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The impact of gender differentiation on advancement in the South African audit industry

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The impact of gender differentiation on advancement in the South African audit industry

Bianca Brough

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration

Johannesburg, 2011

ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the research was to ascertain the generalisability of the 1974 Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to South African audit employees, regarding perceptions of socially desirable characteristics for males and females.

The secondary purpose of this research was to demonstrate the use of the BSRI to assess to what extent stereotypical masculine and feminine personality traits impact on recruitment criteria used for selecting candidates for senior leadership positions in the South African audit industry.

The researcher used a quantitative methodology in order to gather the appropriate data to support the research propositions. For proposition one, the researcher replicated the survey research design used in the original construction of the BSRI by Bem (1974) with a sample size of 100. For proposition two, the researcher used the BSRI with a panel of 20 audit firm recruiters to ascertain whether the feminine or masculine personality traits identified were more desirable when promoting people into senior leadership roles within a South African audit firm.

The results of the research were as follows: all 40 items that Bem found to be significant per gender in 1974 were found to be of statistical significance in the current study. Some of Bem's (1974) gender neutral items were deemed to be more desirable in a female or a male in the South African audit industry.

It was found that stereotypical male characteristics were not seen to be more desirable when promoting people into more senior leadership positions in the South African audit industry.

The results of this research have revealed that employees in the South African audit industry do see males and females as having very different characteristics as per their gender, but it would seem that the personality characteristics most aligned with success at a South African audit firm are not masculine in nature, which was proposed by this research, but rather a mixture of both feminine and masculine characteristics.

DECLARATION

I, Bianca Brough, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Bianca Brough

Signed at ……

On the …….. day of …… 2011

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

The primary purpose of the research is to ascertain the generalisability of the 1974 Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to South African audit employees, regarding perceptions of socially desirable characteristics for males and females.

The secondary purpose of this research is to demonstrate the use of the BSRI to assess to what extent stereotypical masculine and feminine personality traits impact on recruitment criteria used for selecting candidates for senior leadership positions in the South African audit industry.

1.2 Context of the study

Until the early 1990's, South Africa was dominated by apartheid, a system which discriminated against non-whites, segmenting and segregating society. From 1994, when the new democratic government was elected, a major transformation occurred in South Africa's political, social and economic environments (Davidson and Burke, 1994). Affirmative action legislation was implemented to redress the past imbalances created by apartheid and as a result, females' rights, pay equity and sexual discrimination became important in the national discourse (Booysen, McFeeters and Hannun, 2003).

Prime (1999) states that South Africa is historically a traditional, hierarchical and 'white-male dominated' society that exercised a bureaucratic and 'command and control' style of management. Confronted by challenges to implement opportunities for its people, the country is now demanding that multinational organisations rapidly change to meet global needs (Prime, 1999; Davidson and Burke, 1994)

In South Africa, the Employment Equity Act spearheaded the drive for employment equity and affirmative action within organizations, including the

employment and economic progression of females. In some spheres these drives have been successful and the demographics within South African business have changed with more females holding senior executive positions than before. Statistics South Africa (2002) shows that among females, the percentage employed in 2001 was larger than the percentage employed in 1995 across all population groups. The difference between the two years was most marked for African females and for females with no formal educational qualifications.

That female's career development is complicated by numerous factors not salient for men has been recognised since females first began to work outside the home. As far back as 1975, Mishler (1975) reviewed a number of these factors, including possible gender differences in abilities, gender-role stereotyping, educational constraints, the influence of masculine preferences and prejudices, and the ubiquitous assumptions concerning a female's role as a wife and mother.

Another aspect to consider is that although the international female to male ratio of approximately 51:49 females to males, this is in disagreement with the statistics indicating that males constitute the majority of the workforce (Valerio, 2009). Ocholla (2002) is of the opinion that patriarchy, generated in the history of the country, contributes to there being more male workers in most workplaces, particularly in the professional, middle and top levels.

Thomas and Bendixen (2000) confirm this by noting that the South African economy is still predominantly controlled by English-speaking conglomerates although the labour force is overwhelmingly diverse in terms of ethnicity as well as gender.

More studies have also been undertaken in the last few decades to understand the external barriers females face in their career advancement (Statham, 1987; Brunner, 1999; Catalyst, 1998; and Booysen et al 2003;) but relatively little has been written about the internal personality and motivational factors that

influence a female's career advancement (Valerio, 2009).

One could deduce from the literature and global trends that the visibility of females within the South African audit industry may increase as more females become employed and they graduate from professional preparation degrees but the question remains, how successful will they be in climbing the corporate ladder into more senior leadership positions?

With the introduction of legislation protecting females' rights, for example pay protection, maternity leave and employment rights, Heffernan (2002) states that the future looks promising for senior females executives, however gender inequality remains an issue within labour markets globally.

Females seem to suffer multiple disadvantages in terms of access to labour markets, and often do not have the same level of freedom as males to choose whether to work or not. Gender differences in labour force participation rates and unemployment rates are a persistent feature of global labour markets. In 2008, an estimated 6.3 per cent of the world's female labour force was not working but looking for work, up from 6.0 per cent in 2007 while the corresponding rate for males was 5.9 per cent in 2008 up from 5.5 per cent in 2007 (ILO, 2009)

In South Africa, the literature seems to point to an enduring masculine work environment that prevents females from succeeding unless they assume the more traditionally masculine personality traits (Booysen et al, 2003).

1.3 Problem statement

1.3.1 *Main problem*

The primary purpose of the research is to ascertain the generalisability of the 1974 Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) to South African Audit employees, regarding perceptions of socially desirable characteristics for males and

females. The secondary purpose of this research is to demonstrate the use of the BSRI to explore to what extent stereotypical masculine and feminine personality traits impact on recruitment criteria used for selecting candidates for senior positions in the South African audit Industry.

1.3.2 ***Sub-problems***

The first sub-problem is to ascertain the generalisability of the Bem Sex Role Inventory to the South African audit industry.

The second sub-problem is to then demonstrate the use of the BSRI to assess to what extent stereotypical masculine and feminine personality traits impact on recruitment criteria used for selecting candidates for senior leadership positions in the South African Audit Industry

1.4 Significance of the study

The study fills a gap as there is currently limited research addressing the gender based personality characteristics influencing a female's career advancement in South Africa (Booysen et al, 2003).

There is currently no tool available in South Africa that would allow researchers and places of work to understand their industry specific gender stereotypes.

The only tool that is commonly used is the BSRI, developed in 1971 in the USA, by Sandra Bem (Bem, 1974) which is not only out dated, but also not tested on a non-USA context (Hoffmann and Borders, 2001). De Vita (1995) states that the BSRI may not be appropriate for use by non-American samples because definitions of masculinity and femininity may differ across cultures which would imply the need to replicate the study in a non-USA context before being able to use the tool.

Research seems to be inadequate in understanding the unique paradigm between successful South African females and the masculine cultures they are required to not only endure, but triumph over (Thomas and Bendixen, 2000)

There are numerous studies of the external barriers females face in their career advancement (Statham, 1987; Brummer, 1999; Catalyst, 1998; and Booysen et al 2003). However, a limited number of studies have approached the personality factors influencing females' advancement (Burke and Mattis, 2005; Valerio, 2009).

This research requires attention as it could represent a trend of gender based stereotypical personality factors influencing females' career advancement across South African industries.

The study aims to provide guidance to the South African audit industry looking at increasing their gender transformation targets by understanding the stereotypical personality characteristics in the industry and understanding the stereotypical personality characteristics that are attributed to successful senior leaders.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

This research will be based only in the South African audit industry.

1.6 Assumptions

The total number of respondents will be sufficient to gain adequate data.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The literature review identifies the relevant themes such as: increasing female labour participation, personality characteristics and leadership, as well as general issues confronting working females.

Key issues discussed in the literature review include: working in a traditional, hierarchical and 'white-male dominated' South African society; personality stereotypes; the evolution of the career barriers for females, and the availability of tools to assess gender stereotypes in the context of South Africa.

The literature review concludes with an overview of key learning's.

2.2. Background discussion

In the past four decades there has been tremendous social change in South Africa, females have achieved educational levels and entered the workforce in numbers that were unthinkable fifty years ago. Females are now an economic force with buying power of their own (Warner, 2006).

Yet females' advancement into leadership roles has been an evolution, not a revolution as females are still relative newcomers on the corporate scene (Valerio, 2009). The challenge associated with maintaining dual roles as leaders and mothers is a relatively recent challenge affecting increasing numbers of females (Fels, 2004).

While gender rights demanded by South Africa's progressive Constitution might not yet reflect in business boardrooms, pioneering females are leading the way in redefining the identity of our fledgling democracy by empowering themselves politically, culturally and socially (Valerio, 2009).

Not long ago, boardrooms consisted of predominantly male executives. But according to an article published by the Business Women's Association

(Business Women's' Association, 2006), the South African Females in Leadership Census 2006 indicates there is an increase of female corporate leaders or directors in the country.

Valerio (2009) states that females focus on the family is still important, but those females have come into their own. They no longer solely define themselves in terms of their role in the family and are actively taking control and making substantial contributions to both their own lives and the lives of those around them. They are optimistic about the future and aspire to progress, both in terms of personal and career development.

Thomson and Graham (2005) state that development is a common goal for all South African females. Females' education is subsequently becoming a potent agent for change. Increased education among females means more females are entering into formal employment, have more income and more choice in what to buy (Thomson and Graham, 2005). Similarly, entry into formal careers is delaying marriage and indicators suggest this means females are also having fewer children (Valerio, 2009).

Though this bodes well for professional females, progress is only now beginning to gain momentum with attention also now being directed at retaining talented females (Fels, 2004).

If corporate South Africa wants to bring more females into senior positions they need to understand the stereotypical masculine and feminine personality traits for the South African work place and how these may advance or hinder females' career progression within the various organisations.

2.3 South African females' experience in the workplace

Key issues discussed include: increasing female labour force participation; barriers to advancement, working in a hierarchical and 'white-male dominated' workplace; tools that assess gender personality stereotypes; personality; and gender stereotypes relating to personality.

2.3.1 *Increasing female labour force participation*

The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) for Republic of South Africa (2008) states that there has been a continued feminisation of the labour force in South Africa. QFLS is a household-based sample survey conducted by Statistics South. It collects data on the labour market activities of individuals aged 15 years and above who live in South Africa.

While more females and males have been entering the labour market over this period, the increase for females has been proportionately greater, such that females' share of the economically active population has risen (Statistics South Africa, 2010). Over the same period, reported employment has grown, but by far less than the change in labour supply. The year-on-year comparisons show that the number of unemployed persons increased by 126 000, with an annual increase of 6.3 percent among males and virtually no change among females (QLFS, 2010).

Of the total number of jobs in the economy, females occupy increasing proportions. A large part of the increase in recorded female employment however is due to the growth of self-employment in the informal sector, employment typically associated with low earnings, little protection and insecure working conditions (Coyne, 2007). Furthermore, although the increase in employment has been larger for females than for males, it has not been sufficient to absorb the proportionately greater number of females who have entered the labour force over this period (Casale and Posel, 2002).

Demand side factors:

A key reason given in international literature for the increased participation of females in the workforce is due to growth in demand for female labour. In a study of the labour force participation of females, in a number of developing countries, Standing (1999) identifies two broad changes in the demand for female labour that are likely to be driving this increase:

Firstly, there has been a shift toward female employing industries. With industrialisation based on textiles, garments and other 'light' industry, females'

employment seemed to rise sharply (Standing, 1999).

Secondly, growing labour market flexibility and the rise in informal work has been associated with the substitution of female for male labour (Standing, 1999). This flexibility and informal labour includes the outsourcing and subcontracting of work and the employment of labour that is unprotected by labour regulations. Chen and Heilman (2003) propose that females might be more willing to accept insecure low-wage employment. Informal sector employment may also offer females greater flexibility in combining income-generating work with child rearing responsibilities.

Furthermore, South African companies are beginning to set female transformation targets thus increasing the demand for females to enter into the workforce, specifically into managerial positions (Booysen et al, 2003).

Supply side factors:

There are a few likely supply side factors according to Statistics SA (2008):

The role of education and number of children: Rising levels of education increase employment opportunities as well as earning potential in the labour market. This in turn raises the opportunity costs of having children. Higher average education and a decrease in fertility rates have therefore been associated with the growth in females labour force participation.

The fact that more females at all levels of education are entering the labour market suggests that there may be changes on the supply side that are pushing, rather than pulling, females into the labour market.

With subsequent changes in the household, unemployment rates for men have increased and the average number of employed males of working age per household has decreased (Statistics SA, 2008). The erosion in households' resource base, as well as increasing job and income insecurity association with rising levels of unemployment in South Africa, are likely to place increased pressure on females to earn or generate an income.

In terms of access to resources outside the labour market, a growing number of

South African females lived without males, and particularly males without employment. These changes in household composition and females' marital status would be expected to decrease a female's access to traditional forms of income support, thus encouraging more females to enter the labour force (Booysen et al, 2003).

Change in a female's relationship with the labour market is owing to shifts in societal norms: There seems to have been a change with regards to the appropriate economic roles for males and females, and a change in expectation on the part of the female (Fels, 2004).

2.3.2 *Barriers to advancement females have faced over the decades*

Eagly and Carli (2007) discuss three barriers obstructing females' advancement: The Concrete Wall, The Glass Ceiling, and The Labyrinth.

The Concrete Wall existed in an era with separate and distinct gender roles: men were breadwinners and females were homemakers. Although females gained the right to vote in South Africa in 1930 (only granted to white females on the same basis as white men; black females did not qualify for the vote), they still faced many barriers to leadership (Coyne, 2007).

In the early 1970's females were routinely discouraged from learning any of the trades such as plumbing, electrical work and carpentry. Females faced hostile environments in such occupations as fire-fighting and construction. In the business world, females with college degrees or diplomas were channelled into clerical work and bank teller positions, with typing as a requisite with relatively low pay compared to their male counterparts (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

The Concrete Wall began to fall in the 1970's and by the mid 80's females were employed in middle management jobs but faced an invisible barrier that excluded them from upper management (Eagly and Carli, 2007). Females were described as having bumped into "The Glass Ceiling" (Morrison, White and Van Velsor, 1987). In many organisations, bright and talented females would get

promoted to a level, and then found that very few made it beyond that point. An underlying attitude was the idea that it was too risky to employ females, because they would quit their jobs to raise a family (Fels, 2004).

As the situation has evolved, more females have surmounted the obstacles and found the paths to the top of the organisation. Eagly and Carli (2007) labelled these winding paths 'The Labyrinth' which points to containing numerous barriers, albeit not as obvious as they were in the past.

Differences in gender roles still require that females spend time in the caretaking of loved ones and in the management of household tasks. The labyrinth metaphor is another depiction of the situation facing today's females as they wind their way through the maze to achieve power, authority, wealth and respect at an organisation (Valerio, 2009).

The new barriers facing females in the labyrinth:

A common reality in South Africa is that of the masculine culture in the organisation (Thomas and Bendixen, 2000). This is a further twist in the labyrinth that South African females are forced to navigate their way through.

Research with females has revealed a number of external barriers, personal priorities, and decisions that have consistently emerged as the reasons that many either cannot or do not realize their potential (Reis, 2002).

Females face conflict between their own abilities and the social structure of their world (Reis, 2002). They confront both external barriers (lack of support from families, stereotyping, and acculturation in home, school, and the rest of society) and internal barriers (self-doubt, self-criticism, lowered expectations, and the attribution of success to effort rather than ability).

Lack of recognition and respect, and experience-limiting restrictions on the type of work given are identified as the major external barriers to career advancement. This is closely followed by a lack of mentor support from females, which Reis (1995a) says highlights the responsibility of female managers in organisations to act as role models.

Some barriers are directly related to females trying to juggle the demands of their careers and their families. Lack of flexible working hours and little allowance made for family commitments are seen as significant obstacles to getting ahead, as are low salaries which cannot support child-care payments. Other barriers include a male culture in organisations and gender-bias by supervisors (Reis, 2002).

Females hold more than 50 per cent of professional and management positions (Republic of South Africa QLFS, 2008). Yet most of these jobs are at the middle-management level and lower.

Gender-based stereotypes continue to play a part in decision-making (Valerio, 2009). A female with a family may not be considered for an overseas position on the assumption that her husband won't leave his job. A female who has just had a child may not be considered for a promotion because there's an assumption that her priority is her child (Fels, 2004).

Companies lose a tremendous amount of female talent by not acknowledging that there may be a period when a female wants to plateau or step off the work cycle for a while (Fels, 2004)

Males seem more comfortable promoting themselves because it is part of the culture in which they grew up (Reis, 2002). That leaves females to figure out strategies to support and promote one another. Females are more prone to do a good job and wait to be recognized for it than to promote themselves (Reis, 2002).

Life role expectations as a barrier

For males, work outside the home is not only a financial necessity but the cornerstone of identity and self-worth (Fels, 2004). Virtually every study of ambition in males has confirmed this basic fact. Fels (2004) asserts that females were defined by their role (or lack of role) to provide for others within the private sphere. As mother, mistress, or wife, females' social designation implied exactly whom they were expected to provide for and what they were supposed to provide. Private relationships represented females' sole source of

identity and affirmation (Valerio, 2009).

As a consequence, it seems that females had to carefully develop their skills required to maximise their narrowly defined opportunities. A huge premium was placed on physical attractiveness, sensitivity and service to others (Fels, 2004). This exclusive focus on the interpersonal as a source of self-worth entailed a huge loss of control for females. To a large extent, females cannot control their looks, particularly as they age.

Valerio (2009) agrees that females not only define themselves in a context of human relationships, but judge themselves in terms of their ability to care for others.

Historically, females have nurtured, taken care of, and helped their children and spouses. They have developed networks of relationships that are vital to them (Reis, 2002).

Females' responsibilities for domestic care have been far greater than the male's (Hochschild, 1989; Valerio, 2009). Although the father's time with children has increased, for every hour of childcare done by men, females double that amount. Married females with children are more likely than their husbands to work "two shifts": one at their paid job and one at home. Adding to the pressure is the trend to spend more quality time with the children (Valerio, 2009).

