

LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: IS THERE A GENDER DIFFERENCE?

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Abstract: This study examines a public sector organisation to determine whether there are organisational behavioural differences between men and women that directly encourage inequality in the workplace, where men essentially are regarded as the leaders in their organisations.

The results suggest that there is significant gender difference in favour of men based on job grade; salary; organisation tenure; age group; and family life cycle status. However, the difference regarding job tenure is very low. The findings show very little or no gender differences in the main organisational performance indicators, such as the level of organisation commitment (OC), employee-leader relations (using goal path theory), and public service motivation (PSM), suggesting that there is no justification for having a disproportionate number of men at senior management level. The findings suggest that the problem may not be the intentional discrimination against women, but: (a) changing cultural attitudes where women are viewed as having the role essentially to care for family members and men seen as the bread winners; and (b) the transformation of existing mechanisms and structures that create disadvantages for women into gender neutral systems.

The study concludes by supporting the view that there is a need for a renewed commitment to organisational productivity based on developing employees as leaders irrespective of their gender, where the focus is on individual capacities. Public service organisations need to develop a HRM approach that emphasises valuing and developing all people and valuing diversity, with the aim of promoting equality that is linked to the achievement of organisational goals.

INTRODUCTION

Data on the gender composition of administrative positions persistently demonstrate that women are under represented at senior management level, with men occupying a disproportionately higher number of positions in both public and private sectors. Furthermore, this phenomenon is not restricted to a few nations but is manifested on a worldwide basis.

In dealing with gender issues, one has to put into perspective men and women as two genetically different types of beings, with both being entitled to equal rights and opportunities. Women have a particular biological uniqueness that at times puts them at a disadvantage leading them to being less involved in decision making activities. Furthermore, many women are provided with tasks at an operational level, performing duties with which they have traditionally become more associated with. On the other hand certain aspects regarding men have to some extent been disregarded, such as their

apparent low ability to cope with emotional problems and the manner this may affect them at their workplace. The reason for this is that traditionally men have not been associated with any weakness or handicap as women have. Research has consistently shown that men climb the hierarchical ladder much more rapidly than women. They do not have to bend over backwards to prove themselves, as is commonly the case with women. The literature indicates that although there are a greater number of women graduates, there are few women at senior management level (including the private sector). Moreover, women often feel compelled to relinquish or interrupt their career for the sake of their family since they are unable to strike the right balance between work and family; whilst men on the other hand do not feel the same level of obligation of striking this balance.

In the past decade or so, gender issues have been given considerable attention, with most of the literature focusing on the question of equal treatment between the women and men. The issue of equal treatment over the past several years has embraced a much broader spectrum moving away from merely the traditional view of pay and equal treatment in the workplace. Concepts such as positive discrimination and gender mainstreaming have provided new approaches of viewing gender equality.

The literature suggests that despite the favourable rhetoric towards gender equality there appears to be forces that act to impede progress in achieving equality for women in organisations. Hence, it is essential to examine whether there are organisational behavioural differences between men and women that may contribute to strengthen the forces that impede progress and thus directly encourage inequality in the workplace. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between gender and various classes of personal and organisational antecedents in a public service organisation, and establish whether there are significant organisational behavioural differences between men and women in the workplace that impede gender equality.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section discusses issues that are central to investigating gender equality in organisations. It begins with a discussion of gender related concepts, then turns to the consideration of gender equality in organisations. Furthermore, it discusses human resource management in the context of leadership and gender equality.

Understanding Gender Related Concepts

Rees (1998) conceives three approaches to gender issues, namely, *equal treatment*, *positive action*, and *mainstreaming*. Basically, Rees (1998) views *equal treatment* as implying that no individual should have fewer human rights or opportunities than any other. This concept has been enshrined in many developed democratic countries by legislation giving women and men equal pay and equal treatment in the workplace. Rees (1998) maintains that the *equal treatment* principal is a fundamental feature in any equal opportunities policy. However, Rees (1998, p32) argues that the equal treatment principal is imperfect because there is a tendency to focus entirely on the prescribed or official legal rights of women as workers without dealing with the basic source of gender inequality in the informal or day-to-day contacts among women and men.

Positive action necessitates the implementation of specific actions on behalf of women, in order to overcome their unequal starting positions in a patriarchal society. Rees (1998, p34) argues that *positive action* shifts the emphasis from equality of access to creating conditions more likely to result in equality of outcome. An extreme form of *positive action* is *positive discrimination* that has the objective of increasing the participation of women through established minimum allocation or quotas. Pollack and Hafner-Burton (2000) maintain that the 1990's experienced an accelerated trend towards the *positive action* approach as a result of three major European Union (EU) policy initiatives, namely: (a) adoption by the EU Commission of a series of Action Programmes leading to pilot projects and exchange of best practices in areas such as child care, political representation of women, and creation of networks of experts and advocates in women's rights issues; (b) reaffirmation of member states' right to adopt positive discrimination schemes under EU law in rulings handed down by the European Court; and (c) adoption of the Maastricht Treaty more specifically, the EU policy on violence against women.

The third approach advocated by Rees (1998) is *gender mainstreaming*. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines *gender mainstreaming* as: "Taking account of gender concerns in all policy, programme, administrative and financial activities, and in organisational procedures, thereby contributing to a profound organisational transformation."

Gender mainstreaming is a very ambitious concept that requires total commitment, expertise and most of all goodwill from all stakeholders. *Gender mainstreaming* does

not focus solely on the issues concerning women but goes on further to promote equality among individuals, be they male or female. It provides administrative tools to strengthen democratic governance and service delivery. It aims to address gender equality: accepting and valuing equally the differences between men and women and the different roles they play in society. *Gender mainstreaming* does not address women in isolation but aims for greater equality between the sexes by bringing a gender equality perspective into everyday policy-making and by complementing the existing traditional gender equality structures.

Gender mainstreaming is the official policy approach to the promotion of gender equality in the European Union, advocating positive action measures and equality legislation. Rees (2003) identifies the following three principles as the basis for *gender mainstreaming* activity: (a) to regard the individual as a whole person; challenging the traditional role of the bread-winner being the male and the female's participation in the workforce to be minimal. To regard the individual as a whole means to move away from stereotypes, thus recognising the importance of the work-life balance; (b) Democracy and participation. This principal encourages civic participation in the decision-making processes, involving training in corporate governance, capacity building and allocating resources on the basis of need rather than on historical patterns. This principal aims at creating a culture of equal participation for women and men; and (c) Fairness, justice and equity. The third set of principles act as the social justice driver of mainstreaming, emphasising transparency, gender balance in decision making, equal outcomes and opportunities; thus creating an environment that leads to better governance.

Rees (2003) argues that when applying *gender mainstreaming* practices, one should take into consideration a wider view to promote equality, not just the ability of each individual to perform the task assigned to them. Furthermore, *gender mainstreaming* incorporates a gender equality perspective into mainstream policies as they are developed, ensuring equal opportunities for all.

Gender Equality in Organisations

Public sector studies literature (Naff, 1994; Guy, 1992) illustrates that despite the fact that progress has been made in promoting gender equality in the workplace the progress registered has not been significant. Hale (1996) notes that those opposing gender equality at the workplace claim that the concern for gender inequity undermines the principle of merit and that it violates the social order in undesirable ways.

