Of Seats, Stereotypes and Structures: Empirical Contributions on Women in the Workplace from a Gender-Organisation-Systems Perspective

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Abstract

This thesis examines systematic issues relating to the progression of women in the workplace using a gender-organisations-systems perspective (GOS). Drawing from the different elements of the GOS perspective and employing data from primary and secondary sources, at both a national and international level, this thesis examines: (1) the impact of societal changes in Ireland on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles; (2) identifies the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers, among a student population and within the nursing and midwifery profession, and determines the impact of the ascribed traits and attributes on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland; (3) maps the trends in female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007 and (4) investigates the uptake of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) across 7 EU countries to determine the association between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability.

The substantive empirical contributions in this thesis are presented in four published articles. Article one finds that women are overlooked, in favour of their male counterparts, for selection onto state boards, despite the introduction of a 40/60 gender balance initiative in 1991. The overall results of articles 2 and 3 point to the continued gender role stereotyping of the managerial position among Irish males despite enormous societal changes in Ireland during the twentieth century. Drawing on data from a nursing and midwifery sample, article 2 indicates that Irish males continue to gender type the managerial role despite working in a female dominated profession. Female nurses and midwives on the other hand did not gender type the managerial role, however, qualified nurses and midwives did record a greater degree of similarity between men and managers compared to their student counterparts. Article 3 presents a similar pattern of results, with male students gender typing the managerial role in favour of men. Female students did not gender type the managerial role. However, despite the continued gender role stereotyping of the managerial role among male students, an examination of the attributes and traits ascribed to women provides a different perspective on these results as women are perceived to be androgynous in nature, meaning women are seen to possess both communal and agentic characteristics. Finally, based on the uptake of 12 individual FWAs, article 4 identifies 4 novel bundles of FWAs, which were subsequently used to identify the associations between bundle membership and organisational demographics and the association between bundles of FWAs and organisational outcomes. The results indicate that FWAs are not universally applied in organisations, highlighting the need to consider organisational contexts when researching FWAs. Furthermore, significant associations were recorded between bundles of FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover and productivity. The results of these investigations are discussed within the context of the GOS perspective and the wider literature before outlining and discussing the implications of the results.
This thesis is my own work and has not been submitted to any other university or higher education institution, or for any other academic award. Any contributions made to the research by others with whom I have worked are explicitly acknowledged in this thesis. Citations of all secondary works have been fully referenced along with citations to my own journal articles which form the basis of this PhD; credit to the publishers is provided in the appendices.

Elaine Berkery
The completion of this thesis is the outcome of a long journey and there are many people I would like to thank for helping me along the way.

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To all the survey participants who gave so willingly of their time to participate in this research and to the INMO for allowing me to distribute surveys and their hospitality at their ADC conference.

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To my husband Kevin who is probably more glad than I am that this thesis is finally complete. Your constant love, support and encouragement throughout the highs and lows of this thesis has made its completion possible. I couldn’t have done it without you, especially after the arrival of our little-people.

Finally, I dedicate this thesis to the memory of my late grandmother, Biddy Lynch, who had no idea of what a PhD was, or what it consisted of, and could never understand why it was taking so long to complete, but nevertheless was immensely proud that I was doing one. I have no doubt but she would have been a busy woman telling everyone it was finally finished if she was here with us today!! This is for you Granny.
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<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADC</td>
<td>Annual Delegates Conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSRI</td>
<td>Bem Sex Role Inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CME</td>
<td>Coordinated Market Economies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNM</td>
<td>Clinical Nurse Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Central Statistics Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FWA</td>
<td>Flexible Working Arrangements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOS</td>
<td>Gender-Organisation-Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBEC</td>
<td>Irish Business and Employers' Confederation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICC</td>
<td>Intraclass Correlation Coefficients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILR</td>
<td>International Labour Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INMO</td>
<td>Irish Nurses and Midwives Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPA</td>
<td>Institute of Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KILM</td>
<td>Key Indicators of the Labour Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LME</td>
<td>Liberal Market Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAS</td>
<td>Public Appointment Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCA</td>
<td>Principle Component Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLC</td>
<td>Public Limited Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QNSH</td>
<td>Quarterly National Household Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>Research Ethics Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCU</td>
<td>Statistical Consulting Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDI</td>
<td>Schein’s Descriptive Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
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<td>UL</td>
<td>University of Limerick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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</table>
Chapter 1: Introduction
1.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the overall context for the thesis and establishes a route map for the reader. In doing so, it firstly sets the context by providing data on the numbers of women in employment in Ireland and on a global scale, followed by the rationale for the research. Secondly, the chapter outlines the theoretical perspective applied in this research and subsequently outlines the research aims and objectives established for this thesis. Finally, it presents the overall structure employed in the research and provides a brief overview of the four published/accepted for publication articles which form the substantive contribution of this thesis.

1.2 Global and National Contexts

The next section provides an overview of women in the workplace at both a national and international level. It first considers female employment trends internationally, focusing on labour force participation rate by sex and gender gaps in the labour market. The focus then turns to the Irish context where an overview of women in the workplace is provided starting in 1926 and continuing to present day. Finally, this section focuses on the breakdown of managerial posts in Ireland and internationally from 1961 onwards, with particular attention to gender imbalance in these posts.

1.2.1 Global Trends

This section provides an overview of trends in global female employment over the past 20 years. Women’s economic activity rates have increased dramatically since the 1970’s across the globe. The late 1990’s and early 2000’s witnessed unprecedented changes taking place in both the world economy and in the composition of workforces internationally, with more women working than ever before (ILO 2007). Of the 3.5 billion workers in the world in 2016, 1.4 billion or 39.6% were females, representing a worldwide increase of nearly 1.4 million women in employment in the ten-year period to 2016 (ILO 2016). However, despite the significant growth rate of women in the labour market, the growth rate experienced by females in the labour market has been lower for women globally since 2006 compared to their male counterparts (ILO 2016). Table 1.1 highlights these trends in global and regional employment growth rates by sex from 1996 to 2016.
Table 1.1: Percentage Growth Rate in Global and Regional Employment by Sex 1996, 2006 and 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Labour Force</th>
<th>Male Labour Force</th>
<th>Female Labour Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% Growth Rate</td>
<td>% Growth Rate</td>
<td>% Growth Rate</td>
</tr>
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<td>World</td>
<td>1996 1.59</td>
<td>2006 1.26</td>
<td>2016 1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1996 1.56</td>
<td>2006 1.40</td>
<td>2016 1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1996 1.65</td>
<td>2006 1.06</td>
<td>2016 1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed Economies</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU28</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.11</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.32</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Central &amp; South Eastern Europe</td>
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<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.34</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.18</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
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<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.27</td>
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<td>1.46</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.92</td>
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<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.46</td>
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<td>1.96</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1.45</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.00</td>
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<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.40</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.97</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.62</td>
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<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.03</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from ILO 2016)

The % growth rate represents the growth rate in the labour market since the previous year, i.e. the 1996 % growth rate represents the increased growth rate in the labour market from 1995-1996

Note: 2016 are only preliminary estimates

Although the percentage growth rate within the female labour market has been lower than that of the male labour market since 1996, there are several regions which recorded a higher increase in female employment rates compared to their male counterparts in 2016; developed economies, EU28, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, The Middle East and North Africa.

Overall, as illustrated in Table 1.2, the gender gap in labour force participation has decreased globally by 0.9% in the twenty-year period from 1996-2016. In all but two regions (East Asia and South Asia) decreases were recorded, with the greatest difference recorded in Latin America and the Caribbean. Within the developed economies and the EU28, male labour force participation rates decreased by 3.7% and 2.1% respectively during the period 1996-2016, while female labour force participation rates rose by 1.8% and 4.2% respectively, a trend which is mirrored in Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub Saharan Africa. Table 1.2 presents male and female participation rates and highlights the gender gaps in labour force participation rates by region between 1996 and 2016.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male labour force participation rate (%)</th>
<th>Female labour force participation rate (%)</th>
<th>Overall Gender Gap (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>79.5 77.4 76.8</td>
<td>52.1 51.7 50.3</td>
<td>27.4 25.7 26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed Economies</td>
<td>70.7 68.9 67.0</td>
<td>50.9 52.5 52.9</td>
<td>19.8 16.4 14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU28</td>
<td>66.7 65.4 64.6</td>
<td>46.6 49.2 50.8</td>
<td>20.1 16.2 13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central &amp; South Eastern Europe</td>
<td>70.5 68.6 71.1</td>
<td>49.3 49.2 50.2</td>
<td>21.2 19.4 20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>84.0 78.7 78.1</td>
<td>70.6 65.0 63.1</td>
<td>13.4 13.7 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>83.1 82.3 81.8</td>
<td>59.0 58.5 59.1</td>
<td>24.1 23.8 22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>84.0 83.2 80.7</td>
<td>35.6 36.2 30.8</td>
<td>48.4 47 49.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>81.3 80.1 79.4</td>
<td>45.3 51.5 53.8</td>
<td>36 28.6 25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle east and North Africa</td>
<td>75.4 73.8 75.5</td>
<td>18.3 20.5 22.0</td>
<td>57.1 53.3 53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub Saharan Africa</td>
<td>78.3 76.1 76.9</td>
<td>61.9 64.5 65.4</td>
<td>16.4 11.6 11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Adapted from ILO 2016)

Note: 2016 are only preliminary estimates; the gap equals the difference between male and female labour force participation rates

1.2.2 The Irish Context

Historically, in comparison to men, women have experienced greater obstacles to participation in the Irish labour market, for example, gender role stereotypes, workplace segregation, the ‘glass ceiling’ (the glass ceiling is a metaphor used to represent an invisible barrier that prevents women and other minorities from rising beyond a certain level in an organisation’s hierarchy (Carli and Eagly 2016)), the ‘sticky floor’ (the sticky floor refers to obstacles that confine women to lower levels of an organisation’s hierarchy (Carli and Eagly 2016)), long working hours, male dominated cultures, lack of networking opportunities and access to affordable childcare to name but a few (O’Connor 2000; Cross and Linehan 2006; Cross 2010; Carli and Eagly 2016; Kirrane, Taylor and Horan 2016). Figure 1.1 illustrates trends in employment patterns by gender from 1926-2016 in Ireland1.

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1 All employment figures contained in this section have been attained form the CSO website and the Quarterly National Household Survey, 1997-2017
Female participation rates in the Irish labour market, as illustrated in Figure 1.1 can be described as evolutionary as opposed to revolutionary, with females accounting for 27% of the workforce in 1926 compared to 45.5% in 2016. The role of women changed more dramatically in twentieth century Ireland than any other period in Irish history. For centuries, Irish women were bound by a patriarchal society confining them to the home, characterising them as one-dimensional (Patterson 2001). Prior to the industrial revolution, the agricultural sector was the main source of employment for Irish women accounting for 37% of total female employment in 1927 (CSO.ie). However, the 1960’s and 1970’s marked the beginning of Ireland’s economic development as the country moved towards a more urbanised industrialised based economy. During this period, the numbers of females employed in the agricultural sector began to decline rapidly, with women securing employment in areas such as industry, manufacturing, commerce and professional services in greater numbers. During the thirty-year period 1966-1996 the agricultural sector was the only sector of the Irish economy to record a decline in the number of females employed. This period in Irish history also marked the entrance of women into the workforce in greater numbers, changing the social, political and religious landscape in Ireland. Following on from this, the Celtic Tiger era (the late 1990’s and early 2000’s), one of the most significant periods in the history of the Irish labour market, recorded unprecedented economic growth. During this period, Ireland went from being referred to as the ‘Poorest of the Rich’ by the Economist in 1988 to ‘Europe’s shining light’ less than 10 years later (Murphy 2000). Ireland’s buoyant economy during the Celtic Tiger facilitated a rapid expansion in labour market demand, which was reflected in a rise in total employment figures by 58% during the ten year period from 1996 to 2006, which accounted for an increase of 49% in female
employment during this period (Turner and McMahon 2008). By 2005 the employment rate for women in Ireland was 58%, which exceeded the EU Stockholm Council target of 57% for female employment in Europe (CSO 2005). This affluent period in the Irish economy was followed by a severe global recession, which saw a massive adjustment in Ireland’s labour market. The employment rate in Ireland fell sharply between 2008 and 2012, from 69.1% to 59.1%, before showing the first signs of recovery in 2013. However, the effects of the economic recession were less detrimental to women than men in the Irish labour market. This is mainly due to the collapse of the construction sector which was predominantly staffed by males; with male employment during this period falling sharply from 76% in 2008 to 62.4% in 2012, before showing signs of recovery in 2013. The female employment rate also declined during this period from 60.6% in 2008 to 55.2% in 2012 (CSO 2017). Since 2013, the employment figures for both males and females have increased year on year, with a record number of females employed in the Irish labour market in 2016 (893,500) (CSO 2017).

Overall, during the period 1926-2016 female employment grew by 564,096 compared to 174,590 for males (CSO 2017). Despite the increased participation of women in the Irish labour market, in addition to the significant contributions made by women in the Irish economy, there is still a disparity between the position of men and women in the workforce, with women failing to reach more senior level positions in organisations, relative to their male counterparts (Department of Justice 2007). While a comprehensive dataset of the figures of women in different managerial positions in the Irish workforce is not available, the CSO does provide information for the ‘Managers and Executives’ category of employment in Ireland. Figure 1.2 maps the overall trends in the ‘Managers and Executives’ category of employment in Ireland from 1961-2016 for both males and females.
Figure 1.2: Breakdown in Management and Executive Posts by Gender in Ireland, 1961-2016

Figure 1.2 maps the significant increase in the numbers of females in the ‘Managers and Executives’ category of employment during the period 1961-2016, highlighting an increase of 58,759 compared to an increase of 98,216 for males in the category. This also represents a change in the ratio of females: males from 1:13.2 to 1:8. However, caution must be paid when interpreting these figures. Firstly, the definition of the category has changed between data collection rounds, for example, in 1961 the category was titled ‘Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers’, whereas in 2016 the definition was ‘Managers and Administrators’, secondly, the category contains employees, such as administrators, which are not necessarily in managerial positions and thirdly it fails to differentiate between higher level management and junior level management positions. Much of the research to date, suggests that while women are well represented at more junior management levels, this is not true in the case of senior management positions where there appears to be a much wider gap. A study carried out by the Irish Business and Employers’ Confederation (IBEC) (2002) is one of the most comprehensive studies carried out on women in management in Ireland. In this study Coughlan (2002) reports that women account for just 8% of Irish chief executives, 21% of senior managers, and 30% of middle managers. When these three categories are combined, women make up only a quarter of all managers. Interestingly, the results of the Grant Thornton International Business Report 2016 (Grant Thornton 2016) show that 19% of senior level managers in Ireland are female, indicating a decrease in the number of women in senior management roles in Ireland, indicating a lack of progression in this area over the past decade. Furthermore, Irish women currently...
make up 13.2% of board members of the largest publicly listed companies, which is significantly below the EU average of 21.1% (European Commission 2017). These trends are mirrored in the results of a study published by the 30% Club in Ireland. Recent results published as part of a 5-year study on women in management in Ireland indicate that among the 143 companies included in the study, women hold 40% of positions at the lowest level of management surveyed, with this proportion decreasing at each level of seniority, 35% of level 1 management and 26% of executive director roles, falling to 17% of Chief Executive Officer (CEO) positions. When these results are broken down further they indicate that there is over twice the proportion of females at CEO level in public limited company (PLC) compared to private sector organisations, while there is no female CEO of a public-sector body among the respondent organisations. Furthermore, the results reveal that there are more women in management roles in companies where the CEO is female compared to companies where the CEO is male (Kirrane et al 2016). Overall, these studies generate a consistent portrayal of women’s experiences in the Irish workplace. Among these studies, women’s participation in management was found to be inversely related to the leadership hierarchy, with Kirrane et al (2016) arguing that these trends reflect the ‘sticky floor’ rather than the glass ceiling as women get stuck in the bottleneck of middle management.

The imbalances outlined within the Irish context are not exclusive to Ireland. Despite the rapid increase in female participation in the paid labour force worldwide, considerable evidence has been gathered that documents the dearth of women in management positions and has been a cause of concern for both academics and practitioners, evoking research and academic debate in this area (for example, Wirth, 2001; Davidson and Burke, 2004; Singh and Vinnicombe, 2004). However, similar to the Irish context, Davidson and Burke (2000) note how international comparisons of female managers are difficult to achieve, due to the manner in which data is collected and recorded, as many official national classification systems used to collect data include different categories of professionals and administration staff in the management category. Yet, despite these difficulties in collating data, the data available unequivocally points to the fact that women are failing to progress into management positions worldwide, relative to their male counterparts, and in particular, into senior management positions. Although women now comprise a greater proportion of management than in any previous era, the situation remains one of significant imbalance. A report published by McKinsey and Company 2007 notes how few women hold top management jobs in European 

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2 The 30% Club campaigns for greater representation of women on the boards of FTSE100 boards with a target of a minimum of 30%. It was established in the United Kingdom in 2010 and currently has 10 chapters.
companies (Desvaux, Devillard-Hoellinger and Baumgarten 2007). This is not only the case in European companies; it is indeed a global phenomenon. More recently, the Grant Thornton International Business Report (2016) highlights that the proportion of women in senior management roles is stuck at 24% since 2007 (except for 2011 and 2012 when numbers fell to 20% and 21% respectively as a direct result of the global economic crisis), with 33% of companies failing to appoint females into senior management roles. This report further highlights the plight of women in the Japanese workforce, with 73% of Japanese companies failing to employ women in senior management roles and only 60% of G8 (France, Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom, Japan, the United States, Canada, and Russia) companies employing females into their most senior roles. Russian organisations employ the highest number of women in senior management positions (45%) compared to Japan who employ the lowest number of female managers (7%). These statistics highlight that almost universally, women have failed to reach leading positions in major corporations and private sector organisations, irrespective of their abilities, concurring with previous literature in the area (ILO 1993; Davidson and Burke 2000; Vinnicombe 2000; Linehan 2002). Although armed with appropriate educational levels and years of experience in the workforce, managerial and professional women have not made progress in entering the ranks of senior management (Powell 1999), reinforcing Adler (1995) who stated that the single most uncontroversial, indisputable statement one can make about women in management is that there are very few of them.

1.3 Rationale for this Study

Over the past 30 years, scholars have sought to explain and/or to resolve gender differences and inequality of opportunities through theoretical and empirical research on women in management (please see Chapter 2). This research includes areas such as: the continued existence of the glass ceiling and the reluctance to promote women into senior management roles (Hymowitz and Schellhardt 1986; Bass and Avolio 1994; Morrison, White and Van Velsor 1994; Powell and Butterfield 1994; Ragins, Townsend and Mattis 1998); the question of women’s commitment to their paid work (Crittenden 2001; Belkin 2003); family practices and women’s work-life balance (Schwartz 1996; Evans 2001; Linehan and Walsh 2001; Rothbard 2001); the effect of maternity breaks on career (Crittenden 2001; Williams and Cooper 2004); gender pay gaps and equality of pay (Turner and McMahon 2008) and differences in leadership styles (Johnson and Powell 1994; Eagly, Karau and Makhijani 1995; Eagly and Carli 2003; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2007; Powell 2012; Singh, Nadim and Ezzedeen 2012; Hyde 2014) to name but a few. Scholars have investigated these issues from a range of perspectives
including management and organisational studies, psychology, sociology and cultural and feminist studies. Furthermore, several theoretical perspectives have been advanced to explain why men are more successful in the pursuit of senior organisational positions. For example: the ‘social identity/persistent perspective’ (Tajfel and Turner 1986; Singh and Vinnicombe 2004) which highlights that those selecting individuals for positions will choose those who are most similar to themselves, and often hold a belief that females in lower levels of the organisation have less to offer than males, making them less attractive for more senior level positions; the ‘social systems perspective’ (Omar and Davidson 2001) which contends that social and institutional systems within which organisations operate, include beliefs about gender and behaviour; ‘similarity attraction theory’ (Tolbert, Graham and Andrews 1999) advocates that individuals are more likely to be attracted to those who are similar in terms of values and attitudes, focusing specifically on how observable similarities between or among groups influence the direction of evaluation in organisations; ‘expectation states theory’ (Ridgeway 2001) proposes that individuals within groups often establish shared beliefs about the overall capacity of their fellow members of a particular group. These expectations often stem from taken-for-granted and unintentional general beliefs of individuals with a specific characteristic, for example, gender (Weyer 2007); ‘threat–rigidity theory’ (Staw, Sandelands and Dutton 1981) posits that individuals and groups tend to behave rigidly when they face a threatening situation that involves environmental changes. In this way, the advancement of women may place both men and the organisation more generally in a threatening situation; the ‘gender-centred perspective’ (Harragan 1977; Terborg 1977; Fagenson 1990) centres on the belief that women do not possess the personality traits, attributes and behaviours necessary for management; the ‘organisational structural perspective’ (Kanter 1977) which proposes that deeply held beliefs and culture of an organisation create a unique environment not suitable for women, for example, the old boys’ networks and finally, the ‘gender-organisation-system perspective’ (GOS) (Fagenson 1993), the perspective employed in this thesis, argues that women’s lack of representation in higher levels of the organisation can be due to a combination of their gender, organisational contexts and the larger society in which they function.

There are several reasons for employing a systems lens to this research. Firstly, a systems approach provides a framework for visualising both internal and external environmental factors as an integrated whole (Johnson, Kast and Rosenzweig 1964). In this context, “a system is an organised or complex whole; an assemblage or combination of things or parts forming a complex or unitary whole” (Johnson et al 1964 p. 367). Thus, the model can account for both internal and external factors affecting women’s advancement in the workplace. Secondly, the
focus is on interactions and the relationships between parts in order to understand the organisation’s entity, functioning and outcomes (Mele, Pels and Polese 2010). Systems thinking therefore allows the organisation to be viewed from a broader perspective that includes structures, patterns and events rather than just events themselves, helping researchers understand patterns of events within organisations. Although different factors can be treated in isolation, using a systems approach allows the synergies between factors to be highlighted and considered. Thirdly, a distinctive characteristic of systems theory is that it has developed simultaneously across various disciplines, meaning that scholars working from a systems perspective can build upon knowledge and concepts developed within other disciplines (Mele et al 2010). In doing so, it widens the lens through which women’s positions in organisations are considered and examined. Finally, employing a systems approach considers the interdependencies and relationships between different factors; in this case, the interdependencies between social, personal and organisational factors.

Turning to the GOS perspective (Fagenson 1990; 1993) this approach suggests that women’s advancement into senior management is affected by societal, individual and organisational factors, taking into account the interaction and relationships between the different variables. In other words, instead of treating individuals, society and organisations as separate factors, the GOS perspective allows this thesis to consider all three factors working together as part of a wider system. In doing so, it locates individuals in both a societal and organisational context and in turn considers the impact of both societal and organisational contexts on the individual. It also places organisations in a societal context and considers the impact of the social context on an organisation which influences organisational culture, and in turn shapes organisational policies and practices (Peretz and Fried 2012; Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk et al 2013). In essence, GOS looks at the sum of the parts as opposed to considering each individual component separately.

Figure 1.3 outlines the GOS perspective applied in this thesis.
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**Figure 1.3: Research Framework: The Gender-Organisation-System Perspective**

**Societal Context**
The societal context considers the social environment where individuals are socialised into gender specific roles, predetermining the suitability of males and females to particular professions in the labour market, which in turn leads to occupational segregation and discrimination against women in the workplace.

**Personal Factors**
Personal factors take into consideration internal factors, such as characteristics, attributes and traits, which determine an individual’s perceived suitability to a particular job and role in the workplace, which in turn can have an impact on the progression of women in the workplace.

**Organisational Context**
The organisational context includes factors such as organisational culture, history, ideology, policies, procedures, as well as its structure and considers the impact these factors have on individuals in the workplace.

**Women in Management**
The combined effect of each of these factors is limiting women’s progression in the workplace.

(Adapted from Fagenson 1993)

The GOS perspective is applied in this thesis as follows: (1) **societal context**: under societal context this thesis examines the impact of profound changes in Irish society during the twentieth century on the perception of women’s suitability to the managerial role; (2) **personal factors**: under personal factors this thesis identifies the traits ascribed to men, women and managers in general. By identifying the traits used to describe men, women and managers in general, conclusions can be drawn about the prevalence of gender stereotypes and whether or not women are perceived to possess the traits necessary for the role of manager; (3) **organisational context**: under organisational context this thesis considers the impact of organisational culture, networking and tokenism on the selection of women into higher echelons of the organisation and maps the trends in the appointment of females onto state boards in Ireland from 1970-2007; (4) **societal, personal and organisational context**: this element of the thesis takes into consideration the interconnectivity between the three different elements of the GOS perspective. This thesis considers the individual needs of employees, in the form of the need for FWAs, the organisational context in terms of the policies and procedures in place which govern the availability of FWAs and the social context in terms of the institutional environments...
in which organisations are operating. In doing so, the availability, uptake and organisational benefits of offering FWAs across seven EU countries is examined.

Although each of the individual elements of the GOS perspective are dealt with separately through the research objectives (please see figure 1.4), the use of a systems lens allows the interaction and relationships between the different elements to be consider. Therefore, instead of arguing that women’s limited progression in the workplace is due to societal, personal or organisational factors the GOS perspective argues that women’s limited progression in the workplace is due to a combination of their gender, organisational contexts and the larger society in which they function.

1.4 Research Aims and Objectives

The overall objective of this thesis is not to develop new theoretical perspectives on why women fail to reach senior management positions, but to present empirical contributions on women in the workplace using the GOS perspective to frame the research. These contributions are first articulated through the four published/accepted for publication articles included in Chapter 3 and are subsequently revisited in Chapter 4 using the GOS perspective to summarise and present the collective contributions of these studies.

The research aim guiding this thesis is to examine systematic issues relating to women in the workplace using the gender-organisation-systems theoretical perspective. To achieve this aim four different research objectives have been identified:

1. To determine the impact of societal changes on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles in Ireland.
2. To identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general and to determine the impact that these traits and attributes are having on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland.
4. To investigate the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and to determine the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability.

Figure 1.4 illustrates these objectives within the context of the GOS perspective.
Figure 1.4: Research Objectives: Application of the Gender-Organisation-System Perspective to the Examination of Systematic Issues Affecting Women’s Progression in the Workplace

1.5 Research Methods

The next section outlines the research philosophy informing this thesis, the research instruments used and the statistical techniques employed to analyse the data.

1.5.1 Research Philosophy

This thesis employs a positivist frame of reference. Bryman and Bell (2007 p. 16) define positivism as “an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond”. In this regard, positivists believe that reality is stable and can be observed and described from an objective viewpoint (Levin 1988).
Central to the positivist tradition is the use of deductive research methods, which are employed in this thesis. The deductive approach starts with the development of conceptual and theoretical structures before employing empirical observations and testing. Central to the deductive approach is the assumption that the researcher and subject under research can remain separate by using quantitative devices such as questionnaires and surveys which allow for replication and reliability of results. The next section outlines the research instruments used in this thesis.

1.5.2 Research Instrument and Analysis

A number of different data sets are used in this research; Article 1 draws data from the annual reports of state sponsored bodies in Ireland 1970-2007; Articles 2 and 3 draw from data collected using Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI); and article 4 draws on data from the 2008/10 round of the CRANET survey on Human Resource Management. The next section first provides details of the research instruments used, before outlining the statistical techniques employed to analyse the data.

1.5.2.1 Annual Reports

Article 1 draws data from the annual reports of state sponsored bodies in Ireland from 1970-2007 and subsequently maps the trends in female participation rates on state sponsored boards. The article also examines the appointment of female chairpersons on these boards during this timeframe, as well as examining the effectiveness of the 40/60 gender balance initiative introduced in 1991. There were two main forms of data collection employed in this study: (1) data was taken directly from the annual reports of state sponsored bodies or (2) through contacting the company directly and attaining the information via email or over the phone. Data in this study is analysed using Excel.

1.5.2.2 Schein’s Descriptive Index

Articles 2 and 3 use SDI. SDI focuses on the relationship between gender and management stereotypes, reflecting the extent to which men and women are perceived to possess requisite managerial characteristics. SDI consists of a series of 92 descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. In a typical SDI study, participants rate how characteristic the 92 descriptive words / phrases are of men, women and managers in general. Some of these are positive in connotation (e.g. sympathetic, sentimental, creative, courteous, sociable, kind, helpful, prompt, generous), others are negative (e.g. bitter, selfish, submissive, vulgar, passive, deceitful, hasty, quarrelsome), and some are neither very positive nor very negative (e.g. curious, competitive, knows the way of the world, hides emotion, demure, desire for
friendship). The original 92 descriptive terms are used to measure gender stereotypes and characteristics of managers. As with previous research using SDI, three different target conditions are utilised in this research. Each participant responds to only one target condition. The conditions are as follows: (1) men in general, (2) women in general and (3) managers in general, these are randomly assigned to participants. Respondents were given the following instructions: We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think of men/women/managers in general. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine you are about to meet the person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is the person is male/female or a manager. Please rate each word/phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a man/woman/manager in general. A 5-point scale is used to rate the descriptive items: 1-Not characteristic, 2-Somewhat uncharacteristic, 3-Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic, 4-Somewhat characteristic, 5-Characteristic. This data is then analysed using SPSS to calculate Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC, $r^1$) to determine the relationship between the different moderators and requisite managerial characteristics. In addition, an examination of the specific descriptive items on which men or women are perceived similar or different to managers is carried out by performing a factorial analysis. Duncan’s Multiple Range test for unequal ns is subsequently carried out to determine the significance of the difference between the mean ratings of men and managers and women and managers. An agglomerative hierarchal cluster is also employed in article 3 to determine the nature of the attributes ascribed to men, women and managers.

1.5.2.3 The CRANET Survey on Human Resource Management

Data for article 4 is obtained from the 2008/2010 round of the CRANET survey. CRANET is an international network of business schools from around the world which conducts a survey of human resource management. The survey is conducted approximately every four years. The CRANET dataset is unique in two ways: first it allows for the comparison of HRM policies and practices in a large number of countries across the globe and secondly, as the network has collected data on a regular basis since 1989, CRANET allows the examination of trends and changes in HRM over time. For the purpose of this thesis data from 1,064 organisations across 7 EU countries (France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Sweden and the UK) is included determine whether or not there are distinct clusters of organisations based on FWAs offered, to examine the composition of each FWA cluster and to test the association between each FWA cluster an HR (employee turnover and absenteeism) and organisational performance (productivity and profitability). Hierarchical cluster analysis is carried out to identify groups of organisations with similar FWA patterns. Cluster membership is then tested for association
with organisational demographics. Differences between cluster groups is also examined for the outcome variables of interest; employee turnover, absenteeism, productivity and profitability. Statistical analysis used the Chi-square test for categorical data and Kruskall-Wallis or Mann-Whitney non-parametric tests for skewed or ordinal data. A 5% level of significance is used for all statistical tests.

1.6 Thesis Structure

This thesis takes the form of a ‘PhD by article’, which comprises of a number of published/accepted for publication articles. The ‘PhD by article’ was approved and adopted by the University of Limerick in March 2006. The University of Limerick Academic Regulations require that PhD candidates demonstrate in their research and thesis: “...evidence of independent enquiry, originality in the methods used and/or in the conclusions drawn and must make an appreciable new contribution to knowledge or thinking in the candidate’s field.” (UL Handbook of Academic Administration 2012, p. 69).

The University guidelines on what is required to achieve a PhD through this process are as follows:

“An article-based thesis refers to the format in which a number of research articles (usually between three and five), produced by the PhD candidate while a registered research student, are published or accepted for publication in peer-reviewed journals. An article-based thesis will usually comprise of an introduction, including an explanation of the research question(s), the research subject, relevant literature and methodology, and a concluding chapter, in which the results of the research are summarised and discussed. Alternatively, this latter section may be included in the form of an overall introductory chapter.”

(UL Handbook of Academic Administration 2012, p. 70)

This thesis is based on the following four peer-reviewed published/accepted for publication articles:


1.7 Links Between Research Objectives, the GOS Perspective and the Published/Accepted for Publication Articles

The next section first identifies the links between each research objectives and the four published/accepted for publication articles. It then establishes the links between each of the four published/accepted for publication articles and the various elements of the GOS perspective.

