Experiences and influences of women directors

EXPERIENCES AND INFLUENCES OF WOMEN DIRECTORS

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Statement of Sources

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgment in the main text of the thesis.

This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution.

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Abstract

The present research provides the first analyses of Australian women directors from the perspective of social identity theory. The overall objective of the research program is to confirm the validity of social identity theory to the study of women on corporate boards and in doing so, add to the limited knowledge regarding successful women directors. An aim of the research was to identify factors that are significant in the social identity of women who are successful directors of corporate boards. These factors were revealed through a longitudinal study (over six years) of changes in the demographic characteristics of the women and their board positions. Factors were revealed through their perceptions of their effectiveness as an ostensibly minority (female) board member. Similarities in stereotyped attitudes to men and women board directors confirmed their status as an ingroup member. Through identification of significant factors in women's success as board directors it is hoped to assist both individual women who are striving for success on corporate boards and organisations who wish to make more effective use of women on their boards.

Five studies examined various aspects of women directors' experiences and influences through three survey instruments that were used to collect data over a period of six years. A survey design allowed the gathering of detailed data on a variety of items thought to be relevant to women's experiences of being directors and allowed the data collected to be oriented to a theoretical framework. Thus, a survey design was deemed superior to common alternatives of analysis of archival company annual report data or re-analysis of data collected by executive search companies for a study of corporate directors.

A survey of 572 Australian women directors in 1995 identified many characteristics of women directors. A profile of a typical Australian women director was constructed and compared to international research on women directors covering a similar period (e.g., Burke, 1994b; Catalyst, 1993; Holton, Rabbets & Scrivener, 1993). An examination of differences

between the characteristics of executive and nonexecutive women directors confirmed that the two director roles could be perceived as distinct groups.

A further survey of the women six years later examined changes in their characteristics and board experiences. Of the 298 women who had agreed to follow-up research, 59 surveys were returned as no longer at the same address, 23 women indicated that they were no longer on a corporate board, and 32 were current corporate directors. Changes in the women's profiles that the directors had attained through increased board memberships and more central board roles were interpreted as indicators of success. Based on research by Cejka and Eagly (1999), similarities and differences in stereotypical attitudes of men and women directors were examined in relation to social identity theory. Factors in nonexecutive women directors' identification as board directors, their perceptions of their ability to contribute as board directors, and their behaviour as a board directors were assessed by measures from Karasawa (1991) and Westphal and Milton (2000).

The present research program demonstrated the value of social identity theory as a vehicle for understanding Australian women director's experiences on corporate boards. For the present research, social identity theory provided insights into how successful Australian women directors perceive themselves and other members of their ingroup of board directors. By contributing to a deeper understanding of successful women directors, it is hoped that a greater number of women will be able to successfully join ingroups of board directors, thereby breaking down the barriers to women.

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Chapter 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Researchers comment on the inequitable representation of men and women on corporate boards as the pinnacle of the glass ceiling phenomenon (Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000; Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000; Israeli & Talmud, 1997), however some women do gain appointments as board members and some appear to be quite successful. Extensive research over many years, commencing with Burson-Marsteller (1977) in the U.S.A., and as recently as the Equal Opportunity in the Workplace Agency (EOWA, 2002) in Australia, document the poor representation of women on corporate boards. Some organisations provide annual surveys of corporate directors, noting the slightly positive but unencouraging trends to gradually appoint more women directors. For example, Catalyst (1998c) regularly surveys the U.S. Fortune 500 corporations and Korn/Ferry International (1999) regularly surveys large Australian organisations. Several researchers propose arguments for the value of women on corporate boards, although such arguments seem to rely on few studies providing empirical evidence and few theoretical arguments (Burke & Mattis, 2000).

The present research takes a somewhat different approach from the "looking-from-the-outside-in arguments" of most researchers in the topic. Little appears to be known about those few women who do achieve board membership, how they view themselves, and how effective they may be at influencing board decisions. The present research seeks a more detailed understanding of women who are apparently successful board directors.

An improved understanding of how boards are structured and how women successfully operate within them should assist the construction of arguments for women that are persuasive to corporate boards. Successful arguments for women directors require an approach that appeals to current male-dominated corporate boards, which may be counter to the general "diversity is good" argument. Observations of successful women's characteristics may also

guide individual women in demonstrating appropriate characteristics to make them more desirable as board members.

The present research project; (a) surveys a significant sample of women who are directors of corporate boards, (b) confirms that nonexecutive directors are a distinct category of directors, (c) observes changes in their characteristics over six years, (d) seeks an understanding of these women through the stereotypes they hold about themselves and male directors, and (e) examines aspects of their identification with the board and their potential to influence the board.

1.1. Corporate Boards and their Directors

As a background to the issue of women directors, it is worthwhile to review current understandings of corporate boards and their directors.

1.1.1. Boards of Governance

Corporate governance is subject to extensive research by business and academia to find optimal ways of achieving competitive advantage (Fleischer, Hazard & Klipper, 1988; Francis, 1997; Gillies, 1992). Bosch (1995) defined a board of directors as the peak governing body of a company that is responsible for the continuing success of the organisation. Bosch (1996) emphasised that directors wield ultimate power and influence over the direction of the company, with ramifications for shareholders, employees, and the industry. Elgart (1983) described how through board initiatives and approvals, company policy and procedures are created or changed, new products developed, and new markets entered.

Coulson-Thomas (1993) suggested the personal attributes for the ideal director might include such characteristics as integrity, wisdom, authority, judgement, leadership, courage, independence, tact, diplomacy, and optimism. Mace (1971) emphasised that directors need practical competencies and skills, including knowledge of financial and ethical aspects of business, and vision of business strategy and policy. Izraeli and Talmud (1998) claimed that

most directors are generalists that are expected to exhibit good judgement and broad perspective; people with a varied business background who can make good decisions in uncertain times, whilst managing the expectations of stakeholders.

Bosch (1995) suggested that the knowledge, skills, and abilities of directors largely determine the quality of board decisions and the commitment of the directors. Bosch (1996) noted that, in Australia, the demands on company directors to date have been marginal, but the growing competitiveness of industry has resulted in performance pressures on these elite groups. Gillies (1992) argued that to maintain and enhance the quality of corporate governance, it is important for the composition of the board of directors to reflect current knowledge and business practices.

Management and boards of directors may not see the role of the board in exactly the same way. Mace (1971) suggested that management should consider the board a source of advice and counsel, whereas Parkinson (1993) claimed that owners and other stakeholders consider that the board should monitor the quality of management decision making. Hill (1995) suggested that successful boards balance the managerial view of boards with the monitoring and financial control desired by the owners. Cassell (1997) suggested that, as in other levels of organisational functioning, corporate boards appear to benefit from diversity.

1.1.2. Roles of Board Directors

The definitions of the roles of directors are broad, involving many and varied tasks, situations, and relationships. Izraeli and Talmud (1998) stated that a director needs to demonstrate accountability to stakeholders, and contribute to the resolution of internal problems and conflicts in the organisation.

Directors of corporate boards perform three fundamental functions: monitoring or control, service or advice, and resource dependence or resource acquisition (Lorsch & MacIver, 1989). In the monitoring or control role, directors act as representatives or fiduciaries of the stockholders, ensuring that CEO and top management performance reflects

external interests. The service or advice role is based on directors holding relevant and related experience to guide corporate strategy and advise the CEO and top managers on administrative and other managerial issues. Johnson, Daily, and Ellstrand (1996) elaborated on the resource dependence or resource acquisition role as a means of facilitating the continuance or acquisition of resources critical to the corporation's success. Directors' independence from top management, especially independence of the CEO, was regarded as a major factor in their effectiveness in performing these roles.

1.1.3. Different Types of Directors

The present research program examined factors relating to types of directors, as the different types may have significant differences. For example, directors who are perceived as independent from the CEO may have greater power than those that are regarded as subservient to the CEO.

Directors of boards are commonly classified as either of two types. In Australia, the two types are called *nonexecutive* directors and *executive* directors (Korn/Ferry International, 1999), however the terms for these two types of directors vary from country to country. In the United States, a nonexecutive director is often called an *outside* or *outsider* director and an executive director is often called an *inside* or *insider* director (Catalyst, 1998c). In Canada, the respective terms for nonexecutive and executive directors are *unrelated* and *related* directors (Catalyst, 1998b). In the U.K., the two types of directors are also called nonexecutive directors and executive directors (Holton, 2000), although there appears to be differences in roles from their Australian counterparts.

Subtle differences in the relative power and status of executive directors and nonexecutive directors that are apparent between countries probably reflect varying role expectations and governance structures. For instance, Holton (2000) commented on the "less important" nonexecutive director's role in the U.K, whereas Australians generally consider the nonexecutive directors along with the CEO to have the important roles. Although both

Canada and Australia have similar proportions of executive directors (25%) and nonexecutive directors (75%) on public companies, these two countries differ greatly in the proportions on private companies (Catalyst, 1998b; Korn/Ferry International, 1998). In Australia, 50% of the directors on private companies are nonexecutive directors, whereas in Canada there are few nonexecutive directors on private companies.

The position of chair of the board also differs across countries, again reflecting different governance structures. Korn/Ferry International (1998) reported that in the United States, 80% of boards appoint the CEO as chair, whereas in the U.K. about 20% of boards appoint the CEO as chair, and in Australia only 8% of boards appoint the CEO as chair. In Australia and to a lesser degree the U.K., one of the nonexecutive directors is usually appointed as the chair of the board.

For the present research program, an important distinction between nonexecutive directors and executive directors is that boards may freely choose nonexecutive directors whereas executive directors are on the board due to the particular position that they hold in the organisation. Thus, becoming an executive director is a process of climbing the corporate hierarchy, for which the difficulties for women are described by the phrase, *the glass ceiling* (Powell & Butterfield, 1994). A nonexecutive director is a discretionary appointment, so this avenue of gaining board membership appears to be a useful alternative for women who would otherwise be limited by executive promotion through their employment organisation.

1.1.3.1. Nonexecutive Directors

Nonexecutive directors are not employees of the organisation in any capacity other than as a member of the board of directors (Francis, 1997). Kesner (1988) reported that nonexecutive directors typically are senior executives, especially the CEOs, of other organisations. Daum (1994a) reported that nonexecutive directors typically bring extensive product or industry knowledge and other value to the company through previous senior executive experience, contacts, and political astuteness. Daum suggested that nonexecutive

directors should be unrelated to the CEO and independent from the actions of top management.

In the United States, a subcategory of nonexecutive directors called *affiliated* directors has been defined to identify outside directors who have a personal or professional interest in the actions of the CEO and top management. In Australia, the concept of affiliated nonexecutive directors is not formally recognised, although listings of affiliations that directors hold are published that show connections with other organisations that may be interested in the actions of the CEO and top management (Korn/Ferry International, 1999). Hill (1995) suggested that nonexecutive directors on U.K. boards often represent the interests of institutional shareholders, but will usually not be employees of the institutions to avoid conflicts of interest that might otherwise arise.

1.1.3.2. Executive Directors

Executive directors are employees of the organisation and achieve board membership because of their position in the organisation. Kesner (1988) stated that typically the CEO and the chief finance officer (CFO) would be executive directors. Catalyst (1998c) defined inside directors as officers of a company who serve as members of its board who may be people that hold senior appointments in the company, or they may be the owners or family members of the owners. Kesner (1988) noted that "insiders" could also be retired executives of the company. Bilimoria and Piderit (1994) also included relatives of current and former directors in their definition of inside directors. Although executive directors offer the board high levels of familiarity with policy, procedures, and staff, they hold appointments on the board because they either work for the company or are one of the owners.

In summary, there are differences between nonexecutive directors and executive directors between different countries and particularly the relative power of nonexecutive directors and executive directors. However, for the present research it is assumed that nonexecutive directors are not employed by the organisation in any capacity other than as a

board director, while executive directors are employees of the organisation, particularly its top management and the CEO. The distinctiveness of nonexecutive directors as a classification in Australia is tested in Chapter 3.

1.1.4. Composition of Corporate Boards

The average number of directors on boards of large Australian corporations has been stable over fifteen years at eight members, with two executive directors and six nonexecutive directors (Korn/Ferry International, 1995, 1999). Private companies have fewer directors than public corporations, with typically three executive directors and three nonexecutive directors. As Australian companies grow in size, the number of nonexecutive directors increases, but the number of executive directors typically remains constant. Bosch (1995) reported that the size of Australian boards is comparable to those in the United Kingdom and New Zealand, but smaller than boards of the United States. In the United States, the average size of a board is twelve members, although the number of directors on boards is reducing (Catalyst, 1998c).

In Australia, there is an emphasis on improving the proportion of nonexecutive directors on boards. Korn/Ferry International (1994) reported that nonexecutive director appointments have increased from 30% at the beginning of the 1980s to 75% in 1994. Francis (1997) suggested that the increased demand for nonexecutive directors reflects (a) a growing recognition of board responsibilities; (b) a growing perception of director accountability; and (c) a need for broad, objective, and independent views.

Although the size of boards in Australia is more similar to that of Great Britain than the United States, board ratios of nonexecutive and executive directors in Australia are more consistent with the United States. In Britain, executive directors appear to occupy twice as many board seats as their counterparts in Australia (Hill, 1995). Nevertheless, Bosch (1995) suggested that all three countries show a trend towards increasing the number of nonexecutive directors on the board.

In Australia, Bosch (1995) reported that the proportion of nonexecutive directors is higher in publicly listed companies, statutory corporations, credit unions, and charities than private companies, or subsidiaries of overseas companies. Korn/Ferry International (1997a) reported that privately held companies tend to have equal numbers of nonexecutive and executive directors. In all private organisations, the managing director or CEO and the financial director usually hold executive director appointments, whereas government boards typically are comprised of nearly all nonexecutive directors, sometimes even excluding the CEO. Korn/Ferry International (1997a) found that of government boards in Australia, 25% did not include the CEO, and in New Zealand, only 14% of government boards included the CEO as a member of the board.

In pursuit of greater independence for boards, a nonexecutive director may be appointed as board chair. Korn/Ferry International (1997a) found that in Australia, 92% of respondents had a nonexecutive chair, rising to 98% in the largest publicly listed companies. In contrast, Korn/Ferry International reported that a nonexecutive director is appointed as chair of the board in only 14% of companies in the United Kingdom and 19% of companies in the United States.

In summary, Australian corporate boards reflect a combination of characteristics found in boards of other countries. Australian corporate boards are smaller than United States boards, but are similar to the board sizes found in other countries, particularly the United Kingdom and New Zealand. Australian corporate boards have a similar composition of nonexecutive directors and executive directors to the United States, although the composition differs from other countries such as the United Kingdom. Australian corporate boards appear to lead the way in separate appointments for the chairman and the CEO, a separation of roles towards which other countries are still moving. As a whole, Australian corporate boards show sufficient similarities to make comparisons with other countries a useful exercise, however as all countries also show variations, simple comparisons are not a basis for firm conclusions.

Comparisons are made between the sample used in the present research program and the composition of corporate boards in Australia that has been documented by other researchers. Characteristics of boards reported by women directors in the present research would be expected to be similar to those reported by other researchers.

1.1.5. Diversity through Minority Board Directors

Many researchers advocate greater demographic diversity and in particular for more women on boards (Bilimoria & Wheeler, 1997; Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000; Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000l; Israeli & Talmud, 1997). Burke and Mattis (2000) described the growing body of research that focuses on the potential for women to contribute to optimal corporate governance, and the difficulties women face in becoming board members to demonstrate their potential. However, as Sheridan (2001) argued, little is known about what prompts individuals to become members of boards or how women come to be accepted on boards of directors.

Corporate boards are often viewed as homogeneous groups, commonly of men (Leighton & Thain, 1993), who are part of an elite group who share board memberships, socioeconomic backgrounds, university education, educational and professional training, and views on business (Useem, 1984).

1.2. Women as Minority Board Directors

The majority of literature on women board directors is concerned with the low levels of representation of women compared to men. The apparent assumptions are that a higher proportion of women is desirable and that a convincing enough argument will cause corporations to change board appointment practices to more readily accept women (Burke & Mattis, 2000). Women board directors are often nonexecutive directors, and new women directors are likely to continue to be nonexecutive directors until significant numbers of women executives reach CEO or CFO status. Unfortunately as Johnson et al. (1996) found there are no proven arguments for the value of nonexecutive directors to corporate

governance, regardless of their gender. Mattis (2000) reported that despite the lack of evidence to support a business case, corporate boards and CEOs are slowly accepting the proposition that women nonexecutive directors are positive for corporate governance.

1.2.1. Numbers of Women on Boards of Directors

The two commonly reported statistics about women's board representation are the percentage of board seats held by women, and the percentage of organisations that have a woman on their board (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001). Research by Catalyst (1998c) shows a much lower percentage of board seats held by women than the percentage of companies with a woman on their board (see Figure 1.1).