Furthermore, Hale (1996) identified seven major reasons for the lack of substantial progress being made in gender equality at the workplace: (a) differing perceptions of the problem. Hale (1996) argues that despite overwhelming evidence that gender imbalance is entrenched in organisations, many men persist to view organisations, bureaucracy, and leadership hierarchical structures as being gender neutral phenomena; (b) opposition of men who do not want to treat women as equals in the workplace. These men believe that women are less suited for roles that require leadership; (c) the private-public dichotomy. This is the belief that men and women should be of equal rank in the family domain (the private sphere), but they should be of different rank on the job (the public sphere), with women being on the lower organisational leadership hierarchical rung; (d) the debate over essentialism and malleability of gender. This is the belief that women are somehow better than men in some matters or that men make better leaders than women, and that women and men tend to differ consistently from each other in predictable ways; (e) the dilemma of professional autonomy. Literature illustrates that while many women believe that high-quality teamwork attains productive work, men are more likely to value self-directed problem solving and are less likely to accept the joint problem solving concept. This attitude unjustifiably limits women from demonstrating and gaining recognition for their ability to work with men and taking a leadership role; (f) failure in action. Hale (1996) argues that while many men do not consciously oppose gender equality in the workplace, these men take a passive approach to the issue. Hence, the reason for the discrepancy between what is acknowledged and what is practiced; and (g) the time-lag for the democratic process to work. The literature illustrates that the time involved in executing the democratic process from the decision phase to actual implementation of gender reforms has sustained the hesitant and incremental approach to the integration of women at all levels of organisations.

Hale (1996) posits that three prerequisite conditions are needed to achieve gender equality in public sector organisations. Firstly, there is a need for an innovative administration theory that specifically caters for both women and men; a theory that questions the traditional beliefs about gender differences and the social influences found in organisations. Secondly, there is a need for a renewed commitment to organisational productivity based on developing employees as managers and administrators irrespective of their gender. Finally, there is a need to refocus on individual capacities and not seeking gender constraints or role rigidity.

Human Resource Management and Gender

McDougall (1998) argues that in the public sector in particular, because of its ethos and mission, anti-discriminatory management and provision of public services must still remain a central issue. McDougall (1998) reports that in the UK civil service female employees outnumber males yet women held only 32 percent of managers' and administrators' posts. Furthermore, Drew (2002) in a critical analysis of the Irish Government's commitment to "*Delivering better government*" highlighted a continuing gender imbalance at all grades. Drew (2002) in a detailed analysis of the Irish general service staff found that female staff represented 64 percent of the total, but only 32 percent occupied managerial grades of higher executive officer and above. These senior posts accounted for 21 percent of general service staff. Furthermore, female staff was found to hold proportionately fewer of the posts at the more senior levels.

Moreover, Drew (2002) showed that women have traditionally been recruited at grades lower than their male counterparts and men were consistently progressed faster through promotional grades with women having been disproportionately "stuck" at lower grades. The study also showed that female civil servants constituted 95 percent of those who had job-shared or were doing so at the time of the study. The main reason cited for this option was mainly related to caring for family members or other domestic reasons. However, women opting for job-sharing were mainly concentrated in the lower administrative clerical grades. It was also found that women who had taken career breaks did so mainly for the care of family members and domestic reasons; while men were more likely to have sought this option in order to study, start a business or take up other employment.

Drew (2002) also conducted a gender equality survey by examining a stratified random sample of Irish civil servants at executive officer level and above. This survey indicates that 84 percent of men aged 40 years and over were married compared to 52 percent of women. Furthermore, 59 percent of the male respondents had dependent children compared with 45 percent for females. These differences were much higher for the senior posts. In relation to equal opportunities policy and implementation, almost a quarter of women at all grades believed that the policy was not being implemented and a similar proportion felt they were discriminated against because of their gender, particularly in relation to placement and promotion. Both men and women consider that "enjoyable work", "self-fulfilment" and "job satisfaction" as the most important aspects

of working life. The findings also indicate that marriage and family places a greater dilemma for women than men. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that women do undertake significant levels of education, training and self-development while working in the civil service.

The above indicates that women appear to be at a disadvantage in the work place in terms of positions held. However, this disadvantage is also reflected in terms of salary received. Michalos (2000) in a study evaluating the equality policies for the status of women in Canada illustrates that women's average real wages are about 55 percent of men's wages, thus concluding that there does not appear to be a progressive trend in favour of women's equality in real wages. The literature consistently implies that although some progress has been made towards gender equality, women remain way behind their male counterparts. The evidence above suggests that gender inequality is inflicted (intentionally or unintentionally) due to traditional cultural habits that have developed through the social order or the so called societal evolution. However, the issue that is of particular interest is regarding organisational attitudinal differences between women and men.

Dickens (1998) posits that the adoption of a HRM approach that emphasises valuing and developing people in pursuit of organisational goals, and which stresses the role of the individual and the importance of involvement, opens the way for arguments about valuing all people and valuing diversity, and enables the promotion of equality to be linked to the achievement of business goals. For example, the HRM model proposed by Sisson (1994) refers to equal opportunities as a key personnel policy. However, Dickens (1998) notes that the assumption that the rise of HRM is "good news" for women, and for equality in general, has not been tested. Furthermore, the normative model as implied by Guest (1987; 1989) that proposes strategic integration, flexibility, quality and commitment that lead to improved organisational performance may not be effective in narrowing the gender equality gap. The reason for this may be attributed to a large extent due to the management strategies that are designed to optimise the use of labour (production orientation) rather than having strategies that stress the human aspect in terms of having committed and innovative employees. The latter approach promotes practices that develop a well trained, well-rewarded, relatively secure, committed, motivated, involved and empowered workforce, irrespective of gender.

In general, it is assumed that women make fewer investments in their work-related roles, and are therefore less committed to the employing organisation or chosen career

(Bruning and Snyder, 1983). Dickens (1998) notes that the assumption that women are less committed than men may influence management decisions on selection, appraisal and other work related factors. Furthermore, this is likely to lead to a situation where women's commitment is neither sought nor required. Moreover, Dickens (1998) states that "*it can also be 'true' that women do display less organisational commitment than men, and therefore will fare less well in HRM organisations which place a value on this*". However, empirical evidence contradicts the assumption that women are less committed than men at the workplace (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Aven et al., 1993; Wahn, 1998).

Dickens (1998) argues that job restructuring to obtain functional flexibility may offer the prospect to reshape gendered occupational divisions and challenge traditional job or skills 'territories', such as leadership roles, that are often defined against women. Hence, such a practice could slacken gender segregation and facilitate women's entry into better paid work. However, empirical evidence to support the notion of gender segregation within public service for general service grades was not found. On the other hand, Escott and Whitfield (1995) have found that the introduction of commercial contracts particularly within the public service has not been gender neutral, with women encountering an uneven level of job losses, job insecurity, and declining work conditions when compared with men.

Performance management that establishes the promotion criteria, training needs and rewards, such as pay, are also likely to be gendered. Townley (1990) argues that there is a possibility for the perceptions of the attributes and capabilities of women and men as groups to influence a manager's perception of the individual's capabilities. For instance, Bevan and Thompson (1992) found that managers were evaluating men with different characteristics than they did for women; thus this appraisal method contributed to gender stereotyping. Moreover, where women achieved higher performance ratings these ratings did not necessarily translate into promotion in the same way as for men.

