used by the same sample of women managers.

A comparison of the mean scores in Table 49 shows that the predominant style used by the female managers of this sample is the High relationship - low task related style.

TABLE 49

Basic style mean scores of respondents

Style	Mean Score
Related	23.71
Integrated	21.87
Dedicated	19.02
Separated	10.53

These basic four styles are subdivided by including the appropriateness dimension into the eight styles presented in Table 50, which indicates the styles used by the sample ranked in descending order according to mean score and percentage use of predominant style. The high relationship - low task missionary style is used by the majority of female managers.

TABLE 50

Managerial style mean score and percentage use by sample

Style	Mean Score	Percentage using as predominant style
Missionary	28.26	44%
Executive	24.22	19%
Developer	22.75	17%
Compromiser	21.92	10%
Benevolent autocrat	20.32	6%
Autocrat	18.86	4%
Deserter	9.57	-
Bureaucrat	8.86	-
		100%

When looking at the results across managerial function, the same High relationship - low task missionary style predominates whether the managers' function is personnel, marketing and sales, production, finance and accounting or whether she works as a hospital matron, in retail industry, in general office adminstration or in manufacturing. There is thus no support for the hypothesis that women managers in different occupations will exhibit different managerial styles, and it seems that the missionary style emerges as of prime importance.

For each occupational grouping in the sample, the High relationship-low task missionary style was the most widely used, and appeared to be the managerial style of New Zealand women managers. But further examination of the data revealed that although for each functional category represented by the personnel, marketing and sales, general administration, finance and accounting and production groupings of respondents, the labour force supervised was either predominantly or wholly female, there were in each category some women who managed a predominantly or wholly male work force. This sub-sample of women managing men occurred in each occupational grouping in insufficient numbers to influence an occupational differentiation of style, but when abstracted and placed in a separate category it is found that a significant task shift in style occurs. The results according to sex supervised are presented in Table 51.

TABLE 51

Managerial style and sex of staff supervised

Sex supervised	Managerial style	Percentage
Women only	Missionary	27%
Some men-mostly women	Missionary	26%
50% women-50% men	Missionary	20%
Men only - Mostly men	Executive	27%
		100%

The style which has predominated across industry holds when supervising women, some men but mostly women, and for supervising a staff of half men and half women. For all these situations the high relationship-Low task missionary style is used. But the outcome changes when it comes to managing men only, or a work staff of some women but mostly men. Then the high task-high relationship Executive style is used in preference to the low task missionary style.

Since Female managers scored highest on the missionary style across industry and function, and produced the only variation in style according to the sex supervised, it is important to know if this is indeed a significant difference.

An F test for correlated data between the mean scores of the missionary and executive styles gave a Z score = 13.46. Since this computed Z is greater than 2.58, the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected at the 1% level of significance. This significant difference between the missionary and the executive style gives rise to the speculation that sex as a variable not situation has succeeded in changing the style use of female managers.

SEX AND MANAGEMENT

Analysis of sex as a variable influencing managerial style has not been encountered in previous literature reviews, Pinder and Pinto (1974) pointing out that it is one of the aspects neglected by researchers who have failed to relate specific managerial style to specific demographic variables. One reason suggested for the neglect and non-awareness that sex could be a relevant variable, is that management research has been conducted on male samples by male researchers who interpret their results according to a male frame of reference. That there may be style change according to whether males manage males, the usual situation most frequently reported in previous studies, when males manage females, or whether the interaction between females managing females and that rarer case, females managing males, will produce style change does not appear to have been considered. Yet in these days of increasing awareness of and concern for the feminine case, such neglect requires attention.

Most managerial textbooks deal solely with the male case in relation to a predominantly male population, understandably so, since the females in the working population have been a minority proportion. But with the steadily increasing female work force and the push of the ablest and active for the responsibility and rewards of administrative positions, the consideration of sex as a variable influencing managerial style should not remain uninvestigated.

Just how important a variable is the sex of the manager, and the sex of staff supervised, and what, if any, is the relationship with managerial style in terms of task and relationship orientation. Sex as a variable is seen as influencing managerial style according to the different value systems and treatment expectations held by male and female employers and employees. The comparatively more aggressive males will expect and respond to a more task oriented style and females will expect and respond to a relationship oriented style, especially in New Zealand where the sex role stereotypes of active males and passive females tends to be reinforced in schools and homes.

It could be argued that sex has emerged as a variable influencing managerial style because of a large proportion in the sample engaged in traditional feminine occupations of nursing or social welfare, but this is not considered the case. Management in whatever sphere it is carried out, as an office manager, or as a hospital matron, as personnel or marketing manager, requires positive direction and must contain some elements of administrative planning. Even if carried out in a social welfare atmosphere the position itself does not involve the social welfare concept of counselling and caring otherwise the position would be titled "Social Worker", not manager.

Analysis of results by industry group, and by grouping within function area, still produced the same style use, and the concept that this style is produced by the meshing of female - female expectations is explored further in the next discussion section. It seems that, no matter what the situation, if females manage females, the missionary style is predominantly used.

It was only when respondents were grouped according to the gender of staff supervised that a difference in style was significantly demonstrated in the executive style use. Sex supervised appeared as the underlying variable separating the executive style users from the majority of the female managers using the missionary style. Sufficient characteristics in common can be found within this grouping of females managing males to indicate the emergence of a new breed of managers, an argument further explored in the chapter relating to the model of the masculine manager. Although this example of females managing males is too small to be considered as providing evidence of a causal connection between sex as a variable and managerial style change, the idea nevertheless provides an indicator worth exploring in the context of the New Zealand management scene.

DISCUSSION -

Female managerial style

Consistency of results over twenty years of research indicate that the high task-high relationship pattern optimizes effectiveness criteria, leaders above average in both task and relationship being more likely to be most effective, with the least effective leadership pattern being low in both task and relationship aspects. Just what implications does this have for the Female managers whose predominant basic style is a High Relationships - Low task pattern, indicating that to move into the category of optimim effectiveness, they will have to concentrate more on task aspects? Is the criticism that women are too emotional for top management positions indeed valid.

Before considering this further, look at the concept of task orientation. Implicit in task orientation is job knowledge and technical skill, used to initiate, organize and direct own and subordinates efforts to productive output. Is this what women lack? What evidence is there for this, why should this be so and what can be done about it? Does the key to management lie in the task orientation? Is the style they are using inappropriate to the situations where it is applied?

Let us look further at the prescription of the characteristics of the female managers predominant style - the related manager.

The manager who uses the related style of management is basically oriented to other people, to the demands of the human system, rather than to the technical. In a flexible loose structure where subordinates know more about some aspects than their superiors and as long as directives are not required and personal involvement is the key word for staff, then this style is effective. The description of the missionary substyle of the related basic style reads very like the prescription for women's role in society in providing the expressive, tender nurturance of the feminine touch, but this time creating a happy atmosphere at work instead of in the home by avoiding rows and conflict, and keeping the peace with transfers, promotions and pay increases. This missionary management style may be less effective if human problems are put first in situations where they may not really demand priority.

To make effective use of the human relations qualities implicit in the related style, the manager must be able to develop the abilities of others, motivating subordinates to work commitment through accepting the responsibility of self-direction and self-control. The manager who uses this developer style can motivate others to long term peak performance because subordinates see themselves as working for and with the manager. The developer style of managing can produce a creative atmosphere by deliberately weakening the impact of the existing organisation, thus allowing individual subordinates more freedom to think of new ideas. This style requires skill in human relations, not just the concern for people stereotypically ascribed to women as an innate intuition, but training in the management skills of motivating people to work commitment.

Effective managers with a related basic style are often found in personnel training, research management and managing large clerical offices. These are indeed the women situations, the areas where women managers are located managing predominantly female staff. In the sample under investigation, hospital matrons form a distinctive grouping, their work being a blend of personnel, training, and managing administrative staff, often well qualified and having responsibility in their own area. It could be concluded that the related style is a women's style for managing women. The expectations of the female staff for a more personal and less structured approach are met in the managerial style of their superiors. Female managers are using a style relevant to themselves and the people they are managing. It is effective in the managing of women, who would be expected to have in the main the same characteristics and approach as their manager.

The developer style, with emphasis on motiviation and commitment is little used in comparison with the missionary style characterised by keeping everyone happy. Seventeen percent (17%) of respondents used developer as predominant style, whereas forty-four percent (44%) used the missionary style. The missionary style is effective in the situations where it is used, because it matches the expectation of the women staff where everybody wants to be happy, and to have a comfortable work situation, especially true

of women who often work outside the home for social contact.

The basic style predominantly used by female managers is considered to neglect the critical aspect of using human relations skills in motivating, an area given much emphasis in the management training programmes of the last decade. Since women have not been receiving such training it is perhaps not surprising to conclude that they do not know how to use their ascribed feminine qualities to best advantage. It would seem but a small step to build on the basic humanitarian aspects of the missionary style to provide a greater understanding of human relations in management. To develop an atmosphere of freedom from existing organisation rules and structure to give the more creative atmosphere of the developer manager, women need not only managerial training, but also more confidence in themselves as managers. Given this, they may create new ways of managing, especially productive with the better educated work force of today.

The results show that the related missionary style occurs across the managerial job categories, but that variation in style occurs in relation to the sex supervised. When women manage women only, some men but mostly women, and a staff half of men and half of women, the High relationship low task missionary style still predominates, but when women supervise men only and a majority of men they use the executive style of the integrated managers, indicating that the expectations and values of male workers dictates a different style than does the values and expectations of female workers. The woman to woman missionary style is replaced by a more directive task oriented style. The integrated manager uses a maximum of task and relationship orientation to produce effectiveness, the executive style involving either personal motivational commitment or the setting of overall aims and ideals through a variety of participative techniques.

The executive manager sets high standards for production and performance but recognizes that individual differences mean that each person has to be treated somewhat differently. The executive manager's use of both task and relationship indicates ability to optimize situational elements and maximise personal commitment. Improvement in work planning and goal setting in this High task - High Relationship style builds a cohesive work group. This

integrated executive style is close to the ideal management style proposed by McGregors Theory Y (1960), Blake and Mouton's 9.9 (1964) and Likert's system 4 (1967). Because of this, and because management training programmes often emphasize the advantages of using participative methods, the style may be used inappropriately because it is believed to be the way to manage effectively always. This gives rise to the compromiser manager, who sees advantages in using both task and relationships, but being incapable of integrating ideas and making sound decisions, attempts to satisfy everybody by involving them in discussion, but avoids coming to a decision and ensuring that production goals are met.

There is a significant difference between the missionary and executive mean scores, disproving the hypothesis that there is an identifiably unique style of female management. The executive style has been identified when looking at the sex supervised and this has appeared to be the critical variable in that managing men requires a different style than the managing of women. While the style results across industry have not changed when broad groupings have been considered, and sex supervised appears the critical variable in style change, when these respondents are abstracted out of their different industries, it is noted that they share a function area, as well as other criteria in common.

Managers exhibiting the executive style differ from other managers in being further removed from top management with more autonomy perhaps than the majority who report to the top manager, and in having worked for five to eight years in their function area, so that they are more experienced as a group than the majority who have worked for one to four years. Executive style managers are operating in the function areas of finance within publishing, broadcasting, hotel management and production, none of which can be considered traditional female work situations.

Since the criterion differentiating missionary and executive style is task orientation it is not surprising that these women score higher on the task dimension than on relationships. The critical question is whether or not they are more task oriented personally, or does the situation demand greater use of task directives and it is this which produces the shift in style.

Table 51 presents a comparison of the criteria differentiating the related and integrated styles of management, showing how the personally related missionary style differs from the task structured approach of the executive in specified areas. Some areas are noted as being especially relevant to the ascribed management behaviour of women. The related style prescriptions for communication, committee activities, reaction to stress, weakness, subordinate relationship all contain elements of the ways in which women stereotypically are expected to relate and react in every situation so that the expectations of women as employees are reflected in the style by which they are managed. Other areas can be related more to womens' lack of confidence in themselves as managers. Communication is upward from subordinates rather than the confident two-way exchange of the executive style. This is also seen in reaction to error and conflict, for the biographic data revealed that the majority of respondents found their most difficult work area to have to tell staff of inadequate performance.

TABLE 51

COMPARISON OF BASIC STYLE INDICATORS

Managerial elements	Related style	Integrated style
Interactional style	Accepting	Joining
Prefers communicating	Conversations	Meetings
Direction of communication	Upward from subordinates	Two way
Identifies with	Subordinates	Co-workers
System emphasis	Supports social system	Integrates socio-technical system
Judges subordinates on	their understanding of people	their wanting to become part of team
Committee activity	Supporting, coaching, harmonizing	setting standards, testing, motivating
Work for which style best suited	managing professionals, training and co-ordination	supervising interacting managers
Work for which style not suited	low personal contact	High routine

TABLE 51 cont'd

COMPARISON OF BASIC STYLE INDICATORS

Managerial elements	Related style	Integrated style
Reaction to error	pass over	learn from
Reaction to conflict	Smothers	utilizers
Reaction to stress	becomes dependent and depressed	avoids making decisions
Control - positive negative	praise rejection	ideals compromise
Characteristic problem of subordinate	Lack of direction	Lack of independence
Undervalues	needs of organisation and technology	need for independent action
Punishments used	loss of interest by manager	loss of self-respect by subordinates
Main weakness	Sentimentality	uses participation inappropriately
Fears about self	rejection by others	univolvement
Fears about others	conflict	dissatisfaction
More effective style of this group	Developer	EXECUTIVE
Less effective style	MISSIONARY	Compromiser

In the managing of professionals, training and co-ordination, as for hospital matrons, women are considered as using the missionary style effectively, but it is noted that there is a tendency to undervalue the needs of the organisation and technology. It is the confident ability to integrate these needs with personal needs, that makes the difference between using the missionary or the executive style. The overall lack of task use by the female manager is firstly related to the fact that the majority work in the traditional occupation areas, supervising women, who relate better to the missionary style

atmosphere with the characteristics of the missionary manager coinciding with the female staff expectations. Secondly, and of paramount importance for women wishing to work outside the traditional areas, is that task use demands production and technical knowledge as a basic requirement of structuring goal setting directives and subordinates. Since women are not accustomed to working in other than traditional spheres, they are unfamiliar with industrial background and this reduces their confidence in themselves and their task management ability. It is not that any one manager may have been long in that particular industry, but that men have always done the job, that gives the male manager his confidence and expectations that he can direct and structure the process. Women have not such a work tradition to reinforce their belief in themselves as managers.

MANAGERIAL STYLE AND THE NEW ZEALAND SCENE

That the majority of respondents are using the missionary style raises the question of whether or not this style is peculiar to the women managers of New Zealand, or whether it would emerge as used by both male and female managers as a style singularly suited to the conte t of the New Zealand managerial scene. Does the New Zealand economic and business climate, with a pattern of full employment, an accepted tradition of egalitarianism combined with the widespread laissez faire attitude of "she'll be right, Jack" encourage the use of a particular managerial method, especially the missionary style with its lack of emphasis on task directives?

Such a question can only be answered by further research of a male sample, but it is not considered likely that the male New Zealand manager will use the high relationship low task oriented style of his female counterpart, for both his expectations and the expectations of the predominantly male labour force which he manages will in all probability differ from the majority of the sample respondents who as female managers were sensitive to the expectations of predominantly female staff. For a characteristic of the female role also significant in work performance concerns the demands for non-aggressiveness made of them by society. Both during childhood and school years, aggression, in the form of adventurous, initiating and vigorous activity. is encouraged in males but discouraged in females who are rewarded instead for sympathetic, compassionate and dependent behaviour. It is thus considered that widespread changes in societal expectations of behaviour required of girls and women is needed before there can be a widespread use by women of other than a relationship orientation, both as leaders and as followers, or as managers and staff.