Belkin (2008) in the New York Times stated that:

"Gender should not determine the division of labour at home. This is a message consistent with nearly every major social trend of the past three decades – females entering the workforce, equality between the sexes, the need for two incomes to pay the bills, even courts favour shared custody after divorce."

Most of the females Reis (1995b) studied understood that if they developed their own talents, there would be an impact upon those they loved.

Females are often frustrated with their own inability to resolve the need to do two things: support, care for, and maintain relationships with those they love

while simultaneously pursuing a talent to its fullest level in the workplace (Fels, 2004).

Gilligan (1982) found that a female's sense of integrity is entwined with an ethic of care, and, for some, this ethic of care is confused with either seeking or needing approval from loved ones. She explained that making the distinction between helping and pleasing frees the activity of taking care from the wish for approval by others. At that point, responsibility can become a self-chosen anchor of personal integrity and strength.

The ethic of care described by Gilligan (1982), accompanied by a female's belief in the importance of relationships, has been found to be the single greatest issue to address for females who also have their own unique dreams and aspirations for important work (Reis, 2002). Many females in their 20's, 30's, and 40's experience guilt over what they want to do for themselves and what they believe they should do for their families and for those they love (Valerio, 2009).

Changing gender roles

In tandem with these challenges has come a rethinking of gender roles. Many of the newer theories of gender minimised the contradictions that arise when females (or males) try to combine traditional male and female traits (Fels, 2004).

One can now be a leader whose style is nurturing and inclusive, and then be a caretaker who is proactive, confident and effective (Fels, 2004). Young females are endorsing both sets of attributes. This has become a cultural ideal and as such is receiving enthusiastic endorsement from a variety of sources. The business community has embraced the use of more 'feminine' group orientated structures in workplaces previously dominated by more competitive male ones. "People Skills" is the buzzword. Fels (2004) argues that the examination and breakdown of mutually exclusive, dual gender system is the dominant cultural theme of our time.

Reading contemporary gender theories one could assume that the conflicting demands that females struggles with in the past are no longer an issue. However, when females pursue types of mastery previously unavailable to them, they enter a bewildering new world. Because they are still pioneering new gender roles, their choices are frequently criticized by those around them. The inevitable social opprobrium is uncomfortable and confusing to females, whether it comes from other moms at the Parent Teacher Association meeting or from colleagues at work or from their own families (Fels, 2004).

Forming a coherent, comfortable identity as a powerful female clearly remains a problem.

2.4 Females' experience in the rest of the world

Females overall share of professional jobs in 2000-2005 was highest in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), largely due to long-standing policies supporting working mothers. Females share of professional jobs in South Asian and Middle Eastern countries was markedly lower at around 30% or less, due to societal views of females' labour force participation and to females prioritising family responsibilities (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

Data show that, in general, countries in North America, South America and Eastern Europe have a higher share of females in management jobs than countries in East Asia, South Asia and the Middle East. Nevertheless, the report indicates, in female-dominated sectors where there are more females managers, a disproportionate number of men rise to the more senior positions and in those professions normally reserved for males, female managers are few and far between (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

Scandinavia:

In 2003 the Swedish government announced that it would legislate to oblige listed companies to ensure that females accounted for at least 25% of board members by the end of 2004. In 2003, Swedish companies appointed 102

females to their boards. In view of the positive response, the government decided to postpone the legislation but to watch development.

A recent analysis of females directors in Europe published in the Cranfield School of Management's Female FTSE Report (2008) showed Norway was 4th in a ranking of countries by the percentage of female directors at their top 50 companies.

Europe:

What's happening in Eastern Europe? Is a different more feminine business culture rising from the rubble of communism? Maybe.

The small size of Eastern European economies makes them unlikely 'prime movers' of a worldwide shift toward more gender-balanced boards. But they are rapidly becoming more integrated with the European and world economies and their increasingly important role as low cost manufacturing location is exposing the larger US and Western European companies to their more feminine management cultures.

Western European top management structures consist of only 5 percent females according to Thomson and Graham (2005). Cultural, historical and social factors appear to be implicated in country differences in Western Europe. For example, in Italy, only 2.2% of board seats are occupied by females compared to the Western European average of 8%. It seems that Italy's traditional male dominated society, insufficient childcare infrastructure and lack of female-friendly companies are the main reasons for Italy's bottom place in the ranking.

Asia Pacific:

Kang and Rowley (2005) state that female participation in labour market has increased in recent years across Asia. The growing proportion of females in the labour force results in the decrease of participate rate of males. But the gap between the sexes in terms of labour force participation still exists.

Female and male wage ratios for the Asian countries studied in the paper of

Labour Statistics (Kang and Rowley, 2005) indicate the gender wage gap. There is no close relationship between economic development and female relative earnings. Females in Japan and Korea seem to earn the least relative to their male counterparts, whereas females in China seem to have the highest relative earnings. Females in South-Korea and Japan earned about 54 and 50% of the respective male rate of pay in 1990. Moreover, females not only earn less than men, they also tend to own fewer assets.

Females in Asia are mainly distributed in clerical and service occupations and relatively highly concentrated in professional occupations such teaching and nursing. But there are very few females in managerial roles in corporate (Kang and Rowley, 2005).

Canada and the USA:

The entry of large numbers of females into the paid workforce has been one of the dominant social trends in Canada over the last half century (Thomson and Graham, 2005). The past several decades have witnessed dramatic growth in the share of females who are part of the paid workforce. In 2005, 58% of all females aged 15 and over had jobs, up from 42% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men who were employed in 2006 (68%) was well below the figure recorded in 1976 (73%). As a result of these trends, females accounted for 47% of the employed workforce in 2006, up from 37% in 1976.

The proportion of females employed in traditionally female-dominated occupations, has however slowly declined over the past decade. In 2005, 67 percent of employed females were working in one of these areas, down from 72 percent in 1987. Most of the drop in the proportion of employed females working in traditionally female-dominated jobs since the late 1980's has been accounted for by declines in the share employed in clerical and related administrative jobs. In 2006, 24 percent of all employed females had these types of jobs, compared with 30 percent in 1987 (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

Of the 122 million females age 16 years and over in the U.S., 72 million, or 59.2 percent, were labour force participants—working or looking for work. Females comprised 46.8 percent of the total U.S. labour force and are projected to

account for 46.9 percent of the labour force in 2018. Females are projected to account for 51.2 percent of the increase in total labour force growth between 2008 and 2018 (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

The largest percentage of employed females (40 percent) worked in management, professional, and related occupations; 32 percent worked in sales and office occupations; 21 percent in service occupations; 5 percent in production, transportation, and material moving occupations; and 1 percent in natural resources, construction, and maintenance occupations (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

The largest percentage of employed Asian, white, and black females (47, 41, and 34 percent, respectively) worked in management, professional, and related occupations. For Hispanic females, it was sales and office occupations—32 percent (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

In summary, it is clear that despite the progress made in many regions, far fewer females participate in labour markets than males (Thomson and Graham, 2005). In developed economies, part of the gender gaps in participation and employment can be attributed to the fact that some females freely choose to stay at home and can afford not to enter the labour market. Yet in some developing regions of the world, remaining outside of the labour force is not a choice for the majority of females but an obligation; it is likely that females would opt to work in these regions if it became socially acceptable to do so. This of course does not mean that these females remain at home doing nothing; most are engaged in household activities and caring for the family. As most female household work continues to be classified as non-economic activity, the females who are thus occupied are classified as outside of the labour force (Valerio, 2009).

While it may not be not correct to assume that all females want employment, it is safe to say that females want to be given the same freedom as men to choose to work and to earn a salary if they want to (Fels, 2004).

2.5 The Masculine South African Organisation

Thomson and Graham (2005) state that the fact that the architects of almost all companies were males, leads to the tacit assumption that corporate cultures created by men must be the only possible culture. Some have suggested that the reason men fare better in companies than females is that companies are the creatures of males; the salt of company life is soaked in testosterone, because the hierarchical organisation is in itself a male thing.

Thomson and Graham (2005) assert that climbing hierarchies is a male pursuit. Ridley (2003) argues that, since the bane of all organisations is that they reward ambition, rather than ability, males will set the dominant culture of hierarchy.

In a 1995 review of contemporary research on females in management, Mann (1995) claimed that all organisations embody a male managerial culture, because when both organisations and management systems were first formed, only males were in the workforce. Because it is a culture rather than a formal visible structure, that is biasing power, it becomes more difficult to change.

Prime (1999) conducted a study contextualising the difficulties facing knowledge managers (as well as other managers) in South Africa. Prime (1999) identifies three approaches to management in the South African work environment:

1. Eurocentric approach: The traditional dominant Western style of management that is consistent with Western value systems based on individualism, self-centredness, competition, exclusivitism and instrumentalism.
2. Afrocentric approach: Founded on African home base and inclusivist “Ubuntu” (the people) based value system that propagates humanism, communalism, supportiveness and solidarity with the community.
3. Synergistic inspirational approach : A dualistic approach that embraces and consciously integrates traditional African management practices, values and philosophies with Western management techniques.

According to Prime (1999), the style of management in South Africa companies is dominantly Eurocentric: autocratic (man-in-charge), hierarchical and authoritarian (disciplinary procedures), and individualistic (competition oriented).

Ochollo (2002) describes three types of culture and states that South Africa has managed to progress to the non-discriminatory culture but not yet that of multi-culturalism:

a. Mono-culture: Implicit or explicit exclusion of socially discriminated populations
b. Non-discriminatory: Where there is a desire to eliminate the majorities unfair advantage - however dominant culture is not changed, it merely ensures that the corporate culture is not hostile towards new members
c. Multi-cultural: Reflects the contributions and interests of the diverse work populations. Commits to the eradication of all forms of social discriminations

Thomas and Bendixen's (2000) study supports much of Prime's and Ochollo's research. They also found that management structures are still dominated by white males.

As a result of this culture, females are often excluded from informal networking. It's not deliberate. It's unusual to invite females to go to the cigar bar, the golf game, the sports event. It's part of the male culture, but a lot of females are excluded, either because it's not of interest to them or it's assumed it isn't (Coyne, 2007). This again highlights the male culture of the South African organisation.

Thomas and Bendixen (2000) make a valuable prediction that the challenge facing South Africa today is for managers to harness the richness of the many groups so as to enhance productivity and facilitate global competitiveness. This demands an understanding of people's values and how they impact on global competitiveness. Only then can South Africa be considered as truly multicultural rather than non-discriminatory as described by Ochollo (2002).

Whether one favours the Thomson and Graham (2005), Mann (1995), Prime (1999) or Ochollo (2002) explanation, all seem to agree that the problem females have working in the modern company is that it is still a dominantly male institution.

Society has never excluded females from breadwinning roles, but only from economical roles that are profitable and highly regarded; Men do not bar females from taking part in politics, but only hamper their efforts to participate in power (Fels, 2004).

2.6 Personality Factors and Leadership Styles

Valerio (2009) asserts that general intelligence is an attribute that enhances job performance and occupational alignment in general. However, intelligence alone does not account for the success of leaders. Certain personality factors improve the chances for leadership of an individual.

Researchers have traditionally organised personality attributes into five traits (John and Strivastava, 1999) known as the “Big Five”. These can be summarised as follows (Valerio, 2009):

1 Openness to Experience: divergent thinking, flexibility, creativity, and resourcefulness
2 Conscientiousness: strong work ethic, dependability, and self discipline
3 Extroversion: assertiveness, optimism, and sociability
4 Agreeableness: trusting, altruistic, caring, and gentle qualities
5 Neuroticism: showing emotional distress and negative emotions such as fear and anger

Valerio (2009) states that people who demonstrate conscientiousness and extroversion are more likely to emerge as leaders. Effective leaders also show greater openness to experience, creativity and resourcefulness, and can imagine the future of the organisation. Agreeableness and neuroticism are less important than the other personality traits in understanding leadership (Valerio, 2009).

Leaders are often extroverts tending to be optimistic, likely inspiring confidence and optimism in their followers (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002). Successful leaders find ways of interacting with others, have large networks, build teams easily and are able to motivate others.

Judge, Bono, et al (2002) also state that a leader must be open to new experiences, take risks and be creative in uncertain situations in the workplace.

What does this research show about the difference between males and females on these leadership qualities? Males and females differ little in general intelligence and in leadership abilities (Judge, Bono, et al, 2002). Of the Big Five Traits that are related to leadership – Extroversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness – males and females exhibit an overall gender balance.

Extroversion exists at approximately the same level in males and females, although some differences are seen in some of the components of extroversion. It is said to consist of the following components: warmth, positive emotions, gregariousness, activity, assertiveness and excitement-seeking. Females show greater warmth, sociability, and positive emotions than males, and males demonstrate more assertiveness and excitement-seeking than females (Eagly and Carli, 2007). Regarding the traits of Openness to Experiences and Conscientiousness, there are also mixed patterns of gender differences in their components.

This would suggest that the pattern of gender differences requires both males and females to attend to their development as leaders. Males and females can equally excel at leadership and seem to have similar personality traits when in leadership positions (Valerio, 2009).

Conversely, results from a large empirical study that investigated race and gender differences in self-reported leadership attributes in South African managers in retail banking show that there are significant differences between males and females (Booysen et al, 2003).

The males self reported profile matches a stereotypical male profile, that of a focus on competition, winning, performance, domination, control and directive leadership (Booysen et al, 2003).

Booysen et al (2003) classify this as ‘leader as master’ paradigm. Prime (1999) uses the term ‘Eurocentric culture’ to describe the same phenomenon of individualism, self-centredness, competition, exclusivitism and instrumentalism.

The female manager’s profile matches a stereotypical female leadership style, that of, follower leader commitment and a focus on relationships which would appear to be more interactional and transformational. Leadership values associated with female leadership include: collaboration, participation, empathy, support, empowerment, intuition, and more subtle forms of control (Booysen et al, 2003).

It would seem that whilst the traditional ‘Big Five’ personality traits remain the same across the two genders, the leadership values differ between males and females. It might be that the stereotypical values associated with males and females play a role in determining the vales that they report for themselves in their leadership styles.

The literature and research on the topic begs the question: Are the personality characteristics similar in both groups because a) the male dominant culture in an organisation has led the females to assume, whether consciously or unconsciously, more masculine personality traits to succeed in her workplace or b) the two genders are similar in terms of personality traits? The literature seems divided on this topic with no focus on personality traits being influenced by male dominated work cultures.

Ethics as the 6th factor

In addition to the “Big Five” personality traits, another quality of leadership is ethics (Valerio, 2009). Ethical violations in organisations in recent years have resulted in major losses to shareholders, employees and the South African public in general. However, as Eagly and Carli (2007) point out, the research shows some gender differences in ethics and morality. Among the whistle

blowers who have exposed recent major ethical violations in organisations, females were prevalent.

Females, more than males, disapprove of unethical business practices such as lying, deceitful negotiations, bribery and use of insider information (Valerio, 2009). Every new breach of ethics that becomes public knowledge arouses concern about morals in business.

Thomson and Graham (2005) seem to agree with Valerio (2009) and assert that boards that include females tend to reach better decisions on tax and other ethical issues because females have a better sense of what's right in a particular set of circumstances because they are more interested in ethical and corporate social responsibility.

Leadership Styles

Leadership styles are a function of personality and values. Spreier, Fontaine, and Malloy (1996) have identified 6 different styles of leadership that leaders use to motivate, reward, direct and develop others. Outstanding leaders, both male and female, tend to demonstrate all six styles according to: the task at hand, the situation and the people in the team.

The six styles according to Spreier et al (1996) are:

a. Directive: This is the autocratic style entailing command and control behaviour
b. Visionary: Goals are made clear and vision is explained to all. Employees commitment increases through an energized team
c. Affiliative: Leaders emphasise the maintaining of relationships between and with employees and their emotional needs over the job
d. Participative: Formerly known as democratic, style is collaborative and consensus seeking whilst fostering teamwork and participation in others
e. Pacesetting: This involves leading by example and personal heroics
f. Coaching: Leaders use this style when they are concerned with the long term professional development of their employees

Researchers have found that there is a tendency for females to adopt a more democratic (participative) style and for males to adopt a more autocratic (directive) style (Spreier et al, 2006). Spreier et al (1996) then suggest that male leaders, though freer to be more directive and autocratic, may find this style increasingly less appropriate in today's more team based and less hierarchical organisation. What is important is that this will always depend on the country and the organisational culture of that country.

In the past twenty years, there has been a shift in managerial styles away from command and control types of leadership toward one marked by influence and collaboration (Eagly and Carli, 2007). What this has emphasised is that effective leaders inspire and motivate followers and nurture their development as individual contributors to the organisation. Transformational leadership incorporates some of the aspects of Spreier et al's (1996) leadership styles of participation, coaching and visionary leadership.

Transformational Leadership involves establishing oneself as a leader by communicating the common goals for the future and then coaching and mentoring followers to contribute more effectively. Transactional Leadership involves managing in a more conventional way by monitoring employees, administering rewards, for performance and taking action against non-performers (Fels, 2004).

How do male and female leaders compare on these two styles? Valerio (2009) asserts that females are more likely to be transformational in their leadership than the male leaders. Female leaders demonstrate more transformational leadership, especially for those behaviours that communicate the organisations goals, and develop and mentor followers. These closely resemble the participative, visionary and coaching leadership styles as discussed by Spreier et al (1996).

In contrast, male leaders were more transactional than female leaders in 'management by exception', that is, attending to followers mistakes and waiting until problems become severe before intervening. Males, more than females, tend to avoid problem solving until the problems become more acute (Valerio,

2009). Valerio (2009) goes on to assert that females make excellent leaders because of their likeliness to blend participative and democratic behaviour into their repertoire.

In South Africa, where the culture has been identified as being Eurocentric (Prime, 1999) and Non-discriminatory (Ochollo, 2002) as opposed to Multi-Cultural, Afrocentric and Transformational, the Transactional leadership style holds the majority thereby entrenching the position of the male leader and ensuring the continuation of this male dominant culture.

To acknowledge that females bring different and valuable qualities to boards and executive committees is one thing, to accept that these qualities add up to a distinctive style of leadership, that may in some ways and in some situations be more value creating than male leadership is quite another (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

Valerio (2009) asserts that all leadership research has been the study of males, by males and has therefore failed to acknowledge the existence, let alone recognise the value of the female style of leadership. Through its influence on such assessment processes such as selection, promotion and performance measurement, the ‘received wisdom’ of leadership research stands guard at the gateway to high office in most organisations, applying it’s largely unacknowledged male bias to all new comers.