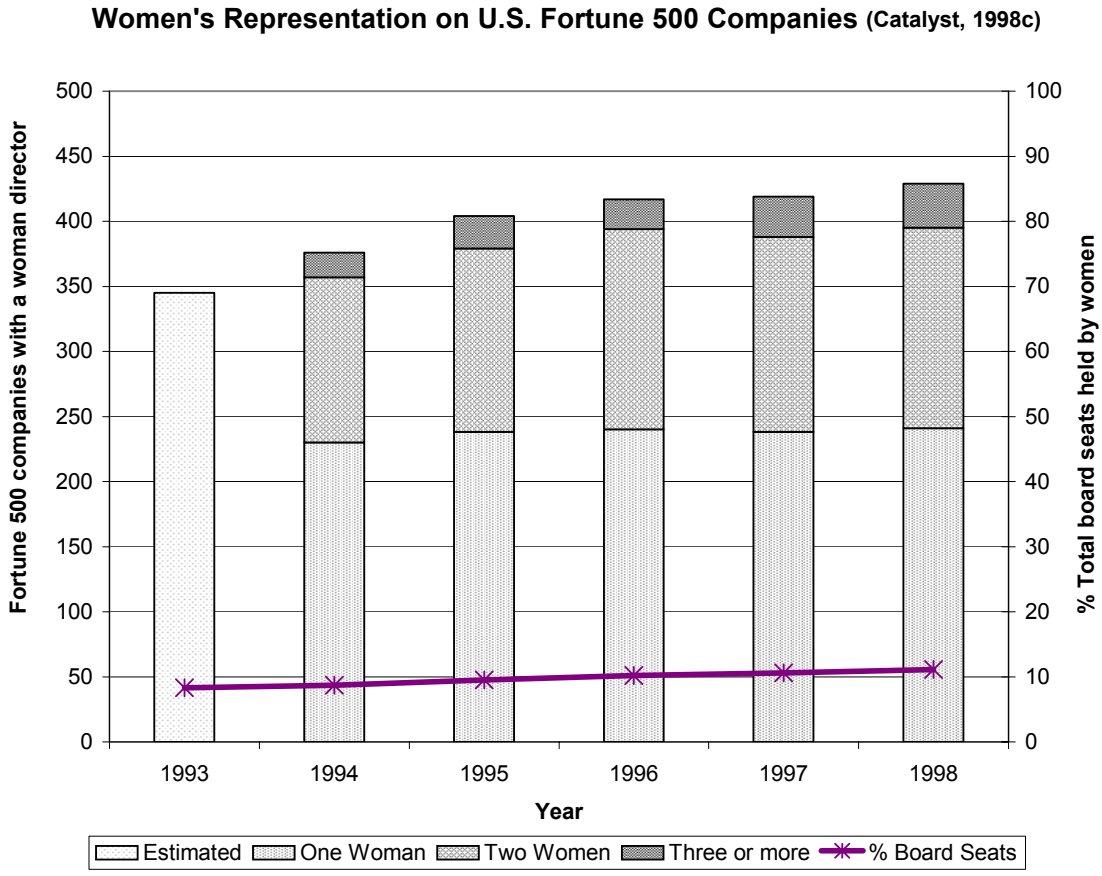

Figure 1.1 Women's representation on United States Fortune 500 companies

Data from Catalyst documents the difference between the percentages of Fortune 500 board seats held by women and the numbers of Fortune 500 companies with one or more women on their board. Catalyst (1998c) suggested a positive trend, with the number of

companies with a woman board director rising from 69% in 1993 to a relatively healthy 86% in 1998. However, the trend for total number of seats held is not impressive, with the total number of seats held by women rising from 8.3% in 1993 to a meagre 11.1% in 1998. One can understand researchers' disappointment with the number of appointments of women directors. Clearly, men occupy most board seats; prompting researchers to suggest that the few women appointed to boards are likely to be "tokens" (Bilimoria, 2000; Scherer, 1997; Webber, 1996). Australia also exhibits low representation of women on board seats (Korn/Ferry International, 1999) with women comprising 8.3% of all directors, and only 1.3% of executive directors.

1.2.2. International Comparisons

Detailed comparisons between the statistics across countries are problematic due to large differences in the survey samples. For instance, in the United States, researchers commonly use the Fortune 500 as routinely surveyed by Catalyst as a sample population. However, when Catalyst (1998b) attempted to replicate their research in Canada using the Financial Post 500 as the source of a sample they found serious shortcomings compared to the Fortune 500. Catalyst attempted to compensate by introducing additional organisations into their sample (the top 20 financial institutions, top 20 life insurance companies, and the top 20 crown companies). The attempt to compensate for the different samples was of such limited success that Catalyst (1998b) reported many of the statistics separately for the different groups. Although Catalyst made comparisons between their adjusted Canadian sample and the Fortune 500 sample, it is not clear that such comparisons are valid.

The size of the companies making up the Fortune 500 are so large that they dwarf the companies that necessarily make up the samples in other countries. As the Fortune 500 companies are so large, it is questionable whether a comparison between the Fortune 500 and any sample from another country will be a valid comparison between countries. Any such comparison is likely to be clouded by the differences between the sizes of the organisations in

the samples. For instance, one of the most widely reported indicators that an organisation will have a women director is a large organisation size (Burke, 2000a; Catalyst, 1998b; Harrigan, 1981; Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001), however the relationship between organisation size and the presence of a woman director is bound to vary across countries.

In summary, comparisons of women's representation across countries are fraught with difficulties, of which a great difficulty will be the different sizes of organisations in the respective samples. To make meaningful comparisons between countries, great care needs to be taken to hold other significant factors constant.

1.3. Studies of Women Corporate Directors

1.3.1. Reviews of Research on Corporate Boards

Whereas extensive research has been conducted into women's managerial advancement (Burke & McKeen, 1992; Mainiero, 1994a; Tharenou, 1997b; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989), few studies have considered the status of women who are directors of corporate boards (Burke & Mattis, 2000). Studies of board directors that do not make distinctions of gender are relatively frequent (as described in Johnson, Daily & Ellstrand, 1996, and Pettigrew, 1992), however studies of women corporate directors are less frequent (Bilimoria & Wheeler, 1997; Burke & Mattis, 2000).

Bilimoria and Wheeler's (1997) review recommended that more empirical research needed to be undertaken on corporate women directors, and suggested that consideration of boardroom dynamics, particularly changes to boardroom structures and practices were needed to improve women's status and representation. Bilimoria's (2000) recent review of empirical studies on the area concluded that the lack of theoretically rigorous studies impeded the discovery of patterns and conclusions regarding women's value on corporate boards. The shortage of theoretically based studies may reflect general limitations in theoretical approaches to research on women in management raised by Fagenson (1990a).

Overall, so little rigorous research exists that Bilimoria (2000) stated that there has been little advancement in understanding about the antecedents, dynamics and consequences of gender diversity on boards, despite several years of publications of demographics and other empirical surveys. Reviews highlighted the need for further studies of women on corporate boards, although they differ as to recommended priorities and methodologies for future research. The lack of studies on Australian women company directors and the absence of detailed empirical data suggested the value of a research program to examine aspects of women directors' status on corporate boards in Australia.

1.3.2. Reports from Industry Surveys

Commercial surveys such as Ashridge in the U.K. (Holton, Rabbetts & Schrivener, 1993), Catalyst in the U.S. (1998c) and Canada (1998b), and Korn/Ferry International (1999) in Australia and New Zealand regularly provide demographic data on women's representation on company boards. In Australia, Korn/Ferry International conducts an annual survey of over 100 organisations, including 35 companies with a turnover of more than $1.5 billion, that covers most industry groupings, to monitor boards, directors' issues, and demographics. As part of Korn/Ferry International's surveys, they include a brief section on women directors is included. In the United States, Catalyst collects data annually on the Fortune 500 companies, focussing on women's representation on company boards. Catalyst recently commenced an annual Canadian survey, also focussing on women's representation on company boards by collecting data from the Financial Post 500 plus the top 20 financial, 20 life insurance, and 20 public (crown owned) companies. The Ashridge Management Group (Holton, 2000) surveys the United Kingdom Times Top 200 companies every four years, examining trends in women's representation on company boards. The commercial surveys are a rich source of longitudinal data on the trends in board composition, and basic demographics on the characteristics of women ion the boards surveyed.

1.3.3. Women Directors across Industry Categories

Many authors have established that women directors have not been appointed to company boards uniformly across all industry sectors (for example, Mattis, 1997, in the United States, Holton et al., 1993, in the United Kingdom, McGregor, 1997, in New Zealand, and Izraeli & Talmud, 1997, in Israel). Elgart (1983) suggested that women directors are absent from the boards of companies in certain industries because women directors were more likely to be appointed to industries servicing women and in certain industries the companies were larger rather than smaller. Other reasons given have been that some industries (a) are more progressive than others (Harrigan, 1981), (b) are in later phases of the product life cycle (Fryxell & Lerner, 1989), (c) have female-oriented managerial hierarchies (Harrigan, 1981), (d) market to women consumers (Mitchell, 1984), (e) have a need to comply with equal employment legislation (Korn/Ferry International, 1993), or (f) have a need for companies to appear as women-friendly or socially-responsible organisations (Ibrahim & Angelidis, 1993). Mattis (1997) provided examples of the sort of organisations in the United States and Canada that appoint women directors as companies producing soap, cosmetics, toys, sporting goods, drugs, and banks and insurance firms. Holton & Rabbetts (1989) found that women directors were less likely to be appointed to industries with majorities of male employees such as communications, transportation, manufacturing, energy, or engineering companies.

In Australia, Korn/Ferry International (1995) found that women have highest representation in industries with a substantial percentage of female employees such as in finance and investment areas (27%), and retail and services areas (18%). The smallest representation of women directors is in industries that have a majority of male employees such as transport and distribution (3.4%), and mining and resources (1.2%). The finance and investment industries, and retail and service industries, in directing their marketing efforts to women, may have found it useful to have women board members.

1.3.4. Analyses of Women's Representation on Boards

Several empirical studies have analysed archival data or secondary data in an attempt to extend the understanding of women's board representation (Burke & Kurucz, 1998; Kesner, 1988; McGregor, 2000; Conroy, 2000; Mitchell, 1984). Two of the studies (Burke, 1995; Mattis, 1993) provided detailed analysis of United States data from Catalyst (1993). Other studies have used survey methodology to seek responses from the women (Burke, 1994b; Pajo, McGregor & Cleland, 1997; Sheridan, 2001). Researchers conclude that the profile of women company directors was moving towards well educated, professional directors, and there were increasing opportunities for women to advance to corporate director positions.

In the early 1980's, Mitchell (1984) analysed the situation in Canada based on a survey of 384 corporations obtained from commercial directories of directors, annual reports, and media surveys. Mitchell's Canadian study provided information on directorships by industry sector, the reasons women directors thought they had been appointed to the board, and their views of their contributions to boards. The study also described factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for the women directors sampled. Mitchell was encouraged by a significant positive change in the small numbers of women directors, arguing that it demonstrated a change in corporate attitudes.

Burke and Kurucz (1998) reported on a more recent Canadian study of demographic data about women directors based on published information from the report on Business Top 1,000 Canadian companies for 1996 and the 1997 Financial Post Directory of Directors. Data collected included current job title, age, education level, marital status, and type of board appointment held. Burke and Kurucz lamented the relative absence of women on corporate boards, despite their sample being such a talented, educated, and successful group.

Stephenson and Rakow (1993) published the only study that specifically examined women who held multiple board appointments. Directors were identified through published directories from Dun and Bradstreet and Standard and Poor, and were based on the largest

corporations in the United States at that time. The demographic characteristics of the women were analysed by primary occupation, education level, and broad industry type. Women directors were believed to facilitate information transfer within a network of companies. It was found that multiple directorships were held either in the same industry (e.g., two financial institutions) or in different industries with a clear association (e.g., financial and industrial). Stephenson and Rakow concluded that, in proportion to their overall numbers, women were more likely to be directors in industries where companies had a relatively high inter-dependence (such as retail and utilities) than in industries where companies were relatively independent of each other (such as service, transport, and banks).

1.3.5. Correlation and Regression Studies

Only a few studies were found that used multivariate statistics to examine aspects of women's board status (Bilimoria & Piderit, 1994; Fryxell & Lerner, 1989; Harrigan, 1981; Ibrahim & Angelidis, 1994; Kesner, 1988; Talmud & Izraeli, 1998).

Harrigan (1981) conducted a landmark study of 112 companies that examined the proportion of women on company boards compared to company sales volume, total number of employees, board type, and ratio of female managers to total managers. A probability model constructed by Harrigan indicated that the average probability of a firm electing at least one woman director was 20.5% based on size. The larger a firm was in sales volume, the more likely a female director was to be appointed. Female director appointments were positively related to the ratio of female managers to total managers. The study examined the appointment of both executive and nonexecutive directors, and found that there was a greater probability of women executive directors being appointed in smaller rather than larger firms. Women were more likely to be members of boards in companies with higher sales volume and with a high ratio of women middle managers, but executive directors were more likely to come from companies with fewer employees. Hence, Harrigan (1981) found that organisation

size and the extent of women in the management hierarchy were positively related to having women directors on boards.

Fryxell and Lerner (1989) examined both organisational and social responsiveness aspects of boards. The study considered representation of both women and other minorities in senior management, and on boards of directors, correlating representation with company performance for 113 United States companies listed by the Council for Economic Priorities. Significant correlations were found between numbers of women on the board and other minority representation. Multivariate analysis of financial performance, organisational characteristics, and environmental characteristics indicated that the representation of women on boards was positively associated with advertising intensity and organisation size. The findings of Fryxell and Lerner were consistent with those of Harrigan (1981), who found that women's representation on boards of larger firms was greater than on boards of smaller firms.

Kesner (1988) explored board director's representation on corporate boards by examining director types, director tenure, and gender in relation to subcommittee membership. Kesner's sample comprised 250 companies from the Fortune 500 of 1983, across 27 different industries, with chi-square analysis used for initial tests and multivariate modelling used in subsequent analyses. Kesner found that gender was not related to membership of committees within boards, however women were less likely to serve on executive committees. Furthermore, due to their having less progression in the corporate world compared to men, women were more likely to be appointed as outsider directors, be from business backgrounds, and have less tenure.

Bilimoria and Piderit (1994) further examined women's board roles by conducting a follow-up study inspired by Kesner (1988). Logistic analysis was used to test specific hypotheses predicting aspects of board subcommittee membership. Although Bilimoria and Piderit used a similar sample to Kesner, some of their findings differed. Bilimoria and Piderit found male directors had a higher likelihood of membership of a compensation committee

than did female directors, and male nonexecutive directors were preferred over female nonexecutive directors for audit committees. Women directors' board experience was equal or greater than that of their male counterparts and women directors were in non-business occupations more often than male directors were. However, similar to Kesner, Bilimoria and Piderit found that female directors had less board tenure and were appointed more often as outsider directors than insider directors compared to male directors. Bilimoria & Piderit (1994) suggested the results show a pattern of bias following traditional sex-gender typing. Male directors were over-represented on committees related to central governance issues, whereas men and women directors were represented equally on committees perceived as dealing with less central governance issues. Overall, Bilimoria and Piderit concluded that there appeared to be evidence of gender-based bias in selection, with male directors selected for the most important committees and women directors selected for lower status committees associated with the company's social standing.

Ibrahim and Angelidis (1994) examined 398 male and female directors for gender differences in directors' levels of corporate social responsiveness. Ibrahim and Angelidis used ANOVA techniques to establish that differences existed between men and women in relation to economic and discretionary components of their Corporate Social Responsiveness Orientation Scale. The study found that women directors were more philanthropically driven compared to more economically driven male directors. Both male and female directors were similar on the legal and ethic dimensions of corporate governance. The finding of greater sensitivity exhibited by women directors to corporate social responsiveness is backed up by the observation by other researchers that social sensitivity appears to be a major reason for the appointment of women to boards (Bilimoria, 2000; Selby, 2000).

Talmud and Izraeli (1998) published a study on the issues of director performance for women and men in Israel using a multivariate design. The sample consisted of 98 women and 127 men who responded to a survey sent to companies listed by the Tel Aviv stock exchange.

The study examined structural and institutional factors as explanations for differences between men and women directors' concerns about board performance, using hierarchical linear regression analysis. Women directors were more concerned about their skill levels as directors and felt a greater need to prove themselves when compared to male directors. Men, in contrast, were concerned about obtaining sufficient information to fulfil their role as a director.

Overall, there appears to be a lack of focus and a corresponding lack of theoretical framework with correlation and regression studies of women directors. The themes were an interest in subcommittee membership, the type of companies that have woman directors on the board, and associations between the presence of women directors and the integrity of corporate governance.

1.3.6. Interview-Based Studies

Several qualitative studies examined the personal experiences and contribution of women directors to boards. Bilimoria and Huse (1997) conducted a qualitative study comparing experiences of two women members of boards of directors of corporations from each of the United States and Norway. The four women reported their contributions as (a) providing new ideas; (b) providing broadness of perspective; (c) satisfying stakeholder pressures; (d) building positive relationships; (e) providing resources and intelligence; (f) focusing on issues and concerns not usually part of board business, including women's issues; and (g) providing a role model to women employees of the company. The Norwegian women directors were more aware of gender-related boardroom processes and structures, and were more openly feminist in terms of what they expressed. The two United States women directors, in contrast, emphasised fitting into the expected behaviours of the corporate world. The two Norwegian women directors made explicit comments about sexual behaviours as a norm in the boardroom and were aware of exclusion dynamics on the board. The two United States women directors were more focused on being professional and gaining power and

respect, and were conscious of uneven gender based power distributions but denied the existence of any cliques which excluded them. It is unclear how likely the authors considered that the views expressed by these four women were representative of inherent cultural differences or how much they were the coincidental views of two women from each country.

Vinnicombe, Singh, and Sturges (2000) interviewed a sample of twelve directors (six women and six men) from a British telecommunications company about their career development experiences to ascertain explanations for their career achievements. Interviews of 1½ hours with each director were analysed to gain an understanding of the individual experiences of the directors through identifying common concepts and themes. Three career development factors emerged from the interview analysis: finding a mentor, taking on challenges, and becoming visible. The conclusions of the research were that the career development patterns were similar for both genders of directors in the company examined.