Such changes are likely to be slow, for both sexes are conditioned to accept the situation of differential behavioural expectations for males and females. Although the acceptance of an egalitarian society pervades the education system, the importance

of conformity overrides even the much vaunted egalitarian ethos of New Zealand society. Children are taught the importance of rules at school, wear the school uniform to further subdue individuality of expression and behaviour, and thus repressed, refrain from questioning traditional administration and values. The child of course is father to the man, and takes his bureaucratic expectations into adulthood.

That overseas research findings regarding the influence of top executive management style as a determinant of the characteristics of the labour employed by a company can also be related to the New Zealand scene, was confirmed by Morine (1974). His study of financial planning in manufacturing industries confirmed the importance of top management values systems as influencing company decisions.

This point is further emphasized by Ransom (1973) in his comments regarding industrial democracy and management in New Zealand. Where management exercises autocratic control, there is little consultation or participation by staff. Such organisations are known to retain labour that is dependent and lacking initiative and much New Zealand labour is like this. The majority of enterprises in New Zealand continue to be bureaucratic, determining an organisational climate which fails to develop self reliance responsibility or creativity. Since these qualities may well be considered to have been successfully stifled during the schooling process it is no wonder that the same conditions both prevail, and are expected to prevail, at work.

In the synthesis of the expectations of both labour and management, it would seem then that a directive management style would be most appropriate for managing a male labour force with an action oriented aggressive approach to life. The general disposition of the New Zealand ethos may well be towards laissez-faire policies, but the bureaucratic structure of decision making is more the norm. For New Zealand males, pragmatic rather than emotive thinkers, task rather than people oriented, reared in a

tradition of rugby and racing rather than the arts, it seems unlikely indeed that a relationship oriented missionary style of management would be used.

It may well be that the missionary style of the female managers would provide a vitally necessary palliative influence on the New Zealand management scene. The small size of the majority of New Zealand companies and the social equality belief allowing for close interpersonal contacts between management and staff, so that company goals are more easily conveyed without the need of an elaborate communication structure would have seemed to provide conditions likely to foster a missionary style of management. Instead it was considered that the cultural conditioning of the labour force by a lifetime acceptance of rules and regulations within the bonds of bureaucracy would indeed breed a style of management akin to the commonly stated stereotype of the New Zealand male manager as the benevolent autocrat, whose existence was queried by Hines (1972). And whose existence may well indeed be responsible for the decline in overall job satisfaction for managers from a very high level in 1974. Hines (1976) reports a trend for male managers from 1972-1976 toward the changing of jobs on the basis of frustration more often than because of attraction to a new position. These managers have also become less satisfied with their status than in 1974, and there have been large decreases among satisfied managers in a sense of responsibility, recognition, achievement, opportunities for advancement and personal growth. This certainly suggests that the New Zealand management scene is neither healthy nor halcyon.

What then are the likely future trends, for management style in New Zealand, and what can be contributed from the knowledge gained about the missionary style of the female managers under study? Sweeping generalizations cannot be made from a small sample to the population of New Zealand managers as a whole, but some pertinent observations are offered. Both male and females managers would undoubtedly benefit from an understanding of the

differing stimulus-response associations of both the task and relationships styles of management and the employee response likely to be generated by each style.

Both male and female managers are likely to manage according to their own frames of reference as defined within the New Zealand scene and in response to the expectations of their subordinates, unless they have access to, and avail themselves of, managerial education. A better understanding of task orientation would be helpful to females managers working away from the traditional areas in production and manufacturing. An acceptance of relationship orientation by male managers would relax the tendency to abide by the rules, satisfy affiliative needs and help arrest the decline in job satisfaction noted earlier.

A noticeable absence of a professional management occupational group, and an overall lack of management education in New Zealand means that managers who have gained their experience on the job are not always aware of the variety of approaches, and consequent differing outcomes, which may be applied to a work situation. Management education could help both male and female managers be better informed of the enrichening possibilities for their own work situation through using techniques usually attributable to the opposite sex, but able to be used by people managing other peoples' activities to produce the desired results. The attributes of the missionary style of the female managers could be a moderating influence on the management scene in New Zealand so long as flexibility of approach is maintained and it is not considered the only, or the ultimate method of management.

CHAPTER 5

ROLE CONFLICT AND SELF-CONCEPT OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT

The idea of self-concept in relation to sex-role stereotypes was explored briefly in the introduction. To enable a better understanding of the self-concept of women in relation to the demands of their working lives as managers, it is necessary to extend the review of literature to look further at the inter-relationships of role conflict and self-concept.

The concept of role implies a set of expectations of how a category of individuals should behave in a given situation. Role conflict refers to difficulty in conforming to role expectations. In the changing role of women, conflict centres on the feelings of self, in which the focus is inwards, and the women's concept of herself as an effective competent person in the life situation (Neville and Damico 1970). To become an effectively functioning person presents conflict between the role expectations of being female, and the concept of being successful in the working world.

The difficulty in achieving a postive self concept, balancing the female and work world requirements is shown by Lewis (1968). Although his book was titled "Developing women's potential", and made the point that many women have been made small by narrow vocational restrictions, the author gave no positive encouragement to achievement oriented career women. "The girl who aims for a career is likely to be frustrated and dissatisfied with herself as a person, with a poor self-concept. She is less well adjusted than those content to be housewives. There is the possibility that a career orientation among girls grows out of personal dissatisfaction, so that the career becomes a frustration outlet", (p 33, 34). Such attitudes show the difficulties women face in seeking achievement without negating the sex role concept of themselves as women, and in accepting the successful achievement which contributes greatly to self-esteem.

It is no wonder that Horner (1968, 1970) found an increasing motive to avoid success in women. The anticipation of success, usually against a male competitor, poses a threat to the sense of femininity and self-esteem, which women find so anxiety provoking that they inhibit otherwise positive achievement directed motivation and behaviour. It seems that many competent and achievement motivated young women, when faced with a conflict between their feminine image and expressing their competencies or developing their interests, adjust their behaviours to their internalised sex role stereotypes, considering it more feminine to disguise their abilities and withdraw from the mainstream of achievement in our society.

Bardwick (1971) considers that the role conflict of women over achievement is not an automatic result of growing up in a culture in which individual achievement is highly valued, but is the result of the differential cultural values which have been internalized by both men and women. So that even for those women who achieve career status there is pressure to assume a mask of traditional female values. Several writers have outlined the different societal expectations for male and female behaviour. Women are expected to be sympathetic, humanitarian, compassionate, dependent and non-aggressive. (Tyler 1965; Miner 1965; Hilgard & Atkinson 1967). These general societal expectations regarding male and female behaviour, not only influence women's career choice, but also more specific occupational role expectations. A matter of particular concern is the clash between the prevailing expectations regarding the appropriate behaviour for women as females, and expectations regarding the management role. Women are judged as less likely to adequately fulfill the management role requirements, presumably because of this clash. Gilmer (1961) found that over 65% of male managers believed that women would be inferior to men in management positions.

Although the number of studies pertaining to women in management have been increasing (Bass, Krussell and Alexander 1971; Cecil, Paul and Olins 1973; Schein 1973; Rosen & Jerdee 1974) samples used in most of these studies have been male. As weight of evidence from these studies indicating discriminatory attitudes

toward women in management increases, the use of such samples implies it is the male population that is responsible for the limited number of women in managerial positions. But the results of the few which have included women in the sample (Rosen & Jerdee 1973; Schein 1975) have shown that male and female managers hold similar, and often negative attitudes, toward women in management positions, and are influenced similarly by sex role stereotypes.

Schein (1975) found that within a sample of female managers, the successful middle managers were perceived to possess those characteristics, attitudes and temperament more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. These results imply that female managers are as likely as males to make selection promotion and placement decisions in favour of men. So that simply increasing the number of women in management may not significantly enhance the ease of entry of other women into these positions, when women themselves believe that overall, men display the preferred characteristics. In an in depth study of 100 successful women executives, Hennig (1971) found that the majority of these women admitted to identifying with the masculine stereotype of what constituted success during their early managerial years. These findings suggest that acceptance of stereotypical male characteristics may be necessary for women seeking to achieve success as managers in the current organisational climate.

Both historically and cross culturally, masculinity and femininity seem to have represented two categories of qualities, conceptualised as bipolar ends of a single continum, with a person being either masculine of feminine but not both. (Barry, Bacon, & Child 1957; Parsons & Bales 1955; Erikson 1961). According to both Kagan (1964) and Kolhberg (1966) the highly sex typed person becomes motivated during the course of sex role socialization to keep their behaviour consistent with an internalised sex role standard. That is, they become motivated to maintain a self-image as either masculine or feminine, a goal presumably accomplished by suppressing any behaviour which may be considered as undesirable or inappropriate for the particular sex. This polarising of behaviour into mutually exclusive categories can cause conflict, for dynamically, polarities imply tension. So in this sense the linkage between opposite qualities is active, underlying the motivational issues of choice, inhibition,

ambivalence and conflict resolution. Studies by Bezdek & Strodbeck (1970) and Cottle, Edwards & Pleck (1970) have demonstrated that different modes of resolving masculine - feminine tendencies within the person have different consequences for social attitudes and social action.

For years masculinity has been considered the mark of the psychologically healthy male, and femininity the mark of the psychologically healthy female. But a high level of sex typing may not be desirable. For example, high femininity in females has consistently been correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem and low social acceptance. (Webb 1963; Cosentino & Heilbrun 1964; Gall 1969; Sears 1970). Although high masculinity in males has been correlated with better psychological adjustment in adolescence (Mussen 1961), it has been correlated during adulthood with high anxiety, high neuroticism and low self-acceptance. (Mussen 1972; Harford, Willis & Deabler 1967). In addition, greater intellectual development has been correlated quite consistently with cross sex typing, that is, with masculinity in girls and femininity in boys. Boys and girls who are more sex-typed have been found to have lower overall intelligence, lower spatial ability and lower creativity (Maccoby and Jacklin 1974).

Such stereotyping of the masculine and feminine sex role can seriously restrict the range of behaviours available to an individual as she moves from situation to situation, for a narrowly feminine self-concept may inhibit the use of so called masculine behaviour. It would seem then that for behavioural adaptability, and from the viewpoint of psychological health, an androgynous self-concept could well be less restrictive than strong sex identification. The most important point is the concept of duality to reduce the masculine bias in inquiry noted by May (1966), who comments that the female case has often been neglected and too frequently forced into inappropriate male categories, of such dimensions that the female results can only be interpreted as "not male", leading to a persistent tendency to read "different" as "deviant". (p 576). The androgynous self-concept thus seems to be a viable alternative allowing more behavioural flexibility in the use by one sex of

characteristics stereotypically considered as more acceptably exhibited by the other sex.

Androgyny is defined as having both male and female characteristics (Websters New International Dictionary, Second edition) but this basic meaning has been extended in psychological research. Stoll (1973) views androgyny as the disappearance of sex distinction. Heilbrun's (1976) definition encompasses the concept of woman-in-man, man-in-woman, and extension of Jung's (1953) anima and animus concept of co-existing masculinity and femininity within a person. Secor (1974) defined androgyny as the capacity of a single person of either sex to embody the full range of human character traits, despite cultural attempts to render some exclusively feminine and some exclusively masculine.

It is undeniable that people do indeed possess within themselves the range of characteristics stereotypically differentiated as masculine and feminine, but none of the aforementioned definitions of androgyny quite comes to grips with the idea of using the knowledge that just being human implies possession of all characteristics and consequently that any one characteristic can be a part of any person at any time.

Bem (1975) presents a more operationalised version as a basis for the measurement of androgyny. She viewed the individual as co-ordinating the male-female dichotomy of characteristics so as to become both instrumental and expressive, and both assertive and yeilding. This extended the range of behavioural experiences open to individuals beyond the characteristics they are viewed as possessing within the constraints of stereotypic female behaviour or stereotypic male behaviour. As people, women may be aggressive and men tender, depending on the situational demand for and appropriateness of these behaviours. Because his or her self concept excludes neither masculinity or femininity, the androgynous person is more likely to use whatever behaviour seems most effective for the situation, regardless of the stereotype of behaviour appropriate to one sex or the other. This allows a wider range of behaviour than would be possible to a strongly sex-typed person.

Stereotypically, management requires masculine qualities. It has been suggested that women who are working as managers doing a so-called man's job in a man's world, that is, engaging in sex-typed masculine behaviour, will view themselves as using masculine characteristics. But for a female to operate in this way implies a degree of flexibility in behaviour and a degree of coping with the fact of her femininity and achievement demanding the use of masculine typed qualities. Thus it is hypothesized that women managers will not have a rigidly defined masculine or feminine self concept, but will present an androgynous self concept.

To test this hypothesis it was important to select an instrument which did not force an either masculine or feminine choice. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory was selected as suitable, providing as it did masculine and feminine scale scores which were free to vary independently, thus measuring the extent to which a person relates themselves to the characteristics stereotypically considered appropriate for each sex.

SELECTION OF BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSIR) contains a number of features that distinguish it from other commonly used masculinity - femininity scales, firstly, in that it includes both a masculinity scale and a femininity scale, each of which contains twenty personality characteristics which are listed in the first and second columns of Table 52 respectively. Secondly, since the BSIR was founded on the conception of the sex-typed person as someone who has internalized society's sex-typed standards of desirable behaviour for men and women, these personality characteristics were selected as masculine or feminine on the basis of sex-typed social desirability and not on the basis of differential endorsement by males and females as most other inventories have done. That is, a characteristic qualified as masculine if that characteristic was judged to be more desirable in American society for a man than for a woman, and it qualified as feminine if it was judged to be more desirable for a woman than for a man. The inventory also includes a social desirability scale that is completely neutral with respect to sex typing, which serves primarily to provide a neutral context for the masculinity and femininity scales. The twenty characteristics of this scale are given in column three of Table 52.

TABLE 52

ITEMS ON THE MASCULINITY, FEMININITY, AND SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALES OF THE BSRI

Masculine items	Feminine items	Neutral items
49. Act as a leader	11. Affectionate	51. Adaptable
46. Aggressive	5. Cheerful	36. Conceited
58. Ambitious	50. Childlike	9. Conscientious
22. Analytical	32. Compassionate	60. Conventional
13. Assertive	53. Does not use harsh language	45. Friendly
10. Athletic	35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings	15. Happy
55. Competitive	20. Feminine	3. Helpful
4. Defends own beliefs	14. Flatterable	48. Inefficient
37. Dominant	59. Gentle	24. Jealous
19. Forceful	47. Gullible	39. Likeable
25. Has leadership abilities	56. Loves children	6. Moody
7. Independent	17. Loyal	21. Reliable
52. Individualistic	26. Sensitive to the needs of others	30. Secretive
31. Makes decisions easily	8. Shy	33. Sincere
40. Masculine	30. Soft spoken	42. Solemn
1. Self-reliant	23. Sympathetic	57. Tactful
34. Self-sufficient	44. Tender	12. Theatrical
16. Strong personality	29. Understanding	27. Truthful
43. Willing to take a stand	41. Warm	18. Unpredictable
28. Willing to take risks	2. Yielding	54. Unsystematic

Note: The number preceding each item reflects the position of each adjective as it actually appears on the inventory.