Empirical evidence suggests that there is no significant difference in the level of work motivation and job satisfaction based on gender. Naff and Crum (1999) in conducting a study of public service motivation found that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction based on gender. However, they found that women had a slightly higher public service motivation score than men. Moreover, women were found to have a slightly higher performance level and were slightly more committed (measured by intention to leave). Furthermore, Kaufman et al., (2001) found that there

was no significant relationship between performance measured by organisational citizenship behaviour and gender. These literature findings suggest that despite the empirical evidence that shows that women and men do not significantly differ in terms of their level of OC, loyalty, work motivation, PSM, job satisfaction and performance, the reality is that there appears to be a continuing gender imbalance against women at all grades within the public service, particularly senior management posts.

Model Depicting Relationship between Gender and Antecedents

Based upon the above literature review, a theoretical model has been developed to depict the relationship between Gender and the dominant personal and organisational antecedents. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical conceptual model that lies at the basis of this empirical study and has facilitated the operationalisation process. Hence, the research question that is being examined is: *Do women and men differ in terms of the selected dominant antecedents?* This research question also provided the basis for the formulation of the hypotheses shown at Table 1.

Figure 1. Model Depicting Relationships between Gender & Dominant Antecedents

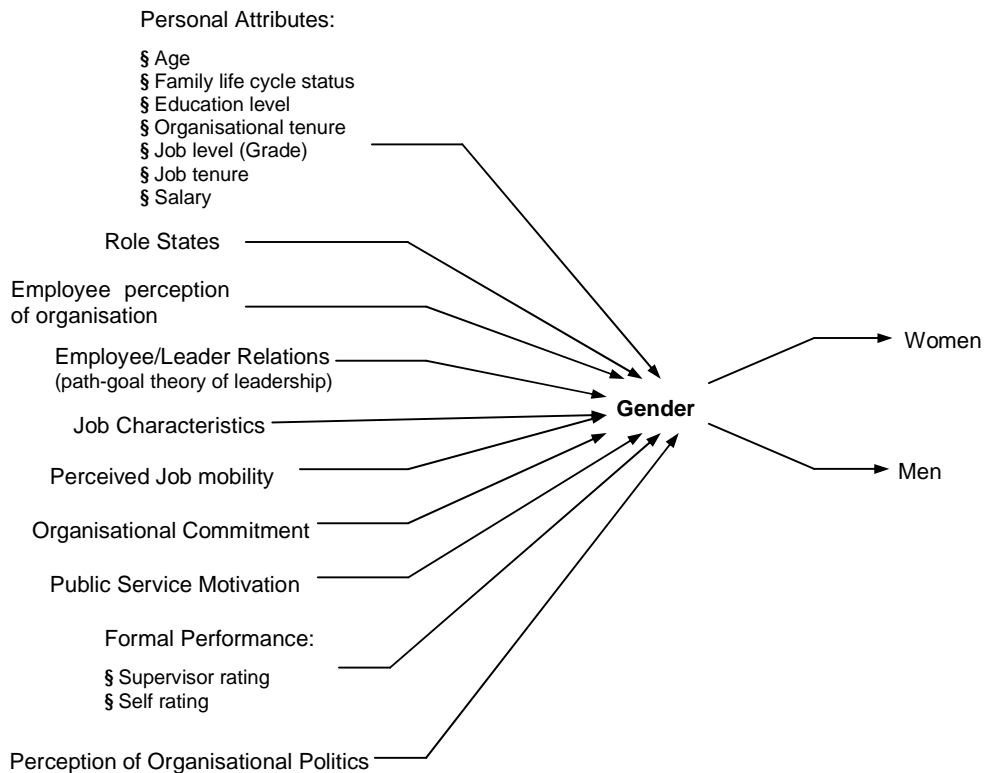


Table 1a. Formulation of the Hypotheses – Personal Attributes

	Hypotheses	Premise for Hypotheses
Personal Attributes		
H ₁	There is a significant difference in public service between women and men based on salary.	Women tend to occupy the lower job grades hence their salary is lower than that for men.
H ₂	There is significant difference in the public service between women and men based on organisation tenure.	Women have a higher degree of family obligation and are more likely to interrupt employment tenure due circumstances.
H ₃	There is significant difference in public service between women and men based on age.	Women are more likely to quit their public service job to look after the family members.
H ₄	There is significant difference in public service between women and men based on job grade.	There is a general tendency not to promote women to management posts.
H ₅	There is a significant difference in the public service between women and men based on job tenure.	Men tend to be promoted at a faster rate with women being stuck in the same job for a longer period of time.
H ₆	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on education level.	The education system and public service entrance qualifications are equally applicable to both women and men.
H ₇	There is significant difference in the public service between women and men based on family life cycle status.	While the Public Service does not impose a marriage bar, women with children are more likely to quit to look after the children.
Performance and Job Mobility		
H ₈	There is a significant difference in the public service between women and men based on their perceived probability of finding a job outside public service.	Women tend to be assigned functions that restrict them to performing the same job; hence their skills would be specific to that post making them less job mobile.
H ₉	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on supervisor and self rating performance.	Women and men have an equal ability to perform well at their respective job.
Organisational		
H ₁₀	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on OC and its dimensions.	Both women and men have an equal desire to retain membership to their organisations. However, women may resign membership due to circumstances beyond their control.
H ₁₁	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on their ambiguity and conflict role state.	Both women and men need to know what is expected of them, in terms of what is to be done and from whom to accept instructions.
H ₁₂	There is no significant difference between women and men based on their perception of the organisation and its dimensions.	Women and men are equally able to discern the level of excellence that their organisation is being managed.
H ₁₃	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on employee-leader relations and its dimensions.	Women and men are equally able to discern the level of initiating structure, leadership consideration, communication, and participation being exhibited by their supervisor.
H ₁₄	There is significant difference between women and men based on their perception of organisational politics and its dimensions.	Men tend to be promoted at a much faster rate than women, thus women view this as being unfair and discriminatory.
H ₁₅	There is no significant difference in the public service between women and men based on PSM and its dimensions.	Both women and men have an equal disposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions.
H ₁₆	There is significant difference in the public service between women and men based on the job characteristics and its dimensions.	There is a tendency to allocate women with repetitive job functions that may become monotonous over time.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section describes the sample and design of the study; how the variables were measured; the analysis undertaken to determine the reliability and validity of the data; and the relationships between the relevant variables.

Sample and Design of the Study

The model at Figure 1 was tested by administering a questionnaire to over 3,400 public officers occupying general service grades that cover the full spectrum of administrative functions in all government ministries. The questionnaire was administered on a census basis during paid working hours, and was incorporated in a series of change management seminars. Employees were guaranteed anonymity and their participation was voluntary. The overall response rate was 71.5% with 46.7% of the valid responses being women.

Measures

This section provides an overview of all measures that have been included in the study. Apart from the personal attributes, the respondents assessed the items by using a five-point rating scale, ranging from 'definitely agree' to 'definitely disagree'.

Personal Attributes which are all one-item measures, included organization tenure, age, gender, job grade, job tenure, education, salary, and family life-cycle status.

Role States scale developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) consists of 14 items, measuring role conflict (8 items) and ambiguity (6 items) in the workplace.