Huse (1998) conducted a study of 20 women company directors in Scandinavia. The study used group discussion and interviews to obtain data about the women's backgrounds, their board experiences, and advice that should be given to women seeking board appointments. The women participating in the sample were between 40-50 years of age, with two respondents over 60 years. Fourteen of the women had industry experience and college level education. Five of the women held graduate university degrees (law, management, or political science) and one held a PhD. The women's backgrounds included banking, financial services, sports administration, public administration, large corporations, and management consulting. The boards on which women in the sample were appointed included the largest corporations in Norway and Sweden, as well as boards of small privately owned firms, universities, banks, service industries, sports, public companies, and particular event boards. The majority of women were married, one had never married, and four were divorced. Seven of the women had children, and two were grandmothers. Huse’s profile of the Scandinavian

women directors as middle aged, well educated, highly experienced, married women with children, is consistent with women directors from other countries.

Huse (1998) used narrative story-telling analysis to identify several themes that were then grouped. The women's perceptions of things that were important to male directors were: (a) nurturing of contacts, (b) maintaining "old boy's" networks, (c) authority, (d) prestige, (e) power, and (f) creating alliances. The women's perceptions were that (a) tokenism could be made to work to their advantage, (b) sacrifices in social life were necessary, (c) they were wiser and more diligent about board business than were male directors, (d) they created a respect for soft "values", and (e) they created a respect for women's contribution to the boardroom. Women perceived that they were excluded from cliques, that they sought companionship and support from other women on the board, and that sexual dynamics in the boardroom were always present. In terms of advice to women seeking board appointments, the women stressed the need for candidates to be active and visible in forums related to board opportunities. The women directors thought that they had to accept that they were not going to be accepted as equals with the men, but sought to make themselves effective according to their own strengths. The views of these Scandinavian women, particularly in acknowledging sexual dynamics in the boardroom, were consistent with the Norwegian women reported by Bilimoria and Huse (1997).

All women directors in these interview-based studies all exhibited common characteristics of being middle aged, well educated, and highly experienced, but differed in adapting to the cultural norms of their respective countries. They all appeared to be highly motivated strong individuals who were not afraid of taking on challenges and promoting their talents.

1.3.7. Commentaries and Anecdotal Reports

Anecdotal investigations of the experiences of prominent women directors have focused on the success of women in becoming members of boards and the challenges women

identify for future women directors (Collins, 1978; Marshall, 1995; Schwartz, 1980; Von Glinow & Mercer, 1988). Some commentators concerned with the representation of women directors on boards appear to have encouraged respondents to take a positive view of opportunities for women as directors (Naff, 1994; Ray, 1995; Romano, 1993; Segal & Zellner, 1992; Zeugner, 1993). Other commentators have made recommendations to assist companies and women prepare themselves for directorships, and attempt to encourage a positive long-term view of women's opportunities (Burke, 1994b; Daum, 1994a; Holton, 1995a; Lear, 1994; Nelton, 1987; Tifft, 1994). The focus of the reports has been the economic and social basis for supporting increased representation of women on corporate boards. The overall thrust of the commentaries and anecdotes was that women should have greater representation on company boards with the predominant assumption that gender diversity on boards of directors was desirable.

1.3.8. Summary of Research on Women on Boards

Bilimoria and Wheeler (1997) argued that the limited research on women directors had failed to examine systematically why women are under-represented on boards of directors. Most of the research on women directors has concentrated on establishing the numbers of women on various corporate boards, and on gathering demographic and benchmark information describing the women (Catalyst, 1995a; Holton, 1995c; Mattis, 1997). Studies have drawn conclusions from small samples of women directors, for example in the United Kingdom the sample used by Ashridge (Holton, 2000) is less than 100 women. Many studies fail to compare women directors with their male counterparts, or have only drawn simple comparisons of male and female directors (Vinnicombe, Singh & Sturges, 2000).

Several studies have been conducted without a theoretical framework, such as Elgart (1983) and Kesner (1988). Some have relied on limited non-parametric statistical analyses, such as McGregor (1997) and Mitchell (1984), who obtained extensive survey data that was then only analysed with simple percentages. Furthermore, no understanding of women

nonexecutive directors and executive directors as distinct groups appears to have been obtained. Sheridan (2001) suggested that research on Australian women directors to date has been primarily anecdotal. The present research appears to break new ground, being a comprehensive multivariate examination of women board directors and their experiences.

1.4. The Present Research Program

Women directors have an elite status in the corporate world and are conspicuous because they are so rare. Little appears to be known about them (e.g., their characteristics such as personal traits) or their influences on the board. Korn/Ferry International (1998), as part of their annual review of directors of boards, performs what little systematic research exists on women directors of Australian boards. Hill (1995) noted that the practical difficulties of investigation of elites restrict the information that can be collected.

The aim of the present research is to build a comprehensive picture of successful Australian women directors. The initial step is to identify the Australian women directors and record characteristics that might be predictors of success. Their characteristics are also compared to available Australian and international data. The focus is on the discretionary appointment of women nonexecutive directors, so it was though necessary to justify the discrimination between executive directors and nonexecutive directors as distinct categories. Without a clear definition of a successful board director, a longitudinal study over six years was selected as a simple means of defining success; women who were still corporate directors six years later must in some sense be successful. A comparison of stereotypical perceptions of directors by the women and their male colleagues was used to confirm the success of these women in becoming members of their ingroup of board directors. Finally, three aspects of self-perceptions of social identity and influence, from identification with the board as an abstract entity to their personal interactions with the CEO, were examined.

1.4.1. Theoretical Perspectives

Boards of directors are perhaps a unique group for which to apply social psychological theory. Whereas social psychology has formed many theories dealing with workgroup interactions, several aspects of corporate boards make them different from typical workgroups.

Corporate boards meet infrequently, usually at most about once per month. The amount of contact different board members have with each other between board meetings will vary markedly. Executive directors will usually meet each other on a daily basis over operational matters. Although some nonexecutive directors may meet each other frequently on an informal basis (e.g., as members of clubs or other institutions), and some will meet each other frequently as directors of other boards, many nonexecutive directors may have little or no contact between board meetings.

Corporate boards are unlike typical workgroups that have a single superior and a relatively clear purpose. Corporate boards, as the pinnacle of the corporation, have no clear superior and must determine strategic purposes for the corporation below them. Typically, executive directors represent operational aspects of the organisation, particularly financial performance, that are subordinate to the board. Some directors may represent superordinate purposes, such as owners' or shareholders' interests. Some directors may represent other stakeholder groups, such as employees or customers.

Unlike typical groups, where intragroup cohesiveness is common and intergroup dynamics are salient, with corporate boards intragroup dynamics are important. Intergroup dynamics of boards are usually managed either by individual board members representing significant outgroups or by executive directors negotiating intergroup relationships on behalf of the board. Corporate board intragroup dynamics are likely to be complex and transient, with the salience of any grouping varying with the issue at hand.

In addition to the challenges posed by the unique nature of corporate boards, the study of women in board director positions also requires special attention. Although the topic of women in organisations and management is relatively well developed (Acker, 1990b), theoretical frameworks of gender in organisations such as Acker (1990a) may not be the best candidates. The gender imbalance on most corporate boards appears to be more extreme than in most organisations. Nonexecutive women on company boards are not necessarily part of a management team and are not even from the same organisation for which they serve as a director. Fagenson (1990a) however, drew attention to the need for a robust theoretical basis for the study of women in organisations with her proposal for a gender-organisation-system approach.

Of numerous social psychology theories addressing the effects of gender composition on workgroups, several candidates for a research foundation are; the Similarity-Attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), Social Contact theory (Blau, 1977; Kanter, 1977), Group Competition perspective (Blalock, 1967), Relative Deprivation (Crosby, 1982), and Social Identity theory (Haslam, 2001; Turner, 1991).

Similarity attraction theory suggests that individuals are attracted to others from whom they expect to gain positive outcomes as a result of interaction (Tolbert, Graham & Andrews, 1999). Researchers argue that readily apparent demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and race are commonly used as indexes of similarity. Tolbert, Graham, and Andrews state that groups are simple collections of people with like similarities, with subjective states and behavioural predispositions improving as group size increases. Corporate boards clearly are comprised of strong individuals with group affiliations that are likely to affect natural inclinations towards others with similar personal traits. According to Tolbert et al., similarity attraction theory offers little in modelling complex group interactions.

Social contact theory rests on two assumptions: that increased rates of social interaction among individuals will lead to the formation of affective ties to members of a given social

group, and that such ties affect individuals' attitudes toward the group as a whole (Tolbert et al., 1999). Social contact theory focuses on the impact of numerical proportions on group dynamics, and neglects the impact of social prestige and status. Corporate boards are likely to be very conscious of social prestige and status, from the special nature of the CEO and Chair to the likelihood that some nonexecutive directors will represent the interests of owners or majority shareholders.

Group competition theory focuses on the impact of group proportions in a similar manner to social contact theory, but also fails to distinguish between numerical and social dominance (Tolbert et al., 1999). Group competition theory specifies a different outcome from social contact theory for the effects of increasing outgroup size. Similar to social contact theory, group competition theory does not appear to offer a rich enough model for analysis of corporate boards.

Relative deprivation theory suggests that the level of internal satisfaction for both men and women will increase with an increase in the proportion of women in a group (Tolbert et al., 1999). However, the observation that women are consistently under-represented on corporate boards indicates that the presence of women may threaten male directors' internal level of satisfaction. Relative deprivation theory also fails to address intragroup processes such as responses to changes in ingroup and outgroup proportions. The possible contradiction between the theoretical model and male director's presumed internal satisfaction regarding women, and the lack of support for the transient nature of group dynamics that is likely on boards, suggests alternative theories are better suited for research on women directors.

Social identity theory assumes that much, if not most, social behaviour is driven by individuals' needs to protect and enhance their self-esteem or self-image (Tolbert et al., 1999). An individual's self-image reflects both an interpersonal component, based on unique personal characteristics, and an intergroup component, based on various social groupings and their perceived social status. The social identity salience of various ingroups exists on a

continuum between low salience, whereby behaviour follows personal belief structures, to high salience, whereby social conformity overrides personal beliefs. The recognition of social groupings relies on self-categorisation theory to describe the multiple categories of group membership to which people assign themselves.

Social identity theory provides a rich model to cater for the complex interactions that directors are likely to exhibit on corporate boards. The ability of social identity theory to deal with a continuum between interpersonal and intergroup salience accommodates the gender-organisation-system proposal of Fagenson (1990a). Fagenson described how women's gender, organisation structure, and the systemic framework in which the organisation operates could jointly affect women's behaviour in top management positions. Social identity theory appears to be a social psychological theory that addresses issues such as the ones raised by Fagenson.

1.4.2. Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is founded on a well-documented tendency to demonstrate favouritism to the ingroup, particularly to the detriment of outgroups (Haslam, 2001). In addition, the basis for the ingroup/outgroup categorisation isn't so important, the mere act of individuals categorising themselves as group members is sufficient for ingroup favouritism (Turner, 1975). Researchers argue that the act of self-categorisation to a group, also referred to as social categorisation, requires members to cognitively assign meaning to their membership in terms of a distinct and positively valued social identity (Tajfel, 1972).

Social identity theory deals with intergroup behaviour arising from social categorisation in cognitive and motivational terms, as members define themselves by salient categorisations and seek to maximise self-esteem by positively differentiating their ingroup from the comparative outgroup. The important finding of social identity theory is that group members' frame their quest for positive distinctiveness in terms of "we" rather than "I" in order to feel good about who and what they are. Efforts to improve the social standing of the ingroup may be more important and more effective in improving members' self-esteem, than efforts to

improve individual outcomes. However, social identity theory notes that this tendency to favour the ingroup over self and indulge in outgroup differentiation is not automatic, but is dependent on particular social psychological circumstances or group salience (Haslam, 2001).

According to social identity theory, behaviour in general can be represented in terms of a bipolar continuum between a person acting solely as an individual and a person's actions being solely determined by their group membership (Tajfel, 1978). Figure 1.2 illustrates this continuum between individual and group social identity, and the impact on perception, behaviour, and the resultant psychological processes. Individuals typically identify with a multi-dimensional array of groups (occupational, religious, political, etc.), so the salience of a social identity at any point in time will vary with the context (Tolbert et al., 2000).

1.4.3. Social Identity Theory Applied to Women Directors

Gender is one of the most common ingroup/outgroup categorisations, and as demonstrated earlier in this chapter, women are clearly in the minority on most corporate boards. Women directors are typically in a minority group that similarity-attraction theory suggests should leave them with the undesirable status of ineffectual tokens. Yet, individual women directors show considerable success despite their membership of the apparently unattractive minority grouping of a woman board member.

Social identity theory offers some answers to the apparent contradiction of successful minorities with the possibility that multiple social categorisations may be active simultaneously. The salience of any particular categorisation is likely to dictate the influence the woman director is able to wield. Thus, astute women directors will seek to identify themselves with majority groupings that are effective on the board or other more attractive minority groupings to deliver their message. If she could successfully redefine perceptions of herself to be part of a salient ingroup then other similarities to this group may override the effects of gender as the criteria for categorisation. Successful women board directors are

likely to be routinely accepted by male directors as "one of us" on the basis of other categorisations apart from gender.

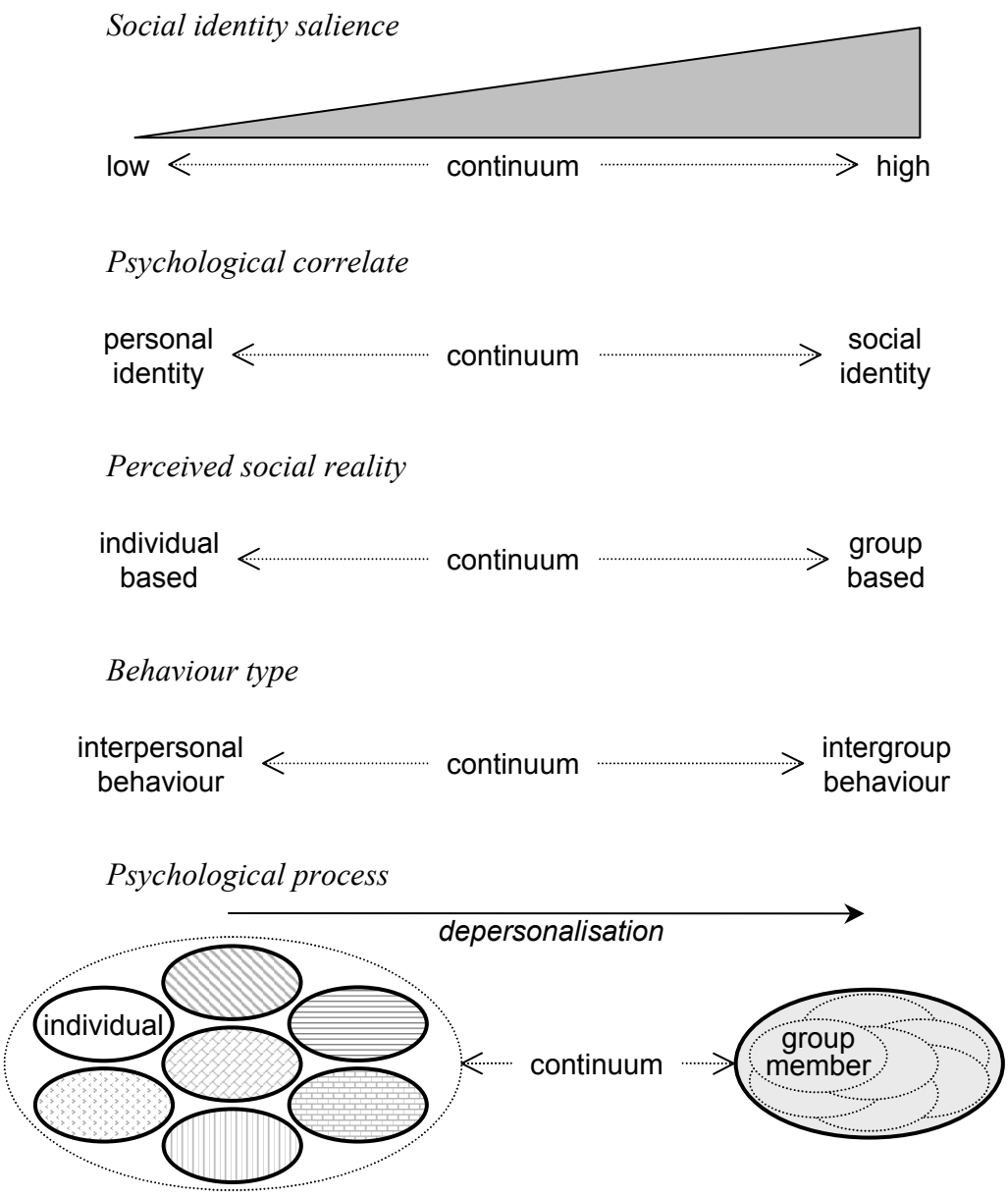

Figure 1.2 Psychological and behavioural continua related to social identity salience (after Haslam, 2001)

Westphal and Milton (2000) describe several ways in which demographic minorities might recast perceptions to focus on other categorisations as the salient grouping. In addition to the superordinate categorisation of the majority of directors being shareholders, other attributes might be whether they were appointed prior to the current CEO, their duration on the board, their relationships with other directors via other boards, their industry background,

their functional background, and their educational background. According to social identity theory, in adopting alternative categorisations the women directors will be inclined to redefine themselves in terms of the chosen grouping. If the women have successfully sublimated gender as a salient categorisation, then we might find these women's stereotypes of corporate directors is similar to those of men from the same ingroup.

