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APPROVAL CERTIFICATE
MYTH AND REALITY IN SEX-ROLE
DISCRIMINATION

BY
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Under the Supervision
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A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Department of Psychology
University of Peshawar
in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the

DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN PSYCHOLOGY

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Dedicated to
MY TEACHERS
for they are my jewels
MY FATHER
for the uncompromising principles that guided his life
MY MOTHER
for leading her children into intellectual pursuits
MY HUSBAND
for his magnificent devotion to his family
MY CHILDREN
for making everything worthwhile

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APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the present research entitled "Myth and reality in sex-role discrimination" has been completed by Ms. Asad Bano under the supervision of the undersigned, towards partial fulfillment of the degree of Ph.D in Psychology from Peshawar University.

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25/1/18

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Fig 9

Mean scores of male and female administrators on Democratic orientation factor of Purdue Rating Scale, evaluated by male and female subordinates.

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ABSTRACT

The present study examined the gender differences between personality characteristics of male and female executives through California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987) and an indigenous Work Management Scale. The sample consisted of 70 executives (35 male and 35 female) randomly selected from various districts of N.W.F.P. It was found that male executives are significantly better than female executives in their *interpersonal relationships, intellectual stance* and *achievement ability*, whereas female executives have scored higher than male executives on the scales measuring *intrapersonal controls, value styles, beliefs* and *conceptual interests*. The differences between personality traits of executives who have joined the profession of their parents and those who have entered into the profession other than their parents was also studied. The findings revealed that the executives who have adopted the profession of their parents scored higher on the scales measuring *Dominance, Sociability, Responsibility, Socialization, Self-Control, and Good Impression*. Along with these scales the female executives also showed significantly better performance than the other group of female executives on *Social Presence, Self-Acceptance* and *Achievement via Conformance* scales. On the other hand, the male executives who have joined the profession other than that of their wards performed significantly better on the *Achievement via Conformance, Psychological Mindedness* and *Social Presence* scales of the instrument.

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Female executives of this group performed better than female executives of other group on *Achievement via Independence, Intellectual Efficiency, Psychological Mindedness, Flexibility* and *Femininity* scales. Female executives scored higher than male executives on the Work Management Scale.

Job performance of these executives were also evaluated by their subordinates through Purdue Rating Scale (Remmers and Hobson, 1951). The sample consisted of randomly selected 430 subordinates. The investigation revealed insignificant differences among both gender of the executives when they were evaluated by their same sex subordinates, except on *Social responsibility* scale where female executives are rated higher than male executives by their subordinates. It was also noticed that even the varied educational qualification of the executives rendered no difference in their ratings. By contrast, significant differences are revealed when the evaluations were made by raters of gender other than that of their bosses. Female executives are rated low by their male subordinates on all the three scales of Purdue Rating Scale, which are *Social responsibility, Administrative achievement* and *Democratic orientation* than their female colleagues. Whereas male executives are rated higher by their female subordinates on all the three scales of the rating scale than their male colleagues. It is concluded from the research study that societal norms and traditions effect the personality traits of the executives and also create evaluative biases.


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HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

The history of the subject is a long one, and it is not possible to do justice to it in a few pages. The subject has been treated in many different ways, and it is not possible to do justice to it in a few pages. The subject has been treated in many different ways, and it is not possible to do justice to it in a few pages.

CHAPTER I

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HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

Gender identity is a basic sense or self awareness of one's maleness or femaleness. Gender identity development begins during early childhood (Money, 1972; Paludi & Gullo, 1986). Once gender identity becomes established, it remains quite invulnerable to change. (Bem, 1981; Spence, 1985).

Gender identity is related to the concept of gender roles. Gender roles are attitudes and expectations about how a person should feel, think or act solely on the basis of whether that person is male or female. Gender identity then becomes a matter of acquiring one's gender role.

One's sex is determined biologically whereas gender is socially and culturally determined through a complex interaction of learning experiences. In discussing the relative influence of nature and nurture on sex differences, one must distinguish between two concepts, gender identity and gender role. Gender identity refers to individual's knowledge of their gender as one of their personal traits. Gender role refers to society's expectations of how females and males should behave. Anthropological evidence indicates that these expectations vary considerably from culture to culture. In her classic studies of three South Pacific societies, Margaret Mead (1935) described some of this variability. In one group, the Arapesh, both males and females had what

we in this society would consider typical feminine traits; both sexes were nurturant and unaggressive. Among the Mundugumor people, by contrast, she found that both male and females were hostile and aggressive, traits we tend to think of as masculine. Among the Tchambuli tribe there was reversal of gender roles; women were aggressive whereas men were nurturant. The plasticity of gender roles, however, does seem to have some limitations. In the vast majority of societies, males have instrumental roles and females have expressive roles (Munroe and Munroe, 1975). That is, men carry out the tasks to ensure that the society runs smoothly; women are concerned with interpersonal relationships and are responsible for binding the family together.

Gender identity formation begins very early. Research also demonstrates that parents usually dress their children in a way that readily identifies the child's sex. Distinctions are made in clothing, toys and even the colors. As children grow older, pressures for role differentiation escalate. Boys are encouraged to be active and aggressive and to take responsibility. Girls, being considered more "fragile", despite the physiological evidence contradicting the stereotype, are trained to be dependent and helpful to others. In general, child-rearing practices are directed at preparing boys for the role of protector and provider and girls for that of wife, mother, and homemaker.

Many sources of influence besides parents contribute to sex typing. Peers are especially influential. Children as young as three

years of age have been found to reinforce one another's gender appropriate behavior and to punish inappropriate behavior (Lamb et al, 1980). Our tendency to divide the world into masculine and feminine categories is not limited to person perception; toys, clothing, or playmates often are chosen on the basis of understanding of what is acceptable for children as boys or girls. Most four year olds believe that doctor, police officer and construction worker are male jobs, and that secretary, teacher and librarian are female jobs (Gettys & Cann, 1981).

This process of gender typing continues in adulthood. The lives of adults are structured by their various roles as family members and workers. Many important social roles are defined differently for the two sexes. Within the family, people often have quite different expectations for mothers and fathers, for husbands and wives, for sons and daughters. In the world of work, occupational roles are often sex-typed. Women's work roles are often lower in social status, prestige and power than those of men: he is the "boss" and she's the "secretary". He's the "scientist" and she's "kindergarten" or "primary school teacher"; he's the surgeon and she's the nurse; he's the business "tycoons" and she's the "librarian".

Related to gender roles are gender stereotyping which are oversimplified but strongly held ideas about the characteristics of males and females (Basow, 1986). Sex-role stereotyping is not a new phenomenon. The origin of sex-role stereotypes goes back at least as far

as the Greek and Roman civilizations (Schaffer, 1981). In early Greece, women were regarded as inferior and excluded from social and political life. They were burdens to be tolerated for their reproductive capacities. Although the lot of women in ancient Rome was better in that they were educated and allowed to own property, they were often blamed for causing misery and suffering and regarded as basically unworthy for men's love. Women were considered as property to be owned first by their fathers and then by their husbands. Then there was an era in which women were seen as evil and source of temptation for men. Their intellectual, spiritual, and moral inferiority to men was accepted. Later in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, thousands of women were burned as witches in the name of God. Throughout the Judeo-Christian tradition, the male has been regarded as dominant, the female inferior. No major religion of the world except Islam was willing to recognize women as human beings worthy of divine attention. It goes to the credit of Islam that it introduced this concept in the pre Islamic society of Arabia which regarded its women as commodities to be exchanged, mortgaged, bought or sold, with or without marriage. Unfortunately, due to the influence of other religions and cultures the true meaning of its conjunction has never been sensed and women are being denied of their rights.

With the coming of industrialization, sex-role matters became exaggerated. Men's work began to move from the home to

factories; women were to stay home and supervise the household. The role of home maker had become a vital part of the woman's image, starting the stereotype that has, up to now, harassed those women who have wanted to move beyond the confines of the home. Even today, expectations that woman should have a major role in the home limit their ability to compete on an equal basis with men in the industrial professional world. Women are, not only, abstained to compete with men and acquire dominant position in society, but if they do courage and break the barriers to start work side by side with her male counterparts their work has been underestimated. Sex role stereotyping equally affects both male and female's attitude towards women's work.

One of the first demonstrations of gender bias in evaluation was provided by Philip Goldberg in 1968. He investigated that women were more likely to rate male authors more favorably than female authors. Another manifestation of women being unfair to themselves involves the world of work. Macfarlin and Gagnon (1984) asked male and female college students to perform two tasks. In one, they were asked to pay themselves and, in another, to do as much work as they thought fair for a fixed amount of money. The result was that women paid themselves less than did men and they worked longer and completed more work than their male counterparts as well.

A great deal of what we know about sex stereotyping comes from work with college students carried out by Broverman et al.

(1972). In most of these studies students were asked to list the personality characteristics they feel differentiate between men and women. Items from such a list are then presented to other students, who are requested to indicate which items would likely apply to a person about whom they know nothing except that he is a male. The students performed the same task for a hypothetical female as well. Results show that a general agreement exists between male and female subjects about what typical men and women are like. Furthermore, the masculine traits were rated as socially more desirable than the feminine ones, and a greater number of male traits were positively valued than are female traits.

Men are viewed as being aggressive, independent, objective, dominant, competitive, logical, self confident, and ambitious; while women are generally assumed to lack these "masculine" traits. Conversely, women are viewed as being tactful, gentle, sensitive to others, neat, quiet, and able to express tender feelings, while men are generally assumed to lack these "feminine" characteristics. Studies of Ruble (1983); Werner and La Russa (1985) show that the same stereotypes persisted during 1980s.

The essential difference between male and female stereotypic model is that male is inherently powerful, aggressive, dominant and competent whereas female model is inherently powerless, nurturant and dependent. No substantial research evidence supports or

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The essential difference between male and female stereotypic model is that male is inherently powerful, aggressive, dominant and competent whereas female model is inherently powerless, nurturant and dependent. No substantial research evidence supports or

contradicts the stereotypic concept of girls being more fragile than boys. There may be some differences in developmental/behavioral variables but one gender is not necessarily "*superior*" whereas the other "*inferior*" constantly. It is a common observation supported by developmental studies (Hurlock, 1981) that females generally mature earlier as compared to males. Some of the well documented facts demonstrate that more male fetuses abort as compared to females; and there are more male still births and birth defects (Parsons, 1980; Mussen *et al.* (1975).

Cross-cultural research however indicates that degree of stereotyping is not invariant. Zammuner (1987) reports that Dutch children differentiate between the sexes less than do Italian. This finding suggests that learning to stereotype is mediated by a number of cultural and familial factors. It is also probably mediated by a desire to sort people into social roles; stereotyping then becomes a way of rationalizing our biases (Hoffman and Hurst, 1990).

Miller (1975) found that among kindergarten girls, working mother's daughters had less traditional role concepts than the daughters of housewives; they more often aspired to be just like their mother than did their class-mates; and they tended to be generally more aggressive and resourceful.

Gender roles and gender stereotypes influence one another in both directions. While stereotypes help in setting our

expectations about tasks men and women should perform, seeing people in these traditional occupations everyday reinforces our belief that gender stereotypes are valid. It's all because of its circular nature. As we don't routinely see men and women outside traditional gender roles, we have few opportunities to invalidate our assumptions. Thus, when we do see people performing cross-gender tasks (a male nurse, a female executive), we conclude that they must be exceptions to the rules.

Numerous researchers have conducted extensive studies in this regard, some of which are presented below.

Powell (1990) after a comprehensive review of the research literature to determine the level of support executives received concludes that, there is little reason to believe that either women or men make superior managers, or that women and men are different type of managers. Instead, there are likely to be excellent, average and poor managerial performers within each sex.

Stuart (1993) conducted a study about how male and female management styles differ in the workplace. He concluded that, the new mythology sees the female management style as the most appropriate and effective in the modern corporation *less* hierarchical than the male, more intuitive and open to change, more participative, and above all, more likely to encourage employees at every level to flourish.

Similarly, Metcalfe (1993), senior lecturer in organizational psychology at the University of Leeds, acknowledges that, the most

from the 130 executives employed by a medium sized utilities firm. They found the more successful executives were significantly higher on *Dominance*(Do), *Capacity for Status*(Cs), *Sociability*(Sy), *Social Presence* (Sp), *Self-Acceptance*(Sa), *Intellectual Efficiency*(Ie), *Psychological Mindedness*(Py) and *Flexibility*(Fx) and significantly lower on *Femininity* (Fe) and *Self-Control*(Sc).

In a broad study involving executives from 13 firms, Mahoney, et al. (1961) identified 75 more effective and 75 less effective managers, excluding those in the middle. They compared those groups on a battery of tests which included 13 of the 18 CPI scales (*Socialization* (So), *Communality*(Cm), *Achievement via Conformance*(Ac), *Achievement via Independence*(Ai) and *Psychological Mindedness* (Py) were deleted). Of the 13 scales used, significant differences were obtained on only two Do ($P < .01$) and Wb ($P < .02$) scales. CPI, as the most frequently and extensively used personality assessment device, reveals that it is particularly useful in the areas of career development and personnel selection (Mc Allister, 1988).

Medcof (1990) reported that *Dominance* is a desirable quality in managers.

Hollander (1961) reviewed several researches on CPI and concluded that persons perceived to have high status were more acceptable as authority figures. The *Capacity for Status* scale of CPI explains the same construct.

Meyer and Walder (1992) found that on *Achievement via Independence* scale of CPI, the more successful executives scored higher as compared to less successful executives.

CPI has been used in Pakistan for assessment of personality characteristics for normal population as well as for psychopathological cases, delinquents, criminals, etc. Ashfaq (1987), for instance, used four scales of CPI to explore the differences between personality profile of female patients suffering from conversion reaction and other forms of psychoneurosis. The data revealed that female patients suffering from conversion reaction were significantly low on *Sociability* and *Responsibility* traits as compared to other neurotic patients.