Employee Perception of the Organisation scale consists of 9 items measuring five dimensions: biased for action (1 item), customer focused (2 items), autonomy and entrepreneurship (3 items), productivity through people (2 items), and loose-tight properties (1 item). The original instrument as developed by Sharma, Netemeyer and Mahajan (1990) measures attributes of management excellence and is based upon the work by Peters and Waterman (1982).

Employee-Leader Relations scale developed by House and Dessler (1974) measures different dimensions of leadership behaviour using path-goal theory of leadership: leadership consideration (9 items), initiating structure (7 items), and participation (5 items); and of 4 items for leadership communication (from Wood et al., 1986).

Job Characteristics consisted of the job characteristic inventory (Sims et al., 1979), and task significance extracted from the job diagnostic survey (Hackman and Oldham,

1974). The variables measured include skill variety (5 items), task autonomy (6 items), task identity (4 items), task feedback (5 items), friendship opportunities (7 items), dealing with others (3 items), and task significance (3 items).

Perceived Job Mobility was measured by one item: “What is the probability that you may find a suitable job outside the public service? (Give a value between 0 and 100)”.

Organisational Commitment (OC) was measured using an adapted scale from Meyer and Allen (1997). The scale consisted of 18 items: 6 items each for assessing Affective, Continuance and Normative OC.

Public Service Motivation. PSM was measured using Perry’s (1996) instrument consisting of 24 items: attraction for public policy making (3 items); public interest (5 items); compassion and self-sacrifice (8 items each).

Supervisor and Self Rating Performance was measured by two single items, namely: “What performance rate did your supervisor give you in the most recent performance appraisal report?” and “What rating would you give yourself if you were to rate your performance out of 10?”

Perception of organizational politics scale (POPS). This scale was developed by Kacmar et. al., (1999) and consisted of three dimensions: political behavior (2 items), go-along to get-ahead and pay and promotion (5 items each).

Data Analysis

Although all the constructs are well proven, and have been applied by researchers in previous numerous studies, various preliminary analyses have been conducted in order to test their validity requirements. For constructs to be valid it must be demonstrated that both convergent and discriminant validity have been achieved. This is accomplished by showing that measures of scales that theoretically should be related to each other are in fact observed to be related to each other. Moreover, measures of constructs that theoretically should not be related to each other are observed not to be related to each another. Both principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation and structural equation modelling using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to determine convergent and discriminant validity of the individual constructs. The findings indicated that all the constructs were valid.

Data reliability (measuring internal consistency) was achieved by Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability (for CFA). High Cronbach alpha and composite reliability values indicate high reliability. A commonly used threshold value for Cronbach’s alpha

is .70, although values below .70 have been deemed acceptable if the research is exploratory in nature (Hair et al., 1998, p. 612). Furthermore, the threshold for composite reliability is ≥ 0.50 (for CFA in line with Hair et al., 1998, p. 612). Table 2 illustrates that data reliability has been achieved.

Predictive validity, that is, the ability to predict what theoretically should be able to be predicted, was tested by assessing the degree of correlation between the dependent and independent decision variables (see correlations at Table 2). Moreover, concurrent validity, that is, assessing the operationalisation's ability to distinguish between groups that should theoretically be able to distinguish between, was achieved through the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the chi-square test. These two methods together with linear constructs are used to test the various hypotheses outlined in Table 1. The linear constructs indicate the direction of influence exerted by the variables.

The ANOVA will test for significant differences between the means. Furthermore, Spearman's Rho will be used to determine the strength and direction of the association between the variables being examined. The chi-square test examines whether there are differences between the categorical gender independent variable for the given categorical dependent variables. The chi-square test is viewed as a direct test of difference in proportions. However, the chi-square test is based on a number of key assumptions: (a) observations must be independent. The same observation can only appear in one cell of the contingency table; (b) sufficiently large sample size; and (c) adequate cell sizes. Some researchers require that no cell in the analysis should have expected frequencies of less than five. However, a common rule is 5 or more in all cells of a 2-by-2 table, and 5 or more in 80% of cells in larger tables, but no cells with zero count. When this assumption is not met, Yates' correction is applied. Howell (1997, p.152) contends that the adequate size convention is inconsistent with others, and there is no satisfactory basis for deciding which of these various conventions to follow. Furthermore, Cramer's V and the contingency coefficient will be applied in conjunction with the chi-square test to determine the strength of association between the variables being examined.

RESULTS

This section provides the findings of the descriptive statistics, ANOVA and chi-square test. Furthermore these findings are applied to test the hypotheses outlined in Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients and correlations between the dependent variable (gender) and the independent variables.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations: Gender and Organisational Antecedents

Variable (Gender: Men=1, Women=2)	N	Mean	SD	Spearman Rho		Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
1 Salary	2134	1.790	0.690	-.377	**	n/a	n/a
2 Organisational Tenure	2135	2.180	1.118	-.452	**	n/a	n/a
3 Age (group)	2135	3.280	1.189	-.441	**	n/a	n/a
4 Job Level (Grade)	2135	2.630	1.754	-.434	**	n/a	n/a
5 Job Tenure	2135	1.500	0.634	-.008	ns	n/a	n/a
6 Education	2135	1.810	0.772	.045	*	n/a	n/a
7 Family Life Cycle Status	2135	2.916	1.677	-.397	**	n/a	n/a
8 Alternative Job Opportunities	1818	3.101	0.941	.102	**	n/a	n/a
9 Supervisor Performance Rating	1381	1.770	0.598	-.110	**	n/a	n/a
10 Self Rating Performance	2074	3.762	0.502	.092	**	n/a	n/a
11 Overall OC	2135	3.290	0.792	-.048	*	0.88	n/a
12 Affective OC	2135	3.420	0.927	-.075	**	0.81	0.82
13 Continuance OC	2135	3.490	0.870	.022	ns	0.69	0.69
14 Normative OC	2135	2.950	1.054	-.048	*	0.82	0.82
15 Overall Role State	2135	2.680	0.650	-.148	**	0.73	n/a
16 Conflict Role State	2135	3.090	0.851	-.193	**	0.73	0.73
17 Ambiguity Role State	2135	2.000	0.766	-.011	ns	0.73	0.73
18 Employee Perception of Org.	2135	3.070	1.006	.058	**	0.91	n/a
19 Bias for Action	2135	3.000	1.261	.051	*	n/a	n/a
20 Close to Customer	2135	3.090	1.084	.074	**	0.71	0.71
21 Entrepreneurship & Autonomy	2135	2.800	1.116	.023	ns	0.82	0.82
22 Productivity Through People	2135	2.900	1.181	.040	ns	0.83	0.83
23 Loose Tight Properties	2135	3.480	1.261	.082	**	n/a	n/a
24 Employee-Leader Relations	2135	3.480	0.901	.061	**	0.95	n/a
25 Initiating Structure	2135	3.570	0.981	.081	**	0.82	0.88
26 Leadership Consideration	2135	3.440	1.001	.028	ns	0.89	0.91
27 Participative Leadership	2135	3.460	1.138	.066	**	0.93	0.93
28 Leadership Communication	2135	3.340	1.178	.050	*	0.91	0.92
29 Perception of Org. Politics	2135	2.800	0.713	.043	*	0.79	n/a
30 General Political Behaviour	2135	2.550	1.026	.027	ns	0.67	0.67
31 Go-Along Get Ahead	2135	2.700	0.864	.030	ns	0.66	0.66
32 Pay and Promotion	2135	3.010	0.805	.050	*	0.66	0.66
33 Public Service Motivation	2135	3.670	0.644	-.096	**	0.88	n/a
34 Attraction to Public Policy Making	2135	2.400	1.027	-.053	ns	0.55	0.59
35 Need for Public Interest	2135	3.750	0.750	-.079	**	0.69	0.70
36 Need for Compassion	2135	3.950	0.724	-.047	*	0.73	0.72
37 Need for Self Sacrifice	2135	3.630	0.759	-.098	**	0.83	0.83
38 Job Characteristics	2130	3.350	0.595	-.076	**	0.90	n/a
39 Skill Variety	2130	2.800	0.826	-.149	**	0.79	0.78
40 Task Autonomy	2130	3.470	0.715	-.103	**	0.73	0.72
41 Task Identity	2130	3.630	0.883	-.002	ns	0.80	0.82
42 Task Feedback	2130	3.050	0.976	.024	ns	0.89	0.89
43 Friendship Opportunities	2130	3.320	0.816	-.111	**	0.86	0.86
44 Dealing With Others	2130	3.540	0.863	-.073	**	0.55	0.56
45 Task Significance	2130	3.760	0.921	.008	ns	0.83	0.83