The BSRI asks a person to indicate on a 7-point scale how well each of the 60 masculine, feminine, and neutral personality characteristics describes himself. The scale ranges from 1 ("Never or almost never true") to 7 ("Always or almost always true") and is labelled at each point. On the basis of his responses, each person receives three major scores; a Masculinity score, a Femininity score and most important, an Androgyny score. In addition, a Social Desirability score can also be computed. The Masculinity and Femininity scores indicate the extent to which a person endorses masculine and feminine personality characeristics as self- descriptive. Masculinity equals the mean self-rating for all endorsed masculine items, and Femininity equals the mean self-rating for all endorsed feminine items. Both can range from 1 to 7. It will be recalled that these two scores are logically independent. That is, the structure of the test does not constrain them in any way, and they are free to vary independently.

Originally, the degree of sex-role stereotyping in the persons self-concept on the scale as developed by Bem was defined as Student's t-ratio for the difference between the total points assigned to the masculine and feminine attributes, respectively. Thus, if a person's masculinity score was significantly higher than his or her masculinity score, that person was said to have a feminine sex role. In contrast, if a person's masculinity and femininity scores were approximately equal ($t < 1$ n.s) that person was said to have an androgynous sex role. An androgynous sex role thus represented the equal endorsement of both masculine and feminine personality characteristics, a balance as it were, between masculinity and femininity.

Both Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975) and Strahn (1975) have pointed out that this definition of androgyny obscured what could be a potentially important distinction between those individuals who score high in both masculinity and femininity, and those individuals who score low in both. Accordingly, Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975) recommend dividing subjects at the median on both the masculinity and femininity scales and then deriving a fourfold classification of subjects as either masculine (high masculine - low feminine), feminine (high feminine - low masculine), androgynous (high masculine - high feminine) or undifferentiated (low masculine - low feminine). After a reanalysis of research studies with the

low - low scorers separated out, Bem (1976) also concludes that a distinction is warranted between high - high and low - low scorers, in as much as the score reflects the relative amounts of masculinity and femininity that a person includes in their self-description, as well as the extent to which a person endorses these characteristics in their self-concept. Since a high score points to the endorsement of the relevant attributes, and a low score implies non-acceptance, then as a consequence, the term "androgynous" ought to be reserved for those individuals who score high on both masculinity and femininity.

On the basis of the available evidence, the BSRI in this study was scored to yield four distinct groups of masculine, feminine, and androgynous and undifferentiated subjects. Subjects are divided at the median of both the masculinity and femininity scales. Those subjects who score above the masculinity median, and below the femininity median are then classified as "masculine", those who score above the femininity median and below the masculinity median are classified as "feminine", those who score above both medians are classified as "androgynous", and those who score below both medians are classified as undifferentiated.

Bem (1976) has proposed that ideally, these medians should be based on equal numbers of males and females combined into a single group. Surely placing both males and females in a combined scoring pattern cannot help but obscure the true nature of feminine self concepts. It is considered that this can only confuse the feminine case, for once again women are being considered with, and relative to, males, instead of being treated as a separate entity. The test items were selected, and validated, to reflect societal sex-stereotyping. Thus if it is desired to consider a person's self-concept relative to current social beliefs, then it is surely of paramount importance that cross sex typing as a possibly contaminating variable be removed. Although all studies reported by Bem do include both male and female subjects, she offers no evidence that using both sexes is necessary to validate test scores. Indeed, since the categorizing of subjects depends on the placing of each person's test score relative to the median score of the group under investigiation, and is not related to previous norms, it seems quite appropriate to use a single sex group. It has been suggested (Schein 1975) that the acceptance of

stereotypic male characteristics as a basis for success in management may be a necessity for the women seeking to achieve in the current organisational climate. Thus, for the purposes of this study, it was decided that to include male scores would invalidate results, and fail to present a true measure of the self-concept of women in management.

Note that in the questionnaire as printed in the appendix, the Bem Sex Role Inventory has been retitled "self-description", so that subjects would be more likely to attribute the characteristics perceived to themselves, than if they were influenced by the phrase "Sex Role" Inventory.

SEX-ROLE INVENTORY RESULTS. FROM ONE HUNDRED AND THIRTY FEMALE MANAGERS IN NEW ZEALAND

The biographic data and managerial style results for this sample of respondents have been presented in previous chapters. From the same sample of women, the results from the Bem sex-role Inventory are presented in the left hand column of Table 53, which also presents a comparison of the percentages scoring in each category of a sample of American female undergraduates, (middle column), as well as for a sample of non-managerial New Zealand women (right hand column).

TABLE 53

Comparison of percentage scoring in each category of the Sex-role Inventory of women managers, undergraduates and non-managerial women.

Category	New Zealand Managers	U.S.A. Undergraduates	New Zealand Non-managers
Androgynous	49%	29%	30%
Masculine	22%	16%	10%
Feminine	16%	35%	45%
Undifferentiated	13%	20%	15%
	100%	100%	100%

From Table 53 it is seen that for this sample of New Zealand women managers, 49% of the respondents are classified as androgynous, 22% as masculine, 16% as feminine, with 13% in the undifferentiated category. Since it was hypothesized that female managers in New Zealand would present an androgynous self-concept, rather than masculine or feminine, it was necessary to test the significance of the reported differences. For a Chi square one sample test, with $\chi^2 = 32.36$ (d.f.3), there is a significant difference at $\alpha = 0.001$ between the proportions in each category.

To enable further exploration of any possible differences in the

self-concept categorizing of women managers in relation to other women, a comparison is made between the New Zealand sample results, and results from a sample of two hundred and ninety female American undergraduates, given by Bem (1976) and shown in Table 53. For this sample of undergraduates, 29% of the respondents are classified as androgynous, in contrast to the 49% of women managers so classified. The feminine scoring percentages also alter, from 16% of managers to 35% of undergraduates scoring feminine. For a Chi square two sample test, with $\chi^2 = 14.62$ (d.f.3) there is a significant difference beyond the 0.01 level between the proportions in each category for New Zealand women managers and American female undergraduates.

Since the pitfall of cross cultural comparison are many and in this instance were considered only as providing an indicator of differences in hitherto little explored territory, it was deemed important to anchor the results further into the New Zealand context. To do this a sampling of one hundred New Zealand women between twenty and fifty-five years of age was administered the sex-role inventory. These women were not differentiated according to any specified categories or occupationally except within the stipulation that they be not working in a managerial or administrative capacity, but were considered as providing comparative female data. That is, sex was the only variable matched specifically to the sample of women managers. The percentages scoring in each category of this sample of non-managerial women is presented in comparison with other results in Table 53. The noteworthy difference occurs with the much higher proportion of non-managerial women who present a feminine self-concept.

In the New Zealand non-managerial sample of women, 30% were classified as androgynous, ten percent (10%) masculine, 15% as undifferentiated but with 45% classified as feminine, in contrast to the 16% of female managers who presented a feminine self-concept. For a Chi Square two sample test with $\chi^2 = 46.36$ (d.f.3) there is a significant difference beyond the 0.001 level, between the proportions in each category for women managers compared with a non-managerial female sample.

It is noted that a significant majority of women managers endorse an androgynous self-concept, and in both instances of

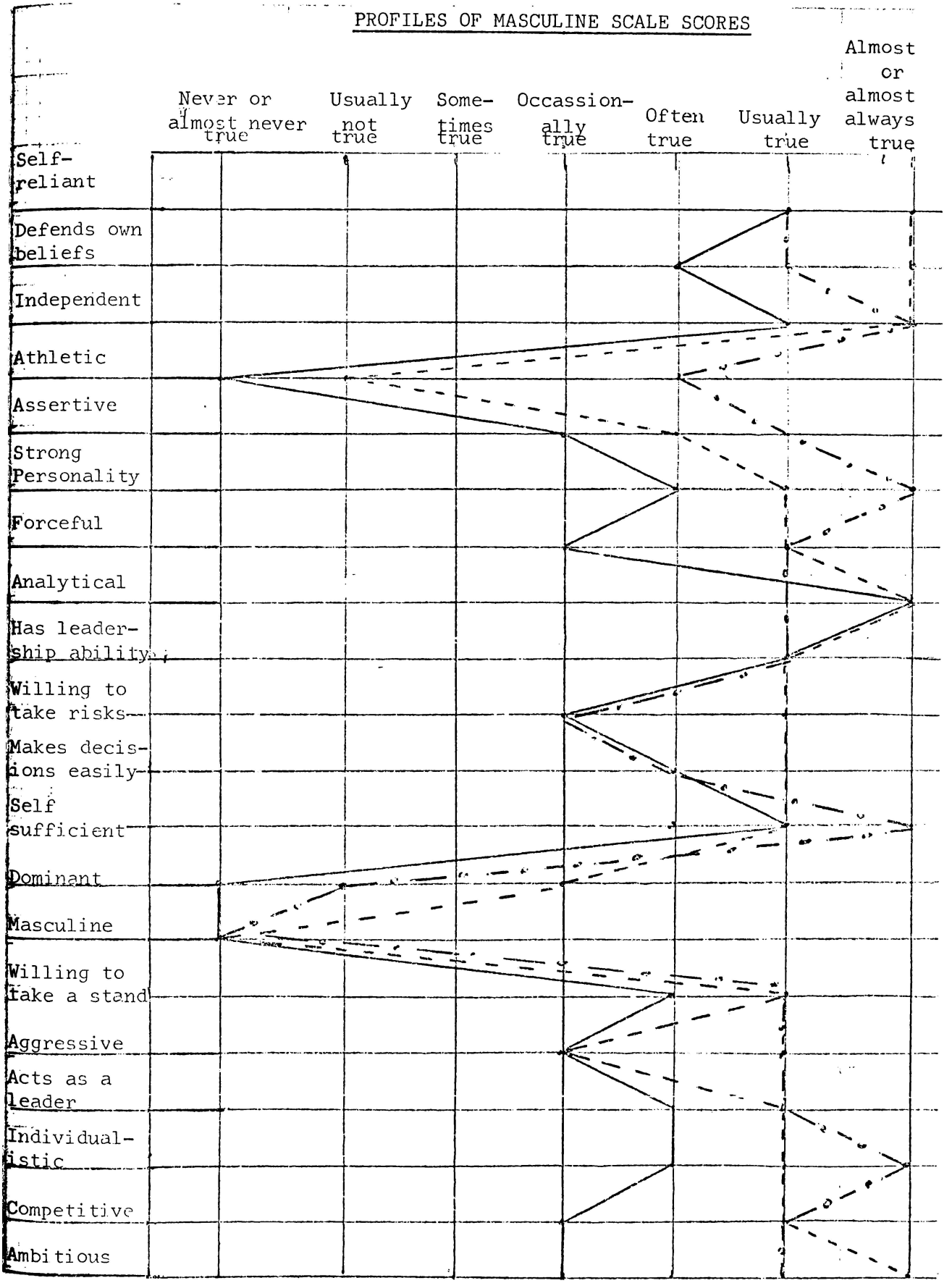
comparison with non-managerial female samples, there is a significantly higher proportion of female managers endorsing an androgynous self-concept, supporting the hypothesis that the self-concept of the New Zealand women manager, will be androgynous, rather than masculine or feminine.

In order to examine just what characteristics are endorsed by feminine, masculine and androgynous scorers, Tables 54 and 55 present profiles for the three categories of scorers on the feminine and masculine scales. On the social desirability scale, the majority of respondents clustered on the same items, without any differentiation into feminine, masculine or androgynous categories.

The 13% of respondents who failed to be categorised as other than undifferentiated did not cluster on any one of the seven scale levels, but were dispersed across the scale, with a tendency to see themselves as occasionally possessing a characteristic. They did not strongly perceive themselves in any area, and could be said to have somewhat of a negative self-concept.

TABLE 55

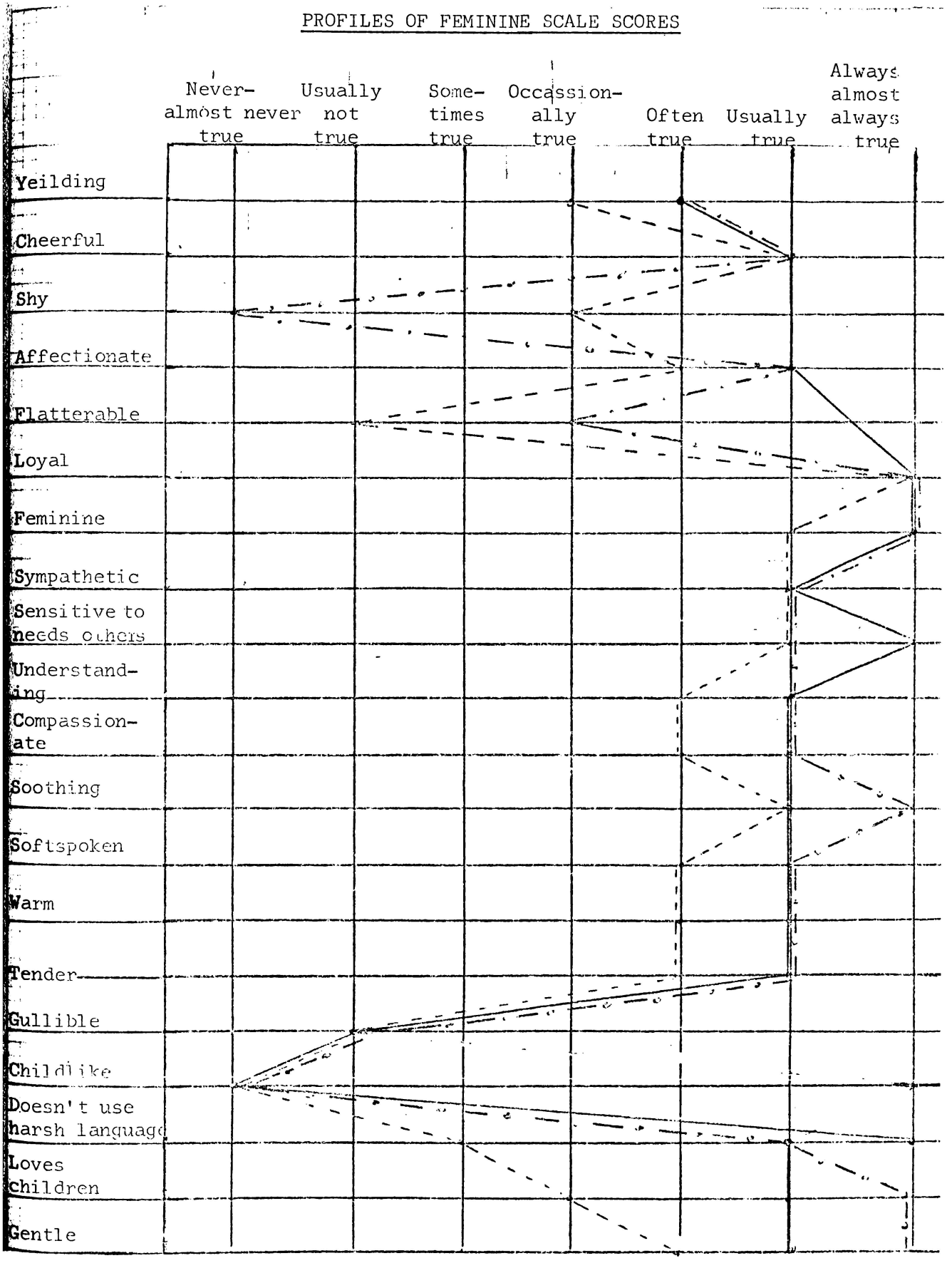
PROFILES OF MASCULINE SCALE SCORES



KEY: Feminine Scorers ——— Masculine Scorers — — — — Androgynous scorers —·—·—

TABLE 54

PROFILES OF FEMININE SCALE SCORES



KEY: Feminine scorers ——— Masculine scorers - - - - - Androgynous scorers — · — · —

DISCUSSION

Those feminine qualities which are shared by the Masculine, Feminine and Androgynous scorers - cheerful, loyal, sympathetic, sensitive to the needs of others and eager to soothe hurt feelings, are the only Feminine characteristics checked by the High Masculine scorers, although all groups agree that they are neither childlike nor gullible.