Altaf (1998), found that twelve out of eighteen scales of CPI significantly differentiated between delinquents and non-delinquents. He found that delinquents were significantly lower on *Dominance*, *Capacity for Status*, *Self-Acceptance*, *Responsibility*, *Socialization*, *Good Impression*, *Communality*, *Achievement via Conformance*, *Psychological Mindedness* and *Flexibility*. Similarly, Tariq (1991) found significant differences between professional and non-professional criminals on *Socialization* scale of CPI.

Shujaat (1992) used seven scales of CPI to investigate differences in personality characteristics of successful and unsuccessful executives. The data demonstrate that successful executives were significantly higher than their unsuccessful counterparts on *Dominance*, *Capacity for Status*, *Sociability*, *Achievement via Independence*, *Managerial*

Potential and *Work Orientation* scales. However, the two groups did not reveal any significant difference on *Responsibility* scale.

Shujaat, Zehra and Anila (1996) used CPI to examine the personality characteristics of business executives through selected scales (viz., *Dominance, Capacity for Status, Sociability, Responsibility, Achievement via Independence, Managerial Potential, and Work Orientation*). The study explored the differences among the personality traits of successful and unsuccessful executives; technical and non-technical executives; younger and older executives. The data revealed that successful non-technical and older executives showed more leadership traits as compared to the other groups.

In view of its effectiveness as a personality test, Ahmad (1986) translated and adapted CPI to be used extensively in Pakistan. The overall psychometric evaluation lends reasonably sufficient credence to further use of the CPI in Pakistan and to research on predictive and classificatory issues. This study also shows the Urdu version to be sufficiently similar to the English version.

Sex-role Discrimination

Pakistani women live in a culture that is many centuries old. The current institutions, beliefs, attitudes and customs have been shaped by a long history during which the Indian sub continent was

conquered by Muslim rulers and later on the colonial rule by the British in the Indian sub continent in the late seventeenth century to 1947. While the recognition of the difference between the Muslims and Hindus way of life constituted a bases for a struggle for independence, there exist among Muslims several customs, traditions and beliefs that had deeply influenced by Hindu tradition that had existed in the sub continent prior to the advent of Islam.

Negative images about the role and status of women in our society also reflect the influence of Hindu culture, which relegates its women to a very inferior position. In the Hindu religion goddess Kali is a dark monster with bloodstained tongue, crossed eyes, and fang teeth. Her wild dancing brings death on the world though when she submits to her husband her energy is harnessed and she does good deeds. It can be noticed that women are viewed as positive through their service to men. Similarly, a view of gender reflected by the yin and yang in Chinese religion. The yin, which is the feminine side, represents darkness and evil, whereas yang, the masculine side, is ornamented with all the divine qualities of nature.

In the Jewish religion, further evidence of the position of women can be found in the traditional prayer for men, "Blessed art thou, O' Lord our God, King of the Universe, that I was not born a woman". In addition, Orthodox Jews seat women apart from men during the religious

services. The New Testament expands upon the relationship between men and women:

.....A man is the image and glory of God: but the woman is the glory of the man. For the man is not of the woman; but the woman for the man. Let your women keep silence in the churches: for it is not permitted un to them to speak; but they are commanded to be under obedience... And if they will learn anything, let them ask their husbands at home: for it is a shame for women to speak in the church. (I Corinthians 11-14).

The mass media highlights natural qualities of women in a more unfavorable way and portrays them as emotional and hence inefficient; she is easily swayed by extraneous forces and is therefore, not dependable; and she is ignorant and thus not in a position to be consulted. All these humiliated remarks are passed down from one generation to another. The prejudices of convention have prevailed for so long that they have solidified and taken the shape of societal norms.

Muslim religious scholars also discourage and strongly disapprove females who work outside of their homes. According to Maulana Maududi (1979) even though men and women are equipotential with respect to their physical and mental abilities, they have not been entrusted with equal responsibilities. He further describes that woman is the passive partner in the system of nature. The superiority of man is not due to any merit in masculinity as opposed to any demerit in femininity, it is rather due to the physical strength which plays a crucial role for

possessing qualities of dominance, power, and authority. Thus man and woman have distinct domains,___man being the provider and the organizer of life in general and woman being the organizer of the house and children. It follows from these separate roles, according to Maududi, that even though Islam does not allow any distinction between men and women in the acquisition of knowledge and cultural training, it does recognize a difference in the type of education meant for men and women, respectively.

In Pakistan there was a serious sex role segregation but during the last two decades a significant change has occurred in the attitude of the society towards women. Serious efforts have been made by the government institutions to raise the status of women. The constitution of Pakistan does not permit any discrimination against women merely on the basis of sex. Consequently an increasing number of women during the past twenty years has begun to enter nontraditional occupations such as law, medicine, banking and engineering that were once the near exclusive domain of men. There is much evidence that rigid distinctions between what man should do and what women should do have largely disappear. Even in a patriarchal society of Pakistan, where man used to be considered as a born executive whether or not he could reach the level of proficiency and a woman was never thought to excel him. The scenario has greatly changed, now there are women journalists, lawyers, jurists, architects, engineers, bankers and an

industrial sector. Although their number is still small but women are in administrative positions in private and government services in research organizations, and in politics as well.

With all such progress even today people still assume that women in general have less desirable traits than men by the yardstick of their culture. Women are believed to be dependent, passive, unassertive and emotional, whereas men are seen as dominant, aggressive, self-reliant, and in control of themselves. Consequently, women are considered better suited to be nurses than hospital administrators and men are considered better suited to jobs in administration than in child care or elementary education.

Main objectives of the study

The present study was designed to investigate if any differences exist between personality characteristics of male and female executives. Furthermore, gender differences in perceptions of executives as revealed by rating of their subordinates were also explored.

Due to nonavailability of standardized personality tests for Pakistani population it was decided to use two foreign made personality tests, viz, California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and Purdue Rating Scale for assessment of personality characteristics of executives. Besides, an indigenous test, Work Management Scale, was also designed to measure stereotyped work related attitude of the executives.

Before beginning the main study a pilot study was conducted to see if these tests can be used effectively in our cultural context.

Hypotheses

On the basis of studies cited earlier (pp 7-12) following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Scores on California Psychological Inventory (CPI) will demonstrate significant gender differences between personality characteristics of male and female executives.
2. Executives who are in the same profession as that of their parents will show significantly different personality characteristics as compared to those who have opted for a different profession.
3. Female executives will have less stereotyped attitude towards work-management than the male executives.
4. Female subordinates will rate the male executives more positively as compared to male subordinates.
5. Male subordinates will rate the female executive less positively as compared to female subordinates.

METHOD

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to find out if any significant gender differences exist in personality characteristics of executives. The sample included ten executives (M=5,F=5). *California Psychological Inventory* (CPI) and an indigenous *Work Management Scale* for executives were used. The findings demonstrated significant gender differences on *Dominance* (Do) , *Capacity for Status* (Cs) *Socialization* (So), *Tolerance* (To), *Achievement via Independence*(Ai) and *Femininity* (Fe) scales. The results of *Work Management Scale* revealed that male executives are more stereotyped in their work related attitude as compared to female executives.

Furthermore, *Purdue Rating Scale* was used to assess the attitude of subordinates toward the work performance of these executives. The findings indicate that, in comparison to male executives , female administrators were rated less favorably by their male subordinates on all the three factors of the scale, viz, *Social responsibility*, *Administrative achievement* and *Democratic orientation*. On the other hand, male administrators were rated more favourably by their female subordinates than their male colleagues on *Administrative Achievement* and *Democratic orientation* as assessed by *Purdue Rating Scale*.

These findings suggested that all the three tests, viz, *California Psychological Inventory*, *Work Management Scale for Executives* and *Purdue Rating Scale*, can be used to investigate gender differences

in personality characteristics and stereotyped work related attitude as well as work performance of the executives.

Main Study

Sample 1

Sample 1 consisted of a group of 70 top executives (35 male and 35 female) selected at random from the following districts of N.W.F.P.

1. Swat
2. Chitral.
3. Peshawar.
4. Charsadda.
5. Mardan.
6. Kohat.
7. Hangu.
8. Dera Ismail Khan.
9. Haripur.
10. Abbottabad.
11. Manshera.

Out of a total of 70 administrators 22 were doctors (31.4%); 26 were educationists (37.2%) and the remaining 22 were selected from business and industrial organizations (31.4%). The subjects were divided in to two groups in terms of their similarity and dissimilarity with their

parental occupation. Group I consisted of 34 subjects (17 male and 17 female) whose one or both parents were in the same profession as that of their wards. Group II comprised of 36 subjects (18 male and 18 female) who entered a profession different from that of their parents. Age range of the sample was 35 to 55 years with a Mean age of 45.14 for male executives and 42.42 for female executives.

Sample 2

It included a randomly selected group of 430 subjects (215 men and 215 women) who were subordinates of the executives at the time of study. Each executive was rated by five of their same sex subordinates ($70 \times 5 = 350$ subordinates) while ten male and ten female executives whose subordinates included both men and women, were also rated by four of the opposite sex subordinates, ($20 \times 4 = 80$ subordinates). Criteria of selection for subjects comprising sample 2 were as follows:

1. Age range: 39-50 years.
2. Minimum education: B.A / B.Sc.
3. Work experience under present administrator: at least one year.
4. Neither a close friend nor a relative of the boss.

Instruments

1. *Personal Data Sheet*

It was designed to collect demographic information, i.e., age, occupation, basic pay scale, academic qualification of the administrators, education and occupation of parents.

2. *California Psychological Inventory*

Harrison Gough presented the complete set of 18 scales of CPI in 1957. Due to conceptual similarity scales are arranged in clusters or classes (Gough, 1987).

Cluster I

- I *Dominance (Do)*. It is used to identify strong, dominant, influential and ascendant individuals who are able to take the initiative and exercise leadership.

- II *Capacity for Status (Cs)*: It attempts to appraise those qualities of ambition and self-assurance that underlie, and lead to, status (rather than measuring actual or achieved status)

- III *Sociability (Sy)*: It differentiates people with an outgoing, sociable, participative temperament from those who shun involvement and avoid social visibility.
- IV *Social Presence (Sp)*: It assesses poise, self-confidence, verve, and spontaneity in social interactions and is closely related to "Sociability" scale.
- V *Self-Acceptance (Sa)*: It identifies individuals who would manifest a comfortable and imperturbable sense of personal worth, and who would be seen as secure and sure of themselves whether active or inactive in social behavior.
- VI *Sense of Well-Being (Wb)*; It discriminates individuals feigning neurosis from normals and psychiatric patients responding truthfully.

Cluster II

Cluster II, like cluster I, includes six scales, Gough grouped these six measures together because these assess some aspects of intrapersonal structuring of values. The scales are:

- VII *Responsibility (Re)*: It identifies people who are conscientious, responsible, dependable articulate about rules and order, and who believe that life should be governed by reason.
- VIII *Socialization (So)*: This scale measures the degree of social maturity, integrity and rectitude the individual has attained.
- IX *Self-Control (Sc)*: It is designed to assess the adequacy of self-regulation, self-control, and the degree of freedom from impulsivity and self-centeredness.
- X *Tolerance (To)*: This scale is designed to identify the permissive, accepting, and nonjudgmental social beliefs and attitudes.
- XI *Good Impression (Gi)*: It is a validity scale used to identify people who are able to create favorable impressions and who are concerned about how others react to them.
- XII *Communality (Cm)*: It's another validity scale designed to detect random answering.

Cluster III

Third cluster of scales are ones designed to assess achievement potential and intellectual efficiency. It consists of three scales:

- XIII *Achievement via Conformance (Ac)*: The basic theme of the scale measures strong need for achievement coupled with a deeply internalized appreciation of structure and organization.
- XIV *Achievement via Independence (Ai)*: It is used to predict achievement in settings where independence of thought, creativity and self-actualization is rewarded.
- XV *Intellectual Efficiency (Ie)*: This scale is designed to measure personality traits that coincides with a high level of intellectual ability and the degree to which persons make efficient use of the intelligence they do possess.

Cluster IV

The final cluster of scales comprises left overs that did not fit into the first three classes. Loosely designated as assessing intellectual and interest modes. Cluster IV includes:

- XVI *Psychological Mindedness (Py)*: This scale measures the degree to which the individual is interested in, and responsive to, the inner needs, motives, and experience of other.
- XVII *Flexibility (Fx)*: This scale is used to identify people who are flexible, adaptable and even somewhat changeable in their thinking, behavior, and temperament.
- XVIII *Femininity (Fe)*: This scale is used to assess the extent to which individuals endorse beliefs, values, and occupations that are traditionally held either by males or by females.

The test consists of 480 true/false statements and is designed both for individual and group administration. The philosophical orientation of the CPI is based on an appreciation of enduring, commonly discussed personality variables that are relevant throughout different cultures. Thus, it uses such familiar common sense terms as dominance, tolerance, and self-control, which Gough has referred to as "folk concepts". So the test has "functional validity" or in other words it has cross-cultural relevance, is readily understood by people and have a high degree of power in predicting behavior. Furthermore, cross-cultural studies on validity have been performed in France, Israel, Italy, Japan, Poland, Switzerland, and Taiwan. It has been translated in several languages, including Urdu, French, German, Greek, Italian, Africans, Australian, English, Chinese (Four dialects), Czech, Dutch, Hebrew,

Hindi, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Sinhalese, Spanish, Swedish and Turkish (Megargee, 1977).

3. *Work Management Scale for Executives*

It is an indigenous scale designed by the investigator to measure stereotyped attitude towards work, especially those aspects that deal with the meaning that an individual attaches to his/her role at the work place, and the degree to which an individual takes interest in co-workers, office work and desires to contribute to job. Gender role stereotypes are beliefs regarding the characteristics that are generally perceived to be true of men and women have a significant effect in promoting differences amongst sexes. Through process of identification with parents of the same sex and other role models projected through the media they act as critical building blocks of social development. These concepts, once formed often help in process of self socialization and also provide a framework for interpreting what they see and of predicting future behavior. Differential attributions of success and failure by one self and others can also be explained by gender related preconceived notions (Hassan, 1996).