Note. *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$; n.s. not significant.

The bivariate correlations using Spearman's Rho illustrate that (applying Cohen's (1977) standards for social research) *gender* has a large negative correlation with *salary*,

organisational tenure, age group, job grade, and family life cycle status. Furthermore, *gender* has very small correlation with all the other variables. These correlations demonstrate that generally, women tend to occupy the lower job grades and earn lower salaries than men. Moreover, women employed within the public service tend to be predominately younger and unmarried or with no children when compared with their male counterparts, and have a lower organisational tenure.

The correlations suggest that men tend to be under a slightly higher degree of conflict role state than women. Furthermore, the correlations indicate that women have a higher opinion that their organisation is being managed in an excellent manner and perceive a better relationship with their supervisor. However, the difference in these correlations is very small. The correlations also suggest that men have a marginally higher *skill variety* and *task autonomy* in their jobs.

In terms of job mobility outside the public service, the correlations suggest that there is a very marginal difference in favour of women, with men having a slightly higher level of OC and PSM. The correlations for supervisor rating performance suggest that there is a small difference in favour of men however women have slightly better self performance rating.

Testing the Hypotheses

The hypotheses were tested by using both ANOVA (see Table 3) and the Chi-square test (see Table 4) in conjunction with the measures for variable association (see Table 5) to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between gender and the other variables. One should note that in interpreting the results of the measures of association, specifically Spearman's Rho, men and women were coded as "1" and "2" respectively. Hence, a positive correlation indicates a higher inclination towards women, whereas a negative correlation indicates a higher leaning towards men. The hypotheses results are found at Table 6.

In summary, the results suggest that although women possess a higher education level and are generally at par with men in terms of OC, PSM and employee-leader relations, they are disadvantaged in terms of salary and level of managerial position they occupy in the organisation.

Table 3. Analysis of Variance (Gender and the other variables)

Variables	F	Sig.	Variables	F	Sig.
Personal Attributes			Employee-Leader Relations		
Salary	118.982	.000	Initiating Structure	2.909	.021
Organisation Tenure	167.416	.000	Leadership Consideration	4.189	.002
Age Group	139.581	.000	Participative Leadership	1.252	.287
Job Grade	91.631	.000	Leadership Communication	2.717	.028
Grade Tenure	4.151	.002	Perception of Org. Politics	2.736	.027
Education	27.414	.000	General Political Behaviour	4.387	.002
Family Life Cycle Status	88.571	.000	Go-Along Get Ahead	0.848	.494
Alternate Job Opportunities	7.260	.000	Pay and Promotion	1.282	.275
Supervisor Rating Performance	5.175	.000	Public Service Motivation	6.578	.000
Self Rating Performance	6.687	.000	Need for Public Policy Making	8.170	.000
Overall OC	2.312	.056	Need for Public Interest	3.084	.015
Affective OC	5.621	.000	Need for Compassion	5.773	.000
Continuance OC	0.727	.573	Need for Self Sacrifice	3.901	.004
Normative OC	2.240	.063	Job Characteristics	6.530	.000
Overall Role States	12.663	.000	Skill Variety	3.318	.010
Conflict Role State	21.026	.000	Task Autonomy	13.237	.000
Ambiguity Role State	1.300	.268	Task Identity	5.843	.000
Employee Perception of Org.	2.540	.038	Task Feedback	0.482	.749
Bias for Action	2.066	.083	Task Feedback	1.256	.285
Close to Customer	5.908	.000	Friendship Opportunities	7.589	.000
Entrepreneurship/Autonomy	1.615	.168	Dealing With Others	4.985	.001
Productivity Through People	1.528	.191	Task Significance	1.032	.389
Loose Tight Properties	4.294	.002			

Table 4a. Chi-Square Test: Gender - Personal Attributes

Variable	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.	Gender %	Cross Tabulation						
						Salary Scale						
						1 (low)	2	3	4 (high)			
Salary Scale	3	2134	306.288	.000	M 53.30	30.10%	60.50%	89.70%	92.30%			
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	69.90%	39.50%	10.30%	7.70%		
						0-10 Yr	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50		
Organisation Tenure	4	2135	510.679	.000	M 53.30	32.30%	39.40%	82.80%	89.20%	85.70%		
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	67.70%	60.60%	17.20%	10.80%	14.30%	
						<21 Yr	21-30	31-40	41-50	>50		
Age Group	4	2135	443.407	.000	M 53.30	19.00%	31.20%	40.20%	73.40%	84.40%		
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	81.00%	68.80%	59.80%	26.60%	15.60%	
						Clerk	EO	Ass. Principal	Principal	Senior Principal	Ass. Director	Senior Posts
Job Grade	6	2135	438.345	.000	M 53.30	30.10%	40.60%	75.20%	73.50%	90.00%	89.60%	92.30%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	69.90%	59.40%	24.80%	26.50%	10.00%	10.40%
						<6 Yr	6-10 Yr	11-15 Yr	>15 Yr			
Grade Tenure	3	2135	16.362	.001	M 53.30	53.60%	51.00%	63.50%	93.80%			
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	46.40%	49.00%	36.50%	6.30%		
						From 1-5	Form 6	Tertiary	Post T.			
Education	3	2135	79.335	.000	M 53.30	60.70%	42.90%	61.60%	76.90%			
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	39.30%	57.10%	38.40%	23.10%		
						Bachelor	Single Parent	Married No Children	Married With Children			Solitary Survivor
Family life cycle	6	2135	426.631	.000	M 53.30	37.10%	30.60%	33.20%	≤16 Yr	All Ages	Not at Home	0.00%
	2 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	62.90%	69.40%	66.80%	43.90%	8.40%	4.50%

(* The expected count for "Solitary Survivor" is 0.5 for both males and females. All other counts are >5)

Table 4b. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Job Mobility Outside Public Service and Performance

Variable	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.	Gender %	Cross Tabulation			
						<25%	25-49%	50-74%	75-100%
Chance of finding job outside P.S	3	1818	21.569	.000	M 51.20	63.30%	59.20%	51.10%	46.40%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 48.80	36.70%	40.80%	48.90%
Supervisor Rating Performance	3	1381	17.737	.000	M 62.30	Excellent	Very G	Good	Bad/V.Bad
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 37.70	55.60%	64.20%	76.50%
Self Rating Performance	2	2074	18.662	.000	M 53.10	Excellent	Good/V.G	Bad	
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.90	51.10%	62.00%	71.40%
						48.90%	38.00%	28.60%	