To start, Figure 1.5 illustrates the link between each of the individual research objectives and the four published/accepted for publication articles. The figure employs arrows whereby continuous arrows indicate where the particular article fully addresses the research objective.
Figure 1.5: Link Between Research Objectives and Published/Accepted for Publication

Articles

![Diagram showing links between research objectives and published articles]

While each of the four individual research objectives represent a specific component of the GOS perspective (please see figure 1.4), the research objectives highlight the importance of the interconnectedness between the different elements of the GOS framework when explaining the limited progression of women in the workplace. For example, article 1 considers the impact of societal factors and organisational factors on the selection of women to the boards of state sponsored bodies in Ireland over a 37-year period and in doing so seeks to address research objective 3 and research objective 2, while articles 2 and 3 identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in Ireland against the backdrop of societal changes, seeking to address research objective 2 and research objective.

The interconnectedness between the different elements of the GOS perspective can be articulated further through each of the published/accepted for publication articles. These links are outlined hereafter.

*Societal factors:* Articles 1, 2 and 3 consider the impact of social factors on the progression of women in the workplace. Article 1 considers the impact of societal changes in Ireland and the
effect of these changes on selection of women onto the boards of state sponsored boards in Ireland over a 37-year period. Against the backdrop of unprecedented societal changes in Ireland, articles 2 and 3 consider gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics among a nursing and midwifery and student samples respectively.

**Personal factors:** Using SDI, articles 2 and 3 examine the nature of attributes and traits ascribed to men, women and managers in general and consider the impact these ascribed traits are having on the perception of women’s possession of requisite managerial characteristics.

**Organisational context:** Following the introduction of a 40/60 gender balance initiative, introduced in 1991 to address the gender imbalance of board members, Article 1 considers the impact of informal selection processes on the appointment of females to the boards of state sponsored bodies in Ireland over a 37-year period, in addition to identifying the number of female chairpersons during this period. Article 3 also considers the impact of organisational contexts when explaining the results recorded by the qualified nurses and midwives sample.

**Societal, personal and organisational context:** Amid the changing demographic profile of the workforce, increasing demand and popularity of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) to reconcile work/non-work responsibilities and the influence institutional contexts have on organisational policies, article 4 examines the availability and uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries to help build a business case argument for the widespread implementation of FWAs.

### 1.8 Overview of Published Articles

The next section provides a brief overview of each of the four published/ accepted for publication articles.


Using secondary data from annual reports, this study is the first of its kind to examine longitudinal trends in female appointments to the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland over a 37-year period from 1970-2007. State-sponsored bodies are “companies, agencies or organisations established by the state to carry out a specific function or functions” (Tansey 1981 p. 5), with the power and duties of these bodies being set out by statute or by ministerial authority. Each board, which is mainly appointed by Government Ministers, is responsible for
Chapter 1: Introduction

overseeing the effective discharge of the body’s remit (Litton 1980). Recognising the lack of female representation on these boards, The National Women’s Council of Ireland put forward a motion of 40/60 gender representation of females on state boards to the Second Commission on the Status of Women in 1990, which subsequently came into effect in 1991. The aim of this study is to determine the effectiveness of the 40/60 gender quota and to assess the overall appointment of women to state boards in Ireland from 1970-2007 using a sample of 50 randomly selected boards. In addition, the number of female chairpersons over the same period is calculated.

As this study is the first of its kind in Ireland it contributes to the literature on a number of fronts: (1) this study indicates that over a 37-year period, despite the increased representation of females on the boards of state sponsored bodies these findings highlight a significant gender imbalance on boards; (2) despite the Government’s commitment to enforce a 40/60 gender balance initiative in 1991, to redress gender imbalance on state sponsored boards, the 40/60 quota is used as a ceiling rather than a minimum and (3) occupational segregation is evident in the results as women tend to be concentrated on boards in particular areas.


The overall aim of this study is to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics within the nursing and midwifery profession in Ireland. While studies to date have examined the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial positions among student and qualified samples, across a range of professions, including the male dominated military profession, this study is the first to examine the relationship within a female dominated profession. Using SDI, data was collected from 239 undergraduate and 171 qualified nurses and midwives. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC, r1) are computed to determine the relationship between men and women and requisite managerial characteristics. In addition, an examination of the specific descriptive items on which men or women are perceived to be similar or different to managers is also carried out by performing a factorial analysis. Duncan’s Multiple Range test for unequal ns is used to determine the significance of the difference between the mean ratings of men and managers compared to women and managers.
The findings from this study contribute to the literature on a number of fronts: (1) despite working in a female dominated profession, male nurses and midwives gender type the managerial role in favour of men; (2) comparing the results of this study to the results of previous studies, ICC scores recorded for women and managers in this study are notably higher than ICC scores previously recorded in the literature; (3) both the female students and female qualified nurses and midwives recorded a higher ICC score for men and managers compared to those previously recorded in the military profession, and (4) an examination of the highest rated descriptive items for women by both the student and qualified nurses and midwives indicates that women are no longer perceived to be communal in nature, as the top ten rated items for women recorded by both samples contained a combination of communal and agentic items. On the other hand, both men and managers continue to be perceived as agentic in nature.


Against the backdrop of unprecedented female representation in the Irish workforce, this study examines gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, building on previous studies to date. In doing so, data was collected from 1,263 undergraduate and postgraduate students in a large public university in the Republic of Ireland. Using SDI, ICCs ($r^1$) are computed to determine the relationship between men and women and requisite managerial characteristics. Subsequently Lord and Maher’s (1991) recognition based processes is tested to determine whether familiarity with women in leadership positions decreased the ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm. Finally, factorial analysis and agglomerative hierarchal cluster analysis are used to identify the traits attributed to men, women and managers, allowing conclusions to be drawn on the nature of the traits ascribed to men, women and managers in general.

On the issue of gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics the findings from this study present a similar pattern of results as studies to date, with males gender typing the managerial role in favour of men, while females on the other had do not gender type the managerial role. Despite the proposition of Lord and Maher’s (1991) recognition based processes that familiarity with women in leadership positions would decrease the ‘think male-think manager’ paradigm, among the cohorts included in this sample, the opposite effect was recorded. Respondents who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger similarity between men and managers. Finally, the results of this study add to our
existing knowledge on the traits and attributes ascribed to women and managers. Studies to date have concluded that leadership has become more androgynous, in addition to the intensification of gender stereotypes (Lueptow, Garovich-Szabo and Lueptow 2001; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell et al 2011). However, the pattern results recorded in this study challenge these findings on two fronts (1) both the factorial analysis and cluster analysis confirm that, among this sample, the way in which women are perceive has changed from a communal view to an androgynous view, as women are perceived to possess a combination of communal and agentic attributes and traits and (2) managers are not perceived to be androgynous, this sample perceive manager to be agentic in nature.


This aim of this study is to examine the relationship between bundles of FWAs and HR and organisational outcomes. Ward’s hierarchical clustering algorithm is used to identify novel bundles of organisations based on the uptake of twelve individual FWAs across 1,064 organisations in 7 EU countries, and to relate bundle membership to demographic variables and HR and organisational performance outcomes. In doing so, this article first identifies 4 unique bundles types based on the uptake of each individual FWA, and in so doing, provides details of the significance of each individual FWA in the formation of each bundle. Secondly, by identifying the demographic profile of organisations in each bundle this article determines whether FWAs were universally applied or if indeed particular FWAs are more conducive in different contexts. Finally, this article examines the association between each of the bundles and employee turnover, absenteeism, profitability and productivity.

Responding to calls in the literature to build a stronger business case argument for the implementation of FWAs in the workplace (De Menezes and Kelliher 2011) the contributions of this study are three-fold: firstly, presenting evidence from a large sample, this study advances knowledge in the field by empirically identifying the formation of FWA bundles; secondly this study confirms distinct groups of organisations offering similar FWA strategies based on bundle membership; and thirdly this study assess the association between FWA bundles and organisational outcomes across 1,064 organisations in seven EU countries, confirming a significantly different association between each of the four bundles and employee turnover, absenteeism and productivity. The implications of these results are subsequently outlined.
The overall contributions of these articles are presented in Chapter 4. These contributions are considered from a theoretical, empirical and practical viewpoint, before finally considering the results of these articles within the context of the GOS perspective.

1.9 Outline of the Remainder of the Thesis
The remainder of the thesis is structured as follows: Chapter 2 provides a review of the relevant literature and an overview of the theoretical perspective applied in this thesis before identifying and outlining the gaps in the literature. Chapter 3 presents each of the published/accepted for publication articles. Finally, Chapter 4 outlines the main contributions of each of the individual articles, the overall contribution of this study from a theoretical, empirical and practical perspective, the contributions of this study within the context of the GOS perspective, the limitations of the research, areas for future research and a concluding statement on the author’s PhD journey.
Chapter 2: Literature Review
2.1 Introduction

“Ever since the garden of Eden, the issues of sex and gender have affected the life of every human being on our planet” (Korabik 1999 p. 3). However, since the mid-20th century these topics have become the focus of systematic investigation by researchers, investigating these issues from a range of perspectives including psychology, sociology, cultural studies, feminist studies, and of particular interest to this thesis, management and organisational studies. The ideology of separate spheres dominates thought about gender roles from the late 18th through to the 19th century. According to this ideology, because men and women have inherently different natures, the role played by each gender in society should be fundamentally different. Thus, at that time, it was viewed as natural for men to immerse themselves in business and commerce whereas the natural role for women was in the home, taking charge of domestic pursuits and child bearing and rearing. Women who sought places in the public or organisational sphere often found themselves identified as unnatural, and thought to challenge cultural assumptions (Johnson Lewis 2015). As a result, women of the time, found themselves disadvantaged socially, educationally, politically, economically and even medically.

2.2 Developments Within the Field of Gender Research

Within the context of management and organisational studies, because gender is central to our theoretical conceptions of management, any attempt to understand management must take gender into account (Maier 1999). Although the proponents of classical theories of management, for example, Scientific Management, Human Relations and Behavioural Approaches, do not consciously consider the gender perspective that underlies them, it is nonetheless implicit. Maier (1999) highlights that, be it consciously or unconsciously, there is a long-standing tradition for management and managerial roles to be configured around two central dimensions- task and/or people. For example, Scientific Management (1911) focuses on tasks, placing emphasis on efficiency, productivity and standardisation, compared to the Human Relations Approach (ca. 1927-1945) which emphasises the importance of people (Maier 1999). Further studies, for example, McGregor’s (1960) Theory X and Theory Y, Stogdill’s (1974) Ohio State Studies, Blake and Mouton’s (1978) Managerial Grid and Fiedler’s (1967) Contingency Theory deal with both domains, task and people, in a single management theory. Within the context of these theories, concern for task/production/initiation and their corollaries are more associated with masculinity across most global cultures (Gilligan 1982; Mills 1989; Cann and Siegfried 1990; Eisler 1993; Morgan 1996) whereas concern for individuals/relationships/consideration and their corollaries are more akin with femininity (Sargent 1981; Gordon 1990; Kimmel 1993; Martin 1993).
More specifically, over the past 40 years there has been a major international growth in the number of studies on gender relations in organisations and within management (Broadbridge and Hearn 2008). The range of topics studied internationally have been vast and include: gender relations in management and organisations; gender in groups, culture and communication; gendered divisions in hierarchies, labour, power and authority; gender and information technology; sexuality, harassment, bullying and violence in organisations; home/work relations; as well as theoretically oriented studies of management (Broadbridge and Hearn 2008). In addition, debates surrounding the meaning of gender and models of gender have heightened since the mid-20th century. To date many psychologists, particularly feminist psychologists, have drawn distinction between the terms sex and gender. This distinction first came to prominence when the term sex was used by Money et al (1955; 1957) to refer to an individuals’ physical characteristics and the term gender to refer to an individuals’ psychological characteristics and behaviour. Some twenty years later Unger (1979) argues that the widespread use of the term sex implies biological causes and promotes the idea that differences between men and women are natural and immutable. Gender, according to Unger (1979) refers to traits that are culturally assumed to be appropriate for women and men. In mapping the evolution of gender in the 20th century, Korabik (1999) presents three distinct models of gender, each of which is summarised in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Overview of Models of Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unidimensional Models</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Places masculinity and femininity on opposite ends of a continuum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Incorporates the notion of biological essentialism, i.e. men and women have inherently different natures (Bem 1993) and therefore men and women are expected to have sex-congruent (i.e. masculinity for men and femininity for women) personality traits, attitudes, values and behavioural preferences (Ashmore 1993).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Those who subscribe to the unidimensional view prescribe a high degree of gender-role conformity for men and women. Within an organisational setting men are used as the normative group and the patriarchal attitude that men are superior to women prevails, relegating women to roles and positions that are lower in prestige, power and income (Ridgeway 1992).</td>
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### Bidimensional Models

- Gender is viewed as consisting of two conceptually independent dimensions: masculinity and femininity, that are independent of biological sex (Bem 1974; Spence, Helmreich and Stapp 1975).
- Over time two competing bidimensional models of gender were proposed:
  - Bem’s (1974) balance theory - operationalise androgyny in terms of the difference between masculinity and femininity scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). Individuals were characterised as masculine or feminine in their gender role orientation if there was a large difference between their masculinity and femininity scores, and as androgyneous if the difference was non-significant.
  - Spence et al (1975) additive model - Instead of focusing on whether masculinity and femininity are balanced, the additive model of gender-role orientation (Spence et al 1975) concentrates on the magnitude or absolute amount of masculinity or femininity that an individual possesses, dividing people into four different categories- undifferentiated (low on both masculinity and femininity), masculine, feminine and androgyneous (high on both masculinity and femininity).

### Multidimensional Models

- Recognises that gender is not only multidimensional and multifactorial but also context dependent, multiply determined and confounded with other variables (Cook 1985; Deaux and Major 1987; Ashmore 1993). Therefore when studying gender one cannot ignore the social, societal, developmental and cultural contexts in which gender is enacted (Ashmore 1993).
- A number of multidimensional models have been developed, each of which attempts to explicate a different aspect of gender:
  - The differentiated additive model (Marsh 1987) postulates that masculinity and femininity have differential effects, with masculinity affecting competency related outcomes and femininity affecting relationship-oriented outcomes. Research in this area has sometimes indicated more positive outcomes associated with masculinity (Cook 1985), often referred to as the ‘masculine supremacy effect’. For example, both masculine (task) and feminine (interpersonal) qualities have been deemed necessary for effective leadership (Powell 1993), however, the schema of a good manager is a masculine one.
  - The differentiated multidimensional gender-role model- McCreary and Korabik (1994) developed the differentiated multidimensional gender-role model by expanding the concept of gender to include negative as well as positive attributes. According to this theory, either too much or too little masculinity or femininity can be undesirable. Individuals with too much agency can be seen as autocratic and domineering, whereas those seen as having too much communion are overly expressive and overly accommodating (Korabik 1999).
  - Multilevel models- Rosen and Rekers (1980) propose a taxonomic framework that differentiated sex and gender at three levels: physical (gender refers to the genetic, hormonal and anatomical aspects that make a person physiologically male or female), intrapersonal (referring to one’s sexual identity) and interpersonal processes (appropriate focus being on one’s sexual orientation or behaviour). Furthermore Unger and Crawford (1996) introduce a further level not included in Rosen and Rekers’ (1980) taxonomy- the social structure level in which gender is seen as a system of social classification that influences access to power and resources.
  - The interpersonal interaction model- Deaux and Major’s (1987) focus on the fact that gender is enacted within the context of dynamic, socially constructed and interpersonal interactions, arguing that behaviour is a function of gender related beliefs and expectations about the self and others (stereotypes) that are held and the manner in which such beliefs are conveyed. In essence, they argue that situational cues make gender more or less salient.

(Adapted from Korabik 1999)

However, despite these attempts to define gender and the continued debates surrounding the term, many authors continue to use the term interchangeably (Muehlenhard and Peterson 2011). Furthermore, Muehlenhard and Peterson (2011) highlight that authors who distinguish between sex and gender construe gender as more related to cultural influences and sex as being more
related to biology. Interestingly, following a review of the psychology literature, Muehlenhard and Peterson (2011) conclude that although distinguishing between sex and gender was a valuable contribution to the literature at one point in time, providing a means to reject biological dimensions that linked biology with rigid sex roles and expectations, they predict, similar to Yoder and Kahn (2003), that distinction between sex and gender may become less meaningful or less important going forward. In this thesis, the term sex is used to denote the grouping of people into male and female categories and the term gender refers to the meaning that societies and individuals ascribe to male and female categories.

Running concurrent to the debates on the meaning of gender and the evolution of the models of gender, the field of gender in organisations and management has also been widely researched, becoming a well-established field within the literature (Davidson and Burke 2000; Broadbridge and Hearn 2008; Gatrell, Cooper and Kossek 2010; Powell 2012; Burke and Major 2014; Kumra, Simpson and Burke 2014). Recent research and literature on the gendering of management has been strongly influenced by feminism and critical studies on gender, as well as recognising women’s experiences within the workplace (Kakabadse, Figueira, Nicolopoulou et al 2015; Moghadam 2015; Sojo, Wood and Genat 2016; Graham, Belliveau and Hotchkiss 2017). Broadbridge and Hearn (2008) identify two dominant strands of literature on gender and management established in the 1970’s: (1) studies of gendered labour markets including those influenced by studies of political economy and by Marxist and socialist feminist work; and (2) writings on women in management, which became most prominent after the publication of Kanter’s (1977) Men and Women of the Corporation, which brings together the political, economic and managerial approaches (Broadbridge and Hearn 2008). Since the late 1980’s, there has been an increase in the number of feminist, profeminist and critical studies on gender and gendered divisions of labour and authority, along with sexuality and identity in organisation and management (Walby 1990; Cockburn 1991; Davidson and Burke 1994; Reskin and Padavic 1994; Scott 1994; Newman and Itzin 1995; Wilson and Martin 1995; Collinson and Hearn 1996; Alvesson and Due Billing 1997; Halford and Leonard 2001; Aaltio, Mills and Helms Mills 2002; Ely, Foldy and Scully 2003; Brown 2015; Kleider 2015). Further developments in the literature since the 1990’s include methodological developments and divergent pluralism in feminist and critical gender research (Calás and Smircich 1999; 2006), the gendering of men in organisations and management (Collinson and Hearn 1994; 1996; Britton 2000; Katila and Eriksson 2013; Phillips, Pullen and Rhodes 2014) women’s participation in international management (Izraeli and Adler 1988; Adler and Izraeli 1994; Linehan and Scullion 2001; Linehan, Scullion and Walsh 2001; Linehan and Walsh 2001; Harris 2002; Linehan 2002) and
an emphasis on the centrality of gendered practices and ‘doing gender’ in organisations (Rantalaiho and Heiskanen 1997; Rao, Kelleher, Miller et al 2017).

The strand of literature which informs this thesis is the women in management literature, which will be discussed in the next section. Using the GOS perspective, this thesis examines different strands of the women in management literature and provides empirical contributions on women in the workplace. In doing so, this thesis first presents an overview of a number of dominant theoretical approaches which have been developed within the women in management literature since the 1970’s to enhance our understanding of, why in competition for the most powerful organisational positions, men are more successful than their female counterparts.

2.3 Developments in Women in Management Research

Since the 1970s, with the publication of Kanter’s (1977) *Men and Women of the Corporation* and Hennig and Jardim’s (1977) *The Managerial World*, women in management has become a well-established field in management studies. Research on women in management has grown out of the demand to challenge the prevailing paradigm that might be summarised as ‘think manager-think male’ (Schein 1976). Written at a time when women were largely absent from the ranks of management, Kanter (1977) was one of the first authors to examine gender in management in terms of understanding the dynamics of organisational behaviour. This strand of enquiry subsequently prompted further research in the area of women in management, for example, Hennig and Jardin (1977); Marshall (1984); Spencer and Podmore (1987); Nicholson and West (1988). Since then research has attempted to expose gender bias in existing research, and more importantly, critiquing and challenging the male dominant corporate hierarchy (Betters-Reed and Moore 1995). In doing so, over the past 40 years, scholars have sought to explain and/or to resolve gender differences and inequality of opportunities through theoretical and empirical research on women in management. The sheer volume of journals, books and articles dealing with the issue of women in management is a clear indication of the importance and progress of research related to women’s career progression (Borna and White 2003). Yet despite this progress, Marshall (1995) notes that it is not a coherent field. To date, scholars have investigated these issues from a range of perspectives, chartering various aspects of women in management including the barriers faced by women in their careers (Ashburner 1991; Schein 2001; Cross 2010), differences between men and women in decision making behaviours (Powell 1990; Johnson and Powell 1994), differences in leadership styles (Burke and Collins 2001; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2007; Collins, Burrus and Meyer 2014) career barriers of token women managers (Simpson 1997; Taylor 2016), gender differences in notions of career
success (Sturges 1999; Evers and Sieverding 2014; Hoobler, Lemmon and Wayne 2014), critical theories of the organisation (Modaff, Butler and DeWine 2016), analyses of gendered power relations (Ahonen, Tienari, Meriläinen et al 2014), critical research on men and masculinities and feminist and pro-feminist contributions (Collinson and Hearn 1994; Marshall 1995) to name but a few key areas investigated. Early studies on women in management often set out to establish the similarities between men and women in terms of leadership behaviour, focusing mainly on female personalities or individual characteristics which earns them acceptance against unquestioned norms of successful good managers. Schein’s (1976) classic study and title ‘think manager- think male’ sums up the world in which women are meant to prove themselves. Management research in this area since the mid 1980’s has become increasingly cross disciplinary and includes both empirical and purely theoretical approaches (Gatrell et al 2010). Since the 1990’s several theoretical models have been developed to organise theory and research findings in the area (a number of which are dealt with in the next section) (Fagenson 1990; Wajcman 1998; Powell 1999). In recent years a literature has developed which focuses exclusively on the labour market experience of women and which generally argues that women fare differently to their male counterparts (Cleveland, Stockdale and Murphy 2000; Loufti 2001; Robinson 2001; Kirton and Greene 2005; Murphy and Cross 2017).

2.4 Theoretical Perspectives on Women in Management
To date, several theoretical perspectives have been developed to help explain why men are more successful in the pursuit of senior organisational positions, with most of these perspectives positioning their arguments around two main issues- gender of the individual or organisation. The next section focuses specifically on four main theoretical perspectives applied to the study of women in management:

- Social identity theory/ persistent homogeneity
- The gender centred perspective
- Organisational structure perspective
- Gender-organisation-system perspective

2.4.1 Social Identity Theory
Social identity theory allows a deeper understanding of some of the processes involved in the change-resistant phenomenon of female access to senior managerial positions. According to social identity theory, people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories, for example, membership of groups such as family, race, gender, age, religious
affiliation and organisations. Initially the theory was researched and understood from a
cognitive social psychologist perspective, developed principally by Tajfel (1978; 1981), Tajfel
and Turner (1986) and Turner (1975; 1982; 1984; 1985). However, since the late 1980’s
researchers have begun to apply the theory to organisational settings (Ashforth and Mael 1989;
Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly III 1992; Wharton 1992; Haslam, van Knippenberg, Platow et al 2003;
Singh and Vinnicombe 2004).

According to this perspective, identity, “the location of an individual in social space” (Gecas,
Thomas and Weigert 1973 p. 44) has two components: a personal component derived from
idiosyncratic characteristics such as personality and physical and intellectual traits, and a social
component derived from salient group membership such as sex, race, class and nationality
(Ashforth and Mael 1989). As individuals, we segment and order the social environment
around us, defining ourselves and others by social categories, for example, gender. The social
component of identity involves processes of self-categorising and attaching value to particular
social categories so that ‘an individual’s knowledge of his or her membership in social groups
together with the emotional significance of that knowledge’ constitutes social identity (Turner
1985). According to Ashforth and Mael (1989) social classification within this context serves
two functions- firstly, it cognitively segments and orders the social environment, providing the
individual with a systematic means of defining others and as such, a person is assigned
prototypical characteristics of the category to which he or she is classified (Turner 1985).
Secondly, social classification enables individuals to locate or define him or herself in the social
environment. The self-concept comprises of a personal identity encompassing idiosyncratic
characteristics, for example, bodily attributes and psychological traits, and a social identity
encompassing salient group classification, for example, gender. Social identification is
therefore the perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate (Ashforth
and Mael 1989).

Furthermore, organisations are important determinants of social identity in contemporary
society (Wharton 1992), as an organisation’s entity is seen as a specific form of social
identification (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Organisational characteristics, such as segregation,
discrimination and group composition are likely to structure comparison and attribution
processes by shaping the relative value individuals attach to groups. Within the context of
women in management, researchers are interested in groups based on gender, organisational
membership and level. Researchers interested in the effects of organisational demography have
speculated the over representation of white men in high status positions may reinforce the
The degree of correlation between membership in gender and hierarchical groups may communicate to organisations’ members what is male/female is good, bad or indifferent, and thus can reinforce perceptions of the adequacy of one’s gender group with implications for sex-based comparisons, attributions and behaviours (Alderfer 1987; Ridgeway 1988). Furthermore, Singh and Vinnicombe (2004) posit that because identity theory holds that performance of similar individuals is seen as higher in the ‘in-group’ than the ‘out-group’, women will have to do more than their male counterparts to succeed. Consequently, the senior male management team appear to prefer candidates who are similar to themselves. For example, as members of an all-male, almost always all white senior management team, male managers will define themselves as managers and as male colleagues and chums, reinforcing group boundaries which exclude non-managers, non-whites and most importantly for this study, women, from their social network. As a result, because there are so few women at these elite levels of senior management, male managers will inevitably have limited experience of senior women as potential equals to themselves, meaning that women in the workplace do not clearly fall into the categories of the females most familiar to the male managers – they are usually different from their wives, their mothers and their secretaries. Males may therefore see a role conflict between females and senior management roles.

As a result of categorising individuals in an organisation, membership of a particular group can lead to a ‘group-think’ phenomenon (Maznevski 1994). Members of senior management teams can form an exclusive group with its special and privileged knowledge, its own set of rules and a ‘field’ with its own boundaries, a ‘habitus’ (Bourdieu 1985). As individuals become in-group members, they tend to stereotype those outside, more often reverting to traditional categories of differences such as traditional roles. Kanter (1977) reports that where there are senior females in male dominated organisations, males tend to exaggerate their maleness and gender differences, creating a symbolic barrier that exclude women. Women who emulate the masculine style are then regarded as aggressive and are disliked by both men and other women, leaving them isolated and uncomfortable in that environment.

2.4.2 The Gender Centred Perspective

The gender centred perspective (also referred to as the person centred perspective) has received considerable interest since the early 1970’s (Horner 1972; Schein 1973; O’ Leary 1974; Schein 1975; Putnam and Heinen 1976; Harragan 1977; Terborg 1977; Riger and Galligan 1980; Fagenson 1986). According to the gender-centred perspective, individual attributes vary
according to their gender (Hennig and Jardim 1977; Loden 1985; Betz and Fitzgerald 1987) and as a result women's behaviour and limited representation in upper level positions is attributed to factors that are internal to women, for example, their traits, cognitions, attitudes and behaviours (Putnam and Heinen 1976; Harragan 1977; Terborg 1977; Riger and Galligan 1980; Fagenson 1986).

Gender-centred theorists attribute differences in personal attributes between the sexes and the common heritages, beliefs and assumptions (Hennig and Jardim 1977) within each sex to a variety of causes including: differential sex-role socialization (Hennig and Jardim 1977) differential gender identity formation (Chodrow 1978) and to the different ways boys and girls construct reality (Gilligan 1982). Moreover, this approach proposes that women have been socialised to possess characteristics that are in conflict with the demands of the managerial role and are antithetical to women being promoted to upper managerial ranks, ignoring situationally relevant factors (Caplan and Nelson 1973). As such, women are believed to be disadvantaged in terms of their traits and behaviours, as they are in conflict with requisite managerial characteristics (McClelland 1965; Schein 1973; O’ Leary 1974; Schein 1975; Crawford 1977). The feminine model of leadership includes typical transformational leadership behaviours, for example, participatory decision-making, collaboration and interpersonal relationships between leader and subordinate (Loden 1985; Helgesen 1990; Eagly, Karau, Miner et al 1994). In contrast, within this model, managers are perceived to be aggressive, forceful, rational, competitive, decisive, strong, self-confident and independent (Schein 1973; 1975; Putnam and Heinen 1976). In essence, senior managerial jobs are regarded as being constructed by skills, expectations, behaviours and attitudes associated with specific types of masculinities and with a ‘masculine style’ such as: authoritarianism, paternalism, entrepreneurialism, informalism and careerism. (Collinson and Hearn 2001).

Furthermore, under the guise of the gender-centred perspective, successful management performance is believed to be due to internal factors (Bluedom 1983; Fagenson 1986), yet women attribute their work performance to external factors such as luck (Deaux and Farris 1977; Ayers-Nachamkin 1982; Fagenson 1986). For example, ‘fear of success’ inhibits women’s ability to succeed and is cited as a proponent of the gendered centred view, as an important factor inhibiting women’s progression into senior management roles. Hence, it can be argued that women’s limited progression into managerial roles can be attributed to factors internal to women, such as traits, attitudes and behaviour that are preventing them from progressing in the workplace, and, at the same time leading to the perception that women do
not have the traits, attitudes and behaviours necessary for managerial level positions (Horner 1972; Riger and Galligan 1980; Fagenson 1990; 1993; Parker and Fagenson 1994). The solution for women is to act and behave like men in organisations (Omar and Davidson 2001).

A major problem with the gender-centred perspective is its dependency on gender role characteristics in ‘defining’ appropriate behaviours of managers. The gender-centred perspective creates simplified, binary categories that mask the complexity of the meaning of gender in organisations (Bell and Nkomo 1992). In this approach, an implied hierarchical relationship exists between men and women, with one gender dominant and superior (males), and the other subordinate and inferior (females) (Scott 1988). Often tautological explanations emerge within this perspective. For example, when researchers find differences between men and women in their work, the next logical question is the ‘why’ of the differences. This can result in an explanation that essentially says ‘because men and women are different’. These gender roles are not only descriptive, but also prescriptive, producing an idea of how men and women must behave, and, as such they function as ‘gender-scripts’ (Hanappi-Egger 2011). Finally, empirical evidence indicates few, if any, real differences in women’s and men’s qualification to manage. White et al (1992) report that successful British women in their studies are as motivated as men, have good, if not better, academic qualifications and believe that their hard work, tenacity and willingness to pursue opportunities contributes to their career successes. Moreover, other research findings indicate that it is not enough for women to emulate men in organisations. Often women are as qualified as men, but their progress in organisation remains slow (Davidson and Cooper 1992; Parker and Fagenson 1994; Stroh, Brett and Reilly 1996; Cleveland et al 2000; Truss, Conway, d’Amato et al 2012). In fact, women managers often complain of having to do better or ‘over-perform’ (Ragins 1989; Davidson and Cooper 1992; Davidson 1997) at the same level of management as men.

2.4.3 Organisational Structure View

The organisational structure view (Kanter 1976) examines structural factors within organisations and concludes that the distribution of opportunity and power and the social composition of groups within organisations may be the critical variables for understanding the lack of progression for women in the workplace. Furthermore, Kanter (1976) argues that opportunities for women in the workplace are blocked as women tend to have little power in the larger organisational hierarchy, adding that those who do get close to the top are often predominantly surrounded by colleagues who are male, and are often perceived as tokens. Overall, it can be argued that an organisations’ structure, rather than inner traits and attributes,
can be attributed to the lack of female progression into the managerial role, leading Kanter (1976) to suggest that the critical factor for women may not be their gender, but simply their number.