Before devising Work Management Scale for Executive, the researcher reviewed literature concerning personality inventories designed to assess the strength of social desirability for various sociogenic motives. Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Edwards,

1957) seemed to be quite relevant to the present need. The original inventory consists of 210 pairs of statements designed to elicit responses revealing preference for certain human motives by a forced-choice technique. The present author selected 29 statements from EPPS to measure the strength of socially desirable need for *Achievement*, *Dominance* and *Affiliation*. However the format of the statements was changed and the respondent had to express his/her opinion on a five point scale. The responses range from "always" to "never". To avoid response set bias, 16 items of the questionnaire are keyed in opposite direction and are scored in reversed order.

Internal consistency method was determined by item-sum correlation for the test. The validity criterion was total score on the scale. Similarly, reliability of the scale was determined by inter item consistency (Table 6), Anastasi (1982).

4. *Purdue Rating Scale for Administrators and Executives*

The scale was originally developed by Remmers and Hobson (1951). Initially it was planned and constructed to satisfy a felt need for a means to appraise administrative and executive effectiveness. In view of the authors, administrative and executive effectiveness is the product of working relationship between the administrators and the group he directs. The scale is composed of 36 items. The responses to the

items are measured on a five-point scale ranging from "always" to "never".

Three factors or general characteristics of good administration in this rating scale are:

1. *Social responsibility for subordinates and Society*

It represents the responsibilities of an executive to the people in his immediate and larger society and measures how much he/she is public spirited and considerate to his employees.

2. *Administrative achievement*

It is used to measure the abilities of an administrator related to his job or duties.

3. *Democratic Orientation*

It is used to measure the attitude of an administrator towards his/her subordinates based on the concept of equality and absence of class feelings.

Remmers and Hobson (1951) have formulated different definitions of administrators derived from their assigned roles and powers in organization.

An administrator in business and industrial organization is any person above the foreman or clerical worker level. Any executive or junior executive such as department head, division manager, sales manager, director or president of an organization is an administrator.

An administrator in higher educational institutions is any person above that of instructor or professor, deans, department heads and research director are properly called administrators. Registrars, business managers, etc, if they direct the work of subordinates are also administrators.

An administrator in the public schools is any person in a supervisory capacity; Principal and head teacher are included in it.

An administrator in the hospital is any person in a supervisory capacity; Head or incharge of various department/wards, registrar and senior medical officers are included in it.

PROCEDURE

The main aim of the study was to assess the personality characteristics of male and female executives of N.W.F.P. Prior meetings were arranged with each executive to motivate him/her to participate in the present research. Objectives of the study were briefly explained to them. Each of the subject was contacted again according to the time and venue scheduled. The subjects were ensured about the confidentiality of their responses. A personal data sheet was used to collect demographic information about them. Later, California Psychological Inventory was given with printed instructions, which were also verbally explained by the researcher. Subjects were told to read the statements carefully, and express their opinion by marking either *true* (T) or *false* (F) whichever is applicable in their case. It hardly took forty to fifty minutes in completing the questionnaire. After an interval of ten minutes, they were requested to perform on an indigenous Work-Management Scale. The instructions were printed on the first page of the scale, but to ascertain that the subjects have followed the directions the researcher read out the instructions and explained the procedure with an example. The executives hardly took ten to fifteen minutes in completing their task. Each subject was tested individually.

For further study, with the help and support of the executive concerned staff meetings were arranged. The administrator being rated

was not present in these meetings. In a tension free environment the raters were motivated to record their ratings honestly on Purdue Rating Scale which was administered in a group situation.

Instructions

"This questionnaire contains statements about the work of your boss and his/her relationship with colleagues. *Read each statement carefully. In front of each statement, five choices are given, namely, always, usually, sometimes, seldom, and never. You are requested to choose a box most appropriate to your own opinion for the statement about the person in question.*" The subjects were then further instructed as, "*give your opinion for each item and don't leave any of them blank as your opinion on each item is considered valuable and helpful for the present study. Please do not discuss amongst yourselves and be sure that you will remain anonymous.*" After the instructions, the investigator read out a sample statement and demonstrated how to record their choices.

The subjects were then asked to take any one of the envelopes, all of which were alike, containing Purdue Rating Scale inside. There was no time limit and the raters usually took about fifteen to twenty minutes to complete the test.

Scoring

California Psychological Inventory (CPI)

A set of eighteen hand scoring stencils were used for scoring the test.

Work Management Scale

Four hand scoring stencils were used for scoring Work Management Scale. Sum of points earned by a subject on the scale represents his/her score. The minimum and the maximum possible scores on this scale are 32 and 160, respectively. The higher the score the more favorable the attitude. The lower the score the more unfavorable the attitude.

Purdue Rating Scale

While scoring the responses to PRS different ratings were assigned to the following options:

Never	:	1
Seldom	:	2
Sometimes	:	3
Usually	:	4
Always	:	5

The minimum and the maximum possible score range for the three factors were as follows:

1	Social responsibility	:	13-65.
2	Administrative achievement	:	18-90.
3	Democratic orientation	:	5-25.

Reliability and validity of the instruments

Reliability of CPI

To determine the reliability of the CPI KR-20 was computed. Coefficient of correlation for 18 scales of CPI ranges from .41 to .88 with a median of .65 (table 1).

Validity of CPI

Validity of the scale was determined by inter scale correlation method. Cluster-wise inter correlation matrices for 18 scales of CPI are shown in table 2-5.

Reliability of Work Management Scale

Inter - item correlation technique was used for determining the reliability of the scale. Positive significant correlations exist between all of the items of the scale (table 6).

Validity of Work Management Scale

Validity of the scale was determined by item-sum correlation method. The correlations range from .24 to .66 and are statistically significant ($p < .05$) for all the items except for items 1, 2, 5, 15, and 30. (Table 6).

Reliability of Purdue Rating Scale

The reliability of PRS was determined by computing alpha coefficient (table 7). Alpha coefficients for all the three factors, viz; *Social responsibility*, *Administrative achievement* and *Democratic orientation*, range from .87 to .97 with a median of .92. The overall internal consistency of the scale (alpha coefficient) is .98. Positive significant correlation ($P < .001$) exist between all the items of the scale (table 8).

Validity of Purdue Rating Scale

Item-sum correlation method was used for determining the validity of the scale. The correlations range from .66 to .86 and are statistically significant ($P < .001$) for all items of the scale (table 8).

CHAPTER III

Table 1

Kuder Richardson reliability coefficients of CPI scales.

Scales	KR 20
Do	.684
Cs	.768
Sy	.471
Sp	.873
Sa	.884
Wb	.812
Re	.412
So	.525
Sc	.719
To	.699
Gi	.756
Cm	.618
AC	.412
Ai	.507
Ie	.615
Py	.498
Fx	.871
Fe	.476

For all the scales of CPI $p < .01$

Table 2

Intercorrelation among CPI scales: Cluster I

Scales	II	III	IV	V	VI
I Dominance	.68*	.71*	.41*	.66*	.17
II Capacity for Status		.85*	.61*	.88*	.12
III Sociability			.54*	.82*	.18
IV Social Presence				.60*	.03
V Self-Acceptance					.10
VI Well-Being					1.0

*P<. 01

Table 3

Intercorrelation among CPI scales: Cluster II

Scales	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
VII Responsibility	.16	.06	.65**	.59**	-.06
VIII Socialization		.07	.35**	.32**	.21*
IX Self-Control			.13	.05	-.14
X Tolerance				.67**	-.17
XI Good Impression					.18
XII Communality					1.0

*P < .01

Table 4

Intercorrelation among CPI scales: Cluster III

	Scales	XIV	XV
XIII	Achievement via Conformance	.46*	.06
XIV	Achievement via Independence		.44*
XV	Intellectual Efficiency		1.0

*P < .01

Table 5

Intercorrelation among CPI scales: Cluster IV

Scales	XVII	XVIII
XVI Psychological-Mindedness	.20*	.15
XVII Flexibility		.77**
XVIII Femininity		1.0

** $P < .01$ * $P < .05$

Table 7

Reliability coefficients of Purdue Rating Scale

Factors	Alpha
Social responsibility	.94
Administrative achievement	.97
Democratic orientation	.87

Table 10

Mean scores, SD and t-values of group I and group II comprising male and female administrators on CPI

Scales	Male Adm.		t	Female Adm.		t
	GP-I (n=17)	GP-II (n=18)		GP-I (n=17)	GP-II (n=18)	
Do	32.05 (1.2)	29.72 (2.35)	3.58**	29.5 (2.98)	27.0 (3.62)	2.17*
Cs	21.5 (1.97)	18.5 (2.0)	6.5***	22.0 (1.7)	14.7 (2.3)	10.0***
Sy	29.4 (.97)	26.6 (1.1)	7.6***	28.0 (1.6)	22.1 (1.5)	8.4***
Sp	33.0 (2.5)	36.8 (1.5)	5.4***	33.0 (2.1)	27.1 (2.3)	6.0***
Sa	20.4 (1.6)	19.5 (1.4)	1.6	20.0 (2.0)	13.9 (1.8)	8.97***
Wb	32.0 (1.7)	33.0 (2.5)	.13	36.0 (1.4)	34.0 (1.6)	2.02
Re	31.0 (2.5)	27.0 (1.7)	7.5***	32.0 (2.0)	30.1 (1.5)	3.06**
So	35.9 (1.5)	34.0 (1.6)	2.56*	39.0 (3.0)	35.0 (1.6)	4.7**
Sc	36.0 (2.0)	27.7 (2.6)	10.3***	38.0 (1.9)	39.9 (1.7)	1.93
To	19.7 (1.4)	14.4 (1.9)	9.1***	26.0 (1.7)	24.0 (1.8)	2.73*
Gi	28.0 (1.3)	24.0 (1.7)	7.5***	33.0 (1.9)	27.6 (1.8)	8.3**
Cm	20.0 (1.5)	20.0 (1.6)	0	23.0 (1.2)	20.0 (2.4)	4.5**
Ac	27.7 (2.0)	32.0 (1.7)	6.7***	28.0 (1.6)	26.0 (1.6)	3.6**
Ai	18.5 (1.8)	19.4 (1.6)	1.57	16.0 (1.8)	18.0 (1.7)	3.2**
le	38.4 (2.0)	37.6 (1.6)	.54	36.0 (1.5)	37.8 (1.2)	3.6**
Py	11.3 (1.4)	12.3 (1.6)	2.45*	12.0 (1.4)	13.9 (1.0)	4.4**
Fx	1.8 (.79)	2.1 (.73)	1.07	4.0 (1.1)	6.0 (1.5)	4.3**
Fe	11.7 (1.1)	12.2 (1.6)	1.02	17.0 (1.6)	18.9 (1.4)	3.7**

Standard deviations are given in parenthesis

*p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Table 11

Mean scores, SD, and t-values of male and female administrators on Work-Management Scale for administrators

Groups	Mean	SD	t
Male administrators (n=35)	124.714	10.214	4.93***
Female administrators (n=35)	137.914	12.099	

df=68, *** p < .0001

Table 12

Mean scores and t-values of the ratings assigned to male executives by same and opposite sex subordinates on Purdue Rating Scale

Scales	Mean Score		t
	Male raters	Female raters	
Social Responsibility	44.46	50.84	3.17**
Administrative Achievement	71.54	75.84	2.36*
Democratic Orientation	11.78	15.11	4.75***

df= 18, *p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

Table 13

Mean scores and t-values of the ratings assigned to female executives by same and opposite sex subordinates on Purdue Rating Scale

Scales	Mean Score		t
	Male raters	Female raters	
Social Responsibility	45.2	52.64	2.61**
Administrative Achievement	63.2	74.8	3.90***
Democratic Orientation	11.71	14.64	3.57***

df=18; **p<.02, ***p<.01

Table 14

Two way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male and female executives by same and opposite sex subordinates on *Social responsibility* factor of Purdue Rating Scale

Sources of variance	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	496.419	3	156.473	5.13*
Between same sex	477	1	477	15.66**
Between opposite sex	16.129	1	16.129	.529
Interaction same x opp:sex	3.29	1	3.29	.108
Within groups	1096.212	36	30.45	
Total	1592.631	39		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 15

Two way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male and female executives by same and opposite sex subordinates on *Administrative achievement* factor of Purdue Rating Scale

Sources of variance	SS	df	MS	F
Among groups	985.199	3	328.39	11.29**
Between same sex	632.01	1	632.01	21.72**
Between opposite sex	219.961	1	219.961	7.56**
Interaction same x opp:sex	133.228	1	133.228	4.58*
Within groups	1047.06	36	29.085	
Total	2032.259	39		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 16

Two way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male and female executives by same and opposite sex subordinates on *Democratic orientation* factor of Purdue Rating Scale

Sources of Variance	SS.	df	Ms	F
Among groups	99.086	3	33.02	11.15**
Between same sex	97.96	1	97.96	33.09**
Between opposite sex	.726	1	.726	.245
Interaction same x opp: sex	.4	1	.4	.135
Within groups	106.61	36	2.96	
Total	205.696	39		

**p<.01

Table 17

Comparison between ratings assigned to male and female executives by their subordinates on Purdue Rating Scale (N=350)

SCALES	Male Adm. (n=35)		Female Adm. (n=35)		t
	M	SD	M	SD	
Social responsibility	45.30	3.49	47.49	4.06	2.43*
Administrative-achievement	71.91	3.75	72.88	3.65	1.09
Democratic-orientation	13.69	1.31	14.16	0.93	1.72

*p<.02.