This means that those women who see themselves as strongly feminine endorse the qualities of warmth, tenderness, gentleness, compassion and love of children, attributes rejected by the high Masculine scorers.

The masculine qualities which the masculine, feminine and androgynous groups check in common are self-reliance, having leadership ability, self-sufficiency and being analytical. All groups see themselves as NOT masculine although it is interesting to note that it is only in the androgynous group that some respondents check that they are occasionally or sometimes, masculine, whereas high feminine or high masculine scorers are never, or almost never, perceiving of themselves as masculine. It is suggested that only the androgynous scorers possess the flexibility to accept the masculine qualities in themselves and thus perceive themselves to be somewhat masculine, whereas the strongly sex-typed masculine and feminine scorers reject any hint of masculine susceptibility. The high feminine scorers are the only group which views themselves as never athletic.

The masculine qualities which the High feminine group rejects and which are shared by the High Masculine and Androgynous are defends own beliefs, strong personality, forceful, willing to take a stand, acts as a leader, individualistic, competitive and ambitious. All women see themselves as analytical, strongly so, a quality which is stereotypically denied females. One of the main criticisms levelled at women being managers, is that they are too illogical, but certainly women as managers do not endorse this stereotype in themselves.

The high feminine scorers form a small percentage of the women managers in this study. Quite possibly the qualities which they

stress are not especially useful in management. Cheerful, sympathetic, loyal, warm and tender people are pleasant company, but these qualities are of only marginal utility in the competitive business world. It is noted that the high feminine scorers see themselves with leadership ability, but the masculine and androgynous groups translate this into action. They view themselves as not only having leadership ability but also as acting as a leader.

It is this action oriented difference which characterises the majority of women managers. The women who score High masculine see themselves as willing to take risks and as making decisions easily, qualities essential in business management which nevertheless were not checked by either feminine or androgynous scorers. They are also the only group who sometimes sees themselves using harsh language, not surprising perhaps if they do not see themselves as softspoken, tender and gentle.

The Androgynous scorers endorse the feminine qualities of the High feminine scorers, plus not being shy. They check the same masculine qualities as the High masculine scorers, except for an important difference. They replace risktaking and decision making with assertive, aggressive and independence. Being assertive and aggressive are stereotypically masculine behavioural characteristics, more observable than many of the more interralized masculine attributes, and more logically associated with the high masculine scorers. Perhaps it is necessary to have also a high feminine self-concept to be able to accept that one possesses those masculine qualities of assertion and aggression which are considered by both men and women, to be undesirable attributes in women.

The self-concept of the androgynous scorer was defined as containing a balance of masculine and feminine characteristics. Included are the warm and expressive feminine qualities rejected by the masculine scorer, and the assertive aggressive independent characteristics rejected by the feminine scorer. This acceptance of stereotypically masculine qualities is contrary to the role expectations for women's behaviour stressed in the home, at school and by society, so the question of why such a large percentage of this sample endorse a self-concept other than the socially acceptable

feminine norm is explored in subsequent chapters, through the idea of the competency self-concept, and the utility of such a self-concept in the management sphere.

The results of the present study involving women in management and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, indicate that the inventory does provide a discriminatory measure. The social desirability scale does not differentiate into three separate patterns for masculine, feminine and androgynous scorers, but produces a scoring pattern in which the majority of respondents cluster on the same characteristic at the same strength. It is also noted that the undifferentiated scorers, that is, the low masculine and low feminine scorers do not present a clear cut masculine or feminine profile, but rather their responses are randomly scattered across the categories, with a slight tendency to cling to the negative centre of the scale. It does seem clear that the scale distinguishes those people who have a strongly defined self-concept, either masculine or feminine, in terms of the instrument responses. The high scorers in both categories are differentiated from the low scorers to provide a measure of androgyny as defined by Bem.

Bem (1974) concluded that there is a distinct class of people who can be appropriately termed androgynous whose sex role adaptability enables them to engage in situationally effective behaviour without regard for the related masculine or feminine stereotype. If a woman moves into a situation which requires leadership and assertiveness, she is, according to Bem (1975) classified as androgynous if she situationally adjusts and shows masculine traits in that setting. But situationally dictated use of behaviour cannot imply the internalization and acceptance of such traits implicit in a measure of androgyny, and it is difficult to see how such a conclusion can be drawn from the Bem Sex Role Inventory responses.

The selected scale items are instrumentally biased towards the male characteristics which are active and positive in contrast to the negatively nebulous qualities presented as feminine. It is considered that a useful measure of androgyny cannot be obtained from such polarized sets of qualities, for the division in the instrument is merely acting as a reinforcer of stereotypic male and

female classification of qualities. Sex-role bias is impossible to escape, since it is inbuilt into the scale structure. It is considered that the characteristics embodied in the androgyny self-concept are a competency cluster and a warmth expressive cluster, and that to remove stereotypic sex-role bias, the selection of scale items, should have been made in regard to the characteristics of a competent person and to the characteristics of a warm expressive person, without any reference that these qualities be judged as socially desirable for either one sex or the other. Only then could a valid measure be obtained of androgyny freed from stereotypically attributed sexuality. Instead of the external judgement by the respondent in response to the scale items of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, a more useful measure towards the understanding of androgyny would be provided by using the concept of internal or external locus of control as perceived by the respondent.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPETENCY SELF-CONCEPT

Since self-related sex stereotypes are not innate, but are culturally determined (Mead 1962, Albert 1963), to explain such results it is necessary to look at environmental influences operating during childhood and adolescence, especially as pertaining to achievement and career choice.

In the development of the young child's appropriate sex typing, the girls' family appears to have a forceful and direct influence as teachers and socializers (Mussen and Rutherford, 1966). There are several reasons for this state of affairs. Maleness, that is, being a male and acting according to the male stereotypes of strength and achievement is highly valued, while being a female and behaving according to a passive and dependent feminine stereotype is relatively less valued and rewarded (Lynn 1959). Masculine characteristics are rated as more desirable by children and adults of both sexes (McKee and Sherriffs 1957), and masculinity is the norm for cultural socialization and mental health (Broverman et al 1970). Thus it is not surprising that both at home and at school girls absorb the undervaluation of being female.

Parents tend to encourage different skills, characteristics and abilities for their male and female children with the provision of "masculine" toys for the boys, and "feminine" toys for the girls.

Boys are encouraged to be independent and competitive, to explore the outside environment and to go out and about with their fathers, whereas girls are preferred to keep nice and tidy and stay home helping mothers. Thus at an early age the competence motive is fostered in males and stifled in females. A state of affairs which culminates in a schooling system providing cookery classes for girls and woodwork for the boys, at which stage it can surely be said that cultural expectations for girls have been so reinforced that it is no wonder that so many choose a traditional feminine occupation.

Maccoby (1974) reports that girls in junior high school have a career drive significantly more often than they do in senior high school, by which time they have internalized the inferior status of women, as well as men's reactions to women who use their intelligence in a career.

But some hardy souls do not succumb to the pervasive reinforcers of home, school and the mass media of women fulfilled in the feminine role, and plan to extend their abilities through career achievement.

When studied at undergraduate college level these women seen to have absorbed the masculine competency cluster of characteristics into their self concept and are making postive plans towards career commitment. The data suggests that the more purposive resourceful women are less traditional in their sex role orientation. Gump (1972) notes that they are less interested in finding a spouse as a goal while Elman (1970) found that college women with a relatively high competency self concept planned to both work and rear children should they marry.

It is noted that it is this competency self-concept which distinguishes the masculine and androgynous scorers from the feminine scorers in the sample of women managers.

Since such a self-concept is against traditional female sex role socialization, for as Broverman et al (1972) point out, it is the relative absence of this cluster which characterises the stereotypic perception of women, and since sex roles are learned, there must be some discernible environmental influences shaping the formulation of a competency self-concept. It is necessary to look

at childhood experience to understand why some girls endorse and internalise masculine characteristics.

In this sample two themes emerge as influential, father-achievement identification and the development of a sense of environmental control. Since respondents, in the main, did not have mothers employed outside the home, their most constant feminine model is considered to be home oriented rather than career oriented. The fathers who were perceived by their daughters as successful were largely self-employed mainly on their own farms but some with their own businesses.

It is noted particularly that the masculine scorers came from a farming background. Ritchie and Ritchie (1970) point out that it was a common occurrence for farming fathers to take their four year old children of either sex, out on the farm with them, "helping" with the farming chores. Thus masculine achievement was shared at an early age, before school days reduced such opportunities and before the girl could be channelled to helping Mother in the house and really identifying strongly with the feminine role.

It is envisaged that a similar situation would occur for the daughters of the non-farming self-employed in the sample, for they also have flexibility in their work situation which would enable them to take a child with them as a respite from child minding for the mother. The important criterion is not so much the background of farm or city, but self-employment as a model of competence and achievement through the self-control of the working environment.

New Zealand mothers also encourage a lot of outside activity, and both boys and girls, especially pre-school, are quite often thrust from the house to entertain themselves, thus it could be said that independence and environmental mastery is forced to begin early, but since only some girls move firmly away from the feminine stereotypes, this outside activity needs the working father model to develop the competency concept.

Ritchie and Ritchie (1970) found that for New Zealand families they surveyed, the father is a more positive figure than the mother. When this is coupled with the way he controls his own work life and achievement as self-employed, there emerges the influence which develops and nurtures the effectance motive to achieve which produces the competency self-concept cluster of the masculine and androgynous women in management.

CHAPTER 6

THE UTILITY OF THE ANDROGYNOUS SELF-CONCEPT

Heilbrun (1973) found that androgynous late adolescents are better adjusted than their peers who presented other sex role identities. A study by Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) which showed that good adjustment and androgyny were related for females, but not for males, confirmed previous studies which suggested that masculinity may be psychologically healthy for both sexes and femininity unhealthy (Carlson 1972). The implications for women are that it is preferable to minimize role determined behaviour and set androgyny as a potential goal, for these results suggest that an androgynous self-concept relates more positively to the psychological wellbeing of the female than does acceptance of the stereotypic feminine sex role.

Throughout her education and development of vocational expectancy, the girl is faced with the dilemma that she must display enough of her abilities to be successful, but not too successful; enough ability to get and keep a job, but without the commitment that would make her unwilling to give up the job for marriage. Should she follow the competitive occupational route of the men successfully in preference to child rearing within the home confines, then she finds that a woman who succeeds better than a man has done something hostile and destructive, and the more feminine she appears, the less she is forgiven by both men and women. For girls and women there is thus an ongoing femininity versus competency conflict in a world where Mead (1962) maintains that an essential element of the maleness concept is to do better than females in every game which both sexes play, and the accepted feminine response is for the male to win. The only tenable solution for the psychological well being of women appears to be for both men and women to accept the androgynous self-concept as both necessary and desirable. The concept of androgyny implies that the person is not constrained by either a highly masculine or a highly feminine self-image, but utilizes either masculine or feminine qualities according to the demands of the situation. This should help resolve the conflict between being an effectively

functioning person and thus competent in the business world, and in the acceptance of being female. Not in the acceptance of femininity, which is viewed as defined by societal expectations, but acceptance of certain personality and ability characteristics housed in a body anatomically designated female. Since the individual would not be bound by sex typed behaviour, the androgynous person should be better adjusted and more self-actualizing than either the strongly masculine or feminine person.

It is doubtful if the concept of androgyny as measured by the Bem sex-role inventory contains also a measure of self-actualization. Ginn (1975) found no correlation between the scores on the Bem inventory and a self-actualization measure from the Personal Orientation Inventory of seventy-five female undergraduates. He concluded that the validity of the Bem scale as a measure of psychological androgyny was not supported. This may be an erroneous conclusion, because undergraduate girls have not necessarily set their career goals and thus may not measure high on self-actualization. It is suggested that post-graduate students, or better still, people employed for some years, would have a greater degree of career commitment and that this type of a sample would more likely produce a correlation between androgyny as measured by the Bem scale and self-actualization. Such findings do point, however, to serious shortcoming of the Sex-role inventory, for the concept of androgyny as defined by Bem (1975) has not included a self-actualizing dimension, but solely sex-role definitions, that is, in relation to the characteristics respondents see themselves as possessing in terms of the masculine and feminine scales of the instrument. It may well be that androgynous women are more self-actualizing but this is not a conclusion that can be drawn from the Bem scale. It is true that the Bem sex-role inventory does not purport to measure self-actualization, but androgyny. However the broader definitions of androgyny in the psychological context imply that the notion of self-actualization is contained within the concept of androgyny. The Bem sex-role scale cannot provide a measure of androgyny as including self-actualization because the instrumental orientation of the selected scale characteristics makes no provision for measuring internalized acceptance as a

dimension of sex-role self-concept. Instead the Bem scale may be considered as a measure of sex-role self-perception which fails to contain the crucial element of the androgynous self concept, that is, the overall acceptance and internalization of oneself as possessing a range of characteristics. Bem replaces acceptance of qualities, with the idea of use of these characteristics according to situational demand and because of this the measure of androgyny as presented by the Bem Sex-role inventory is of doubtful utility.

The concept of androgyny implies the use of a full range of characteristics beyond the traditionally sex associated behaviours. To do this a person has to be comfortable in accepting the use of such behaviour. But it is one thing to possess both masculine and feminine qualities, as most people do in varying degrees and intensity, a further issue indeed to use all these behaviours as appropriate, and the ultimate transcendence of the sex-role anchored self-concept to be able to accept oneself as possessing and using any useful characteristic as required without conceding that some are feminine to be used by females only, and some masculine to be used by males only.

Maslow (1971) has suggested that relations between the sexes are very largely determined by the relationship between masculinity and femininity within each person, male and female, and that transcendence of the male - female dichotomy is a vital pre-condition of self-actualization. The fully evolved human, the fully matured person must be available to herself at both the masculine and feminine levels simultaneously. Some support that this is indeed occurring is provided by the androgynous scorers of this sample who identify themselves as possessing aggressive qualities. This finding contrasts with that of Ginn (1975) who found that the only significant difference between the masculine, feminine and androgynous scorers of his sample was on the acceptance of aggression scale, where the masculine scorers were the only group to show acceptance of anger and aggression within themselves. It is suggested that the better psychological adjustment of the androgynous scorers allows the acceptance of aggression in women who are also accepting of the

femininity, and it is this finding which suggests that these women are presenting an internalized self-concept, rather than a measure of self-perception. Further evidence of a movement among women to accept the androgynous concept is presented by Moffett (1975) who reports a study where the ideal self of the female respondents incorporated both male and female characteristics in an androgynous self-concept. The males of this study made no such two way acceptance, endorsing the masculine characteristics only, reflecting the cultural valuation of maleness.