1.5. Studies in the Present Research Program

The overall objective of the research is to confirm the value of social identity theory to the study of women on corporate boards and in doing so, add to the body of knowledge regarding successful women directors. The present research program commences with an analysis of the demographics of the women, confirming that they are representative in an international context, and then perform higher-order analysis to examine some more sophisticated questions. Although the two director types of executive and nonexecutive are defined by their relationship with the corporation, there may be other significant factors that confirm they are distinct social psychological categories. As definitions of success for boards and their directors are elusive, the women who have been directors over a six-year period may demonstrate characteristics that could be regarded as defining them as successful. If these women are successful members of an ingroup of board directors, then they should hold shared stereotypes with male directors. Social identity theory suggests that the characteristics that are salient under different aspects of social identity, from the board as an abstract ingroup, through perceptions of themselves as contributing board members, to their interactions with the CEO, should differ.

1.5.1. Study 1: Characteristics of Women Board Directors in Australia

The purpose of Study 1 was to create a profile of the personal, interpersonal, and organisational characteristics of Australian women directors. Commercial surveys in Australia such as Korn/Ferry International (1999), and even recently EOWA (2002a), provide few

detailed descriptions of the characteristics of Australian women directors. It was thought important to provide a comprehensive profile of these women to better understand and support the following studies. A profile of the women directors in the survey also allows comparisons with international literature, to observe similarities and differences between the Australian women and their international counterparts.

1.5.2. Study 2: Nonexecutive Directors as a Distinct In-Group Category

The aim of Study 2 was to confirm the significance of the similarities and differences between women nonexecutive and women executive directors in Australia. The study tested specific hypotheses from the data set concerning the differences between Australian women nonexecutive and women executive directors in relation to their individual characteristics, and interpersonal and organisational circumstances.

The appointment of women nonexecutive directors is at the discretion of the board, which must make a deliberate decision to appoint a member of what is usually a minority group to the board. In contrast to nonexecutive directors, the appointment of women executive directors to the board is determined by the women gaining promotion to a sufficiently senior level. For women executive directors, different factors and constraints apply that are paraphrased by the term “glass ceiling.” Beyond these definitional differences, there may be other social or psychological differences between nonexecutive directors and executive directors. Executive director women pursue a path of climbing the corporate ladder, while nonexecutive director women take a more lateral path of gaining acceptance on a board. Some ambitious executive directors may take on additional board roles as nonexecutive directors. The study tested hypotheses concerning the differences between Australian women nonexecutive and women executive directors in relation to their individual characteristics, and interpersonal and organisational circumstances using logistic regression analysis.

1.5.3. Study 3: Longitudinal Study of Successful Women Directors

Study 3 follows up on a sample of 298 women directors who were surveyed in 1995 to assess what changes in their board status have occurred. Executive directors may have progressed on to become nonexecutive directors. Nonexecutive directors may have increased in status by holding more simultaneous appointments on boards of larger organisations. In their progression, the women's individual circumstances, interpersonal relationships, and organisational context could have changed. Changes in the women's demographic profile and careers as corporate directors are analysed using non-parametric statistics according to individual, interpersonal, and organisational characteristics.

1.5.4. Study 4 Stereotypes of Male and Female Directors

Study 4 provided an analysis of how women directors and their male peers view the characteristics of corporate directors. Men are most likely to be employed in occupations thought to require self assertion and a desire for achievement, whereas women are more likely to be employed in occupations reflecting a concern for others and selflessness (Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Stereotypes describe expectations about people. Differences between perceptions of stereotypes are likely to reveal the extent of conformance to ingroup norms.

If male directors are perceived as having more skills that are relevant to the board director role than female directors then the assumption of board directorships as a male-dominated role will be supported. However, Carli (1989) demonstrated that the assumption of male competence compared to females could be influenced when group members are presented with evidence of a female with superior expertise on a given task. If the stereotypes of both male and female directors are perceived as similar on skills that are relevant to the board director role then there is a possibility of women sublimating their gender differences and making other role-relevant characteristics salient.

To the author's knowledge, no studies have specifically identified the set of characteristics associated with women directors compared to men directors. The gender-

stereotyped attitudes of women directors and their male peers were compared using non-parametric statistics. Similarities and differences were highlighted, and the implications were discussed.

1.5.5. Study 5 Nonexecutive Director Social Identity and Influence

Study 5 examined how the social identity of women directors is related to different factors, depending on the social context that is salient. Three different contexts were examined: the woman's relationship with the board as an ingroup member, the woman's perceptions of her ability to contribute to the board, and the woman's interactions with the CEO of the board. A scale from Karasawa (1991) that measures social identification with a group provided a measure to investigate the women's perception as ingroup members. Westphal and Milton's (2000) study on minority influence on corporate boards, provided a scale and additional items to investigate the women's perceptions of their ability to contribute to the board and provide advice to the CEO of the board. Multiple regression was used to evaluate what factors were important to these successful women directors in different board-related social contexts.

1.6. Research Design

According to Sommer and Sommer (1991), the choice of a research design is dependent on the research purpose, research questions, research period, and available resources. The research method adopted must be suited to the research questions to be considered. Given that the hypotheses have been deduced from a theoretical framework, a traditional hypothetical-deductive research model was employed for the present research program. Creswell (1994) described how quantitative data are used to test theories that either will be supported or will have lack of support from the gathered data.

1.6.1. Quantitative versus Qualitative Research

Creswell (1994) stated that proponents of quantitative research argue for the scientific superiority of quantitative methods compared with qualitative research methods. Superiority of quantitative research has been claimed as the basis of objectivity derived from controlled measurement (Berg, 1995) and from the ability to rigorously analyse the data collected. Creswell (1994) also puts the contrasting view that qualitative data provides a more subjective and personal consideration of the research phenomena, with an in-depth understanding more clearly derivable from qualitative data.

Only a small number of empirical studies have been conducted on the women who are company directors. Researchers have relied on data from annual reports and anecdotal reports concerning women's board experience, as discussed previously. Most empirical research has been based on corporate boards rather than on the women as individuals. It was judged that a major advance in understanding of the research area would result from a methodology that allowed multivariate statistical analysis techniques to assess the relative importance of a range of factors. Therefore, a quantitative approach to the research questions was adopted using the method described by Mitchell (1985) as a correlational field study.

1.6.2. Correlational Field Studies

Mitchell (1985) described a correlational field study as a study that examines relationships among independent and dependent variables of interest in a natural, as distinct from a laboratory, setting. Sekaran (1992) explained that a correlational field study usually calculates the relationship between two or more sets of variables using multivariate analysis. For the present research program, a correlational field study supported the use of multivariate analysis to assess the roles, influences, and attributes of women directors.

Mitchell (1985) noted that correlational field studies have limitations, particularly an inability to argue for causal links and a lack of in-depth explanation of findings. Mitchell also noted many shortcomings in previous survey-based research studies of organisational issues,

including unreliable measures, small sample size, low powered statistical tests, use of non-random samples of convenience, and a lack of meaningful responses. A single survey by its nature is also gathering only cross-sectional or contemporaneous data, which denies any attempt to infer causality from the results.

To overcome some of the limitations of a correlational field study attempts were made in the construction and analysis of the survey to minimise the disadvantages of a survey-based correlational field study design, as outlined by Mitchell (1985). Established theories, such as social identity theory (Haslam, 2001) and self-categorisation theory (Turner, 1991), were used to guide the choice of theoretical constructs to measure and propositions to test. Measures with different response formats, such as mixing multiple-choice and binary responses were used to reduce the effects of spurious common method covariance, although this could not be eliminated due to the cross-sectional nature of the data. A relatively large initial sample (572 responses) provided satisfactory power for statistical analyses. Multivariate analysis procedures of logistic regression and multiple regression were used to examine joint and relative relationships among sets of variables.

Furthermore, longitudinal data was also collected on the demographic and situational profile of women directors. Data were collected at two periods: 1995 and 2001. There were 572 women in the first data collection with 298 women who agreed to be part of follow up research. For comparative purposes, a sample of men directors was also surveyed as part of the second data collection. By using a longitudinal design, both predictive and reciprocal relationships can be examined, and the disadvantages outlined by Mitchell (1985) could be reduced.

1.6.3. Survey Design

Three surveys were used to collect data for all five studies. A survey design allowed the gathering of detailed data on a variety of items thought to be relevant to women's experiences of being directors, collection of data on men directors' board experiences, and allowed the

data collected to be oriented to a theoretical framework. Thus, a survey design was deemed superior to the common alternatives of analysis of archival company annual report data or re-analysis of data collected by other research companies.

Hill (1995) warned that there were practical difficulties associated with sampling company directors. He argued that the information that can be collected is restricted which in turn restricts the number of topics that can be researched. A self administered survey was considered a superior survey design compared to relying on company directory information (or secondary data as per Conroy, 2000), or the bias that can arise from using a convenience sample of personal contacts (as reported by Hill, 1995). For the purposes of the present studies the survey items were derived from previous research on minority company directors (Westphal & Milton, 2000), research on women directors (Burke, 1995; Mattis 1993), and research on women executives (Tharenou & Conroy, 1994). As the subject area is relatively underdeveloped, the theoretical predictions and implications of the studies must be regarded as tentative.

A self-report survey procedure allowed the collection of a large national sample of women directors on Australian boards across all states and territories that could not have been achieved through a qualitative design. The time and cost effectiveness of a self-report survey allowed a large sample of responses to be gathered that would have been implausible to administer by another method across a large continent such as Australia.

Sekaran (1992) described an advantage of a good survey procedure as supporting inferences about the general applicability of the results to a larger population (external validity) from which the sample is drawn. A closed question format was chosen, as per Hinkin (1995), on the basis of being able to test the propositions derived from the theoretical models, plus having higher return rates, ease of scoring, coding, tabulation, and analysis. A survey also allows respondents time to reflect on the questions contained in the survey and provide considered responses. Hinkin (1995) reported common criticisms of self-administered surveys

as being concerns about common method covariance, the validity and reliability of measures, the time taken to obtain returns, and low response rates.

1.7. Summary

Corporate boards of governance and their directors provide a unique context for the application of social psychological theory. As a group, corporate boards meet infrequently although individual directors might meet as often as daily. There are two clearly labelled types of group members in executive directors and nonexecutive directors, however these two labels may obscure much complexity, especially with the varying allegiances to stakeholders that nonexecutive directors may hold. In Australia, there are usually two official leaders within the group, the CEO, and the (usually nonexecutive director) Chair. Boards carry responsibility for the organisations they serve, with no clear superior but a range of potentially conflicting stakeholders. Corporate boards and their members have no reliable measure of their effectiveness or success apart from a sometimes-tenuous link with the long-term success of the organisation.

Women's low representation on corporate boards is well documented by many researchers, with some researchers going as far as suggesting that the few women on boards (often only one) may be ineffectual "tokens." Many researchers argue for greater acceptance of women on boards based on the principle that diversity is a sound business strategy. However, despite the apparent merits of the diversity argument, limited progress is apparent in growing the number of women on boards. Despite this background, anecdotal and interview-based evidence suggests there are some very effective women on boards for whom no one would level the insult that such women are tokens. A lack of empirical research and rigorous theoretical frameworks is blamed for the conceptual gap between women's low representation on boards, the difficulty in convincing boards to adopt more women, and the existence of many successful individual women directors.

Social identity theory appears to be a theoretical framework with which to investigate the various aspects of women's representation on corporate boards in Australia. Commencing with an extensive survey to capture as many women directors as possible and confirm the sample's representativeness against international research, the sample was re-surveyed after a six-year period to try to detect successful women directors. Several analytical studies examined these Australian women directors to determine whether nonexecutive directors really are a distinct category from executive directors, to confirm whether the women who are still directors after six years can be regarded as successful, to assess whether the apparently successful women have become members of an ingroup of board directors, and to determine the factors that are important to successful women directors in various social contexts.

By gaining a better understanding of women directors, particularly those who are apparently successful, future research may be able to determine what attributes women must learn to display to be attractive for selection as board members, and what attributes they need to cultivate to remain as effective board members. A better understanding of the factors that make women directors successful may also help future researchers build more attractive arguments for corporations to convince them of the desirability of appointing more women to their boards.

Chapter 2

2. CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN BOARD DIRECTORS IN AUSTRALIA

The aims of the present chapter were to describe a profile of the characteristics of Australian women directors and compare their characteristics, as far as practical, with those of their counterparts from other countries. The profile sheds some light on the characteristics of the few women who gain board appointments in Australia.

2.1. Introduction

The chapter is in two parts: the first part being a profile of Australian women directors from a sample of 325 directors taken in 1995, and the second part being comparisons between the 1995 sample and profiles of women directors reported in the international literature for a similar period.

2.1.1. What are the Characteristics of Australian Women Directors?

As described in the first chapter, a review of the research on women company directors demonstrates a paucity of empirical studies on characteristics associated with being a director. In Australia, Korn/Ferry International performs the only regular research on boards of directors, although it does not focus on women directors. The Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency (EOWA, 2002a) have just commenced surveying Australian women directors, modelled on Catalyst publications (1998a, 1998c). Other demographic data have been gleaned from occasional reports in the literature. A recent study by Sheridan (2001) surveyed the characteristics of women directors of publicly listed companies using a survey instrument provided by Professor Ronald Burke of York University, Canada.

Korn/Ferry International publishes an annual study of boards of directors drawn from organisations that agree to participate. However, a dramatic decline is apparent over a few years in the number of organisations participating from 194 organisations in 1994 (Korn/Ferry International, 1995), to 82 Australian organisations in 1998 (Korn/Ferry International, 1999).

The types of organisations surveyed include publicly listed (51%), public unlisted (25%), private (10%), and government (14%). Organisations tend to be large by Australian standards, with only 11% recording revenue of less than $50 million and only 14% with less than 250 employees. The organisations covered all industries and included organisations whose ownership lay in other countries. The average size of the boards was eight directors, including an average of two executive directors. Although the organisations were already large by Australian standards, Korn/Ferry International also report separately on the top 15 percent of companies (over $2 billion revenue and 5000 employees), presumably to create a sample more comparable with the United States benchmark of the Fortune 500. Korn/Ferry International does not state the number of women surveyed. From estimates based on statements in their 1999 report, there appeared to be about 30 women holding approximately 50 board positions. Characteristics of women directors reported by Korn/Ferry International were median age, industry, organisation type, professional background, and managerial level.

Sheridan (2001) published a survey of the characteristics of 46 women directors identified from Australian Stock Exchange lists of Australian owned publicly listed companies. She did not state any other demographics about the organisations from which the women responded. Characteristics of women directors reported by Sheridan were average age, marital status, children, salary, education, multiple directorships, occupation type, and professional background.

EOWA (2002a) surveyed 152 of the largest Australian corporations in 2002 and found 96 board seats held by women directors. No attempt was made to detect women who held more than one board seat. The only demographic data stated was the corporation's industry.

The present chapter reports on a survey of 325 women directors conducted in 1995. The women directors held 507 board positions on publicly listed (13%), public unlisted (14%), private (30%), government (18%), and not-for-profit (25%) organisations. There was a considerable difference in the size of the organisations reported by Korn/Ferry International

(1996) and the present sample. Korn/Ferry International, reporting on 154 large Australian organisations covering 50 board positions held by women, found only 25% had less than 250 employees. The present sample covering a far larger number of organisations, accounting for 606 board positions held by women, found 64% had less than 200 employees. Both surveys captured a similar number of large organisations: sixteen organisations had more than 8000 employees in the present study, and seventeen had 5000 employees in the Korn/Ferry International (1996) study. The organisations reported in both the present study and Korn/Ferry International covered all industries and had an average board size of eight directors. Characteristics collected by the present survey covered individual attributes and interpersonal relationships. The present survey also collected several characteristics of the woman's employment organisation and the organisations of which she was a board member to illustrate organisational contexts.

2.1.2. Do Australian Women Board Directors Differ From Other Countries?

Where possible in the present chapter, the profile of characteristics of the women company directors is compared to other Australian and international data. Most researchers noted the tendency for large corporations to have large boards and large boards to be most likely to appoint a woman (e.g., Elgart, 1983; Fryxell & Lerner, 1989). It was also apparent that large organisations and large boards dominated the characteristics of the samples of other countries. To create a sample more comparable with those available from international empirical studies, women directors in the present sample indicating a board size of fewer than five directors were omitted from further analysis.

Catalyst (1993) reported on the characteristics of the women in the first of their annual surveys of women directors from the United States Fortune 500 list, but did not report on women's characteristics in any later surveys. Catalyst did not state their total sample size in 1993, although they stated they augmented their sample with data from annual reports, presumably to increase the coverage to the whole of the Fortune 500/Service 500 list. In later

years Catalyst relied on annual reports and proxy statements for coverage of the full 500 (Catalyst, 1998c). Using the discussion of their research method in 1993, their sample size was estimated from a statement of a 41% response rate from 394 questionnaires at 160 women. Catalyst (1993) also mentioned additional information was gathered on 304 female directors, but did not describe whether the additional information included their characteristics. Catalyst reported percentages rather than frequencies, so we do not know the number of people in the sample who answered each question. Other surveys, including the current study, show a variation in the number of responses for each question. Catalyst's sample of the Fortune 500 was biased towards large organisations and such bias may affect the reported characteristics of the women directors in their sample.

Burke (1994b) based his Canadian sample on 278 responses from a sample drawn from the 1992 edition of the Financial Post's *Directory of Directors*. No demographics were stated about the organisations from which the women responded. Of the responses received, 259 reported their age, 251 reported their education level, 255 reported their salary, 277 reported their marital status, 271 reported on the presence of children, and 185 of those with children reported on the numbers of children.

Holton et al. (1993) identified their United Kingdom sample of women directors from the Times Top 200 list of the largest private sector industrial companies. Industrial sectors covered were service (49%) including retailers, and with percentages not stated, communication/transport, manufacturing, and energy. The 51 women identified were listed individually. The only characteristics reported across the whole sample were the individual women's ages and the average number of children across the sample. Holton et al. stated that their sample was biased towards large private industrial organisations and such bias may affect the reported characteristics of the women directors.