Table 4c. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Organisational Commitment

Variable	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.	Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
						V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Overall OC	4	2135	9.230	.056	M 53.30	70.60%	48.50%	52.20%	55.20%	62.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	29.40%	51.50%	47.80%	44.80%
Affective OC	4	2135	22.303	.000	M 53.30	65.50%	47.20%	49.00%	55.70%	62.80%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	34.50%	52.80%	51.00%	44.30%
Continuance OC	4	2135	2.913	.573	M 53.30	64.30%	54.40%	54.40%	51.60%	54.10%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	35.70%	45.60%	45.60%	48.40%
Normative OC	4	2135	8.941	.063	M 53.30	50.00%	52.30%	50.40%	58.00%	56.30%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	50.00%	47.70%	49.60%	42.00%

Table 4d. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Employee Perception of the Organisation

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Perception of Org.	4	2135	10.136	.038	M 53.30	64.60%	54.70%	53.60%	50.60%	48.50%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	35.40%	45.30%	46.40%	49.40%
Bias for Action	4	2135	8.253	.083	M 53.30	59.90%	53.10%	54.60%	50.60%	51.10%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	40.10%	46.90%	45.40%	49.40%
Close to Customer	4	2135	23.427	.000	M 53.30	58.60%	54.80%	56.10%	52.30%	36.40%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	41.40%	45.20%	43.90%	47.70%
Autonomy	4	2135	6.457	.168	M 53.30	54.80%	52.60%	56.20%	51.90%	45.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	45.20%	47.40%	43.80%	48.10%
Productivity	4	2135	6.110	.191	M 53.30	54.60%	54.60%	55.90%	51.10%	46.30%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	45.40%	45.40%	44.10%	48.90%
Loose-Tight Properties	4	2135	17.078	.002	M 53.30	59.80%	55.30%	59.30%	52.90%	46.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5					F 46.70	40.20%	44.70%	40.70%	47.10%

Table 4e. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Conflict and Ambiguity Role States

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	Df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Overall	4	2135	49.591	.000	M 53.30	42.20%	45.20%	56.50%	70.80%	100.00%
Role State	2 cells have exp. Count <5				F 46.70	57.80%	54.80%	43.50%	29.20%	0.00%
Conflict	4	2135	81.100	.000	M 53.30	42.30%	40.30%	50.90%	65.90%	67.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	57.70%	59.70%	49.10%	34.10%	32.80%
Ambiguity	4	2135	5.198	.268	M 53.30	54.50%	51.50%	56.10%	57.30%	100.00%
	2 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	45.50%	48.50%	43.90%	42.70%	0.00%

(* Expected count for overall and ambiguity role states "Very High" is 1.1 and 0.9 for males and females respectively. All other counts are >5)

Table 4f. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Employee-Leader Relations

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Employee-Leader Relations	4	2135	11.598	.021	M 53.30	73.20%	57.20%	54.80%	51.30%	49.30%
	0 cells have exp. Count <5				F 46.70	26.80%	42.80%	45.20%	48.70%	50.70%
Initiating Structure	4	2135	16.664	.002	M 53.30	59.10%	56.80%	57.30%	52.80%	44.40%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	40.90%	43.20%	42.70%	47.20%	55.60%
Leader Consideration	4	2135	5.008	.286	M 53.30	58.10%	51.60%	56.40%	52.60%	49.60%
	0 cells have exp. Count <5				F 46.70	41.90%	48.40%	43.60%	47.40%	50.40%
Participative Leadership	4	2135	10.838	.028	M 53.30	59.30%	59.80%	53.70%	51.30%	49.70%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	40.70%	40.20%	46.30%	48.70%	50.30%
Leader Communication	4	2135	10.913	.028	M 53.30	59.20%	52.50%	56.90%	53.50%	46.80%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	40.80%	47.50%	43.10%	46.50%	53.20%

Table 4g. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Job Characteristics

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Core Job Attributes	4	2130	13.223	.010	M 53.30	60.00%	49.50%	50.30%	58.10%	62.50%
	2 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	40.00%	50.50%	49.70%	41.90%	37.50%
Task Variety	4	2130	51.783	.000	M 53.30	36.20%	44.90%	56.60%	63.80%	50.00%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	63.80%	55.10%	43.40%	36.20%	50.00%
Task Autonomy	4	2130	23.173	.000	M 53.30	54.50%	43.70%	49.10%	57.80%	62.70%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	45.50%	56.30%	50.90%	42.20%	37.30%
Task Identity	4	2130	1.930	.749	M 53.30	54.10%	49.70%	53.70%	54.30%	51.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	45.90%	50.30%	46.30%	45.70%	48.80%
Task Feedback	4	2130	5.025	.285	M 53.30	54.90%	55.10%	52.80%	54.30%	44.40%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	45.10%	44.90%	47.20%	45.70%	55.60%
Friendship Opportunities	4	2130	29.999	.000	M 53.30	41.90%	40.10%	52.40%	58.00%	61.80%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	58.10%	59.90%	47.60%	42.00%	38.20%
Dealing with Others	4	2130	19.802	.001	M 53.30	48.00%	46.50%	49.00%	58.50%	52.30%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	52.00%	53.50%	51.00%	41.50%	47.70%
Task Significance	4	2130	4.128	.389	M 53.30	52.90%	49.70%	53.60%	55.40%	50.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	47.10%	50.30%	46.40%	44.60%	49.80%

(* The expected count for Core job attributes "Very Low" is 2.7 and 2.3 for males and females respectively. All other counts are >5)

Table 4h. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Perception of Organisational Politics

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
POPS (equity)	4	2135	17.447	.002	M 53.30	75.40%	54.30%	52.10%	50.40%	81.80%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	24.60%	45.70%	47.90%	49.60%	18.20%
General Politics	4	2135	3.396	.494	M 53.30	55.70%	53.40%	53.90%	49.10%	55.20%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	44.30%	46.60%	46.10%	50.90%	44.80%
Go-Along Get-Ahead	4	2135	5.129	.274	M 53.30	61.40%	53.60%	52.40%	51.30%	60.00%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	38.60%	46.40%	47.60%	48.70%	40.00%
Pay and Promotion	4	2135	26.052	.000	M 53.30	76.40%	58.20%	49.90%	52.90%	61.70%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	23.60%	41.80%	50.10%	47.10%	38.30%

Table 4i. Chi-Square Test: Gender – Public Service Motivation

Variable	Chi-Sq Test Statistics				Gender %	Cross Tabulation				
	df	N	Chi-Sq	Sig.		V. Low	Low	Neutral	High	V.High
Overall PSM	4	2135	32.260	.000	M 53.30	100.00%	61.20%	46.70%	55.20%	68.50%
	2 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	0.00%	38.80%	53.30%	44.80%	31.50%
Attraction to Policy Making	4	2135	12.292	.015	M 53.30	52.30%	49.30%	54.60%	61.70%	50.00%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	47.70%	50.70%	45.40%	38.30%	50.00%
Public Interest	4	2135	22.897	.000	M 53.30	70.00%	55.30%	47.80%	53.20%	64.70%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	30.00%	44.70%	52.20%	46.80%	35.30%
Compassion	4	2135	15.528	.004	M 53.30	100.00%	60.40%	50.30%	51.60%	59.70%
	2 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	0.00%	39.60%	49.70%	48.40%	40.30%
Self Sacrifice	4	2135	25.863	.000	M 53.30	64.30%	50.00%	46.40%	57.10%	60.50%
	0 cells have exp. count <5				F 46.70	35.70%	50.00%	53.60%	42.90%	39.50%