2.7 Gender Stereotypes

Stereotypes are built around characteristics of members of groups who perform in typical roles (Valerio, 2009). Two themes, agency and connection/communication, identified by Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) have relevance in understanding stereotypes directed at females. This is of importance when considering that females work in a male dominant agentic work culture or Eurocentric Transactional model.

Connection/Communion refers to our need to be close to others, to remain connected to family, friends, and colleagues. It includes behaviours such as

cooperation and taking care of others. People often associate females with the domestic role involving child rearing and maintaining harmony in the home. Expectations for females are that they will maintain relationships with others and be helpful and nurturing (Valerio, 2009).

Agency refers to acting assertively on one's own on behalf, self-sufficiently and independently from others (Valerio, 2009). The contrasting stereotype for males is performance in their employment role as authority figures, leaders and 'breadwinners'. Expectations for males are that they will be assertive, aggressive, self-reliant and tough. It includes behaviours such as self-promotion, autonomy, and questioning ideas that do not meet needs.

Connection/Communion has been associated with qualities considered to be feminine, while Agency has been associated with masculinity.

In the "think manager – think male" mentality, also known as the Eurocentric mentality (Prime, 1999), leaders are viewed as possessing more agentic or masculine attributes than communal females ones. This has reference to the South African corporate environment where Prime (1999) notes a Eurocentric Leadership style where agentic behaviour is the dominant style.

Males view managerial skill as more characteristic of males than of females. As 'atypical leaders' females find themselves at a crossroads with contradictory demands (Ruderman and Ohlott, 2002).

When females adopt more agentic behaviours, they are seen as 'aggressive', but on the other hand if females adopt more communal behaviour, they are seen as too soft and 'not tough enough' (Prime, 1999).

The double bind requires females to avoid autocratic and directive behaviour and to demonstrate communal transformational behaviour. But when females act in ways that are consistent with the feminine stereotype, they can be seen as 'too nice' (Ruderman and Ohlott 2002).

Stereotypes and the African population:

Byrnes (1996) states that most ethnic groups in South Africa have long-standing beliefs concerning gender roles, and most are based on the premise that females are less important, or less deserving of power, than what the men are. Most African traditional social organizations are male centred and male dominated.

In some rural areas of South Africa, wives walk a few paces behind their husbands in keeping with traditional practices. Afrikaner religious beliefs also include a strong emphasis on the biblically based notion that females' contributions to society should normally be approved by men (Byrnes, 1996)

This seems to strongly reflect the Eurocentric, male dominated paradigm in which females find themselves in corporate South Africa. The literature seems to conclude that females are at a crossroads: it is not acceptable for them to be completely communal and transformational but neither it is acceptable to be too agentic and autocratic either in the male dominated culture (Valerio, 2009).

2.7.1 ***Gender stereotypes and measurement:***

The definition of femininity is clearly spelled out in psychological studies of gender. The most famous and widely used in psychological measures of femininity (and masculinity and androgyny) is an instrument called the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) developed in 1974 by Dr Sandra Bem (Bem, 1974). The BSRI has been used in well over a hundred studies (Fels, 2004).

The BSRI is composed of sixty descriptive adjectives on which subjects rate themselves: twenty masculine traits, twenty feminine traits and twenty neutral items.

Here are the twenty traits that define femininity in the BSRI (Bem, 1974): *yielding, loyal, cheerful, compassionate, shy, sympathetic, affectionate, sensitive to the needs of others, flatterable, understanding, eager to soothe hurt feelings, soft spoken, warm, tender, gullible, childlike, does not use harsh language, loves children, gentle.*

Masculinity, by contrast, is defined neither by relationships nor by providing for others. In fact, it is defined by the opposite (Fels, 2004). The BSRI adjectives that describe masculinity are: *self-reliant, strong personality, forceful, independent, analytical, defends ones beliefs, athletic, assertive, has leadership abilities, willing to take risks, makes decisions easily, self-sufficient, dominant, willing to take a stand, aggressive, acts as a leader, individualists, competitive and ambitious.*

The 'other' appears in these adjectives only as someone against whom the male must assert himself (Bem, 1974).

A close analysis of these seemingly harmless adjectives is revealing: females are described as socially reclusive, responsive to the needs of others feelings and undemanding about getting their own needs for affirmation met (Fels, 2004).

Two basic tenets of femininity emerge in the analysis of the BSRI (Fels, 2004):

The first is that femininity cannot exist in the setting of a relationship. By definition one can be yielding, affectionate, or sensitive only in relation to someone else.

The second tenet that emerges is that females must be providing something for the other person in the relationship, be that person a lover, a child, a sick parent, a husband or even a boss. Giving is the chief activity that defines femininity.

The question of how to resolve the inevitable conflicts between the two sets of attributes remains central for most females. What happens when a husband wants to move overseas to advance his career even if it disrupts or derails the wife's goals? Should the wife be yielding, loyal and cheerful – '"feminine traits" – or should she be independent, and forceful – "masculine traits"?

The mandates of femininity make it clear that certain occupations are more hospitable to females and more socially acceptable (Fels, 2004). There is little pressure if the job is totally non-competitive (with men), caretaking, low in

recognition, and therefore “feminine”. At the other extreme are professions that include the open pursuit of personal satisfaction, high recognition, and competition with males (Bem, 1993a). A business career within a corporation is hard to frame as a care taking profession; it involves monetary rewards, competition with males and public recognition (Fels. 2004). It has been said that the business community has been famously hostile to females (Valerio, 2009).

De Vita (1995) states that there have been no attempts to replicate Bem’s original construction of the BSRI, however, several studies have asked respondents to rate the 60 items contained in the instrument for their desirability for one gender over the other.

De Vita (1995) subsequently went on to replicate the BSRI in 1995 on British Columbia Students. Her findings supported the generalisability of the BSRI to her sample at the university in Northern America, Canada in that the 20 feminine and 20 masculine characteristics remained statistically significant as stereotypes per gender.

2.7.2 ***The development of the Bem Sex Role Inventory:***

The 1970’s heralded a new concept in masculinity and femininity research: the idea that healthy females and males could possess similar characteristics (Hoffman and Borders, 2001).

Androgyny emerged as a paradigm for interpreting similarities and differences between individuals according to the degree to which they described themselves in terms of personality characteristics traditionally associated with males and those associated with females (Fels, 2004)

Although the term androgyny was not new, having its roots in classical mythology and literature (andro = male, gyne = female), the 1970s marked a renaissance of the word's popularity as a means to represent a combination of stereotypically "feminine" and "masculine" personality traits (Bem, 1993b)

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) was designed to facilitate empirical research on psychological androgyny. Since its development in 1974, the BSRI

has been widely used.

The 60 traits in the BSRI were originally chosen from two hundred personality characteristics by one hundred male and female undergraduate students at Stanford University in the 1970's. The students were asked to rank the desirability of these traits for men and females on a Likert scale in American society (Fels, 2004).

Gender schema theory:

In the past, researchers tended to focus either on the conceptual framework for androgyny measures in general, rather than for the BSRI specifically, or on particular methodological issues, sometimes discussed specifically in relation to the BSRI and other times examined in the broader context of androgyny literature. An exception is Taylor and Hall's (1982) critique, which identified several challenges with the instrument early on.

The BSRI differed from earlier instruments in that its developer, Sandra Bem, challenged the assumption of bipolarity and theorized that the constructs of masculinity and femininity are conceptually and empirically distinct (Hoffman and Borders, 2001). The construction of the BSRI included a separate Masculine scale and a separate Feminine scale, which Bem (1974) defined in terms of culturally desirable traits for males and females, respectively. She argued that an individual could possess a number of traits from each scale and that one could demonstrate varying degrees of such traits in response to different situations (Bem, 1974).

Bem (1976) challenged that the BSRI is based on a theory about both the cognitive processing and the motivational dynamics of sex-typed and androgynous individuals. These concepts, briefly referred to in the test manual (Bem, 1981), provided the basis for the development of Bem's gender schema theory.

The main principle of gender schema theory is that sex-typing is derived, in part, from a readiness on the part of the individual to encode and to organize information, including information about the self, in terms of the cultural

definitions of maleness and femaleness that constitute the society's gender schema (Bem, 1981).

According to Bem (1995b), a sex-typed individual is someone whose self-concept incorporates prevailing cultural definitions of masculinity and femininity.

Bem's instrument was the first test specifically designed to provide independent measures of an individual's masculinity and femininity (Major, Carnevale, and Deaux, 1981). Bem's distinct purpose was to assess the extent to which the culture's definitions of desirable female and male attributes are reflected in an individual's self-description (Bem, 1979). Thus, she defined masculinity and femininity in terms of sex-linked social desirability.

The BSRI consists of 60 personality characteristics on which respondents are asked to rate themselves on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always true). Twenty of the characteristics are stereotypically feminine, 20 are stereotypically masculine, and 20 are considered filler items by virtue of their gender neutrality (e.g., truthful, conscientious, conceited). The 20 neutral items were used to constitute a measure of Social Desirability in response. Unlike the feminine items and the masculine items, all of which were identified as socially desirable for their respective sex, 10 of the gender-neutral items were identified as desirable for both sexes (e.g., adaptable, sincere) and the other 10 as undesirable for both sexes (e.g., inefficient, jealous).

To fully understand this instrument, there needs to be an understanding of the evolution of its scoring procedures. When the BSRI was first published in 1974, scoring and interpretation were such that if an individual's Femininity raw score exceeded the Masculinity raw score at a statistically significant level, the respondent would be classified as "feminine"; if the reverse was true, the individual would be classified as "masculine"; and if the difference was small and not statistically significant, that person would be classified as "androgynous." (Bem, 1974)

Critics pointed out that this process did not differentiate between those who scored low on both scales and those who scored high on both scales. To

correct this deficiency, Bem (1979) proposed a modification in scoring that resulted in her current procedure of using a median-split to form four distinct groups: feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated. A difference score (between Femininity and Masculinity) is determined on the basis of standardized T- scores. The median split classification system allows the respondent to ascertain whether he or she rates high on both dimensions (Masculinity and Femininity), thus classified as androgynous; low on both dimensions (undifferentiated); or high on one dimension but low on the other (sex-typed as either masculine or feminine if the high-scoring dimension corresponds to the person's sex, or cross-sex-typed if the low-scoring dimension corresponds to their sex).

A less popular scoring method, but one also presented in the manual (Bem, 1981), is the hybrid method, which differs from the median-split method in that it uses both the median split and the difference between an individual's Femininity and Masculinity scores as bases for classification. According to Bem (198l), both methods appear to be perfectly adequate for research, but the Median-Split method is simpler to execute and explain. The comparative simplicity of the median-split method more than likely accounts for its overwhelming preference among researchers.

As Bem’s theories about gender and behaviour evolved, Bem re-evaluated the concept of psychological androgyny (Bem, 1995a). Instead of promising liberation from the cultural stereotypes for people of their sex, she came to see it as suggesting that individuals actually incorporate both sets of cultural stereotypes. She also felt that the concept of psychological androgyny reinforced the idea that gender roles were innate and obscured the true basis of gender liberation: the idea of not using gender as an organizing category beyond the description of genitalia (Bem, 1995a). Gender Schema theory attempts to explain how individuals come to use gender as an organizing category in all aspects of life. It is based on the combination of aspects of the social learning theory and the cognitive-development theory of sex role acquisition.

Social learning theory, according to Bem (1995a), says that children learn

gender roles by being rewarded for some behaviour, punished for other behaviour, and by watching others perform gender (modelling). Although Bem (1995a) agrees that gender roles are learned, she believes that children are not only passively receiving the information about gender roles, but are then actively using that information to organize and comprehend the larger world.

“If there is a moral to the concept of psychological androgyny, it is that behaviour should have no gender. But there is an irony here, for the concept of androgyny contains an inner contradiction and hence the seeds of its own destruction. Thus, as the etymology of the word implies, the concept of androgyny necessarily presupposes that the concepts of femininity and masculinity themselves have distinct and substantive content. But to the extent that the androgynous message is absorbed by the culture, the concepts of femininity and masculinity will cease to have such content and the distinction to which they refer will blur into invisibility. Thus, when androgyny becomes a reality, the concept of androgyny will have been transcended” (Bem, 1979: pp. 1053)

2.7.3 ***The appropriateness of BSRI today:***

The question of how men and females view the appropriate roles for either gender has generated a great deal of discussion among social scientists (Konrad and Harris, 2002). Research has shown that females around the world are more liberal than males in their expectations of gender roles (Bem, 1995a). Although males perceptions of gender roles lag behind females’, a number of studies have indicated that males views became more liberal between the 1970s and 1990s (Bem, 1998).

Research has consistently shown that males hold more traditional views of gender roles than females do. At least two reasons exist for this difference. First, masculine roles are associated with greater power than feminine roles (Pennell & Ogilvie, 1995). For example, fulfilling the traditional masculine role of provider by earning more money is associated with greater power within the family and in decision-making regarding the division of household labour. In addition, those individuals who show masculine traits generally receive more

respect from others (Pennel and Ogilvie, 1995). As females take on masculine roles, the balance of power shifts away from males, and it is typical for any group to resist erosion of its power base.

A second reason why females hold more liberal views of gender roles may be because females activities have changed more dramatically in the last century than males have, as discussed in the increasing female labour force. One of the reasons for this shift has been the decline of the notion that females would work only until they were married (Konrad and Harris, 2002)

Konrad and Harris (2002) go on to assert that because traditional views of gender roles support males power position in the home and because males' roles have not changed as much as females', we expect males to hold somewhat more traditional views of the ideal male and female. Because females may desire to attain more power in the home and because females' changing experiences have changed the demands placed on them by society, we expect females to hold somewhat more liberal gender role views than males (Fels, 2004)

From the research, one could conclude that the BSRI has a sound theoretical base in gender schema theory but might require adjustment to the feminine and masculine traits based on the context and year in which it is being used as the culture and the progressiveness of opinion will impact the socially desirable traits (Hoffman and Borders, 2001).

In summary, despite evidence that current gender role perceptions are more liberal, more recent studies have found that complete equality in perceptions has not been attained and that young people still view females and males in stereotypical ways (Allen and Roberto, 2009).

Proposition 1

The BSRI's theoretical underpinnings and rationale can be used to develop an instrument to measure gender stereotypes in the South African audit industry thus signifying the generalisability of the BSRI.

Proposition 2

The use of the BSRI tool would be able to highlight that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

2.8 Conclusion of Literature Review

The accomplishments of some females and the underachievement of others is a complex issue dependent upon many factors, including personal choices, decisions (Reis, 2002), external barriers, and the masculine culture of the South African workplace (Booysen et al, 2003).

South Africa's current social structure virtually eliminates the possibility that the majority of females who marry and have children can achieve the same career success as their male counterparts (Coyne, 2007). As highlighted, according to both Prime (1999) and Thomas and Bendixen (2002), the style of management in South Africa companies is dominantly Eurocentric: autocratic (man-in-charge), hierarchical and authoritarian (disciplinary procedures), and individualistic (competition oriented).

While our society has a critical need for those who excel in traditional female careers, such as teaching and nursing, decisions to pursue these careers should be considered by those who have only been exposed to a full range of options. Females should explore careers, further education, and plan and pursue professional opportunities that will challenge their intellect, as well as fit into their personal plans for the future (Booysen et al, 2003).

Families, schools, and businesses need to offer females across their life span opportunities enabling them to continue examining and pursuing personal choices. Females should learn to assess and determine whether they are finding the time needed for their own talent development (Valerio, 2009).

The discussion of the personality issues and personal choices facing females should be encouraged. Personality development is intricate and complex. What one female regards as an impossible obstacle may be regarded as an intriguing challenge by another (Fels, 2004). How the same obstacles differentially affect females provides the fascination of researching their accomplishments.

Resilience, rebellion, multipotentiality, different cycles of creativity, and extremely high achievement in the face of obstacles, such as poverty and complete absence of support characterise many of the females in SA (Booysen et al, 2003). Can this type of persistence and determination be learned or is it the result of innate personality traits? Many females developed these characteristics throughout their lives, and it is precisely this act of development that creates their success - an active, evolutionary success learned throughout their life span (Valerio, 2009).

The style of management in South African companies is dominantly Eurocentric: autocratic (man-in-charge), hierarchical and authoritarian (disciplinary procedures), and individualistic (competition oriented).

Ochollo (2002) describes three types of culture and states that South Africa seems to be operating in the non-discriminatory: Where there is a desire to eliminate the majorities (i.e. white male) unfair advantage - however dominant culture is not changed, it merely ensures that the corporate culture is not hostile towards new members (like females).

Thomas and Bendixen (2000) make a valuable prediction that the challenge facing South Africa today is for managers to harness the richness of the many groups so as to enhance productivity and facilitate global competitiveness. This demands an understanding of people's values and how they impact on global competitiveness. Only then can South Africa be considered as truly multicultural rather than non-discriminatory as described by Ochollo (2002).

The question of how males and females view the appropriate roles for either gender has generated a great deal of discussion among social scientists

(Konrad and Harris, 2002). Research has shown that females around the world are more liberal than men in their expectations of gender roles. Although men's perceptions of gender roles lag behind females', a number of studies have indicated that men's views became more liberal between the 1970s and 1980's. Despite evidence that current gender role perceptions are more liberal, more recent studies have found that complete equality in perceptions has not been attained and that young people still view females and males in stereotypical ways.

From the literature, one could conclude that the BSRI tool available for measuring gender stereotypical personality traits has a sound theoretical base in gender schema theory but might require adjustment to the feminine and masculine traits based on the context and year in which it is being used as the culture and the progressiveness of opinion will impact the traits used (Hoffmann and Borders, 2001).

Healthy functioning in contemporary society, according to Bem (1995a), required both psychological traits that were considered masculine and those that were considered feminine. She argues that it is tragic for society to inhibit the development of half of the necessary psychological traits in each individual, and that an individual's overreliance on either stereotypically masculine or feminine traits could be dangerous to the individual and to society. Therefore, the equal combination of these traits, psychological androgyny, should be predictive of the best psychological adjustment and flexibility (Bem, 1995a)

After all the statistics and research are removed, one truth persists: Females are just as capable as men. Great ideas have no gender, race, ethnic background or age. Females may have to work a little harder to reach the top, but it can and does happen (Valerio, 2009).