Table 18

Gender differences in ratings assigned to highly educated* executives on Purdue Rating Scale

SCALES	Male adm:	Female adm:	t	p
	(n=9)	(n=15)		
	M	M		
Social responsibility	44.4 (3.34)**	47.29 (3.15)	.181	n.s
Administrative-achievement	71.48 (2.80)	76.64 (3.87)	.164	n.s
Democratic-orientation	13.4 (1.27)	14.29 (.85)	.171	n.s

* Ph.D / M.Phil / M.R.C.P.,

** Values within parenthesis represent SD

Table 19

Gender differences in ratings on Purdue Rating Scale:
Executives having post graduate qualifications

Scales	Male Adm. (n=11)	Female Adm. (n=12)	t	p
	M	M		
Social responsibility	45.29 (3.79)*	48.31 (4.02)	.154	n.s
Administrative- achievement	71.96 (4.00)	73.41 (4.37)	.062	n.s
Democratic- orientation	13.85 (1.61)	14.26 (.67)	.078	n.s

* values within parenthesis represent SD

Table 20

Gender differences in ratings on Purdue Rating Scale:
Executives having graduate qualifications

Scales	Male adm:	Female adm:	t	p
	(n=15)	(n=8)		
	M	M		
Social responsibility	45.8 (3.34)*	46.5 (5.23)	.034	n.s
Administrative-achievement	72.1 (3.75)	70.97 (3.86)	.035	n.s
Democratic-orientation	13.76 (1.04)	13.75 (1.23)	.001	n.s

* values within parenthesis represent SD

Table 21

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Social responsibility* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

Sources of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	11.03	2	5.51	0.41	n.s
Within groups	422.27	32	13.19		
Total	433.3	34			

Table 22

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to female executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Social responsibility* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

Sources of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	16.6	2	8.3	.040	n.s
Within groups	656.23	32	20.50		
Total	672.83	34			

Table 23

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Administrative achievement* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

Sources of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	2.75	2	1.375	.096	n.s
Within groups	456.67	32	14.27		
Total	459.43	34			

Table 24

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to female executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Administrative achievement* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

Sources of variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	37.89	2	18.94	1.41	n.s
Within groups	429.82	32	13.43		
Total	467.71	34			

Table 25

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to male executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Democratic orientation* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

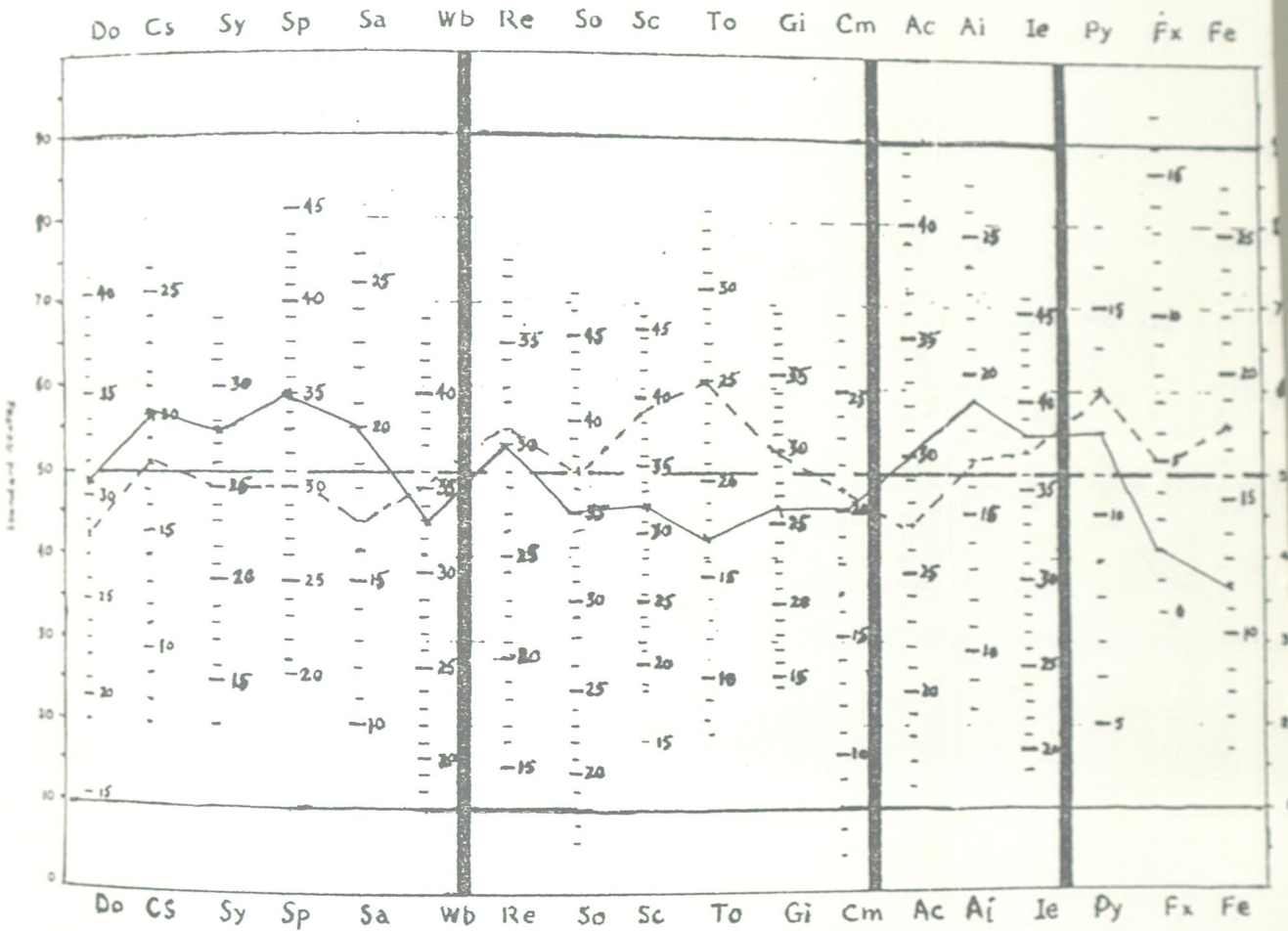
Sources of variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	1.12	2	0.56	.30	n.s
Within groups	59.79	32	1.86		
Total	60.91	34			

Table 26

One way ANOVA of the ratings assigned to female executives (varying in educational qualifications) on *Democratic orientation* factor of Purdue Rating Scale (N=35)

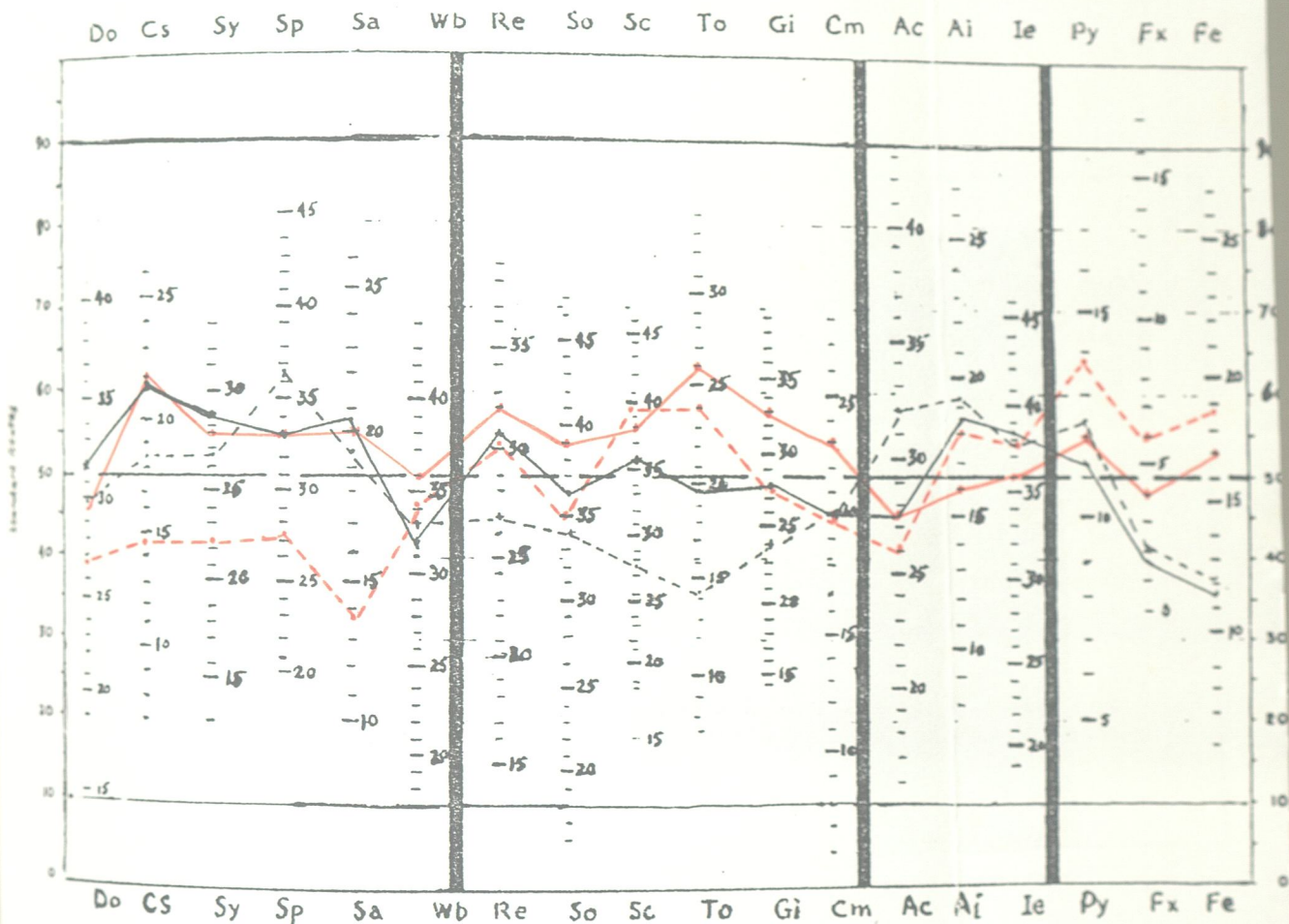
Sources of variance	SS	df	MS	F	p
Among groups	1.75	2	.875	.966	n.s
Within groups	28.96	32	.905		
Total	30.71	34			

Fig-1: Personality profile of male and female administrators



Solid line: Male administrators. Broken line: Female administrators

Fig-2: Personality profile of group I and group II male and female administrators



- Black solid line : Male administrators group I
- Black broken line : Male administrators group II
- Red solid line : Female administrators group I
- Red broken line : Female administrators group II

Fig-3: Mean scores of male and female administrators on Work Management Scale

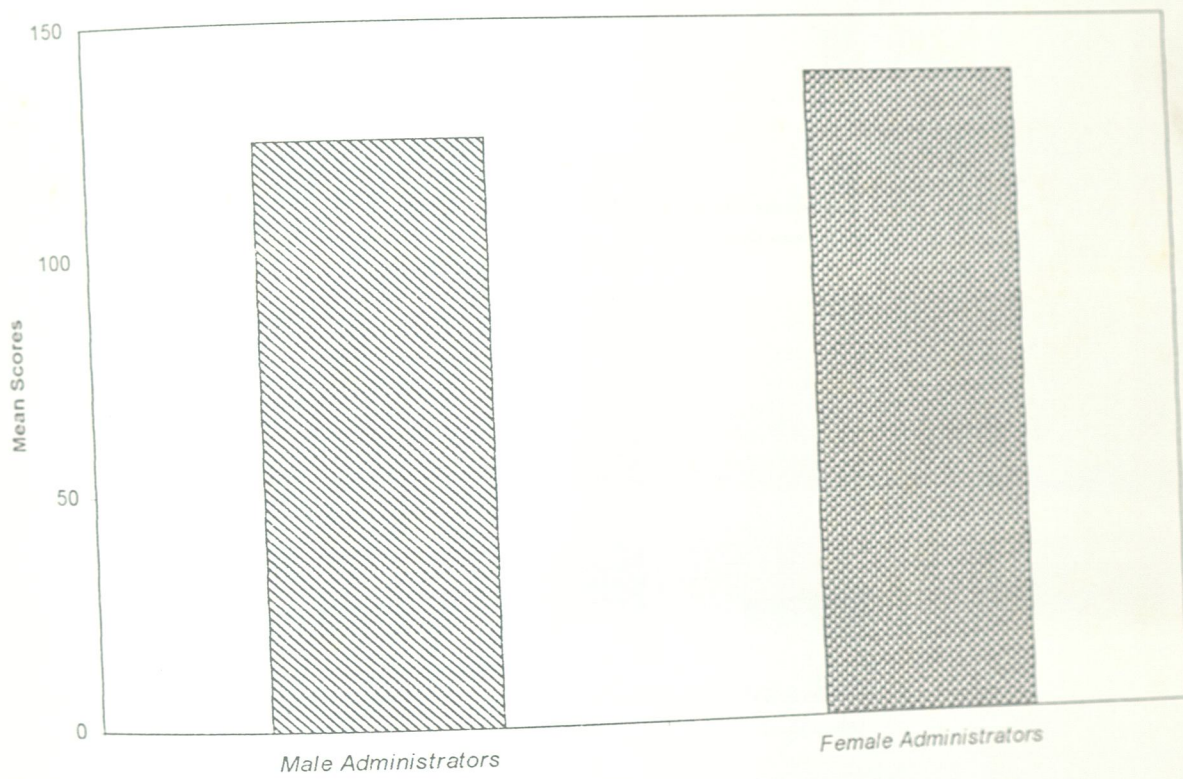


Fig - 4: Mean scores of male and female administrators on Purdue Rating Scale

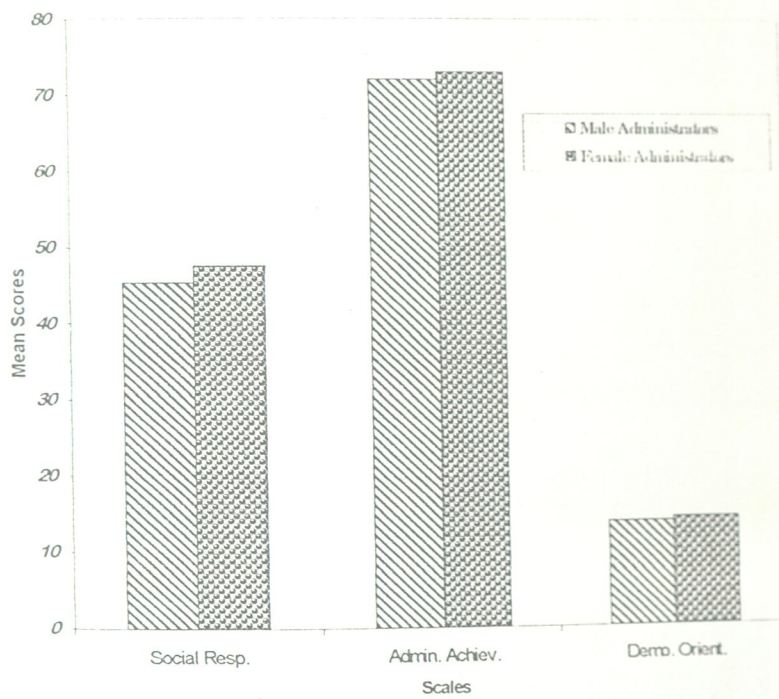


Fig - 5: Mean scores on Purdue Rating Scale of male administrators varying in educational qualifications