Pajo, McGregor and Cleland (1997) replicated the method of Burke's (1994) survey of women directors in New Zealand. The top 200 New Zealand companies were selected from a

list published by *Management* magazine on the basis of revenue. The listing included a range of public and private companies, subsidiaries of overseas companies, producer boards, cooperatives, and state-owned enterprises. Women directors were identified from annual reports backed up by letters to companies where the gender of directors was unclear. A total of 31 useable responses were received. The characteristics reported were age, ethnicity, the presence of dependants, education level, industry, profession, functional expertise, occupation, directors' fees, and an indication of the top total income received by directors. Pajo et al. also included items for the method by which the director's name was brought to the attention of the board, and the importance of various factors in their selection as a director.

Talmud and Izraeli (1998) surveyed 98 women from the publicly traded Israeli corporations on the Tel-Aviv Stock Exchange. They did not state any other demographics about the organisations from which the women responded. Characteristics reported were average age, average years of education, presence of a university degree and type of degree, average years of board experience, own company share ownership, shareholder relationships, proportion of executive directors, and employment status.

In summary, few surveys of women directors include demographic information on the women and their employment organisations, or the boards and the organisations that they serve. The only relatively frequently reported items reported are age, education, marital status, numbers of children, and salary. Some reports support a simple comparison between the women directors of Australia and their counterparts in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Israel.

2.2. Method of Sample Definition and Data Collection

2.2.1. Sample Definition

To be able to draw inferences about the characteristics of women directors in Australia the data needed to be a representative sample of Australian women directors. In the absence

of any ready reference for the total population of women directors and only a few partial reference sets, a representative subset had to be assembled for the present sample.

Korn/Ferry International (1995) estimated the population of Australian women directors to be about 4,000. However, to identify these women directors, the *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995) and *Jobson's Yearbook of Australian Companies 1995/96* (McBride, 1995) were the only references which provided names and contact details. In cases where the gender of the director was unclear from the listing, the company was contacted by telephone and clarification sought. The two references only yielded 1,555 women directors; these references were augmented with personal contacts and inquiries to professional associations and executive search companies.

Of the professional associations, the Australian Institute of Company Directors declined to participate in the research program. The Professional Nonexecutive Directors Association would not divulge the names of directors on their database, but agreed to forward the questionnaire directly to their women directors. Although the organisation stated that they had 108 women directors on their database, I was unable to confirm whether there were any overlaps with women directors identified from other sources. Using all sources, 1,859 Australian women company directors were located. Identification of the remaining 2,000 of the total 4,000 women directors that Korn/Ferry International (1995) estimated remained elusive.

A pilot survey was conducted on a sample sourced from personal contacts and the first 100 women directors from the *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995). Responses to questions from the pilot survey were used to rephrase or re-format questions that appeared to be unclear or a source of confusion to respondents. The women directors during the pilot expressed a high level of interest, which may reflect the isolation some expressed about being the sole woman on a company board. The introductory letter and final survey instrument are included in appendices B and C respectively.

To enhance the return rate, questionnaires included a postage-paid self-addressed envelope. Apart from the women managed directly by the Professional Nonexecutive Directors Association, all women directors who had not responded after 20 days were sent a follow-up letter that included an additional survey. A further 20 days later, women directors who had still not responded were sent a second follow-up letter and survey. A preliminary check to ensure that respondents were current women board directors was performed by two questions ("What is your sex?" and "Are you currently on a Board of Directors of a company?"). Using the described procedure, an overall return rate of 31% was obtained – see Table 2.1.

Table 2.1
Sources and Response Rates for Women Directors Located for the 1995 Sample

Sample source	Sample Size	Number of respondents	Proportion of total
The Business Who's Who of Australia (1995)	1459	369	64.5%
Jobson's Year Book of Australian Companies (1995)	96	46	8.0%
Professional Nonexecutive Directors Association	108	78	13.6%
Australian Institute of Credit Union Directors	93	34	5.9%
AMROP International	73	21	3.7%
Waite Consulting Pty Ltd	23	17	3.0%
Personal contacts	7	7	1.2%
Totals	1859	572	100 %

2.2.2. Sample Representativeness

The *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995) was the only reference that contained sufficient information for a thorough check of the representativeness of the respondents. As the *Business Who's Who of Australia* also provided nearly two-thirds of the respondents, it was used to check the sample representativeness. Women directors who responded to the survey were statistically compared to those that did not return the

questionnaire. Chi-square tests investigated whether respondents and non-respondents differed in terms of geographic location of companies, year of establishment of company, total number of company employees, capital issued, company revenue, or industry category. The results of the chi-square tests showed no significant differences across the respondents and the non-respondents, except for industry category.

There were significant differences between the industry categories of the respondents and other women directors in the *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995) (χ^2 (9, N = 1659) = 53.45, $p < .001$). Respondents in the sample were more likely to be in the industries of mining, transportation, retail trade, finance and insurance, and public administration. Women directors in the *Business Who's Who of Australia*, who did not reply were more likely to be in construction, manufacturing, wholesale trade, and services industries.

By establishing that the sample data exhibited representativeness in all aspects except for industry category, inferences can be made that the characteristics and traits identified in the sample can be extended to the greater population of women directors in Australia.

2.2.3. Reducing Small Business Owners in the Sample

Frequencies and totals were calculated for the responses to survey questions. An initial assessment of the results led to the conclusion that even though the sample was representative of the *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995), in the attempt to locate all women directors in Australia, women directors of small businesses dominated the sample. Of the 572 responses, the average board size was only six directors, whereas the literature raised an expectation of eight directors. Investigation showed that 39% of the sample were executive directors, and of these, 50% reported that their basis of recruitment was ownership of the company. The available literature had produced a much lower expectation of the proportion of executive directors (less than 20%) and an expectation that most executive directors would be employees of the board's organisation, not the owners.

The women who were executive directors due to their ownership of the company and were from small boards were apparently small business owners. Further investigation showed that these women directors of small businesses appeared to have quite different characteristics from women directors of large corporations. The small business owners were not the focus of the research program. The small business owners were eliminated from the sample by excluding directors who were only on boards of four or less directors.

The reduced sample comprised 325 of the 572 women directors and was more consistent with expectations from the Australian literature (such as Korn/Ferry International, 1996) and more comparable with international studies of women directors. Analysis of the revised sample showed an average board size of eight directors, with 23% that were executive directors, and of the executive director group only 24% that had obtained their position through ownership of the company. Although the numbers of executive directors were slightly higher than expectations, in other respects the data was consistent with expectations. The responses from the reduced sample to the survey questionnaire are summarised in Tables 2.2 to 2.31.

2.2.4. Survey Variables

The survey questionnaire chiefly used multi-item scales, with some binary measures. An alphabetical listing of survey items is provided in Appendix D. The variables used in the analysis were in four broad categories. In addition to three categories from Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) of individual, interpersonal, and organisational characteristics.

The most important item measured was the position the director held on the boards for which the director was a member. A multiple-part question allowed for up to three boards. Possible director positions were 1 (*Chair – Executive*), 2 (*Chair – Nonexecutive*), 3 (*Managing Director*), 4 (*Director – Executive*), 5 (*Director – Nonexecutive*), and 6 (*Secretary*). The item allowed for a distinction between nonexecutive directors and executive

directors, and identified those few women who were in the ultimate positions of chair of the board or managing director (chief executive officer).

2.2.5. Method of Analysis

The profile of women directors was obtained using descriptive statistics such as totals, percentages, medians, and means. International comparisons were obtained by comparing percentages, medians, and means between the relevant studies.

2.3. Characteristics of Australian Women Directors

The characteristics of Australian women directors are categorised as individual variables, interpersonal variables, or organisational variables.

2.3.1. Individual Variables

Individual variables pertain to the women director as an individual in her own right, independent of interpersonal relationships or organisational environment.

2.3.1.1. Director Age

Women directors' age is a commonly reported characteristic by most researchers. Collecting the item allowed confirmation of the sample representativeness against other Australian sources (e.g., Korn/Ferry International, 1996) and international samples. Age is also a common control variable that is likely to influence the director's status regardless of gender or other characteristics. The item was gathered using a 12-point ordinal scale with five-year intervals from 1 (*less than 25 years*) to 12 (*over 70 years*) – see Table 2.2.

Women directors were generally middle-aged, with over a quarter (27%) of the sample aged between 45 and 49 years, and nearly two-thirds (64%) aged between 40 and 54 years. Their average age was estimated at 47 years old, with 66% less than 50 years old.

Women directors in the present sample were a good match with those reported by Korn/Ferry International (1997a), with a mode of 41 to 55 with 73% under 50, and Sheridan

(2001), who found women directors varied in age from 28 years to 75 years, with an average age of 45.

Table 2.2
Director Age

Years	Frequency	%
25 to 29	2	0.6
30 to 34	19	5.8
35 to 39	42	12.9
40 to 44	65	20.0
45 to 49	88	27.1
50 to 54	54	16.6
55 to 59	22	6.8
60 to 64	19	5.8
65 to 69	10	3.1
Over 70	4	1.2
Total	325	100%

2.3.1.2. Highest Level of Education

The woman director's highest level of educational attainment is a commonly reported characteristic by most researchers. Collecting this item allowed comparison with international samples. Education level is also a common control variable that is likely to influence the director's status regardless of gender or other characteristics. The item was an 11-point ordinal scale ranging from 1 (*some secondary school*) to 11 (*doctorate*) from Tharenou and Conroy (1994) – see Table 2.3.

Women directors were generally well educated, with over two-thirds (69%) having an undergraduate degree or higher qualification. Diploma and TAFE (tertiary non-university) qualifications were noticeably less popular than all other post-secondary qualifications, although adding them in results in a figure of 81% having a university or similar qualification. Over one-third (39%) had post-graduate qualifications.

Table 2.3
Highest Level of Education

Education level	Frequency	%
Some secondary school	5	1.5
Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate	21	6.5
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation	35	10.8
TAFE college course	17	5.2
Associate Diploma	3	0.9
Undergraduate Diploma	21	6.5
Undergraduate degree	96	29.6
Postgraduate Diploma/Honours	36	11.1
MBA	23	7.1
Masters degree	45	13.9
Doctorate/PhD	22	6.8
Total	324	100%

Korn/Ferry International does not report on the education level of women directors. Sheridan (2001) found that 80% of respondents had university qualifications and 37% had post-graduate qualifications. Sheridan did not state whether she included a separate TAFE qualification category, however as her study was based on a Canadian questionnaire by Burke (1994b) it is likely that the Australian TAFE qualifications were included in the university category.

2.3.1.3. Country of Birth

Australia is a relatively young country with a large migrant population and many organisations that have their head office overseas. Respondents were asked to indicate their country of birth as a means of detecting if they were migrants. Twelve country classifications of 1 (*Australia*), 2 (*New Zealand*), 3 (*Other Oceania countries*), 4 (*United Kingdom and Ireland*), 5 (*Other European countries*), 6 (*The Middle East and North Africa*), 7 (*South East Asia*), 8 (*North East Asia*), 9 (*Southern Asia*), 10 (*USA and Canada*), 11 (*The Middle and South Americas*), and 12 (*Africa*) were available – see Table 2.4.

Table 2.4
Country of Birth

Country	Frequency	%
Australia	245	75.4
New Zealand	10	3.1
United Kingdom and Ireland	28	8.6
Other European countries	12	3.7
Middle East and North Africa	2	0.6
South East Asia	6	1.8
USA and Canada	14	4.3
Africa	8	2.5
Total	325	100%

Three-quarters of women directors (75%) were born in Australia. Of those women directors born outside of Australia (25%), most were from English-speaking countries (65%).

2.3.1.4. Immigration Year

Further discrimination was sought as to whether the migrant was a recent arrival as a person possibly transferred from another country to head up an Australian subsidiary, or a less recent arrival possibly because of mass post-war immigrations. Respondents were asked to indicate if they were migrants and, if so, the year of their migration. Immigration year was a 6-point item from 1 (*prior to 1971*) to 6 (*1991 to survey date*)– see Table 2.5.

Table 2.5
Immigration Year

Year of arrival	Frequency	%
Prior to 1971	40	50.0
Between 1971 – 1975	7	8.8
Between 1976 – 1980	11	13.8
Between 1981 – 1985	11	13.8
Between 1986 – 1990	6	7.5
Arrived after 1991	5	6.3
Total	80	100%

A response option of 7 for *not applicable* was provided to avoid confusion for respondents who did not read the question correctly. Half of those women directors born outside of Australia (50%) had been in Australia for more than 25 years. Little evidence is apparent that women directors are recent "imports" from other countries, rather they appear to be long standing Australian citizens.

2.3.1.5. Career Tenure

Data concerning three aspects of woman director's career were collected: her organisation tenure, her occupation tenure, and her employment tenure. Organisation tenure was the number of years in full-time employment in her present organisation. Occupation tenure was the number of years in full-time employment in her present occupation. Employment tenure was the number of years in full-time employment over her entire lifetime. All three aspects of tenure were measured by 10-item ordinal scales from 1 (*Less than one year*) to 10 (*35 or more years*) – see Table 2.6.

Table 2.6
Organisation, Occupation, and Employment Tenure

	Organisation		Occupation		Employment	
Tenure	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
< 2 years	68	22.1	43	14.0	2	0.6
2 to 5 years	41	13.4	45	14.7	5	1.6
5 to 10 years	82	26.7	81	26.4	19	6.0
10 to 20 years	77	25.1	86	28.0	123	38.7
20 to 30 years	29	9.5	40	13.0	133	41.8
> 30 years	10	3.3	12	4.0	36	11.3
Totals	307	100%	307	100%	318	100%

The duration of a woman director's employment with their current organisation did not appear to be a significant indicator of board membership. There was a fairly even spread of tenures from the short-term (< 2 years, 22%) to the moderately long-term (10 to 20 years,

25%). Only with very long organisation tenures (> 20 years, 13%) was there a significant reduction in board membership in the sample.

The duration women directors spent in their current occupation also displayed a wide spread between the short-term (< 2 years, 14%) and long-term (20 to 30 years, 13%). However, there was a noticeable peak at both the 5 to 10 years and 10 to 20 years categories, suggesting that most women spend at least 5 years in an occupation before gaining board membership. A decline in board membership was noticeable by those women who have spent 20 years or more in their occupation, with very few (4%) remaining that spent more than 30 years in their occupation.

Although the length of time women spent in full-time employment displayed a clear tendency for greater than 10 years (92%) duration, this may be more a reflection of the age of the women. Their age distribution (less than 30 years, 0.6%; 31 to 34 years, 6%; 35 to 44 years, 33%; 45 to 54 years, 44%; and 55 or more years, 17%, from Table 2.2) shows a similar distribution to their employment tenure (Table 2.6), and suggests that the women's' full-time employment started at an average age of 25 years.

Over 90% of women board directors had at least 10 years full-time employment, suggesting that years of full time employment was a definite requirement before they were eligible for board membership. However, it seemed to matter little how long they had spent in their current occupation and even less with their current organisation, both showing an even spread of responses. That the duration with their current organisation is of little importance should not be surprising considering that most of the women are nonexecutive directors.

2.3.1.6. Managerial Level

The level of managerial seniority that the woman had achieved was measured at three points: her current position, her last full-time position, and her second-last full-time position. An 8-point ordinal scale of 1 (*Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager*), 2 (*Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman*), 3 (*Lower Level Manager*), 4 (*Middle Level Manager*), 5 (*Senior*

Level Manager), 6 (*Executive*), 7 (*Divisional Head*), to 8 (*Chief Executive Officer*) was used for each measurement point – see Table 2.7.

Comparing the managerial levels of positions currently held by women directors showed the anticipated results that the majority of women (72%) were chief executive officers, divisional heads, or executives.

Table 2.7
Managerial Level of Full-Time Positions

Managerial level	Current position		Last position		Second-last position	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Chief executive officer	83	25.9	66	20.5	22	6.9
Divisional head	50	15.6	47	14.6	52	16.4
Executive	98	30.5	73	22.7	56	17.6
Senior level manager	29	9.0	51	15.8	52	16.4
Middle level manager	24	7.5	29	9.0	46	14.5
Lower level manager	9	2.8	21	6.5	29	9.1
Supervisor	5	1.6	8	2.5	11	3.5
Non supervisor/Non manager	23	7.2	27	8.4	50	15.7
Totals	321	100%	322	100%	318	100%

Women director's career progression is also evident from a comparison of the positions held in their current, last, and second-last jobs. Women directors were less likely to be chief executive officers or executives in their last full-time job than in their current job, and the likelihood was reduced further with the second-last full-time job. Conversely, women directors were more likely to have held senior level manager or lower positions in their last full-time job than in their current job, and again even more likely to have lower managerial level with the second-last full-time job. However, the category of Divisional head did not demonstrate a career progression, staying relatively constant at 14 to 16% across the current, last, and second-last positions.

Korn/Ferry International (1996) reported that 15% of the women directors were current CEOs or chief operating officers of another company, although three years later Korn/Ferry

International (1999) reported that 31% directors were current CEOs or chief operating officers of another company and 29% were executives of other companies. The present study found similar figures, with 29% of women directors reporting that they were currently CEOs and 31% reporting that they were currently executives. The present study also found 16% classified as divisional heads. Without the divisional head classification presumably the numbers of CEOs and/or executives would have been higher.

2.3.1.7. Senior Management Years

The number of years that the woman was in senior management positions before accepting a board directorship was measured as a potential indicator of director status. A 5-point ordinal scale from 1 (*0 to 4 years*) to 5 (*20 or more years*) was used to measure senior management years – see Table 2.8.