"Even when the path is nominally open – when there is nothing to prevent females from becoming a doctor, a lawyer, a civil servant – there are many phantoms and obstacles, as I believe, looming in her way.

To discuss and define them is I think of great value and importance; for thus only can the labour be shared, the difficulties solved"

Virginia Woolf (1929)

Proposition 1

The BSRI's theoretical underpinnings and rationale can be used to develop an instrument to measure gender stereotypes in the South African audit industry thus signifying the generalisability of the BSRI.

Proposition 2

The use of the BSRI tool would be able to highlight that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the methodology that was used in conducting this research.

Firstly, the literature around quantitative research will be discussed, followed by a review of the research design and research instruments to be used. Issues of data collection and analysis, in relation to this study will be provided, followed by a discussion on the validity and reliability of this study.

3.1 Research methodology

This study used a quantitative methodology in order to gather the appropriate data to support the research propositions.

Dyson (1999) states that in the social sciences, quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of quantitative properties and phenomena and their relationships. The objective of quantitative research is to develop and employ mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses pertaining to phenomena. The process of measurement is central to quantitative research because it provides the fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships which is exactly what this research aims to do – i.e. design a quantitative tool.

Quantitative research is used widely in social sciences such as sociology, anthropology, and political science. In the social sciences, the term relates to empirical methods, originating in both philosophical positivism and the history of statistics, which contrasts qualitative research methods (Hunter and Erin, 2008).

It would not have been appropriate to use qualitative methods for this research, as the replication of the BSRI uses t-tests for significance on gender stereotypical traits which lends to quantitative method. Qualitative method would also not have been applicable for the second proposition as the researcher chose to remain with quantitative method so as to be able to compare results.

3.2 Research Design

The data for this research was collected in the form of:

Proposition One: A survey – the researcher replicated the survey research design used in the original construction of the BSRI.

Proposition Two: A survey – the researcher used the BSRI, as above, with a panel of 20 Audit Industry recruiters to ascertain whether the feminine or masculine personality traits identified, as being more significant, are more desirable when promoting people into more senior leadership positions in South African Audit firms.

Ornstein (1998) states the following advantages of using surveys:

It is an efficient way of collecting information from a large number of respondents where very large samples are possible (Hunter and Erin, 2008). Statistical techniques can be used to determine validity, reliability, and statistical significance which formed the basis for the first research proposition.

They are relatively easy to administer which was the case with the survey developed by the researcher as respondents simply clicked on a link and subsequently clicked on the radio button (on a 7 point likert scale) for each of the 60 adjectives.

There is an economy in data collection due to the focus provided by standardized questions (Hunter and Erin, 2008). Only questions of interest to the researcher were asked, recorded, codified, and analyzed.

The survey proved to be:

- Inexpensive to administer
- Produced fast results
- Data creation, manipulation and reporting can be automated and/or easily exported into a format that can be read by PSPP, DAP or other statistical analysis software
- Data sets were created in real time

Ornstein (1998) states the following disadvantages of using surveys:

Surveys will always depend on respondents' motivation, honesty, and ability to respond (Hunter and Erin, 2008). They may not have been motivated to give honest answers; they may not have been motivated to give answers that present themselves in a favourable light especially with regards to the personality traits that they equate with social acceptance in the first proposition.

Although the individuals chosen to participate in the survey for the first proposition were randomly sampled, errors due to non response may exist. People who chose to respond on the survey may be different from those who do not respond, thus biasing the estimates. For example, the surveys conducted by email did not include the responses of people with unlisted email addresses or those who did not want to reply or those who were unfamiliar with the website and how to go about answering an on-line survey.

Survey question answer-choices could also lead to vague data sets because at times they are relative only to a personal abstract notion concerning "strength of choice". The choice "moderately desirable" may have meant different things to different respondents, and to anyone interpreting the data for correlation (Hunter and Erin, 2008).

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 Population

With regards to the first sub problem, the researcher used Deloitte audit population spanning across gender, region, and job grade.

For the second sub problem, the researcher approached Deloitte's internal recruitment team.

3.3.2 Sample and sampling method

Proposition One:

The replication of the BSRI required 100 people (50 female, 50 male). The reason for the large amount of respondents is owing to the fact that the researcher replicated Bem's methodology (Bem, 1974) and Bem used 100 respondents.

The researcher is currently employed with Deloitte in the HR division with access to the audit population. Permission was granted by the Head of HR to undertake research at Deloitte.

The firms' employees were sent a firm wide email with the covering letter and link to the 'survey monkey 'website requesting their response to the survey link.

Proposition Two:

The researcher addressed a panel of 20 experts consisting of the internal recruitment teams within Deloitte who are enlisted to help the firm to fill senior leadership positions.

20 Experts used the tool to rate the desirability of the personality traits when promoting people into senior leadership positions.

3.4 The research instrument

Proposition one:

The survey consisted of 60 personality gender stereotypical traits as identified by Bem to be statistically significant.

Respondents were asked to rate the social desirability of the gender stereotypical adjectives for both males and females in a South African Audit Firm, on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all desirable) to 7 (extremely desirable).

Please see Appendices A for the survey that was used.

Proposition two:

Respondents were asked to rate the desirability of the identified personality traits on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all desirable) to 7 (extremely desirable) when looking to hire/promote an individual into a senior leadership position in a South African audit firm.

3.4 Procedure for data collection

Proposition one:

The email with the BSRI link was sent out to the audit firms on the 7th December 2010 with a requested deadline of 15th December 2010 to submit survey responses.

Proposition two:

The internal recruitment team was telephoned before to request their assistance in participating in the research. They were also then requested to complete the survey within a given time frame of the 3rd of January to the 15th of January 2011.

3.5 Data analysis and interpretation

Proposition one:

Interval scale assumption was used to determine descriptive statistics like mean and standard deviation.

As with Bem's (1974) study, the present study used item-by-item t-tests as the basis for item selection. It was interesting to note that Bem (1974) used the two-tailed rather than the one-tailed test of significance, the two-tailed test considered both tails of the error curve, thus allowing the researcher to determine the level of significance of differences between means in either direction (De Vita, 1995).

The researcher used t-tests to determine statistical significance of gender stereotypical personality traits stated in the survey. Data analysis and interpretation:

i. Data was split into male and female characteristics
ii. Descriptive statistics were then used on every personality trait to gain the mean and standard deviation per female and male characteristic
iii. T- tests were then used per personality trait comparing the female mean to the male mean to test for significance
iv. Only personality traits that were statistically significant were then included in the modified BSRI that was used in the second sub problem

The Independent two-sample t-test was used with alpha level 0.05 and a confidence interval of 95%.

For significance testing, the degrees of freedom for this test was $2n - 2$ where n was the number of participants in each group (i.e. 50) which means degrees of freedom = 98.

It is important to note that the researcher also used normal distribution fitting to verify results obtained through the interval scale assumption. Distribution fitting is the procedure of selecting a statistical distribution that best fits to a data set generated by some random process (Mitchell & Jolley, 2001). This process means that the mean and standard deviation are estimated from the ordinal data – this uses categories and does not assume the data to be interval data.

Proposition two:

The researcher used descriptive statistics to analyse the data from the second sub problem. Data analysis and interpretation: Descriptive statistics were used on every personality trait to gain the mean and standard deviation. Again, interval scale assumption was used to determine the descriptive statistics like mean and standard deviation.

The researcher also made use of normal distribution fitting to analyse the results further.

3.6 Limitations of the study

The lack of qualitative analysis might be a limitation as individual context was not considered in the study owing to the quantitative tools being used.

A potential limitation to this research is the sample size of the panel of experts which only allowed for descriptive statistics where t –tests for significance were not done.

3.7 Validity and reliability

The key traditional concepts in classical test theory are reliability and validity. A reliable measure is measuring something consistently, while a valid measure is measuring what it is supposed to measure. A reliable measure may be consistent without necessarily being valid (Dyson, 1999).

The researcher's goal was to replicate BSRI and subsequently ensure:

i. It measures what it is supposed to i.e. socially desirable gender stereotypical personality traits
ii. It measures these consistently

Both reliability and validity may be assessed conceptually and mathematically. Stability over repeated measures of the same test can be assessed with the Pearson correlation coefficient, and is often called test-retest reliability.

Validity may be assessed by correlating measures with a criterion measure known to be valid. A measure has construct validity if it is related to other variables as required by theory. Content validity is simply a demonstration that the items of a test are drawn from the domain being measured like personality and gender in this case. In this research, test content will be based on a defined set of traits obtained from the theory base and the BSRI tool developed by Sandra Bem (Bem, 1974).

Factor analyses were performed on the masculine, feminine, and neutral items of the BSRI for gender-schematic and gender-aschematic individuals

separately. The analyses revealed bipolar masculinity/femininity factors for the gender-schematic group and two unipolar aschematicity factors for the gender-aschematic group. The results support gender schema theory's claim that the two types of individuals respond differently to the items of the BSRI. Thus, the BSRI is a valid measure for distinguishing gender-schematic from gender-aschematic individuals (Schmitt and Millard, 1988)

3.7.1 External validity

External validity is the validity of generalized (causal) inferences in scientific studies, usually based on experiments as experimental validity (Mitchell & Jolley, 2001)

Inferences about cause-effect relationships based on a specific scientific study are said to possess external validity if they may be generalized from the unique and idiosyncratic settings, procedures and participants to other populations and conditions (Mitchell & Jolley, 2001). Causal inferences said to possess high degrees of external validity can reasonably be expected to apply (a) to the target population of the study and (b) to the universe of other populations.

The most common loss of external validity comes from the fact that experiments using human participants often employ small samples obtained from a single geographic location or with idiosyncratic features. Because of this, one cannot be sure that the conclusions drawn about cause-effect-relationships do actually apply to people in other geographic locations or without these features.

The researcher was interested in the audit industry where idiosyncratic features around gender are of importance to the study. Therefore, external validity would be assumed to be low as this tool was developed and used in a very specific industry. External validity cannot be maximised in this research as it would be inappropriate.

3.7.2 Internal validity

Internal validity is the validity of (causal) inferences in scientific studies, usually based on experiments as experimental validity (Mitchell and Jolley, 2001)

Internal Validity is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationships. Thus, internal validity is only relevant in studies that try to establish a causal relationship. It's not relevant in most observational or descriptive studies (Mitchell and Jolley, 2001).

The researcher tested for internal validity by using t-tests in developing the tool.

3.7.3 Reliability

Reliability is the consistency of measurement, or the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same condition with the same subjects. In short, it is the repeatability of measurement. A measure is considered reliable if a person's score on the same test given twice is similar. Reliability is not measured, it is estimated.

Owing to the nature of this research, true reliability for the tool developed in sub problem one will not be able to be completely accurately estimated.

The BSRI scales were found to have moderate long-term reliability. The BSRI was judged to be as reliable as other paper-and-pencil instruments which attempt to measure similar personality variables and to have adequate reliability for research purposes (Yanico, 1985)

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three described the sample characteristics, and procedures for data collection and statistical analyses for propositions one and two. This chapter presents the results of the analyses for each of the two propositions.

Results will be presented in table and figure format with a paragraph to describe the results.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Proposition One: As the researcher intended to replicate Bem's 1974 study, 100 respondents were required. Bem provided no further detail as to age or ethnicity of respondents.

235 People responded to the survey in the first two days of the link being sent out via email. The researcher subsequently eliminated 135 responses to get to the 100 responses required. The researcher took the first 100 responses obtained in order to not introduce a bias in terms of respondents chosen.

Figure 1 illustrates the age demographics of the sample. Figure 2 illustrates the ethnicity of the sample.

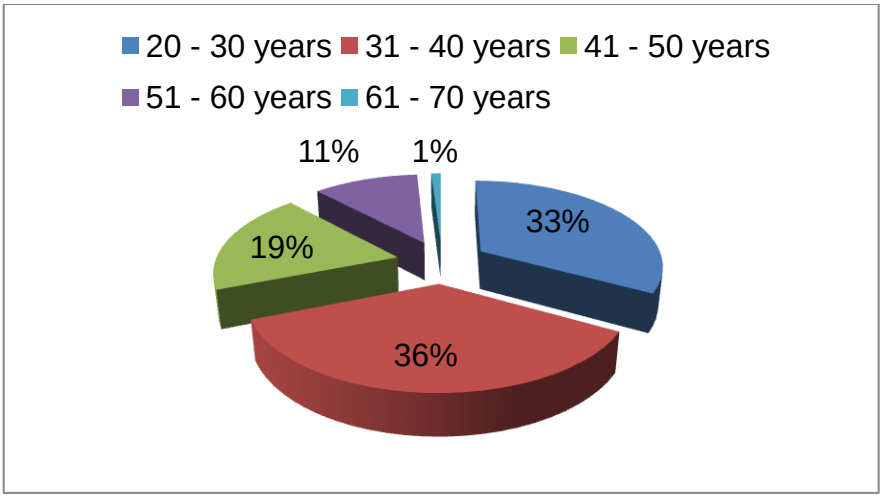


Figure 1: Age of Respondents for proposition one

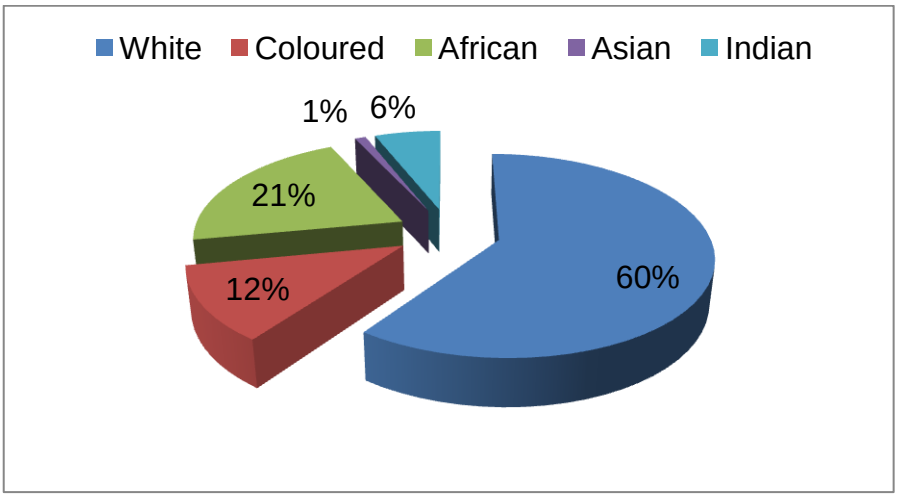


Figure 2: Ethnicity of respondents for proposition one

Proposition Two:

20 recruitment experts participated in the survey. Demographics indicated a 65% female: 35% male ratio with most respondents falling in the 20 – 40 years of age bracket. The ethnicities were split with white people being in the majority of respondents at 60%

Figure 3 illustrates the age demographics of the sample, Figure 4 illustrates the ethnicity of the sample and Figure 5 illustrates the gender split of the sample.

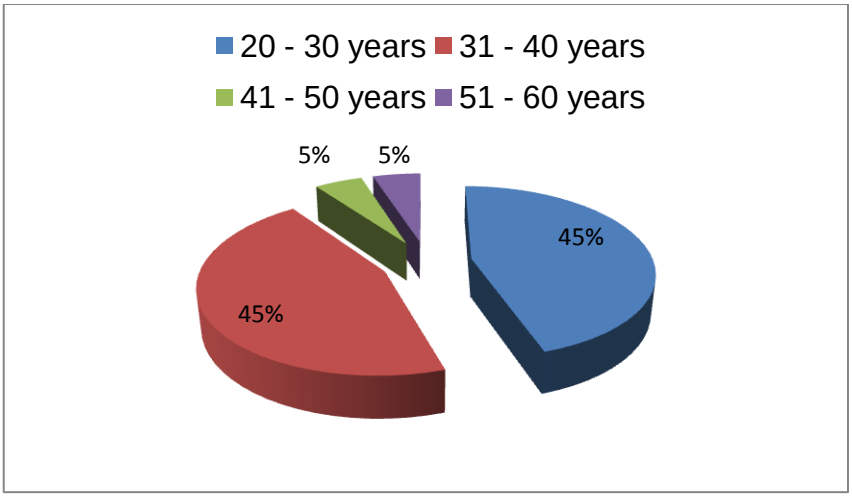


Figure 3: Age of Respondents for proposition two

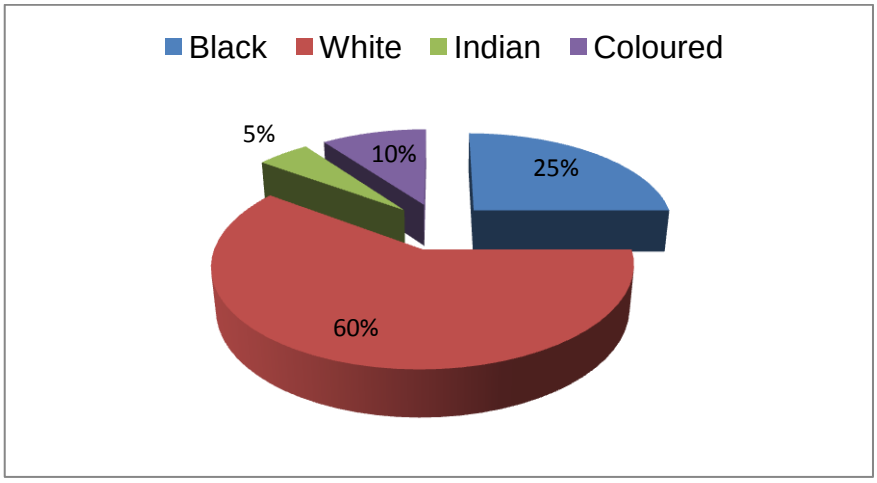


Figure 4: Ethnicity of Respondents for proposition two

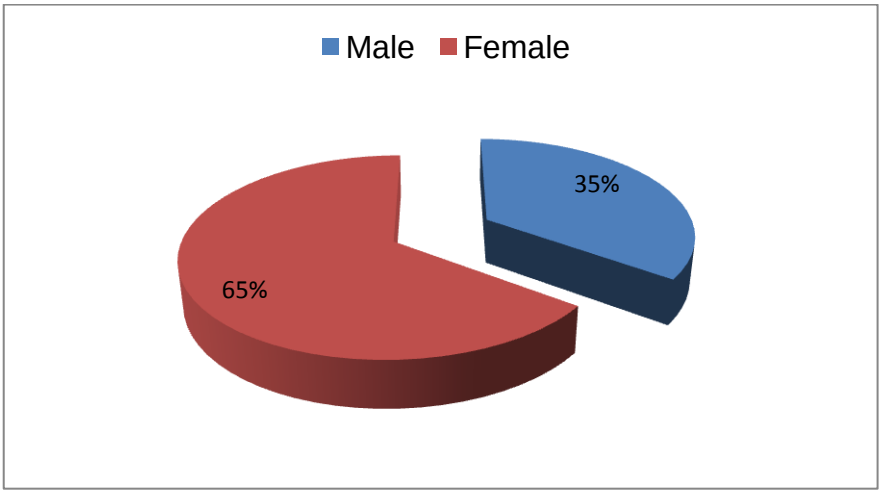


Figure 5: Gender of Respondents for proposition two

4.3 Results pertaining to Proposition One:

The first proposition proposed that the BSRI's theoretical underpinnings and rationale could be used to develop an instrument to measure gender stereotypes in the South African audit industry thus signifying the generalisability of the BSRI.