Furthermore, Kanter (1977) identifies two specific job situations, advantageous and disadvantageous ones, which can directly influence behaviours in the workplace. Advantageous job situations are positions located at the upper levels in organisations which offer power and access to resources for their occupants. Such positions are traditionally held by individuals whose social category is in the majority, that is, males. Disadvantageous job situations on the other hand, are located at lower corporate levels and offer little power to their occupants, along with fewer opportunities. Such positions are held by individuals whose social category is few in number, that is, females. Overall, individuals in advantageous positions develop attitudes and behaviour which help them to accelerate, while those in disadvantageous positions develop attitudes and behaviour that reflect and justify their job situations, which in turn, offers limited advancement in the workplace (Fagenson, 1990). Kanter (1977) also points out that because women are traditionally placed lower down in the organisational hierarchy feminine traits tend to shape their behaviour, in addition to making them more dependent on others to meet their needs, based on their level of power and access to resources, compared to individuals at upper levels. In other words, if women were placed in high level jobs, they would exhibit the behaviours that men have exhibited in those positions (Kanter 1977; Riger and Galligan 1980). Assuming female and male managers occupy the same role within an organisation and have equivalent access to status and power, there is no reason to expect gender differences in leadership styles (Eagly et al 1995). This suggests that when examining gender differences in leadership behaviour it is important to compare women and men who occupy the same position in the organisation and are at the same level in the organisational hierarchy. In addition, women who succeed in making it to the top often experience difficulties because of their number, as they are often perceived as ‘tokens’. Riger and Galligan (1980) notes how certain dynamics prevail when tokens are present in groups, arguing that tokens are likely to be scrutinised more closely, pressured to side with the majority, and expected to conform to stereotypes.

Like the gender centred perspective, the organisational structure perspective is not without its criticisms. While the gender centred perspective has been criticised for disregarding situational variables (Fagenson, 1993), the organisational structure perspective has been criticised for failing to control for factors other than the structure of the organisation (Martin 1993).
primary focus on organisational structure overlooks the saliency of other important organisational factors including norms and culture, policies, training systems, promotion, and reward systems (Fagenson 1990; Gregory 1990). Other factors in the job environment, such as the attitudes of workers towards female managers, may impede women’s success (O’Leary 1974), for example, female workers may be overtly hostile to women as managers, or they may discriminate in a more subtle way, for example, attributing women’s success to factors other than their ability. Bass *et al* (1971) found that negative attitudes towards women were based not on males’ belief that women are less competent or qualified, but on the fact that having women as colleagues or bosses upsets the traditional patterns of difference between women and men. Women who move upwards in an organisational structure upset this traditional balance of power, and, in doing so may threaten men as well as token women. Based on this perspective, it appears that the solution to women's plight in organisations would simply be to replace men with women in senior level positions, meaning that gender stereotyping and sexism would dissipate.

It is also important to note that the organisational structure approach assumes that the person and the structure are independent factors. However, Bowers (1973 p. 3) argues that “situations are as much a function of the person as the person's behaviour is a function of the situation”. Furthermore, Schneider (1983) notes that because people tend to locate themselves in environments that are compatible with their own behavioural tendencies, the two cannot be separated. It therefore follows that if people foster environments that are consistent with their own inclinations, those environments will be similar to, not independent from, the people in them (Schneider 1983).

### 2.4.4 The Gender-Organisation-System Perspective

The gender-organisation-system (GOS) perspective, developed by Fagenson (1993), provides a more holistic approach to the study of women in the workplace, which recognises the simultaneous interaction between the person, the organisation and societal context within which they operate. Building on the gender-centred perspective and the organisational structure view, this perspective introduces a third factor, the social and institutional systems in which organisations are located, recognising the instantaneous interaction between the individual, organisation and society. Agreeing with the basic premise of both the gender-centred perspective and the organisational structure view, the GOS approach highlights a number of shortcomings to both of these approaches: (1) both approaches assume that person and organisational structures are independent factors (2) both fail to consider or control for factors
other than the structure of the organisation, for example, organisational norms, history, culture and policies and (3) most importantly, these perspectives ignore factors outside the organisations, for example, the ascribed status of women in society. In addition, drawing from pre-existing literature, the GOS perspective makes the following assumptions: (1) an individual and his / her organisation cannot be understood separate from the society (culture) in which he or she works (Fagenson, 1993); (2) the individual in the interaction process, is being both changed by situations and social systems (Terborg 1981), in other words, a change in individuals, organisations, and systems precipitates change in other aspects of context, such as gender-role stereotypes, expectations, ideologies, culture, and values; (3) behaviour in organisations is a continuous interaction of feedback between personal characteristics (i.e. gender), situations (i.e. the organisation context) and the social institutional system in which these interactions occur (Terborg 1981; Martin 1993); and (4) characteristics of people, situations and systems should be studied as joint determinants of individual attitudes and behaviours which influence each other over time (Terborg 1981). In essence, rather than arguing that women’s behaviour in the workplace is an either-or situation, that is, it is due to gender or the organisational structure, GOS suggests that women’s behaviour and limited progression in the workplace can be due to a combination of their gender, the organisational and/or the larger social and institutional system within which they operate.

Taking a systems-oriented view of the organisation, the GOS perspective takes into account individual characteristics of men and women in organisations simultaneously with the organisational and societal contexts in which they function. Individual factors affecting women’s attitudes and behaviours and progression in the workplace include general demographics such as sex, age, marital status, family status, educational background, social class and personal characteristics such as attributes, abilities, skills and motivation in the workplace. In terms of organisational context, while the organisational structure view implies that power and opportunity structures and individuals’ numbers are key variables that shape women’s behaviour (Fagenson, 1990), the GOS perspective argues that organisational context is a much larger and broader concept than structure. Fagenson (1990) contends that organisational context should include factors such as organisational culture, organisational history, ideology, politics, in addition to its structure. These factors, among others, reinforce gender inequality in organisations, which can manifest in various forms, including: job segregation, wage gaps, sexual harassment, the denial of career development opportunities and a lack of promotional opportunities (Fagenson 1993).
Finally, the GOS perspective argues that social and institutional systems, within which organisations are situated, influences women’s progression in the workplace. In other words, organisations are located in societies with specific cultural values, histories, societal practices, ideologies, expectations and stereotypes regarding appropriate roles and behaviours for men and women and in so doing, they affect the internal structures and processes of organisations (Fagenson 1990; Martin 1993). These factors can affect and be affected by the attitudes, behaviours and thought processes that women develop towards their jobs and companies (Fagenson, 1990). Cultural and societal attitudes towards what constitutes male and female jobs result in occupational segregation and discrimination against women in the workplace. In addition, organisations are bound by the legal and political environments within which they operate, with legislation and policies governing and influencing policies and procedures within the workplace. It is also important to highlight that organisations and societies change in response to changes in the environment, albeit at different paces (Davidson and Burke 1994). The fact that there are these different paces might explain why progress toward managerial equity for women has differed around the world.

Parker and Fagenson (1994) point out that research on women in management, to a great extent, focuses on how work has traditionally been organised and how women should fit into and succeed in existing structures. The GOS approach, on the other hand, suggests that women’s behaviour and limited progression in the workplace can be due to their gender, stressing that gender permeates all aspects of organisations, the organisational context and/or the larger social and institutional system within which they function (Fagenson and Horowitz 1985). Overall, the GOS perspective is based on the premise that the interaction between gender, organisational contexts and social systems is a continuous and re-iterative process (Akpinar-Sposito 2013). The characteristics of individuals, situations, and systems jointly determine individual attitudes and behaviour which affect each other over time, therefore these factors cannot be considered in isolation as they, in turn, affect one another.

2.5 The Application of the Gender-Organisation-System Perspective to this Thesis

It is the GOS perspective that informs this study of women in the workplace, as it places the individual and the wider organisational context within a broader societal context. To date, no definitive list of factors under each of the three headings exists. For this thesis, a number of specific areas under the three headings are addressed: (1) the societal context (societal context, social roles, national provisions), (2) personal factors (traits and attributes, the ‘think male-think
manager’ paradigm), and (3) organisational context (opportunity structures, culture-tokenism, networking, mentoring, policies and procedures).

Figure 2.1 outlines the areas addressed in this thesis under each of the GOS headings.

**Figure 2.1: Research Framework: Application of the Gender-Organisation-System Perspective to the Examine Systematic Issues Affecting Women in the Workplace**

Summarising the GOS perspective within the context of this study, the societal context considers the local and social context in which women are working, and how these contexts impact on their progression within the workplace; more specifically the impact of societal contexts on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland. In terms of personal factors, this thesis examines the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers and test the proposition that women’s limited representation in managerial positions is due to traits and attributes ascribed to them, which are believed to be in conflict with the traits ascribed to the managerial role, and thus preventing women from attaining higher level positions. The proposition relating to the organisational context is that conditions within which women are working are having a direct impact on women’s progression in the workplace. This thesis looks specifically at the appointment of females onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007. Finally, this thesis examines the interactions between societal, personal and organisational factors. In doing so, it considers the use of FWAs across 7 EU
countries. The availability and uptake of FWAs is based on the demand for such practices based on personal lifestyle preferences and the availability of such practices based on organisational policies and national provisions. Overall, from an organisations point of view, FWAs will only be offered when they yield direct benefits for the organisation. The next section looks are the areas examined under societal, personal and organisational contexts in greater detail.

2.5.1 Societal Factors

The GOS perspective contends that an individual and his/her organisation cannot be understood separate from the society in which he or she works owing to the interconnectivity between the three different elements of the GOS perspective. As the GOS perspective assumes that changes in individuals, organisations, and systems precipitates change in other aspects of GOS, this section first considers the overall changes in Irish society over the last one hundred years. It then considers the impact of these changes to the role of women in Irish society, focusing specifically on the effect of these changes to the position of women within the organisation.

2.5.1.1 Societal Context

This section considers changes to the role of women in Irish society over the last one hundred years. Since the start of the twentieth century the role of motherhood has become embedded as the ‘natural’ role for women both socially and legally in Ireland (Sheehan, Berkery and Lichrou in-press). Articles 41.2.1° and 41.2.2° of the Irish Constitution (1937) define separate roles for men and women and has been at the heart of gender role stereotyping that has existed in Ireland, assisting and perpetuating the traditional attitudes towards the role of women in society (O’Connor 2000). Article 41.2.1° states that ‘By their life within the home, women give to the state a support without which the common good cannot be achieved.’ Furthermore, Article 41.2.2° underscores the state's active support of this role for women declaring that ‘the state, shall, therefore, endeavour to ensure that mothers shall not be obliged by economic necessity to engage in labour to the neglect of their duties in the home.’ These articles were enacted in the 1937 Constitution of Ireland despite the earlier commitment to guarantee Irish women the right to vote and more importantly nationality and citizenship on an equal basis with male counterparts. The role of women in the home was reinforced by Éamon de Valera, the then Taoiseach (prime minister) of Ireland, when he proclaimed that ‘everyone knows that there is little chance of having a home in the real sense if there is no woman in it, the woman is really the homemaker’ (Irish Press, 1937). It is also important to note that the role of the father in relation to domestic life is not outlined in the Irish Constitution. In addition, during this period,
numerous legislative measures were employed which further restricted female participation in
the Irish labour market: (1) The 1925 Civil Service Act restricted certain jobs for men, (2) a
marriage bar was introduced in the Civil Service in 1933, where upon marriage, females had to
leave the workforce (O’ Leary 1987) and (3) in 1935 the labour market participation of
working-class women was restricted following the introduction of the Conditions of
Employment Act (O’ Dowd 1987). Such labour force restrictions left women with very little
power to make key economic decisions within the home or in society, rendering them to the
role of second class citizens, firmly embedding women within the home as a homemaker.
Finally, in 1944 the children’s allowance scheme was introduced in Ireland (O’ Donoghue
2003). The primary aim of this scheme was to assist families with the cost of children, but
more importantly, to provide an income to support mothers who had recently given birth (Daly
and Clavero 2002) giving Irish mothers a form of financial independence in the home.

Legislative changes from the 1960’s brought about changes in the attitudes toward women, in
addition to affording women more freedom in society, giving women more rights and greater
equality. In the 1960’s the women’s rights movement spread to Ireland and in 1973 The Council
for the Status of Women was set up. This was soon followed by a shift in legislation which
aimed to promote greater equality for women in the workplace: (1) the marriage bar was lifted
for all civil service employees in 1973; (2) the enactment of equal pay legislation in 1975
abolished the practice of paying women lower wages for work similar to that being carried out
by male colleagues; (3) in 1981 pregnant workers gained rights through the passing of the
Maternity Protection of Employees Act; and (4) The Employment Equality Act (1998) and the
Equal Status Act (2000) both afforded more employment rights for women in the workplace.
In addition, the Divorce Referendum was passed in 1995. These societal changes saw the role
of women in Irish society change, with women now assuming dual role of carer and worker.
However, despite these changes, the view of the family structure remained static in spite of the
societal changes that started to emerge (O’ Connor 1998).

Within a broader societal context and in a more public domain, the role of females in Irish
politics has been more prominent since the 1990’s, which marked the first female leader of a
political party, and the first female president of Ireland. The election of Mary Robinson in
November 1990 was seen as a turning point in the history and status of Irish women. In
reference to a quote from the Irish Independent in 1924 which states ‘Do not forget that you
are Irish mothers; do not forget your glorious traditions... appear seldom on the promenade,
and sit oftener by the cradles; come down from the platform and attend to the cot’ (Irish, 25th
October, 1924), Mary Robinson in her victory speech on election to the presidency stated ‘…And above all by the women of Ireland -- Mná na hÉireann -- who instead of rocking the cradle rocked the system, and who came out massively to make their mark on the ballot paper, and on a new Ireland... ’ (Mary Robinson, November 1990). Mary Robinson and her successor Mary McAleese used this mostly symbolic position to lobby for gender reforms and to create an image of an Ireland where women are active and successful outside the home.

In terms of education, twenty-first century women in Ireland are educated to the same level as their male counterparts. In 1901 there were only 91 female students in Irish Universities, which increased to approximately 25% in 1950 and 33% in 1960 (CSO.ie). However, by the 1990’s the number of females entering undergraduate degree programmes had surpassed their male counterparts, a trend which continues today, in addition female students outperform their male counterparts in the leaving certificate. Nonetheless, despite these changes, women who seek careers in management are battling with deeply ingrained traditions and preconceptions about the role of women in society. These social roles assigned to women appear to be limiting women’s progression within the workplace and are a cause for concern for women aspiring to managerial positions.

2.5.1.2 Social Role Theory

Although there are several theories of stereotype content, for example, Alexander, Brewer and Hermann (1999) and Fiske et al (2002), social role theory provides the most plausible account of the psychological processes underlying stereotyping, focusing on the directly observable behaviours of group members (Koenig and Eagly 2014). All societies assign specific roles to adults based on gender, which is then passed on in the socialisation of their children. It is commonly accepted that children’s gender social differences are internalised very early as a result of differing parental attitudes towards the two sexes (Brutsaert 2006; Wood and Eagly 2012; Koenig and Eagly 2014). Boys and girls are expected to have or acquire gender-specific skills, gender-specific self-concepts and personality concepts to be masculine or feminine as described by that society (Barry, Bacon and Child 1957; Bem 1981). In line with this, Eagly (1987) argues that the roles assumed by individuals are based on the society to which he/she belongs and as a result, men and women are expected to behave in ways which are consistent with their culturally defined gender-roles. Similarly, Basow (1992 p. 118) states that there is a strong case to be “…made for the overriding importance of socialisation as opposed to biological factors in determining an individual's sex-typed behaviours. . . . that is, they are rooted in division of labour. . . the traditional pattern is embedded within the structures of
society and gets transmitted to each succeeding generation as part of its socialisation”. Social role theory argues that the beliefs people hold about the sexes are derived from observations of the role performances of men and women and thus reflect divisions of labour and gender hierarchies in society (Eagly, Wood and Diekman 2000). Therefore, the differences between the sexes are largely due to social influences, where women and men are assigned different roles, not because of biological gender, but because of the expectations society put on them, therefore creating gender roles (Koenig and Eagly 2014).

The social role of women in Western Society has long been associated with the home and with home making (Beatty 2007). Historically, this has led to the socially accepted role of women as homemaker and child-minder contrasted to the provider, protector role of the male (Hoffman 1977). Social role theory further implies that individuals might question the capacity of one gender in a particular role, for example, women in construction or engineering as these roles are seen to be more suited to men. In addition, within an organisational context, a masculine orientation has been developed around many roles and in particular managerial positions (Agars, 2004). Powell and Graves (2003) suggest that women who are interested in managerial careers are confronted by a dilemma. If women conform to the female gender-role characteristics, they do not meet the perceived requirements of the managerial role. On the other hand, if women conform to the requirements of the managerial role by emulating its masculine image, they fail to meet the requirements of the female gender-role, creating a ‘no win’ situation for women. This incongruency between the managerial role and the female gender-role may lead to discrimination against women, when decisions about promotions are made (Eagly and Karau 2002). As such, social roles may lead to the perception that women are not suited to the managerial role with this perceived incongruity between the female gender-role and the managerial role. This may be preventing women from attaining managerial positions as a result of negative stereotyping towards women in the workplace, resulting in women being unfairly treated and overlooked for promotions as they are seen to be inferior to their male counterparts (Heilman 2001).

Although social roles are thought to be deeply engrained in society, Lueptow et al (2001) propose that as society changes, so too will the social roles ascribed in that particular society. Therefore, any changes in the roles and opportunities for men and women have the potential to transform gender-typed social roles, for example, changes to labour force participation have a direct impact on the central distinction of role theory within the labour force (Hoffman 1977; Eagly and Steffen 1984). Similarly, Diekman, Goodfriend and Goodwin (2004) note as women
gain greater access to managerial positions, gender differences in power within organisations will begin to erode, further suggesting that this erosion of power will lead to a shift in the societal position of women. More recently Koenig and Eagly (2014) report that when social groups were described with changes to their typical social roles in the future, their projected stereotypes were more influenced by these future roles than by their current group stereotypes, with the direction and amount of expected change matching actual change extremely well. In line with this, Lord and Maher (1991) implicit leadership theory suggests that stereotypes can be changed through recognition-based processes. They suggest that individual’s detailed knowledge structures regarding leadership are altered based on day to day experiences. As a result, the perceptions about women’s suitability for managerial positions should change as the number of women in managerial roles increase.

Against the backdrop of the social changes in Ireland and changes to the role of women in Irish society, the first research objective of this thesis is to determine whether or not these changes have had an impact on the perception of women in Ireland, and in particular in terms of their perceived suitability to the managerial role.

**Research objective 1: To determine the impact of societal changes on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles in Ireland.**

### 2.5.2 Personal Factors

The GOS perspective considers individual characteristics of men and women in organisations and their simultaneous interactions with the organisation and wider social context. Of particular interest to this thesis are the gender stereotypes of men and women in terms of the attributes and traits ascribed to them and the impact these stereotypes are having on women in the workplace.

Gender stereotypes “are socially shared beliefs about the characteristics or attributes of men and women in general that influence our perceptions of individual men and women” (Cleveland et al 2000 p. 42). Through gender role stereotyping we can categorise individuals into groups based on their gender, and our perceptions will be influenced by what we know about the gender as a whole. Investigations into gender stereotypes has become an established line of enquiry, with early studies by Sherriffs and McKee (1957), Rosenkrantz et al (1968), Broverman et al (1972), Schein (1973; 1975; 1976) and continuing to the present with Booysen and Nkomo (2010), Koenig et al (2011), Hyde (2014) and Rudman and Phelan (2015).
Aspects of gender role stereotyping that are especially relevant to understanding leadership and management relate to agentic and communal attributes (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). The concepts of agency and communion are borrowed from Bakan (1966), who characterises agency and communion as fundamental modalities of human existence (Mosher and Danoff-Burg 2005). These constructs were subsequently applied to gender, denoting agency as the male principle and communion as the female principle. Communal attributes are associated more with females and relate to concern for others, such as being helpful, kind, nurturing, emotionally expressive, and affectionate (Eagly and Karau 2002). Agentic attributes are more strongly associated with males and express a tendency to be assertive and controlling, such as being dominant, ambitious, independent and confident (Eagly and Karau 2002). In addition, communal and agentic orientations are considered to be the qualities required for certain roles and positions, therefore, workers are seen as more agentic and less communal than homemakers (Eagly and Steffen 1984; Eagly and Steffen 1986; Hoffman and Hurst 1990), and full time workers more agentic than part time workers (Eagly and Steffen 1986). Studies also indicate that agentic characteristics are usually seen to be essential for successful leadership (Duehr and Bono 2006; Broadbridge and Weyer 2007; Eagly and Carli 2007), indicating that high status is related to the perception of agentic, rather than communal traits in jobs (Eagly and Steffen 1984; Conway, Pizzamiglio and Mount 1996). This well-known psychological phenomenon is known as ‘think manager, think man’ (Schein 1976). As a result, Eagly and Carli (2007) suggest that the communal attributes ascribed to women in general put women in the pursuit of leadership roles at a disadvantage.

On a positive note, however, recent literature proposes a more suitable fit between women and leadership, mainly owing to the transformational style of leadership adopted by women (Avolio 1999; Zhang, Li, Ullrich et al 2015). Transformational leadership includes many communal aspects, in particular under the theme ‘individualised consideration’, whereby leaders focus on developing subordinates, mentoring subordinates and focusing on individual employee needs (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Transformational leadership is defined as the degree to which a leader employs idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration in an attempt to direct followers into a higher level of thinking (Bass 1990). Eagly and Carli (2003) suggest women are more transformational than men, and as a result, are more likely to be seen as effective and satisfying as leaders by both their male and female subordinates. Fortunately for women’s progression as leaders, this inspiring style appears to have numerous advantages for present day organisations (Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam 1996; Bass 1998; Avolio 1999).
As discussed in the previous section, Eagly and Steffen (1984) note that societal changes in social roles will be followed by changes to gender stereotypes. However, following a review of the relevant literature from 1974-2007, focusing on clusters of traits that differentiate women and men, Lueptow et al (2001) conclude that social change was not followed by changes to gender typing. In fact, they suggest that there has been an increase in gender typing, especially in the femininity of females. This assumption is confirmed by the results of their longitudinal research which spanned from 1974-2007. Their findings “with regard to gender stereotypes are very clear: they are not decreasing, if anything they are intensifying” (2001 p. 642). This increase in gender typing is especially pronounced in the case of females, who perceive the typical female as becoming more feminine. Within the ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm, findings by Paris and Decker (2012) corroborate this also. Their analysis of the top twenty rated items for men, women and managers reveals that agentic characteristics are used to describe men and communal characteristics are used to describe women.

Against the backdrop of the societal changes outlined earlier, and research objective 1, this thesis examines the attributes and traits used to describe men, women and managers and subsequently explores the impact of these gender stereotypes on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland.

**Research objective 2: To identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general and to determine the impact that these traits and attributes are having on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland.**

### 2.5.3 Organisation Context

Unlike Kanter’s (1976) organisational structure perspective, which focuses specifically on organisational structures, the GOS perspective considers the wider organisational context within which women are working. When addressing the issue of women’s progression in the workplace, Kanter (1976) acknowledges that women are mainly placed in disadvantageous positions in organisations which offer little power and opportunities to their occupants. Furthermore, she notes that individuals who occupy such positions are limited in terms of their access to role models, networks and networking opportunities, and subsequently women in higher level positions are often seen as tokens. As such, informal power and opportunity structures in organisations serve to exclude women and therefore, it can be argued that the culture and characteristics of an organisation can provide greater opportunities for men (Fagenson 1990).
According to Lord and Maher (1991) organisational culture for the most part, comprises of organisationally shared values, beliefs and schemas. Organisationally shared beliefs reflect members’ judgments of how things should be done and how things are really done (Lord and Maher 1991). According to Klenke (1996) organisations tend to reinforce the value systems of the dominant gender and therefore most organisational culture has been predominantly shaped my men. During the 1980’s and 1990’s numerous authors (Loden 1985; Connelly and Rhoton 1988; Helgesen 1990; Segal and Zellner 1992; Marshall 1993; Klenke 1996; Maier 1999) posit that male dominated organisational cultures, which are characterised by hierarchical authority, independence, autocratic leadership styles and top-down communication, act as barriers to women’s progress in the workplace. Overall, when men dominate top-level leadership positions, they produce and promote a masculine management culture (Lyness and Thompson 2000; Seo, Huang and Han 2017), which reinforces gender differences in status within the organisation. This, in turn, creates organisational structures that produce covert gender bias against women, influencing promotional decisions and allocating important resources such as salaries or development opportunities (Festing, Knappert and Kornau 2015). In addition, male dominated organisational cultures have led to female employees identifying barriers such as lack of cultural fit to their advancement in the workplace (Lyness and Thompson 2000). This lack of cultural fit has led to female exclusion from informal networks in the organisation, tokenism and lack of mentoring opportunities.

Success at work, especially in management positions, relies heavily on the ability to network (Gamba and Kleiner 2001; Hopkins and O’ Neil 2007; Campione 2008; Linehan and Scullion 2008). It provides both social and emotional support (Forret and Dougherty 2004) as well as internal visibility within the workplace and access to resources and political support (Gamba and Kleiner 2001), and in the long term it can create opportunities for growth and advancement. In addition, Van Velsor and Hughes (1990) indicate that women rely on relationships as a source of learning and development within organisations. However, Davies (2011) highlights that given women’s concentration in particular levels of the organisation, females experience difficulty in accessing informal networks thus limiting their networking opportunities. Such informal networks appear to be more easily accessible for males (Linehan and Scullion 2008), as the level of interaction tends to be stronger between the male dominated higher ranks in the organisation and males aspiring to these higher ranks, with Villiers (2010) noting how the elite male network maintain well documented dominance and power. Ibarra (1997) proposes that the demographic composition of an organisation affects personal networks by predetermining the options available to women. Women are considered to be at a disadvantage in terms of
networking because they are not in influential roles, therefore they are limiting their networking abilities (Hopkins and O’ Neil 2007). Furthermore, Lyness and Thompson (2000) note that women are often excluded by dominant groups of men in the organisation, because of their gender, thus limiting the possibility of accessing networks that are critical for advancement and success. The lack of access to influential networks often result in women being overlooked for challenging assignments in the organisation, resulting in lower visibility within the workplace. Above all, failure to access influential networks in the workplace can lead to other progression barriers, for example, exclusion from informal groups such as the ‘Old Boys’ Network’.

The old boys’ network has been described as the informal male networks in organisations which yield power and influence and often exclude under represented populations, such as women (Rand and Bierema 2009; Labafi and Jalalpoor 2015). The old boys’ network has long been viewed as an exclusive club that affords inside information, facilitates advancement, and provides a social and support network to its members. Membership of the old boys’ network is automatic, if you are white, male, middle aged and white collar (Gamba and Kleiner, 2001). Women and people from ethnic minorities do not have ready access or membership to this exclusive group, which makes their career prospects less attainable. Within the old boys’ network, members “transfer the competition and power advantages realised in the formal structure onto friendship patterns and alliances within the informal system” (Oakley 2000 p. 328), with Drell (2000) noting that the old boys’ network is still in control of most things from promotions and pay to office space. Women’s inability to access such informal groups within organisations places them at a distinct disadvantage when applying for promotion, especially when they are in competition with members of such groups.

If and when women are promoted, they can often feel outnumbered and isolated in their new position, especially in higher levels within the organisation. In her influential study Kanter (1977) proposes that skewed gender ratios act as a barrier and result in women’s lack of influence in organisational decision making. She argues that because women become ‘tokens’ when they occupy a small minority of executive positions they experience pressure not to fulfil negative stereotypes about women. Women who are regarded as token leaders may be subject to increased scrutiny and scepticism similar to the reactions given to an outsider (Haslam, Ryan, Kulich et al 2010), further leading to discrimination (Desmarais and Alksins 2005). As a result, women in higher level positions in organisations are often seen as ‘travellers in a male world’ (Marshall 1984). When a team is comprised of a distinct numerical minority or token, members may perceive the minority to be dissimilar, have few interactions with them and display
prejudice and discriminate towards them (Fiske 1998). Furthermore, Graves and Powell (2007) highlight that tokens, through their visibility, can receive attention, which does not necessarily lead to recognition of their competences. In many instances, tokens have to work harder to receive recognition for their work. In addition, tokens are often excluded from social activities because of their dissimilarity to the rest of the group. Finally, the characteristics of tokens are often distorted because of the groups’ tendency to stereotype them. Overall, being a token woman not only means a lack of female peer support, but also entails working in an environment which provides few role models, making the mentoring relationship between female colleagues difficult to foster at particular levels of the organisation (Gatrell and Cooper 2007).

Due to the lack of females in higher level positions, women at lower levels in the workplace have trouble in accessing mentors. Mentoring is viewed as a facilitator of organisational advancement and success for women in the workplace. Davidson and Cooper (1992) assert that female role models in higher managerial positions act as important influencers in terms of career aspiration for other women, with Ragins (2002 p. 44) claiming that mentoring may be the “ice pick” for breaking through the glass ceiling. Furthermore, research conducted with senior managers identifies mentoring as a specific strategy employed by women to enable them to climb the corporate ladder (Ragins 1989; Vinnicombe and Singh 2003; Davidson and Burke 2004). However, despite its usefulness it is not commonly available to women in the workplace (Linehan 2002; Hopkins and O’ Neil 2007; Linehan and Scullion 2008). Interestingly, research has shown that potential male mentors are less likely to assume that women are competent and often defer establishing mentoring relationships with women until those women have proved themselves (Ibarra 1993). Given the small number of female mentors and role models in senior levels, women often find themselves with no alternative other than to ‘adapt’ to the organisational culture by taking on male attitudes and values which can lead to a feeling of marginalisation (Fiedlen and Cooper 2001). Possibly of even more concern, is that, if women behave in a style stereotypically seen as being male, then this will have a negative effect on how they are seen by the organisation as a whole (Rudman 1998; Heilman 2001). It is also important to note that a recent line of enquiry illustrates that role-modelling behaviour has the potential to negatively, rather than positively affect female career progression choices (Cross et al 2017).

The third research objective of this thesis examines female appointments to the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland. The state-sponsored sector was chosen as it incorporates companies, agencies and organisations in Ireland that are charged with making decisions in
relation to the Irish economy. State-sponsored bodies are a particularly interesting sample, as at the time of writing, appointment onto these boards was not through a formal selection process, members of these boards were selected and appointed by Government Ministers. Furthermore, in 1991 a 40/60 gender quota was enacted by the Irish Government to help redress the imbalance of males appointed to these boards. Owing to the informal selection process, the factors discussed earlier in this section, for example, access to Government Ministers and the opportunity to network with Government Ministers, could have a major influence on the selection process. In addition, research conducted by Cross and Linehan (2006), including a sample of 20 female junior and middle level managers from the high-tech sector in Ireland, reports that respondents believe informality in selection and promotion procedures is often at the root of gender segregation. As well as examining the numbers of males and females appointed onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies, the study also considers the number of female chairpersons appointed during this time. In doing so, the effectiveness of the gender quotas can be identified, as well as establishing whether women, once appointed on to state boards are seen as tokens, or, if in fact they are deemed qualified and suitable candidates for the chairperson’s position.

However, it is important to note that since this study was carried out there have been changes to the selection process onto state boards. In 2011, the Irish Government introduced new arrangements for appointments to state boards. An open process operated by the Public Appointment Service (PAS) was established, whereby expressions of interest are to be sought when a vacancy arises on a state board, with vacancies advertised on the relevant Department’s website or by the independent PAS, yet, Ministers are not obliged to make the selection from those who apply. A revised model for ministerial appointments to state boards was subsequently announced in September 2014, requiring that all appointments to vacancies on state boards must: be advertised openly on the state boards portal www.stateboards.ie operated by the PAS; meet specific and detailed criteria determined by the relevant Minister as necessary for the effective performance of the relevant role; and be processed by way of a transparent assessment system designed and implemented by the independent PAS to support the relevant Minister in making appointments to state boards under his/her remit (Howlin 2014).

Research objective 3: To map the trends in female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007.
2.5.4 The Social, Personal and Organisational Interchange

The final area examined in this thesis is a mixture of influences from the social context, personal factors and organisational structures. The balancing of personal and work lives has long been an issue for the working population, but the rapid and dramatic changes in the demographic profile of the workforce, coupled with changes to the nature of work, renders the reconciliation of work/non work responsibilities as one of the most pressing issues throughout all societies (Guest 2002; Houston 2005; Steil 2007; Kirrane and Monks 2008; Molina 2015).