Table 2.8
Senior Management Years

Years	Frequency	%
0 to 4	146	46.5
5 to 9	109	34.7
10 to 14	42	13.4
15 to 19	6	1.9
20 or more	11	3.5
Total	314	100%

Nearly half (47%) of the women had fewer than 5 years of senior management experience and most (81%) had fewer than 10 years experience before appointment to a board. The apparent lack of senior management experience may support the notion that boards cannot find sufficient numbers of experienced women and accept women with only a moderate amount of senior management experience.

2.3.1.8. Total Directorship Years

The number of years that the woman has been serving on boards of directors is a likely indicator of director status. A 6-point ordinal scale from 1 (0) to 6 (*More than 12 years*) measured the item – see Table 2.9.

Table 2.9
Total Directorship Years

Years	Frequency	%
0	1	0.3
1 to 3	101	31.1
4 to 6	83	25.5
7 to 9	62	19.1
10 to 12	36	11.1
More than 12	42	12.9
Total	325	100%

Over half of the women (57%) had fewer than 7 years board experience, and nearly a third (31%) having fewer than 4 years experience. No contingent of long-serving directors was observed, with only 13% serving for more than 12 years on boards. It would be interesting to compare such figures with the corresponding statistics for male board directors to see if they exhibit a similar profile, or whether the apparent high frequency of newly appointed women directors is an effect of raised awareness of boards to include female representation.

2.3.1.9. Total Directorships

The total number of boards that the woman has served on is a likely indicator of director status. A 5-point ordinal scale measured the item from 1 (*None*) to 5 (*More than 6 boards*) – see Table 2.10.

Although most women (58%) held appointments on only one or two boards, there were substantial numbers (17%) serving on five or more boards. The women who were on five or

more boards were likely to have been among the contingent of long-serving directors (24% serving more than 10 years) that was apparent from Table 2.9.

Table 2.10
Total Directorships

Number of boards	Frequency	%
1 to 2	189	58.2
2 to 4	82	25.2
5 to 6	27	8.3
More than 6	27	8.3
Total	325	100%

Sheridan (2001) reported that on average, her sample of women directors held 1.7 directorships of publicly-listed companies, 2.2 directorships of other companies, and 1 directorship of not-for-profit companies. Presuming that the numbers were meant to be added, a total of 4.9 directorships were held on average by the women in Sheridan's sample. The sample of 46 directors from Sheridan, being a sample of women from large publicly listed companies, probably overlaps with the 54 directors in the present sample that held five or more directorships.

2.3.1.10. Total Annual Salary

The financial position of the woman director was thought to be a likely factor in director status, with a financially well-off woman being more likely to pursue the career enhancing activities required to gain board membership. Either the woman's own salary, or that of her partner, was thought likely to establish the required level of financial freedom. Salaries for the women respondents and their partners was obtained from one two-part question: "Please indicate the total annual salary range for yourself alone in column 1 and for your spouse/partner alone in column 2." The twin ten-point item allowed for responses from 1 (*under $45,000*) to 10 (*over $125,000*) – see the summarised results in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11
Total Annual Salary

Salary	Director salary Frequency	%	Partner salary Frequency	%
Under $45,000	50	16.7	49	22.4
$45,001 to $65,000	46	15.4	31	14.1
$65,001 to $85,000	23	7.6	20	9.2
$85,001 to $105,000	37	12.3	19	8.7
$105,001 to $125,000	38	12.7	30	13.7
Over $125,000	106	35.3	70	32.0
Totals	300	100%	219	100%

Over one-third (35%) of women directors report a salary of over $125,000 per annum. Under $125,000 per annum, salaries were fairly evenly spread with only one noticeable dip at $65,00-$85,000 per annum. A substantial number of women (17%) with salaries under $45,000 per annum were recorded; presumably the directors with lower total salaries, including their directorship remuneration, were "professional" directors with no other income.

The director's partners exhibited a similar profile with nearly one-third (32%) earning over $125,000 per annum. A greater percentage of the partners (22%) earned under $45,000 per annum. The women directors appeared to be paid more than their spouses are, with more directors at the top end (over $125,000) and fewer directors at the lower end (under $45,000).

Sheridan (2001) reported that the annual level of compensation (base plus bonus pay) of women directors were in the ranges of less than $100,000 (9%), $100,000 to $300,000 (49%), $300,000 to $500,000 (30%), and $500,000 to $1,000,000 (12%). The 1995 study presented salary questions in a different format from Sheridan, breaking salary into components of total salary and director remuneration. The differences in the reported salaries may be partly due to the different samples; Sheridan's sample being confined to publicly list companies and the present sample including all types of organisations, including not-for-profit bodies. The 91% of Sheridan's 46 directors of large corporations that received over $100,000 may have been included in the 106 directors in the present sample that earned over $125,000.

2.3.1.11. Total Directorship Remuneration

The total remuneration that the woman director receives for her directorships was thought to be a likely factor in director status. A 12-point ordinal scale measured the item from 1 (*Nil*) to 12 (*Over $47,000*) – see the summarised results in Table 2.12. Over one-third (36%) of women directors receive no remuneration for their directorships. However, there is a considerable group (17%) earning over $47,000 for their directorships that probably includes chairs of the boards.

Table 2.12
Total Directorship Remuneration

Remuneration	Frequency	%
Nil	113	36.2
Under $2,000	26	8.3
$2,000 to $7,000	28	9.0
$7,001 to $17,000	36	11.5
$17,001 to $27,000	28	9.0
$27,001 to $37,000	14	4.5
$37,001 to $47,000	13	4.2
Over $47,000	54	17.3
Totals	312	100%

2.3.1.12. Director Position

The director's board position is the most significant indicator of board status, with the chair and the CEO being the most influential members of the board. A 6-point item allowed for common board positions of 1 (*Chair - Executive*), 2 (*Chair - Nonexecutive*), 3 (*Managing Director*), 4 (*Director - Executive*), 5 (*Director - Nonexecutive*), and 6 (*Secretary*) – see Table 2.13. Expecting that some women would serve on more than one board, provision was made for respondents to nominate up to three board positions they occupied.

The most frequently reported board position (64%) was that of nonexecutive director. Clearly most directors' second and subsequent positions would be as a nonexecutive as it is

expected that they would only be employed as an executive at any one company at a time. Few women managed to achieve the position of chair or managing director (15%).

Table 2.13
Director Position

Board position	Frequency	%
Executive Chair	25	4.1
Nonexecutive Chair	39	6.4
Managing Director	29	4.8
Executive Director	109	17.9
Nonexecutive Director	389	64.2
Secretary	15	2.5
Total	606	100%

Note: Respondents could give up to three responses to cover the boards they served.

Korn/Ferry International (1993) found that 80% of the women were nonexecutive directors and 20% executive directors. Collapsing the positions in the present study, 71% were nonexecutive directors and 29% executive directors (assuming that the position of secretary is an executive director position).

2.3.1.13. Partner Relationship

Many researchers report various forms of marital status. Collecting data for the item allowed comparison with international samples. A single 6-point item allowed for several common states of partner relationships of 1 (*Married*), 2 (*Living together*), 3 (*Divorced*), 4 (*Separated but not divorced*), 5 (*Single*), 6 (*Widowed*) – see Table 2.14. Most of the women directors (81%) were either married or had been married (divorced, separated, or widowed). Only 27% were living alone (divorced, separated, single, or widowed), so presumably most did not find their partner an impediment to their career.

Sheridan (2001) reported that 80% of women directors were married or in a defacto relationship, 9% were divorced, 7% were widowed, and 4% were single. The present sample found 74% of women directors were married or living together, 9% were divorced, 4% were

widowed, and 10% were single. The apparent difference in the numbers of single women directors is likely to be an artefact of the low numbers of respondents in Sheridan's study, with only two women in the single category.

Table 2.14
Partner Relationship

Relationship	Frequency	%
Married	210	64.6
Living together	29	8.9
Divorced	29	8.9
Separated	9	2.8
Single	34	10.5
Widowed	14	4.3
Total	325	100%

2.3.1.14. Partner in the Same Industry

A more likely possible indicator of director status than the presence of a partner relationship is the likelihood that their relationship could be leveraged by the woman director if the partner was working in the same industry. A simple 3-point item of 1 (*No*), 2 (*Yes*), and 3 (*No spouse/partner*) captured the variable – see Table 2.15.

Of the women directors with a partner (88%), only a quarter (25%) had partners in the same industry. There was no clear evidence of partners as springboards into board positions or networks in the same industry.

Table 2.15
Partner in the Same Industry

Response	Frequency	%
No	188	58.0
Yes	64	19.8
No spouse/partner	72	22.2
Total	324	100%

2.3.1.15. Number of Dependent Children

Several researchers reported the numbers of women director's children. Although most researchers do not discriminate between dependent and independent children, the numbers of dependent children might be a stronger indicator of director status than children, regardless of dependency. A single 7-point item measured the number of dependent children for which the woman director was responsible. Response categories were from 0 (*none*) to 6 (*six or more*) – see Table 2.16.

Just over half (56%) of the women had no dependent children. Of those women who did have dependent children, most (78%) had only one or two dependent children. A substantial reduction in women with four or more dependent children was apparent, but the decline is probably in line with current community norms.

Sheridan (2001) reported that 76% of women directors had children. The 1995 sample found only 44% of women directors had dependent children. The apparent discrepancy may be due to Sheridan's respondents reporting on all children, whether dependent or not, whereas the present study made the distinction of only asking for dependent children.

Table 2.16
Number of Dependent Children

Number of children	Frequency	%
None	181	55.7
One	52	16.0
Two	61	18.8
Three	25	7.7
Four	4	1.2
Five	1	0.3
Six or more	1	0.3
Total	325	100%

2.3.1.16. Financial Responsibility for Dependent Children

Financial responsibility for dependent children was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. A woman burdened by financial responsibilities was thought less likely to indulge in the career enhancing activities required to gain board membership. Measurement of the item was based on Tharenou and Conroy's (1994) study of managerial advancement. Responses for the question "Do you share financial responsibility for these dependent children and other dependents with anyone else?" were from 1 (*No, I do not contribute directly to the finances*) to 5 (*No, I contribute all the finances*) – see Table 2.17. A response option of 6 for *no dependents* was provided to avoid confusion for respondents who did not read the question correctly.

Most women (86%) indicated that they take at least half, if not all, the financial responsibility for their dependent children. Almost 40% take on the major or all financial responsibility for their children. Apparently they are able to combine the requirements of a board director and of being a "breadwinner" for the children.

Table 2.17
Financial Responsibility for Children

Responsibility	Frequency	%
No direct contribution	4	2.8
Minor contribution	16	11.1
50/50 joint contribution	68	47.2
Major contribution	34	23.6
All financial responsibility	22	15.3
Total	144	100%

2.3.2. Interpersonal Variables

Interpersonal variables describe the interaction between the individual and other individuals or organisations.

2.3.2.1. Basis of Recruitment

The method by which the woman gained board membership was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The item was measured by a 7-point nominal scale of 1 (*Invitation by the chair*), 2 (*Invitation by director/executive*), 3 (*Election*), 4 (*Ownership of the company*), 5 (*Family affiliation*), 6 (*Informal networking*), and 7 (*Through being a consultant to the company*) – see Table 2.18.

Table 2.18
Basis of Recruitment

Basis of recruitment	Frequency	%
Invitation by chair	129	30.1
Invitation by director/ executive	93	21.7
Election	91	21.3
Ownership of company	55	12.9
Family affiliation	25	5.8
Informal networking	26	6.1
Being a consultant	9	2.1
Total	428	100%

Note: Respondents could give up to three responses to cover the boards they served.

Over half of the directors (52%) were appointed to the board by invitation from the chair or another director/executive. After recruitment by invitation, the reasons for recruitment quickly declined, with the next most frequent means of appointment being by election (21%) and ownership of the company (13%).

2.3.2.2. Board Chair Gender

The similarity of the woman's gender with that of the board chair was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The item was measured by a 2-point nominal scale of 1 (*No*) and 2 (*Yes*). The chair of the board was usually a male (89%), leaving few (11%) female chairs.

2.3.2.3. Employment CEO Gender

The similarity of the woman's gender with that of her CEO was thought to be a possible indicator of the likelihood of her becoming a board director. The item was measured by a 2-point nominal scale of 1 (*No*) and 2 (*Yes*). The CEO of the director's employment organisation was usually male (73%), however over one quarter (27%) of the organisations had female CEOs.

2.3.2.4. Board Gender Proportion

The proportion of men and women on the board was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The item was measured by a 5-point ordinal scale of 1 (*All women*), 2 (*A majority of women and a minority of men*), 3 (*About 50% women and 50% men*), 4 (*A majority of men and a minority of women*), and 5 (*All men*) – see Table 2.19.

Most of the women directors (79%) were appointed to male dominated boards. Only a few (6%) of the directors were appointed to boards in which the women were a majority.

Table 2.19
Board Gender Proportion

Gender proportion	Frequency	%
All women	10	1.6
A majority of women and a minority of men	24	3.9
About 50% women and 50% men	95	15.4
A majority of men and a minority of women	402	65.3
All men	85	13.8
Total	616	100%

Note: Respondents could give up to three responses to cover the boards they served.

2.3.2.5. Work Colleagues Gender Proportion

The proportion of men and women in the director's work environment was thought to be a possible indicator of the likelihood of being a board director. The item was measured by a 5-point ordinal scale of 1 (*All female*), 2 (*Majority female, minority male*), 3 (*About 50% male and 50% female*), 4 (*Majority male, minority female*), and 5 (*All male*) – see Table 2.20.

Table 2.20
Work Colleagues Gender Proportion

Gender proportion	Frequency	%
All female	22	6.8
Majority female, minority male	69	21.4
About 50% male and 50% female	90	28.0
Majority male, minority female	115	35.7
All male	26	8.1
Total	322	100%

Gender proportions in the work environment of the women directors indicated that 28% of the women work in a female-majority environment and 44% work in a male-majority environment.

2.3.2.6. Managerial Gender Proportion

The proportion of men and women in the managerial hierarchy of the director's work environment was thought to be a possible indicator of the likelihood of becoming a board director. The item was measured by a 5-point ordinal scale of 1 (*All women*), 2 (*A majority of women and a minority of men*), 3 (*About 50% women and 50% men*), 4 (*A majority of men and a minority of women*), and 5 (*All men*) – see Table 2.21.

Table 2.21
Managerial Gender Proportion

Gender proportion	Frequency	%
All women	21	6.6
A majority of women and a minority of men	33	10.3
About 50% women and 50% men	61	19.1
A majority of men and a minority of women	170	53.3
All men	34	10.7
Total	319	100%

Gender proportions in the work environment of the women directors indicated a noticeable domination by men in the managerial hierarchy, with 64% of the women working

in a male-majority managerial hierarchy, although 17% of women worked in a female-majority managerial hierarchy.

2.3.2.7. Years Worked with Women Managers

The length of time that the woman director had worked closely with a woman manager in her employment organisation was thought to be a possible indicator of the likelihood of becoming a board director. The item was measured by a 5-point ordinal scale of 1 (*Not worked with a woman manager*), 2 (*Less than 12 months*), 3 (*1 up to 2 years*), 4 (*2 up to 4 years*), and 5 (*4 or more years*) – see Table 2.22.

Table 2.22
Years Worked with Women Managers

Duration	Frequency	%
Not worked with a woman manager	163	51.1
Less than 12 months	21	6.6
1 up to 2 years	22	6.9
2 up to 4 years	18	5.6
4 or more years	95	29.8
Total	319	100%

The data showed a bipolar distribution with one half (51%) of women directors having not worked closely with a woman manager, but nearly a third (30%) having worked closely with a woman manager for 4 or more years.

2.3.2.8. Years Worked with Women Directors

The length of time that the woman director had worked closely with other women board members was thought to be a possible indicator of board status. The item was measured by a 6-point ordinal scale of 1 (*Not at all*), 2 (*Less than 1 year*), 3 (*1 to 2 years*), 4 (*3 to 4 years*), 5 (*5 or more years*) – see Table 2.23. A response option of 6 for *not applicable* was provided to allow for women who had no other women board members on the board. Over half (53%) of the women had worked closely with other woman board members.

Table 2.23
Years Worked with Women Directors

Duration	Frequency	%
Not at all	65	20.2
Less than 1 year	35	10.9
1 to 2 years	41	12.7
3 to 4 years	40	12.4
5 or more years	54	16.8
Not applicable	87	27.0
Total	322	100%

2.3.3. Organisational Variables

Organisational variables describe the organisational environment in which the woman director operates.

2.3.3.1. Employment Industry

The similarity of the industry in which the woman was employed and the industry of the board's organisation was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The employment industry was measured using an 11-item nominal scale of industry types according to the *Australian Standard Industrial Classification* (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1988). The response options were 1 (*Mining*), 2 (*Manufacturing*), 3 (*Electricity, gas and water*), 4 (*Construction*), 5 (*Wholesale and retail trade*), 6 (*Transport and storage*), 7 (*Communication*), 8 (*Finance, property and business services*), 9 (*Public administration and defence*), 10 (*Community services*), 11 (*Recreation, personal and other services*) – see Table 2.24.

The women directors were employed in a range of industries, with the most frequent being "finance, property, and business services" at 31%. Few women directors came from the industries of "mining," "electricity, gas and water," "construction," and "transport and

storage," all with low frequencies of 2% or less each. However, a nonexecutive director may work in a different industry to the company of the board of which she is a member.