If it is considered that the sex-role stereotypes originated in times when survival was largely dependent on physical strength and since males were stronger and unhampered by pregnancy, it is possible to see how the male characteristics of strength came to be valued. But this should be changing in today's society, where the economic structure requires for everyone the abilities of competent wage earning, rather than specialized male and female characteristics. The sex-role self-concept has provided pervasively widespread constraints for determining appropriate and expected behaviour. If women view themselves as needing to possess feminine characteristics only, and can perceive from an early age that these are not only undervalued but also devalued, by society, then they will continue to lack self-confidence and fail to accept that they can even possess those characteristics which are vital to success in management. For it is self-defeating to define oneself in terms of male constructs, and although females in management are accepting of an androgynous self-concept there still remains the vexing fact that the competency cluster of attributes accepted within this self-concept is still viewed as being masculine by society, with the result that the qualities essential for success in business and management are still defined as masculine. It is concluded that since the majority of women managers in this sample under study present an androgynous self-concept, and since behaviour is related to internalized self-concept, that they have resolved the competency -- femininity conflict for themselves. It cannot be said that society in general, and male managers in particular, have

have understood that the competency cluster for achievement characterises some people and may be presented in a feminine frame or a masculine model, with the rationale of the androgyny self-concept implying that either presentation is equally acceptable.

De Beauvoir (1952) considered that this might be so if girls were brought up with the same demands and rewards as boys, surrounded by men and women as equal status adults with both parents sharing material and moral responsibility, so that the child perceived an androgynous world instead of a masculine oriented world. If this were indeed so, males would also accept female values, but absence of equal status between males and females and the prevailing preponderance of masculine achievement models makes the androgynous world a future concept, but nevertheless a goal worth pursuing. In a society where rigid sex role differentiation has already outlived its usefulness, the androgynous person will come to define a more human standard of psychological health.

If women can accept that they may possess certain abilities necessary and useful for management, and that these are human strengths, not masculine characteristics conflicting with their femaleness, if men in general accept that the qualities designated traditionally as masculine are human qualities, and their possession is not the prerogative of males only; and if men already working in management can accept such qualities in women as human strengths without being prejudiced by long held sex stereotypes, then people with the requisite ability will become managers, freed from the idea that women who do so are breaking society's rules and entering a man's world. And a state of sex-role transcendence will have been achieved to provide the ultimate extension of the utility of the androgynous self-concept.

CHAPTER 7

THE MODEL OF THE MASCULINE MANAGER

It has been shown that acceptance of the androgynous self-concept is psychologically beneficial for women in that conflict between stereotypic feminine expectations and career competency is minimized thus freeing women to operate in hitherto unentered occupations. But the androgynous world, that is with acceptance of this duality of characteristics by both men and women has yet to be achieved, and it is noticeable that those managers who are the androgynous scorers in this sample have, in the main, positions of responsibility in traditional feminine occupations where it is conceivable that the degree of femininity - competence conflict would be less than for those women who enter masculine dominated occupation.

Although these women are managers and administrators, in themselves non-traditional occupations, nevertheless it cannot be said that they have wholly broken with tradition for many have entered such feminine areas as nursing, and at a later stage in life, frequently following a comeback after a child rearing break, or by virtue of staying power as a single woman in the work area, have come to hold senior positions, for example, as hospital matrons. They did not choose initially, a different path than their sisters.

It does appear, however, that some women do decide not to enter traditionally feminine fields and come to the management positions by quite different routes, so it is important to look at the qualities which they possess which enabled them consciously or unconsciously, to break with tradition.

Current research regarding the career choice of women places emphasis on those characteristics distinguishing women who enter male dominated occupations from those selecting female dominated occupations. Women in male dominated occupations have a significantly stronger desire to work and valued mastery and independence more than either homemakers or women in traditional occupations (Wolkon 1972). They are also more autonomous, individualistic and motivated to perform at capacity level (Tangri 1972). Strong commitment to a career is a work value that distinguishes most clearly the women

who choose non-traditional occupations. (Almquist 1974). Such women also are more likely to set for themselves long term career goals (Richardson 1974). These characteristics, which make of these women role innovators as they depart from the traditional, can also be seen in a sub-grouping of the female managers of the sample under study.

There is a clear pattern throughout this study of a group of women who differ from other women managers in leadership style, self-concept, biographical and organisational characteristics. These women are not managers in the traditional female occupations but are breaking new ground in different occupations.

They are the masculine scorers on the self-concept test and are task-oriented managers in the leadership style they use. They supervise men and they work in a variety of occupations, which are not the norm for feminine work choice. Those biographical and organisation details for which there is a difference between the masculine self-concept - task oriented managers and the remainder of the sample are listed in Table 56.

TABLE 56

Biographic items diffentiating Masculine Concept Manager

	Item	Comparative Response
+	Age learnt to drive car	Younger
+	Father's occupation	Self employed
	Where lived in youth	Farm, or large city
+	Class leader at school	Yes
+	Family mobility in youth	Moved more often
+	Age	Younger
	Age first management position	Younger
+	Education	University Degree
+	Years with company	Shorter
+	Years in function area	Longer
+	Industry	Non-traditional
+	Compared decision making	Better than others
+	Organisation participation	Held more offices
++	Leadership style	Task oriented

\+ Significant at 0.05 level

++ Significant at 0.001

Females who have adopted a more masculine identity endorse a more contemporary set of attitudes towards the role of women. (Spence et al 1975, Heilbrun 1976). Androgynous women also share more liberal views towards the female role, despite the presence of a strong feminine identification in their self concept. It is noticeable that the masculine concept managers are significantly younger than the other managers, aged 20-29, an age where ideology of the current women's liberation movement is more likely to be accepted, and, since they are unmarried and without families, be applied to career commitment. They have not only rejected the negative non-achieving feminine stereotype but have also reached out into a competitive achieving world actively using their abilities and skills.

As girls the masculine-concept managers lived on farms, in large cities, came from more mobile families who shifted several times during their youth, had self-employed fathers and learnt to drive a car at an earlier age, 15-16 years old. All of these experiences contribute to the development of environmental mastery. A prime significant difference is the age of learning to drive a car, and it is suggested that this may have indicated technical ability which would tend to develop task mastery and be an early indicator of the task orientation aspect of the leadership style of these women.

These girls were not leaders of young peoples groups but had been class leaders at school, their feminine concept counterparts being the girls who conformed somewhat more to social norms of responsibility and youth leadership. The masculine concept girls are able to free themselves from the conventions of social desirability which emphasize the rewards to be gained in accepting such responsibility, that is praise and recognition by adults. Once again, independence in not following social expectations is the mark of the masculine-concept female.

Safilos - Rothschild (1972) points out that feminine stereotypic traits are encouraged and rewarded by parents and schools. Role models of leadership at school are likely to be male. The teaching staff may be predominantly female, but the principal will be most likely to be male. Furthermore, she notes that in 85% of schools and campuses, the class and student leaders are male.

So that it is very interesting to note that the masculine concept girls have been class leaders, positions which are likely to be related to ability, but have not carried what must have been perceptible ability into a non-competitive leadership position, as a leader in a church group.

But the position changes somewhat, for as women the masculine concept managers hold office in organisations more often than other women managers. Possibly as single women they feel more need to maintain social and professional contacts, and as competent women are more likely to be office bearers than not. It is also fulfilling the ethos of community involvement through service organisations strongly endorsed by male managers, so that in this respect the women are behaving according to the societal prescription for male managerial behaviour.

Educationally, there are differences also. University education as a pre-requisite for management is not usual in New Zealand, and women in older age groups are even less likely to have had a university education, for there have always been fewer females than males in every level in the New Zealand education system from age fifteen and the fifth form through to post-graduate tertiary qualifications. It is the women aged 20-40 who have university education and the majority of these hold an arts degree. The greatest percentage of degrees are held by the masculine concept managers, who in the main have degrees in commerce or an economics major indicating a greater degree of career preparation than for the rest of the sample. It would appear that the younger women have given some thought to career planning and chosen a degree course pertaining more to their business expectations than the ubiquitous arts degree of the female graduate.

The 11% of respondents holding a university degree is a high proportion, when compared with the 6.7% Hines (1973) reported in his sample of male managers, and the 4.2% in the total managerial population. These figures may uphold the popular belief of women, that to succeed in a man's world they must be better qualified than the men with whom they are forced to compete. It is more likely that those commerce degrees are being used in the finance and

accounting management positions, of the largest grouping in the sample, where such qualifications would be a necessity for both males and females. Another explanation for the high percentage is that these women are very visible. They stand out because of their being women in male occupations, and their success in an unusual field has gained them publicity through the news media and thus brought them to the attention of the researcher for inclusion in the sample of New Zealand women in management. It is still considered sufficiently newsworthy that a woman in finance handles investment portfolios involving large sums of money. Such publicity should undoubtedly be encouraged and preferably circulated to schools careers advisors to serve as role models for the girls they are counselling regarding vocational choice.

The application of this research is seen to be presentation and use of data which will encourage girls to widen their career options and to make fullest use of their abilities as women at work.

The rewards in terms of career path can be seen in these masculine concept managers who were able to choose degree preparation more relevant to the business world. They then found occupations in areas innovative and challenging for women - in finance, investment, marketing, sales management, in publishing, broadcasting, hotel management, and in production management. Their years with the company, and age at first management position, were all significantly less than for other women, indicating that the competence cluster embodied in the masculine self-concept served them well indeed. Their time in their function area was significantly longer, and this was expressed in a greater degree of expressed confidence in decision making.

But perhaps the most critical implication for considering the masculine-concept group as the criterion for selection of girls likely to succeed in innovative occupations comes in the high task orientation of their leadership style.

In a study of male and female supervisor regarding risk-taking, Fleishman and Hunt (1973) found that men and women scoring high on

both task and relationship appeared to be the group influencers leading to a shift in the risky direction. This sounds as though the androgynous managers, whose self-concept embraces both these dimensions should be the innovators. But the females scoring highest on task tended to take higher initial risks than their colleagues. So it is these women, task oriented, with masculine self-concept, who are viewed as the role innovators, and who will competently break with feminine tradition.

Safilos - Rothschild (1972) in a study of female engineering students, found that the female students who obtained the best grades, who actually graduated and worked as engineers, were the females who scored a high masculine self-concept. Those females who scored feminine, initially had good grades, but dropped courses before graduation. They had the potential intellectual ability to succeed in engineering, but lacked something, perhaps the stamina, required to be different from so many other females in breaking with tradition, to actually become engineers.

It is considered that these women with the masculine self-concept are the "high fliers", of women in management, the women who will succeed in top level administrative positions. The qualities which these women possess are the qualities which must be used for early identification of female managerial talent, preferably at high school. For if identified early, and given every encouragement to follow an educational course women will prove competent and confident in management.

Since a level of aspiration set in high school and attained educational level are the most significant predictors of women's career patterns, it is important that both parents and schools be able to recognise the independent intellectually able girl and encourage her to set such goals.

Such a girl will have exhibited independence, from an early age, certainly pre-school, which has increased during school years so that she confidently copes with changing environments, learns to look after herself, makes decisions and gets herself where she wants to go. She will be more a reader than an athlete, probably with little orientation to a home making only future, but most probably with no clear idea of where she is to go in terms of career commitment.

Precise biographic predictors apart from class leadership and early driving ability are disappointedly few, but parental background appears somewhat of an indicator. There is a tendency to consider the offspring of professional parents as likely candidates also for the professions. Similarly, it appears that such a pattern may exist for the children of the self-employed. The self-employed pattern of work independence serves as a strong model for their daughters, and these are the girls who are most likely to succeed as innovators in career choice, so long as they are encouraged to think beyond the traditional feminine career modes. These are the girls who are likely to already have a strongly developed sense of environmental control, and will be exceedingly successful in a career whose total commitment is to managing the business environment.

It is suggested that to identify such girls, the quickest and easiest predictor would be a measure of sex role self-concept incorporating a locus of control dimension. This should be done in the early high school years, before the sex-stereotype patterns are set firmly for both sexes, which appears to happen about mid teens. A measure in the first year of high school would be of value in considering educational choices in relation to the demands of desired career choice.

It is further suggested that discussion of sex-role stereotypes at this age level would be of great importance in making both boys and girls aware of the implications of such stereotyping in both career choice and life styles for them both. If left until the liberal studies of the sixth form it may well be too late for the girl who has accepted unthinkingly the traditional feminine concept of non-achievement.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the position of women in management, to look at objections and prejudice towards their being there, to find some evidence to support or refute such prejudice and to suggest some way of encouraging girls to consider a career in management and business administration.

Studies of managerial ability have shown the significant role of such factors as dominance, self-confidence, intelligence, good verbal skills, facility in interpersonal relationships, risk-taking, organisational skill and decision making.

Campbell et al (1970) in reviewing research results suggest that from 30-50% of the variance in management effectiveness can be expressed in terms of these personal qualities, measurable by self-response tests. Furthermore it is reported that men rating high in overall success as managers, report backgrounds of a success-oriented life style, encompassing academic achievement and leadership at school and university, accepting responsibility early in life, and high ambition.

It is the managers with a task-oriented style of leadership, with a masculine or an androgynous self-concept, who provide a base for rebutting the commonly expressed prejudice against the suitability of women for management positions.

Prejudice against women in management has centred around the idea that they are too emotional, they are illogical, and are more capable at organising details than an overall construct, qualities which makes women's place, if she must be in management, in the personnel department. The results of the Managerial style test show that the style used by the majority of women is indeed of a high relationship orientation. But a comparison with a male sample results of Reddin (1975) reveals that they too score high on relationship, so that sex differences occur with the task orientation aspect. From such results it could be inferred that males are too emotional to succeed in management, but apart from the refutation that only females score high on relationships,

this is not an examination of male/female differences but instead a statement of the feminine case.

In regard to the belief that women are illogical, it is interesting to note that women managers see themselves as being very analytical. This is of course, no proof that they are never illogical, and has no bearing on whether overall the manager holds a feminine, masculine or androgynous self-concept. But that all women managers view themselves as analytical implies that they must see these qualities as necessary in the management decision making process and consider that they are themselves making such decisions in a logical manner. Thus they see themselves as confidently responding to the demands of their management position.

The hypothesis that women managers in different occupations will exhibit different managerial styles was not upheld, indicating that there is a tendency for women to use the High relationship-Low task style across situations. But when the managerial style was investigated according to the sex of those supervised, a high relationship-High task style emerged when women supervised men. Further investigation elicited the information that these women were working in areas non-traditional for women, leading to the model of the masculine-concept manager as a role innovator and tradition breaker. Here is the women manager who exhibits flexibility in managerial style by integrating emotional aspects of management with the technical knowledge required for a more directive task oriented approach. So it cannot be concluded that there is one unique style of female management and that is the only way that women managers will always manage. Women in this sample were considered to manage in a style which suited the expectations of their subordinates, and this varied in accordance with the sex supervised, with a relationships orientation to the women, and the added dimension of task to the men. For those women who are task oriented in managerial style it could be said that they respond according to the demands of their particular managerial situation, but they are considered to be personally more directive in that they also endorse the action oriented competency cluster in their self-concept.

The hypothesis that female managers would present an androgynous self concept was upheld, with only a small percentage of women wholly endorsing stereotypic feminine characteristics. The self concept of the majority of women in management of this sample embodies the characteristics listed as vitally necessary prerequisites for male managerial success, so it cannot be said that women view themselves as lacking in the qualities listed by most researchers as promoting managerial ability. These managers see themselves as quite capable of risk taking and as possessing the assertive decision making qualities usually attributed to men. Their task orientation managerial style score indicates that they are indeed using these abilities in the management situation, so it may be said of these women, that they think and act as managers, rather than as women in a management situation.

Business leadership in the past has been almost an exclusively male calling, and even then not forall men, but only for the most aggressive, talented and achievement oriented few who could make it to the top. Undoubtedly, this does not seem the place for the warm tender stereotypically clinging woman. But it is also no longer the place for the aggressive dominating male, who is as likely to be ineffective in managing the better educated more participative oriented work force of the present. The crux of the whole argument is not that some women are unsuited to management nor that some men are equally unsuitable, but that managers are people who require specific characteristics and abilities to be effective, and that people includes both females and males.