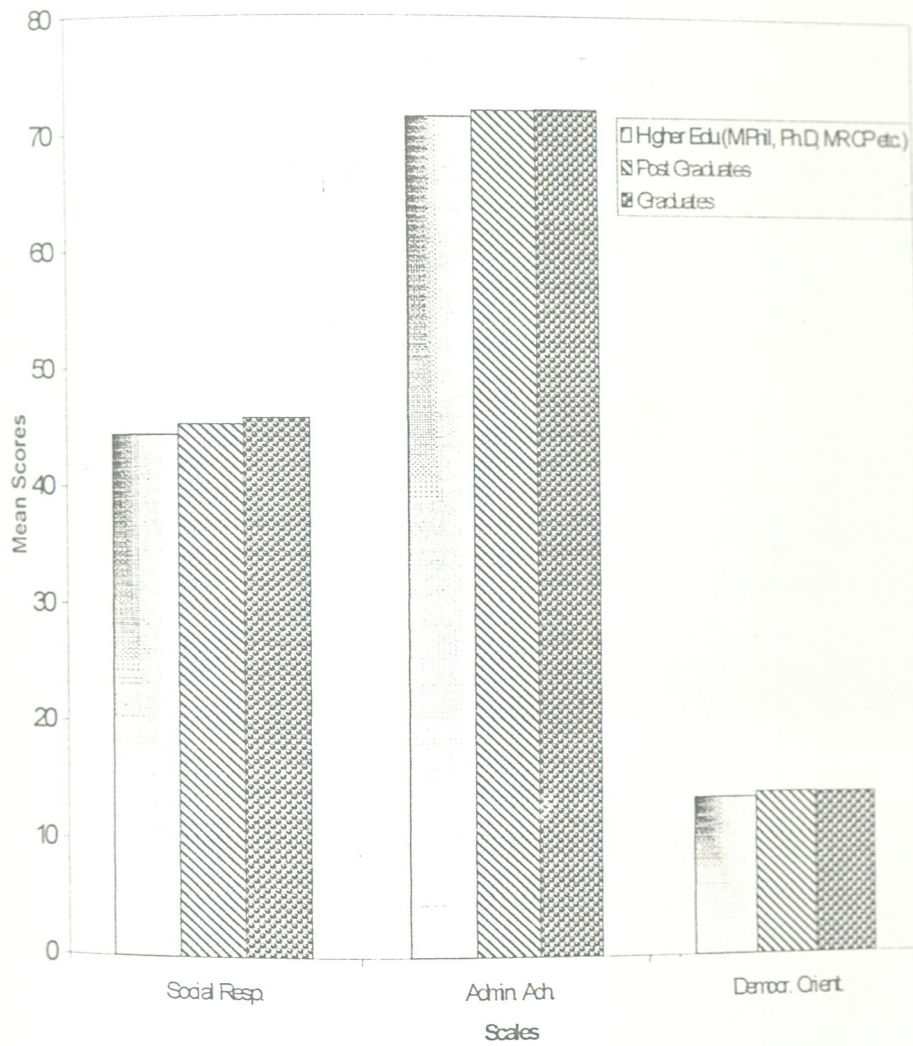


Fig - 6: Mean scores on Purdue Rating Scale of female administrators varying in educational qualifications

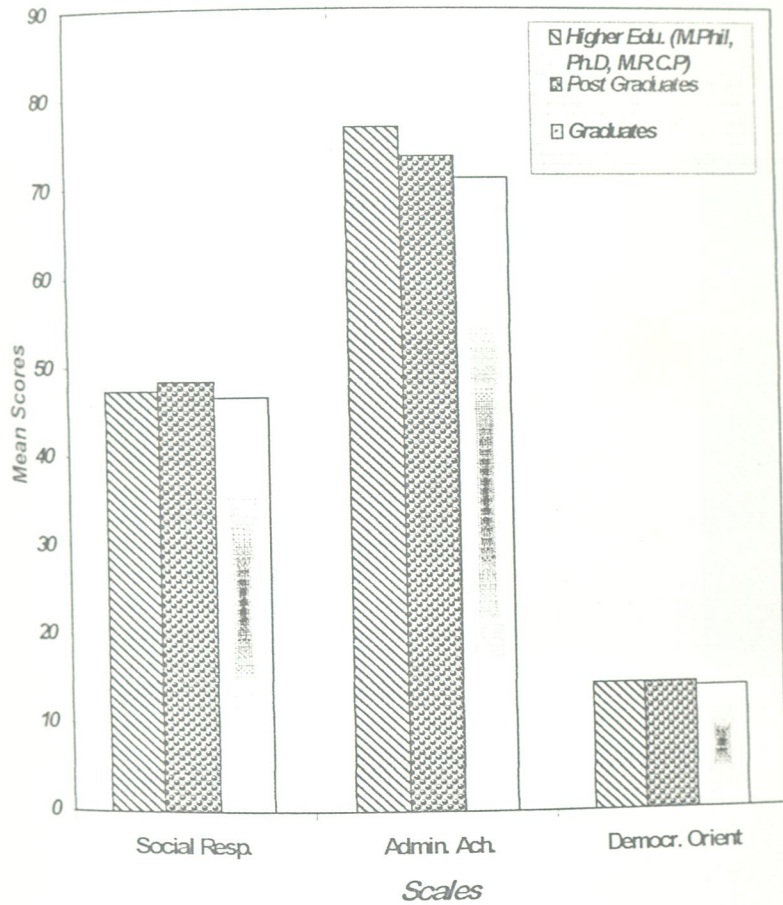


Fig - 7: Mean scores of male and female administrators on *Social responsibility* factor of PRS, evaluated by male and female subordinates

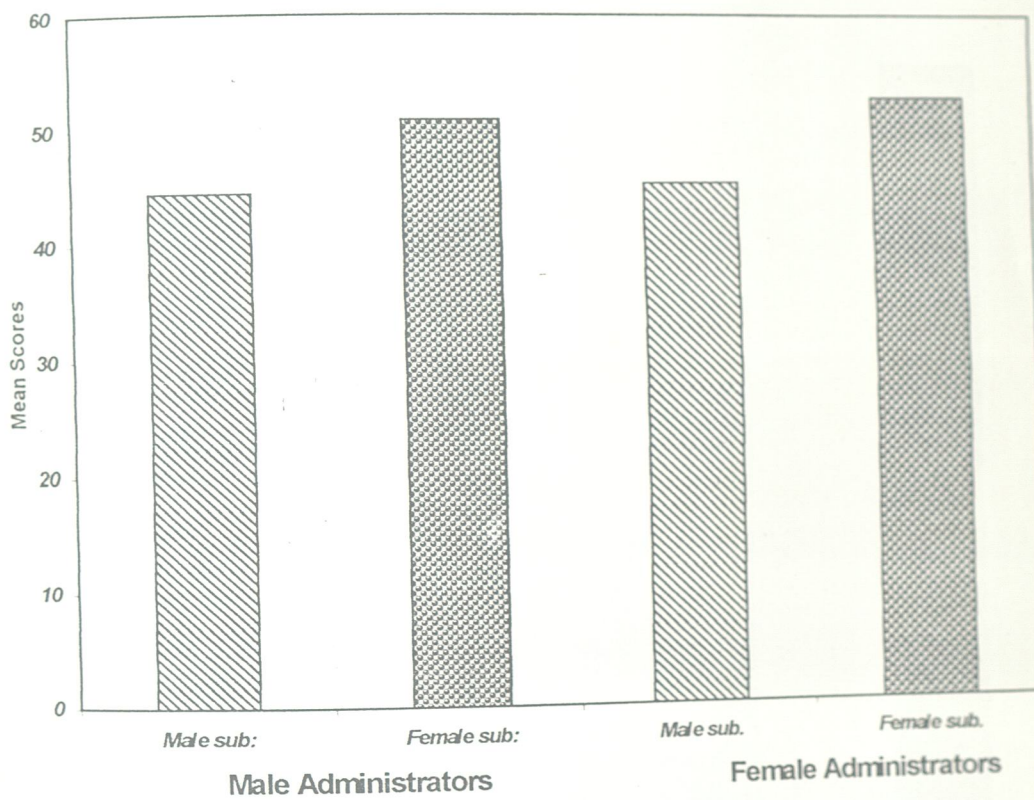
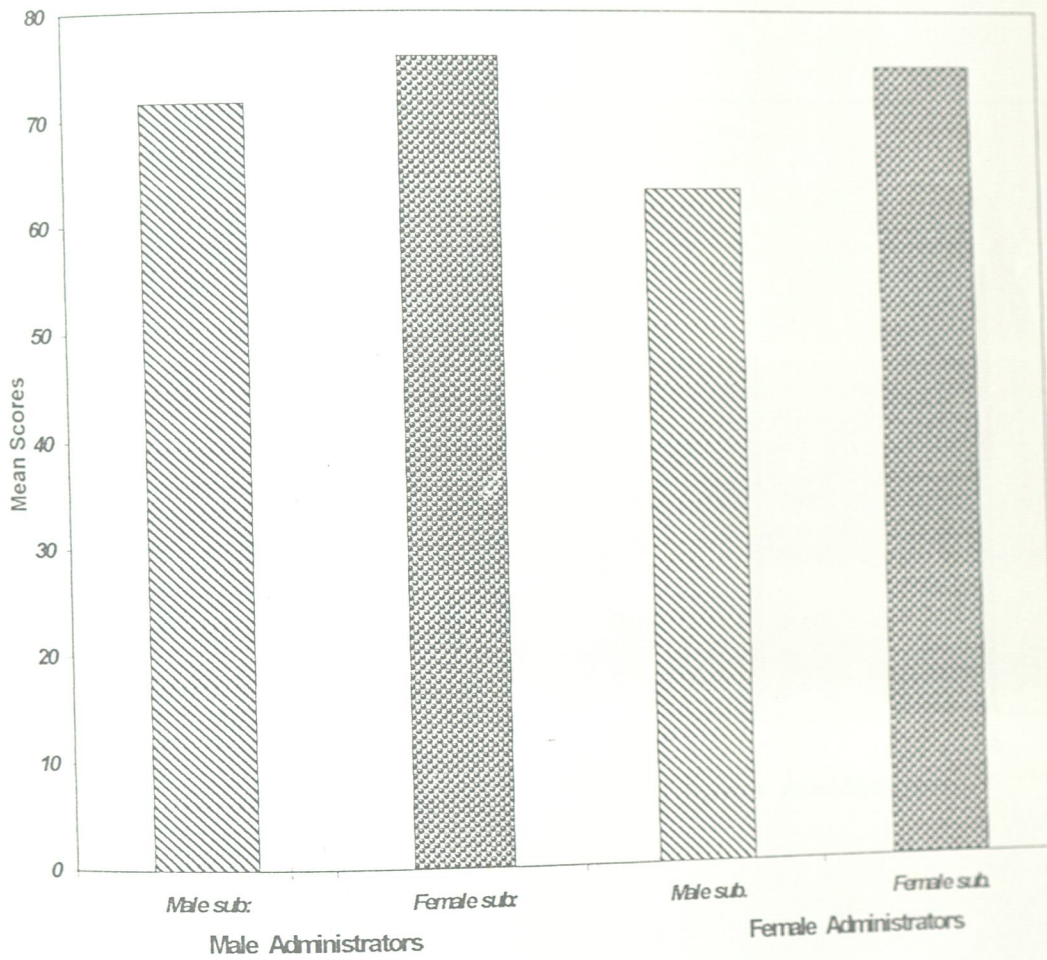


Fig - 8: Mean scores of male and female administrator on *Administrative achievement* factor of PRS, evaluated by male and female subordinates



RESULTS

The main objective of the present study was to investigate if any difference exists between personality characteristics of male and female executives. Tables 1-8 represent the reliability and validity of the tests used in research. Table I shows the Kuder Richardson reliability coefficients of *California Psychological Inventory* (CPI) scales on the present sample. The computed index of reliability ranges from .412 to .884 with a median of .646 which indicates that items of the scale are internally consistent.

Tables 2-5 show cluster-wise inter correlation for 18 scales of CPI. The tables reveal positive significant correlation ($P < .01$ and $.05$) among CPI scales.

Table 6 presents high reliability and validity of *Work Management Scale* by showing positive significant ($p < .001$) inter item correlation and statistically significant ($p < .05$) item-sum correlation among all the items except for items 1, 2, 5, 15 and 30.

Table 7 shows the reliability of *Purdue Rating Scale*. The computed alpha coefficients for the scale range from .87 to .97 with a median of .92. The overall internal consistency of the scale is .98.

Table 8 presents inter item and item sum correlations for *Purdue Rating Scale*. Positive significant correlations ($P < .001$) exist between all the items of the scale and item-sum correlations range from

.66 to .86 and are statistically significant ($p < .001$) for all the items of the scale which assures the validity of the scale.

Tables 9-10 show scores of subjects on CPI. Table 9 presents the comparative scores of male and female executives on different scales of CPI. The results indicate that male executives have scored higher on cluster I and III of CPI, which indicates that male executives are better in their interpersonal relationships, intellectual stance and achievement ability. It is also worth to note that there is a marginal or no difference between the mean scores of male and female executives on *Intellectual Efficiency* scale of CPI. On the other hand, female executives have scored higher than male executives on cluster II and IV of CPI, which measure intrapersonal controls, value styles, beliefs and conceptual interests.