4.3.1 ***Bem's 1974 findings:***

For comparative purposes Table 1 lists the 20 characteristics deemed more desirable for a male and Table 2 lists the 20 characteristics deemed more desirable for a female as found by Bem in 1974.

In Bem's 1974 study there was no statistical significance between the means of the female and male characteristics for the 10 positive neutral characteristics as well as the 10 negative neutral characteristics thus indicating gender neutrality for those 20 items.

4.3.2 ***De Vita's 1995 findings:***

De Vita (1995) who replicated Bem's 1974 study in 1995 found the BSRI to be replicable in her sample from the University of British Columbia in Canada as all 40 characteristics continued to be statistically significant when comparing means for both female and male characteristics using the independent two-tailed t-tests.

De Vita (1995) found that the following gender neutral positive characteristics were attributed more to females and were not gender neutral for her study: Friendly, Helpful and Conscientious.

Table 1: Characteristics deemed more desirable for a male in Bem's study (Bem, 1974)

#	***Characteristic***	#	***Characteristic***
1	Acts as a leader	11	Has leadership abilities
2	Aggressive	12	Independent
3	Ambitious	13	Makes decisions easily
4	Analytical	14	Masculine
5	Assertive	15	Self reliant
6	Athletic	16	Self sufficient
7	Competitive	17	Strong personality
8	Defends own beliefs	18	Willing to take a stand
9	Dominant	19	Willing to take risks
10	Forceful	20	Individualistic

Table 2: Characteristics deemed more desirable for a female in Bem's study (Bem, 1974)

#	***Characteristic***	#	***Characteristic***
1	Warm	11	Gentle
2	Yielding	12	Gullible
3	Affectionate	13	Loves children
4	Cheerful	14	Loyal
5	Childlike	15	Sensitive to the needs of others
6	Compassionate	16	Shy
7	Does not use harsh language	17	Soft spoken
8	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	18	Sympathetic
9	Feminine	19	Tender
10	Flatterable	20	Understanding

4.3.3 *Current Study Findings using interval scale assumption*

In the current study, the independent two-tailed t-test, signified that all of the 40 characteristics remained statistically significant for both male and female gender stereotypical characteristics as was the case with both Bem (1974) and De Vita (1995).

Table 3 indicates means and standard deviations for all 60 items (including the neutral items). Table 4 lists the t scores per characteristic indicating significance and critical value from two-tailed t-test tables.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations for all 60 characteristics obtained in the current study using interval scale assumption

Characteristic	*Male Mean*	*Std. Dev - male*	*Female Mean*	*Std. Dev female*
Acts as a leader	6.180	0.825	4.380	1.615
Aggressive	3.720	1.796	2.200	1.629
Ambitious	5.860	0.990	4.480	1.752
Analytical	4.980	1.407	4.360	1.575
Assertive	5.620	1.244	4.440	2.091
Athletic	5.240	1.546	4.540	1.631
Competitive	5.400	1.245	4.280	1.773
Defends own beliefs	5.220	1.234	4.440	1.752
Dominant	4.480	1.787	2.580	1.630
Forceful	3.760	1.661	2.540	1.568
Has leadership abilities	5.940	1.077	4.680	1.622
Independent	6.000	1.050	4.500	1.594
Makes decisions easily	5.720	1.089	4.980	1.464
Masculine	5.660	1.334	1.580	1.126
Self reliant	5.700	1.129	4.640	1.758
Self sufficient	6.000	0.904	4.760	1.658
Strong personality	5.520	1.282	3.900	1.714
Willing to take a stand	5.660	1.062	4.560	1.704
Willing to take risks	5.500	1.182	4.300	1.843
Individualistic	5.180	1.173	3.960	1.772
Adaptable	5.680	1.504	5.700	0.863
Conceited	2.660	1.493	2.600	1.784
Conscientious	4.580	1.357	5.660	1.136
Conventional	3.940	1.300	5.260	1.275
Friendly	5.160	1.113	6.040	0.832
Happy	5.000	1.429	5.820	1.101
Helpful	4.880	1.239	6.160	0.889
Inefficient	1.460	0.908	1.400	0.857
Jealous	1.940	0.998	1.500	1.035
Likable	4.760	1.271	5.620	1.260
Moody	1.720	1.144	1.720	1.246
Reliable	6.120	0.918	6.380	0.725
Secretive	2.160	1.149	2.580	1.785
Sincere	5.240	1.364	6.020	0.845

Solemn	2.920	1.322	3.560	1.853
Tactful	4.880	1.288	5.800	1.125
Theatrical	2.520	1.359	3.200	1.948
Truthful	5.620	1.276	6.040	1.261
Unpredictable	2.480	1.344	2.540	1.693
Unsystematic	2.280	1.310	2.260	1.688
Warm	4.400	1.604	5.960	0.989
Yielding	3.600	1.629	4.480	1.741
Affectionate	4.200	1.654	5.880	1.239
Cheerful	4.940	1.168	5.980	0.820
Childlike	2.060	1.252	3.120	1.649
Compassionate	4.340	1.379	6.060	0.935
Does not use harsh language	3.840	1.777	5.300	1.919
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	3.520	1.529	5.640	1.241
Feminine	1.720	1.031	6.380	0.878
Flatterable	3.440	1.445	4.800	1.565
Gentle	3.940	1.646	5.840	1.330
Gullible	1.500	1.015	3.320	2.114
Loves children	4.440	1.763	6.040	1.228
Loyal	5.400	1.245	6.140	0.926
Sensitive to the needs of others	4.520	1.389	6.040	0.832
Shy	1.880	1.223	3.040	1.470
Soft spoken	2.720	1.429	4.340	1.722
Sympathetic	4.260	1.367	5.640	1.306
Tender	3.620	1.550	5.560	1.417
Understanding	5.180	1.240	6.060	0.682

Table 4: T scores per characteristic using interval scale assumption

Bem classification	***Present Study verify Bem's classification?***	***Characteristic***	***t value***	***Critical Value*** *(From 2 tail table)*	***Significant?***
Male	Yes	Acts as a leader	7.018219	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Aggressive	4.432718	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Ambitious	4.848215	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Analytical	2.076104	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Assertive	3.429187	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Athletic	2.202208	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Competitive	3.654783	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Defends own beliefs	2.574441	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Dominant	5.554604	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Forceful	3.777578	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Has leadership abilities	4.576649	1.984	Yes

Male	Yes	Independent	5.557189	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Makes decisions easily	2.868409	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Masculine	16.5222	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Self reliant	3.586425	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Self sufficient	4.642973	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Strong personality	5.352909	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Willing to take a stand	3.873898	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Willing to take risks	3.874631	1.984	Yes
Male	Yes	Individualistic	4.05931	1.984	Yes
Neutral	Yes	Adaptable	-0.08154	1.984	No
Neutral	Yes	Conceited	0.182361	1.984	No
Neutral	No	Conscientious	-4.31613	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Conventional	-5.12638	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Friendly	-4.47743	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Happy	-3.21499	1.984	Yes
Neutral	Yes	Helpful	-5.9339	1.984	Yes
Neutral	Yes	Inefficient	0.339728	1.984	No
Neutral	No	Jealous	2.163656	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Likable	-3.39836	1.984	Yes
Neutral	Yes	Moody	0	1.984	No
Neutral	Yes	Reliable	-1.57154	1.984	No
Neutral	Yes	Secretive	-1.39873	1.984	No
Neutral	No	Sincere	-3.43811	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Solemn	-1.98768	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Tactful	-3.80433	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Theatrical	-2.02423	1.984	Yes
Neutral	Yes	Truthful	-1.65545	1.984	No
Neutral	Yes	Unpredictable	-0.1963	1.984	No
Neutral	Yes	Unsystematic	0.066188	1.984	No
Female	Yes	Warm	-5.85508	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Yielding	-2.61017	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Affectionate	-5.74815	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Cheerful	-5.15289	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Childlike	-3.61973	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Compassionate	-7.29925	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Does not use harsh language	-3.94703	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	-7.61276	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Feminine	-24.3324	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Flatterable	-4.51474	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Gentle	-6.34717	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Gullible	-5.48873	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Loves children	-5.26524	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Loyal	-3.37161	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Sensitive to the needs of others	-6.63963	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Shy	-4.28916	1.984	Yes

Female	Yes	Soft spoken	-5.11976	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Sympathetic	-5.16142	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Tender	-6.53217	1.984	Yes
Female	Yes	Understanding	-4.39552	1.984	Yes

Gender neutral items:

As was the case with De Vita (1995), certain of Bem's (1974) gender neutral characteristics were seen to be more associated with a female or male in the current study.

In the current study seven of the ten gender neutral positive characteristics were deemed more desirable for a female to exhibit: conscientious, friendly, happy, helpful, likeable, sincere and tactful and three of the gender neutral negative characteristics were deemed to be more desirable: conventional, solemn and theatrical.

Only one of Bem's gender neutral negative items was deemed to be more desirable for a male and that was: Jealous.

Table 5 lists the neutral items that were deemed as more desirable for a female and Table 6 lists the neutral items that were deemed as more desirable for a male.

Table 5: Bem's neutral characteristics that were deemed more desirable for a female in the current study (Bem, 1974)

Bem classification	***Present Study verify Bem classification?***	***Characteristic***	***t value***	***Critical Value*** *(From 2 tail table)*	***Significant?***
Neutral	No	Conscientious	-4.31613	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Conventional	-5.12638	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Friendly	-4.47743	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Happy	-3.21499	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Helpful	-5.9339	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Likable	-3.39836	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Sincere	-3.43811	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Solemn	-1.98768	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Tactful	-3.80433	1.984	Yes
Neutral	No	Theatrical	-2.02423	1.984	Yes

Table 6: Bem's neutral characteristics that were deemed more desirable for a male in the current study (Bem, 1974)

Bem classification	*Present Study verify Bem's classification?*	*Characteristic*	*t value*	*Critical Value (From 2 tail table)*	*Significant?*
Neutral	No	Jealous	2.163656	1.984	Yes

4.3.4 *Current Study Findings using distribution fitting approach*

There seems to only be a small difference between the Normal Distribution Fitting approach and the Interval Scale Assumption approach.

Masculine characteristics:

Using the distribution fitting assumption, two of the masculine characteristics in previous studies can be seen to be gender neutral – these include: analytical and athletic. The rest of the masculine characteristics remain statistically significant.

Neutral characteristics:

In using the conventional interval data assumption, we saw that ten of Bem's (1974) gender neutral characteristics were seen to be feminine in the current study. Using the normal distribution fitting assumption, eight of those ten remain feminine but 'theatrical' and 'solemn' fail to reach statistical significance and are classified as neutral according to this methodology. 'Jealous' remains a masculine characteristic using this approach.

Feminine characteristics:

Using distribution fitting approach, all the feminine characteristics still obtained statistical significance in order that we still classify them as being feminine characteristics.

Table 7 indicates means and standard deviations for all 60 items (including the neutral items). Table 8 lists the t scores per characteristic indicating significance and critical value from two-tailed t-test tables. P value is also included to highlight significance of results as a P result of less than 0.05 indicates significance.

Table 7: Means and Standard Deviations using distribution fitting approach

Characteristic	*Male Mean*	*Std. Dev - male*	*Female Mean*	*Std. Dev female*
Acts as a leader	0.7959	0.4904	0.0037	0.7065
Aggressive	-0.2810	0.8573	-1.1914	1.0750
Ambitious	0.6677	0.5801	0.0486	0.7874
Analytical	0.2475	0.6288	-0.0064	0.6615
Assertive	0.5666	0.6393	0.0587	0.9951
Athletic	0.3743	0.7744	0.1103	0.7494
Competitive	0.4032	0.6331	-0.0603	0.7695
Defends own beliefs	0.3564	0.5659	0.0602	0.8118
Dominant	-0.0288	0.8360	-0.8331	0.8620
Forceful	-0.2698	0.7066	-0.8452	0.8076
Has leadership abilities	0.7184	0.5824	0.0804	0.6889
Independent	0.7899	0.6339	0.0639	0.7108
Makes decisions easily	0.5963	0.5850	0.2657	0.6541
Masculine	0.6230	0.7782	-1.6732	0.9680
Self reliant	0.5870	0.5479	0.1247	0.8052
Self sufficient	0.7442	0.4950	0.2165	0.7556
Strong personality	0.5190	0.6198	-0.1784	0.7108
Willing to take a stand	0.4814	0.6333	0.0989	0.7363
Willing to take risks	0.4416	0.6476	-0.0041	0.8326
Individualistic	0.3454	0.5306	-0.1448	0.7878
Adaptable	0.7328	0.8992	0.5595	0.4159
Conceited	-0.7509	0.7061	-0.8449	1.0456
Conscientious	0.0779	0.5567	0.5734	0.5527
Conventional	-0.1390	0.5868	0.3391	0.6400
Friendly	0.3070	0.5120	0.7483	0.4906
Happy	0.2621	0.6320	0.6684	0.5868
Helpful	0.1931	0.5178	0.8716	0.5602
Inefficient	-1.6119	0.7748	-1.7452	0.8344
Jealous	-1.0426	0.4951	-1.7944	1.0546
Likable	0.1320	0.5116	0.5717	0.6888
Moody	-1.3734	0.8586	-1.6064	1.0996
Reliable	0.8534	0.5856	0.9931	0.4690

Secretive	-0.9330	0.6200	-0.8839	1.1015
Sincere	0.3938	0.6876	0.7479	0.4668
Solemn	-0.5269	0.6107	-0.3547	0.8370
Tactful	0.2001	0.5915	0.5940	0.6962
Theatrical	-0.7352	0.6195	-0.5299	0.9741
Truthful	0.5755	0.6588	0.8747	0.8455
Unpredictable	-0.7049	0.6735	-0.9179	0.9238
Unsystematic	-0.8661	0.6625	-1.1209	1.0882
Warm	0.0290	0.6972	0.7432	0.5450
Yielding	-0.3460	0.6897	0.0694	0.7860
Affectionate	-0.0617	0.7069	0.6903	0.7422
Cheerful	0.2233	0.5038	0.7153	0.4375
Childlike	-1.0773	0.7119	-0.5448	0.7308
Compassionate	-0.0307	0.5837	0.8043	0.5732
Does not use harsh language	-0.1979	0.7486	0.5600	1.0788
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	-0.3331	0.6460	0.5166	0.6625
Feminine	-1.2673	0.6787	1.0407	0.6810
Flatterable	-0.3431	0.6339	0.1933	0.7123
Gentle	-0.1816	0.6922	0.6938	0.7558
Gullible	-1.7550	0.9997	-0.4826	1.0577
Loves children	0.0527	0.7925	0.8963	0.8774
Loyal	0.4290	0.6817	0.8610	0.5930
Sensitive to the needs of others	0.0527	0.5720	0.7623	0.4669
Shy	-1.0424	0.7894	-0.5302	0.6348
Soft spoken	-0.6554	0.6753	0.0038	0.7655
Sympathetic	-0.0661	0.5615	0.5475	0.6779
Tender	-0.2885	0.6819	0.5873	0.7911
Understanding	0.3238	0.5890	0.7481	0.3508

Table 8: T scores per characteristics using distribution fitting approach

Bem classification	***Distribution fitting verify?***	***Characteristic***	***Critical Value*** *(From 2 tail table)*	***t-value***	***p-value***
Male	Yes	Acts as a leader	1.984	6.4481	0.0000
Male	Yes	Aggressive	1.984	4.6348	0.0000
Male	Yes	Ambitious	1.984	4.4315	0.0000
Male	No	Analytical	1.984	1.9478	0.0543
Male	Yes	Assertive	1.984	3.0057	0.0034
Male	No	Athletic	1.984	1.7148	0.0895
Male	Yes	Competitive	1.984	3.2561	0.0016
Male	Yes	Defends own beliefs	1.984	2.0950	0.0387
Male	Yes	Dominant	1.984	4.6885	0.0000
Male	Yes	Forceful	1.984	3.7532	0.0003
Male	Yes	Has leadership abilities	1.984	4.9510	0.0000