So managerial selection and training procedures should not be sex restricted. Women have frequently found that promotion is slow, and that their junior males are sent on training courses while they are overlooked. People who are already intelligent and responsible, and who can present a record of achievement when they enter an organisation will profit from training opportunities and both males and females will respond beneficially to challenging organisational environments. Women do make career commitments which will allow them to make use of their training and will be as likely as young men to repay the organisation's investment in their training

and experience, as long as they do not find that they encounter the invisible ceiling of opposition to female advancement.

Most employers have been getting along alright without female managerial personnel. They may just be negative and unthinking until forced to do so by anti-discrimination laws, or be strongly antagonistic and prejudiced. It is still difficult for female managers to be accepted as persons, to be accepted as possessing the strengths and weaknesses which all people possess in some degree and to have the chance to develop these according to environmental and work needs, rather than in according to the male-female dichotomy of prescribed sex-role definitions.

From an employers point of view the strongest argument for the acceptance of women in management positions is that the characteristics of administrative and leadership ability are a scarce resource, and society cannot afford the under-utilization of ability which occurs if opportunities are denied to some human beings on the basis that they are the wrong sex.

There are ongoing changes in the social attitudes regarding suitable and proper women's work, as well as continuing and growing acceptance that women also gain in self-actualization through career commitment. And women who have made such a career commitment are unlikely to leave it behind and enter full time home making if they marry. There is a growing trend for childless marriages between career oriented people, or for a one or two child family. Women who already possess and use the competent abilities required of management positions, should have no difficulty in using their ability to organise a life style combining work and family commitments. The prejudice that it is useless to train a woman because she will leave and marry is perhaps one of the most deep rooted anti-female attitudes held by those male members of the upper echelons of an organisation selecting participants for training programs. It can only be reiterated that people with ability must be selected and encouraged to develop their potential to the full. The young man selected may leave for another company which he considers offers better prospects but so may a young woman, and while it is true that only women will require maternity leave, this is likely to be for as short a period as possible for the woman

who is receiving satisfaction in her career commitment. Such a woman who has demonstrated responsibility in her work is unlikely to heedlessly become pregnant without considering all the implications of her work, promotion, career pattern and a combined family life.

There is unlikely to be an overwhelming rush of women into management positions. There is no real tradition of women in leadership in business, and even in such feminine dominated occupations as school teaching, the executive positions are held largely by men. The changing attitudes and aspirations of women is producing an increasing supply of potential female managers, but it is questionable that more women will actually move toward managerial careers without special encouragement and support. One reason for so few women in management is their lack of education. Very few women do enter Business Administration courses, and they just cannot expect to be hired for jobs without the necessary education and expertise. Law enforcement for equality for women, will mean that companies will be looking for and willing to accept women, so that opportunities will be there for the woman who has prepared herself.

The biggest obstacle to women entering management lies within themselves. They need to overcome their indoctrination of devaluation because they are female, their internalization of a sex-role stereotype that limits their options for self-developments, and a lack of self-esteem which sinks to its lowest ebb between eighteen to twenty-two years of age, when career plans should be brought to fruition, all of which leads to a lack of self-confidence, reinforced by the lifelong spectre of the model of the successful person as masculine. That some women are not oppressed by all these pressures and do not succumb, sinking forever into the wife and mother routine of suburbia, is the only hope of providing role models of female achievement and self-actualization in the economic climate of our work-oriented, wage earning culture.

These women have managed for themselves the breakthrough in the competency achievement versus the feminine dependency conflict, through the development of a sense of self-identity and environmental

control. This sense of mastery begins early in childhood and is the crucial factor which makes of a girl a career achiever or home oriented. Attitudes are shaped early in life, and when girls learn that greatest recognition and rewards are given to men's work and life style they plan their actions accordingly. Many see no other way but to ally themselves to a male and gain their identity through him. Others, far fewer in number, take the masculine competency cluster into their own self-concept. In this study the masculine concept manager is the model of competency, achievement and career innovation amongst the female managers in the sample. She is also significantly younger and better educated for her managerial role.

It has been suggested that women in management who endorse a masculine self-concept may well face an identity crisis later in their career with the realization that competency has smothered their femininity, so that although they have achieved innovatively, they have not yet resolved the competency-femininity conflict to become a fully functioning person accepting both male and female characteristics within themselves.

If this is indeed so, it may be considered that it is the androgynous women who are more at peace with their concept of themselves, and it is these women in this sample who have combined family and work responsibilities. It is suggested that such conflict that is likely to arise for the masculine concept women has to do, not so much with marriage, but with children. All women reported a love of children, surprisingly so for one of the cries of the liberationists is, that being female does not imply being maternal. But there are emotional rewards from a family, and it may well be that at a later stage in their lives, the women who have achieved so much in their careers, may well feel that this has cost them something regarded as the essence of femininity. Doubtless this conflict could be lessened if there was no suggestion that a woman ought to retire from a promising career for child rearing, if maternity leave did not cost her her job, and if child care centres or the employment of home help was more readily acceptable in New Zealand. For such

individualistic self-determining women,much of the conflict could rather relate to being transformed into part of the wife and mother syndrome implicit in marriage. For such women, motherhood as solo parents may well satisfy their femininity without sacrifice of a career orientation. There is a slight movement in this direction, but very little acceptance by society.

It is suggested that for the majority of women managers, work competency reinforcement would provide rewards beyond conflict, and that in fact, for the masculine concept women such conflict was resolved long ago. Their life history is of mastery and independence, leading while young to identification with the masculine competency cluster. But for the many other women who do face conflict between competency and femininity, the resolution process should have begun long before, to enable them to accept the idea, that as a woman, they could also be an achieving person.

This research has presented some ideas for identifying the girls likely to find in management a challenging and rewarding career. For those girls who began early a self-fulfilling program of mastering their environment, then managing the business environment becomes a logical career progression. But it is feared that schools do not encourage such radical departures for female pupils, therefore it is important that men and women are themselves aware of the possible options for their daughters for unless they also provide support and encouragement, it is unreasonable to criticise school career advisors as being sex-typed in their recommendations.

There is also a need for exploration of sex-role stereotypes and self-concept in the school curriculum, for the girl with notions of career orientation, can be so easily defeated by her peers, male and female, who accept unquestioningly their parents views of home-mothers and working fathers. It is thus imperative that both sexes have opportunities to discuss and explore through liberal studies courses, career options, role expectations, marriage and life styles which will affect them both. There needs to be emphasis on personal fulfillment and understanding of the rewards of career commitment, the feelings of girls expected to deny

themselves such rewards when they marry, and the narrowness of the female expectation of a short working life, frequently in low status work, and then motherhood as the ultimate goal. Education regarding family life, as a joint commitment, is important to help both young men and young women make informed choices regarding career commitment for both which will continue through marriage and family life.

Research shows that women do possess the competence cluster of characteristics necessary to succeed as a manager, untrammelled by excess emotionality, but they must take advantage of the opportunities offering for management education. New Zealand has long had a tradition of on the job experience as preferable to theoretical management training, but this requirement is gradually changing as companies become bigger and have more scope for graduates, and as they become more complex and of necessity require more specialised skills. Women who have no tradition of experience to offer must present themselves with the requisite and pertinent training in business administration. A scarce talent will not be rejected because of its biological packaging and in a country short of trained personnel, there is a place for women in management in New Zealand.

APPENDIX 1

EXECUTIVE ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1: EXECUTIVE POSITION ANALYSIS

DIRECTIONS

The executive Positions Analysis Test Questionaire contains eighty sets of four statements labelled A, B, C, and D.

You are asked to select two statements in each set which best describe WHAT YOU ACTUALLY DO IN THE JOB YOU NOW HAVE. This is very important.

All those who complete the test are faced with the same sets of choices. Sometimes you know that none of the statements apply exactly to you. However, for each set pick the two statements that fit best, even if all seem less effective or undesirable.

As an example, a manager being tested thought that statements B and D in set 1 were an accurate self-description. The statements B and D beside set 1 are then circled.

In this manner, proceed to select two from all eighty set of statements, circling your choices for each item.

A	B	C	D
This executive follows company policy and procedures when dealing with staff advisors.	This executive believes in the team approach to the extent of believing most problems are best solved that way. 1	This executive watches the implementation of plans by individuals and gives direct assistance and guidance where needed.	All inter-departmental differences in which this executive is involved are solved jointly.
This executive feels it is not usually worth the effort to co-operate with staff advisors.	This executive believes that proper treatment of people is more important than productivity. 2	This executive watches implementation of plans closely, points out errors and criticizes where necessary.	This executive seems interested only in the task at some meetings and only in relationships at others.
This executive believes in encouraging all concerned to present the company to the public in a good light.	This executive thinks good control techniques are among the most important keys to high productivity. 3	This executive believes a fundamental goal of the firm is to create customers.	This executive emphasizes regular evaluation, measurement and review of performance.
This executive believes in maintaining good customer relationships even at high cost to the company.	This executive tends to dominate at meetings. 4	This executive keeps an eye on the implementation of plans but does not always take action when it is most needed.	This executive avoids conflict even when facing it could be useful.

A	B	C	D
This executive personally sets high output standards for self and others and works hard to see that they are met.	This executive treats errors primarily as opportunities for everyone to learn and is prepared to look openly at own errors. 5	This executive believes in simply following past practice when dealing with the general public.	When this executive is responsible for planning many others are involved also.
This executive directs the work of subordinates and discourages deviations from plans.	This executive sometimes encourages new ideas but does not always follow up too many of them. 6	This executive does not seem interested in any kind of control procedures.	This executive communicates with others so as to maintain good relationships above all else.
This executive uses meetings to arrive at the best possible decisions to which everyone is committed.	This executive believes the best way to maintain good union realtions is for both sides to follow the agreement just as it is written. 7	This executive is responsive to sound proposals for modifying plans, is open to suggestions, and is always willing to help.	This executive personally set clear objectives that are understood by all those involved.
While objectives are usually very clear, this executive allows them to be quite loose so that they are not always a good guide.	This executive does not seem interested in meetings even when they might be useful. 8	This executive goes out of the way to co-operate with staff advisors, to make them feel that they are needed.	When disagreement arises this executive takes a firm stand.
This executive believes formal meetings are the best ones.	This executive successfully motivates others to set their own clear objectives 9	This executive is open to suggestions from other departments and uses what is personally believed to be the best ideas.	This executive has both methods and output under constant review and changes in them are regularly implemented as needed.
This executive has no opinion, one way or the other, about the team approach to management.	This executive believes that the general public must be kept content at all times even though productivity might fall. 10	This executive thinks the best way to introduce change is to make an announcement and then let people get on with it.	This executive says that good relationships with the customer should exist but does not always do as much as could be done to help matters.
This executive understands and co-operates well with staff advisors.	This executive works well with higher level management and ensures that they know exactly what the job is about. 11	When this executive is involved the plans made represent the best thinking of all concerned.	This executive responds to disagreement and conflict by referring to rules and procedures.
This executive tolerates deviations in implementing plans if this will avert unpleasantness.	This executive tends to avoid or to argue with staff advisors thinking they often know little of the practical side of things. 12	This executive has some interest in high productivity but it is not always apparent and thus productivity sometimes suffers.	This executive shows little concern about errors and usually does little to correct or reduce them.
This executive respects unions and has their respect. Thoughts on union-management relations are put over effectively.	This executive informs all concerned well in advance of any possible change and gives them an opportunity to influence the proposed change. 13	This executive believes that errors would be minimal if people simply followed established rules and procedures.	This executive keeps everyone informed of what is thought they need to know in order to do their job better.
This executive believes in "One Person, One Job, Well Done"	This executive wants to co-operate with union representatives but sometimes puts little effort into doing so. 14	This executive makes many suggestions at meetings and encourages others to do the same.	When conflict arises this executive helps those gradually so no one will become upset.
This executives' actual relationships with union representatives demonstrate a commitment to consider both viewpoints	This executive introduces changes formally and follows closely any established procedures. 15	This executive does not show too much interest in maintaining good relationships with those above.	This executive thinks that union representatives are a nuisance and prefers to have little to do with them.

A	B	C	D
This executive personally sets high output standards for self and others and works hard to see that they are met.	This executive treats errors primarily as opportunities for everyone to learn and is prepared to look openly at own errors. 5	This executive believes in simply following past practice when dealing with the general public.	When this executive is responsible for planning many others are involved also.
This executive directs the work of sub-ordinates and discourages deviations from plans.	This executive sometimes encourages new ideas but does not always follow up too many of them. 6	This executive does not seem interested in any kind of control procedures.	This executive communicates with others so as to maintain good relationships above all else.
This executive uses meetings to arrive at the best possible decisions to which everyone is committed.	This executive believes the best way to maintain good union realtions is for both sides to follow the agreement just as it is written. 7	This executive is responsive to sound proposals for modifying plans, is open to suggestions, and is always willing to help.	This executive personally set clear objectives that are understood by all those involved.
While objectives are usually very clear, this executive allows them to be quite loose so that they are not always a good guide.	This executive does not seem interested in meetings even when they might be useful. 8	This executive goes out of the way to co-operate with staff advisors, to make them feel that they are needed.	When disagreement arises this executive takes a firm stand.
This executive believes formal meetings are the best ones.	This executive successfully motivates others to set their own clear objectives 9	This executive is open to suggestions from other departments and uses what is personally believed to be the best ideas.	This executive has both methods and output under constant review and changes in them are regularly implemented as needed.
This executive has no opinion, one way or the other, about the team approach to management.	This executive believes that the general public must be kept content at all times even though productivity might fall. 10	This executive thinks the best way to introduce change is to make an announcement and then let people get on with it.	This executive says that good relationships with the customer should exist but does not always do as much as could be done to help matters.
This executive understands and co-operates well with staff advisors.	This executive works well with higher level management and ensures that they know exactly what the job is about. 11	When this executive is involved the plans made represent the best thinking of all concerned.	This executive responds to disagreement and conflict by referring to rules and procedures.
This executive tolerates deviations in implementing plans if this will avert unpleasantness.	This executive tends to avoid or to argue with staff advisors thinking they often know little of the practical side of things. 12	This executive has some interest in high productivity but it is not always apparent and thus productivity sometimes suffers.	This executive shows little concern about errors and usually does little to correct or reduce them.
This executive respects unions and has their respect. Thoughts on union-management relations are put over effectively.	This executive informs all concerned well in advance of any possible change and gives them an opportunity to influence the proposed change. 13	This executive believes that errors would be minimal if people simply followed established rules and procedures.	This executive keeps everyone informed of what is thought they need to know in order to do their job better.
This executive believes in "One Person, One Job, Well Done"	This executive wants to co-operate with union representatives but sometimes puts little effort into doing so. 14	This executive makes many suggestions at meetings and encourages others to do the same.	When conflict arises this executive helps those gradually so no one will become upset.
This executives' actual relationships with union representatives demonstrate a committment to consider both viewpoints	This executive introduces changes formally and follows closely any established procedures. 15	This executive does not show too much interest in maintaining good relationships with those above.	This executive thinks that union representatives are a nuisance and prefers to have little to do with them.