Secondly, the investigator desired to find out the effect of professional similarity/dissimilarity among parents and children on the personality characteristics of the executives. For this purpose group I and group II of both male and female executives were compared. It is explicitly shown in table 10 that group I of both male and female executives have scored higher than their corresponding group II on most of the scales of cluster I and II of CPI. However, male executives (both group I and II) do not reveal any significant difference on *Self-Acceptance*, *Well-Being*, and *Communality*. On the other hand, male executives

comprising group II have scored higher on *Social Presence* as compared to group I. Among the female executives, the difference between group I and II is non significant on *Well-Being* and *Self-Control* scale.

Scales of Cluster III reveal that group II of male administrators has earned significantly higher scores on *Achievement via Conformance* scale whereas the difference between the two groups on *Achievement via Independence* and *Intellectual Efficiency* scale of cluster III is negligible. On the other hand, group I of female administrators has scored significantly higher on *Achievement via Conformance* scale, while group II has scored higher on *Achievement via Independence* and *Intellectual Efficiency* scale. Moreover, the scales of cluster IV reveal insignificant differences on *Flexibility* and *Femininity* scale among both groups of male administrators, whereas group II has obtained significantly higher scores on *Psychological Mindedness* scale. Group II of female administrators, on the other hand, has scored significantly higher on *Flexibility* and *Femininity* scales but lower on *Psychological Mindedness*.

Table 11 presents the score of executives on *Work Managemant Scale*. The table shows that mean score of female administrators is significantly higher than male administrators ($p < .0001$).

Tables 12-26 present data obtained from *Purdue Rating Scale*, Table 12 shows that in a co-working situation male administrators are rated more positively by their female subordinates on all the three

scales of Purdue Rating Scale, i.e, *Social responsibility*, *Administrative achievement*, and *Democratic orientation*. The results reveal that female subordinates have rated their male executives more positively as compared to their male colleagues.

Table 13 reveals that for female administrators the mean ratings assigned by their female subordinates are significantly higher than the ratings of their male subordinates on all the three scales, i.e. *Social responsibility*, *Administrative achievement* and *Democratic orientation*. In other words, male subordinates have rated their female executives less positively as compared to their female colleagues.

The over all ratings of same and opposite sex subordinates of male and female executives were analyzed by two way ANOVA (tables 14-16) . The results revealed significant gender differences.

Table 17 shows that when executives are rated by subordinates of the same gender there is negligible difference between the mean scores of rating for *Administrative achievement* and *Democratic orientation* of both male and female administrators. However, female administrators are rated significantly higher than male administrators on *Social responsibility* factor of *Purdue Rating scale*. Moreover, the impact of educational qualification of the executives on the ratings assigned by their subordinates (tables 18-26) reveal insignificant difference between male and female executives. These findings suggest that it is neither educational qualification nor the work proficiency of the executives, which

affect the ratings of the subordinates, but it may be rather the rater's gender, which affects the matter.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to examine the effect of gender stratification in the society of N.W.F.P. Five hypotheses were formulated in this context and are discussed below.

Hypothesis 1: Gender differences in personality characteristics

The results revealed significant differences among personality characteristics of male and female executives (table 9). Male executives have scored higher than female executives on all the scales, except *Well-Being*, of cluster I and III of California Psychological Inventory (CPI). It indicates that by and large male administrators may be characterized as dominant, independent, imaginative, assertive, capable to take initiative, sociable, self-accepting and competent to respond to their environment in a manner designed to achieve their goals. They prove themselves more efficient when left to regulate their own behavior, are achievement-oriented and value creativity and originality. They usually feel restricted within a highly organized environment and their ability to produce and function is significantly impaired if directed to work within prescribed rules and structure. Female administrators, on the other hand, seem to be more comfortable as participants rather than organizers. Despite proven efficiency in high leadership positions they still feel uncomfortable in

such a role and usually demonstrate a democratic and participative style of decision making. They may sometimes appear reckless and impulsive and likely to adhere to the beliefs of others. Rigid in their outlook, they often feel others should conform to set, predefined standards of behavior. Though they can adequately cope with their problems, yet they are prone to feelings of insecurity and depression. They prefer conformity and conventionality which demonstrates an implicit desire to make their work environment safer and more predictable.

It is further revealed that on cluster II and IV of CPI female executives have earned higher scores than the male executives suggesting that female administrators are likely to be more dependable and honour their commitments and can give up their own personal satisfactions for the sake of the group to which they belong. They are capable to create good impression and people perceive them as trusting and highly concerned to fulfill their social responsibilities. They often show tolerance, adaptability, generosity and helpfulness.

Our data further reveals that male executives, as compared to females appear to be conscientious, independent and reasonable. Generally, they are not comfortable in taking responsibility for the behavior of others, are hasty in making decisions and are usually individualistic and self-seeking. Their impulsiveness may sometimes cause tension in group activities, and they often regret having acted in

inappropriate ways. They may be described as confident, independent, aggressive and ambitious.

These findings suggest the likelihood of the influence of culture, which offers totally different socialization processes for men and women, in general. Males are socially extraverted and feel relatively comfortable in most social situations. From the very beginning of their lives, they are accepted as ones who will deal with the world outside of their homes, and so are encouraged to participate in the social activities. They are allowed to be the master of their own fate and are trained as leaders rather than followers. They are assertive, aggressive and forceful because they are brought up with the ambition of fulfilling all their desires (right or wrong) and are honoured and pampered by their parents and other family members. They are confident and grow up with the sense of aristocracy and feel superior. Men have generally been raised to be achievement oriented, while women have been raised to be people oriented and to play the traditional homemaker role. A woman has always been expected to develop a capacity for warmth, compassion, sensitivity and caring.

Tung (1996) reported that females are significantly higher than males on fear of success and fear of appearing incompetent motives. He further argued that it is the fear of a number of things which restrain them from the achievement situations reflecting upon the socialization practices commonly used with females in India . They have

always been considered to be more incompetent than males despite their competencies. Thus to avoid situations which would in some way reflect their incompetence, they tend to avoid all achievement situations. One would be congruent with Tung's report of different social expectation for men and women persisting in Pakistan (N.W.F.P).

Darley and Fazio (1980) illustrate how the behavior is generally influenced through a self fulfilling prophecy, or the tendency to behave in a way that confirms other people's expectations. They further explain that if people expect a little girl to be quiet, passive and gentle, she may come to act that way. Perhaps in no area does sex-role typing play a more important part than in self-evaluation. Children evaluate themselves in terms of what they believe significant people in their lives think of them. When parents, teachers, or peers regard girls as inferior to boys and the roles and achievements of girls as less important than those of boys, then boys tend to overestimate themselves while girls tend to underestimate themselves. These tendencies lay the foundations for *masculine superiority complexes* and *feminine inferiority complexes*.

In the world of work Deaux (1976) argues, expectations of others influence self-perceptions of people regarding their own success or failure. Studies have shown the tendency of people to attribute men's and women's success to different factors. Feldman et al (1974) asked people to read the life history of a male and female physician and describe the main contributing factors in their success. The researchers

found differences in the relationships between sex of the subject and their description of contributing factors in success of the male and female physicians. However, both sexes thought that *effort* was substantially more important than *ability* in explaining the success of the female physician. In contrast, both sexes thought that *effort* and *ability* were almost equally important in explaining the success of the male physician.

Yarkin et al (1982) extended the attribution research and found that people avoid an ability explanation whenever they are explaining the success of a group that is commonly believed to be inferior. In their research, students read about a highly successful banker who was either male or female, black or white, and were asked to judge the importance of four factors, viz, *ability*, *effort*, *task difficulty* and *luck* in determining the banker's success. Responses were similar when judgments were made about the white female, black male, and black female; *effort* and *luck* were judged to be important contributing factors. In contrast, the white male's success was explained by his *high ability*.

Similarly, the unsuccessful performance of women and men are explained in terms of sex-differentiating attributions. Numerous studies, (Brown and Ethaugh, 1975; Feather and Simon, 1975; Cash, 1977; Deaux, 1979; Gitelson, 1982; Eccles and Stipek, 1984) have demonstrated that women's lack of ability emerges as a popular explanation, whereas people rarely mention men's lack of ability as an explanation for an unsuccessful performance and attribute *bad luck* or *task*

difficulty for it. Nicholls (1975) reported that neither of these attributions for successful and unsuccessful performances gives credit to an internal, stable factor that might make women feel positive about themselves. When women's success will be attributed to '*ability*' they will take credit for this success (because it is internal), and they will also count on their ability to continue on other tasks in the future (because it is stable), when women down play their ability following success, it seems likely that self-confidence will be reduced.

Another possible explanation can be in terms of the availability of opportunities to each sex. Men have often more opportunities than women to develop their talents and to acquire special skills and knowledge. If a family has only enough income to send one child to college, in all likelihood it will be the son. Girls are raised within the four walls of their homes and as they scarcely go out so their exposure to external world is very little. They are willing to change and adapt their lives to a certain extent in their attempts to achieve status, but have definite sense of awkwardness in social situations. They have marked lack of confidence in their social skills and as a result they act in self-defeating ways, frequently perceive themselves as underachievers and are withdrawn.

To sum up, the findings of the present study too demonstrate marked differences in the personality characteristics of male and female executives highlighting male as dominant, ambitious, out-

going, aggressive and female as intelligent, creative, tolerant and responsible, and so our first hypothesis is confirmed.

Hypothesis 2: Effect of professional similarity/ dissimilarity of executives with their parents on personality traits

As the social or cultural influence is the basic reality of society which directs or persuades the attitude and behavior of the people so do the primary group which is a universal human relationship. Merrill (1983) stated that in all societies, the individual comes in contact with primary group earliest, and it exerts the most powerful influence on him. The result (table 10) confirmed the view that the executives, both male and female who have joined the profession of their parents have the characteristics most commonly attributed to the model of executives prevalent in the N.W.F.P culture. Executives who belonged to this group are comparatively more domineering and assertive in the way that they are clear and direct in expressing their needs; aggressive and more forceful in the manner that they would take charge of a situation and can effectively do so since they have excellent abilities to plan and are self-confident when directing others. They strive to achieve status in society and are seeking to achieve status, which is defined by Gough (1969) as equal to the "relative level of income, education, prestige, and power attained in social cultural milieu" by willing to go through a fairly high degree of discomfort and personal change in order to achieve their goals.

Jung (1954) stated that the psychic birth of most persons occurs within the setting and atmosphere of the family. Early patterns of feelings and emotions toward various dimensions of reality largely determine later attempts at self-direction and search for identity and status in life. Children who grow with watching one or both of his/her parent in executive position try to adapt their behavior through imitation and identification. Craig (1979) stated that the parent's behavior affects the child's behavior in at least three ways. First the parents serve as model for the child to identify with and imitate. Second, most parents have specific expectations about the way they want their children to respond and behave. Finally, parents control the rewards and discipline the child receives. Bandura et al (1963) demonstrated that studies involving a relatively powerful adult, a relatively powerless adult, and a child reveal that the child is more likely to imitate the powerful adult. Miller (1975) found that among kindergarten girls, working mother's daughters had less traditional role concepts than the daughters of housewives; they more often aspired to be just like their mothers than did their class-mates; and they tended to be generally more aggressive and resourceful.

The present data reveals that, the executives of group I seem to be socially outgoing and comfortable in large groups of people(table-10). In their relationships with others, they emphasize cooperation rather than manipulation and are likely to be kind, appreciative, patient, cautious and are concerned with proper etiquette.

The *internal-external* personality metaphor has been given considerable attention by Rotter (1954, 1966) and Lefcourt (1966, 1972). Introverts are more resistant to social influence, less conforming, and more independent than are extroverts. Extroverts are more likely to utilize available information in the situation that is relevant to their decisions and goals. In an experimental study by Seeman and Evans (1962) *externals* used previously learned information to a greater extent than did *internals* when they were both called upon to make decisions where incorporation of that prior knowledge would be advantageous. Among tuberculosis patients (matched for hospital experience and socioeconomic class), *internals* possessed more objective information about their illness than did *externals*.

Other personality characteristics such as self-control and tolerance are learned social behaviors. According to Bandura (1969) nurturance, or affectionate care and attention are learned similarly as aggression is learned in a family. Children tend to imitate the warm, rewarding, affectionate model instead of the cold, punitive, distant one. Bandura and Walters (1959) found that parents who physically punish a child for aggression are modeling and fostering the very behavior they are trying to eliminate. Parents do foster aggression in other ways, for example, by telling their son to "be a man", always fight back and use his fists, parents are explicitly training and encouraging him to be aggressive

toward other people. Such parents not only condone aggressive behavior; they demand and reward it.

Achievement motive among group I and group II executives (table 10) also differs to some extent in the way that both groups of male executives are able to achieve on their own self-direction but at times they still need external verification in order to feel comfortable. Women executives are similar to male executives in this respect but they only differ in the degree of intensity. Group II of female executives are more creative, insightful, foresighted, logical and versatile than group I of female administrators. Generally, male executives are task oriented, practical and emotionally self-sufficient with few dependency needs. Female executives are generally practical and self-sufficient but not to an exaggerated extent, they can deal effectively in autonomy and have an average need for dependency and affiliation. According to McClelland (1955), De Charms and Moeller (1962) within any given society at any time, some groups consider achievement motivation to be more important than other groups do. Numerous investigators have outlined the personality differences between high achieving and low-achieving persons. The high-achieving person is academically oriented, is independent yet compliant with authority, has high self-esteem, can delay gratification of wishes, and has a relatively high, yet well controlled level of anxiety (Sontag, et al, 1958; Taylor, 1964). Parents play a significant role in the development of these

characteristics in a child. Generally, the parents of high-achieving students have lofty expectations and standards for their children. They tend to be more involved with their children than are parents of low achievers and they demonstrate warmth and approval when their children are successful. However, when their children are not achieving, the parents are often rejecting and hostile. Parents of high-achievers also appear to be more competitive themselves. They are often described by their children as being overprotective and pushing for success (Haggard 1957; Rosen and Andrade, 1959).

Atkinson and Feather (1966) described two kinds of achievement motive, viz., the drive to succeed and the drive to avoid failure. The two kinds of drives resulted in somewhat different patterns. The fear of failure, for instance, involves much more anxiety and often underlies the choosing of either very easy tasks or tasks that are so difficult that no one could be expected to succeed in them. This kind of motivation tends to result in high success on rote memory task, on speed of performance in familiar tasks, and on single solution, convergent-thinking types problems. By contrast, the more positive drive toward success, because it entails less anxiety, tends to allow for more creativity, more productive thinking, more expansive original solutions, and higher performance on certain kinds of intellectual tasks.