Male	Yes	Independent	1.984	5.3358	0.0000
Male	Yes	Makes decisions easily	1.984	2.6374	0.0097
Male	Yes	Masculine	1.984	12.9415	0.0000
Male	Yes	Self reliant	1.984	3.3229	0.0013
Male	Yes	Self sufficient	1.984	4.0892	0.0001
Male	Yes	Strong personality	1.984	5.1760	0.0000
Male	Yes	Willing to take a stand	1.984	2.7567	0.0070
Male	Yes	Willing to take risks	1.984	2.9577	0.0039
Male	Yes	Individualistic	1.984	3.6120	0.0005
Neutral	No	Adaptable	1.984	1.2242	0.2238
Neutral	No	Conceited	1.984	0.5216	0.6031
Neutral	Yes	Conscientious	1.984	-4.4209	0.0000
Neutral	Yes	Conventional	1.984	-3.8551	0.0002
Neutral	Yes	Friendly	1.984	-4.3568	0.0000
Neutral	Yes	Happy	1.984	-3.2973	0.0014
Neutral	Yes	Helpful	1.984	-6.2253	0.0000
Neutral	No	Inefficient	1.984	0.8193	0.4146
Neutral	Yes	Jealous	1.984	4.5173	0.0000
Neutral	Yes	Likable	1.984	-3.5872	0.0005
Neutral	No	Moody	1.984	1.1689	0.2453
Neutral	No	Reliable	1.984	-1.3042	0.1952
Neutral	No	Secretive	1.984	-0.2717	0.7864
Neutral	Yes	Sincere	1.984	-2.9821	0.0036
Neutral	No	Solemn	1.984	-1.1635	0.2474
Neutral	Yes	Tactful	1.984	-3.0182	0.0032
Neutral	No	Theatrical	1.984	-1.2449	0.2161
Neutral	No	Truthful	1.984	-1.9538	0.0536
Neutral	No	Unpredictable	1.984	1.3038	0.1954
Neutral	No	Unsystematic	1.984	1.4003	0.1646
Female	Yes	Warm	1.984	-5.6488	0.0000
Female	Yes	Yielding	1.984	-2.7808	0.0065
Female	Yes	Affectionate	1.984	-5.1357	0.0000
Female	Yes	Cheerful	1.984	-5.1608	0.0000
Female	Yes	Childlike	1.984	-3.6531	0.0004
Female	Yes	Compassionate	1.984	-7.1443	0.0000
Female	Yes	Does not use harsh language	1.984	-4.0400	0.0001
Female	Yes	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	1.984	-6.4285	0.0000
Female	Yes	Feminine	1.984	-16.8033	0.0000
Female	Yes	Flatterable	1.984	-3.9381	0.0002
Female	Yes	Gentle	1.984	-5.9791	0.0000
Female	Yes	Gullible	1.984	-6.1198	0.0000
Female	Yes	Loves children	1.984	-4.9942	0.0000
Female	Yes	Loyal	1.984	-3.3472	0.0012
Female	Yes	Sensitive to the needs of others	1.984	-6.7266	0.0000
Female	Yes	Shy	1.984	-3.5399	0.0006
Female	Yes	Soft spoken	1.984	-4.5203	0.0000

Female	Yes	Sympathetic	1.984	-4.8792	0.0000
Female	Yes	Tender	1.984	-5.8697	0.0000
Female	Yes	Understanding	1.984	-4.3322	0.0000

Conclusion:

Conclusion for Proposition 1 is that the BSRI is generalisable to the South African Audit industry as the results obtained mirrored the results obtained by Bem in 1974 in that the 40 items that Bem (1974) found to be statistically significant remained significant in the current study for female and male characteristics using the interval data assumption. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results were very similar.

4.4 Results pertaining to Proposition Two

The second proposition proposed that the BSRI would be able to highlight that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

4.4.1 *Descriptive Statistics*

In the current study the following results were found when looking at descriptive statistics:

Most desirable characteristics for a senior leader:

Of the most desirable 26 characteristics for a senior leader where the mean was above 5: 54% were seen as masculine, 35% feminine and 12% neutral. If we were to look only at the top ten characteristics with the highest mean: 70% of those characteristics were masculine, 0% feminine and 30% neutral.

Least desirable characteristics for a senior leader:

The least desirable characteristics for a senior leader constituted the following in terms of their gender specification: 20.5% masculine, 59% feminine and 20.5% gender neutral negative characteristics.

If we were only to look at the ten least desirable characteristics with the lowest means: 10% masculine, 30% feminine and 60% gender neutral negative characteristics.

Table 9 lists the characteristics in order of desirability for senior leader positions for the 26 most desirable characteristics

Table 9: Most desirable characteristics for a senior leader

Characteristic	***Classification according to Proposition one***	***Mean***
Has leadership abilities	Masculine	6.9
Acts as a leader	Masculine	6.8
Adaptable	Neutral	6.6
Willing to take a stand	Masculine	6.4
Reliable	Neutral	6.3
Ambitious	Masculine	6.2
Willing to take risks	Masculine	6.2
Assertive	Masculine	6.1
Makes decisions easily	Masculine	6
Truthful	Neutral	6
Loyal	Feminine	5.8
Does not use harsh language	Feminine	5.7
Independent	Masculine	5.7
Sincere	Feminine	5.65
Understanding	Feminine	5.6
Strong personality	Masculine	5.55
Analytical	Masculine	5.5
Competitive	Masculine	5.5
Self reliant	Masculine	5.4
Self sufficient	Masculine	5.4
Defends own beliefs	Masculine	5.35
Conscientious	Feminine	5.3
Helpful	Feminine	5.25
Friendly	Feminine	5.2
Sensitive to the needs of others	Feminine	5.2
Happy	Feminine	5.05

Table 10 lists the characteristics in order of desirability for senior leader positions for the 34 least desirable characteristics

Table 10: Least desirable characteristics for a senior leader

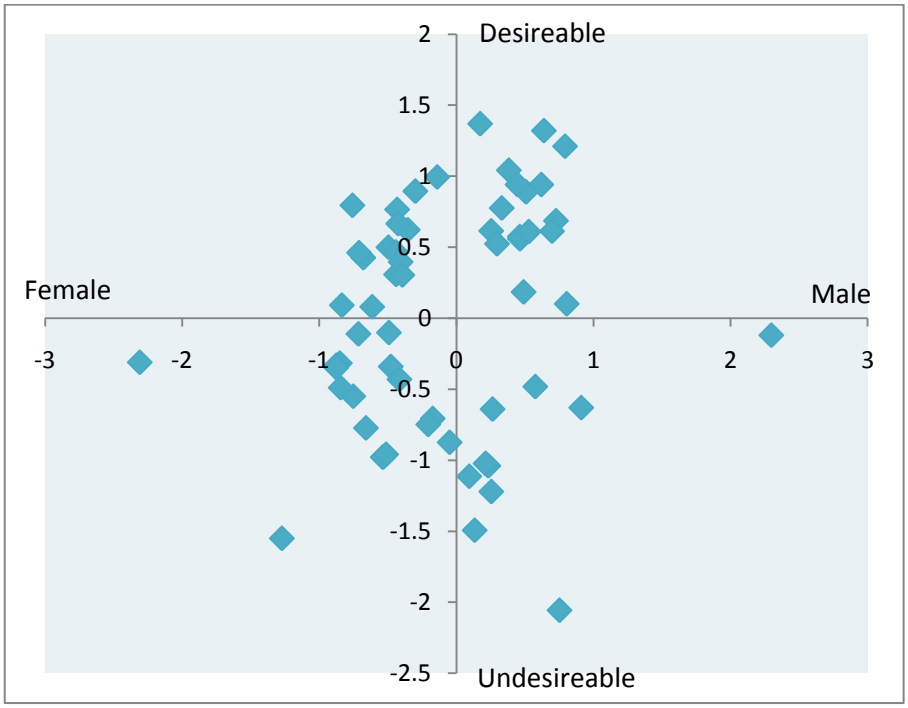
Characteristic	***Classification according to Proposition one***	***Mean***
Tactful	Feminine	4.9
Likable	Feminine	4.85
Individualistic	Masculine	4.55
Dominant	Masculine	4.4
Compassionate	Feminine	4.3
Sympathetic	Feminine	4.25
Cheerful	Feminine	3.8
Warm	Feminine	3.8
Masculine	Masculine	3.75
Feminine	Feminine	3.3
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	Feminine	3
Gentle	Feminine	3
Tender	Feminine	2.85
Forceful	Masculine	2.85
Yielding	Feminine	2.8
Conventional	Feminine	2.75
Loves children	Feminine	2.7
Aggressive	Masculine	2.55
Athletic	Masculine	2.55
Affectionate	Feminine	2.45
Solemn	Feminine	2.2
Theatrical	Feminine	2.1
Soft spoken	Feminine	2
Secretive	Neutral	2
Flatterable	Feminine	1.85
Conceited	Neutral	1.8
Unpredictable	Neutral	1.7
Childlike	Feminine	1.65
Unsystematic	Neutral	1.65
Shy	Feminine	1.6
Inefficient	Neutral	1.45
Jealous	Masculine	1.3
Gullible	Neutral	1.3
Moody	Neutral	1.25

4.4.2 *Distribution fitting analysis*

Using the distribution fit analysis to determine means and standard deviations presents a different picture. Table 11 shows all the characteristics plotted against an axis showing whether they are masculine or feminine and how desirable those traits are for senior leaders.

It can be said there is barely any support for the suggestion that recruitment specialists see masculine traits as being more desirable than feminine traits.

Figure 6: Most desirable characteristics for senior leaders



Conclusion:

The use of the BSRI tool indicated that the stereotypical masculine personality characteristics are not regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

Whilst the descriptive statistics indicate that the top 10 most desirable characteristics do not include any feminine characteristics there is no support to prove that masculine characteristics are more desirable characteristics as there seems to be an equal divide between the characteristics which are most desirable for a senior leader.

4.5 Summary of the results

To summarise, the results of the current study were as follows: all 40 items that Bem found to be significant per gender in 1974 were found to be of statistical significance in the current study however some of Bem's gender neutral items

were deemed to be more desirable in a female or a male in the South African audit industry. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results were very similar.

The use of the BSRI tool highlighted that the stereotypical masculine personality characteristics are not regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

Whilst the descriptive statistics indicate that the top 10 most desirable characteristics do not include any feminine characteristics there is no support to prove that masculine characteristics are more desirable characteristics as there seems to be an equal divide between the characteristics which are most desirable for a senior leader.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The researcher will discuss the results of the two propositions and relate it back to the literature review to glean more meaningful information from the results obtained and relate it back to the literature.

5.2 Demographic profile of respondents

5.2.1 *Proposition One:*

As previously stated 235 people responded to the survey in the first two days of the link being sent out via firm wide email.

From the return rate on the survey one could assume that the topic of gender transformation remains relevant in the professional services firm as all respondents were eager to share their views on desirability of traits.

Ethnicity of respondents:

The transformation statistics at Deloitte South Africa, as at 1 September 2010 indicated that 40% of the firm was made up of African, Coloured, Indian and Asian ethnicities. This aligns wholly to the respondent profile of Proposition One where the researcher noted that the respondents were made up of 60% White and 40% African, Coloured, Indian, and Asian respondents.

5.2.2 *Proposition Two:*

It is interesting to note that the recruitment team is predominantly female.

5.3 Discussion pertaining to Proposition One

The first proposition proposed that the BSRI's theoretical underpinnings and rationale could be used to develop an instrument to measure gender

stereotypes in the South African audit industry thus signifying the generalisability of the BSRI.

5.3.1 *Generalisability of BSRI: Interval scale assumption*

As discussed in the previous section, all 20 items that both Bem (1974) and De Vita (1995) found to be statistically significant for males were found to be statistically significant in the current study and all 20 items that both Bem (1974) and De Vita (1995) found to be statistically significant for females were found to be statistically significant in the current study. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results are very similar.

From this one can conclude that the BSRI appears to tap into relatively enduring definitions of femininity and masculinity, and that culturally defined standards of sex-appropriate behaviour has not given way even in the face of a strong feminist critique in South African society.

Allen and Roberto (2009) commented that despite evidence that current gender role perceptions are more liberal, more recent studies have found that complete equality in perceptions has not been attained and that young people still view females and men in stereotypical ways. The current study would concur with the findings of Allen and Roberto (2009) as it seems that complete equality in perceptions has not been attained and that South African audit industry employees still view females and males in stereotypical ways.

Hoffman and Borders (2001) concluded that the BSRI had a sound theoretical base in gender schema theory but might require adjustment to the feminine and masculine traits based on the context and year in which it is being used as the culture and the progressiveness of opinion will impact the socially desirable traits (Hoffman and Borders, 2001).

This seems to be somewhat optimistic in that the BSRI would evolve over the years to perhaps show less and less distinction between the sexes. This was not the case in the current study as exactly the same masculine and feminine characteristics were statistically significant enough to remain gender

stereotypes. One could even say that perhaps we have regressed as now not only are the masculine and feminine characteristics significant, there are now some of the gender neutral characteristics that were highlighted as being more desirable for one gender over the other.

This relates back to the comments made by Fels (2004) where two basic tenets of femininity emerged in the analysis of the BSRI:

The first is that femininity cannot exist without the setting of a relationship. By definition one can be yielding, affectionate, or sensitive only in relation to someone else (Fels, 2004).

The second tenet that emerges is that females must be providing something for the other person in the relationship, be that person a lover, a child, a sick parent, a husband or even a boss. Giving is the chief activity that defines femininity (Fels, 2004).

This seems to be relevant even to the gender neutral characteristics that were deemed more desirable for females in the current study. The characteristics of: conscientious, friendly, happy, helpful, likeable, sincere and tactful seem to also rely on ‘another person’ as a female can only be friendly, helpful, likeable or tactful in relation to someone else. And the act of being helpful and friendly again points to the female’s chief role as that of the giver which seems to define femininity in the South African audit industry too.

Valerio (2009) agrees that females not only define themselves in a context of human relationships, but judge themselves in terms of their ability to care for others.

It can then be said that the BSRI is generalisable to the South African audit industry and thus we can interpret that gender stereotypes are pervasive and have not changed over the decades as well as over geography.

5.3.2 *Generalisability of BSRI: Distribution fitting method*

There seems to only be a small difference between the Normal Distribution Fitting approach and the Interval Scale Assumption approach.

Masculine characteristics:

Using the distribution fitting assumption, two of the masculine characteristics in previous studies can be seen to be gender neutral – these include: analytical and athletic. The rest of the masculine characteristics remain statistically significant.

This is interesting to note that these two items could be seen as gender neutral using the distribution fitting method as this has not been found in either Bem's (1974) or De Vita's (1995) study – this could be perhaps because they used the interval data assumption as used in the current study and did not use the distribution fitting approach which could be considered to be more accurate as data is not treated as interval but rather as ordinal data.

Neutral characteristics:

In using the conventional interval data assumption, we saw that ten of Bem's (1974) gender neutral characteristics were seen to be feminine in the current study. Using the normal distribution fitting assumption, eight of those ten remain feminine but 'theatrical' and 'solemn' fail to reach statistical significance and are classified as neutral according to this methodology.

'Jealous' remains a masculine characteristic using this approach. This then verifies that the characteristic of being jealous is definitely considered to be more desirable in a male where both methods verify this which goes against both Bem (1974) and De Vita's (1995) findings.

It is interesting to note that the two gender neutral negative characteristics of solemn and theatrical (Bem, 1974) are now again seen as neutral. This is encouraging to note in terms of progression in gender transformation that perhaps we don't see these negative characteristics as being more desirable in a female.

Feminine characteristics:

Using distribution fitting approach, all the feminine characteristics still obtained statistical significance in order that we still classify them as being feminine characteristics.

In summary, there seems to only be a small difference between the Normal Distribution Fitting approach and the Interval Scale Assumption approach thus again verifying that the BSRI is generalisable to the South African audit industry.

5.3.3 *Most desirable characteristics for a Male:*

When looking at male respondents rating desirable characteristics in males compared to how females rated desirability of characteristics for males – the following observations were made:

Masculine Characteristics:

In the current study, for Bem's masculine characteristics (1974) there was a discrepancy between male and female respondents on the following characteristics where the males rated these items as even more desirable for a male as what a female did: Acts as a leader, ambitious, athletic, dominant, masculine and strong personality. The only Bem (1974) masculine characteristic where the female rated the desirability higher that the males rated themselves was with the characteristic: Forceful.

Many of the characteristics above speak to the work place and links back to the South African male dominated work force where hierarchy is king and thus these qualities of acting like a leader, being ambitious, dominant and having a strong personality would be seen as very strongly desirable for a male.

Whether one favours the Thomson and Graham (2005), Mann (1995), Prime (1999) or Ochollo (2002) explanation outlined in the literature review, all seem to concur with the current study that the problem females have working in the modern company is that it is still a dominantly male institution where masculine

characteristics of: Acts as a leader, ambitious, athletic, dominant, masculine and strong personality seem to be more strongly related to success in the South African male dominated workplace.

This also agrees with Prime's findings in that Prime (1999) stated that the style of management in South Africa companies is dominantly Eurocentric: autocratic (man-in-charge), hierarchical and authoritarian (disciplinary procedures), and individualistic (competition oriented). The characteristics of: Acts as a leader, ambitious, athletic, dominant, masculine and strong personality seem to be very strongly related to this autocratic, hierarchical, authoritarian and individualistic workplace where these characteristics guarantee success.

Neutral Characteristics:

For Bem's (1974) neutral characteristics, the male respondents interestingly rated that it was more desirable for them to exhibit the gender neutral positive characteristics than what the females did. Males indicated they should be more: adaptable, friendly, happy, helpful, likeable, sincere and tactful than what the female respondents felt a male should be. Interestingly the female respondents felt that it was desirable for a male to exhibit two of the gender neutral negative characteristic of being inefficient and moody.

Perhaps from this one could surmise that males have a more positive view on themselves and what they believes they should be than what the female do. In the literature review it was stated that men seem more comfortable promoting themselves because it's part of the culture in which they grew up (Reis, 2002). Whilst the current study might not talk to them being more at ease to promote themselves, but perhaps speaks of their higher opinion of themselves than what a female would have of herself and her gender as a whole.

Feminine Characteristics:

For Bem's (1974) feminine characteristics, the male respondents rated that it was more desirable for males to exhibit a few of Bem's feminine characteristics than what the females did, these included: being warm, cheerful, loves children,

loyal, shy, sympathetic and tender. The female respondents felt that it was more desirable for a male to be affectionate and childlike.

Hochschild (1989) stated the father's time with children has increased, where more and more fathers are spending more time with their children.

It would seem that the South African male in the audit firm sees his role as also encompassing that of fatherhood which relies on some of the more stereotypically feminine characteristics of being: warm, cheerful, loving children, sympathetic and tender. Valerio (2009) stated that females judge themselves in terms of their ability to care for other. This might be starting to translate into the definitions for being a father and caring for his children.