A	B	C	D
This executive does try to keep an open channel of communication with others, it is not always successfully open.	this executive believes the value of creativity, change, and innovation is often overemphasized. 16	This executive tries to avoid disagreements with higher management even though this may lower own or subordinates productivity.	This executive thinks that union representatives are a nuisance and prefers to have little to do with the
This executive thinks that things go best when subordinates understand and follow the duties in their job description.	This executive prepares those affected by a change by talking with them well in advance. 17	This executive believes in the team approach but also believes a good team needs a good leader who knows what they're doing.	This executive keeps an eye on the implementation of plans and respond quickly to, and solves any blockages.
This executive does not give as much priority as should be in maintaining good relationships with other departments.	This executive prefers to let each individual make own plans as long as they do not interfere with the plans of others. 18	Deviations from the specific objectives set for others are discouraged.	This executive likes the idea of team work but often is not able to find ways to apply it.
This executive maintains open trusting communication channels with everyone.	This executive plans well and concentrates primarily on own good ideas and assigns individual responsibilities. 19	This executive demonstrates that high output is expected from subordinates yet recognises and considers individual differances.	This executive believes that the best measure of output is a comparison based on norms previously establishe
This executive goes out of the way to co-operate with union representatives and to keep them happy as possible.	This executive wants to do own job with as little interference from those above as possible. 20	This executive accepts the fact that one can learn from errors but only occasionally is this put to use.	This executive thinks that the idea of setting overall objectives can be overdone.
This executive informs all concerned of the reason for a change.	This executive tries to resolve conflict as quickly as possible by uncovering its underlying causes. 21	Once plans are made this executive makes sure their implementation follows the original plan very closely.	This executive believes that the opinions of customers are of prime concern to the company.
This executive believes the job is to supply a product and the feelings of customers should have little effect on self or on company policy.	This executive makes an effort at planning but the plans do not always work out. 22	This executive has little sympathy or interest in unions and what they stand for.	This executive believes that team meetings are good primarily because they get people to talk together more.
This executive is constantly on the watch for new, useful and productive ideas from any source and develops many new ideas.	This executive thinks that the team approach is of use at times but that formal meetings accomplish as much or even more. 23	This executive is effective in encouraging trusting union-management relationships.	This executive makes clear to subordinates what is expected of them, showing that efficiency and productivity are valued.
When dealing with subordinates this executive attempts to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other often suffers.	This executive does not seem as interested as might be in the actual implementation of decisions. 24	This executive likes meetings to run harmoniously.	This executive evaluates individuals personally; frequently points out the good and bad points and criticizes where necessary.
This executive believes that tight controls are a sound way to increase productivity.	This executive encourages others to evaluate their own performance, as well as the executive's performance. 25	This executive believes that the company should first produce a good product and then get the customer to accept it.	This executive sees staff advisors as sources of competent help and welcomes suggestions from them.

A	B	C	D
This executive thinks that the actual introduction of a change requires little self-effort.	This executive thinks that many new ideas lead to unneccessary disagreement and friction. 26	This executive insists that others follow procedures exactly but sometimes objects if told to do so by others.	This executive says that good relationships with the general public are beneficial to the company but does little about maintaining them.
This executive seeks out new and good ideas and motivates others to be as creative as possible.	This executive believes staff advisors must prove that their suggestions will increase productivity. 27	This executive believes higher management is best seen as part of other teams that should interlock effectively with own team.	This executive prefers to write out communications with others.
This executive overlooks violations of any kind if it helps to make things run more smoothly.	This executive believes in doing the job by oneself and prefers little involvement with managers of other departments. 28	This executive sometimes talks about the problems of introducing change but does not always attempt to deal with these problems.	this executive believes the company should have little or no concern with the interests of the general public.
When facing conflict this executive stands own ground and tries to be as persuasive as possible.	This executive works with all concerned to present the company in the best possible light to the general public. 29	The objectives this executive set are usually fairly clear though somewhat inflexiable.	This executive believes that performance data is best fed back to the individual concerned rather than to a superior or a staff unit.
This executive believes that when an error occurs the person responsible should be reprimanded.	This executive wants to improve own relationships with supervisors but does not always take the action necessary. 30	This executive thinks that planning is not really as important as some people think.	This executive prefers to co-operate and thus avoid any disagreement with other departments.
If a procedure or control is violated this executive concentrates on finding out why.	This executive believes that formal meetings are a perfectly sound way to produce new ideas. 31	This executive relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterised by mutual trust and respect.	This executive thinks the best way to minimize errors is for those making them to have their errors explained.
This executive is willing to co-operate with staff advisors but does not always do so.	This executive could supply more useful information to others than is done. 32	This executive allows subordinates to set their own objectives according to their needs and accepts them even if somewhat unsatisfactory	This executive seems more interested in day-to-day productivity than in long-run productivity.
This executive prefers to go through the right channels when working with managers of associated departments.	This executive understands and co-operates well with higher level management. 33	This executive both developes and proposes many new ideas.	This executive has an open communication channel with everyone on any matter and others have it with the executive.
This executive is not too interested in improving productivity just for its own sake.	This executive treats subordinates with great kindness and consideration. 34	This executive thinks new ideas from below are often less useful than those from above.	When conflict arises this executive tries to be fair but firm.
This executive works to maintain good relationships with other departments.	This executive takes an active and useful part in meetings and uses them to push successfully for own ideas. 35	This executive set objectives with others which are clear and fully agreed to by all those directly involved.	This executive plans with a fine attention to detail.
This executive usually says that a good job has been done whether or not it was really satisfactory.	This executive believes that what the general public thinks should not influence the company unduly. 36	This executive believes control techniques are useful but establishes few and violates some.	This executive does not show too much interest in subordinates.

A	B	C	D
This executive believes that all employees should present the company to the public as being a good corporate citizen.	This executive actively supports and promotes the team approach to management. 37	This executive believes that there will be few problems between self and higher management if proper procedures and channels are followed.	This executive motivates others to set high output standards and encourages and supports them so that these high standards are met.
This executive see planning as a one-man job and does not usually involve other or their ideas.	This executive talks about the importance of evaluation and review but does not always get involved with it as much as could be. 38	This executive has little interest in self or others maintaining sound relationships with the customers.	This executive believes that if an error occurs it should be corrected in such a way that no one will be upset.
This executive sets high self-standards and encourages others to set high output standards.	This executive follows general company policy in maintaining customer relationships. 39	This executive think that most errors arise for a good reason and it is better to look for the reason than at the error itself.	This executive keeps methods and output under constant review and makes changes to ensure high output.
This executive wants to co-operate with managers of other departments but this co-operation seldom works out as well as desired.	This executive believes that evaluation and review are often overstressed. 40	At the first sign of conflict this executive attempts to smooth things over.	This executive is not always as receptive as might be when others communicate and is good at "shooting-down" ideas.
This executive thinks that the team approach is of use at times but that formal meetings accomplish as much or even more.	This executive believes in encouraging all concerned to present the company to the public in a good light. 41	This executive believes staff advisors must prove that their suggestions will increase productivity.	This executive sets objectives with others which are clear and fully agreed to by all those directly involved.
This executive is not too interested in improving productivity just for its own sake.	This executive communicates with others so as to maintain good relationships above all else. 42	This executive tends to avoid or to argue with staff advisors thinking that they often know little of the practical side of things.	When dealing with subordinates this executive attempts to combine both task and relationship considerations but one or the other suffers.
This executive believes in the team approach to the extent that of thinking most problems are best solved that way.	This executive watches the implementation of plans by individuals and gives direct assistance and guidance where needed. 43	This executive demonstrates an expectance of high output from subordinates yet recognises and considers individual differences	The objectives set are usually fairly clear though somewhat inflexible.
This executive allows subordinates to set their own objectives according to their needs and accepts them even if somewhat unsatisfactory.	This executive thinks new ideas from below are often less useful than those from above. 44	This executive wants to improve own relationships with supervisors but does not always take the action necessary.	This executive shows little concern about errors and usually does little to correct or reduce them.
This executive both develops and proposes many new ideas.	If a procedure or control is violated this executive concentrates on finding out why. 45	This executive believes that the best measure of output is a comparison based on norms previously established.	This executive believes that the opinions of customers are of prime concern to the company.
This executive believes the job is to supply a product and the feelings of customers should have little effect on self or on company policy	This executive sometimes encourages new ideas but does not always follow up on too many of them. 46	This executive does not seem interested in meetings even when they might be useful.	This executive prefers to let each individual make their own plans as long as they do not interfere with the plans of others.
This executive keeps an eye on the implementation of plans and responds quickly to and solves, any blockages	This executive believes that formal meetings are a perfectly sound way to produce new ideas. 47	This executive maintains open trusting communication channels with everyone.	This executive believes that all employees should present the company to the public as being a good corporate citizen.

A	B	C	D
This executive sometimes talks about the problems of introducing change but does not always attempt to deal with these problems.	This executive does not give as much priority as should be in maintaining good relationships with other departments. 48	This executive believes that if an error occurs it should be corrected in such a way that no one will be upset.	This executive sees planning as a one-person job and does not usually involv others or their ideas.
This executive introduces changes formally and follows closely any established procedures.	This executive successfully motivates others to set their own clear objectives. 49	This executive believes in the team approach but also believes a good team needs a good leader who knows what they're doing.	This executive believes higher management is best seen as part of other team that should interlock effectively with own team.
This executive thinks that the actual introduction of a change requires little of own effort.	At the first sign of conflict this executive attempts to smooth things over. 50	This executive thinks that union representatives are a nuisance and prefers to have little to do with them.	This executive likes the idea of team work but often is not able to find way to apply it.
This executive seeks out new and good ideas and motivates others to be as creative as possible.	This executive plans well and concentrates primarily on own good ideas and assigns individual responsibilities. 51	This executive tries to resolve conflict as quickly as possible by uncovering its underlying causes.	This executive believes the way to maintain good union realtions is for both sides to follow the agreement just as it is written.
This executive believes that proper treatment of people is more important than productivity.	This executive believes that what the general public thinks should not influence the company unduly. 52	This executive seems interested only in the task at some meetings and only in relationships at others.	This executive has little sympathy or interest in unions and what they stand for.
This executive personally sets high output standards for self and others, and works hard to see that they are met.	This executive sees staff advisors as sources of competent help and welcomes suggestions from them. 53	This executive plans with a fine attention to detail.	This executive makes many suggestions at meetings and encourages others to do the same.
This executive thinks the best way to introduce change is to make an announcement and then let people get on with it.	This executive is willing to co-operate with staff advisors but does not always do so. 54	This executive believes the company should have little or no concern with the interests of the general public.	This executive believes that team meetings are good primarily because they get more people to talk together more
This executive uses meetings to arrive at the best possible decisions to which everyone is committed.	Once plans are made this executive makes sure their implementation follows the original plan very closely. 55	This executive is effective in encouraging trusting union-management relationships.	This executive personally sets clear objectives that are understood by all those involved.
This executive talks about the importance of evaluation and review but does not always get involved with it as much as he might.	This executive could supply more useful information to others than is done. 56	This executive believes that the general public must be kept content at all times even though productivity might fall.	This executive watches implementation of plans closely, points out errors and criticizes where necessary.
This executive believes that tight controls are a sound way to increase productivity.	This executive thinks that most errors arise for a good reason and it is better to look for the reason than at the error itself. 57	This executive believes that the company should first produce a good product and then get the customer to accept it.	This executive informs all concerned well in advance of any possible changes and gives them an opportunity to influence the proposed change.
This executive has no opinion, one way or the other, about the team approach to management.	This executive tries to introduce very gradually so no one will become upset. 58	This executive is not always as receptive as might be when others communicate and is good at "shooting down" ideas.	This executive wants to co-operate with managers of other departments but this co-operation seldom works out as well as desired.

A	B	C	D
This executive is responsive to sound proposals for modifying plans, is open to suggestions, and is always willing to help.	This executive takes an active and useful part in meetings and uses them to push successfully for own ideas. 59	This executive's actual relationships with union representatives demonstrate a committment to both productivity and productive union-management relationships.	This executive emphasizes regular eva uation, measurement and review of performance.
This executive goes out of the way to co-operate with union representatives and to keep them as happy as possible.	This executive believes in "one person, one job, well done". 60	This executive say that good relationships with the general public are beneficial to the company but does little about maintaining them.	This executive believes that evaluatio and review are often overstressed.
This executive respects unions and they respect him, and thoughts on union-management relations are put over effectively.	When this executive is involved the plans made represent the best thinking of all concerned. 61	This executive believes that errors would be minimal if people simply followed established rules and procedures.	This executive understands and co-operates well with higher level manage ment.
This executive directs the work of subordinates and discourages deviations from set plans.	This executive believes control techniques are useful but establishes few and violates some. 62	This executive feels it is not usually worth the effort to co-operate with staff advisors.	This executive thinks that many new ideas lead to unnecessary disagree ment and friction.
This executive treats errors primarily as opportunities for everyone to learn and is prepared to look openly at own errors.	This executive prefers to write out communications with others. 63	When this executive is responsible for planning many others are involved.	This executive works well with higher level management and ensures that they know exactly how and what the job is about.
This executive makes an effort at planning but the plans do not always work out.	This executive does not seem interested in any kind of control procedures. 64	This executive prefers to co-operate and thus avoid any disagreement with other departments.	This executive believes that when an error occurs the person responsible should re reprimanded.
This executive prefers to go through the right channels when working with managers of associated departments.	This executive prepares those affected by a change by talking with them well in advance. 65	This executive thinks the best way to minimize errors is for those making them to have their errors explained.	This executive believes a fundamen goal of the firm is to create custo
This executive has little interest in self or others maintaining sound relationships with customers.	This executive overlooks violations of any kind if it helps to make things run more smoothly. 66	This executive tends to dominate at meetings.	This executive has some interest in high productivity but it is now always apparent and thus productivity sometimes suffers.
This executive motivates others to set high output standards and encourages and supports them so that these high standards are met.	When facing conflict this executive stands ground and tries to be a persuasive as possible. 67	This executive has an open communication channel with everyone on any matter and vica-versa.	This executive thinks that things go best when subordinates understand and follow the duties in their job description.
This executive tolerates deviations in implementing plans if this will avert unpleasantness.	When disagreement arises this executive takes a firm stand. 68	This executive wants to co-operate with union representatives but sometimes puts little effort into doing so.	This executive think that planning is not really as important as some people think.
This executive keeps methods and output under constant review and makes changes to ensure high output	All inter-departmental differences in which this executive is involved are solved jointly. 69	This executive responds to disagreement and conflict by referring to rules and procedure.	This executive relationship with subordinates is excellent and is characterised by mutual trust and respect.