As the demographic profile of workforce changes, so too do the demands which are placed on workers’ time in terms of family and caring responsibilities and personal lifestyle preferences (Allen 2001; Wang, Walumbwa, Wang et al 2013). The number of dual earner families has increased in recent years, as have the combined hours parents are working, while the demands of maintaining a family and caring for dependents have remained unchanged. With more people working for pay and family work hours rising, balancing work and family life has become an increasingly critical issue (Berg, Kalleberg and Appelbaum 2003). This, coupled with the ageing population has brought the issue of reconciliation between work and care commitments to the fore (Russell, O’Connell and McGinnity 2009). For most adults, family and work are the two most important domains in their lives, with adults partaking in both domains likely to experience some form of conflict. Parents are more likely to experience work/non-work conflict than those without children, with demands increasing per child; similarly parents of younger children are likely to experience more conflict than those with older children (Fu and Shaffer 2001). The dominance of the conflict perspective in the work-family literature is rooted in scarcity theory, which assumes that the personal resource of time, energy and attention are finite; the devotion of greater resources to one role necessitates the devotion of lesser resources to the other role (Edwards and Rothbard 2000; Grzywacz and Marks 2000). Thus, individuals who participate in both work and family are likely to experience conflict between these roles. This conflict is often referred to as the ‘double burden syndrome’, which refers to the balancing act that must be undertaken between work and home life. Research indicates that women take on the bulk of childcare responsibilities and domestic tasks (Cross and Linehan 2006; Kan, Sullivan and Gershuny 2011; Evertsson 2014). Furthermore, Seo et al (2017) highlight that women’s assigned roles associated with family responsibilities are perceived as hindrances to their desire for career advancement. This is evidenced in the results of a study conducted by Twomey et al (2002) who report that 11/12 males believe that having children will not affect their career progression, with 7/12 females believe that having children will affect their career progression. The challenge for working
parents is facilitating the sharing of roles in a fair and equitable manner to relieve the double burden of domestic and employment duties (Fine-Davis, Fagnani, Giovannini et al 2004; Evertsson 2014). The challenge for organisations is finding ways to support working parents with flexible working options, and in turn retaining valued employees (O’Connell and Russell 2005; Bloom, Kretschmer and Van Reenen 2011; Feierabend and Staffelbach 2016).

Research has shown that lack of balance in one’s life is related to higher stress, less life satisfaction, and lower work effectiveness (Kofodimos 1993; Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw 2003). For example, the demand on females in higher positions with caring responsibilities to work long hours, a requirement imposed by a male-dominated structures, can tilt the balance of an individual’s work life balance, which in turn can lead to work/family conflict. As a result, the effective management of the work-life interface is an issue of strategic importance to both organisations and employees (Russell and Bowman 2000; Nord, Fox, Phoenix et al 2002; Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne 2007; Beauregard and Henry 2009).

Perrons (1999) suggests that FWAs can facilitate the reconciliation of paid work and non-work commitments, which can help employees balance the competing demands of work and home. Within this context, FWAs go beyond policies set out at national level and can be defined as “alternative work options that allow work to be accomplished outside of the traditional temporal and/or spatial boundaries of a standard workday” (Rau 2003 p. 1), allowing both employees and employers the opportunity to adjust the when, where and how of work (Cowan and Hoffman 2007; Breaugh and Frye 2008; Lia, Rousseau and Chang 2009; Putnam, Myers and Gailliard 2013). Having a flexible workplace can motivate current staff, reduce staff turnover, help attract new staff, reduce workplace stress and generally enhance workers’ satisfaction and productivity (Allen 2001), creating a family friendly work environment. In addition, they can contribute to the quality of an organisation’s workforce by retaining some workers that may quit otherwise, while also diminishing stress, reducing absenteeism, improving worker loyalty and contributing to motivation, flexibility and productivity. Employees are said to benefit through greater job satisfaction (Judge, Boudreau and Bretz 1994; Ezra and Deckman 1996; Saltzstein, Ting and Saltzstein 2001), reduced stress (Mason 1991; Hand and Zawacki 1994) and improved morale (Martinez 1993; McCampbell 1996). Within this context, emphasis is placed on the degree to which workers are able to make choices to arrange core aspects of their professional lives, particularly regarding where, when, and for how long work is performed (Hill, Grzywacz, Allen et al 2008), helping employees to balance the demands of work and home (Nord et al 2002).
It is also important to acknowledge that some FWAs emphasise flexibility on the part of the organisation with only secondary regard to employees. Dastmalchian and Blyton (2001 p. 1) define this approach as the “degree to which organisational features incorporate a level of flexibility that allows them [organisations] to adapt to changes in their environment”. The stimulus for employers in seeking increased flexibility has been the need to improve competitiveness and reduce operating costs, global economic changes, marketplace uncertainty, organisational restructuring, downsizing and the desire for greater flexibility in controlling labour costs (Armstrong-Stassen 1998; Gunnigle, Turner and Morley 1998; Kalleberg 2000). This has resulted in full-time work being supplemented by various forms of non-standard work such as part-time, temporary and contract workers (Armstrong-Stassen 1998), mainly because these work arrangements allow employers the freedom to hire workers on an ‘as needs’ basis and avoids laying off full-time permanent employees, reducing costs to the organisation in terms of fringe benefits.

While this research stream indicates benefits to employees and employers, studies have failed to directly compare outcomes of employee and employer driven approaches in a single study (Chung and Tijdens 2012). However, Kossek and Ruderman (2012) note that the party initiating the use of the FWAs will influence the degree to which flexibility afforded is seen as a benefit to motivate workers. They assume that when the use of a FWA is employee initiated, it will be more likely to act as a positive inducement or motivator to enhance the employment relationship. On the other hand, when it is initiated to make savings and reduce the full-time workforce, it is less likely to be seen as a positive inducement or motivator for employees and therefore employees will not feel the need to return additional benefits to the organisation. Nevertheless, although FWAs can be divided into those that cater for the needs of employees versus those for the organisation, employers ultimately only implement FWAs when the perceived benefits outweigh the costs of introducing such practices (Plantenga and Remery 2005).

Within a societal context, the availability of FWAs varies dramatically at both organisational and national level. Legislation has been introduced in many European countries to increase employment flexibility. For example, maternity, paternity and parental leave offer parents flexibility in working and help balance work and family life in the child’s early years, allowing parents time away from work specifically to engage in childcare (Lewis and Lewis 1997; Wilkonson 1997; Fried 1998). The introduction of the EU Directive on Parental Leave in 1996 provides a baseline of minimum standards, which has gone some way towards equalising the offerings between EU member states (Dermott 2001). However, across the EU there is still a
wide range and variation in legislation pertaining to maternity, paternity and parental leave; for example, in addition to paid maternity leave, paid parental leave is offered in France, Germany, Sweden and Hungary, while unpaid parental leave is offered in Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom. Today, Sweden provides a benchmark and model of best practice with respect to policies to reconcile work and family (Cousins and Tang 2004; Evertsson 2014). Sweden has a well-documented configuration of social policy that has supported mothers in combining work and family life. These include generous parental leave schemes when children are young and the provision of public childcare for those who require it (Cousins and Tung, 2004). However, there are mixed views on whether legislation supports or deters organisational implementation of flexible work practices. Evans (2001) concludes that voluntary provisions offered by organisations are highest in countries with medium levels of legal provision, for example in Germany, and are least likely to be implemented in countries with lowest levels of provision, for example Ireland and also in countries with high levels of provision, for example Sweden. Because these initiatives are offered at national level, organisations may feel that there is less of an onus at organisational level to provide additional incentives. However, Evans (2000) suggests that national provisions tend to encourage private provision up to a point, after which it tends to replace it. Lewis et al (2001) suggest that legislation may create a normative climate that gives rise to higher expectations of employer support, increasing both internal and external pressure to implement FWAs.

Cooke (2012) indicates that the desire for flexible working, while once the focus of junior employees is now being expressed at the most senior levels of management. The inability to balance the demands of work and home combined with long working hours have been cited as barriers to women’s progression within the workplace (Cross 2010). However, among a sample of 30 female managers in Ireland, Cross (2010) reports that female managers believe, allowing them the flexibility to complete work at home or outside of the normal working hours, would enable them to complete the work required. Similarly, within the US context, Johns (2013) reports that the lack of FWAs within organisations is preventing women from progressing in the workplace. In this regard, Groysberg and Connolly (2013) report that organisations offering benefits, such as FWAs, that help employees balance professional and personal commitments, support inclusion and diversity in the workplace. However, it is important to highlight several negative consequences of FWAs cited in the literature. A study conducted by Harrington, Linehan and Cross (2009), within the Irish public sector, refers to FWAs as ‘a golden handcuff’, as FWAs provide non-monetary benefits to employees. However, this benefit ties employees to the organisation, and as a result employees may find it difficult to find similar or higher
positions elsewhere as FWAs may be less available in other sectors, such as the private sector. Furthermore, Rogier and Padgett (2004) found that participants perceive female employees on the flexible schedule as having less job-career dedication and less advancement motivation, despite there being no difference in perceived capability. These findings tie in with the notion of ‘flexibility stigma’. Williams (2000) describes flexibility stigma as a negative sanction towards employees who appear to disrupt the ideal-worker norm by seeking, or being assumed by others, to need workplace accommodations to attend to their personal responsibilities. In this regard, an individual’s choice to avail of FWAs, for the purpose of non-work responsibilities, may be perceived by employers and co-workers as an expression of lower career commitment (Cech and Blair-Loy 2014). It is also important to note that managers implementing HR policies and practices act as ‘sense givers’ (McDermott, Conway, Rousseau et al 2013). They educate employees to the meaning of organisational policies and practices, including when and to whom they can be applied (Maitlis 2005; McDermott et al 2013). Within an organisational setting, leadership is recognised as a crucial factor influencing the way in which HR practices are enacted (Conway and Monks 2007). Therefore, in the case of FWAs, a manager’s commitment to FWA programmes can influence an employee’s decision to avail of FWAs.

Furthermore, Williams, Blair-Loy and Berdahl (2013) suggest that the business case for workplace flexibility somehow fails to persuade. Similarly, following a systematic review of the literature, de Menezes and Kelliher (2011) highlight that empirical evidence largely fails to demonstrate a well-supported and generalised business case for implementing FWAs, failing to establish clear relationship between FWAs and organisational outcomes. Establishing a stronger business case for FWAs may encourage more organisations to invest in the implementation and roll out of such programmes, in addition to encouraging a greater uptake of the programmes. Doing so, may reduce the flexibility stigma that currently exists, in addition to positively impacting the perception of females who wish to avail of FWAs, while also aspiring to the managerial role. Therefore, as a final research objective, this thesis examines the business case for offering FWAs by investigating the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and examines the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability.

**Research objective 4: To investigate the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and to determine the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability.**
2.6 Conclusion

This chapter first provided an overview of the gender in management literature, providing an overview of the various models of gender before discussing developments within the literature over the past 40 years. The focus then turned to the women in management strand of literature, highlighting key contributions to the field, in addition to discussing several theoretical perspectives. Finally, elements of the GOS perspective, relevant to this thesis, were discussed before developing each of the four research objectives. The next chapter presents each of the four articles that form the substantive contribution of this thesis.
Chapter 3: Published/Accepted for Publication Articles
3.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the four published/accepted for publication peer-reviewed articles comprising the main theoretical and empirical contributions of this thesis. This chapter details the conceptual map that illustrates how the articles address each of the four research objectives, before presenting each of the four published/accepted for publication article.

3.2 Conceptual Map of Thesis
Figure 3.1 illustrates how each article addresses each of the four research objectives. The main aim of this thesis is to examine systematic issues relating to women in the workplace using the gender-organisation-systems theoretical perspective. This aim is achieved through the contributions of each of the four articles. Each article addresses a specific research objective, however, in some instances, multiple articles contribute to the same research objective. The links between the four articles and the four research objectives are illustrated in Figure 3.1. The figure employs arrows whereby continuous arrows indicate the particular article fully addresses the research objective.
Figure 3.1: Conceptual Map of Thesis

Research Aim:
To examine systematic issues relating to women in the workplace using the gender-organisation-systems perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Societal Factors</th>
<th>Personal Factors</th>
<th>Organisational Context</th>
<th>Societal, Personal and Organisational interface</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Elements of the GOS Perspective

| Research Objective 1: To determine the impact of societal changes on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles in Ireland. | Research Objective 2: To identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general and to determine the impact that these traits and attributes are having on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland. | Research Objective 3: To map the trends in female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007 | Research Objective 4: To investigate the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and to determine the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability. |


Sub-objectives
- To map trends in female appointments to the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland from 1970 to 2007.
- To identify the number of female chairpersons appointed to these boards over the period 1970-2007.

Article 2: The relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: the case of nursing and midwifery professionals.

Sub-objectives
- To examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics within the nursing and midwifery profession.
- To determine whether or not differences exist between the perception of student nurses and midwives compared to their qualified counterparts.
- To examine the nature of the descriptive items ascribed to men, women and managers in general.

Article 3: Beyond gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: From communal to androgynous, the changing views of women.

Sub-objectives
- To examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics.
- To test Lord and Maher’s recognition based processes to determine whether familiarity with women in leadership positions decreases the “think manager-think male” stereotype.
- To examine the nature of the attributes used to describe men, women and managers in general.

Article 4: To examine the availability and uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries.

Sub-objectives
- To identify novel bundles of FWAs based on the uptake of 12 individual FWAs.
- To distinguish between employee and employer oriented bundles of FWAs.
- To identify organisational demographics based on bundle membership.
- To identify associations between FWA bundles and employee turnover, absenteeism, productivity and profitability.
ARTICLE 1


CITATION


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**Abstract:** Against the backdrop of unprecedented economic growth in Ireland in the 1990’s and early 2000s, this paper maps the trends in female participation rates on the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland from 1970 to 2007. The state-sponsored sector was chosen as it incorporates companies, agencies and organisations in Ireland that are charged with making decisions in relation to the Irish economy that have an impact on both men and women, making the role of the decision-makers fundamental. The lack of females in such decision-making roles has been a major issue regarding state boards in Ireland over the years. The National Women’s Council of Ireland put forward the idea of a 40 per cent gender-balance policy to the Second Commission on the Status of Women in 1990, and 40 per cent gender balance in appointments of government nominees to state boards came into effect in 1991. This analysis reveals that although the level of female representation on state boards has risen since the start of the 1990’s, it would appear that it is applied very often as a ceiling rather than as a minimum standard.

**Keywords:** state-sponsored boards, gender balance, women in management, decision making
Introduction

The role of women changed more dramatically in the twentieth century than in any other period in history. For the majority of women, this has translated into a role change from that of unpaid carers in the home to career earners. Employment growth in Ireland, as elsewhere in the EU, has been predominantly female in the three decades to 2007. The country’s changing democratic structure has meant an expanding labour force, which has, in turn, facilitated the increased participation of women in general and of married women and mothers in particular in the workforce. But has the position of women in the world of work changed as a result of the increased number of females in the workforce? In 1998 O'Connor noted that any discussion of changes in the position of women in Irish society over the previous thirty years tended to elicit two views: it has changed completely, and it has not changed at all. Against the backdrop of unprecedented growth in the Irish economy up to 2007, this paper tracks and analyses female representation on state boards in Ireland from 1970 to 2007. This paper seeks to explore the trends in the appointment of women to state-sponsored bodies in Ireland, highlighting the anomalies that exist within the decision-making processes in the state-sponsored sector in Ireland.

Women in the Irish Workforce 1970-2007

Up until the 1980’s, women’s participation in the labour force in Ireland was low compared with that of other industrialised countries. In addition, the demographic structure of the female workforce was primarily young, single women (McCarthy 2004). However, this dramatically changed during the economic boom and Ireland surpassed the 60 per cent overall female employment targets set for 2010 for EU member states (Eurostat 2009). Ireland’s buoyant economy between the 1990’s and early 2000s facilitated a rapid expansion in labour market demand, which has been reflected in a rise in employment figures by 58 per cent in the ten-year period from 1996 to 2006 (Turner and McMahon 2008). Female employment more than tripled in the forty-year period from 1966 to 2006 (from 280,791 to 879,000). In Ireland, as elsewhere in Europe, the labour force became increasingly feminised. Between 1996 and 2006 increases in female employment accounted for 49 per cent of total employment increases. Increases in female participation rates are attributed to factors such as higher educational attainment, falling fertility rates, the removal of the ‘marriage bar’ in the public sector, equality legislation and higher earning capacity for women (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform 2007b).

3 All the figures contained in this section have been attained from the CSO website and the QNHS, 1997-2008
Between 1996 and 2007 the percentage increase in employment in Ireland, for both males and females, was greater than the percentage increase in employment across the EU. The greatest disparity occurred in 1998, when female employment grew by 10.3 per cent in Ireland compared to 2.4 per cent in Europe. Although the number of women in employment increased rapidly in the Irish labour force, females were predominantly based in the ‘services’ category. The number of women represented in ‘management’ categories of employment was far less than the overall percentage of women in the labour market; therefore, women were absent from many of the key decision-making roles in organisations. The ratio of females to males in the ‘managers and administrators’ category of employment increased from 1:3.3 in 1997 to 1:1.95 in 2008. This period saw huge increases in the numbers of females in the category, rising by 66 per cent (63,500 to 107,500), whereas the increase of males in this category rose by 4 per cent (208,300 to 217,200). However, this increase fails to differentiate between higher level management and junior-level management positions. Much of the previous research suggests that while women are well represented at more junior management levels, this is not true in the case of senior management positions, where there appears to be a much wider gap. Figure 1 highlights trends in female/male representation in the ‘management and executive’ category of employment in Ireland between 1970 and 2006. The National women’s strategy 2007–2016 highlights that the proportions of women and men are less unbalanced at junior management and professional levels, where 45 per cent of employees are female (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform 2007b). In relation to differences across functional areas, HR/personnel is the only function where there are higher proportions of women than men at function/senior management level (Dobbins 2007). The findings of Dobbins (2007) are complemented by the findings in Coughlan’s IBEC report (2002), which indicates that very few women reach senior management positions.
Figure 1: Breakdown in Management and Executive Posts by Gender

(Adapted from CSO.ie)

By 2007 women accounted for 8 per cent of Irish chief executives, 21 per cent of senior managers and 30 per cent of middle managers. When these three categories are combined, women make up only a quarter of all managers (Dobbins 2007). Dobbins (2007) noted that more female chief executives are likely to be found in small companies, in Irish-owned companies and in the service sector. At the next level of management, the larger the company the less likely it is to have female heads of function/senior managers. Even where women rise to the top of the job, they nearly always earn less than men. Females, it seems, are likely to fare more poorly in the private sector than males, with lower participation levels in high-skill occupations and consequently increased concentration in low-skill occupations (Turner and McMahon 2008). Almost universally, women have failed to reach leading positions in major corporations and private sector organisations, irrespective of their abilities (International Labour Office 1993; Davidson and Burke 2000), suggesting that this is not an Irish phenomenon. Gender differences in the level and type of formal education and in participation in the labour force are rapidly disappearing, but the rate of advancement of women into higher positions in organisations is relatively slow. The position of women in managerial jobs worldwide in the 1990’s and early 2000s was described as improving but women are still at a disadvantage when compared to men’s positions (Alder and Izraeli 1993; Davidson and Burke 2004). Generally speaking, a growing number of women occupy management positions, but very few women are present at top level. Trends in education indicate that females are now entering tertiary education at a rate that exceeds the male rate (Smyth and Hannan 2000). In the period 1997–2005, the female participation rate in third level education overtook that of males. By 2003 the female proportion of entrants to Irish universities was 58 per cent (Fitzpatrick
Associates and O’Connell 2005). In 2002 females accounted for 59 per cent of primary degrees awarded to full-time students and for 56 per cent of postgraduate master degrees (Higher Education Authority 2005). Given the increased achievements of Irish women in higher education, the question arises as to why these have not translated into greater/equal participation of women in senior/middle management (McCarthy 2004). The purpose of increasing women’s representation in decision making is to redress current inequalities, so that women will have a greater say in government policies and the distribution of resources (National Women’s Council of Ireland 2009). Tansey “considers that appointment of women to state-sponsored bodies is a key indicator of the seriousness with which the government takes the question of overcoming or redressing the imbalance which has therefore existed in relation to the involvement of women in public life” (1981, p. 13). The Irish Government made commitments to change and improve the position of women in decision-making by signing up to the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) (National Women’s Council of Ireland 2002). The National Women’s Council of Ireland put forward the idea of a 40 per cent gender-balance policy to the Second Commission on the Status of Women in 1990, and 40 per cent gender balance in appointments of government nominees to state boards came into effect in 1991. Despite these government commitments, gender representation on state boards is still skewed in favour of men.

**Nature and Scope of State Sponsored Bodies in Ireland**

MacCarthaigh (2012) asserts that there is much debate as to what constitutes a state agency (see Greve et al 1999; Hardiman and Scott 2010, 2012; Hood and Dunsire 1981; Roness 2007; Smullen 2004). A number of generic terms have been used to describe these organisations, most notably ‘state-sponsored bodies’ and ‘semi-states’ (MacCarthaigh 2012). The Public Service Organisation Review Group (1969, p. 29), reported that, “For practical purposes we have taken the term ‘state-sponsored body’ to cover any autonomous public body with a Board appointed by the Government to discharge those functions assigned to it by the Government”, drawing further distinction between commercial and non-commercial state-sponsored bodies, noting the difference is primarily related to the source of their revenues. Tansey (1981, p. 5) reported that “state-sponsored bodies are companies, agencies or organisations established by the state to carry out a specific function or functions. They are autonomous in character and their areas of activity encompass a comprehensive range of interests. The boards of state-sponsored bodies are appointed in the main by government or by individual ministers. In virtually all cases the board member will not previously have been associated with the body in question”. Fitzgerald (1963, p. 5) defines state-sponsored bodies as “autonomous public bodies, other than
universities, which are neither temporary in character nor purely advisory in their functions, most of whose staff are not drawn from the civil service, and whose board or council the Government or Ministers in the Government appoint directors, council members etc”. State-sponsored bodies in Ireland date back to 1927. These bodies vary enormously in size and in the roles that they play in the Irish economy, making it difficult to make generalisations. Some are straightforward trading enterprises, which differ from the general run of private enterprise companies merely in their shareholdings and control. Some were designed to fill gaps left by private enterprise in the industrial or financial sector, while others were designed to encourage and promote the expansion of private enterprise (by assisting private firms to find the capital for expansion, to gain footholds in foreign markets or otherwise to develop their business). At the other extreme, there are committees and councils whose members, appointed by the state, serve without remuneration and employ no labour at all, carrying out important tasks in various sectors of the economy (Fitzgerald 1963). Members of these entities are appointed by government ministers, and the impact of these decisions impact on both men and women alike.

Under the Worker Participation Act, employee directors can also be voted onto the board. Given the impact of these decisions on both genders it is imperative both genders are represented in the decision-making process.

In 1963 Fitzgerald (1963, p. 1) noted, “the public enterprise sector is relatively highly developed in Ireland, bearing in mind the absences of heavy industrialised activity, which in some other European countries is partly or even largely under the control of the state”. From the 1940’s onwards, “and with the first generation of semi-states well established, such companies were essentially regarded as a key instrument of Keynesian-style intervention aimed at both creating jobs and fostering both economic and social reconstruction” (Hastings 2003, p 10). Many state-owned companies are geographically spread, with outlets all over the country – in many cases where there is little indigenous private industry (Hastings 2003). The power and duties of state-sponsored bodies are set by statute or by ministerial authority. Those employed in the sector are not classified as civil servants. Each board is controlled by an independent board that is mainly appointed by the minister, and each board is responsible to the Minister and the Government (IPA 2007). The board of directors are responsible for overseeing the effective discharge of the body’s remit (Litton 1980). The appointing Minister

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4 Trade unions, staff associations or other designated bodies, recognised for collective bargaining purposes, were given the exclusive right to nominate candidates for election as worker directors. All employees, including those who are working part-time, are entitled to vote in the election of these board-level representatives. Once elected the worker directors have the same rights and duties on the board as ordinary company directors, who are generally appointed by the government (Taylor 2004)
is responsible for preparing basic policy getting parliamentary acceptance and communicating to the board (IPA 2007). He/she is also responsible to the Dáil for the overall performance of state-sponsored bodies and the quality of their distribution to the nation’s welfare (Litton 1980). Semi-state bodies can be divided into five broad categories according to the nature of their tasks. These are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: Categories and Activities of State Sponsored Bodies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>Revenue generated from trading and commercial activities. Goods/services produced are sold directly to the public. Organisations in this category aspire to pay their own way and to finance their operations and fund further expansion through profits generated from their own operations. eg Bus Eireann, the ESB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>Back up services which contribute to economic activity. They do not produce products that are sold directly to the public, they provide services to assist industrialists, farmers etc. eg Enterprise Ireland, Failte Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Some provide service directly to public (eg St Luke’s Hospital), some play developmental role (eg the Health Research Board), others are regulatory and advisory (eg The Medical Council)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>They are in business to entertain, edify or educate the general public. Some provide cultural products that are delivered directly to the public (eg RTE), others provide support for longer term development (eg The Arts Council)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-economic regulatory</td>
<td>Some serve as regulatory bodies (eg The Veterinary Council), others serve as advisory bodies (eg The National Economic and Social Development Office and the Food Safety Authority)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from IPA 2007, p. 194)

As previously stated, the role of state bodies in Ireland is to make key decisions in relation to the Irish economy that have an effect on both men and women, making the role of the decision-makers fundamental. The lack of females in such decision-making roles has been a major issue with regards to state boards in Ireland over the years. However, this problem is not exclusive to Ireland.

There is an increasing realisation at EU levels that the problem is not simply one of women being unwilling or unable to participate in paid employment but one of women’s continued visual absence from decision-making positions (O’Connor 1998). The situation in Ireland is no different: whether elected or appointed, the overwhelming number of those in positions of decision-making in Ireland are male (National Women’s Council of Ireland 2002, p. 2). Tansey (1981) strongly advocates that women should not be excluded from an important area of community life. They represent half the population, possess requisite qualifications in equal
measure to men and are equally affected by the decisions of state bodies. The essence of the state body is that it is charged with key decisions in respect of national life.

**Women on the Boards of State Sponsored Bodies**

A series of studies has been carried out examining female representation on state boards in Ireland. A summary of female representation on state boards from these studies is outlined in Table 2.

**Table 2: Female representation on state boards**

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>28.85</td>
<td>36.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1979, forty-three of fifty-eight boards had no women and a further fourteen boards had just one female member (National Women’s Council of Ireland 1998, p ii). Female representation on boards studied in 1981 was 10 per cent, a slight increase from the 9.6 per cent recorded in 1979. This number increased slightly in 1985 to 10.45 per cent. ‘If we were to progress at this rate 2 per cent every 4 years it would take 80 years to reach balanced representation’ (National Women’s Council of Ireland 1998, p. ii). In Tansey’s study of gender representation on ninety state boards a number of striking points emerged (1981, p. 7):

- the low overall representation of women;
- the large number of bodies without even one female government appointee;
- the fact that where women were represented, in every single instance they were greatly outnumbered by men.

A similar study was conducted in 1997, which included 211 boards of state-sponsored bodies. In this study women accounted for 28.85 per cent of all board members. During 2007 a total of 1,082 appointments were made to state boards. This included 386 women, representing almost 36 percent of new appointments (www.justice.ie). “In December 2007, ministers agreed to continue to take proactive steps to ensure that their nominations, and the nominations made by external bodies, to boards under the aegis of their departments, continue to reflect the Government’s commitment to achieve representation of at least 40 percent by persons of each gender on state boards, in order to advance the goal of equal participation of women and men in decision-making. All ministers were requested to put in place the necessary procedures to implement the Government decisions” (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform
2007a). The total number of boards in 2007 was 278. The main objective of the analysis presented here is to examine female representation across fifty randomly selected state boards in Ireland, with the view to mapping the trends in female representation across all boards during the period 1970–2007, identifying areas where female representation was most prominent; examining the proportion of female chairpersons during the same period; and establishing the area with the highest number of female chairpersons. This information was obtained mainly through annual reports, which were sourced via the boards’ websites, directly from the board or from a combination of both (details of the boards included in this study can be found in Appendix 1). These boards were subsequently examined under the five broad categories outlined by the IPA (2007): developmental, commercial, cultural, health and non-economic regulatory.

Findings

During the period 1970 to 2007 the level of female representation on state boards in grew from 1.9 per cent to 35.4 per cent (Table 3).

Table 3: Actual Number of Female/Male/Total on State Boards from 1970-2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2 (1.9%)</td>
<td>103 (98.1%)</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>184 (35.4%)</td>
<td>335 (64.6%)</td>
<td>519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>182 (+33.5%)</td>
<td>232 (-33.5%)</td>
<td>414</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the introduction of the 40/60 gender representation initiative in 1991, female representation across all categories has risen from 17.09 per cent to 35.45 per cent. While the proportion of female representation is rising it appears to be more dominant on boards under the classification of ‘health’, ‘cultural’ and ‘non-economic regulatory’. The actual number of females on state boards grew by 182 in the period 1970–2007, whereas the number of males grew by 232.

Figure 2 maps the trends in the proportion of female representation across all boards studied from 1970 to 2007. The highest proportion of female representation was recorded in both 2001 and 2007, where females accounted for 35.4 per cent of all board members.
Female representation on state boards rose steadily from 1970 onwards. The sharp increase in 1980 can be attributed to the establishment of An Bord Altranais, which has had strong female representation since its establishment. Female representation across each of the five categories is broken down in greater detail hereafter. As shown in Figure 3, females had some form of representation under the heading of ‘cultural’ boards from 1970, with the exception of 1972 when there was no female representation. Between 1970 and 2007 the proportion of females under the heading of ‘cultural’ boards grew from 3.7 per cent to 42.85 per cent. The highest proportion of females in this area was in 1996 when female representation was 43.4 per cent. During the sixteen-year period 1975–91 female representation declined from 21.8 per cent to 20.5 per cent. In the sixteen-year period 1991–2007 female representation grew by 22.3 per cent, suggesting the growth of female representation post 1991 has occurred at a greater pace than that prior to 1991. Female representation only surpassed 40 per cent representation on three occasions: 1996 (43.47 per cent), 2006 (40.4 per cent), 2007 (42.85 per cent). Prior to 1985 there was no female representation on the ‘developmental’ state boards.
Figure 3: Proportion of Females on Cultural State Boards, 1970-2007

Figure 4 shows that from 1985 to 1993 there was an increase from 2.5 per cent to 12.7 per cent, with a sharp increase in the proportion of females in the area of ‘developmental’ boards from 2003 onwards, peaking in 2006 when females held 29.7 per cent of all seats. From 1991, female representation grew considerably from 7.04 per cent to 28.75 per cent in 2007, yet representation on these boards has failed to meet the 40/60 gender balance.

Figure 4: Proportion of Females on Developmental State Boards, 1970-2007

Boards under the auspices of ‘health’, as illustrated in Figure 5, have experienced high levels of female representation since 1980. This can be mainly attributed to the establishment of ‘An Bord Altranais’ in 1980, as female representation on these boards has been consistently above
48 per cent since its establishment, reaching 76 per cent in 2004. Overall, female representation in the area of ‘health’ has been consistently above 32 per cent since 1980, reaching 57.9 per cent in 2002. The area of health was the only area to have greater than 40 per cent female representation (44.1 per cent) in 1991 when the 40/60 gender balance initiative was introduced.

**Figure 5: Proportion of Females on Health State Boards, 1970-2007**

Figure 6 illustrates that prior to 1977 there was no female representation on ‘commercial’ boards. From 1977 onwards females have been represented in this area, apart from 1980 when female representation dropped back to zero. During the ten-year period 1991–2001 there were year-on-year increases in female representation in ‘commercial’ boards. Female representation in this area peaked to 28.09 per cent in 2001, dropping back to 23.02 per cent in 2007. From 1991, when female representation had only grown to 5.2 per cent, there was a sharp increase in female representation. However, female representation in this area still has a long way to go before meeting the 40/60 gender representation on these boards. Trends in this area are more aligned to trends among boards under the heading ‘developmental’ than to any of the other three areas.
The area ‘non-economic regulatory’ was the only category to consistently have female representation since 1970. The proportion of females in this area grew from 6.67 per cent in 1970 to 36.69 per cent in 2007 (Figure 7). In the sixteen-year period prior to 1991 (since 1975) female representation grew by 1.3 per cent, whereas during the sixteen-year period post 1991 (to 2007) female representation grew by 22.6 per cent, suggesting a faster rate of increasing representation since 1991.