The last three scales, measuring the intellectual and interest modes of CPI, reveal quite different pattern of development in

group I and group II executives (table 10). Male executives of group II appear significantly better than the executives comprising group I on *Py*, *Psychological mindedness*. So group II of male administrators are more capable of figuring other people out, i.e., to accurately perceive the inner needs and motives of other, while they are at par with the executives of group I on other two scales, *Flexibility* (Fx) and *Femininity* (Fe). The reason may be their identification with male parental model. Group II of female executives is shown significantly better than female executives of group I on all the three scales, which means that they are more interested in and responsive to the inner needs, motives, and experiences of others; they also display high degree of flexibility in their thinking and social behavior and have more feminine interests. The reason may be one as Pikunas (1972) proposed that the individual's sense of self-identity is largely a result of early identifications with other of his or her sex parents. Mothers of group II executives are either housewives or working on non administrative positions, that is why children influenced by them have the characteristics most commonly attributed as feminine. According to Rosenberg and Smith (1972) a number of studies on adolescents focus on gender-role concepts show that children of employed mothers are less stereotyped.

The aforementioned factors demonstrate that parental occupation does effect the socialization of their children which is revealed

by the personality traits of the individuals included in the present study. These findings confirm our second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: Attitude of executives toward work

The results (table 11) show significant differences among male and female executives in their ability to manage work. Female executives are more work oriented and have less stereotyped attitude towards her role in the workplace. The reason may be the women who have adopted the non-traditional roles in N.W.F.P society are considered to be suffering from masculinity complex which is a repressed desire of a woman to be a man and act out as a male through escape from their traditional feminine role. The discrimination against these women is so strong that they have to work almost twice as hard as men to prove their worth and to be taken seriously. Khan (1988), reported that the working women of NWFP, urban population, are more satisfied with the work they are doing outside home and express a sense of fulfillment and satisfaction on making positive contribution to the society. The findings thus confirm our third hypothesis, viz.; female executives will have less stereotyped attitude towards work-management than the male executives.

Hypotheses 4 and 5: Male and female executives rated by their subordinates

The results (table 12 and 13) indicate significant differences in the ratings for male and female executives by their same and opposite sex raters. Male executives are rated higher on all the scales of Purdue Rating Scale by their female subordinates while female executives are rated lower by their male subordinates on all scales of Purdue Rating Scale. In view of the present author, if discrimination begins early enough and is consistently applied in many spheres of a person's life, then that is the only social reality available on which to base one's self-identity and from which to derive a sense of self-worth. Many studies have documented the general acceptance by women of the stereotype of inferiority. Goldberg (1968) demonstrated that six articles on subjects ranging from education to law were read by college women. Nothing was said about the authorship of the articles, but for each subject half the articles were supposedly by a male author and half by a female author. The articles were consistently rated as more authoritative and more interestingly written when attributed to male authors than when attributed to female authors. Crandall (1969) studied groups consisting of male and female subjects of three age groups (7-12 years, 12-18 years, and 18-26 years), and showed that females consistently had lower expectations of their task achievement and academic success than did their matched male counterparts. Perceived differences between men

and women are consistently unfavorable to women. In a study of 884 managers and administrators of both sexes (Rosen & Jerdee, 1978), women were seen less favorably in terms of knowledge, aptitude, skills, motivation, interests and temperament demanded in most managerial jobs.

One can say, the social attitude that preserve and justify the status quo, are the more abstract means of controlling thoughts. The attitude concerning women's competence and commitment to work continue to influence employment decisions and has also adverse effects on the prospects of their promotions. Government is also playing partial role in this regard. According to facts and figures collected by Khaliq (1990) from different government departments, there are 2189 seats for college teachers in N.W.F.P. Out of which 1781 seats are for male teachers and only 408 seats are for female teachers. Grade-wise classification of these seats show that for grade 17, the seats allotted to male teachers are 1260 and only 289 seats are allocated for female teachers. In grade 18 there are 445 seats for male teachers and 102 posts are for female teachers. Again, in grade 19 male/female seats are 74 and 17, respectively. In grade 20 there are 2 seats for male teachers and not a single seat is for a female teacher. Same is the condition of women in the profession of medicine, where there are 2730 posts for doctors on the whole, out of which 2387 seats are for male doctors and only 343 seats are for female doctors. To elaborate, in grade 17 there are

1786 seats for male doctors and 265 seats for lady doctors, in grade 18 the seats limit for male and female doctors are 527 and 65, respectively. In grade 19 the seats for male doctors are 67 and 13 seats are for female doctors. Again, no post is for a lady doctor in grade 20 and 7 seats are for male doctors in the same grade. So, women of N.W.F.P is not only constrained by the social taboos to work out side of their home but the discriminatory attitude of the government also restrains the opportunities for making use of their talents.

As shown in tables 17-26, there is a negligible difference between the ratings for the administrators by their same sex subordinates. The only difference appears (table 17) where female administrators are rated higher by their female subordinates on the social responsibility scale, than male administrators rated by their male subordinates. It may be because women are generally perceived to be gentle and sensitive to others. Statistical analysis clearly depicts (tables 18-26) that educational qualification of the executives yielded no difference in the ratings of the raters which consistently confirm that the only influencing factor is the gender of the rater and the one to be rated. The perceived gender discrimination in evaluating the performance of administrators leads to the conclusion that it may be due to the very few prevailing co-working situations in N.W.F.P. Men and women are not fully aware of each other's capacities so their judgement would depend less on their actual experiences with one another, and more on their

stereotypes. It is expected that a better change may occur with the passage of time when more competent women will come forward to work with the male citizens of N.W.F.P, for the national progress. Men and women in the same profession may differ with respect to some characteristics, such as in their level of self-confidence and achievement motive but certainly the differences exist within the people of each sex, too. It may be realized that the biases involved in the sex-role stereotypes might be damaging for proper utilization of human resources. Human abilities can not be properly actualized without removing psychological barriers causing discrimination among sexes. Besides, the improvement in literacy rate of the population will increase acceptance of female talent and capabilities. The findings thus support our fourth and fifth hypotheses, which state, "Female subordinates will rate the male executives more positively as compared to male subordinates" and "Male executives will rate the female executives less positively as compared to female subordinates".

To conclude, the results of the present research study have confirmed all of the five hypotheses.

CHAPTER V

Some general conclusions and suggestions

The main purpose of the present study was to find out significant gender differences between personality characteristics of male and female executives of N.W.F.P and to ascertain if parental occupation does act as an influencing agent in the personality traits of the executives. The effect of gender stratification in the society of N.W.F.P was further studied by evaluations of these executives by their subordinates.

Following are the main findings of the present research.

- a. Male executives excel in the personality traits related to interpersonal effectiveness, intellectual stance and achievement ability than female executives.
- b. Female executives surpassed male executives in the attributes associated with intrapersonal controls, value styles, beliefs and conceptual interests.
- c. Professional likeness among parents and children have contributed positively in the development of leadership qualities essential for administrative and supervisory abilities, whereas professional

dissimilarity among parents and offsprings provoke qualities required for socially charismatic, persuasive and popular personalities.

- d. Female executives are more liberal than male executives in their attitude related to work management.
- e. Female subordinates have rated their male boss as a more effective administrator whereas male subordinates have rated their female boss more negatively.

On the basis of above findings, the following suggestions are offered for improvement of general condition of our society.

- a) The existing situation demands that attitude of the society towards women must be changed. Efforts should be made to modify sex stereotypes, which result in negative attitudes towards women and their capabilities especially as leaders/executives.
- b) As a corollary to above one, programs may be managed to modify the prevalent attitude and beliefs of masses about the appropriate role and worth of a female.

- c) Women should get opportunity of self-understanding to strive for self-actualization. She must be encouraged to get training in any field in which she has interest and aptitude and can make a contribution toward the national development.
- d) Day care centres may be established for children of working mothers to provide them optimal work environment.
- e) The prevalent social norms of our society that identify house hold chores as the sole responsibility of women needs to be changed.
- f) The government must ensure that women are accorded with their rightful place in society and given the respect, care, and opportunities provided by the constitution of Pakistan as well as our religion. The centuries old belief system of negative attitude towards female child must be changed by taking some practical steps, e.g., abolishing the dowry system to reduce the financial burden and replacing it with the women's legal share in father's property. Similarly , Islamic system of prompt dowry (Mahr) in accordance with the financial status of the husband need to be established legally and socially while the deferred dowry may be left on the mutual acceptance of both parties.

g) The inclusion of housewives in a similar study would extend knowledge regarding gender traits in terms of women working inside and outside of their houses.

h) Other predictor variables, e.g., individual's I.Q, achievement motive, birth order, attitude towards job, fear of success may be included in the future research.

APPLIED SIGNIFICANCE

Times have changed The world has dramatically altered. We constantly experience pressures of sorts: of a changing international scenario, new economic challenges, rising expectations and population explosion of alarming proportions. To respond to the crisis, one must be sincere and consciously aware of the role and duties to be paid. It would be hard to deny that the gap between the developed and the developing countries could be bridged, among other things, by according due recognition to the role of women in society. The World Bank recognizes the significance of the gender issue and has allocated large resources to give women a better and stronger position in their families and societies. Researches unambiguously show that gender inequalities slow economic growth and lead to further social deterioration in the poorest countries in the world. Governments can not claim economic growth and poverty reduction as their objectives, while ignoring roughly half of their population.

Poverty reduction begins at ground zero, in each single household, with the upgrading of the social status of the women in the family, village and community and a better understanding of her crucial role for the well-being of the entire society. The woman thus has to be more than a mere decorative appendage at home. We need not tread the

same course of western society. We must evolve our own work culture by steadfastly clinging to age-old values. But in the process, we need to nurse no inhibitions in conceding that, off the beach and way from the pub, the western women today is more productive work-wise. Her zest for work is to be envied, her permissiveness censured.

Like some men, not all, some women too are gifted by God in some way or other. Surely, we can ill afford to waste fifty percent of human ingenuity at time when technological innovation and economic growth are determined more by the quality of human resources rather than by natural resources or capital or unskilled labor.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

Name..... Age..... Sex.....

Occupation..... Parent's Occupation (Father).....

(Mother).....

BPS..... Posted at.....

ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS:

Division/Grade

Any Distinction

Matriculation

Intermediate
(F.A.F.Sc)

Bachelor
(B.A/B.Sc)

Master
(M.A/M.Sc)

Any other;

APPENDIX B

WORK MANAGEMENT SCALE

FOR

EXECUTIVES

Raw Scores.....

PLEASE READ THE INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY BEFORE ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS:

INSTRUCTIONS

The questionnaire consists on a number of simple questions, related to the nature of your job and its environment. This is not a test for your judgement but we want to get information for our own sake, so work quickly and give the first answer that comes to your mind. It is necessary that you should finish this entire questionnaire quickly. To do so, you cannot spend much time on any one question, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Following is a sample sentence:

1. MY PARENTS _____ ENCOURAGE ME A U S R N

For each question decide which *ONE* of the following words:

"Always, Usually, Sometime, Rarely, or Never". Should be put in the place of the blank to make the sentence most correct for you. Then circle the letter on the right that stands for the word you have chosen.

"A" stands for Always "S" stands for Sometimes.

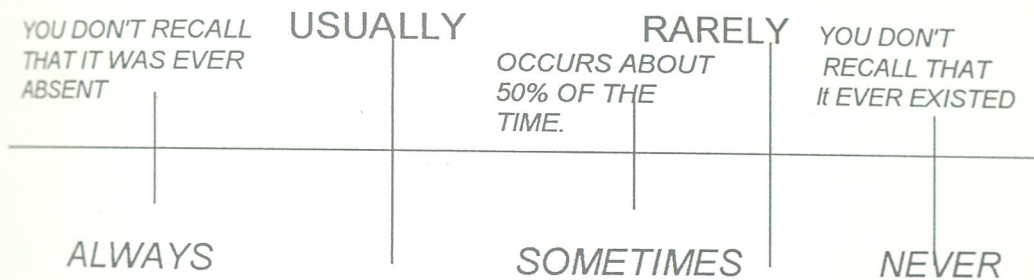
"U" stands for Usually "R" stands for Rarely.

"N" stands for Never.

Thus, if you believe that your parents "ALWAYS" encourage you, you should put a circle around the "A" on the right of the question in the following manner.

1. My parents.....encourage me. **(A)** U S R N

In selecting your answer, consider the five options as if they were points on the same straight line, thus:



Note that the word "Never" is not on the exact end of the line. That is because we do not mean by the word "Never" that it is impossible for the condition to exist: we are interested in what *you remember quickly* at this moment-----not in whether the sentences are possible or impossible. Use "Never" *where you do not think quickly* of any time when the condition existed.

Note, too, that the word "Always" is also not on the exact end of the line. Use "Always" *where you do not think quickly* of any time when the condition did NOT exist.

Use "Sometimes" where the condition occurs about 50 percent of the time. If it occurs much more or less than 50 per cent of the time, use "Usually" or "Rarely", as the case may be.

"A" ALWAYS, "U" USUALLY, "S" SOMETIMES,
 "R" RARELY, "N" NEVER.