(* The expected count for overall PSM "Very Low" is 1.6 and 1.4 for males and females respectively. All other counts are >5)

(* The expected count for Compassion "Very Low" is 2.7 and 2.3 for males and females respectively. All other counts are >5)

Table 5. Measures for Variable Association for Variables that have Significant Difference

Variables	Spearman's Rho	Sig. (See note)	Cramer's V	Sig.	Contingency Coefficient	Sig.
Salary	-.377	.019	.379	.000	.354	.000
Organisational Tenure	-.452	.018	.489	.000	.439	.000
Age (group)	-.441	.018	.456	.000	.415	.000
Job Level (Grade)	-.434	.018	.453	.000	.413	.000
Job Tenure	-.008	.022	.088	.001	.087	.001
Education	.045	.022	.193	.000	.189	.000
Family Life Cycle Status	-.397	.019	.447	.000	.408	.000
Alternative Job Opportunities	.102	.023	.109	.000	.108	.000
Supervisor Performance Rating	-.110	.027	.113	.000	.113	.000
Self Rating Performance	.092	.021	.093	.000	.093	.000
Affective OC	-.075	.022	.102	.000	.102	.000
Overall Role State	-.148	.021	.152	.000	.151	.000
Conflict Role State	-.193	.021	.195	.000	.191	.000
Employee Perception of Organisation	.058	.022	.069	.038	.069	.038
Close to Customer	.074	.022	.105	.000	.104	.000
Loose Tight Properties	.082	.022	.089	.002	.089	.002

Table 5. Measures for Variable Association for Variables that have Significant Difference (cont..)

Variables	Spearman's Rho	Sig. (See note)	Cramer's V	Sig.	Contingency Coefficient	Sig.
Employee-Leader Relations	.061	.022	.074	.021	.074	.021
Initiating Structure	.081	.022	.088	.002	.088	.002
Participative Leadership	.066	.022	.071	.028	.071	.028
Leadership Communication	.050	.022	.071	.028	.071	.028
Perception of Organisational Politics	.043	.022	.090	.002	.090	.002
Pay and Promotion	.050	.021	.110	.000	.110	.000
Public Service Motivation	-.096	.021	.123	.000	.122	.000
Need for Public Policy Making	-.053	.022	.076	.015	.076	.015
Need for Public Interest	-.079	.021	.104	.000	.103	.000
Need for Compassion	-.047	.022	.085	.004	.085	.004
Need for Self Sacrifice	-.098	.022	.110	.000	.109	.000
Job Characteristics	-.076	.022	.079	.010	.079	.010
Skill Variety	-.149	.021	.156	.000	.154	.000
Task Autonomy	-.103	.021	.104	.000	.104	.000
Friendship Opportunities	-.111	.021	.119	.000	.118	.000
Dealing With Others	-.073	.022	.096	.001	.096	.001

Note: Not assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 6. Results of Hypotheses using ANOVA and Chi-square Tests

Hypothesis	Result	Association*	Remarks
Personal Attributes & Performance			
<i>Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H ₁ Salary	Accepted	High negative	Men have significantly higher salaries.
H ₂ Organisation tenure	Accepted	High negative	Men remain longer with organisation.
H ₃ Age group	Accepted	High negative	Men are much older than women.
H ₄ Job grade	Accepted	High negative	Men occupy higher posts than women.
H ₅ Job tenure	Accepted	Low negative	Very marginal difference, Rho. no sig.
H ₇ Family life cycle	Accepted	High negative	Women do not appear to return to work.
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H ₆ Education	Rejected	Medium pos.	Women have higher education level.
H ₈ Job mobility outside PS	Rejected	Low positive	Women are slightly more optimistic.
H _{9a} Performance supervisor	Rejected	Low negative	Men are rated as better performers by head.
H _{9b} Performance self rating	Rejected	Low positive	Women see themselves as better performers.
Organisational Commitment			
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{10a} Affective OC	Rejected	Low negative	Men have slightly higher Affective OC level.
H _{10b} Continuance OC	Accepted		
H _{10c} Normative OC	Accepted		
Role States			
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{11a} Conflict	Rejected	Medium neg.	Men have a higher role conflict state.
H _{11b} Ambiguity	Accepted		
Employee Perception of Organisation			
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{12a} Bias for action	Accepted		
H _{12b} Close to customer	Rejected	Low positive	Women are slightly better customer oriented.
H _{12c} Entrepreneurship/autonomy	Accepted		
H _{12d} Productivity through people	Accepted		
H _{12e} Loose-tight properties	Rejected	Low positive	Women are more cautious to abide by rules.

Table 6. Results of Hypotheses using ANOVA and Chi-square Tests (Cont....)

Hypothesis	Result	Association*	Remarks
Employee-Leader Relations			
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{13a} Initiating structure	Rejected	V.Low positive	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{13b} Leadership consideration	Accepted		
H _{13c} Participative leadership	Rejected	V.Low positive	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{13d} Leadership communication	Rejected	V.Low positive	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
Perception of Organisational Politics			
<i>Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{14a} General political behaviour	Rejected		
H _{14b} Go-along Get-ahead	Rejected		
H _{14c} Pay and promotion	Accepted	Low positive	Women view that org. is not equitable in awarding pay and promotions to individuals.
Public Service Motivation			
<i>No Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{15a} Need for policy making	Rejected	V.Low negative	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{15b} Need for public interest	Rejected	V.Low negative	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{15c} Need for compassion	Rejected	V.Low negative	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{15d} Need for self sacrifice	Rejected	V.Low negative	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
Job Characteristics			
<i>Significant Difference based on:</i>			
H _{16a} Skill variety	Accepted	Medium neg.	Men have more skill variety in their jobs.
H _{16b} Task autonomy	Accepted	Low negative	Men have slightly more autonomy in job.
H _{16c} Task identity	Rejected		
H _{16d} Task feedback	Rejected		
H _{16e} Friendship opportunities	Accepted	Low negative	Men have more opportunity to establish informal relationships with other employees.
H _{16f} Dealing with others	Accepted	V.Low negative	Very slight difference: No specific conclusion.
H _{16g} Task significance	Rejected		

* Test of association include: Cramer's V, contingency coefficient, and Spearman's Rho (see Table 5).

DISCUSSION

The results suggest that there is a significant difference in the public service between men and women (in favour of men) based on salary; organisation tenure; age group; job grade; job tenure; and family life cycle status. Thus, generally confirming the findings of McDougall(1998), Michalos (2000) and Drew(2002) studies that were carried out in UK, Canadian, and Irish civil service respectively. The results indicate that men enjoy a significantly higher salary than women, and remain with the organisation over a longer period of time. These findings are reflected by the results in that men are significantly older and occupy substantially higher grades than women. However, the difference regarding job tenure is very low. Hence, the findings do not support Drew's (2002) contention that men tend to be promoted at a faster rate with women being stuck in the same job for a longer period of time. The results suggest that since men remain in the organisation for a much longer period of time than women, they logically have a better prospect of being promoted, thus earning a higher salary.