5.3.4 *Most desirable characteristics for a Female:*

When looking at female respondents rating desirable characteristics in females compared to how males rated desirability of characteristics for females – the following observations were made:

Masculine Characteristics:

For Bem's (1974) masculine characteristics there was a discrepancy between male and female respondents on the following characteristics where the females rated these items as even more desirable for a female as what a male did: aggressive and masculine. The Bem (1974) masculine characteristics where the male rated the desirability higher that the females rated themselves was with the following characteristics: Assertive, defends own beliefs, self reliant, strong personality. Males felt much more strongly than the females did that it is more desirable for a female to be athletic than what a female did.

Interestingly the females felt they should be more aggressive and masculine. This could potentially point to the masculinisation of females in the South African audit firm where they unconsciously or consciously assume more of the stereotypical masculine characteristics to progress their careers in the male dominated hierarchical organisation.

As for the males who deemed it more desirable for a female to exhibit: being assertive, defends own beliefs, self reliant and strong personality.

Neutral Characteristics:

For Bem's (1974) neutral characteristics, the female respondents interestingly rated that it was more desirable for them to exhibit the gender neutral negative characteristics than what the males did. Females indicated that it was more desirable for females to be: conceited, conventional, jealous, moody, solemn, theatrical and unpredictable than what the male respondents felt a female should be. Interestingly the male respondents felt that it was desirable for a female to exhibit two of the gender neutral positive characteristic of being likeable and truthful.

This is in direct contrast to the male characteristics where males deemed it more desirable for them to exhibit gender neutral positive characteristics and the females deemed it more desirable for them to exhibit the gender neutral negative characteristics.

Perhaps we could again infer that males have a more positive view on themselves and what they believe they should be than what the females do. In the literature review it was stated that men seem more comfortable promoting themselves because it's part of the culture in which they grew up (Reis, 2002). Whilst the current study might not talk to them being more at ease to promote themselves, but perhaps speaks of their higher opinion of themselves than what a female would have of herself and her gender as a whole.

Feminine Characteristics:

For Bem's (1974) feminine characteristics, the female respondents rated that it was more desirable for them to exhibit a few of Bem's (1974) feminine characteristics than what the males did, these included: being tender, shy, gentle, flatterable, and childlike. Two of the characteristics that were very strongly rated by females as being desirable were those of: being yielding and gullible. Interestingly, females seem to have taken on the role of the care giver

and the provider as they deem it more desirable for exhibiting these characteristics than what the male did. This might speak to an internalisation of gender stereotype where the female has through life role expectation been conditioned for the role of being the care taker.

The ethic of care described by Gilligan (1982), accompanied by a female's belief in the importance of relationships, has been found to be the single greatest issue to address for females who also have their own unique dreams and aspirations for important work. Many females in their 20's, 30's, and 40's experience guilt over what they want to do for themselves and what they believe they should do for their families and for those they love (Valerio, 2009).

5.3.5 *Ethnicity findings*

Owing to the smaller sample size, the researcher was only able to use descriptive statistics to speculate about the different ethnic groups. The need for further research in this area is discussed further under 'suggestions for further research'.

5.3.6 *Conclusion*

We can speculate that gender stereotypes have changed little over the past few decades. Despite considerable activism, publicity, and legislative emphasizing elimination of sex-role distinctions, males and females are still perceived as being fundamentally different on various characteristics.

It seems that the characteristics: ambitious, dominant, masculine and strong personality as shown in the current study to be predominantly masculine, represent an aspect of the masculine stereotype that has become even more pronounced in the male dominated masculine organisation as highlighted in the literature review one where the 'think manager, think male' mindset supersedes any transformational views of the sexes being equal.

It can then also be assumed that the gender neutral items, that were deemed as more desirable for a female, of being: conscientious, friendly, happy, helpful,

likeable, sincere and tactful represents aspects of the feminine stereotype that has become even more pronounced in South Africa – these may speak to the continued objectification of females through the influence of the media and traditional roles of the females as seen by both the males and females in terms of life role expectations relating to being both a wife and a mother in a caring role.

De Vita (1995) distinguished between two discrete components in the concept of a role: expectations or norms and conduct or actual behaviour where it is important to note that norms and behaviour do not always coincide. For example the norm may change and behaviour then conforms, or the behaviour may change and the norm follows. When considering gender roles and stereotypes, the third possibility, behaviour may change but the norms may not, may partly represent our current state of affairs.

As Scher and Good (1990, pp.388) noted “Gender roles are not divinely ordained: They are not untouchable. They are simply cultural artefacts that have become established during the long history of our people, as well as the short history of our society”.

In conclusion, all 40 items that Bem found to be significant per gender in 1974 were found to be of statistical significance in the current study thus highlighting the gender stereotypes that exist in South Africa today. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results were very similar.

This seems to point to a pervasive gender stereotype that crosses both time and geography to remain unchanged.

5.4 Discussion pertaining Proposition Two

The second proposition proposed that the use of the BSRI tool would be able to highlight that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

5.4.1 *Distribution fitting method – desirability of characteristics for senior leaders*

Using the distribution fit analysis to determine means and standard deviations presents an interesting picture. There seemed to be no difference in desirability between the masculine and feminine characteristics for senior leaders.

It can be said there is barely any support for the suggestion that recruitment specialists see masculine traits as being more desirable than feminine traits for senior leaders which is very encouraging.

This seems to point to what Eagly and Carli (2007) stated regarding the shift in managerial styles where in the past twenty years, there has been a shift away from command and control types of leadership toward one marked by influence and collaboration.

What this seems to have emphasised is that effective leaders inspire and motivate followers and nurture their development as individual contributors to the organisation. Transformational leadership incorporates some of the aspects of Spreier et al's (1996) leadership styles of participation, coaching and visionary leadership. It could also be said that some of the BSRI feminine characteristics of being understanding, loyal, sincere and compassionate would be considered to be more transformational.

Transformational Leadership involves establishing oneself as a leader by communicating the common goals for the future and then coaching and mentoring followers to contribute more effectively which would use characteristics such as being understanding, loyal and compassionate. Transactional Leadership involves managing in a more conventional way by monitoring employees, administering rewards, for performance and taking action against non-performers (Fels, 2004).

How do male and female leaders compare on these two styles? Valerio (2009) asserted that females are more likely to be transformational in their leadership than the male leaders. Female leaders demonstrate more transformational leadership, especially for those behaviours that communicate the organisations

goals, and develop and mentor followers. These closely resemble the participative, visionary and coaching leadership styles as discussed by Spreier et al (1996) and the feminine characteristics of the BSRI that are deemed as being desirable for senior leaders.

In contrast, male leaders were more transactional than female leaders in 'management by exception', that is, attending to followers mistakes and waiting until problems become severe before intervening. Men, more than females, tend to avoid problem solving until the problems become more acute (Valerio, 2009). Valerio (2009) goes on to assert that females make excellent leaders because of their likeliness to blend participative and democratic behaviour into their repertoire.

In summary it seems that progress has been made and that there has indeed been a shift in the past twenty years highlighting the need for more transformational leadership where some of the feminine characteristics from the BSRI are seen as being just as desirable for a senior leader as what the masculine characteristics are.

5.4.2 *Descriptive Statistics: Most desirable characteristics for senior leaders*

Top ten most desirable characteristics for a senior leader:

The current study indicated that 70% of the ten most desirable leadership traits were seen as highly desirable in a male in proposition one. These included: Has leadership abilities, acts as a leader, assertive, willing to take a stand, willing to take risks, makes decisions easily and ambitious. The three neutral items included: adaptable, reliable and truthful.

Top most desirable characteristics for senior leaders:

If we look at all the characteristics with a mean of over 5, i.e. "quite desirable" in terms of survey wording, we would see a different pattern emerge where we still see 54% of these being more masculine, but now with 35% feminine and only 12% neutral characteristics being seen as more desirable for a senior leader.

The feminine characteristics that were seen as desirable for leadership include: being loyal, understanding, does not use harsh language, helpful, sincere, friendly, sensitive to the needs of others, happy, conscientious, tactful and likeable.

One could agree that most of these conform with what Valerio (2009) asserted, in that these traits are more likely to be transformational in that they would assist in developing and mentoring others in a participative style of leadership.

5.4.3 *Least desirable characteristics for a senior leader using Descriptive Statistics*

Bottom ten least desirable characteristics for a senior leader:

The current study indicated that one of these bottom ten traits, i.e. 10%, was seen as highly desirable in a male i.e. that of being 'jealous'. The three feminine traits, i.e. 30%, that were in bottom ten were: Flatterable, shy and childlike. The six neutral items, i.e. 60% included: unsystematic, gullible, moody, conceited, unpredictable and inefficient.

It is interesting to note that the only masculine characteristic to make it into the bottom ten was one of Bem's (1974) neutral negative characteristics that was reclassified as a masculine characteristic in Proposition One: Jealous.

Least desirable characteristics for a senior leader:

If we look at all the characteristics with a mean of below 5, we would see a different pattern emerge where we see 20.5% of these being more masculine, 59% feminine and 20.5% neutral characteristics being seen as less desirable for a senior leader.

These undesirable feminine characteristics included: child like, shy, flatterable, soft spoken, theatrical, solemn, affectionate, loves children, tender, yielding, gentle, eager to soothe hurt feelings, tender, conventional, warn, cheerful, and sympathetic.

One could argue that these characteristics relate more to the ethic of care as described by Gilligan (1982) and with Fels (2004) assertion that femininity cannot exist without a relationship and without 'giving' of some form.

As Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) stated, the double bind requires females to avoid autocratic and directive behaviour and to demonstrate communal transformational behaviour. The current study seems to point to this fact as the data suggests that some of the feminine characteristics are highly regarded for leadership whilst others are very poorly regarded. This does not seem to be as noticeable with the masculine characteristics as there is only one masculine characteristic in the bottom ten of all characteristics deemed undesirable for a senior leader.

5.5 Conclusion

We can speculate that gender stereotypes have changed little over the past few decades. Despite considerable activism, publicity, and legislative emphasizing elimination of sex-role distinctions, males and females are still perceived as being fundamentally different on various characteristics.

All 40 items that Bem found to be significant per gender in 1974 were found to be of statistical significance in the current study thus highlighting the gender stereotypes that exist in South Africa today. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results were very similar. This seems to point to a pervasive gender stereotype that crosses both time and continent.

It can then be said that the BSRI is generalisable to the South African Audit industry as the results obtained mirrored the results obtained by Bem in 1974 in that the 40 items that Bem found to be statistically significant remained significant in the current study for female and male.

Whether one favours the Thomson and Graham (2005), Mann (1995), Prime (1999) or Ochollo (2002) explanation outlined in the literature review, all seem to concur with the current study that the problem females have working in the modern company is that it is still a dominantly male institution where masculine

characteristics of: Acts as a leader, ambitious, athletic, dominant, masculine and strong personality seem to be more strongly related to success in the South African male dominated workplace.

This also agrees with Prime's findings in that Prime (1999) stated that the style of management in South Africa companies is dominantly Eurocentric: autocratic (man-in-charge), hierarchical and authoritarian (disciplinary procedures), and individualistic (competition oriented). The characteristics of: Acts as a leader, ambitious, athletic, dominant, masculine and strong personality seem to be very strongly related to this autocratic, hierarchical, authoritarian and individualistic workplace where these characteristics guarantee success.

For proposition two it can be said that masculine characteristics are not seen as most desirable when promoting people into senior leadership positions. However, the double bind seems to have relevance where females seem to be required to display some of their characteristics to make them more transformational in their leadership but to hide those qualities that would make them be seen as 'too nice'.

As Thomsom and Graham (2005) stated, to acknowledge that females bring different and valuable qualities to boards and executive committees is one thing, to accept that these qualities add up to a distinctive style of leadership, that may in some ways and in some situations be more value creating than male leadership is quite another (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

The use of the BSRI tool indicated that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are not regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will conclude the research and make recommendations for future research in this academic area.

6.2 Conclusions of the study

6.2.1 *Proposition One*

All 40 items that Bem found to be significant per gender in 1974 were found to be of statistical significance in the current study thus highlighting the gender stereotypes that exist in South Africa today. Using the distribution fitting approach, the results were very similar. This seems to point to a pervasive gender stereotype that crosses both time and continent to remain unchanged.

Prime (1999) stated that South Africa is historically a traditional, hierarchical and 'white-male dominated' society that exercised a bureaucratic and 'command and control' style of management.

In South Africa, the Employment Equity Act spearheaded the drive for employment equity and affirmative action within organizations, including the employment and economic progression of females. In some spheres these drives have been successful and the demographics within South African business have changed with more females holding senior executive positions than before: Statistics South Africa (2002) shows that among females, the percentage employed in 2001 was larger than the percentage employed in 1995 across all population groups.

That females' career development is complicated by numerous factors not salient for males has been recognised since females first began to work outside the home. As far back as 1975, Mishler (1976) reviewed a number of these

factors, including possible gender differences in abilities, gender-role stereotyping, educational constraints, the influence of masculine preferences and prejudices, and the ubiquitous assumptions concerning females' roles as wife and mother.

Conclusion for Proposition one is that the BSRI is generalisable to the South African Audit industry as the results obtained mirrored the results obtained by Bem in 1974 in that the 40 items that Bem found to be statistically significant remained significant in the current study for female and male.

6.2.2 ***Proposition Two***

It was found that stereotypical male characteristics were not seen to be more desirable when promoting people into more senior leadership positions in the South African audit industry.

This seems to point to what Eagly and Carli (2007) stated regarding the shift in managerial styles where in the past twenty years, there has been a shift away from command and control types of leadership toward one marked by influence and collaboration (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

What this seems to have emphasised is that effective leaders inspire and motivate followers and nurture their development as individual contributors to the organisation. Transformational leadership incorporates some of the aspects of Spreier et al's (1996) leadership styles of participation, coaching and visionary leadership. It could also be said that some of the feminine characteristics of being understanding, loyal, sincere and compassionate would be considered to be more transformational.

Transformational Leadership involves establishing oneself as a leader by communicating the common goals for the future and then coaching and mentoring followers to contribute more effectively which would use characteristics such as being understanding, loyal and compassionate. Transactional Leadership involves managing in a more conventional way by

monitoring employees, administering rewards, for performance and taking action against non-performers (Fels, 2004).

As Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) stated, the double bind requires females to avoid autocratic and directive behaviour and to demonstrate communal transformational behaviour.

As Thomsom and Graham (2005) stated, to acknowledge that females bring different and valuable qualities to boards and executive committees is one thing, to accept that these qualities add up to a distinctive style of leadership, that may in some ways and in some situations be more value creating than male leadership is quite another (Thomson and Graham, 2005).

In conclusion, the use of the BSRI tool was able to highlight that the stereotypical masculine personality traits are not regarded as more desirable when promoting or recruiting people into more senior leadership positions in a South African audit firm.

6.3 Recommendations

The current study aimed to provide guidance to the South African Audit industry looking at increasing their gender transformation targets by understanding the stereotypical personality traits that are attributed to success at the senior management levels as well as understanding the gender stereotypes at play in the South African auditing population.

The results of this research have revealed that employees in the South African audit industry do see males and females as having very different characteristics as per their gender but it would seem that the personality characteristics most aligned with success at a South African audit firm are not masculine in nature, which was proposed, but rather a mixture of both feminine and masculine characteristics.

As was stated in the literature review, females generally will have to play two, if not more, roles in their lives: that of the mother and that of the career woman.

This needs to be understood and better catered for in that females should not be prejudiced when they go on maternity leave and be seen as having let the team down. Females need the support and flexibility to continue adding value to the firm and bringing the different qualities of leadership that a male is not seen as bringing to the leadership table.

6.4 Suggestions for further research

There is much room for further research into this field. There are three areas that could be further researched: Understanding gender stereotypes for different ethnicities in South Arica, Examining the profile of South African female and male leaders, and using the BSRI to profile different industries for career counselling to better match both males and females to their perspective career journeys.

Understanding gender stereotypes for different ethnicities in South Africa:

This study sought to investigate the current generalisability of the BSRI (Bem, 1974) to the South African audit population. While the results supported the validity of the instrument for the total sample, discrepancies emerged when the participants were separated into ethnic groups. African females seemed to hold strong gender stereotypes on desirable characteristics of a female and a male. However, due to the small sample size of the current study, further quantitative research exploring the gender stereotypes in African culture would be required.

This research would fill a gap in that there is limited quantitative research into the gender stereotypes for different ethnicities in South Africa. Much has been written about stereotyping the ethnicities but relatively little has been written about the gender stereotypes within those ethnicities (Byrnes, 1996). Most of the limited research into gender stereotypes for different ethnicities in South Africa has focussed on qualitative studies where extensive interviewing and observation has formed the core of the research (Byrnes, 1996).

In a similar vein to the current study, this could potentially help organisations and industries better understand the gender stereotypes in order to reach their

gender transformation targets of having sufficient females of colour in senior leadership positions. This is a reality in the year 2011 with female transformation targets being set for senior leadership positions.

Research Methodology: The future researcher would be able to use the findings of this research as their control group and then administer the updated BSRI to groups of fifty males and fifty females of African descent, Indian descent and Coloured descent. The t-test for two independent samples would then be used to determine if there is a statistical significance between the control group and the study groups.

The results of this could potentially highlight part of the reason why corporate South Africa has difficulty in appointing females of colour into senior leadership positions.

Understanding the profile of female leaders:

This BSRI could be administered as a tool to a sample of females in senior leadership positions in South African organisations to ascertain what profile they are in terms of Masculine vs. Feminine vs. Androgynous profile. This could be used to triangulate this research as it would be expected that the results would indicate an androgynous profile to be that of a successful leader where both masculine and feminine characteristics are displayed.

Research methodology: The researcher would administer the modified BSRI to a sample of 30 females in senior leadership positions asking them to rate themselves from ‘almost never’ to ‘almost always’ with reference to all the personality characteristics.

The median-split scoring method could be applied, to form four distinct groups: feminine, masculine, androgynous, and undifferentiated (Bem, 1974). A difference score (between Femininity and Masculinity) will be determined on the basis of standardized T- scores. The median split classification system allows the respondent to ascertain whether he or she rates high on both dimensions (Masculinity and Femininity), thus classified as androgynous; low on both dimensions (undifferentiated); or high on one dimension but low on the other

(sex-typed as either masculine or feminine if the high-scoring dimension corresponds to the person's sex, or cross-sex-typed if the low-scoring dimension corresponds to their sex).