Table 2.24
Employment Industry

Industry	Frequency	%
Mining	6	1.9
Manufacturing	19	5.9
Electricity, gas and water	6	1.9
Construction	7	2.2
Wholesale and retail trade	28	8.8
Transport and storage	5	1.6
Communication	41	12.8
Finance, property and business services	98	30.6
Public administration and defence	23	7.2
Community services	51	15.9
Recreation, personal and other services	36	11.3
Total	320	100%

2.3.3.2. Occupation Category

The woman director's occupation category was thought to be a possible indicator of director status, with a positive association between occupations requiring a high skill level. The *Australian Standard Classification of Occupations* (Department of Employment and Industrial Relations, 1987) is an 8-point ordinal scale with brief explanations of the type of work performed under each of the categories that was used to measure the type of occupation in which the respondents work. The scale was numerically graduated in descending order from an evaluation of the differences in skills and knowledge in each occupational category – see Table 2.25.

Most women directors (57%) were managers or administrators, with most of the remainder (38%) being professionals. As might be expected none of the directors listed their occupation as tradesperson, plant and machine operator/driver, or labourer and related worker.

Table 2.25
Occupation Category

Occupation category	Frequency	%
Manager and administrator	182	56.5
Professional	123	38.2
Para-professional	8	2.5
Clerk	8	2.5
Salesperson and personal service worker	1	0.3
Total	322	100%

2.3.3.3. Employment Employees

The similarity between the sizes of the woman's employing organisation and the board's organisation in numbers of employees was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. A 10-point scale from 1 (*less than 25 employees*) to 10 (*more than 8,000 employees*) measured the size of the organisation that employed the woman – see Table 2.26.

Table 2.26
Employment Employees

Employees	Frequency	%
Less than 25	68	21.6
25 to 50	31	9.8
51 to 100	42	13.3
101 to 200	47	14.9
201 to 500	27	8.6
501 to 1000	26	8.3
1001 to 2000	18	5.7
2001 to 4000	19	6.0
4001 to 8000	7	2.2
More than 8000	30	9.5
Total	315	100%

Most women directors (60%) were employed in small to medium-sized organisations of fewer than 200 people. The high frequency of women directors in small organisations is likely to be a result of the large sample and reflect the far larger numbers of small organisations in

the community. A relatively large number of women (10%) employed by large organisations with more than 8,000 employees was noticed, suggesting that women from very large organisations are attractive as board directors.

2.3.3.4. Board Employees

The similarity between the sizes of the organisation and the woman's employing organisation in numbers of employees was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. A 10-point scale from 1 (*less than 25 employees*) to 10 (*more than 8,000 employees*) measured the size of the organisation that board governed – see Table 2.27.

Table 2.27
Board Employees

Employees	Frequency	%
Less than 25	67	20.7
25 to 50	51	15.7
51 to 100	50	15.4
101 to 200	38	11.7
201 to 500	41	12.7
501 to 1000	23	7.1
1001 to 2000	12	3.7
2001 to 4000	15	4.6
4001 to 8000	12	3.7
More than 8000	16	4.6
Total	325	100%

Over half (52%) of the women were on boards of organisations with fewer than 100 employees. As noted previously, the high frequency of women directors in small organisations may simply reflect the large numbers of small organisations in the community. However, the decline in the numbers of women directors as the organisation becomes larger appears to halt for organisation of greater then 1,000 employees. The numbers of large organisations in the community must decline as the organisations become larger and so the steady numbers of women directors for large organisations may reflect international observations that large

organisations tend to appoint more women directors. In comparing the Director's organisation size (Table 2.26) with the Board's organisation size, it is apparent that twice as many women directors are employed by organisations of greater than 8,000 employees (9.5%) as there are women directors on boards of organisations of larger size (4.6%). Employees of large organisations appear to find positions on the boards of smaller organisations.

2.3.3.5. Board Corporation Type

The type of organisation for which the woman is a director was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The item was measured by a 7-point scale from 1 (*Publicly listed*), 2 (*Public unlisted*), 3 (*Private*), 4 (*Trust*), 5 (*Partnership*), 6 (*Statutory authority*), to 7 (*Not for profit*) – see Table 2.28.

Table 2.28
Board Corporation Type

Corporation type	Frequency	%
Publicly listed	65	12.8
Public unlisted	72	14.2
Private company	120	23.7
Trust	25	4.9
Partnership	6	1.2
Statutory authority	92	18.1
Not for profit	127	25.0
Total	507	100%

Note: Respondents could give up to three responses to cover the boards they served.

Women directors were relatively evenly spread across organisation types, with the exception that trusts and partnerships had very few women on their boards.

Korn/Ferry International (1996) reported that 56% of women directors were on public company boards and 44% were on government boards, with no other categories mentioned. In contrast, the present sample that found 27% of women directors were on public company boards, 18% were on statutory authority (government) boards, 30% were on private company boards (including trusts and partnerships), and 25% were on not-for-profit organisation

boards. The differences are probably due to the different natures of the samples: Korn/Ferry International sampling predominantly large corporations and the present sample covering a wider cross-section of organisations.

2.3.3.6. Board Directors

The number of directors on a board, of which the director was a member, was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. The item was measured by a 7-point item with response categories of 1 (*2 to 4*), 2 (*5 to 7*), 3 (*8 to 10*), 4 (*11 to 13*), 5 (*14 to 16*), 5 (*17 to 19*), and 6 (*20 or more*). Boards of greater than 11 directors were collapsed in Table 2.29. Women from board sizes of less than five were dropped from the sample as discussed earlier.

Table 2.29
Board Directors

Number of directors	Frequency	%
5 to 7	145	44.6
8 to 10	112	34.5
11 or more	68	20.9
Total	325	100%

The present sample found an estimated average board size of eight members, although more women directors came from boards of fewer than eight directors. The greater frequency of boards with less than eight directors probably reflects that smaller organisations with smaller boards are more common regardless of gender.

Korn/Ferry International (1996) reported that the average board size across all companies was eight, although they did not report the average board size of those companies with a woman on the board. Sheridan (2001) reported that the average board size across all publicly listed companies is 5 to 6 members within a range of 3 to 15 members. Sheridan neglected to mention the average board size of the boards for her sample.

2.3.3.7. Director Board Obligations

The level of obligations imposed on a woman director measured by the board's meeting frequency and director's time commitment was thought to be a possible indicator of director status. Two ordinal scales measured board obligations. Board meeting frequency was a 6-point scale from 1 (*Weekly*) to 6 (*Annually*) – see Table 2.30, and director's time commitment was a 9-point scale from 1 (*0 to 5 hours*) to 9 (*More than 40 hours*) – see Table 2.31.

Table 2.30
Board Meeting Frequency

Frequency	Frequency	%
Weekly	16	4.9
Monthly	219	67.6
Bimonthly	47	14.5
Quarterly	29	9.0
Half-yearly	8	2.5
Annually	5	1.5
Total	324	100%

Table 2.31
Director Time Commitment

Hours	Frequency	%
0 to 5	175	54.2
6 to 10	89	27.6
11 to 15	23	7.1
16 to 20	17	5.3
21 to 25	4	1.2
26 to 30	2	0.6
31 to 35	3	0.9
36 to 40	2	0.6
More than 40	8	2.5
Total	323	100%

Most women (68%) attended board meetings monthly and the majority (82%) spent 10 hours or fewer per week on board business per week. The few (2.5%) spending more than 40

hours per week on board business were probably executives with a particular role, such as board secretary, of servicing the board.

Korn/Ferry International (1995) states the average time spent on board matters by nonexecutive directors was 24 days per year. Assuming an eight hour day, 24 days equates to 192 hours per year. In comparison, five hours per week assuming a 48-week working year equates to 240 hours per year. So the figure of 0-5 hours per week corresponds well with the average reported by Korn/Ferry International.

2.3.4. Summary

Overall, the profile of Australian women directors is that they appeared to be well-educated successful executives who had worked many years in the workforce. Board positions were often offered to them soon after they gained executive status, and often to the boards of companies of a smaller size to the one in which they were employed.

2.4. Australian Women Board Directors Compared to Other Countries

Comparisons between Australian women directors and their international counterparts provide a way to affirm or dismiss perceptions about the success or otherwise that Australian women have had in gaining board appointments. Given that there are few similarities in survey methods or items between researchers (Burke & Mattis, 2000), detailed analyses cannot be made, but interesting comparisons can still be presented on a few items.

Comparisons of the characteristics of Australian women directors with those reported in the literature from other countries are summarised in Tables 2.28 to 2.32. Only five characteristics (age, education level, marital status, numbers of children, and salary) were reported frequently enough by other researchers to provide useful comparative data for a similar period.

2.4.1. Director's age

The age of Australian women directors is similar to those in other countries, with the exception of women directors in the United States – see Table 2.32. In the United States, in 1991, women directors from Fortune 500 companies were mostly aged between 50 and 59 years, and 98% were aged over 40 years (Catalyst, 1993). In Canada, Burke (1994b) reported that most women from a survey based on the 1992 Canadian Financial Post Directory of Directors were aged between 46 and 50, with only 70% aged over 41. In Britain, most women directors of large corporations were aged between 45 and 49 years, with 87% aged 40 years or more (Holton et al., 1993). In New Zealand, most women directors were aged between 41 and 50 years (Pajo et al. 1997). The average age of Israeli women directors was 47 years (Talmud & Izraeli, 1998).

Table 2.32
International Comparisons of Director Ages

Country	Australia[a]	U.S.A.[b]	Canada[c]	U.K.[d]	N.Z.[e]	Israel[f]
Sample size	325	~160[g]	259	47	31	98
Median age	45-49	50-59	46-50	49-50	41-50	-
Mean age	47	56	47	51	-	47
% over 40 years old	81%	98%	70%	87%	84%	-

Note. A dash in a cell of the table signifies that the corresponding data item was not reported.
[a] Present study
[b] Catalyst, 1993
[c] Burke, 1994b
[d] Holton, Rabbetts, and Scrivener, 1993
[e] Pajo, McGregor, and Cleland, 1997
[f] Talmud and Izraeli, 1998
[g] Sample size estimated from method description

2.4.2. Highest level of education

The highest level of education of Australian women directors compares well with the United States and Canadian studies, although women directors appear to be a little more highly educated – see Table 2.33. Catalyst's (1993) U.S.A. study, and Burke's (1994b) Canadian study agree very closely on the educational level reached by North American directors at 89% and 88% respectively holding undergraduate degrees. The New Zealand

sample of Pajo et al. (1997) shows an extraordinarily high number (83%) of women directors with postgraduate degrees compared to other countries, with Canadian and Australian data agreeing on 39-41%. In Israel, the Israeli women appear to be somewhat less educated, with Talmud and Izraeli (1998) reporting that only 68% hold a university degree. However, that may have been due to inherent differences in the structure of tertiary education between the countries. For instance, if TAFE qualifications, associate diplomas, and undergraduate diplomas are excluded from the Australian study then the resultant figure for tertiary qualifications is only 69%, very close to the Israeli figure.

Table 2.33
International Comparisons of Education

Country	Australia[a]	U.S.A.[b]	Canada[c]	N.Z.[d]	Israel[e]
Sample size	324	~160[f]	251	30	98
Tertiary Qualification	81%	89%	88%	93%	68%
Postgraduate Qualification	39%	-	41%	83%	-

Note. A dash in a cell of the table signifies that the corresponding data item was not reported.
[a] Present study
[b] Catalyst, 1993
[c] Burke, 1994b
[d] Pajo, McGregor, and Cleland, 1997
[e] Talmud and Izraeli, 1998
[f] Sample size estimated from method description

2.4.3. Marital status

The Australian sample compares well with Catalyst's (1993) U.S.A. sample and the Canadian sample of Burke (1994b), with 65-71% of all samples agreeing on the common item of "married" – see Table 2.34. Descriptions of marital status other than "Married" varied too much between surveys to provide a useful basis for comparison.

Table 2.34
International Comparisons of Marital Status

Country	Australia[a]	U.S.A.[b]	Canada[c]
Sample size	325	~160[d]	251
Married	65%	69%	71%

[a] Present study
[b] Catalyst, 1993
[c] Burke, 1994b
[d] Sample size estimated from method description

2.4.4. Numbers of children

The current study differed from overseas studies in that it measured numbers of *dependent* children, whereas the overseas studies did not discriminate and reported all children. It may explain the difference in numbers of women directors with children; 44% of Australia women had dependent children, compared to over 70% of women with any children in the U.S.A. and Canada – see Table 2.35. However, those Australian directors with children appeared to have larger families (average 2.9 children) than their Canadian (average 2.4 children) or U.K. (average 2.5 children) counterparts.

Table 2.35
International Comparisons of Numbers of Children

Country	Australia[a]	U.S.A.[b]	Canada[c]	U.K.[d]	N.Z.[e]
Sample size	325	~160[f]	259	47	31
Any children	44%	74%	71%	-	55%
Mean number of children	2.9	-	2.4	2.5	-
Mode	2	2	2	-	-

Note. A dash in a cell of the table signifies that the corresponding data item was not reported.
[a] Present study
[b] Catalyst, 1993
[c] Burke, 1994b
[d] Holton, Rabbetts, and Scrivener, 1993
[e] Pajo, McGregor, and Cleland, 1997
[f] Sample size estimated from method description

2.4.5. Director's salaries

Comparison of salaries across countries is difficult due to fluctuations in exchange rates and the effects of inflation over time. To help with comparison the salaries have been categorised into arbitrary ranges of Low, Moderate, Higher, and Top (see – Table 2.36).

A notable difference between Australia and Canada appears to be a higher proportion of directors in the low salary category in Australia. The apparent difference may be due to the samples: the Australian sample covers small businesses and not-for-profit organisations, and the Canadian sample mainly comprises large corporations. Note that no attempt at currency conversion has been attempted.

Table 2.36
International Comparisons of Salaries

Country	Australia[a]	U.S.A.[b]	Canada[c]	N.Z.[d]
Sample size	300	~160[e]	255	31
Low salary	< $45,000 17%	-	< $50,000 8%	-
Moderate salary	$45,000–$85,000 23%	< $100,000 31%	$50,000–$100,000 31%	-
Higher salary	$85,000–$125,000 25%	$100,000–$200,000 40%	$100,000–$200,000 45%	-
Top salary	> $125,000 35%	> $200,000 29%	> $200,000 16%	> $200,000 33%

Note. A dash in a cell of the table signifies that the corresponding data item was not reported.
[a] Present study
[b] Catalyst, 1993
[c] Burke, 1994b
[d] Pajo, McGregor, and Cleland, 1997
[e] Sample size estimated from method description

2.4.6. Summary

Australian women directors were similar to their international counterparts on the readily comparable characteristics of age, education level, marital status and numbers of children. The notable exceptions were higher ages of women directors in the United States and a high incidence of postgraduate qualifications of New Zealand.

The international comparison of salaries, although interesting, is difficult to interpret with any reliability. Australian salaries appear to be closest to those of Canada. For meaningful conclusions to be drawn from comparative data requires a cross-nation study designed to collect data at the same time using the same survey instrument taking exchange rates and relative costs of living into the calculations.

2.5. Discussion

2.5.1. Sample Representativeness

The sample of 325 women directors from boards of greater than four directors compares well with the limited Australian literature on the characteristics of women board directors and

the international literature. From the representativeness of the present sample based on common items, we can infer that the additional items covered by the present survey are also representative of women directors.

2.5.2. Limitations and Future Research

The study represents a “first” in Australia that identified important information that needs to be obtained in future studies. The study generated a useful contribution to information about which Australian women directors can be compared. However, there were inherent limitations of the study.

At the time of data collection, it was deemed important to concentrate on data that reflected the women’s own history, experiences, and opportunities. A lack of organisational demographic information about the gender proportions of the organisation, sales volume and company structure may limit the inferences that could be drawn. The data may also suffer from a shortage of information about women directors' experiences before gaining their first board appointment and specific expertise that they gained through board appointments.

The use of ordinal scales instead of numeric interval responses limited the flexibility of analysis of the data. For example, the average age of the women had to be estimated from the midpoints of the five-year intervals. A lack of standards for categorical items such as partner relationship and industry limited the comparisons that could be made with other literature, although this is an international problem not limited to this thesis. The exploratory nature of the survey resulted in many items that could have produced fatigue in the respondents.

If a CEO appointment positions a person well for future nonexecutive director appointment but women rarely make it to CEO, then future studies may like to consider the converse, whether a nonexecutive director appointment assists a woman’s career progression ultimately to a CEO position. Future studies might also like to consider whether there is significant status in large and/or publicly listed corporations, because if there is then it might be easier for women to obtain director roles with lesser status small private or government

organisations. Areas for future research also include the regular collection of profile data to assess changes in women's board membership patterns and board positions, including committee membership, and representation across industry categories. Collection of data about the company as well as about the individual women directors would add significantly to the profile of women directors in Australia.

An examination of women's board roles, functions, opportunities, and responsibilities once appointed may provide greater insight into women directors on Australian boards. One previous study has examined activities on the board through subcommittee membership (Bilimoria & Piderit, 1994). A survey of shareholder and senior officer perceptions of the company before appointment and some time after the appointment of a woman director may also provide interesting data about the shareholder perception of women in governance roles.

2.5.3. Conclusion

The present sample provides an extensive profile of Australian women directors. It seems that the typical Australian woman director is an outstanding executive working in a large organisation, in which she rose rapidly and gained visibility to be offered a board appointment. The women appear well qualified by education and experience to contribute to corporate governance.

Chapter 3

3. NONEXECUTIVE DIRECTORS AS A DISTINCT IN-GROUP CATEGORY

3.1. Introduction

The discretionary nature of nonexecutive director appointments is of special interest to women directors. Women who attempt to become board directors through executive promotions face the well documented "glass ceiling." Nonexecutive director appointments offer women another path to the board: one that may hold some hopes for bypassing the glass ceiling. Nonexecutive directors achieve their board membership through invitation because of the strategic knowledge, experience, and/or contacts they bring to the corporation (Hill, 1995), so if women can invoke one of these other categories they might avoid the executive career hurdle. Executive directors on the other hand are employees of the corporation, and achieve their board membership because of the position they hold in the corporation (Francis, 1997). Executive directors are part of its operational management team, and interact on a daily basis. Nonexecutive directors are supposed to be independent of the corporation, especially its senior management, and are likely to interact infrequently on a formal basis (perhaps only monthly), although possibly more frequently on an informal basis.