Figure 8 highlights the level of female representation in the role of chairperson on state boards between 1970 and 2007.
The proportion of female chairpersons grew from 0 per cent in 1970 to 25 per cent in 2007. The proportion of female chairpersons within state boards is broken down further in Table 4 (details of the boards included in this section can be found in Appendix 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>1970 (%)</th>
<th>1975 (%)</th>
<th>1980 (%)</th>
<th>1985 (%)</th>
<th>1990 (%)</th>
<th>1995 (%)</th>
<th>2000 (%)</th>
<th>2005 (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-economic regulatory</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The information in the table represents female chairpersons across all five categories in five-year intervals from 1970 to 2007. The total column on the far right highlights the overall percentage of female representation in each category during this time period. Given the high level of female representation under the headings ‘commercial’, ‘cultural’ and ‘health’, it would be expected these areas would record a higher number of female chairpersons. However, when the boards are examined, female chairpersons were far more prominent in the areas of ‘health’ and ‘developmental’. The overall proportion of females on these boards between 1970 and 2007 was 43 per cent and 33.3 per cent, respectively. Female representation on the other three boards was significantly less at 12.3 per cent on ‘cultural’ boards, 9.09 per cent on ‘non-economic regulatory’ boards and 2.5 per cent on ‘commercial’ boards.
Conclusions

Both developmental and commercial boards have a direct impact on the Irish economy. Commercial boards have an impact in terms of the monies generated, whereas developmental boards are charged with making key decisions that have a direct economic impact on the country. Neither of these two areas saw female representation surpass or indeed reach 40 per cent representation from 1970 to 2007. Within the area of health, female representation has always been high, with representation recorded at above 40 per cent since 1990, except for 1994 (38.5 per cent). On examining employment in the area of health in Ireland, it is evident that there has been consistently strong female presence over the years, mainly due to the numbers employed in the area of nursing.

Over the years female representation under the ‘cultural’ heading has fared well. When the roles and responsibilities of these boards are examined, it is evident that they do not have any direct impact on the economic situation in Ireland. This is also true of the non-economic regulatory boards, which is an area that has also seen considerable increases in female representation. It is the case that female representation on state boards over the period studied was heavily concentrated on boards that do not have any direct economic impact (health, cultural, non-economic regulatory). Boards that have a direct economic impact are less populated by female board members (commercial and developmental). While the rate of female representation on these boards increased between 1970 and 2007, it was not at the same rate as boards that do not have a direct economic impact. Reflecting on the overall trends observed in the data examined, it is arguable that females are nominated more freely onto boards that make ‘softer’ decisions with regards to Irish society, whereas boards that make ‘harder’, more strategic economic decisions have a more prominent male presence. Coughlan (2002) found that females were more likely to be found in frontline management positions and middle management positions, leaving positions charged with key strategic decisions to their male counterparts. It is arguable that this is also the case within the state-sponsored sector in Ireland. It is positive to note, however, that the proportion of female chairpersons on the developmental boards since 1970 has been 33.3 per cent, despite lower levels of female representation on these boards. Although the level of female representation on state boards has risen since the start of the 1990’s, it would appear that it is applied very often as a ceiling rather than as a minimum standard. It is still the case that, by and large, men predominate as members of state boards. It is arguable that ministers are not using the female complement that they have at their disposal to maximum benefit. In many cases eligible females may be overlooked in favour of their male counterparts, an issue that needs to be examined more closely in the future. It remains unclear as to why
women are failing to acquire positions on state boards given the increase in the number of females in employment in the 1990’s and early 2000s, and the increase in the educational levels of females in the labour market. Further research is merited in this area to identify possible reasons behind females being overlooked for selection to state boards. Particular attention must be paid to barriers women face regarding selection to these boards. In addition, as the analysis includes representation prior to 2008, further research is warranted to determine whether or not the economic downturn has had an impact on female representation on boards since 2008. Whatever the case, it is necessary to identify the barriers faced by women when seeking selection onto these boards. Without an identification of these barriers, it seems 40/60 gender representation on all state boards is a long way off.

References


Appendix 1:
All boards used in the study by category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commercial Boards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bus Eireann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bus Atha Cliath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dublin Port</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. CIE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Dun Laoghaire Port</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Eirgrid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Housing Financing Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Iarnrod Eireann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. National Lottery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ordnance Survey Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Port of New Ross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. An Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Telecom Eireann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. VHI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The Arts Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Irish Film Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. RTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. TG4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Udaras na Gaeltachta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Aquaculture Licence Appeals Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Bord Iascaigh Mhara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Bord Bia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Dublin Digital Hub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Dublin Docklands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Enterprise Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Failte Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. FAS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Forfas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. IDA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Irish National Stud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Irish Sports Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Marine Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. National Roads Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Teagasc</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Boards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. The Arts Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Irish Film Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. RTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. TG4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Udaras na Gaeltachta</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Boards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Aquaculture Licence Appeals Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. Bord Iascaigh Mhara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Bord Bia</td>
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<td>27. FAS</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. Forfas</td>
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<tr>
<td>29. IDA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Irish National Stud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Irish Sports Council</td>
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<td>32. Marine Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. National Roads Authority</td>
</tr>
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<td>34. Teagasc</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>35. Bord Altranais</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Dublin Dental Hospital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. National Cancer Registry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Economic Regulatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38. Broadcasting commissions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Combat poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Com Reg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Equality Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Fire Service Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Food Safety Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Health and Safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. HEA</td>
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<tr>
<td>46. Irish Water</td>
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<td>47. National Bureau of Road Safety</td>
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<td>48. Radiological Protection Institute</td>
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<td>49. Rent Tribunal</td>
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<td>50. SEI</td>
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</table>
ARTICLE 2
The Relationship Between Gender Role Stereotypes and Requisite Managerial Characteristics: The Case of Nursing and Midwifery Professionals

CITATION
3.4 The Relationship Between Gender Role Stereotypes and Requisite Managerial Characteristics: The Case of Nursing and Midwifery Professionals

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Aim: To examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics within the nursing and midwifery profession.

Background: Studies have been carried out to determine gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics across a number of industries and among student samples. No study has been carried out within the nursing and midwifery profession.

Method: In order to allow for direct comparisons with previous research Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) was used in this research. A total 239 undergraduate and 171 post experience responses were collected.

Results: Female nurses and midwives did not gender type the managerial role, while males gender typed the managerial role in favour of men. Student nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between women and management than their qualified counterparts.

Implications for nursing management: Males gender typed the managerial role in favour of men. With an increase in numbers of men joining the profession and increased representation of males at Clinical Nurse Manager (CMN) level there is a possibility that the profession will become two tiered. Health care organisations should pay careful consideration to career development and implement career structures which ensure equal access to managerial roles for both genders.

Keywords: Career Development, Nurse Managers, Requisite Managerial Characteristics, Gender Role Stereotypes
Introduction

Management and the managerial role have traditionally been dominated by men; however, in recent years there has been an increase in the number of female managers worldwide. The nursing and midwifery profession is one sector where the number of females and female managers outweigh their male counterparts. Nonetheless, the numbers of men entering into the profession has increased steadily in recent years. This has also resulted in an increased number of men in managerial roles within the profession. In Ireland the title given to managerial positions held by nurses and midwives is Clinical Nurse Manager (CNM). The CNM function is broken down into three different categories: CNM 1 (frontline position), CNM 2 (mid-level management) and CNM 3 (top-level nursing management role). Within the Irish context there are a number of similarities between nurses and midwives which justify their inclusion in the same sample: Both groups undergo the same formal training with a number of shared modules across nursing and midwifery programmes; prior to 2006, midwives had to qualify as general nurses before specialising in midwifery; both groups are registered with the professional state regulatory board (An Bord Altranais) before they can practice; both groups have the same management structure ie CNM I, CMN 2 and CNM 3 and both areas have experienced increases in male entrants in recent years (An Bord Altranais 2011).

Within the current literature ‘nursing leadership’ and ‘nursing management’ are commonly used as interchangeable concepts, with much of the literature related to nursing leadership developed to assist and support nurses in management positions or with management responsibilities (Stanley and Sherratt 2010). In this context, nursing leadership is clearly based on a relationship with management and refers to nurses who may be a step or more removed from clinical nursing functions (Stanley and Sherratt 2010).

Gender Stereotypes and Job Relevant Stereotypes

The World Health Organisation (2012) defines gender as ‘the socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities and attributes that a particular society considers appropriate for men and women’. Gender stereotypes “are socially shared beliefs about the characteristics or attributes of men and women in general that influence our perceptions of individual men and women” (Cleveland et al. 2000, p. 42). Gender stereotypes and ideologies about what is possible and or appropriate for females and males limit their societal roles, thereby affecting their participation in the labour force and their contributions to their families. Within the broader management literature, women are traditionally viewed as possessing communal characteristics while males are viewed as agentic in nature (Eagly and Johannesen- Schmidt 2001). Communal
characteristics describe principally a concern for the welfare of other people - for example, affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturing and gentle (Eagly and Johannesen- Schmidt, 2001). Women traditionally occupy caretaking, domestic and lower status occupational roles for example, library work, retail, hospitality, nursing, midwifery, human resources, public affairs, communications and teaching (Davidson and Burke 2000; ILO 2004; Cave and Kilic 2010). The nursing profession supports the stereotypical ‘feminine’ image with traits of nurturing, caring and gentleness in contrast to masculine characteristics of strength, aggression and dominance (Inoue et al 2006; Lou et al 2007; McLaughlin et al 2010). Men generally occupy higher status occupational roles (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001) for example, engineering, physics, the judiciary, construction, medicine, law and finance (Davidson and Burke 2000; Tilley 2010). Unlike the communal characteristics associated with women, men are said to be more agentic. Agentic characteristics, which are attributed more strongly to men than women, designate primarily an assertive, controlling and confident tendency- for example, aggressive, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident and competitive (Eagly and Johannesen- Schmidt 2001). Andrews et al (2011, p. 1) propose that “although this perception of nursing as solitude for the female gender, the profession is slowly working towards disregarding a gendered image”.

Gender Segregation within Nursing and Midwifery

While nursing has been socially constructed as a female profession, Nilsson and Sätterlund Larsson (2005) point to further gender segregation within nursing groups. This gender divide within the nursing profession centres around the managerial position. Lane (2004) asserts that while women account for the vast majority of nurses a much smaller proportion reach management levels, particularly when compared to men. In highlighting the gender divide in nursing, Nilsson and Sätterlund Larsson (2005) note that within the nursing care context, thoughtfulness, empathy, participation and shared decision making are valued attributes, all of which can be linked to women’s culture.

On the other hand, the hierarchical structure of healthcare organisations have, as their management culture, male characteristics that place value of cost-effectiveness, performance and results (Nilsson and Sätterlund Larsson 2005). Tracey and Nicholl (2007, p. 679) speak of “how gender appears to influence the career structures that enhance managerial advancement”. Nilsson and Sätterlund Larsson (2005) note the rapid advancement of male nurses within the profession, compared to female nurses. Within the nursing and midwifery profession, where men have a clear minority, men dominate top management (Kleinman 2004). Evans (1997, p.
1) states that “even within a female dominated occupation such as nursing, patriarchal gender relations which reflect a high valuation of all that is male and masculine plays a significant role in situating a disproportionate number of men in administrative and elite speciality positions”. Yang et al (2003) also mirror this argument and suggest that men have an unfair advantage over women. Research findings presented by Whittock and Leonard (2003) makes reference to previous work which shows a higher proportion of males in management positions (within three London hospitals) despite having lower qualifications and less experience than female nurses. Despite the clear commitment to equal opportunities evidenced in the NHS (Corby 1995) nursing provides an interesting example of limited career advancement of women into managerial levels. Men hold disproportionately more management posts relative to their overall number. Nilsson and Sätterlund Larsson (2005) suggest that one explanation for the rapid career progression of male nurses may be found in the construction of leadership where masculinity is the norm.

**Gender Typing and the Managerial Role**

Since the 1970’s there has been abundant research on gender stereotypes and their suitability to leadership positions. Research by Schein (1973; 1975) was the first set of research to look at the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics. Research has continued to use Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) to measure evolving perceptions of congruence between gender stereotypes and managerial characteristics. These studies have been replicated on numerous occasions by Schein and other researchers, using samples of both male and female managers and male and female students (See Table 1). In line with research conducted by Duehr and Bono (2006) if the difference in the correlation between two sets of conditions (e.g. successful managers and men in general as compared to successful managers and women in general) exceeds .29, the difference is statistically significant (p<.05). A consistent pattern of results emerges from the male samples used in these studies. Male participants consistently gender type the managerial role in favour of men. Among the male samples the only group not to gender type the managerial role in favour of men was white males from South Africa (Booysen and Nkomo 2010). Findings recorded by female participants have been less consistent. Within the female samples, a difference of .24 was recorded between the two sets of conditions in Schein’s initial female sample. Since then difference between the two conditions has ranged from .72 (Schein et al 1996; Japanese sample) to some samples recording a stronger correlation between women and managers than men and managers. Table 1 highlights the results of studies to date.
Table 1: Summary of Research to Date

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and Year</th>
<th>Male Ratings</th>
<th>Female Ratings</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Author and Year</th>
<th>Male Ratings</th>
<th>Female Ratings</th>
<th>Difference</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Schein 1975</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .54, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .30, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
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<td>$r'$ men and managers = .62, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .00</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .67, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .35, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
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<td>Schein et al 1989</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .70, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .11</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .51, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .43, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
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<td>Brenner et al 1989</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .72, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .01</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td></td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .59, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .52, p&lt;.01</td>
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<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Schein and Muller 1992</td>
<td>German ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .74, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.04</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>Southern Based ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .55, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .35, p&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .67, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .02</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>US Male ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .70, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .11</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Northern Based ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .67, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .02</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Southern Based ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .50, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .05</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orser 1994</td>
<td>First Year Business ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .45, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .04</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Final Year Business ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .66, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = 0</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First Year Non-Business ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .39, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = 0.45, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dodge et al 1995</td>
<td>Males rating upper level managers</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .64, p&lt;.001</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.12, p&lt;.001</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males rating successful middle level managers</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .52, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.03, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females rating to upper level managers</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .52, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .23, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females rating successful middle level managers</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .47</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .31</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schein et al 1996</td>
<td>Chinese ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .91, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.04</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>Japanese ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .54, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Japanese ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .54, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.07</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sauer et al 2002</td>
<td>Male ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .72, p&lt;.05</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .36, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fullagar et al 2003</td>
<td>Swedish ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .71, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.03</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turkish ratings</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .57, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = .11</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyce and Herd 2003</td>
<td>$r'$ men and managers = .41, p&lt;.01</td>
<td>$r'$ women and managers = -.11</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Boyce and Herd (2003) carried out the first study in a male dominated industry - the military. Their findings indicated a continued disparity in men’s perceptions of the similarities between women and leaders. Their findings mirror previous findings from female sample recognising similarities between women and managers. Boyce and Herd (2003) also present the results of previous studies examining the relationship between gender of supervisor and the perceived fit with the managerial role; Bowman et al (1965) found that men and women who worked with female managers are more likely to be favourable towards women in managerial positions. Baron (1984) and Heilman et al (1989) suggest that employees’ gender role stereotypes about female managers vanished after employees worked with them. Powell (1990, p. 71) notes that “once subordinates have worked for both female and male managers, the effects of stereotypes disappear and managers are treated as individuals rather than representatives of their sex”.

Based on the high numbers of women working within the nursing and midwifery profession, the formal positions of authority for women in organisational hierarchy (through the position on Matron and later CNM roles) coupled with the experience of working with female managers, perceptions of gender stereotypes and the managerial role should be less pronounced than previous samples used to date.

**Aim**

The aim of this study is to examine the perceptions of gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics within the profession of nursing and midwifery. In order to perform such analysis Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) was administered to student and qualified nurses and midwives in Ireland.

**Ethical Considerations**

This research followed the University of Limerick’s University Ethical Approval Guidelines, where all research ethics applications are considered at the faculty level by Research Ethics Committees (REC). This research was approved by the Business School’s Research Ethics Committee (Ref- KBSREC-Feb 10- 6.02). In addition, the research proposal was approved by the Executive Council of the Irish Nurses and Midwives Organisation (INMO) for distribution.
at the Annual Delegates Conference. Each survey was accompanied by a subject information sheet. This sheet explained the nature of the study, guidelines on how to complete the survey, obtained consent to participate in the research, assured anonymity of the participants and explained the right of the participants to withdraw from the study at any time.

**Method**

Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) was used in this research. SDI focuses on the relationship between gender and management stereotypes, reflecting the extent to which men and women are viewed as leader-like (Duehr and Bono 2006). SDI consists of a series of 92 descriptive terms commonly used to characterise people in general. In a typical SDI study, participants rate how characteristic the 92 descriptive words / phrases are of men, women and managers in general. Some of these are positive in connotation (e.g. sympathetic, sentimental, creative, courteous, sociable, kind, helpful, prompt, generous), others are negative (e.g. bitter, selfish, submissive, vulgar, passive, deceitful, hasty, quarrelsome), and some are neither very positive nor very negative (e.g. curious, competitive, knows the way of the world, hides emotion, demure, desire for friendship).

The original 92 descriptive terms were used to measure gender stereotypes and characteristics of successful managers. As with previous research using SDI, three different target conditions were utilised in this research. Each participant responded to only one target condition. The conditions were as follows: (1) men in general, (2) women in general and (3) successful managers in general, these were randomly assigned to participants. Participants were asked to tell us what they think of men/women成功的 managers in general. In making their judgements, they were told to imagine they were about to meet the person for the first time and the only thing they knew in advance is the person is male/female or a successful manager. The participants rated the descriptive terms on a 5 point scale: 1- Not characteristic, 2- Somewhat uncharacteristic, 3- Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic, 4- Somewhat characteristic, 5- Characteristic.

**Reliability and Validity of Schein’s Descriptive Index**

SDI has been successfully used in a large number of empirical studies over the past four decades as outlined in Table 1. Reliability for SDI in this study was computed using the coefficient alpha method, otherwise known as Cronbach’s alpha. Aron et al (2006) categorise Cronbach’s alpha as the most widely used measure of reliability. Cronbach’s alpha values were calculated
for each version of SDI. Results of Cronbach’s alpha values are presented in Table 2. All versions of the survey showed high reliability.

Table 2: Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability Ratings for SDI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All survey’s</td>
<td>.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men in General</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in General</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers in General</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants

This study contained a combination of undergraduate and post experience nurses and midwives. The undergraduate participants were drawn from undergraduate nursing and midwifery programmes at a large public university in Ireland and the post experience nurses were contacted at the Annual Delegates Conference of the Irish Nurses and Midwives Organisation (INMO). For the student sample, surveys were distributed in core modules over a 2 week period (29th October to 11th November 2010). Student participants were identified to include 1st year, 2nd year and 3rd year cohorts from nursing and midwifery programmes (As the fourth year group were on clinical placement they were not included in this study). Our rationale for using a student sample was as follows: (1) The majority of this sample were born and brought up in an era where women had a significant presence in the workforce, (2) Williams and Best (1990) and Lueptow et al (2001) argue that University students may be particularly suitable for research on gender role stereotyping as they are perceived to be more gender egalitarian, (3) These students are potentially future managers, (4) Using a student sample eliminates differences in opinions which are often influenced by corporate culture.

Surveys from the post experience sample were collected at the Annual Delegates Conference of the INMO over a two-day period (5th and 6th May 2011). Surveys were distributed to delegates in their conference packs and collected during the conference.

A total of 602 surveys were administered, of which 425 (70.5%) were returned and 410 (68.1% of total) responses were useable. Overall 239 undergraduate responses were collected (254 were administered) and 171 post experience responses (348 were administered). Surveys were eliminated if the gender of the respondent was not reported, survey was incomplete or non-variability was demonstrated in item ratings. Of the 410 completed surveys, 53 (12.9%) were
men and 357 (87.1%) were female. The demographic profile of the respondents is outlined in Table 3.

### Table 3: Demographic Profile of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Undergraduate Male Nurses and Midwives</th>
<th>Undergraduate Female Nurses and Midwives</th>
<th>Qualified Male Nurses and Midwives</th>
<th>Qualified Female Nurses and Midwives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total (N=410)</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (Mode)</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of employment (N=410)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Management</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never employed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender of Supervisor (N=410)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Male and Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never employed</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This ratio of males: females is indicative of the overall ratio working within the profession. It is interesting to note that student nurses and midwives have greater exposure to male managers within the profession than their qualified counterparts. The age (mode) for qualified male nurses and midwives is notably lower than their female counterparts.

### Procedure

The sample was broken down based on the target condition, 120 were completed on ‘men in general’, 148 on ‘women in general’ and 142 on ‘successful managers in general’. Each analysis required the sample to be split into three (by target condition), then split by gender for primary analysis. Secondary analysis was carried out to determine the impact of moderators such as level of study, employment status, level of employment and gender of supervisor. Because the male sample size was inadequate to generate confidence in patterns, secondary analyses are reported for female participants only (eg. ‘gender of supervisor’ identified only a small group for males with male supervisors (n=4)).

### Data Analysis Methods

Data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 19 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC, \( r^2 \)) were computed to determine the relationship between the different moderators and requisite managerial
characteristics. An examination of the specific descriptive items on which men or women were perceived similar or different to managers was also carried out by performing a factorial analysis. This allowed us to examine the ratings of the 92 descriptive items and compare the ratings of student nurses and midwives to the rating recorded by qualified nurses and midwives. This incorporated the three target conditions (Men, Women and Managers). There was a significant group effect for 66 of the 92 items. A significance level of \( p < 0.05 \) was used as the criterion of significance. For each of the 66 items displaying a significant group effect, Duncan’s Multiple Range test for unequal ns was used to determine the significance of the difference between the mean ratings of men and managers and women and managers.

The degree of resemblance between the descriptions of men and managers and between women and managers was determined by computing ICCs (\( r^1 \)) from two randomised groups (groups refer to the 92 descriptive items) analyses of variance. The ICC gives an estimate of the percentage of the total variance that is due to the differences among the treatments (Dodge et al 1995). ICCs were calculated to determine the degree of similarity between managers and men in general and between managers and women in general.

Results

The analysis reported a significant resemblance between the overall ratings of men and managers (\( r^1 = 0.581, p<0.001 \)) and the overall rating of women and managers (\( r^1 = 0.540, p<0.001 \)). The difference in the correlation between two sets of condition (successful managers and men in general compared to successful managers and women in general) did not exceed 0.29 (\( p<0.001 \)), concluding the overall sample did not gender type the managerial role. Overall, nurses and midwives believed both males and female possess requisite managerial characteristics.

To determine whether or not gender had an impact on these results, ICC tests were carried out to moderate for gender. These tests revealed that the gender of respondents did have an impact on the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. ICC’s and the results of the analysis of variance mean item ratings are shown in Table 4.
Table 4: Analysis of variance of mean item ratings and intraclass coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>r^1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Males</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.665***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.351</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.574***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.601***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 4, the results recorded by the male sample present a similar pattern of results to previous studies. A significant difference was recorded by men between the ratings of men and managers ($r^1 = .665$, $p<.001$) compared to women and managers ($r^1 = .161$), females on the other hand did not gender type the managerial role. Overall, females recorded a higher ICC value for the resemblance between women and managers ($r^1 = .601$, $p<.001$) than between men and managers ($r^1 = .574$, $p<.001$).

To test the impact of further moderators for the female sample, ICC tests were conducted with the following moderators: level of study (undergraduate, post experience), employment status (currently employed, previously employed but not currently employed and never employed) level of employment (management, non-management) and gender of supervisor (male/female). These results are outlined in Table 5.

Table 5: Intraclass Coefficients within Age Level, Level of Study, College of Study, Employment Status, Level of Employment and Gender of Supervisor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level Employment status</th>
<th>Undergraduate female responses</th>
<th>Post experience female responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men and managers</td>
<td>Men and managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women and Managers</td>
<td>Women and managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently employed</td>
<td>.503***</td>
<td>.623***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previously employed</td>
<td>.503***</td>
<td>.599***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never employed</td>
<td>.577***</td>
<td>.493***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>.540***</td>
<td>.623***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-management</td>
<td>.577***</td>
<td>.599***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender of supervisor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>.525***</td>
<td>.506***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>.488***</td>
<td>.589***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $p < 0.001$, **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$
Within the undergraduate female sample, a stronger correlation was recorded for women and managers ($r^1 = .617, p<.001$) than men and managers ($r^1 = .503, p<.001$). Within the student sample those with some form of work experience (current or previous) held an egalitarian view of the managerial post, with very slight differences recorded between the ratings of men and managers (currently employed $r^1 = .540, p<.001$, previously employed $r^1 = .503, p<.001$) and women and managers (currently employed $r^1 = .599, p<.001$, previously employed $r^1 = .493, p<.001$). Interestingly those who had experience of working with male managers recorded a stronger correlation between women and managers ($r^1 = .603, p<.001$) than men and managers ($r^1 = .488, p<.001$), while those who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger ICC value for men and managers ($r^1 = .631, p<.001$). Among the qualified nurses and midwives sample, a consistent pattern of results emerged. Qualified nurses and midwives recorded higher ICC values for men and managers ($r^1 = .623, p<.001$) than between women and managers ($r^1 = .563, p<.001$), with the exception of women with experience of working in managerial positions, who recorded virtually no difference in ICC scores between the two sets of conditions (men and managers $r^1 = .506, p<.001$, women and managers $r^1 = .507 p<.001$). However, none of these variables statistically moderated the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics. It is important to highlight that after working within the sector, female nurses and midwives reported stronger correlations between men and managers ($r^1 = .623, p<.001$) than between women and managers ($r^1 = .563, p<.001$).

**Descriptive Items**

Although an understanding of the resemblance between the mean descriptive ratings of men and managers and women and managers was our principal objective, an examination of the descriptive items was also carried out. The ratings for each individual item were reviewed to determine the top ten items rated for each of the three conditions. These were identified for both student nurses and midwives and qualified nurses and midwives. Table 6 identifies the highest rated item ($5= highest, 1= lowest$) for men, women and successful managers, as rated by qualified and student nurses and midwives.
Table 6: Breakdown of the top ten rated items for men, women and successful managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High need for power</td>
<td>4.440</td>
<td>Sympathetic</td>
<td>4.292</td>
<td>Leadership ability</td>
<td>4.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>4.300</td>
<td>Values pleasant surroundings</td>
<td>4.288</td>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td>4.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong need for achievement</td>
<td>4.115</td>
<td>Desire for friendship</td>
<td>4.250</td>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>4.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td>4.085</td>
<td>Leadership ability</td>
<td>4.242</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>4.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership ability</td>
<td>3.923</td>
<td>Curious</td>
<td>4.227</td>
<td>Skilled in Business Matters</td>
<td>4.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventurous</td>
<td>3.917</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>4.212</td>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>4.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td>3.860</td>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>4.212</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>4.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>3.830</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>4.212</td>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>4.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>3.828</td>
<td>Talkative</td>
<td>4.203</td>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td>4.290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>3.813</td>
<td>Interested in own appearance</td>
<td>4.182</td>
<td>Self-Confident</td>
<td>4.234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Qualified nurses and midwives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High need for power</td>
<td>4.431</td>
<td>Values pleasant surroundings</td>
<td>4.900</td>
<td>Leadership ability</td>
<td>4.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>4.240</td>
<td>Curious</td>
<td>4.370</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>4.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserved</td>
<td>4.150</td>
<td>Sympathetic</td>
<td>4.360</td>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td>4.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>4.100</td>
<td>Intuitive</td>
<td>4.290</td>
<td>Emotionally stable</td>
<td>4.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong need for monetary rewards</td>
<td>4.100</td>
<td>Humanitarian values</td>
<td>4.290</td>
<td>Well informed</td>
<td>4.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>Interested in own appearance</td>
<td>4.280</td>
<td>Intuitive</td>
<td>4.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reliant</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>4.280</td>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>4.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High need for autonomy</td>
<td>3.978</td>
<td>Helpful</td>
<td>4.250</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>4.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical ability</td>
<td>3.945</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>4.230</td>
<td>Vulgar</td>
<td>4.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to separate feelings form ideas</td>
<td>3.934</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>4.216</td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>4.210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 6 we can see that student nurses and midwives recorded a higher level of similarities in the top ten rated items compared to their qualified counterparts. On examination of the similarities in ratings, the student sample recorded five of the same items for men and managers (competitive, ambitious, leadership ability, self-confident and independent), compared to one item recorded by qualified nurses and midwives (independent). Again, a greater number of similarities among the top ten rated items were recorded by the student sample between women and management (leadership ability, independent, understanding and intelligent) than by qualified nurses and midwives (intuitive, understanding and competent). Within the student sample ‘independent’ and ‘leadership ability’ were recorded in the top ten items for men, women and managers. There were no descriptive items common across all three conditions for qualified nurses and midwives.
Regarding the type of terms used to describe women; this study recorded a combination of communal and agentic terms in the top 10 rated items for women as recorded by both undergraduate and qualified nurses and midwives, suggesting that the way in which women are viewed in the workplace is beginning to change.

**Discussion**

These results are consistent with previous studies using SDI. It would appear that in almost forty years since Schein’s initial study, male stereotypes of the managerial role have not changed. Given women’s extensive involvement in the area of nursing and midwifery, at both staff level and at CNM level, it is surprising that the stereotypes of women as managers are still negative.

The male sample in this study recorded $r' = .665$, $p<0.001$ for men and managers, compared to $r' = .62$, $p<0.5$ recorded by the male sample in Schein’s 1973 study. Because the male sample used in this research was relatively small, we could only use the male sample to determine the impact of gender on gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics. Male nurses and midwives continue to demonstrate a bias indicating greater perceived similarities between managerial characteristics and those typically possessed by men. From a nursing and midwifery point of view this is worrisome given the growing representation of males in CNM and administrative posts within the health care sector. The number of males in key decision making roles is rising and will most likely rise further in the future; this is likely to have negative implications for women wishing to advance within the profession in the future. This is because (1) men advance more rapidly through the nursing hierarchy than women (Lane 2004), (2) males see men more like managers and (3) the increasing number of males in key decision making roles within the profession, who are more likely to give preference to males seeking promotion.

Among the female samples, a similar pattern of results emerges between this study and previous studies. Qualified nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers than between women and managers, in comparison to student nurses and midwives who recorded a stronger correlation between women and managers compared to men and managers. Comparing these results to the results of previous studies, ICC’s for women and managers recorded by this sample are notably stronger than the ICC’s recorded in previous studies (See Table 1), with the exception of the female samples used in Booysen and Nkomo (2010). Interestingly, the ICC scores recorded by the both female student and qualified nurses
and midwives for men and managers are stronger than those recorded by Boyce and Herd (2010) ($r' = .25$, (military sample)). Despite working in a female dominated profession, female nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers than those working in a male dominated profession.

However, an examination of the descriptive items presents a different perspective on the results. While qualified nurses recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers than between women and managers, a higher number of similarities were recorded across the top ten rated items for both women and managers (intuitive, understanding and competent). Female students recorded a stronger resemblance between women and managers than their qualified counterparts, recording four similarities in the top ten items for women and managers (leadership ability, independent, understanding and intelligent). Each of the items recorded by both samples common to both women and managers are agentic in nature. This would suggest that women are now seen to possess characteristics traditionally thought to be more associated with males. If this shift is recognised by males in managerial positions within the profession, females may appear more suitable for decision making roles. Males may begin to recognise their female counterparts are more alike than different in their approach to work. Evans (1997) suggests that male nurses are largely task-oriented (agentic) while female nurses are more people-oriented (communal). Senior managers in health care organisations should look at how this mix can work together and complement each other. Senior management may find opportunities to have both males and females work together on workplace diversity issues, promotion boards and family friendly work policies, allowing males and females to draw on their collective strengths.