A	B	C	D
This executive insists that others follow procedures exactly but sometimes objects if told to do so.	While this executives objectives are usually fairly clear, they are quite loose so that they are not always a good guide. 70	This executive does not show too much interest in maintaining good relationships with those above.	This executive goes out of the way to co-operate with staff advisors, to make them feel that they are needed.
This executive has both methods and output under constant review and changes in them are regularly implemented as needed.	This executive follows general company policy in maintaining customer relationships. 71	When conflict arises this executive helps those involved to find a sound basis for agreement.	This executive is open to suggestions from other departments and uses what is personally believed to be the best ideas.
This executive keeps an eye on the implementation of plans but does not always take action when it is most needed.	This executive does not show too much interest in own subordinates. 72	This executive likes meetings to run harmoniously	This executive evaluates individuals personally; frequently points out their good and bad points and criticizes where necessary.
This executive follows company policy and procedures when dealing with staff advisors.	This executive believes that performance data is best fed back to the individual concerned rather than to a superior or a staff unit. 73	This executive makes clear to subordinates what is expected of them showing that efficiency and productivity are valued.	This executive is constantly on the watch for new, useful and productive ideas from any source and developes many new ideas.
This executive thinks that the idea of setting overall objectives can be overdone.	This executive tries to avoid disagreements with higher management even though this may lower own or subordinates' productivity. 74	This executive believes in doing the job by self and prefers little involvement with managers of other departments.	When conflict arises this executive tries to be fair but firm.
This executive encourages others to evaluate their own performance output, as well as the executives.	This executive thinks good control techniques are among the most important keys to high productivity. 75	This executive works with all all concerned to present the company in the best possible light to the general public.	This executive believes formal meetings are the best ones.
This executive usually says that a good job has been done whether or not it was really satisfactory.	This executive want to do the job with as little interference from those above as possible. 76	This executive say that good relationships with the customer should exist but does not always do as much as could be done to help matters.	This executive avoids conflict even when facing it could be useful.
This executive keeps everyone informed of what is thought they need to know in order to do their job better.	This executive set high standards for self and encourages others to set high output standards. 77	This executive believes that there will be few problems between self and higher management if proper procedures and channels are followed.	This executive understands and co-operates well with staff advisors.
Deviations from the specific objectives set for others are discouraged.	This executive accepts the fact that one can learn from errors but only occasionally put this to use. 78	This executive beleives the value of creativity, change, and innovation is often overemphasised.	This executive believes in maintaining good customer relationships even at high cost to the company.
This executive actively supports and promotes the team approach to management.	This executive believes in simply following past practise when dealing with the general public. 79	This executive works to maintain good relationships with other departments.	This executive informs all concerned of the reason for a change.
While this executive does try to keep open channel of communication with others, is not always successful doing so.	This executive does not seem as interested as might be in the actual implementation of decisions. 80	This executive treats subordinates with great kindness and consideration.	This executive seems more interested in day-to-day productivity than in long-term productivity.

SECTION 2: SELF DESCRIPTION INVENTORY

DIRECTIONS

On the next page you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

EXAMPLE: Sly

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 7 if it is ALWAYS TRUE OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly", never or almost never true that you are "malicious", always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible", and often true that you are "carefree", then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3
Malicious	1

Irresponsible	7
Carefree	5

DESCRIBE YOURSELF

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never True	Usually Not True	Sometime But Infrequently True	Occasionally True	Often True	Usually True	Always or Almost Always True

Self reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Defends own beliefs	
Cheerful	
Moody	
Independant	
Shy	
Conscientious	
Athletic	
Affectionate	
Theatrical	
Assertive	
Flatterable	
Happy	
Strong personality	
Loyal	
Unpredictable	
Forceful	
Feminine	

Reliable	
Analytical	
Sympathetic	
Jealous	
Has leadership abilities	
Sensitive to the needs of others	
Truthful	
Willing to take risks	
Understanding	
Secretive	
Makes decisions easily	
Compassionate	
Sincere	
Self-sufficient	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
Conceited	
Dominant	
Soft-spoken	
Likeable	
Masculine	

Warm	
Solemn	
Willing to take a stand	
Tender	
Friendly	
Aggressive	
Gullible	
Inefficient	
Acts as a leader	
Childlike	
Adaptable	
Individualistic	
Does not use harsh Language	
Unsystematic	
Competitive	
Loves children	
Tactful	
Ambitious	
Gentle	
Conventional	

SECTION 3: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

DIRECTIONS

This form contains questions about your experiences and education.

Mark only one answer to each question by drawing a circle around your selection on the sheet. DO NOT OMIT ANY QUESTIONS. In some cases the question may not apply to you but answer it with the most appropriate choice. For example, some of the questions ask information about your parents. If you were raised by someone other than your parents, answer the questions anyway since they may apply to guardians as well as parents.

There are no "correct" answers to these questions. The best answer is the one that describes you or the way you feel about things.

If you wish to change an answer, blacken the entire number and circle the preferred choice.

1. Where were you born?

   1. United Kingdom or Eire.
   2. Europe.
   3. U.S.A. or Canada.
   4. New Zealand.
   5. India, Pakistan or Asia.
   6. Pacific Islands.
   7. South Africa, Rhodesia or Kenya.
   8. Australia.
   9. Others

2. What is your present marital status?

   1. Single.
   2. Married.
   3. Widowed.
   4. Separated or divorced
   5. Remarried

3. How many children do you have?

   1. None.
   2. One.
   3. Two or three
   4. Four or five.
   5. Six or more

4. What was your age when you married?

   1. 19 or less.
   2. 20 – 22
   3. 23 -- 25
   4. 26 – 30
   5. 31 years or more
   6. Never married

5. The place in which you spent most of your time early in life was a –

   1. Farm
   2. Town of less than 2000 people
   3. Town of 2000 but less than 10,000 people
   4. Town of 10,000 but less than 50,000 people
   5. City of 50,000 – 100,00 people
   6. City larger than 100,000 people

6. In how many cities and towns have you lived?

   1. None
   2. One
   3. Two or three
   4. Four – six
   5. More than six

7. Where do you live?

   1. In your own home
   2. In a rented home
   3. Board or live with parents or relatives
   4. In a rented flat or apartment

8. You are –

   1. Male or
   2. Female

9. How much formal education have you had?

   1. Fourth form or less
   2. Fifth form
   3. School certificate
   4. Higher school certificate, or university entrance
   5. Some university or tertiary training
   6. A higher diploma or certicate
   7. A bachelors degree
   8. University post-graduate qualifications
   9. Trades certificates

10. What was your most successful field in secondary school?

1. Academic studies
2. Athletic sports
3. Club activities
4. Dramatic – artistic activities
5. Publication or newsletter activities
6. Student organisation activities
7. Debating

11. At some time in high school were you ever –
Class Leader, prefect, member of the student council, president of a school club, captain of a sports team

1. Yes
2. No

12. When did you first know what career you wanted to have?

1. Since you were a child
2. When you entered Secondary school
3. When you left secondary school
4. None of these

13. Were you ever a leader of a young people's group in church, patrol leader or group leader in the boy scouts, girl guides?

1. Yes
2. No

14. What were your main subjects at high school?

1. Business or commercial
2. Trade or industrial
3. Agricultural
4. Fine arts or music
5. Academic subjects
6. Homecraft

15. How old were you when you learnt to drive a car?

1. Under 15
2. 15 – 16
3. 17 – 18
4. 19 – 21
5. Over 21

16. How old were you when you left home to live somewhere else and were responsible for yourself?

1. 15
2. 16 – 17
3. 18 – 19
4. 20 – 21
5. Over 21

17. When you were a child how closely was your family associated with people in business life?

1. In constant association
2. A few close friends or family members in this work
3. Some association
4. Very little association
5. No association whatever

18. Did your parents live together all of the time you were growing up?

1. Yes
2. No, because they both died
3. No, because one died
4. No, because they separated
5. No, because they were divorced

19. How did your parents feel about social activities?

1. Very active in social matters
2. Usually engaged in some social function
3. Normally not very active
4. Very seldom concerned with social matters

20. During your youth about how often did your parents include you in their leisure time activities?

1. Most of the time
2. Frequently
3. Occasionally
4. Rarely
5. Never

21. While you were growing up, as a teenager and young adult, did your mother follow a career? If so, in which of the following areas did she work?

1. School teacher
2. Secretarial work
3. Nursing – social work
4. Self-employed in business – business executive
5. Scientific work
6. Law – accountancy
7. Medicine
8. Other
9. Not applicable – mother not employed outside home.

22. How much schooling did your mother have?

1. Fifth form or less
2. University entrance
3. Skilled or diploma training
4. University
5. Graduate degree

23. How much education did your father have?

1. Fifth form or less
2. School certificate
3. University entrance
4. Skilled diploma training
5. University degree
6. Trades certificate

24. When you were growing up about how many books were around the house?

1. A few books
2. One bookcase full
3. Several bookcases full
4. A large library

25. What was your father's occupation — nearest group in your opinion?

1. Clerical -- sales -- supervisory
2. Skilled tradesman
3. Social work — teaching
4. Professional
5. Semi-professional — executive
6. Unskilled — Factory — labourer
7. Self-employed — own business or farm

26. Using your own interpretation of what success means, do you feel that your father has been successful?

1. Yes
2. Partly
3. No
4. Not sure

27. How did your parents feel on the subject of your career?

1. Had strong feelings and outlined what they wanted you to do.
2. Were interested and helped you achieve what you wanted to do.
3. Were interested but did not understand what you wanted to do.
4. Showed little or no interest.
5. Actively opposed what you wanted to do.

28. What type of work does your husband/wife do?

1. Work but not in paid employment.
2. Clerical – sales – supervisory
3. Skilled tradesman
4. Social work – teaching – nursing
5. Professional
6. Semi-professional – executive
7. Self-employed – own business or farm
8. Not married

29. What educational qualifications has your husband/wife?

1. Fifth form or less
2. School certificate
3. University entrance
4. Skilled diploma training
5. University degree
6. Trades certificate
7. Not married

30. During your life what has your health and physical fitness been?

1. Exceptionally good
2. Good, suffering from few minor illnesses
3. About that of a average person
4. Somewhat of a handicap
5. Definitely a handicap

31. Have you any physical handicap that restricts your activities?

1. Yes
2. No

32. Which statement best describes your present amount of professional reading as compared with the amount you did while getting your training?

1. About the same in terms of amount and diversification.
2. About the same in your area of specialty but less in other areas.
3. Less in terms of both amount and diversification.
4. More in your area of specialization.
5. Much more in your area of specialization.
6. Considerably more in terms of amount and diversification.

33. How many serious non-fiction books have you read in the last year, not counting textbooks?

1. None
2. 1
3. 2 – 4
4. 5 – 8
5. 9 or more

34. What kind of recreation do you like and engage in most often?

1. Participation in team sports.
2. Participation in competitive individual sports.
3. Being a sports event spectator.
4. Social relaxation with others such as parties, dances etc.
5. Reading, listening to records or other things of this sort where you can be alone.

35. In the organisation you belong to, which best describes your participation?

1. Am not very active.
2. Am a reliable member, but do not wish to hold a position of importance.
3. Would like to hold an office, but have not been appointed to one.
4. Have had at least one important office.
5. Have held several important offices.
6. Do not belong to any organisation.

36. How many times during the last five years have you held a position, president, secretary, or chairman of any committees, study groups or clubs?

1. Never
2. Once
3. 2 or 3 times
4. 4 – 5 times
5. More than 5 times.

37. How have you reacted to the advantages and opportunities that have been presented to you?

1. Have taken advantage of all opportunities.
2. Have taken advantage of most opportunities.
3. Have taken advantage of a few opportunities.
4. Have largely failed to take advantage of a few good opportunities I have had.

38. With regard to taking risks, which best describes you?

1. Hardly ever take a risk.
2. Sometimes take a risk.
3. I am a gambler at heart.

39. How creative do you feel that you are, compared to others in your field?

1. Highly creative.
2. Somewhat more creative.
3. Moderately creative.
4. Somewhat less creative.

40. Comparing yourself to others with whom you have worked, how good are your decisions?

1. In most cases my decisions are better.
2. About the same as decisions of others.
3. In most instances my decisions are poorer.

41. Which of the following is most difficult for you to do?

1. Writing report.
2. Selling ideas to my boss.
3. Speaking before a large group.
4. Letting another person know that he has performed inadequately on a task.
5. Selling others on the importance of getting a job done.

42. Which of the following is LEAST difficult for you to do?

1. Writing reports.
2. Selling ideas to my boss.
3. Speaking before a large group.
4. Letting another person know that he has performed inadequately on a task.
5. Selling other on the importance of getting a job done.

43. How well do you do most of the things you have decided to do?

1. Almost always succeed in the things you attempt and do them better than most people.
2. Find that you do most things as well as other people.
3. Usually get things done that you attempt, but seldom do them as well as you want to,
4. Often find that you have taken on more than you can cope with.

44. How do you feel about your self confidence?

1. You are very confident of yourself in any phase of activity.
2. You are quite confident about your intellectual ability, but you are not as confident about your social activities.
3. You are quite confident of yourself in most phases of activity.
4. You have quite a bit of self confidence about your social ability, but you're not so confident about your intellectual ability.
5. You would like to be more self confident in both intellectual and social activities.

45. What do you feel has been your major accomplishment outside of work?

1. Family activities.

2. Community activities.

3. Development of yourself.

4. Development of your social activities.

5. Other – please state.

46. How good do you think you are, as a manager?

1. In the upper 5%
2. In the upper 20%
3. In the upper 50%
4. In the lower 50%

47. In group discussion, how frequently do you volunteer information or opinion?

1. I feel free to express my views and I sway the group considerably.
2. I feel free to express my views, but the group doesn't always share them.
3. I am reluctant to express my views but they are usually well received.
4. I am reluctant to express my views and unsure of their reception.

48. How much recognition do you receive for doing a good job of work?

1. None at all.
2. Occasionally a good job is recognised but not often.
3. About as much as anyone else.
4. Sometimes more than is deserved.
5. Frequently more than is deserved.

49. How fast do you usually work?

1. Much faster than most people.
2. Somewhat faster than most people.
3. About the same speed as most people.
4. Somewhat slower than most people.
5. Much slower than most people.

50. What has been your most important reason for desiring to change any job you have held in the past?

1. To do more interesting work.
2. To have more likeable workmates.
3. To make better use of your training and experience.

51. Which one of the following do you feel has been most important for your success?

1. Ability to get along with co-workers.
2. Ability to get along with supervisors.
3. Ability to organise details of work.
4. Skills and experience.
5. Ability to meet and deal with many people.

52. In your work do you like to –

1. Have a good deal of responsibility.
2. Have a minimum of responsibility.
3. Have some responsibility.
4. Have no responsibility.

53. In your work would you prefer to -- mark one.

1. Be free to experiment and try new ideas.
2. Be given broad supervision with the details left up to you.
3. Follow a set procedure and always know what to do.

54. Which of the following do you consider as the most important feature of a job?

1. The kind of work you actually do.
2. The amount of money you make.
3. What others think of people who do this job.
4. The security the job can give you.
5. The ways in which you can use the job to eventually get a better one.

55. What was your average length of service in all your previous full-time jobs? Mark on.

1. Less than one year
2. 1 -- 2 years
3. 3 – 4 years
4. 5 -- 6 years
5. 7 -- 8 years
6. 9 -- 10 years
7. More than 10 years
8. No previous job.

56. Do you consider that at present you --

1. Do without many things that you need.
2. Have the things you need but none of the extras.
3. Have things you need and few of the extras.
4. Have the things you need and any extras you want.
5. Have the things you need, any extras that you want, and still have money over to save or invest.
6. Have the things you need but few of the extras because of saving.

57. What part of your present income are you able to save or invest?

1. Less than 10%
2. 10 – 19%
3. 20 – 29%
4. 30 – 39%
5. 40% or more.

58. In regard to your financial situation, do you –

1. Find it difficult to meet living commitments.
2. Find that your income just sufficiently covers your commitments.
3. Pay your commitments and have a little left over.
4. Pay your commitments and have enough left over to save or invest.

59. How much reserve savings do you feel you need for emergencies?

1. Less than $100
2. $100 – $499
3. $500 – $900
4. $1,000 – $4,999
5. $5,000 – or over

60. Are you able to keep some savings by as a reserve?

1. Yes
2. No, -- can't save on my income.
3. Yes, most of the time, but amount fluctuates somewhat according to demands.
4. No -- fall a little short of the desired amount.
5. No – prefer to put it into property or share investment.

61. Do you have a life insurance policy?

1. Yes
2. No

62. Do you own shares in a company, property or land for investment?

1. Yes
2. No

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