		<u>SCORE</u>
1.	My Staff _____ cooperates with me..... AU S R N	
2.	I am _____ satisfied with my job..... AU S R N	
3.	I feel that it is _____ hard to get work done out of people other than my own sex..... AU S R N	
4.	I _____ wish to be at a job other than this one..... AU S R N	
5.	I _____ feel myself incapable for this job..... AU S R N	
6.	I _____ agree with the statement that females are less intelligent than males..... AU S R N	
7.	Societies _____ flourish if both men and women follow their own traditional roles of breadwinner and housewives..... AU S R N	
8.	I _____ feel threatened to think about others who may surpass me in their achievements..... AU S R N	

SCORES

- 9 I _____ find myself willing to take over a heavy load of extra work for the sake of a good chance..... A U S R N
- 10 I _____ feel bad on hearing the people's opinion which I don't want to approve..... A U S R N
- 11 One may _____ be allowed to take decisions for him/herself.....A U S R N
- 12 When a situation demands a serious choice to make, I _____ find it hard to come up with a clear-cut decision.....A U S R N
13. When it is settled well in advance about doing a certain work at a certain time I _____ feel it unpleasant to be tied down..... A U S R N
- 14 I _____ think I am more interested in work than the average person.....A U S R N
15. When I have decided upon a course of action, I _____ reconsider it if someone points out any weakness in it..... A U S R N

SCORES

16. When I have a suggestion that ought to be made at a meeting, I _____ stand up and make it as a matter of course.....A U S R N
17. I _____ think my friends hesitate in giving me open suggestions.....A U S R N
18. It is _____ seen that a woman who follows a career can seldom expect to have a satisfactory home life.....A U S R N
19. When I have a special job to do, I _____ organize it carefully before going to start.....A U S R N
20. I _____ feel good about the people whom I know personally owe their successes more to ability and hard work.....A U S R N
21. I _____ agree that men and women are basically different in their make up and suited to fill different roles.....A U S R N
22. In making plans which concern other people, I _____ prefer to keep them in dark until the last possible moment.....A U S R N

SCORES

23. In the ordinary emergencies of everyday life,
I _____ prefer to take orders and be helpful
than to give orders and be responsible.... A U S R N
24. On most matters, I _____ like to keep an
open mind..... A U S R N
25. Except for physical strength, I _____ think
that anything a man can do woman
can do equally well..... A U S R N
26. On most matters, I _____ have a pretty definite
opinion..... A U S R N
27. When an attractive chance for leadership comes
to me, I would _____ let it slip..... A U S R N
28. In solving an official problem, I _____ feel
that nobody else is in as a good position
to judge as I am..... A U S R N
29. I _____ feel that woman's place is the
home..... A U S R N
30. I _____ admit my faults..... A U S R N

SCORES

21. I _____ put myself as an excellent
administrator..... A U S R N

22. I _____ consider myself as an excellent
family member..... A U S R N

--

APPENDIX C

PURUDE RATING SCALE FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND EXECUTIVES.

Instructions: Among the five categories (Always, Usually, Sometimes, Seldom, Never) choose a box, most appropriate to your own opinion for the statement about the person in question and put a (✓) mark.

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

1. Possesses general 1
knowledge.
2. Possesses specific 2
knowledge in his
own field.
3. Is emotionally 3
poised and calm.
4. Has adequate self- 4
confidence.
5. Is concerned with 5
own personal problems.
6. Welcomes difference 6
in viewpoint.

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

- | | | |
|-----|--|----|
| 7. | Weirds staff into unit with clearly recognized goals. | 7 |
| 8. | Uses democratic procedures where possible. | 8 |
| 9. | Inspires subordinate to independent creative work. | 9 |
| 10. | Makes plans carefully and adequately. | 10 |
| 11. | Is alert to recognize or devise useful innovations. | 11 |
| 12. | Understands the objectives and interrelationships of his entire staff. | 12 |
| 13. | Does a good job of systematizing and coordinating units of work. | 13 |

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

- | | | |
|-----|--|----|
| 14. | Has knowledge of pertinent details of his subordinates work. | 14 |
| 15. | Employs as capable personnel as possible. | 15 |
| 16. | Selects equipment wisely. | 16 |
| 17. | Makes effective effort to obtain funds for self-improvement of subordinates. | 17 |
| 18. | Works hard. | 18 |
| 19. | Welcomes additional responsibilities. | 19 |
| 20. | Meets emergencies in his work competently. | 20 |

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

21. Conducts his work 21
as expeditiously
as possible.
22. The essential work 22
of his organization
gets done on time.
23. The important work 23
of his organization
is done.
24. Compliments and 24
thanks his sub-
ordinates approp-
riately and sincerely.
25. Is available to 25
counsel and assist
his subordinates.
26. Recognizes and 26
rewards meritorious
achievement of his
subordinates.

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

27. Possesses insight 27
into the problems
encountered by his
subordinates.
28. Is honest and de- 28
pendable in dealings
with subordinates.
29. Displays unwarranted 29
favoritism to some
subordinates.
30. Appropriates ideas 30
and work of subordi-
nates to improve his
own standing.
31. Does everything 31
possible, consistent
with a subordinates's
ability to advance him.
32. Is just and consid- 32
erate in discharging
subordinates.
33. The general morale 33
of his staff.

Always Usually Sometimes Seldom Never

34. Promotes public relations. 34
35. Attempts to orient his work to the welfare of society at large. 35
36. Team work: conforms to the purposes and plans of the organization which he serves. 36

APPENDIX D

LIST OF ITEMS RELATED TO FACTORS OF
PURDUE RATING SCALEFACTOR 1: SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY / FAIRNESS TO
SUBORDINATES

ITEM NO

3. Is emotionally poised and calm.
6. Welcomes differences in viewpoint.
8. Uses democratic procedures where possible.
15. Employs as capable personnel as possible.
17. Makes effective effort to obtain funds for self-improvement
of subordinates.
24. Compliments and thanks his subordinates appropriately
and sincerely.
26. Recognizes and rewards meritorious achievement of his
subordinates.
28. Is honest and dependable in dealings with subordinates.
29. Displays unwarranted favouritism to some subordinates.
32. Is just and considerate in discharging subordinates.
33. The general morale of his staff.

34. Promotes public relations.

35. Attempts to orient his work to the welfare of society at large.

FACTOR 2: ADMINISTRATIVE ACHIEVEMENT

ITEM NO

1. Possesses general knowledge.

2. Possesses specific knowledge in his own field.

4. Has adequate self-confidence.

7. Welds staff into unit with clearly recognized goals.

9. Inspires subordinates to independent creative work.

10. Makes plans carefully and adequately.

11. Is alert to recognize or devise useful innovations.

12. Understands the objectives and interrelationships of his entire staff.

13. Does a good job of systematizing and coordinating units of work.

14. Has knowledge of pertinent details of his subordinates work

16. Selects equipment wisely.

18. Works hard.

19. Welcomes additional responsibilities.

20. Meets emergencies in his work competently.

21. Conducts his work as expeditiously as possible.

22. The essential work of his organization gets done on time.

23. The important work of his organization is done.

27. Possesses insight into the problems encountered by his subordinates.

FACTOR 3: DEMOCRATIC ORIENTATION

ITEM NO:

5. Is concerned with own personal problems.

25. Is available to counsel and assist his subordinates.

30. Appropriate ideas and work of subordinates to improve his own standing.

31. Does everything possible, consistent with a subordinates ability to advance him.

36. Teamwork conforms to the purposes and plans of the organization, which he serves.

APPENDIX E

A BRIEF VIEW OF THE NWFP - PAKISTAN

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan divided into four provinces, namely, NorthWest Frontier Province (N.W.F.P), Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan.

North West Frontier Province (N.W.F.P) lies between $31-4^{\circ}$ and $36-57^{\circ}$ N. $69-16^{\circ}$ and $74-7^{\circ}$ E. Its extreme length between these parallels is 408 miles, and its extreme breadth between these meridians 279 miles. The approximate area is 38, 665 square miles.

As its name denotes, the province is situated on the north-west frontier of the Indian Empire. On the north it is shut off from the Pamirs by the mountains of the Hindu Kush. To the south it is bounded by Balochistan and the Dera Ghazi Khan District of the Punjab; on the east by Punjab and Kashmir, on the west by Afghanistan.

The province is divided in to five zones comprising the areas listed below.

- Zone 1 Agencies of Bajour, Mohmand, Khyber Kurram, Orakzai,
North Waziristan, South Waziristan and Frontier Regions

attached to the districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan.

- Zone 2: Districts of Peshawar and Mardan.
- Zone 3: Districts of Swat, Dir, Chitral and Malakand Areas and backward areas of Hazara Division, i.e (1) Itaq upper Tanawal composed of Darband Area of Tehsil Haripur and Shergarh areas of district Mansehra and (2) Merged areas composed of Battagram including Hill Nilshang and Taakot, Allai kohistan, kaya khabbal and Gadoon Area.
- Zone 4: District of Dera Ismail Khan, Bannu, Kohat and Karak.
- Zone 5: Hazara Division excluding its backward areas including in zone 3.

Historical Summary

Gandhara, "the garden land", first appears in history as part of the Arochosian Satrapy of the persian empire of Darius Hystaspes in the Sixth century before Christ. It included the modern districts of Peshawar and Mardan, part of Kohat, the Mohmand Agency, Swat,

Bajour, and Buner. Its capital was at different times at Purushapura (Peshawar) and Pushkalavati (few miles north of Peshawar).

The Province's Population

The N.W.F.P is invariably thought of as the land of Pakhtuns, from which follows the proposition that politics in the area were the singular expression of that ethnic group. These assumption are accurate for the tribal area, but the province did not have a homogeneous population. According to the latest, fourth, decennial population census of Pakistan conducted in March 1981, the population of N.W.F.P is 11,061000, which is 13.1% of the total population of Pakistan.

The 99.48% population of the province is Muslim. The mother tongue of 68.3% is Pushto language, 18.1% speak Hindko, 4.0% speak Siraki and less than 1% speak Urdu but majority of them understand Urdu. English is also spoken among literate of them.

The literacy ratio for Pakistan in 1981 was 26.2% for those who are 10 years and above. For NWFP, literacy ratio was 16.7% is much higher in males, i.e, 25.9% comparing with females, i.e., 6.5%. There are 3.1% graduates, 1.26% postgraduates, 0.3% engineers, 0.2% MBBS/ BDS doctors, 0.87% diploma holders, 5.62% intermediates, 22.89% matriculates, 26.92% middle and 28.42% are of primary level.

The labour force of the NWFP is 74%. Un-employment rate is 2.2% out of which 2% for males 6.5% for females. 60% of the labour force belongs to agricultural, animal husbandry, forestry, fisheries, and

hunting. 18% are from production, transport, equipment operators, and labourers, while 0.55% administrative and managerial workers.

Social Life of people

The Pathans have dominated the Frontier since they first moved into the area. However, some non-Pathans have managed to maintain separate identity. The principal impression, which emerges, is that Pathan is above all an individualist, despite the rigid behavior standards prescribed by clan membership. Nonetheless, there are important traditional and social factors which guide community life and in many cases influence or determine the actions of individuals. These mores vary considerably in different parts of the province, and codification of them is virtually impossible. However, certain of them are almost universal, and a child of seven or eight years has knowledge and understanding of these whether he belongs to the rural or urban area settled or unsettled area.

Pathans commonly encapsulate what differentiates them from others by referring to their system of values—Pakhtunwali. Historians have explained "Pakhtunwali" as a code of honor or chivalry, reducing it to the injunctions of "badal" (revenge), "meimastia" (hospitality), and nanawati (mediation). These are only the most striking of its prescriptions. Pakhtunwali is an all embracing social code which embodies the Pakhtuns customary laws, defines their ideals of conduct,

and provides a normative yardstick for determining if an individual has the one attribute they most highly prize or honor.

The significance of Pakhtunwali stemmed originally from the 'stateless' nature of the Pakhtun society. In the absence of the formal government, Pakhtunwali assumed critical importance as an unwritten mechanism for regulating social behavior. It provided a relatively uniform ethos for the entire ethnic group and a set of norms which each of its members internalized as guides for his individual behavior. Even after the British gave the NWFP an elaborate legal system, Pakhtunwali still retained a vital role in the Pakhtun's lives as a measure of whether a person was acting like a true Pakhtun.

The Pathans way of life is also governed by rawaj (customary law) and "shariat", (Muslim law). Rawaj is more in use than the shariat and is generally preferred. Marriage and inheritance provisions are still much influenced by rawaj. For example, presumption of marriage exists only if there is a presumption of the required contract - i.e. no common law marriage is recognized. The Islamic doctrine of equality of inheritance of all sons is modified by recognition of the special right of the eldest who, alongwith at least tentatively inheriting his father's community responsibilities, also inherits a slightly greater share of his property. According to rawaj, a daughter does not inherit any thing, although any interest she may have in immovable property by virtue of gift or dower can not be alienated.

One of the most extreme divergences from the shariat, noted by an early British writer, Lumsden, B.H, who describes it as common among the Yusufzai, was the division of the inheritance into equal parts for the descendants of each wife rather than merely equal parts for each son.

The Hujra

The hujra or community center, represents a gentler and more sociable side of the Pathan character. It exists in practically every village in both the settled area and in tribal territory, and is considered a mark of civilization and prestige. Traditionally used as a male social center, it also houses visitors and serves as a focus for community action and opinion. It exercises executive, judicial, and legislative functions, and yet frequently acts as an instrument for arbitration or conciliation.

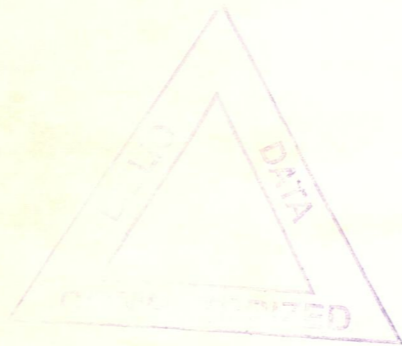
The Role of Women

Women of the area, especially Pathans, take no part in social or public affairs. In the tribal area, all of the women of the malik's family and other families who make claim to social distinction observe purdah, the veil. In some cases, this may take the extreme form "four wall" purdah under which the woman never leaves her own house----- even for visits to female friends or relatives. This does not mean that the

women of upper class families have no say in their lives. Intelligent and aggressive within the limits prescribed by custom, these women direct the substantial domestic affairs of their men and play a major part in arranging marriages and family alliances. The women also provide the practical means of implementing the demands of "meimastia" (hospitality), so important a part of Pukhtunwali. The women are as fanatically devoted to Pukhtunwali as their men, and are frequently an important factor in urging the obligations of "badal" (revenge) on their lazy or reluctant males.

The wives of the ordinary tribesmen do most of the work, cooking, washing and sewing, etc.

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Woman
~~Discrimination~~

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