In both the ICC analysis and the examination of descriptive items, students recorded a stronger association between women and managers than qualified nurses and midwives. This leaves the question- Why? It may be simply because students are generally seen to be more egalitarian. On the other hand, it may be as a direct result of the experiences and observations of qualified nurses and midwives on the job. Further research is needed in this area to determine why qualified nurses and midwives see less of a fit between women and the managerial role. We recommend a series of qualitative research to capture the thoughts, experiences and insights of those working within the profession to help understand the shift away from a female dominated view of management within the profession. Emphasis should also be placed on how individuals view the fit between their own ability and the managerial role, is it the case that males have stronger managerial aspirations than females?
Implications for nursing management

While women are making inroads into managerial positions in general, the opposite trend is occurring within the nursing and midwifery profession. There is a danger that the profession may become two tiered - as demonstrated in other sectors of employment - with males presiding over managerial positions and females confined to more junior management levels and lower level positions. While female nurses appear to be hitting the glass ceiling, male nurses are taking the glass escalator. The historical prejudice of men in senior positions in employment settings, which is believed to contribute to the glass ceiling, works in reverse for male nurses who are mentored and more rapidly promoted by those of the same gender through gender alliances (Kleinman 2004). This coupled with the current hierarchical structures of health care organisations, places men in a more favourable position, putting women at a distinct disadvantage in terms of career development and upward mobility. Within healthcare settings, this may lead to ambivalence from female workers towards their male counterparts, mainly due to the fear of male monopolisation of power and authority, recreating historical male dominance in management, as evidenced in other sectors of employment. Failure to adopt policies, that ensure fairness and equal access for both genders, may result in despondence on the part of female workers, with women who aspire to leadership positions having to adopt male behaviours in order to succeed within health care organisations. This could ultimately lead to a shift in focus from a people oriented approach to nursing currently adopted by females to a more task oriented approach, which is most commonly displayed by males.

The current practices within health care organisations favour those working fulltime. In many cases females favour part time work due to obligations outside of work or having to take time out to rear families, putting men in a favourable position in the workplace. Andrews et al (2011) note how full time employment status contributes to the view that male nurses make better candidates for managerial positions. Notwithstanding this, it must be recognised by health care organisations that part-time female workers can show equal commitment to the workplace (Whittock and Leonard 2003). Health care organisations should pay careful consideration to the development of career structures which reflect flexible work practices and gender diversity in the workplace, taking into consideration obligations workers may have in both the workplace and at home. Implementing more flexible work practices and career structures will optimise career advancement for women within the profession. Female candidate also need to be supported, encouraged and mentored for managerial roles. We are in no way suggesting that men should not be allowed into the profession or managerial roles, our concern is the nursing
and midwifery profession will become two tiered with a disproportionate number of males in managerial positions.

There were a number of limitations to this research. While the sample size of 410 facilitated the segmentation of respondents for analysis, there were a number of limitations. Each analysis required the sample to be split into three (by target condition), then split by gender followed by a split based on moderator. This limited the amount of statistical analysis that could be carried out. Also as the male sample size was inadequate to generate confidence in patterns; secondary analyses are reported for female participants only.

**Conclusion**

Despite the long association of women working in the profession and the long established role of matron in the sector, males seem to persist in their perception of the necessity of a masculine model of managerial success. Qualified nurses and midwives also see a fit between men and the managerial role. Such gender role stereotyping of managerial work can result in a view that women are less qualified than men for managerial positions and may negatively affect their opportunities for entry or advancement into managerial roles. While this research can tell us how nurses and midwives view the managerial role, it does not tell us the reasons behind these ratings. Failure to secure the presence and dominance of women in CNM roles could lead to a two tiered system in the future with females possibly confined to lower level managerial roles such as CNM 1 roles and staff nurse positions in the future.

**References**


Baron, A. (1984) 'The achieving women manager: So where are the rewards?', *Business Quarterly*, 49. 70-73.


ARTICLE 3

Beyond Gender Role Stereotypes and Requisite Managerial Characteristics: From Communal to Androgynous, the Changing Views of Women.

CITATION

3.5 Beyond Gender Role Stereotypes and Requisite Managerial Characteristics: From Communal to Androgynous, the Changing Views of Women

Elaine Berkery, Prof. Michael Morley, Dr. Siobhán Tiernan,
Department of Management and Marketing, Kemmy Business School, University of Limerick

Purpose: The aims of this study are three fold: (1) to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, (2) to test Lord and Maher’s recognition based processes to determine whether familiarity with women in leadership positions decreases the ‘think manager- think male’ stereotype and (3) to examine the nature of the attributes used to describe men, women and managers.

Methodology: Schein’s Descriptive Index was used in this study. A total of 1,236 surveys were included in the study. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC, $r^1$) were computed to determine the relationship between the different moderators and requisite managerial characteristics. Factorial analysis and agglomerative hierarchal cluster analysis were used to identify the traits attributed to men, women and managers.

Findings: Male respondents continue to gender type the managerial role in favour of men. Both males and managers continue to be viewed as agentic in nature while women are viewed in more androgynous terms by both male and female respondents.

Practical implications: This study expands our understanding of how males and females view women, men and managers. Based on the results of this study, we would argue that women are better equipped to adopt an androgynous leadership style and to practice transformational leadership.

Originality: This study looks beyond ICC scores and looks at how each of the traits is linked to men, women and managers. The findings are discussed in terms of how organisations need to look beyond the misfit between women and requisite managerial characteristics and focus on what females can contribute at board level and to management in general.

Keywords: Gender stereotypes, leadership, managerial characteristics, androgyny, communal, agentic

Paper type: Research
Introduction

Research on women in management⁵ has been dominated by efforts to explain why women continue to experience difficulties in attaining senior management positions (Ely and Padavic 2007). Alimo-Metcalf (2010) cites numerous reasons which explain the paucity of women in management including cultural, societal, legal, educational and organisational factors (Davidson and Burke 1994; Greenglass and Marshall 1993). One reoccurring theme in the literature suggests that gender⁶ stereotypes are one of the main barriers faced by women in the workplace in attaining senior management positions (Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso 2003; Koeing et al 2011; Paris and Decker 2012; Schein 1973; 1975; 2007; Schein and Mueller 1992). Within the literature on gender stereotypes, the most common gender stereotypes are related to communal and agentic associations (Galanaki et al 2009). Women are generally associated with communal characteristics, while males are associated with agentic characteristics. Research by Schein (1973; 1975) was among the first to look at the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, reflecting the extent to which men and women are viewed as leader like (Duehr and Bono 2006). This is now referred to as the ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm. The contribution of SDI to the literature on women in management remains as important today, albeit forty years later, as its initial contribution in 1973. The focus of Schein’s initial enquiry was to determine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, developing Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI). SDI consists of a series of 92 descriptive terms (including both agentic and communal traits) commonly used to characterise people in general. In a typical SDI study, participants rate how characteristic the 92 descriptive words / phrases are of men, women and successful managers in general. The ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm has the advantage of comparing cultural constructs of leadership to males and females alike, yielding a clear-cut test of role congruity theory (Koeing et al 2011). The robustness of the SDI’s enquiry into leadership characteristics can be attributed to the fact that in the majority of studies, participants rate only one of the three conditions (men, women and managers), disguising the underlying test of resemblance between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics. Koeing et al (2011)⁷ conducted a meta-analysis of the studies to date examining the masculinity of leader roles under the ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm. A total of 40 studies were...

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⁵ In this article we use the terms management and leadership interchangeably as the literature and measure we review does not allow leader or management roles to be separated.

⁶ We use the term sex to denote the grouping of people into male and female and the term gender refers to the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to male and female categories.

⁷ This study also included meta-analyses of Powell and Butterfield’s (1979) agency- communion paradigm and Shinar’s (1975) masculinity-feminity paradigm. For the purpose of this article we are only focusing on the results of the SDI meta-analysis.
included in the meta-analysis; 25 of which were published in peer reviewed journals (e.g., Women in Management Review/Gender in Management: An International Journal, Sex Roles, Personnel Psychology, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Organisational Behaviour, Academy of Management Review) and 15 studies from unpublished theses, raw data or reports. The meta-analysis demonstrated the overall masculinity of leader stereotypes (women-leader similarities $r^' = .25$, men-leader similarities $r^' = .62$). Furthermore, the following emerged from the meta-analysis: publication year (1973-2010) was marginally related to women-leader similarities, male participants were associated with weaker women-leader similarities, higher status leaders were associated with men-leader similarities, Eastern participants were associated with stronger women-leader similarities, a greater percentage of male authors were associated with weaker women-leader similarities and age of respondent was associated with stronger women-leader similarities. Similarly, Schein (2007), in her review of the ‘think manager-think male’ paradigm notes that despite the change in the status of working women over the past three decades, males in each decade hold the same view of women’s suitability to managerial roles, irrespective of cultural differences. Among female samples, both men and women are seen as likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success. However, Schein cautions that this outcome seems to be as a result of a changed view of women rather than a change in the perceptions of men and of requisite managerial success.

Drawing upon the results of Lueptow et al (2001) who indicated that there has been little indication of changes in the stereotypes of women, Koeing et al (2011) concluded that the most appropriate explanation for greater female-leader similarities was that leadership traits had changed. Recent research in the area of leadership suggests that leadership now appears to incorporate both male and female qualities indicating the increasing androgyny of leadership over time. However, despite changes in the description of leadership, men continue to succeed given that they continue to be rated more similar to managers, while dominating the higher echelons of organisations.

For the purpose of this study, we use the terms management and leadership interchangeably as the literature and measure we review does not allow leader or management roles to be separated. We define the leaders and managers, as individuals who are appointed into positions of authority, with responsibility for dyadic relationships within an organisation. Our focus is on the attributes and characteristics necessary for managerial and leadership success. One of the key aspects of gender stereotypes addressed in the literature, which is particularly important to further our understanding of leadership, centres around agentic and communal attributes (Eagly
The concepts of agency and communion are borrowed from Bakan (1966), who characterised agency and communion as fundamental modalities of human existence (Mosher and Danoff-Burg 2005). Bakan subsequently tied these constructs to gender, referring to agency as the male principle and communion as the female principle. It is widely contended within the literature that communal characteristics, which are strongly associated with women, involve qualities like warm, kind, helpful, honest, cooperative, trustworthy, nurturing and sympathetic (and their opposites), while agentic characteristics, which are strongly linked to men, include efficient, competent, assertive, ambitious, independent, forceful, self-confident, active, persistent, and energetic (and their opposites) (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Embry et al 2008; Heilman and Okimoto 2007; Phelan et al 2008).

In an employment setting agentic behaviours might include speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others, making problem-focused solutions and initiating activity directed to assigned tasks (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Research to date notes how agentic characteristics are usually seen as being essential for successful leadership (Duehr and Bono 2006; Eagly and Carli 2007; Weyer 2007). Whereas, communal behaviours in an employment setting include; speaking tentatively, not drawing attention to oneself, accepting others’ direction, supporting and soothing others, and contributing to the solution of relational and interpersonal problems (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Mavin and Grandy (2012) further suggest that female leaders’ display of more communal behaviours aligns with our conceptualisation of doing gender well, while female leaders’ display of agentic behaviours aligns with doing gender differently.

Gender role stereotypes are beliefs about the appropriateness of various roles and activities for men and women based on their ascribed gender attributes. Eagly and Carli (2007) further suggest that the communal attributes ascribed to women in general put women in the pursuit of leadership roles at a disadvantage. On the one hand, if a woman is viewed as being highly communal, she may be criticised as not possessing the agentic characteristics required for management and leadership positions, while on the other hand if a woman is perceived to be highly agentic, she may be criticised for lacking in traditional feminine qualities.

Recent literature advocates a more suitable fit between women and leadership, mainly owing to the transformational style of leadership adopted by women. Transformational leadership is defined as the degree to which a leader employs idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration in an attempt to direct followers into a higher level of thinking (Bass, 1990). Zhang et al (2013) identifies the two key elements of transformational leadership: first, to transform follower values and inspire them to pursue a
collective vision of the future for the organisation, motivating group members to perform beyond their expectations; (Bass 1985; Burns 1978) and second, individual focus, comprising of leader behaviours that are unique to a particular leader–follower dyad. Eagly and Carli (2003) suggest women are more transformational than men, and as a result, are more likely to be seen as effective and satisfying as leaders by both their male and female subordinates (Bass and Avoilo 1994). Fortunately for women’s progression as leaders, this inspiring style appears to have numerous advantages for present day organisations (Avolio 1999, Bass 1998; Lowe et al 1996). Transformational leadership includes many communal aspects, in particular under the theme ‘individualised consideration’, whereby leaders focus on developing subordinates, mentoring subordinates and focusing on individual employee needs (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). 

Eagly and Steffen (1984) note that societal changes in gender roles will be followed by changes in gender stereotypes. Lueptow et al (2001) conducted a review of the literature on gender stereotypes and social change from 1974-2007 focusing on clusters of traits that differentiate women and men. They concluded that social change was not followed by change in gender typing. In fact, they suggested that there has been an increase in gender typing, especially in the femininity of females. This assumption was confirmed by the results of their longitudinal research which spanned from 1974-2007. Their findings “with regard to gender stereotypes are very clear: they are not decreasing, if anything they are intensifying” (2001, p. 642). This increase in gender typing was especially pronounced in the case of females, who perceived the typical female as becoming more feminine. Within the ‘think manager- think male’ paradigm findings by Paris and Decker (2012) corroborate these findings. Their analysis of the top twenty rated items for men, women and managers revealed that agentic characteristics were used to describe men and communal characteristics to were used to describe women.

Based on the through reviews carried out by Koeing et al (2011) and Lueptow et al (2001) the following observations can be drawn from the literature to date: the traits associated with males and females have remained consistent; women are seen to be communal in nature and men are considered agentic in nature, however the traits of leaders have changed to incorporate both male and female qualities making leadership more androgynous.
So why continue investigation into the area? One of our recently published studies has provided evidence that the attributes ascribed to women are beginning to change (Berkery et al, 2012), providing a different insight to the findings of Koeing et al (2011) and Lueptow et al (2001). This study examined gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics among nursing and midwifery professionals. Within the nursing and midwifery profession it appeared that the traits associated with male and managers continued to be agentic in nature, while the traits of females, although primarily communal in nature, did contain some agentic traits. However, we did only examine the top 10 rated items. We did not find support for Koeing et al (2011) who claimed that leadership is becoming more androgynous. In addition, another interesting finding to emerge from this study was the ICC scores recorded for men and managers by the both female students and qualified nurses and midwives are stronger than those recorded by Boyce and Herd (2010), who used a sample from the military. According to Lord and Maher (1991) implicit leadership theories or stereotypes can be changed through recognition-based processes. They further suggest that individual’s detailed knowledge structures regarding leadership are altered based on day to day experiences. Based on this line of argument, it would be expected that the nursing and midwifery sample would see less of a resemblance between men and management than the results recorded by Boyce and Herd (2010). To determine whether these results were exclusive to the nursing and midwifery profession we extended our study, the results of which are reported hereafter.

**The Irish Context**

Up until the 1980’s, women’s participation in the labour force in Ireland was low compared with that of other industrialised countries; in addition, the demographic structure of the female workforce was primarily young single women (McCarthy 2004). The 1990’s and early 2000’s saw unprecedented growth in the Irish economy, this golden period in Irish history is the ‘Celtic Tiger’. The numbers of females entering employment in Ireland during the Celtic Tiger surpassed all EU averages, for example, in 1998 the average increase in female employment in Europe was 2.1% compared to 10.2% in Ireland (Eurostat 2010). Female employment in Ireland peaked in 2008. Since 2008, due to the economic downturn, the numbers of women in the Irish workforce have decreased, albeit at a slower rate than their male counterparts. Based on the results of the 2011 Irish Census, for the first time in employment history female employees have surpassed that of men (O’ Brien 2012).

The ‘Managers and Administrators’ category of employment in Ireland at a glance tells a positive story for women in employment. There has been a ratio increase of women: men from
1:3.18 in 1998 to 1:1.93 in 2010. This period saw huge increases in the numbers of females in the category, rising by 56% (67,700 to 105,200 in the first quarter of 1998 to the first quarter in 2010) whereas the number of males in this category decreased by 6% (215,100 to 202,300 in the first quarter of 1998 to the first quarter in 2010), the number of males as managers peaked in the first quarter of 2008 at 229,100 (Quarterly National Household Surveys 1998-2010). However, when we examine these figures/percentages in greater detail, despite the increase in the number of females in the category it fails to differentiate between higher level management and junior level management positions. Previous research in this area in Ireland, suggests that while women are well represented at more junior management levels, this is not true in the case of senior management positions where there appears to be a much wider gap (Lynch 1994; O’Connor 1996; Ruane and Sutherland 1999). Russell et al (2009) note the high prevalence of vertical segregation within Irish organisations suggesting that “… men are twice as likely as women to occupy senior and middle management positions” (Russell et al 2009, p. xiii).

**Sample**

The sample used in this research was a combination of undergraduate (n=1,042, 84.3%) and postgraduate (n= 194, 15.7%) students at a large public University in the Republic of Ireland. The classes in which this survey was distributed were selected randomly. Surveys were administered (handed out and collected) at the end of class over a 3-week period. Class sizes ranged from 200 plus students to 15 students. All survey responses were optional and confidentiality and anonymity was assured. A total of 1,285 surveys were collected of which 1,236 were useable. Surveys were eliminated if gender of respondent was not reported, survey was incomplete or non-viability was demonstrated in item ratings.

Within the sample, 56.2% of respondents were from the business school. The remainder of the sample came from the area of Education and Health Science, Science and Engineering, Arts, Humanities and Social Science and Interdisciplinary programmes. A total of 86.4% of respondents reported having some form or work experience, this experience was in the form of part-time work or co-operative education. A full demographic breakdown is provided in Table 1.
Table 1: Demographic Profile of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Male n</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Female n</th>
<th>Female %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>50.1%</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>49.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
<td>526</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business School</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Health Science</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and Engineering</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts, Humanities and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdisciplinary</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (18)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender of supervisor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both male and female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never employed</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (58)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (47)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years (mode)</td>
<td>21 years (median)</td>
<td>21 years (median)</td>
<td>22.93 years (mean)</td>
<td>22.09 years (mean)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our rationale for using a student sample was as follows: (1) The majority of this sample were born and brought up in an era where women had a significant presence in the workforce, (2) Williams and Best (1990) and Lueptow et al. (2001) argue that University students may be particularly suitable for research on gender role stereotyping as they are perceived to be more gender egalitarian, (3) These students are potentially future managers, (4) Using a student sample eliminates differences in opinions which are often influenced by corporate culture.

Measure

SDI was developed using items that differentially describe men and women generated from the work of Brim (1958), Bennett and Cohen (1959), and Rosenkrantz et al. (1968), consisting of a series of 92 descriptive terms (including both agentic and communal traits) commonly used to characterise people in general. Some of these are positive in connotation (e.g. sympathetic, sentimental, creative, courteous, sociable, kind, helpful, prompt, generous), others are negative (e.g. bitter, selfish, submissive, vulgar, passive, deceitful, hasty, quarrelsome), and some are neither very positive nor very negative (e.g. curious, competitive, knows the way of the world, hides emotion, demure, desire for friendship). In a typical SDI study, participants rate how characteristic the 92 descriptive words/phrases are of men, women and successful managers in general (e.g. leadership ability, shy, competitive, frank, assertive, consistent, self-confident, decisive, talkative, skilled in business matters, forceful, ambitious). The original 92 descriptive terms were used in this study to measure gender stereotypes and characteristics of managers.
As with previous research using SDI, three different target conditions were utilised in this research. Each participant responded to only one target condition. The conditions were as follows: (1) men in general, (2) women in general and (3) managers in general, these were randomly assigned to participants. Participants were asked to tell us what they think of men/women/ managers in general. In making their judgements, they were told to imagine they were about to meet the person for the first time and the only thing they know in advance is the person is male/female or a manager. The participants rated the descriptive terms on a 5-point scale: 1-Not characteristic, 2-Somewhat uncharacteristic, 3-Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic, 4-Somewhat characteristic, 5-Characteristic. In total 430 (34.8%) respondents rated men in general, 394 (31.9%) rated women in general and 412 (33.3%) rated managers in general.

**Data Analysis Methods**

Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 19 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC, $r^I$) were computed to determine the relationship between the different moderators and requisite managerial characteristics. The degree of resemblance between the descriptions of men and managers and between women and managers was determined by computing ICCs from two randomised group analyses of variance (The groups/classes are the 92 descriptive items). ICCs were computed between managers and each of the gendered conditions. The ICC value gives an estimate of the percentage of the total variance that is due to the differences among the conditions (Dodge *et al* 1995). ICCs were calculated to determine the degree of similarity between managers and men in general and between managers and women in general. In line with research conducted by Duehr and Bono (2006, p. 828) “if the difference in the correlation between two sets of conditions (e.g., successful managers and men in general as compared to successful managers and women in general) exceeds .29, the difference is statistically significant (p<.05)”, assuming equal variance across samples.

An examination of the specific descriptive items on which men or women were perceived similar or different to managers was also carried out by performing a factorial analysis (Duncan’s Multiple Range Test). This allowed us to examine the ratings of the 92 descriptive items and compare the ratings of male students to ratings of female students. This incorporated the three target conditions (Men, Women and Managers). A significance level of $p< .000$ was used as the criterion of significance. This also allowed us to determine whether men, women and managers were viewed as communal or agentic. Finally, an agglomerative hierarchal
cluster analysis was carried out to determine associations between different items on SDI and to allow us to examine similarities within clusters and between clusters.

Results

Based on the findings in Table 2, which presents the results of the analyses of variance and the ICC, there was a strong and significant resemblance between the overall ratings of men and managers ($r^1 = .639$, $p < .001$), with the resemblance of women and managers significantly weaker ($r^1 = .315$, $p < .001$). As the difference between the two sets of conditions exceeds .29 the difference recorded is statistically significant, meaning the overall sample gender typed the managerial role in favour of men.

Table 2: Analysis of variance of mean item ratings and intraclass coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$r^1$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Respondents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>4.59***</td>
<td>.639***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.566</td>
<td>1.938*</td>
<td>.313***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males Respondents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.662</td>
<td>5.86***</td>
<td>.707***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.449</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females Respondents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>1.57***</td>
<td>.570**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between items</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>.716</td>
<td>2.55***</td>
<td>.434***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within items</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

To determine whether or not gender moderated the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, ICC tests were carried out to moderate for gender. These tests revealed that the gender of the respondent did have an impact on the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite management positions, with males gender typing the managerial role in favour of men (see table 2). Females, in contrast, did not gender type the managerial role.

Further ICC tests were conducted with the following moderators included in the analysis; level of study, college of study, and gender of supervisor (male/female, both, students never employed). The results of which are outlined in table 3.
Table 3: Intraclass Coefficients within Level of Study, College of Study, Sector of Employment, Level of Employment and Gender of Supervisor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intra-class Coefficients</th>
<th>Male Responses</th>
<th>Female Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men and Managers</td>
<td>Women and Managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Study</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>.723 ***</td>
<td>.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>.614 ***</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>College of Study</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>.695 ***</td>
<td>.179 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Health Sciences</td>
<td>.724 ***</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences</td>
<td>.502 ***</td>
<td>.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and Engineering</td>
<td>.739 ***</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdisciplinary</td>
<td>.459 ***</td>
<td>.299 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender of supervisor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>.666 ***</td>
<td>.187 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>.712 ***</td>
<td>.204 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both male and female</td>
<td>.695 ***</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never employed</td>
<td>.610 ***</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

In this study, regardless of the moderator, males consistently recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers (min $r^1 = .459***$, max $r^1 = .739***$) than between women and managers (min $r^1 = .092$, max $r^1 = .299*$). With the exception of males from interdisciplinary programmes (n=35), the difference between males rating managers and men in general and males rating managers and women in general exceeded .29, making the difference in correlation statistically significant, concluding that irrespective of moderator males gender type the managerial role in favour of men.

Results from the female sample were somewhat different. The only female sub category to gender type the managerial role were females who had no work experience (n=52), concluding that females for the most part do not gender type the managerial role.

Overall the findings of the ICC tests concur with the findings of previous research highlighting that within the male sample there is a relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. Interestingly, exposure to female managers did not reduce the level of gender typing of the managerial role. It had the reverse effect; respondents who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers (male ratings: $r^1 = .712***$, female ratings: $r^1 = .586***$) compared to women and managers (male ratings: $r^1 = .204*$, female rating: $r^1 = .474***$).
**Examination of the descriptive items**

For each of the 91 items displaying a significant group effect, Duncan’s multiple range test for unequal sample sizes was used to determine the significance of the difference between the mean ratings of men and managers and women and managers. To determine the impact of gender, further analysis was carried out by performing a factorial analysis. There was a significant group effect for 91 (High Self Regard p<0.001) of the 92 items.

The results revealed that on 14 of these items the ratings of managers were more similar to men (all of which were agentic in nature, eg. frank, forceful, competitive) and for 6 of the items the ratings of managers were more similar to women (all of which were communal in nature eg. understanding, modest, helpful). For the remaining 71 items with significant group F ratio there was no relationship between gender role stereotypes and perceptions of managerial characteristics.

Duncan’s multiple range test also gave an aggregate score for the rating of each item as rated for men, women and managers. This allowed us to determine the items on which men, women and managers scored highest. The descriptive items were examined further to determine the top 20 items rated for each of the three conditions by each gender. These are outlined in table 4.

Looking at how managers were rated, both male and female respondents recorded 20 agentic items in the top twenty rated items for managers, of which 17 were common to both male and female responses. Similarly, both male and female respondents recorded agentic items in the top 20 rated items for men, of which 15 were common across male and female responses. On the ratings of women in general, 15 items were commonly recorded by male and female respondents, however the items on which women scored highest were a mixture of communal and agentic. Interestingly, males recorded a higher number of agentic attributes for women that their female counterparts.
Table 4: Details the top twenty items across each condition by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manager Ratings</th>
<th>Female Ratings</th>
<th>Male Ratings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male responses</td>
<td>Female responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling not easily</td>
<td>Leadership Ability</td>
<td>Kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hurt</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ambitious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Ability</td>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td>Interested in own appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td>Skilled in business matters</td>
<td>Sympathetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled in business</td>
<td>Inteligent</td>
<td>Talkative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matters</td>
<td></td>
<td>Interested in own appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td>Strong need for security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td>Values pleasant surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td>Awareness of feelings of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Well informed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Strong need for social acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Aware of feelings of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Well informed</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Curious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decisive</td>
<td>Curious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Desires responsibility</td>
<td>Persistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>Neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistent</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-controlled</td>
<td>Sociable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Persistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>Competitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>High need for achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Desires responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intuitive</td>
<td>Consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-controlled</td>
<td>Independent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the top twenty items across each of the three conditions, while males recorded a low ICC value between women and managers, males recorded 7 common items (competitive, ambitious, strong need for achievement, competent, independent, intelligent, and persistent) in the top twenty items across each of the three conditions, each of which were agentic in nature. Females recorded 5 items common across all three conditions (competitive, independent, ambitious, leadership ability and persistent), again, all agentic terms.

To further our understanding of how the items in SDI were perceived by the respondents, an agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis was carried out for each of the three conditions by gender (six separate analyses). Doing so enabled us to form groups of related variables for men, women and managers (by gender of respondent), allowing us to determine how items in each cluster are similar to each other but different to other clusters. This also helped us unfold
associations and structures between each of the 92 variables contained in SDI. By using agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis each variable was first treated as a single cluster at the outset and then successively merged (or agglomerate) pairs of clusters until all clusters were merged into a single cluster that contained all variables. In this study a total of five clusters were chosen for each of the six analyses. The results of the agglomerative hierarchy analysis furthered our understanding of how each of the items was perceived. A consistent pattern of results emerged from the cluster analysis, which is consistent with the results of Duncan’s Multiple Range test. On examination of the items contained in each of the clusters, for the ratings of men and managers by both male and female respondents, clusters were primarily made up of either agentic items or communal items; there was no evidence of clustering both agentic and communal items equally in the same cluster. For the ratings of women, there was a greater level of variation in the clusters in terms of agentic and communal items. Both male and female respondents recorded a combination of agentic and communal items in each of the clusters reported in the cluster analysis.

**Discussion**

This article has not been written for the purpose of reinforcing gender role stereotypes of the managerial position. The aims of this study were three fold: (1) to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, (2) to test Lord and Maher’s recognition based processes to determine whether familiarity with women in leadership positions decreases the ‘think manager- think male’ stereotype and (3) to examine the nature of the attributes used to describe men, women and managers in general. Our findings both support and challenge the findings from the literature. Each of these aims will now be revisited and addressed separately.

On the issue of gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial the findings from this study present a similar pattern of results to studies to date. Males continue to gender type the managerial role in favour of men, while females see the managerial role as being suitable for both men and women. Within the Irish context, coming from a male dominated hierarchical society it was not surprising to note that, with the exception of two sub groups, females from Science and Engineering and females with exposure to both male and female managers, men and managers were consistently rated higher than women and managers. These two exceptions are interesting firstly, given male dominance within the area of science and engineering, it is interesting to note that females (n=39) saw a greater level of similarity between women and managers compared to men and managers and secondly, those who had experience of working
with both male and female managers (n=42) saw a greater association between women and managers, however, cautions should be paid to the small sample sizes. Based on Lord and Maher’s recognition based processes, we expected students from a male dominated profession to see a greater similarity between men and managers compared to women and managers. However, it should be noted that the majority of respondents are undergraduate students, with limited exposure to the workplace and may not have experienced discrimination first hand. Although Ireland has witnessed a period of enormous growth, statistics would suggest that our organisational structures continue to reflect the historical male dominated hierarchical structure. Previous research in this area of women in management in Ireland, although limited, suggests that while women are well represented at more junior management levels, this is not true in the case of senior management positions where there appears to be a much wider gap (Lynch 1994; O’ Connor 1996; Ruane and Sutherland 1999), indicating that very few women reach senior management positions in Ireland. This supports Russell et al (2009) who point to a high presence of vertical segregation within Irish organisations suggesting that men are twice as likely as women to move up the organisational hierarchy and attain senior and middle management positions. This would lead us to suggest that until organisational changes occur to reflect societal changes, gender typing of the managerial role will persist.

The second aim of this study was to test Lord and Maher’s recognition based processes to determine whether familiarity with women in leadership positions decreases the ‘think manager-think male’ stereotype. The findings from this study were counter intuitive. Exposure to female managers did not reduce the level of gender typing of the managerial role. In this study, it had the reverse effect; respondents who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers (male ratings: $r^1 = .712^{***}$, female ratings: $r^1 = .586^{***}$) compared to women and managers (male ratings: $r^1 = .204^*$, female rating: $r^1 = .474^{***}$). With the increased number of women in the workforce and in managerial roles, it was expected that those with experience of working with female managers would be less inclined to gender type the managerial. Powell (1990) notes that once subordinates have worked for both female and male managers, the effects of stereotypes disappeared leading to managers being treated as individuals rather than representatives of their gender. We expected subordinates to identify with their superiors; therefore, gender of supervisor would shape opinions of the leadership role, this was not true in the case of those working with female managers. While the reasoning and rational behind these results are unknown, it is possible that existing hierarchical structures and corporate culture could have impacted on perceptions. In the case of those working with male managers the recognition
based processes did appear to exist. The findings from this study did not support the findings of these studies, and echo the findings of Boyce and Herd (2003) who found experience of female supervisors did not change the stereotypes of managers.

The final aim of this study was to examine the nature of the attributes used to describe men, women and managers in general. It is the findings from this analysis that makes the most contribution to the literature. Although gender typing of the managerial role continues, we did find a pattern of results which challenge findings to date. Both Koeing et al (2011) and Lueptow et al (2001) conducted thorough analyses of the literature since 1973 and respectively concluded that leadership has become androgynous, while gender stereotypes are not decreasing, if anything they are intensifying. Based on our sample, we found that both leaders and men continue to be perceived in agentic terms, while the view of women in general has changed. Women in general, are perceived by both male and females respondents in this study to possess a combination of agentic and communal characteristics, indicating that women are now seen as androgynous in nature. This was confirmed by both the factorial analysis and cluster analysis. Based on these findings, we did not find support for Koeing et al (2011) who assert that women-leader similarities are greater now than in the past because of the androgynous view of leadership. Instead we find support for Schein (2007) who suggested that among female samples, both men and women are seen as likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success as a result of a changed view of women rather than a change in the perceptions of men and of requisite managerial success. We would argue that within the Irish context, the increase in women-leader similarity is as a result of the androgynous view held of women. Concluding that, among Irish students, males continue to be perceived as more suitable for managerial positions based on the agentic nature of the managerial post, while the greater level of female-manager similarities is a direct result of the changing view of women.