This research would fill a gap in that there is limited research into the personality characteristics based on gender stereotypes for South African females. Most of the research has been written about leadership styles between genders as well as non-gender based personality characteristics (Fels, 2004).

This could potentially help organisations and industries better understand the profile of their female senior leaders. This would enable them to: profile individuals according to their successful female senior leaders to recruit the 'right' profile or to aid them in understanding that if the profile of their top females is predominantly masculine or androgynous – what role the industry or organisation has to play in recognising different forms of leadership and accepting more females with more of the feminine characteristics.

Using the BSRI to profile different industries for career counselling:

One could take the BSRI and manipulate the survey question to ask respondents to rate desirability of characteristics for someone in their field of work. The results of this could then point to more feminine or masculine work environments which could then be better suited to an individual with a specific gender specific personality profile.

This research would fill a gap in that there is limited research into the different industries and how masculine or feminine they are according to gender stereotype in South Africa (Prime, 1999). This information could be useful to vocational psychologists who consult with people on their best career fit based on psychometric tools like the BSRI and interviews and discussions with the individual.

This could potentially help new joiners to the working world to better understand the different types of industry in South Africa and where they would best fit in and progress.

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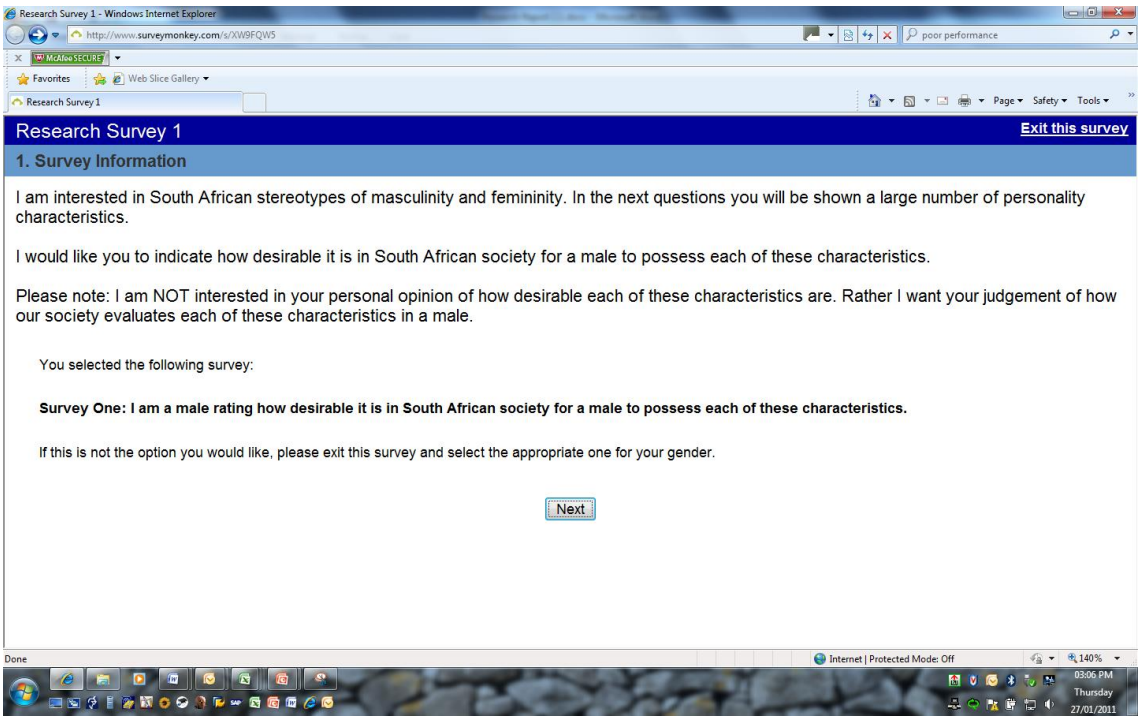
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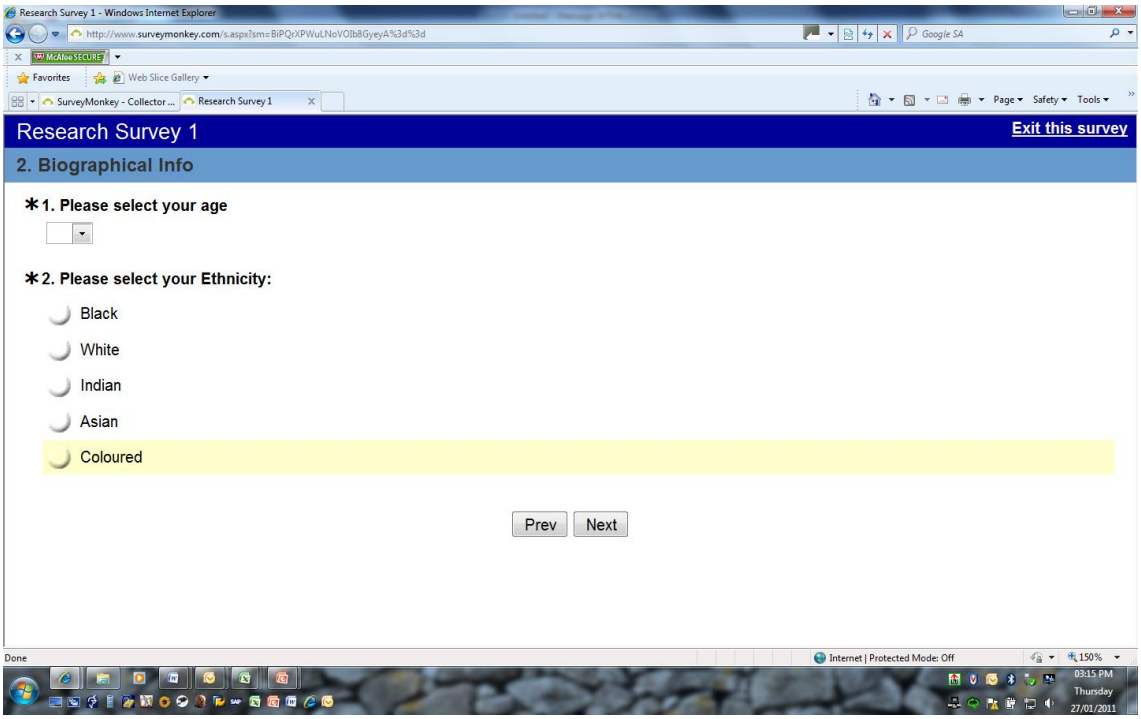
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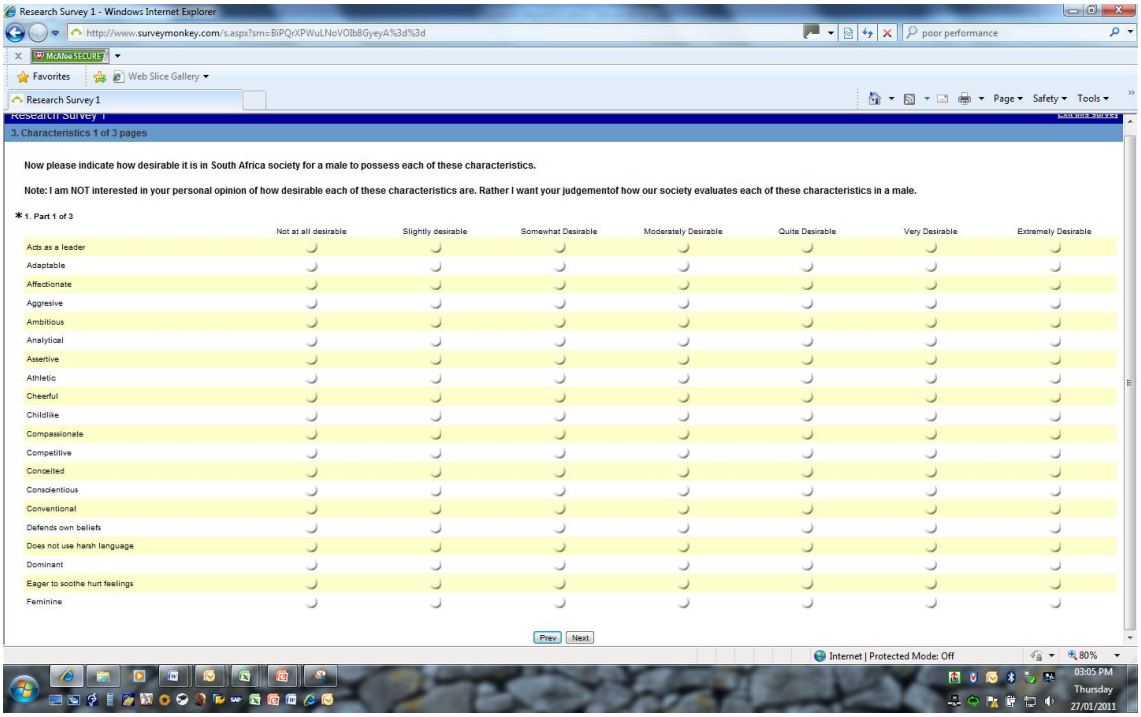
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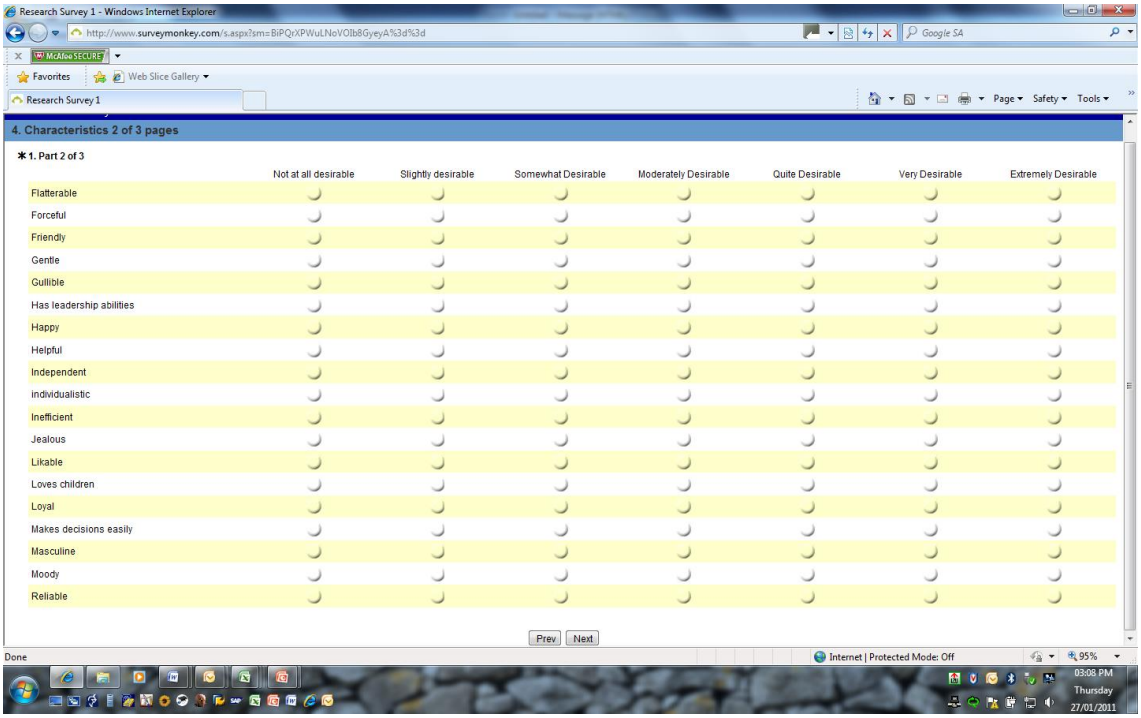
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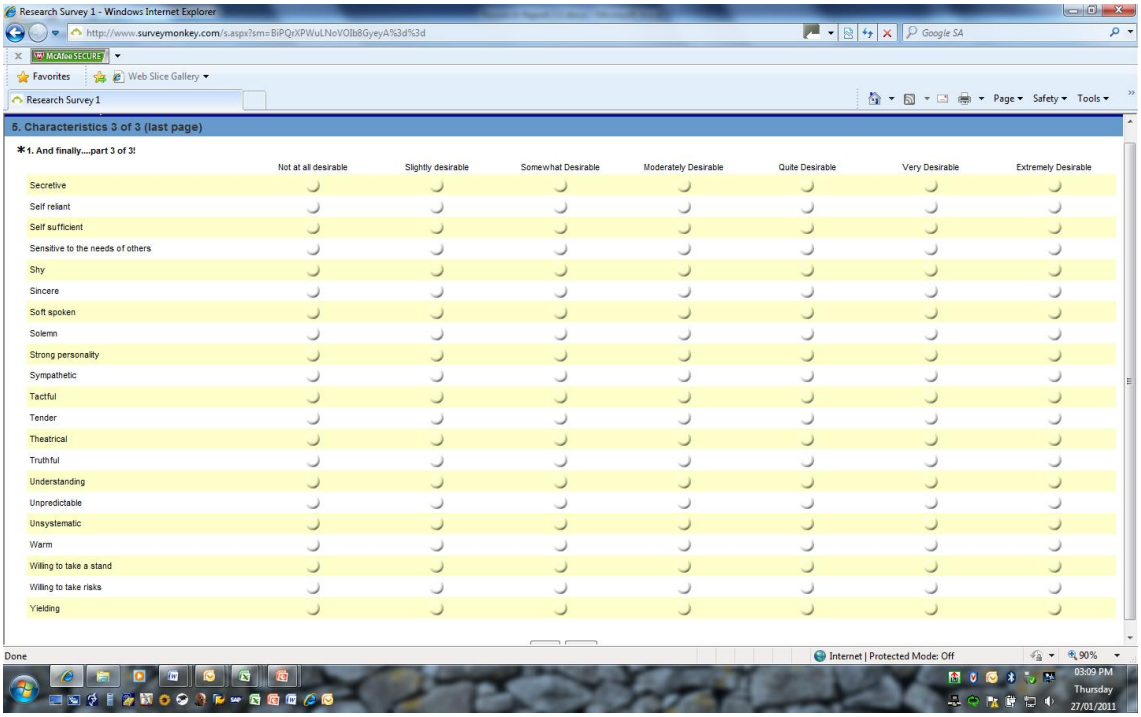
APPENDIX A


Research Survey 1 - Windows Internet Explorer
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/XW9FQW5
Research Survey 1
Exit this survey
1. Survey Information
I am interested in South African stereotypes of masculinity and femininity. In the next questions you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics.
I would like you to indicate how desirable it is in South African society for a male to possess each of these characteristics.
Please note: I am NOT interested in your personal opinion of how desirable each of these characteristics are. Rather I want your judgement of how our society evaluates each of these characteristics in a male.
You selected the following survey:
Survey One: I am a male rating how desirable it is in South African society for a male to possess each of these characteristics.
If this is not the option you would like, please exit this survey and select the appropriate one for your gender.
Next
Done
Internet | Protected Mode: Off
140%
03:06 PM
Thursday
27/01/2011


Research Survey 1 - Windows Internet Explorer
Research Survey 1
Exit this survey
2. Biographical Info
*1. Please select your age
*2. Please select your Ethnicity:
Black
White
Indian
Asian
Coloured
Prev
Next
Done
Internet | Protected Mode: Off
150%
03:15 PM
Thursday
27/01/2011


Research Survey 1 - Windows Internet Explorer
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=BiPQrXPWuLNoVOIb8GyeyA%3d%3d
poor performance
Favorites
Web Slice Gallery
Research Survey 1
Page
Safety
Tools
3. Characteristics 1 of 3 pages
Now please indicate how desirable it is in South Africa society for a male to possess each of these characteristics.
Note: I am NOT interested in your personal opinion of how desirable each of these characteristics are. Rather I want your judgementof how our society evaluates each of these characteristics in a male.
*1. Part 1 of 3
Not at all desirable
Slightly desirable
Somewhat Desirable
Moderately Desirable
Quite Desirable
Very Desirable
Extremely Desirable
Acts as a leader
Adaptable
Affectionate
Aggresive
Ambitious
Analytical
Assertive
Athletic
Cheerful
Childlike
Compassionate
Competitive
Conceited
Conscientious
Conventional
Defends own beliefs
Does not use harsh language
Dominant
Eager to soothe hurt feelings
Feminine
Prev
Next
Internet | Protected Mode: Off
80%
03:05 PM
Thursday
27/01/2011


Research Survey 1 - Windows Internet Explorer
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=BiPQrXPWuLNoVOIb8GyeyA%3d%3d
Google SA
Favorites
Web Slice Gallery
Research Survey 1
Page
Safety
Tools
4. Characteristics 2 of 3 pages
*1. Part 2 of 3
Not at all desirable
Slightly desirable
Somewhat Desirable
Moderately Desirable
Quite Desirable
Very Desirable
Extremely Desirable
Flatterable
Forceful
Friendly
Gentle
Gullible
Has leadership abilities
Happy
Helpful
Independent
individualistic
Inefficient
Jealous
Likable
Loves children
Loyal
Makes decisions easily
Masculine
Moody
Reliable
Prev
Next
Done
Internet | Protected Mode: Off
95%
03:08 PM
Thursday
27/01/2011


Research Survey 1 - Windows Internet Explorer
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=BiPQrXPWuLNoVOIb8GyeyA%3d%3d
Favorites
Web Slice Gallery
Research Survey 1
Page
Safety
Tools
5. Characteristics 3 of 3 (last page)
*1. And finally....part 3 of 3!
Not at all desirable
Slightly desirable
Somewhat Desirable
Moderately Desirable
Quite Desirable
Very Desirable
Extremely Desirable
Secretive
Self reliant
Self sufficient
Sensitive to the needs of others
Shy
Sincere
Soft spoken
Solemn
Strong personality
Sympathetic
Tactful
Tender
Theatrical
Truthful
Understanding
Unpredictable
Unsystematic
Warm
Willing to take a stand
Willing to take risks
Yielding
Done
Internet | Protected Mode: Off
90%
03:09 PM
Thursday
27/01/2011