A likely reason why men remain members of the organisation for a much longer period of time may be due to the national culture where women are viewed as having a higher degree of family obligation and are more likely to interrupt employment tenure depending on family circumstances. These family circumstances may include looking after the family members, particularly children. Drew's study (2002) also supports this contention; she found that women who had taken a career break did so mainly for the care of family members and domestic reasons, while men sought this option in order to study, start a business or take up other employment. Hence, a women's career break regressed their careers, while men's career break was aimed at improving their position.

However, the results do not appear to support the contention that there is a general tendency not to promote women to management posts. A close examination of the findings regarding the family life cycle status suggest that the participation of women in the public sector workforce tends to decrease as their status progresses from being bachelor to married with children. However, whilst one would expect that the decreasing trend of women's participation in the public sector work force would cease once children are over 16 or not living at home, the opposite appears to be the case. The decreasing trend continues with the exception of the solitary survivor status. This suggests that once women leave their employment, they appear to find it difficult to return to work and resume their careers.

It is posited that the crux of problem may not be the intentional discrimination against women, but: (a) changing cultural attitudes where women are viewed as having a greater obligation towards the care of family members than men; and (b) transforming existing mechanisms and structures that create disadvantages for women into gender neutral systems.

The results also suggest that women are more optimistic about their ability than men. For instance, the findings indicate that women are more optimistic of finding an alternative job outside the public sector and view themselves as being the better performers. The findings indicate that women's optimism is not unjustifiable since the results show that women have a significantly higher education level than men. However, the results also show that men are viewed as being slightly better performers when rated by their supervisors. On the other hand it should be noted that the differences in the performance perception is small and that the vast majority of the supervisors would be men. Whether there exists a direct and intentional bias against

women has not been examined. However, two important findings may shed some insight on the issue:

- (a) The results of the employee perception of the organisation suggest that women are slightly more customer-oriented than men and are more cautious in the application of the rules and regulations. It is argued that in the public service being customer oriented is an important attribute to possess and therefore should favour women. However, the results also suggest that women tend to be more risk averse. It may be argued that in certain circumstances this is a good attribute but generally, being risk averse may be viewed by management as being hesitant in making decisions or unsure of the action to be taken. Therefore, this characteristic may be seen as being unfavourable towards women taking into account that the majority of supervisors are men who have more tendency to be risk takers (as suggested by the findings).
- (b) The results of the perception of organisational politics indicate no difference between men and women except for the pay and promotion dimension. The finding indicates that women perceive that the organisation is not equitable in awarding pay and promotions to individuals.

The above suggests that women perceive a bias against them. This perception appears to be partially supported by the findings in that women have a better education level and are more customer-oriented than men yet men occupy the vast majority of the managerial positions. However, it is noted that the findings also suggest that more women do not reach senior management posts because they are forced by family circumstances to leave their employ before they have a chance to fulfil their full potential to occupy such posts. Furthermore, the findings also suggest that the risk averse attribute of women appears to be a disadvantage to them since women are mainly assessed by men, who have a general tendency to be risk takers and thus may display a certain bias regarding this aspect when appraising performance.

When examining role states, the findings suggest that men have a moderately higher conflict role state. This suggests that men are exposed to two or more sets of pressures such that compliance with one set will make it difficult to comply with the other. However, this difference may be due to the fact that men occupy most of the managerial posts therefore they are more likely to be exposed to the conflict role state and need to

prioritise their objectives irrespective of whether they receive their instructions from one or more sources.

Furthermore, the results indicate that men and women are almost equally committed to the organisation. The results show men to have a slightly higher level of affective OC, thus, suggesting that they identify themselves with, and are more involved with their organisation. However, given the fact that men have a much higher organisational tenure and age, and occupy higher job grades, one would expect this variation to be much more pronounced. The assumption that women make fewer investments in their work-related roles, and are therefore less committed to the employing organisation or chosen career (Bruning and Snyder, 1983, Dickens, 1998) is unsubstantiated.

Moreover, the findings suggest that the difference between men and women regarding PSM (and its dimensions) and Employee-Leader Relations using the path-goal theory of leadership model are very small that no specific conclusions may be made. This appears to partially support the Naff and Crum (1999) study that had found women to have a slightly higher PSM score than men.

When examining the job characteristics of the functions performed by men and women the results indicate that men have more skill variety in their tasks, have better opportunity to establish informal relationships with other employees, and experience more job autonomy. However, this difference may be due to the fact that men occupy most of the managerial posts and thus enabling them to experience the registered variance. The findings appear to support the Naff and Crum (1999) study that found no significant difference in job satisfaction based on gender.

Generally, the findings show very little or no differences in the main organisational indicators, such as the level of OC, employee-leader relations, and PSM based on gender. Therefore, the findings illustrate that there is no justification for having a disproportionate number of men at senior management level than women other than the fact that women tend to disrupt their employment pattern due to family circumstances. This is a persistent cultural phenomenon that needs to be addressed more aggressively.

CONCLUSION

This study tends to support the contention that there is the possibility for the perception of the attributes and capabilities of men and women as groups to influence a manager's perception of the individual capabilities (Townley, 1990). The results indicate no or

very little difference between men and women on organisational issues that may influence organisational performance, such as, organisational commitment, public service motivation, and employee-leader relations. Hence the findings imply support for the Bevan and Thompson (1992) study which found that managers were evaluating men with different characteristics than they did for women; thus their appraisal method contributed to gender stereotyping. Bevan and Thompson (1992) had also found that where women achieved higher performance ratings these ratings did not necessarily translate into promotion in the same way as for men. This study partially supports this view and has shown that women see the organisation as not being equitable in awarding pay and promotions.

However, the main obstacle for women in terms of career progression appears to be the premature disruption of their employment due to cultural stereotyping; where women are seen as having the traditional role of caring for family members and men are seen as being the bread winners. The findings related to the family life cycle status suggest that once women leave their employment, they find it very difficult to return and fulfil their full potential. Thus, the concept of gender mainstreaming as proposed by Rees (2003) may be regarded as a viable proposition to this dilemma.

Using Rees's (2003) concept this basically means that: (a) it is important to regard the individual as a whole person therefore challenging the conventional male role of being the bread-winner and the female's participation in the workforce to be minimal; (b) encouraging civic participation in the decision-making processes thus, creating a culture of equal participation for women and men; and (c) creating an environment that fosters fairness, justice and equity, giving prominence to transparency, gender balance in decision making, equal outcomes and opportunities. Hence, gender mainstreaming as proposed by Rees (2003) creates an environment that leads to better governance.

However, for this environment to evolve there needs to be a determined effort. While many men do not consciously oppose gender equality in the workplace, these men take a passive approach to the issue (Hale, 1996). Hence, the reason for the discrepancy between what is acknowledged and what is practiced.

Finally, this study supports the view that there is a need for a renewed commitment to organisational productivity based on developing employees as leaders irrespective of their gender, where the focus is on individual capacities. It is important for public service organisations to develop a HRM approach that emphasises valuing and developing all people and valuing diversity, with the aim of promoting equality that is

linked to the achievement of organisational goals. This would facilitate a HRM approach that develops a workforce that is empowered, committed, motivated, suitably trained and adequately rewarded irrespective of gender.

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