In this instance, societal changes appear to have influenced changes in traits used to describe women in Ireland.

Within the context of this study, females are no longer tied solely to traditional female traits. The study revealed that while the view of men and managers has remained agentic in nature, the views of women have shifted from communal to androgynous. Eagly and Steffen (1984) noted as changes in social roles occur so too will gender stereotypes. The combination of agentic and communal traits recorded for women in this study may very well be a reflection of women’s overall status within Irish society. One plausible explanation for these findings is that females are still the primary care giver in Irish homes, reflecting the need for high levels of
communal attributes. Although females are working outside the family home in greater numbers, they may be first viewed as a care giver and then organisational worker, leading females to be viewed a communal at home and agentic outside the home. However, these working patterns are not exclusive to the Irish context, internationally in developed countries a similar pattern of care giving and employment exists.

**Implications of these findings**

This study is significant because it expands our understanding of how males and females view women, men and managers in general. The results of this study have implications for practice, academics and researchers. These implications lie in the results of traits attributed to women. The employment landscape in Ireland is changing and about to enter into new territories. According to the results of the 2011 Irish Census, for the first time in employment history female employees have surpassed that of men (O’ Brien 2012). However, despite these changes the results of male respondents towards women as managers were almost identical to those recorded by Schein (1973) almost four decades ago. In 1971 female employment in the US was at 38% (Knoootz 1971), compared to 59.7% in 2011 (female employment in Ireland peaked in 2008 at 64.4%) (Eurostat 2010). Despite significant increases in female employment in recent years, the gap in male perceptions between men in general and managers compared women in general and managers has remained virtually the same (difference in ICC scores 1973 =.56, difference in ICC scores 2010=.558).

Although the results of the ICC analysis hold little hope for women’s aspiration to enter management given the dominance of men in decision making roles and the stereotypes held by men, the examination of the descriptive items provides a silver lining for women in general. The mixture of communal and agentic characteristics attributed to females (eg, kind, ambitious, helpful, leadership ability, intelligent, sociable, ambitious and consistent) may have advantages for women in the workplace. In the past, the ideal manager was perceived as possessing stereotypical masculine qualities fitting in with hierarchical, male dominated organisational structures. However, organisations are changing. These changes can be attributed to technological and socio economic advances including globalisation, a shift towards a service economy and a greater emphasis being placed on knowledge intensive society (Gartzia and van Engen 2012). These forces have put increasing pressure on organisations to change towards less hierarchical structures with greater levels of flexibility. This in turns requires management to engage in collaboration, cooperation, openness, sensitivity and empathy in order to succeed (Kark et al 2012). Such changes challenge the traditional conception of leadership and require
a more people oriented and communal approach to leadership (Avolio et al. 2009; Barsade and Gibson 2007; Fletcher 2004; Zaccaro 2007). The results of this study would indicate that men do not possess the necessary communal characteristics for this emergent style of leadership and as a result males working in organisations adapting such styles of leadership may struggle. In line with these new trends in organisational structure, recent literature asserts that management is becoming more feminine in the sense that qualities associated with women are now associated with effective management (Benveniste 1993; Duher and Bono 2006; Fondas 1997; McDowell 1997). In a similar vein, numerous arguments have been presented advocating androgynous leadership, drawing on the necessity for a combination of communal and agentic characteristics in effective management (Hackman et al. 1992; Hall et al. 1998; Koeing et al. 2011). Studies have confirmed that androgynous leaders are evaluated more favourably and perceived to be more transformational than other leaders (van Engen 2001; Kark et al. 2012), with transformational leadership advocating the importance androgyny in leadership (Hackman et al. 1992; Vinkenburg et al. 2011). Findings from the present study suggest that females possess the necessary mix of communal and agentic characteristics necessary for an androgynous style of leadership. As transformational leadership becomes more widespread in organisations, it will threaten more established leadership styles which favour males, with males finding it difficult to adapt communal characteristics and in turn adapting a transformational style of leadership. Although agentic characteristics were important for leadership in the past, a mixture of communal and agentic might be more relevant in the future.

Based on the results of this study, in the light of enfolding literature, we would argue that women are better equipped to adopt an androgynous leadership style and practice transformational leadership. Males on the other hand may find it more difficult to adapt androgynous leadership styles, given they may be less prepared to display stereotypical feminine leadership behaviours. Recent trends in organisational structure may also favour female leaders. In the current economic climate it is essential that organisations utilise the full complement of available talent to maintain competitive advantage. Doyle-Morris (2009) notes how many companies are beginning to realise that keeping and promoting talented women is the only way to tap into future generations of leaders that will guide organisations through uncertain in an ever changing marketplace.

Perceptual changes happen slowly (Paris and Decker 2012). As the stereotypes held by men are unlikely to change any time soon, it is important to change the focus of the debate. Instead of focusing on the perceived lack of suitability of women to managerial positions, the focus should
be on what women can offer to the managerial position. It is incumbent upon organisations to highlight the qualities and attributes women hold in the workplace and to utilise these talents. Gartzia and van Engen (2012) call attention to the importance of stereotypically feminine identity traits in organisations and point to the need to promote such traits to male leaders as a way of enforcing leadership effectiveness. The need to promote stereotypically feminine identity traits on the part of male leaders is important in practice since many organisations are male dominated fields where avoidance of stereotypically feminine characteristics is common (Eagly and Carli 2007; Koeing et al 2011; Powell 2012). A focus should be placed on transformational leadership within organisations, highlighting the communal and agentic characteristics necessary for same. Males need to be made aware of the benefits women can bring to the boardroom. It is also important to train men on how to adapt such feminine traits in an attempt to foster a more androgynous style of leadership. Male workers need to be made aware of the benefits of possessing both communal and agentic characteristics in the workplace. Research indicates that where male leaders display stereotypically feminine traits subordinates report greater levels of satisfaction (van Engen 2001) and promote more cooperation (Gartzia 2011). In addition, emphasis on selecting for managerial positions should be based on traits and experience as opposed to gender. Furthermore, emphasis should be placed on the selection of educated employees because education appears to reduce negative attitudes towards women as managers (Simmons et al 2012).

Organisations need to ensure both male and female employees have equal access to training developmental and mentoring opportunities. Organisations should pay careful consideration to the development of career structures which reflect flexible work practices and gender diversity in the workplace, taking into consideration obligations workers may have in both the workplace and at home. Implementing more flexible work practices and career structures will optimise career advancement for women within organisations. Davidson and Fielden (2003) note how the lack of family friendly work policies and FWAs make managerial positions less attractive for women with family responsibilities. The challenge associated with maintaining the dual roles as leaders and mothers is a relatively recent phenomenon affecting increasing numbers of organisations in the past twenty years. It is important that organisations recognise such challenges faced by employees and put appropriate measures in place to eliminate such problems.

Gender equality needs to be reflected in all aspects of organisational structures. Failure to adopt policies, that ensure fairness and equal access for both genders, may result in despondence on
the part of female workers, with women who aspire to leadership positions having to adopt male behaviours in order to succeed within organisations. Doing so will enhance and maintain the current view of leadership in organisations. Promoting a gender free view of requisite management characteristics, as found in the responses recorded by the female sample, may encourage young women’s entry into the field. As future managers, women, would be more likely to treat men and women equally in the selection and promotion process.

We as educators also have a responsibility. Over half the student population studied were from the business school. The ICC results recorded by business students were similar to those recorded in other disciplines. These results are worrisome, the stereotype held by male students, coupled with the predominance of male decision makers at upper echelons of Irish organisations may well continue to negatively affect women’s opportunities to advance into positions of power and influence in Irish organisations. Continued stereotyping of managerial positions by males can result in a view that women, despite their potential for androgynous leadership, are less qualified than men for managerial positions and in turn negatively impact on females’ opportunities for entry or advancement into the field of management. Our sample indicates that not enough is being done to combat gender discrimination in the managerial role. Business students have greater exposure to female class mates, faculty and developing theories on leadership and management. A greater emphasis on gender equality is required in the curriculum to ensure a more gender egalitarian view of management is created in the classroom, which in turn will hopefully filter into the workplace thereafter. Particularly within the area of management education, a greater emphasis should be placed on gender free view of management or an androgynous view of management. This could be done through introducing cases with females as the main actors, using examples of successful female managers in anecdotes (Berkery et al n.d.). Ignoring the issue of women in management reinforces the exclusion of women from this exclusive group, simply repeating historical management practice. A masculine bias in management education may discourage future managers from promoting gender equality in the workplace.

Further research is merited in this area. We would argue that societal change has been followed by changes in gender typing, albeit such changes are not reflected in ICC scores. The findings of this study emphasise an even greater need for continued research in the area of gender and management. To the extent that perceptions and attitudes towards women in general are changing, further research is needed to probe more deeply into the underlying causes of gender stereotypes among men across different cultures. Further research should be conducted at other
research sites internationally to determine whether or not the results of this study are atypical. Perhaps a more qualitative method would yield more insights into the phenomena. In addition, it is worth exploring further why gender role stereotypes are more pronounced among those who have experience of working with female managers. Again, qualitative research would greatly add to our understanding in this area.

**Conclusion**

Taking the results of SDI into consideration, at first glance, it may appear that women are perceived to lack the characteristics necessary for managerial positions. However, when further analysis is carried out, a different view of women is revealed. Given the changes in organisational structures and recent theoretical developments in the area of leadership and management, it would appear that women have a greater ability to display an androgynous style of leadership in the workplace. Instead of focusing on the misfit between women and requisite managerial characteristics, organisations need to focus on what female workers can bring to the boardroom table that can help the management of the organisation. Organisations need to shift the focus from traditional forms of leadership to a more collaborative style of leadership. An environment needs to be created and fostered in organisations where men and women can work side by side in management positions, each utilising their own talents and abilities. Emphasis should be placed on the characteristics necessary for successful management, focusing on the mixture of communal and agentic characteristics needed. Organisations need to look at how they can capitalise on the untapped talent pool available within organisations and look towards the selection of individuals based on managerial qualities and abilities as opposed to gender. Women have the mix of characteristics needed for an androgynous style of leadership, it is up to organisations to recognise this and capitalise on the talents available to them.

**References**


ARTICLE 4

On the Uptake of Flexible Working Arrangements and the Association with Human Resource and Organisational Performance Outcomes

CITATION

On the Uptake of Flexible Working Arrangements and the Association with Human Resource and Organisational Performance Outcomes
Berkery, Elaine; Morley, Michael; Tiernan, Siobhan; Purtill, Helen; Parry, Emma
European Management Review; 14 (2), pp. 165-183

Due to copyright restrictions the full text of this article is not available here but can be accessed at
http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/emre.12103
Chapter 4:
Contributions, Limitations and Conclusions
4.1 Introduction
This final chapter outlines and discusses the overall contributions of this thesis. In doing so, it first revisits the research aim and objectives guiding this research and clarifies how these have been addressed in the programme of work carried out. Secondly, it discusses the overall contributions of this thesis under three headings, theoretical, empirical and practical contributions, before discussing the overall contributions of this thesis within the context of the GOS perspective. Thirdly, it highlights the limitations to the study and outlines areas of further research to be considered. The final section details key learning outcomes and personal development stemming from the author’s PhD ‘journey’.

4.2 Research Objectives
The overall research aim guiding this thesis was to examine systematic issues relating to women in the workplace using the gender-organisation-systems perspective. To achieve this aim, the following four research objectives were identified;

1. **Research objective 1** To determine the impact of societal changes on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles in Ireland- This research objective is addressed in articles 1,2 and 3.

2. **Research objective 2**: To identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general and to determine the impact that these traits and attributes are having on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland- This research objective is addressed in articles 2 and 3.

3. **Research objective 3**: To map the trends in female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007- This research objective is addressed in article 1.

4. **Research objective 4**: To investigate the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and to determine the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability- This research objective is addressed in article 4.

4.3 Contributions from the Individual Articles
The contribution of each of the four journal articles will be discussed under each of the four research objectives.
Research objective 1: To determine the impact of societal changes on the perceived suitability of women to managerial and decision making roles in Ireland.

This research objective is addressed in articles 1, 2 and 3. Despite the progress recorded under research objective 2, the results recorded in this thesis provides support for the ‘think manager-think male’ paradigm among the male population in Ireland. The results recorded by the female population, however, are more encouraging insofar as the female student population in this sample do not gender type the managerial role.

Article 1 examines female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007. Overall, the results of this empirical investigation highlight, that although the level of female representation on the state boards included in this study, increased from 1.9% in 1970 to 35.4% in 2007, the application of the 40/60 gender balance initiative is applied as a ceiling rather than a minimum standard. These results indicate that in many cases females are overlooked for selection onto these boards by Government Ministers in favour of their male counterparts. Of particular note, among the findings in this study, is the concentration of women on particular boards, indicating a high level of occupational segregation. While the overall trends recorded indicate slow progress for female appointments onto state-sponsored boards during this time, considerable progress has been made in the areas of ‘Health’, ‘Cultural’ and ‘Non-Economic Regulatory’ state-sponsored bodies, which is in stark contrast to areas of key strategic economic importance such as ‘Developmental’ and ‘Commercial' state-sponsored bodies. These results indicate that males in decision making roles, in this instance Government Ministers, continue to see women as being more suited to making ‘softer’ decisions compared to the ‘harder’ decisions that are deemed more appropriate for male appointees, indicating the continued existence of perceived suitability to particular areas and roles based on gender.

On the outset, the results of article 2 appear more positive as nurses and midwives in general did not gender type the managerial role. However, upon further analysis, moderating for gender, the results indicate that gender of respondents did have an impact on the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, whereby male nurses and midwives gender type the managerial role in favour of men. Females on the other hand did not gender type the managerial role. Interestingly, after breaking the female sample down further, qualified nurses and midwives recorded a stronger degree of similarity between men and managers compared to between women and managers, indicating that they perceived men to be more like managers, compared to their student counterparts, who recorded a greater
similarity between women and managers. This would indicate that organisational factors may be influencing the perceptions held by those in the sector. Also, of particular note, comparing the results of this study to the results recorded by Boyce and Herd (2003), who used a male dominated military sample, both student and qualified female nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers compared to the military sample.

A similar pattern of results was recorded in article 3. Male students continue to gender type the managerial role, while female students hold a more gender egalitarian view of the managerial role. This study also tests Lord and Maher’s (1990) recognition based processes to determine whether familiarity with women in managerial positions decreases the ‘think manager-think male’ paradigm. However, the findings from this study were counter intuitive. Exposure to females in the managerial role did not reduce the level of stereotyping; in fact, it had the reverse effect. Respondents who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers compared to women and managers.

Overall, based on the findings from these three articles, despite the enormous societal changes Ireland has undergone in the past century, Irish men continue to gender type the managerial role in favour of men. While female students on the other hand hold a more gender egalitarian view of the managerial role, females working within the healthcare organisations saw a greater similarity between men and managers compared to between women and managers. Furthermore, the results from article 1 highlight the continued existence of occupational segregation by gender, as females were more likely to be appointed onto boards in specific areas.

**Research objective 2: To identify the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general and to determine the impact that these traits and attributes are having on the perceived suitability of women to the managerial role in Ireland.**

This research objective was addressed in articles 2 and 3. Based on the data recorded using SDI, article 3 identifies the top twenty rated items for men, women and managers (based on the 92 descriptive items in SDI), by both the male and female sample. Overall, among the top twenty rated items for women in general, fifteen of the same items were recorded by both the male and female sample, including a mixture of communal and agentic terms. However, and of more significance, is the fact that males recorded a slightly higher number of agentic attributes for women (curious, persistent, intelligent, ambitious, competent, strong need for achievement,
high need for power, competitive and independent) compared to their female counterparts (ambitious, curious, leadership ability, intelligent, independent, persistent, desires responsibility and consistent). In terms of the similarities recorded between women and managers, both the male and female sample recorded seven similarities between women and managers (the attributes and traits recorded by the male and female samples were different) with each of the attributes and traits in both samples being agentic in nature. Looking at the similarities from a broader perspective, across the top twenty items for men, women and managers, the similarities recorded by both the male and female sample were agentic in nature ($n=7$ and $n=5$ respectively). Overall, these results indicate that while men and managers in general continue to be perceived as agentic in nature, the view of women is changing to a more androgynous view, with women perceived to possess both communal and agentic attributes and traits.

Based on the data collected for article 2, the results indicate that within the female nursing and midwifery samples, a combination of communal and agentic terms were recorded in the top ten rated items for women by both undergraduate and qualified nurses and midwives, suggesting that the way in which women are viewed is beginning to change. Interestingly though, student nurses and midwives recorded a greater similarity between women and managers (competitive, ambitious, leadership ability, self-confident and independent) compared to their qualified counterparts (intuitive, understanding and competent). Within the student sample ‘independent’ and ‘leadership ability’ were common to men, women and managers in general in the top ten rated items, whereas there were no similarities recorded across all three conditions by qualified nurses and midwives in the top ten rated items. What is of most interest here is the nature of the terms recorded, except for understanding (recorded for both women and managers by the qualified nurses and midwives sample), all other similarities recorded were agentic in nature.

An agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted with the data in Article 3, to enable groups of related variables for men, women and managers (by gender of respondent) to be formed. In doing so, similarities within clusters and differences between cluster could be determined. The information drawn from these clusters allow conclusions to be drawn about the groups of traits and attributes assigned to men, women and managers. In both the case of the ratings for men and managers, by both male and female respondents, clusters primarily comprise of agentic items, whereas the lowest rated items for both men and managers were communal in nature, with no evidence of mixing agentic and communal items within clusters.
For the ratings of women, there was a greater level of variation across all clusters in terms of agentic and communal items. Both male and female respondents recorded a combination of agentic and communal items in each of the clusters examined, indicating that women in Ireland are viewed as androgynous in nature by students, as opposed to communal, the more traditional view of women.

**Research objective 3: To map the trends in female appointments onto the boards of state-sponsored bodies in Ireland between 1970-2007.**

This research objective was addressed in article 1. The findings from article 1 indicate that informal selection processes determining selection onto state boards (the practice in place during this research) place women in disadvantageous positions, and in many cases the results presented in this article point to the overlooking of women in favour of their male counterparts for selection. While this thesis did not investigate the reasons why women are overlooked in favour of their male counterparts, it could be argued that the current position held by women in Irish organisations is limiting their access to influential informal networks, such as the old boys’ club, and to people in influential decision making positions, which is potentially impacting on women’s visibility in the workplace and subsequent appointment onto state boards. In addition, the vast majority of Government Ministers in Ireland are male, which reduces the number of mentors and female role models women have access to in this arena, further restricting women’s access to people in influential decision making roles. Since the introduction of the 40/60 gender representation initiative in 1991, female representation across all categories has risen from 17.09% to 35.45%, although as previously noted, when this 40/60 gender balance initiative is applied, it appears to be used as a ceiling rather than as a minimum standard. It could therefore be argued that in many cases token females are appointed onto these boards. This is further evidenced by the number of females selected for the position of chairperson, with the first female chairperson appointed in 1985. Although the number of female chairpersons has increased since 1985, the overall proportion of female chairpersons grew to 25% in 2007. Again, the results indicate that female chairpersons are more popular on some boards than others. Interestingly, given the high level of female representation under the headings ‘Commercial’, ‘Cultural’ and ‘Health’, it could be expected these areas would record a higher number of female chairpersons. However, when the data on female chairpersons is broken down further, the data indicates that female chairpersons were in fact far more prominent on boards relating to ‘Health’, which would be expected, and ‘Developmental’ boards, despite the low level of female representation on these boards. Overall, the results of this study highlight
that despite the Government’s commitment to increasing female representation on state boards by enacting the 40/60 gender balance initiative, Government Ministers have failed in their duty to promote gender balance, with the number of male appointments outweighing the number of female appointments.

Furthermore, the results recorded in article 2 indicate that female nurses and midwives currently working within the sector regard men to be more similar to managers compared to their student counterparts. This would suggest that while societal changes in Ireland appear to be influencing female students’ perceptions of women’s suitability to the managerial role, the organisational context in which qualified nurses and midwives are working appears to be reinforcing the ‘think manager-think male’ paradigm within the Irish health sector, reinforcing an organisational culture that favours males.

Overall, the results of these investigations indicate that, yes, organisational contexts do have a negative impact on the perceived suitability and selection of women for managerial and decision making roles in Ireland.

*Research objective 4: To investigate the uptake of FWAs across 7 EU countries and to determine the relationship between FWAs and absenteeism, employee turnover, productivity and profitability.*

Finally, amidst the calls for the development of a stronger business case argument for the introduction of FWAs in the workplace, article 4 identifies 4 distinct bundles of FWAs, based on the individual uptake of 12 FWAs, and relates bundle membership to organisational demographic variables and organisational outcomes, with the formation of bundles signifying that organisations typically offer employee or employer oriented bundles. The results of the analysis also highlight that FWA bundles are not universally applied, highlighting the importance of context when interpreting and comparing the results of previous research. Overall, the results indicate that organisations offering more traditional working hours (as in the case of bundle 2) recorded higher levels of employee turnover and lower levels of productivity compared to the other three bundles, indicating that both employee and employer oriented bundles have the potential to reduce employee turnover and increase productivity. In addition, organisations in bundle 2 recorded a weaker association with absenteeism, counter to what was predicted, compared to the other three bundles. No significant difference was
recorded between the bundles and profitability. Overall, these results outline the significant gains than can be made by organisations through the availability of FWAs.

4.4 **Overall Contribution of this Thesis**

The next section considers the overall contributions of this thesis under three headings: theoretical, empirical and practical contributions.

4.4.1 **Theoretical Contributions**

The theoretical contribution of this thesis can be summarised as follows:

1. The use of the GOS perspective to frame this research reinforces the need to consider the interaction between gender, organisations and social factors when studying the progression of women in the workplace, highlighting the interconnectedness between the various elements of the framework. The interactions between the various elements of the GOS perspective are articulated in the four published/accepted for publication articles, as each article speaks to two or more elements of the framework, for example, article 1 considers societal and organisational factors. These interactions are also captured in the contributions of the four published/accepted for publication articles to each of the research objectives (each research objective addresses a specific element of the GOS framework) as articles 1, 2 and 3 contribute to 2 or more of the research objectives. These interconnections are fully illustrated in Figure 3.1. The collective contributions of this thesis, which are outlined hereafter, confirm that the various elements of the GOS perspective cannot be treated in isolation reaffirming the interdependencies between the elements of the GOS perspective.

2. Articles 2 and 3 contribute to the existing literature on gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics on a number of front. Firstly, since Schein’s initial studies (Schein 1973; 1975; 1976), SDI has been replicated on numerous occasions by Schein and other researchers, using samples of both male and female managers and male and female students across a range of disciplines, industries and countries. Articles 2 and 3 are the first studies to replicate SDI within an Irish context and within a female dominated profession, putting these results in the context of previous research and allowing for direct comparisons with previous studies to be made. Despite the societal changes that have occurred in Ireland since Schein’s initial studies, males continue to perceive men to hold requisite managerial characteristics; females on the other hand do not gender type the managerial role, with female students holding the most gender egalitarian view of the managerial role. These results suggest societal changes are having a greater impact on females’ perception of women’s possession of requisite managerial characteristics. In
terms of social role theory, these results highlight that men in Ireland do not perceive women to possess the attributes and traits necessary for the managerial role, a perception which can lead to gender segregation and occupational segregation in the workplace, owing to the perceived misfit between attributes and traits ascribed to women compared to the attributes and traits deemed necessary for the managerial role. Secondly, the findings from articles 2 and 3 are contradictory to the premise of Lord and Maher’s (1991) recognition based processes, which proposes that familiarity with women in management positions will decreases the ‘think manager- think male’ stereotype. In fact, these results indicate that exposure to female managers has the reverse effect; respondents who had experience of working with female managers recorded a stronger correlation between men and managers in both studies. Furthermore, despite female dominance within the nursing and midwifery profession, qualified nurses and midwives recorded a higher degree of similarity between men and managers compared to working with women and managers.

3. The findings from articles 2 and 3 also make a significant contribution to the literature on gender stereotypes. Drawing upon the results of Lueptow et al (2001) who indicate that there has been little indication of changes in the stereotypes of women, Koeing et al (2011) conclude that the most appropriate explanation for greater female-leader similarities is that leadership traits have changed. However, the results from this thesis present a new perspective on female-leader similarities. These results indicate a shift from the traditional communal orientation of women to a more androgynous view of women. These findings are significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, these results indicate that societal changes are having an impact on the overall traits and attributes ascribed to women. The communal attributes traditionally ascribed to women are reflective of the traditional caring and nurturing roles assumed by women in Irish society, where the natural role for women was in the home. The androgynous view recorded in this thesis is more reflective of the present day dual roles held by women. The communal attributes ascribed to women are reflective of their role as primary care giver in the home, while the agentic attributes are more reflective of women’s ambitions and progression in the workplace. Secondly, these results reinforce the high levels of agency traditionally ascribed to managers. Research to date notes how agentic characteristics are usually seen as essential for successful leadership (Duehr and Bono 2006; Eagly and Carli 2007; Weyer 2007). The attributes and traits ascribed to men in this thesis puts men in an advantageous position in terms of possessing the requisite attributes and traits for the managerial role. Finally, the pattern of results recorded reaffirm that women are more suited to transformational leadership than their male counterparts, owing to the mixture of communal attributes and traits ascribed to
women. Men on the other hand will find it more difficult to adapt a transformational leadership style given the high level of agency ascribed to them.

4. The findings from article 4 contribute to the literature on the formation of FWA bundles and the contexts in which FWA bundles are offered. Firstly, drawing distinction between employee driven and employer driven FWAs, this study identifies four distinct bundles of FWAs based on the patterns of usage of twelve individual FWAs. The overall structure of bundles across FWA variables identifies key FWA variables that distinguish the four bundles, meaning not all FWAs contribute equally to formation of the bundles. Secondly, the context in which FWAs are more or less conducive has been largely ignored in the literature (Stavrou 2005; Stavrou and Kilaniotis 2010) and as a result the homogeneity or heterogeneity of organisations offering various FWA is unknown. Addressing this gap in the literature, the results of article 4 confirm that size of the workforce, percentage of female employees, percentage of employees aged less than 15, industry sector, percentage of employees represented by trade unions, markets serves and country are all significant in determining bundle membership. Overall this analysis indicates that FWA bundles are not universally offered, signifying the importance of organisational demographics when researching FWAs. These findings signify that it is also important consider organisational contexts when interpreting the results of previous studies, as the context in which FWAs are implemented may go some way towards explaining the relationships between FWAs and outcome variables.

5. Article 4 also responds to calls in the literature (De Menezes and Kelliher 2011) to build a stronger business case for implementing FWAs. In terms of the relationships between FWAs and organisational outcomes, significant associations were recorded between bundle membership and employee turnover, absenteeism and productivity. In terms of employee turnover, the strongest association was recorded with bundle 2 where organisations offering more traditional working hours recorded significantly higher levels of employee turnover compared to organisations in the other three bundles. From an organisational performance viewpoint, organisations in bundle 4 (Bundle 4 represents organisations with a high uptake of flexi-time) recorded a significantly stronger association with above average productivity, while organisations in bundle 2 (more traditional working hours) recorded a significantly weaker association with above average productivity. Interestingly, a significantly weaker association was recorded between absenteeism and bundle 2 compared to the other three bundles. Overall therefore, as this study uses such a large number of organisations, with a large array of FWAs and contextual variables
simultaneously, it adds significantly the on-going debate related to the organisational benefits linked to the use of FWA bundles.

### 4.4.2 Empirical investigations

The empirical contribution from this thesis can be summarised as follows:

1. Article 1 is the first study to collate data on the appointment of females onto the board of state sponsored boards in Ireland over an extended period of time. While a number of sources have published data on female representation at particular points in time this data has not been captured on a yearly basis. By collating the data over a 37-year period trends in the appointments of females onto state boards can be identified. Furthermore, the manner in which the data is collated makes it possible to identify the areas in which women tend to be concentrated. This data also allows distinctions to be drawn between female representation of females on boards pre-and-post the introduction of the 40/60 gender quota which came into effect in 1991.

2. Both articles 2 and 3 present the first empirical findings using SDI among a female dominated profession and among an Irish sample, allowing for international and industry specific comparisons to be drawn. While the majority of studies using SDI focus specifically on ICC scores to determine the relationship between the different moderators and requisite managerial characteristics, these studies carry out further analysis in the form of factor analysis and cluster analysis, allowing for conclusions to be drawn on the nature of the traits and attributes ascribed to men, women and managers in general. In both articles 2 and 3 an examination of the specific descriptive items on which men or women are perceived similar or different to managers was carried out by performing a factorial analysis (Duncan’s Multiple Range Test). This allowed for an examination of the ratings of the 92 descriptive items and to compare the ratings of student nurses and midwives and qualified nurses and midwives in article 2 and the ratings of male students to ratings of female students in article 3. The results of the factor analysis were subsequently used to determine the nature of attributes and traits ascribed to men, women and managers in general. Finally, an agglomerative hierarchal cluster analysis was conducted for article 3 to further our understanding of the attributes and traits ascribed to men, women and managers and to determine associations between different items on SDI, allowing similarities within clusters and between clusters to be identified. This allowed for further conclusions to be drawn on the nature of attributes and traits ascribed to men, women and managers.

3. Finally, article 4 makes a number of important empirical contributions to the literature.

Firstly, from a methodological perspective, this study builds upon previous studies and
overcomes methodological problems presented in the literature. Haar and Spell (2004) note how much of the existing research in this area is based on studies involving large organisations in single countries (Mason 1991; Martinez 1993; Gordon and Whelan 1998; Cole 1999). The lack of studies looking across organisations and countries is most likely due to the lack of appropriate data sources comparable across different countries i.e. data covering the wide range of issues on working time flexibility collected at the organisational level. A unique feature of the CRANET dataset employed in article 4 is the use of a single methodology across all countries, yielding directly comparable data across countries. Secondly, the manner in which the data is collected allows distinctions to be drawn between the availability of FWAs and the uptake of FWAs. Each of the twelve individual FWAs are treated as categorical variables, and therefore distinctions can be made between organisations recording a high uptake of the FWA compared to organisations recording a low uptake of the FWA, responding to calls by Wheatley (2013) and Mills and Grotto (2017) to distinguish between usage and availability when studying FWAs. Thirdly, the analysis included in this study provides a more holistic view to the study of FWAs, the contexts in which they are offered and their associations with organisational outcomes. The use of a cluster analysis algorithm (1) generates a greater understanding of the formation and make-up of FWA bundles, (2) identifies the profile of organisations offering these bundles of FWAs, meaning we can determine whether or not these bundles of FWAs are universally adopted or, if indeed they are only adopted in particular organisational, industry and national contexts and (3) allows us to test the association between each FWA bundle and HR (employee turnover and absenteeism) and organisational performance (productivity and profitability) outcomes. In doing so, it provides both scholars and practitioners with a deeper understanding of the profile of organisations offering FWA bundles, the formation of FWA bundles and whether and how each of the FWAs bundle are associated with organisational outcomes.

4.4.3 Practical contributions
The findings from this thesis have a number of important implications for practice. Each of which are presented hereafter.
1. The overall aim of article 1 was to map trends in the appointment of females to the boards of state sponsored bodies over a 37-year period and to determine the effectiveness of the 40/60 gender balance initiative introduced in 1991. The overall results indicate that although the rate of female appointments to state boards has increased since 1970 it significantly lags behind the rate of appointments for men, with evidence of occupational segregation in terms
of the areas in which female appointments are concentrated. These results are a cause for concern for a number of reasons: firstly, Government Ministers appear to be using the 40/60 gender quota as a ceiling rather than a minimum standard when applied, as in a large number of instances Government ministers have failed in their duty to promote gender balance on these boards; secondly, the failure of Government ministers to enact policies set out by the Government signals a lack of commitment in the promotion of gender equality by Government ministers; and thirdly as state sponsored bodies are charged with key decisions in respect of national life, with women in Ireland equally affected by the decisions of state bodies, Government ministers are failing in their duty to ensure the interests of Irish women are fully represented due to the absence of women on these boards. Therefore, these results highlight the need for increased efforts by the Government to ensure the promotion of gender equality in the area of state sponsored boards.

2. The results of articles 2 and 3 indicate a shift from the traditional communal orientation of women to a more androgynous view of women by both male and female samples. This pattern of results is significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, these results indicate that societal changes are having an impact on the overall traits and attributes ascribed to women. The androgynous view of women recorded in this thesis is more reflective of dual roles held by women in Irish society. Secondly, the male student population included in this sample represent the future generation of workers. With the right organisational supports and structures in place, these attitudes towards women can be brought into the workplace, which in turn should create a more supportive environment for women aspiring to the managerial role. Thirdly, based on the societal changes in Ireland over the past 30 years, the increasing popularity of transformational leadership and the results recorded in this thesis, it is important that organisations look beyond the perceived misfit between women and requisite managerial characteristics and focus on what females can contribute at board level and to management in general.

3. As the results of article 4 reinforce a business case argument for the implementation of FWAs, organisations should be encouraged to look beyond the difficulties and cost of implementing such practices, and focus on the employee and employer benefits and gains that can be generated from the use of FWAs. Given the changing role of women in society and legislative changes to ensure equal opportunities in the workplace, along with changes to maternity, paternity and parental leave, organisations need to look at creative ways to draw from and capitalise on the talent pool available to them. In addition, FWAs should not be viewed solely as female oriented practices. Organisations need to address the ‘flexibility stigma’ associated with the use of FWAs and encourage the take up of FWAs among female
and male employees alike. Research has shown that men availing of FWAs and taking an active role in childcare has a positive impact on female career progression. Recent results published by Nagamootoo (2014) indicate, that among 773 UK working fathers, if men played an equal or main caregiver role in childcare, 47% of female partners had progressed their career since having children. On the other hand, if men played very little or a moderate role in childcare activities, only 26% of female partners had progressed their career. In this regard it is important for senior level managers to understand the benefits of implement FWAs and to actively promote the use of FWAs at all levels in the organisation.

4. The results of the absenteeism variable in article 4 are worrisome from an organisations perspective. Organisations offering more traditional working options recorded a lower level of absenteeism, compared to organisations offering FWA bundles. While FWAs do offer flexibility around the working time and day, the flexibility afforded may not be sufficient to deal with the demands of non-work responsibilities, for example, employees calling in sick to care for a sick child. Organisations may need to examine alternative options to reduce absenteeism levels, particularly if such absences are due to non-work commitments. Reducing instances of absenteeism will not only benefit the organisation, but should also benefit women who seek progression in the workplace, by creating an environment which allows employees to complete their work at a time and location that suits both their personal and professional needs.

5. Finally, the results of article 4 indicate that working time schedules, outside of the traditional working day, have a positive impact on productivity, as well as having the ability to reduce employee turnover. From the perspective of those with non-work responsibilities, these results indicate that employees, who have access to non-traditional work hours, are more productive and less likely to leave the organisation compared to those working more traditional working hours. From a working mothers’ perspective, allowing women the option of completing work outside of traditional work hours, may reduce the pressures caused by the double burden of work and home, alleviate childcare burdens, facilitate school and crèche drop-offs and collections, and therefore, allowing working mothers to be more productive with their time, in addition to creating greater levels of commitment to the workplace, in the form of reduced turnover intentions. By altering the working day, organisations may also afford female employees’ the opportunity to take on and complete workloads, which may not be achievable during the normal working day. In addition, if the use of FWAs becomes more widespread in organisations, with both male and female employees availing of the altered work schedules, female employees should become less
concerned about their “visibility” in the workplace, as their male counterparts would have similar patterns of on-site presence.

4.4.4 Summary of Contributions to the Study of Women in Management Using the GOS Perspective

The next section considers the overall contributions of the four published/accepted for publication articles within the context of the GOS framework. These contributions are first outlined in figure 4.1 and discussed thereafter.
Figure 4.1: Summary of the Empirical Contributions to the Study of Women in the Workplace using the GOS Perspective

**Social Context**
- The male samples perceive men to be more suited to the managerial role.
- The female samples did not gender type the managerial role, perceiving both men and women as suitable candidates for the managerial role.
- The student nurses and midwives sample perceived women to be more suited to the managerial role compared to their qualified counterparts.

**Personal Factors**
- Both males and managers continue to be perceived as agentic in nature.
- Both the student samples and the qualified nurses and midwives sample perceive women to be more androgynous in nature.
- Student nurses and midwives recorded a higher number of similarities across the top ten rated items for women and managers compared to their qualified counterparts.
- Across the top twenty rated items for women and managers, both male and female students in article 3 recorded 15 similarities, however, males recorded a slightly higher number of agentic terms compared to female students.

**Social, Personal and Organisational Context**
- Distinct bundles of FWAs were identified based on the patterns of usage of twelve individual, indicating that FWA bundles were either employee oriented or employer oriented, in addition to highlighting the importance of context, as FWAs are not universally applied.
- By altering traditional work hours, both employee and employer oriented FWA bundles recorded significantly lower levels of turnover and significantly higher levels of performance compared to organisations with traditional working hours.
- On the other hand, the availability of FWAs did not significantly reduce absenteeism rates.

**Organisational Context**
- Female appointments to state boards has increased since the 1970, as have the proportion of female chairperson appointments during this period.
- However, despite the introduction of the 40/60 gender balance in 1991 it is evident that women are often overlooked for decision making roles in favour of men.
- Occupational segregation based on gender is evident based by the concentration of women on particular boards.
- Organisational culture appears to be influencing qualified nurses and midwives’ perception of women’s suitability to the managerial role.
Taken as a whole, these findings highlight the interactions between the various elements of the GOS perspective, and their collective role in facilitating and impeding women’s progression in the workplace. Secondly, these results indicate that changes in Irish society are having an impact on the way in which women in Ireland are perceived. Although the male samples continue to gender type the managerial role in favour of men, an examination of the highest rated items ascribed to women indicated that, similar to the female samples, women are perceived to be androgynous in nature; a change which is most likely due to the dual role now assumed by women in Irish society. This change in perception is important as the both the male and female student samples represent the future working population in Ireland. However, Lueptow et al (2001) argue that University students are perceived to be more gender egalitarian as they are not influenced by corporate culture. As societal contexts have the potential to influence personal factors, such as the traits and attributes ascribed to women, so too do organisational contexts. In this regard, the pattern of results recorded under organisational contexts may be a cause for concern, particularly in terms of women’s perceived suitability to the managerial role. The results recorded in this thesis indicate that it is the organisational context which poses the greatest obstacles for women’s progression within the workplace.

While changes to the societal context appear to have influenced changes to personal factors, they appear to be having less of an influence on organisational contexts. Article 1 indicates that informal selection process, within the context of state sponsored bodies, are having a negative effect on the appointment of females onto the boards of state sponsored bodies. In addition, these results point to occupational segregation on state sponsored boards. The results from article 2 also suggest that organisational contexts are having an impact on the perception of women’s possession of requisite managerial characteristics as qualified nurses and midwives recorded a greater similarity between the ratings of men and managers compared to the ratings of women and managers. At present, O’Connor (2015) highlights that men’s relationships with other men are a key factor in creating and maintaining a culture of privilege and entitlement for men in the workplace. To change the current organisational contexts, changes need to filter through from senior level managers to organisational structures and systems, to promote gender equality, diversity and inclusion in the workplace. Finally, article 4 adds to the business case argument for implementing FWAs. From an employee viewpoint, the ‘stigma’ surrounding the use of FWAs may be acting as a deterrent towards the use of FWAs. One possible way of reducing this stigma is through the widespread promotion of FWAs to both male and female employees at all levels of the organisation. It is important the management look beyond the cost of implementing FWAs and look towards the benefits from both an employee and employer point of view. Offering flexibility around when and where work is completed offers employees
greater opportunities to balance the demands of work and home, reduce the interference of home on work (and vice versa) and may provide greater opportunities for women in the workplace, as evidenced by the results of Nagamootoo (2014).

The overall pattern of results recorded in this thesis (1) reinforce the importance of the interconnectedness of the different elements of GOS when examining women’s progression in the workplace and (2) that organisational contexts appear to be having the greatest impact on the progression on women in the workplace. Based on overall pattern of results recorded in this thesis, women can only hope that if societal and personal changes follow a similar pattern in the future, reflecting favourable changes to the perception of women, organisational contexts will also start to change. This in turn should have a favourable impact on the progression of women in the workplace.

4.5 Limitations and Future Research Avenues

There are a number of limitations that must be recognised in this overall research effort. Article 1 would have been strengthened by a series of interviews to capture the experiences and thoughts of those who are currently serving on these boards or from those who served on these boards in the past. By doing so, a narrative could be put around these figures. Further research is also merited in this area following the changes introduced to the selection process in 2011 and 2014.

In terms of the data collected using SDI, each analysis required the sample to be split into three (by target condition, that is men, women and managers in general), then split by gender followed by a split based on moderator (for example, previous work experience, college of study). This limited the amount of statistical analysis that could be carried out. In a number of instances the sample size was inadequate, following the split in the sample, to generate confidence in patterns, for example, males from the nursing and midwifery profession and as a result secondary analyses are reported for female participants only. Future studies could benefit from a larger sample size which would allow for further analysis.

Given the results recorded by the qualified nurses and midwives sample, it would be beneficial to conduct a series of interviews or case studies to determine, why, when working within the sector, female nurses and midwives perceive a greater degree of similarity between men and managers compared to between women and managers.
Finally, data used in article 4 was completed by a single respondent; the use of multiple informants was not practical given the size of the survey research conducted, so this was a necessary trade-off in the study. In addition, although it would have been ideal to combine the information obtained from the CRANET survey with more objective measures, as recommended by Wall et al (2004), no international dataset at organisational level currently allows this (Rizov and Croucher 2009). Even if objective measures were available at organisational level they may not have been aggregated in a manner compatible with the level of analysis or ensure comparability across organisations. Further studies could be improved by inputs from multiple sources, such as employees or managers other than those responsible for HRM.

4.6 Personal Learning and Development

While the PhD by monograph remains the most popular path to a doctorate, one granted based on published works is becoming increasingly popular internationally. Although this route is a relatively new approach at the University of Limerick, the Kemmy Business School has been a supporter of this approach and has a proven track record with a number of graduates to date. At the time of registration for the PhD programme I was a contract member of faculty in the Department of Management and Marketing, therefore the PhD by article was a logical route to follow, as in order progress in my career, both the PhD award and a proven track record in publishing are necessary.

As with all processes, there are both advantages and disadvantages associated with the PhD by article route. In terms of advantages, this PhD by article has allowed me to:

- take one overall theoretical perspective and apply it to a number of smaller projects simultaneously;
- develop my academic writing skills;
- understand the publication process by working closely with accomplished academics and learn from their past experiences;
- learn how to interpret feedback and comments from reviewers, by drawing on the positives and not viewing the negatives as criticisms of the work, but as a catalyst for improving the overall quality of the manuscript;
- learn how to respond to conflicting views from reviewers, and have the confidence in my work to justify and stand over the submitted articles and decisions made throughout the review process;
• engage in academic debate, for example, see Appendix C which provides a response to a commentary written in relation to article 2;
• develop a proven track record in publishing in internationally recognised journals.

In terms of disadvantages, in my mind there is only one drawback to completing a PhD by article; lack of control over timeframes. The PhD by article does not follow the same chronological timeframe as that of a PhD by monograph, that is, literature review, methodology, fieldwork phase and writing up of results and conclusions in a reasonably sequentially manner, all of which can have timeframes, drawn up in consultation between the PhD candidate and their supervisor(s). From my experience, the PhD by article is driven by the review process. While the PhD candidate and his/her supervisor can set timelines in terms of initial submission dates to journals, the timeline over the review process is out of their control, and therefore it is more difficult to put overall timelines in place. In some instances, the experience of the review process was very positive and the submissions were dealt with in a very timely manner, however, this unfortunately was not the case in all instances. Of course, these experiences are true of all publications efforts, and, had the PhD been completed by monograph, the experiences would have been similar post PhD completion. Even though the route to completion of the PhD was possibly longer than it would have been had I completed a traditional monograph, for me the end result justifies the means. Throughout this journey I have gained invaluable experience of the publication process and developed the expertise needed to successfully publish articles in internationally recognised journals.

In relation to learning and development throughout the PhD process, I have gained a number of competencies and skills along the way:

**Conceptually:** To frame the four published/accepted for publication articles used in this thesis careful consideration was given at the start of the process to identify an underpinning theoretical perspective for the overall research project. Once the perspective was chosen the process of identifying the aim of the thesis and research objectives of the thesis were drawn up. To do so, the conceptual framework had to be considered within the context of the Irish labour market, identifying gaps in the current literature both at a national and international level.

**Data collection:** This thesis uses both primary and secondary data sources at both a national and international level. Articles 1 uses data from state-sponsored bodies’ annual reports and article 4 use data collected by the CRANET network, while articles 2 and 3 required data to be collected. Data used in articles 1,2 and 3 were all collected within an
Irish context, while data used in article 4 were collected across 7 EU countries. Also, the size and scope of the data sets range from a mixture of longitudinal data from 50 state-sponsored bodies in Ireland to cross-sectional data from 1,064 private sector organisations across 7 EU countries, as well as data from a total of 1,236 Irish students and 171 qualified nurses and midwives in Ireland.

**Data analysis:** Prior to undertaking this PhD I had very little experience of data analysis so every stage of the process was a learning experience for me. Data in article 1 were analysed using Excel, as I had prior knowledge of Excel, the process was relatively straightforward and little learning was required. Data in articles 2, 3 and 4 were analysed using SPSS, a package which I had very limited knowledge of prior to this thesis. My expertise in the area were developed up through attending statistical courses and workshops run through the Statistical Consulting Unit (SCU) in the University, through one to one meeting with members of the SCU and through developing a close working relationship with Dr Helen Purtill in the Department of Mathematics and Statistics in the University of Limerick.

**Publishing:** This overall process has resulted in the acquisition of a set of core skills and competencies necessary to publish high quality articles. These skills and competencies were developed by working closely with my supervisors, engaging with and responding to reviewer comments and developing responses to editors and reviewers’ comments, understanding the importance of clarity and point-by-point responses.

Overall, by completing this PhD by article, I have not only developed the skills and competencies necessary to complete a thesis, I have also developed the skills and competencies necessary for academic publishing. These skills and competencies will be brought with me and built upon in future publication endeavours.

### 4.7 Conclusion

This chapter first revisited the aim and objectives of the present thesis, before outlining the overall contribution of the thesis, the limitations of the study and future avenues of research. The second part of this chapter documents my own personal PhD journey, highlighting the overall learning and development throughout the PhD process.


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Appendices
Appendix A: Evidence of Publication/Accepted for Publication

Article 1

*Administration, vol. 60, no. 2 (2012), pp. 63-85*

**Female participation trends in the Irish labour force: The case of the state-sponsored bodies in Ireland, 1970–2007**

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Abstract

Against the backdrop of unprecedented economic growth in Ireland in the 1990s and early 2000s, this paper maps the trends in female participation rates on Irish state-sponsored boards from 1970 to 2007. The state-sponsored sector was chosen as it incorporates companies, agencies and organisations in Ireland that are charged with making decisions in relation to the Irish economy that have an impact on both men and women, making the role of the decision-makers fundamental. The lack of females in such decision-making roles has been a major issue regarding state boards in Ireland over the years. The National Women’s Council of Ireland put forward the idea of a 40 per cent gender-balance policy to the Second Commission on the Status of Women in 1990, and 40 per cent gender balance in appointments of government nominees to state boards came into effect in 1991. This analysis reveals that although the level of female representation on state boards has risen since the start of the 1990s, it would appear that it is applied very often as a ceiling rather than as a minimum standard.

**Keywords:** State-sponsored boards, gender balance, women in management, decision-making
Article 2

The relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: the case of nursing and midwifery professionals

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The relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: the case of nursing and midwifery professionals

Background: Studies have been carried out to determine gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics across a number of industries and among student samples. No study has been carried out within the nursing and midwifery profession.

Method: In order to allow for direct comparisons with previous research, Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) was used. A total of 230 undergraduate and 171 postgraduate responses were collected.

Results: Female nurses and midwives did not gender type the managerial role, whereas males gender typed the managerial role in favour of men. Student nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between women and management than their qualified counterparts.

Implications for nursing management: Males gender typed the managerial role in favour of men. With an increase in numbers of men joining the profession and increased representation of males at the Clinical Nurse Manager (CNM) level there is a possibility that the profession will become two-storied. Health care organisations should pay careful consideration to career development and implement career structures which ensure equal access to managerial roles for both genders.

Keywords: Career development, gender role stereotypes, nurse managers, requisite managerial characteristics

Accepted for publication: 15 June 2012

Introduction
Management and the managerial role have traditionally been dominated by men; however, in recent years there has been an increase in the number of female managers worldwide. The nursing and midwifery profession is one sector where the number of females and female managers throughout their male counterparts. Nonetheless, the numbers of men entering into the profession has increased steadily in recent years. This has also resulted in an increased number of men in managerial roles within the profession. In Ireland,
Beyond gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics

From communal to androgynous, the changing views of women

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Abstract

Purpose – The aim of this study is twofold: to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics, and to extend and modify theoretical perspectives on leadership to account for the changing views of women.

Methodology/approach – The research instrument was an extended management version of the Leadership Style Questionnaire (LSQ) developed by Pinder (1978). The questionnaire was pre-tested and modified to ensure face validity. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 1,232 managers.

Findings – The results of the analysis suggest that managers’ perceptions of gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics are related to their overall leadership style.

Practical implications – The findings have important implications for the design of training programmes for managers. The results also suggest that managers may benefit from training programmes that focus on developing a leadership style that is both gender role-neutral and requisite managerial characteristics.

Keywords: Gender stereotypes, Leadership, Managerial characteristics, Androgyny, Communal, Agentic

Paper type: Research paper

Introduction

Research on women in management has been dominated by efforts to explain why women continue to experience difficulties in attaining senior management positions (Ely and Paraluck, 2007). Alimo-Metcalfe (2010) cites numerous reasons why the experiences of women in management including cultural societal, legal, educational and organisational factors (Bandura and Burke, 1994; Greenberg and Marshals, 1993). One recurring theme in the literature suggests that gender stereotypes are one of the main barriers faced by women in the workplace. The changing view of women in the workplace is characterized by increased participation in the workforce and a greater desire for advancement in the workplace. Recent studies suggest that these changes have led to a more egalitarian workplace environment. However, these changes have not been without challenges. Women managers continue to face discrimination and gender bias in the workplace. The challenges faced by women managers are complex and multifaceted. They include issues related to gender role stereotypes, requisite managerial characteristics, and leadership style. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics and their impact on leadership style.
Article 4

On the Uptake of Flexible Working Arrangements and the Association with Human Resource and Organizational Performance Outcomes

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The aim of this study was to identify bundles of flexible working arrangements (FWAs) from data provided by 1,184 organisations in EU countries, and to relate bundle membership to demographic variables and human resource (HR) and organisational performance outcomes. Using Ward's hierarchical clustering algorithm, we identified four distinct bundles of FWAs based on the uptake of 12 individual FWAs across the sample of organisations. Bundle 1 represents organisations engaging in a high level of manual hours contracts; bundle 2 represents more traditional work practices; bundle 3 represents organisations mainly offering shift work and bundle 4 represents organisations with a high uptake of part-time. The demographic profile of organisations varied across each of the four bundles, with significance found between the bundle membership and employee turnover (p < 0.001), absenteeism (p < 0.001) and productivity (p < 0.001). The implications of these results are discussed and directions for future research are proposed.

Keywords: performance, HRM, employment contract, productivity, flexible work arrangements, absenteeism, employee turnover, CRANET

Introduction

Growing interest in the use of flexible work arrangements (FWAs) among scholars over the past 20 years (Kalleberg, 2003; Haar and Spill, 2004; Stavrou, 2005; Behlin-Olms and Roca-Pujol, 2013; Stavrou et al., 2015) reflects the increasing use and importance of flexibility in the workplace. Studies in data have focused on employee and employer related reasons for using different forms of FWAs, as well as the effects of different FWAs on various outcome measures such as attendance, job satisfaction, burnout, employee retention and absences, as well as in addition to a range of organisational performance measures (Galanis and Mesch, 1990; Kendal and Margel, 2000; Perry-Smith and Blinn, 2000; Valverde et al., 2000; Stavrou, 2005). Up until 2005 empirical studies examining FWAs focused on individual FWAs, however, since then there has been growing efforts to examine the use of multiple FWAs at once (Stavrou, 2005; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Stavrou et al., 2010; Kersting and Stavrou, 2013). Despite these research efforts, the relationship between FWA bundles and organisational outcomes remains under-researched. Further research has been limited in the number of studies. Furthermore, little is known about the exact formation and make-up of FWA bundles. By exploring the formation of FWA bundles we may be able to identify the extent and context specific bundle membership underlying (Rosen, 1997; Solomou, 1999; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Stavrou et al., 2010). As a result
Appendix B: Scholar's Publications

Journal Articles


**Other Peer- Reviewed Articles**


**Articles in Progress**

Berkery, E., Tiernan, S., Morley, M., and Purtill, H. ‘The impact of flexi-time on HR outcomes and organisational performance across seven EU countries’
Appendix C: The Relationship Between Gender Role Stereotypes and Requisite Managerial Characteristics: The Case of Nursing and Midwifery Professionals: A Response to Lalor

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We welcome the interest shown in our paper ‘The relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: The case of nursing and midwifery professionals’ (Berkery et al. 2014) and take this opportunity to address some issues raised by Lalor (2016) in her commentary on our work. By way of brief background, the overall aim of our original paper was to examine the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics within the nursing and midwifery professions in Ireland. To allow for direct comparisons with previous research Schein’s Descriptive Index (SDI) was used in our study. A total of 602 surveys were administered, of which 425 (70.5%) were returned, and 410 (68.1% of total) were useable. Overall, 239 undergraduate responses (254 were administered) and 171 post experience responses (348 were administered) were collected. Surveys were eliminated if the gender of the respondent was not reported if the survey was incomplete or non-variability was demonstrated in item ratings. Of the 410 completed surveys, 53 (12.9%) were men, and 357 (87.1%) were female. Before our study, SDI had been used to assess gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics across some different sectors, student cohorts and within male-dominated professions. Our study was the first of its kind to focus on a female-dominated profession. Overall, the findings of our study indicated that female nurses and midwives did not gender type the managerial role, whereas their male counterparts gender typed the managerial role in favour of men. To test the impact of further moderators, the analysis was conducted to determine the significance of ‘level of study’, ‘employment status’, ‘level of employment’ and ‘gender of supervisor’ on these relationships. Because the male sample size was inadequate to generate confidence in patterns, secondary analyses were carried out on responses for female participants only [e.g. ‘gender of supervisor’ identified only a small group of males with male supervisors (n = 4)]. While differences were recorded between the ratings of men and managers compared to the ratings among women and managers by both the student and qualified nurses and midwives’ samples, none of these differences were statistically different. However, it is interesting to note those employed as nurses and midwives at the time recorded a greater degree of similarity between men and managers compared to between
women and managers, indicating that they perceived men to be more like managers in terms of the traits and attributes they hold compared to women. Overall, our study concluded that the gender of the respondent was the only variable to moderate the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics.

The commentary by Lalor (2016) on our paper poses some questions in relation to the appropriateness of the sample used, the breakdown of our sample and the moderators used in our data analysis, each of which we wish to address in this reply. In short, Lalor (2016) argues that: (i) there is not adequate justification for including nurses and midwives in the same sample; (ii) that there is a possibility that the data are likely to be skewed by the responses from those working within the mental health division; and (3) that there is need for clarification on the meaning of two moderators used, namely ‘level of employment’ and ‘gender of supervisor’ within the context of the undergraduate cohort of respondents. To begin, Lalor (2016, p. 271) states that her ‘primary concern relates to the assumptions underlying the justification for including nurses and midwives in the same sample’. In her opening comments, Lalor (2016, p. 271) notes that the issue of gender role stereotyping ‘... is particularly relevant to the professions of nursing and midwifery as the number of females entering both professions exceeds their male equivalents’. In this, of course, we are ad idem. Indeed, as we pointed out in our original paper, it was this very female dominance within these professions that prompted us to examine gender role stereotypes among nursing and midwifery professionals in the first instance. Despite continued research interest and efforts in this area since the 1970s using SDI (the research tool used in this study), we pointed to a lacuna in our knowledge on gender role stereotypes among a female-dominated profession. Consequently, the impetus for our study was to address this gap in the literature and compare the results recorded for a female-dominated profession with the results of previous studies. While we acknowledge that differences do exist between the nursing and midwifery professions, both areas are predominantly staffed by females, and even although the ratio of males–females varies across the different divisions, the number of females employed far outweighs the number of males employed. Of note, during the review process, we were requested to outline our justification for including both nurses and midwives in the same sample. We responded as follows ... ‘both groups undergo the same formal training with a number of shared modules across nursing and midwifery programmes; prior to 2006, midwives had to qualify as general nurses before specialising in midwifery; both groups are registered with the professional 3 state regulatory board (An Bord Altranais 2011) before they can practise; and both groups have the same management structure i.e. CNM (Clinical Nurse
Manager) I, CNM 2 and CNM 3 and both areas have experienced increases in male entrants in recent years (An Bord Altranais 2011)’ (Berkery et al. 2014, p. 708). However, Lalor (2016, p. 271) raises the concern that the authors do not present any evidence to support their claims that ‘both groups undergo the same formal training with some shared modules across nursing and midwifery programmes’. While we do not speak for all undergraduate nursing and midwifery programmes in Ireland, in terms of the undergraduate sample included in our research, each of the individual programmes consists of five taught modules and one clinical placement in both semesters of the first 3 years of study. Each semester, all nursing and midwifery students jointly study three of the five taught modules. Thus, for example during Semester 1, Year 1, the following subject areas are shared across the programmes: Chemistry, Biochemistry and Physics; Psychology; and Anatomy and Physiology, highlighting the crossover and similarities between the programmes in terms of academic content. Furthermore, each student is required to complete 45 weeks of un-rostered clinical (supernumerary) placement and a 36-week internship.

Second, Lalor (2016, p. 271) highlights the critical importance of understanding ‘where the male respondents are located in terms of nursing and midwifery courses/practice’ and provides an analysis of the male–female ratios across the divisions of the register using the Nursing and Midwifery Board of Ireland (NMBI). Of note here, we too conducted and included a similar analysis of male–female ratios across the divisions of the register using data from An Bord Altranais in our original submission. However, feedback from the anonymous reviewers suggested we remove this information from our paper on the basis that ... ‘information about the number of nurses and midwives in Ireland is not necessary’. Therefore, as a result of the review process this information was not included for publication in the final paper, but importantly, in light of the issue raised, it was conducted and included in our original submission. In addition, Lalor (2016, p. 272) requests ‘a breakdown of the gender of the participants by the division of the register in which they were studying or working when surveyed’ stating that ‘the ratio of males–females in the mental health setting may have relevance to the interpretation of the findings’ and further adding that ‘... data are likely to be skewed by the responses from those studying and working within mental health’. The sample included in this study is a cross-sectional sample of student and qualified nurses and midwives in Ireland. As the focus of the study was to examine the professions as a whole we did not include a breakdown of the sample by the division of work or study in the original paper. We
take the opportunity to do so here to address the points raised by Professor Lalor. Table 1 provides breakdown of the sample included in the study by gender and division.

Table 1: Breakdown of Sample by Division

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing responses</th>
<th>General Nursing</th>
<th>Intellectual Disability Nursing</th>
<th>Mental Health Nursing</th>
<th>Midwifery</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Undergraduate Nurses and Midwives</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualified Nurses and Midwives</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of both student and qualified nurses and midwives, across both genders, the largest represented division is that of general nursing and the domain area with the least representation was, in fact, mental health. A total of 38 responses were recorded for mental health comprising 37 from the student sample and 1 from the qualified sample. As a result, we can with some confidence suggest that the data employed in our analysis are not likely to be skewed by responses from the mental health division. Additionally, Lalor (2016, p. 272) indicates ‘Students rotate across practice areas during the course and are supervised in practice by the relevant registered staff member in the practice area. Once again, the ratio of males–females in the mental health setting may have relevance to the interpretation of the findings’. Although students rotate across the different divisions of nursing and midwifery during their un-rostered clinical placements, based on the requirements of EU Council Directive 2013/55/EC, the clinical practice component of these programmes consist of a minimum of 2-weeks experience within the mental health division. Therefore, unless students are specialising in mental health, their overall experience within the area accounts for a very small proportion of their overall 81-week placement (45 weeks of supernumerary un-rostered clinical placement and 36 weeks of clinical internship placement) (NMBI 2016a,b). Furthermore, Table 5 in our published article (Berkery et al. 2014, p. 714) highlights that student nurses and midwives recorded a stronger correlation between women and managers compared to men and managers indicating that student nurses and midwives in Ireland perceived women to hold more attributes and traits in common with managers compared to men, further demonstrating that our data are not likely to be skewed by the ratio of males–females in the mental health division.
With respect to the moderators used in our analysis, Lalor (2016, p. 272) seeks clarity on the meaning of the terms ‘level of employment’ and the ‘gender of supervisor’ as applied to our undergraduate sample. We are pleased to explain. Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they were currently employed. Where respondents answered no, they were asked if they had been previously employed. In the case of respondents with current or previous work experience, they were asked to indicate the gender of their supervisor. In terms of employment status, Lalor highlights that students in Ireland are only employees for the final 36 weeks of their programme. While this is, of course, the case, the undergraduate sample included in our study consisted of both students coming directly from second level education and mature students (students aged 23 years or older by the 1st January in the year in which they commence their study) with the result that some students in the student sample had previous work experience. It is important to recognise that gender role stereotypes are shaped by societal and cultural influences, as well as an individual’s own experiences, both from their own personal lives and based on their current/previous work experiences. By determining whether or not students had previous work experience and the gender of their supervisor we could (i) compare the results of those who had no work experience, i.e. respondents whose perceptions were influenced only by a combination of social and cultural factors along with their own personal life experiences, to those who had work experience and whose perceptions were therefore influenced by societal and cultural factors as well individual experiences from both their personal life and their current/previous work experiences and (ii) compare the results of those who had experience of working with male managers to those who had experience of working with female managers. As Lalor (2016, p. 272) states ‘Given the greater number and visibility of male leaders in the public eye, it is reasonable to suggest that the leadership role has been socialised to imbue characteristics considered more masculine than feminine’. While there is substantial evidence within the literature to support this view, there is an established line of enquiry which indicates that employees’ gender role stereotypes about female managers dissipate after individuals have worked with female managers (Bowman et al. 1965, Baron 1984, Heilman et al. 1989, Powell 1990, Karau and Eagly 1999, Boyce and Herd 2003) and that followers tend to identify with their superiors (Bass and Stogdill 1990, Powell 1990, Vaughan and Hogg 2005). The result is that the very experience of working with a particular gender of the supervisor may shape opinions of the managerial role and thus where it can be captured, it is important to so do. Interestingly the results of our study showed that in the case of female-qualified nurses and midwives, irrespective of the gender of the supervisor, a stronger correlation was recorded between men and managers compared to women and managers. In the
case of female undergraduate nurses and midwives, those who had experience of working with male managers recorded a higher correlation between women and managers, whereas those who had experience of working with female managers recorded a higher correlation between men and managers. Finally, in terms of the moderator ‘level of employment’, called attention to by Lalor, respondents were asked to identify whether their current/previous work position was at a management or non-management level. Of importance in the context of the clarification sought by Professor Lalor, analysis on this front was only carried out on the qualified nurses and midwives sample, something which is specified and reported in our original paper (please see Table 5, Berkery et al. 2014, p. 714). Once again, we welcome the interest in our work and are pleased to respond to the comments raised by Lalor (2016). In so doing, we have provided evidence to substantiate our research design and reiterated the manner in which our analysis proceeded, along with the plausibility of the conclusions drawn. Finally, and most importantly in the context of our very motivation for the research in the first instance, we would encourage additional investigations focused on the relationship between gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics in female dominated professions.

References


NMBI. (2016b) *Nurse Registration Programmes Standards and Requirements* (4th ed.). Dublin: Nursing and Midwifery Board of Ireland.