Social identity theory prompts a consideration of the characteristics that are salient in a particular social context. The research question arises for boards of directors as to whether the apparent distinction between nonexecutive directors and executive directors truly is distinct, and is therefore a potentially salient categorisation. Self-categorisation theory suggests that a crucial determinant of social category salience is comparative and normative fit (Haslam, 2001), thus providing a basis to assess the categorisation of executive directors and nonexecutive directors for potential salience.

Executive directors may perceive themselves as having a significantly more intimate knowledge of the corporation's operations and its immediate issues compared to nonexecutive

directors. Nonexecutive directors may perceive themselves as having significantly more strategic knowledge of the corporation's marketplace and its business context compared to executive directors. Executive directors may perceive that it is normal to put the interests of management and the employees above those of the shareholders in order to achieve long-term success. Nonexecutive directors may perceive that it is normal to put the interests of shareholders above those of management and the employees in order to achieve success.

When significant differences in characteristics exist between executive directors and nonexecutive directors, in addition to the presumed attitudinal differences suggested above, self-categorisation theory's meta-contrast principle of minimising non-salient characteristics may have effect (Haslam, 2001). For example, an executive director may have some similar personal interests as some of the nonexecutive directors. However, the potentially salient characteristic of similar personal interests may be minimised if the executive director perceives the categorisation as an executive or nonexecutive director as salient to ingroup or outgroup identity. The present study attempts to detect whether the categorisation of executive directors and nonexecutive directors forms distinct groups based on "objective" (non-attitudinal) characteristics.

The aim of the present study was to examine whether nonexecutive directors can be considered a distinct ingroup category. Possible salient characteristics of nonexecutive directors were about themselves (individual factors), about their relationships with others (interpersonal factors), and how much their organisational context (organisational factors) might influence perceptions. To the author's knowledge, the present study was the first study to attempt to explore the social identity characteristics of women directors using the distinction of director types.

Studies from the United States (Catalyst, 1998c), Britain (Holton, 2000), Canada (Catalyst, 1998b), and Australia (Korn/Ferry International, 1999) provide periodic surveys of women directors with some demographic, experiential, and organisational characteristics.

However, they offer few distinctions between executive directors and nonexecutive directors, and do not analyse the data from a theoretical basis. Studies of the correlates of women directors' board representation (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2000; McGregor, 1997) have rarely examined situational factors or evaluated the relative importance of individual and situational factors. The aim of the present study is to add to understanding of women board directors by assessing the relative salience of factors related to nonexecutive directors and executive directors, based on social identity theory using an Australian sample.

Women company directors in Australia hold only 4% of board positions (Korn/Ferry International, 1996). Boards of governance of Australian companies usually consist of a mixture of nonexecutive directors, and a small number of senior executive staff from within the company itself, called executive directors (Korn/Ferry International, 1995). Women nonexecutive directors can be freely selected (invited, elected), whereas women executive directors are usually on the board because they work for the company or are the owners. As there are so few top executive women (Catalyst, 1998a; EOWA, 2002b), the choice of executive directors in an individual company is limited to very few, if any, women.

3.1.1. Individual Factors

Women have been thought to gain nonexecutive director status by anticipated pathways such as education and top leadership jobs (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001; Mattis, 1997). According to Becker (1985), investments in education, work experience, on the job training, expectations, allocation of time between work and home responsibilities, and job effort are examples of human capital investments. Gender differences between human capital investments consistently had a positive relationship to nonexecutive director status. Age, education, and managerial advancement not only reflect knowledge and skill, but also make the women visible, signalling to decision-makers that women are suitable as board members, and reducing perceived risks. Consistent with similarity-attraction theories (Baron & Pfeffer, 1994) and homosocial reproduction approaches (Kanter, 1987), authors have suggested that

directors are appointed from older men who are similar in social characteristics and demographics (Leighton & Thain, 1993; Westphal & Zajac, 1995).

Individuals' knowledge and skills are important influences on their self-perception, and others' perceptions of them. Human capital theory proposes that investments in human capital such as education and organisation tenure, result in economic advantages of advancement and higher salaries (Becker, 1993). Investments in human capital increase women's skills and knowledge for senior positions, and bring them to the attention of decision-makers. Women may need to invest substantially in human capital in order to come to the attention of decision-makers for board positions. Women executive directors are likely to have substantial human capital to reach high management levels, however once at a senior management level, political skill rather than human capital may be more important (Mainiero, 1994b). Women nonexecutive directors are likely to require greater levels of human capital to achieve the skills, knowledge, and visibility to be freely chosen for boards. Women nonexecutive directors may therefore have greater investments in human capital than women executive directors. Human capital investments increase visibility, networks, and public profile that are seen as important for director selection (Howe & McRae, 1991; Singh, Vinnicombe & Sturges, 2000).

The human capital variables selected for the present study comprised those reflecting knowledge through developmental activities (e.g., education) and skill through length of experience (age and organisation tenure). In addition, managerial advancement, CEO experience, and work continuity were examined as a form of human capital. Researchers and commentators suggest that CEOs prefer board members who have CEO experience (Burke, 1994c; Maitland, 1999). Hence, women selected for boards were likely to have advanced considerably in management, ideally to CEO level. Managerial advancement reflected both the skill and knowledge for board work, and the senior levels needed for consideration for appointment to boards. It is argued that women nonexecutive directors, freely chosen for

boards, were likely to have had higher managerial levels especially CEO experience throughout their careers than the women executive directors.

Other personal variables considered in the present study were exploratory in nature. Partner relationship and numbers of dependent children were taken into account. As the hours involved in board work per week are low, and attendance is at stipulated times, it was not thought that family duties would restrict board representation for nonexecutive directors. However for executive directors, board duties may affect an already busy executive career leaving little time for partners and dependent children.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that human capital investments of age, education, organisation tenure, managerial advancement and CEO experience would be better predictors of nonexecutive director group membership than individual situational factors of work continuity and their home environment (partner relationship and number of dependent children).

3.1.2. Interpersonal Factors

Lack of interpersonal support and gender dissimilarity is likely to create barriers for women to be influential on boards, and limit their advancement to top management positions. Although social factors, such as networks, were likely to be important, interpersonal factors were rarely directly measured in studies of women's board appointments. The social factors considered in prior studies were expressed in terms of career support (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001) and women's similarity to other members of the board (Smith, 1994). The present study considered interpersonal support from general perspectives, examining career encouragement from senior people, colleagues, from others in the employment organisation, and specific support from a mentor.

Social similarity may be important for board influence. Social similarities mean that individuals would often have shared values and attitudes, and derive their self-esteem from group membership (Jackson, Stone & Alvarez, 1992). Individuals are attracted to, and

preferred those similar to themselves (Byrne, 1971). Similarity leads to self-validation, ease of communication, and trusting relationships (Kanter, 1977). The preference for those that are perceived as similar is particularly prevalent in situations of uncertainty and lack of familiarity (Baron & Pfeffer, 1994). Choosing whom to appoint to boards is an uncertain situation as there are likely to be a range of factors that dictate whether individuals make effective board members.

Westphal and Zajac (1995) found that appointment as company director was influenced by similarity with the existing members of the board and the chief executive officer, supporting similarity-attraction principles. Similarity was in terms of leadership and communication styles, age, functional background, similarity, and educational level. Lorsch and MacIver (1989) examined new director selection and change in large United States industrial and service firms over three years, and suggested that relatively powerful boards facilitate the appointment of demographically similar new directors.

The present study measured gender similarity from several perspectives. Two items relating to gender similarity to the women's own employing organisations (male managerial hierarchy, male-stereotyped position) should be more salient for executive directors. Two items relating to gender similarity to the board (board gender proportion, years worked with women directors) should be more salient for nonexecutive directors

Women are automatically dissimilar to most board members because of their gender. The fact that they are women, and thus dissimilar, may of course have been a factor in nonexecutive directors gaining appointment to the board. However, often only one woman is appointed to a board (Korn/Ferry International, 1997a). A survey of Canadian women directors (Mitchell, 1984) found that women directors acknowledged that their appointment to the board was a combination of gender and their public visibility, recognising their “token” status. The three most common reasons women thought they were appointed were their community profile (23%), the increasing representation of women (21%), and their business

expertise (14%). Overall, it seems that gender dissimilarity to the board results in women being selected as the first "token" woman for the board. However once appointed, other characteristics of the woman may become salient that allow the woman to join an ingroup of the board.

However, gender similarity usually helped executive women rise in rank in management (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Tharenou, 1995). Women rose to upper manager, executive and chief executive officer ranks when in more female-oriented managerial hierarchies. Hence, it is likely that more women executive directors would be appointed to boards when women worked in organisations with female-oriented managerial hierarchies. The woman may have more opportunity to demonstrate characteristics and behaviours that would be attractive to senior management. In addition, working in a male-stereotyped position may lead to greater visibility and ultimately the woman being selected for a board position (Pfeffer, Davis-Blake, & Julius, 1995).

The other category of interpersonal variables considered in the present study was career support. Women who gained support from a mentor and encouragement for their careers from others (colleagues, superiors) may have persisted long enough in their attempts to rise to top management ranks to eventually gain board membership as an executive director. An interview study by Vinnicombe, Singh, and Sturges (2000) identified the importance of visibility and suggested that an important factor in gaining visibility was gaining mentoring. An additional means of gaining organisational visibility may be to work in a position that is normally regarded as male stereotyped (Hogg, 2000).

Hypothesis 2 proposes that interpersonal factors relating to board gender composition and relationships with board members would be better predictors of nonexecutive director group membership than interpersonal factors relating to employment environment of career encouragement, career mentoring, and gender composition of the work environment.

3.1.3. Organisational Factors

The nature of the organisation in which an executive director was employed is likely to be related to her appointment to board positions. The present study considered both structural and developmental organisational factors. The woman's employment sector (public/private) is likely to be a factor as to whether they serve on boards as nonexecutive directors or executive directors. The public sector (government, community services) has a higher proportion of women top executives than does the private, profit-making sector (International Labour Organization, 1997). Hence, women who had been appointed to boards may be more likely to be executives in the public sector than in the private sector.

The other major category of organisational variables examined was developmental. Women who had participated in more training and development and challenging work assignments throughout their careers may develop greater visibility for board selection and thereby establish credibility as potential ingroup members with other executives. They may become more visible to decision-makers that promote women to board positions. Vinnicombe, Singh, and Sturges (2000) also identified the importance of high-profile work assignments as an important factor in gaining visibility.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that organisational factors relating to structural opportunities of occupation category and employment sector would be better predictors of nonexecutive director group membership than developmental factors of training and development and challenging work assignments.

3.2. Method

3.2.1. Respondents and Data Collection

The survey respondents and method of data collection was described in Chapter 2. Briefly, 572 Australian women directors responded, which was a survey return rate of 31%. The sample comprised 224 executive directors (39%) and 348 nonexecutive directors (61%).

Analysis of sample distribution against data from the *Business Who's Who of Australia* (Beck, 1995) confirmed that the sample was representative of Australian women directors.

3.2.2. Measures

3.2.2.1. Dependent Variable – Director Type

A dichotomous variable called director type was formed by collapsing the director position responses of *Chair - Executive*, *Managing Director*, *Director - Executive*, and *Secretary* into a category of *Executive Director*, and the responses of *Chair - Non Executive* and *Director - Non Executive* into a category of *Nonexecutive Director*.

3.2.2.2. Independent Variables

Several survey items were used as independent variables. The variables director age, highest level of education, organisation tenure, partner relationship, number of dependent children, board gender proportion, years worked with women directors, and occupation category are described in Appendix D. Where scales were formed the commonly accepted cut-off level for Cronbach's alpha acceptability of 0.7 was used (Pallant, 2001).

3.2.2.3. Managerial Advancement

A managerial advancement scale was defined in the present study as a measure of human capital relevant to managerial careers. A review of managerial advancement studies found that managerial level, salary, and promotions were the three most commonly used measures of advancement (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Tharenou, Latimer & Conroy, 1994; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). As nonexecutive board appointees may be retired executives, the managerial level items examine prior managerial levels reached using the managerial levels of current position, last position, and second-last position. Tracking the managerial level of these positions could serve as an indirect indicator of the women's managerial advancement as well as identifying the levels through which they had progressed. The number of managerial and career promotions was regarded as a good indicator of managerial advancement. The

director's total annual salary is also likely to be a useful indicator of managerial advancement. A total of six items (managerial level of current position, managerial level of last position, managerial level of second-last position, managerial promotions, career promotions, and total annual salary) were used for the managerial advancement scale. As the six items were scored on different measures, a scale was formed from the *z*-score equivalents of the survey items. The scale demonstrated adequate reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .82 for the sample – see Table 3.1.

3.2.2.4. Work Continuity

A scale that measured the continuity of the woman's working life was derived from two yes/no items (continuous full-time employment and part-time work) and a multiple-choice item for the total duration of work breaks, from 1 (*no breaks*) to 5 (*10 or more years*), that were based on Tharenou & Conroy (1994). The alpha reliability for the measure was a satisfactory .79 for the sample – see Table 3.1.

3.2.2.5. CEO Experience

A dichotomous variable measuring CEO experience was constructed from the items managerial level of current position, managerial level of last position, and managerial level of second last position, where at least one of the positions was *Chief Executive Officer*.

3.2.2.6. Career Encouragement

A career encouragement scale was derived from three 7-point ordinal items measuring frequency from 1 (*Never*) to 7 (*Eleven or more times*) from Tharenou and Conroy (1994). The three items were:

(ix) To what extent has a person more senior in position than yourself inside your organisation encouraged you in your career development (e.g., in promotion or advancement within or outside your organisation/department)?

(x) To what extent have colleague(s) at the same level as yourself within your organisation/department encouraged you in your career development (e.g., in promotion or advancement within your organisation/ department)?

(xi) To what extent have you been encouraged by others in your organisation to apply for, or express interest in, promotion when opportunities become available?

The scale examined the amount of encouragement individuals reported receiving from colleagues and more senior staff to assist advancement and promotion, both within and outside their organisations. Tharenou and others (Tharenou, 1997c; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994; Tharenou et al., 1994) showed that the measure emerged as a separate factor distinct from measures of training and development, and challenging work that were also used in the present study. Convergent and discriminant validity of the career encouragement scale was demonstrated with reasonable Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients obtained in previous studies of .75 to .80. The alpha coefficient for the present study was .83 – see Table 3.1.

3.2.2.7. Mentor Support

A mentor support scale was derived from eighteen 5-point ordinal items from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*) that measured the extent of agreement with statements concerning their relationship with a mentor (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Items were prefaced with the phrase "This person has". Some sample items were:

(i) Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that presented opportunities to learn new skills.
(vi) Protected you from working with other managers or work units before you knew about their likes/dislikes, options on controversial topics, and the nature of the political environment.
(xvii) Served as a role model.

Dreher and Ash achieved an alpha value of .95. The reliability of the mentor support scale in the present study was comparable to that achieved by Dreher and Ash (1990) with an alpha coefficient of .92, as shown in Table 3.1.

3.2.2.8. Male Managerial Hierarchy

Male managerial hierarchy was three items adapted from Tharenou and Conroy (1994) that measured the extent to which men occupied senior positions in the managerial hierarchy of the organisation that employed the woman. Tharenou and Conroy's male managerial hierarchy scale was shown to have unidimensional factor structure, and convergent and

divergent validity, but to have moderate to low reliability at .71 and .64 (Tharenou, 1995; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994; Tharenou et al., 1994).

Male managerial hierarchy in the present study consisted of managerial hierarchy gender proportions, work colleagues' gender proportions, and employment organisation CEO gender. The 5-point response scale for the first two items ranged from 1 (*all women*) to 5 (*all men*). An example item was "What is the proportion of men and women in the managerial/supervisory hierarchy in your local organisation?" Chief executive officer gender was a binary response. The scale constructed from the *z*-scores of the three items demonstrated acceptable reliability with an alpha coefficient for the present example of .70.

3.2.2.9. Male-Stereotyped Position

The extent to which the woman's current position was regarded as male-stereotyped was derived from the results of earlier research that assessed the extent to which respondents' current position was gender-typed (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; Pfeffer et al., 1995; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994). The three dichotomous items were women previously appointed to director's organisation position, women usually occupy director's organisation position, and women previously appointed to director's organisation level. The alpha coefficient for the present sample was .71. A positive score indicated a male-stereotyped position.

3.2.2.10. Employment Sector

Employment sector in which the woman was employed was measured by a 2-point nominal scale of 1 (*private*) and 2 (*public*). The category of private sector was created by collapsing the employment industry responses of (a) mining; (b) manufacturing; (c) electricity, gas and water; (d) construction; (e) wholesale and retail trade; (f) transport and storage; (g) communication; (h) finance, property and business services; and (i) recreation, personal, and other services. Collapsing responses to the remaining two industries of (a) public administration and defence, and (b) community services created a category of public sector.

3.2.2.11. Training and Development

The training and development scale consisted of six 7-point items developed by Tharenou and colleagues (Tharenou, 1995; Tharenou & Conroy, 1994; Tharenou et al., 1994). The scale measured the extent of participation in training and development courses, group representation at outside meetings, acting in higher positions, participation in organisational committees, and selection panels. Evidence for the scale's unidimensional factor structure, and convergent and divergent validity, has been given (Tharenou, 1997c). Evidence for the scale's reliability was obtained by two separate test administrations of the training and development scale which provided alpha coefficients of .79 (Time 1) and .77 (Time 2), with test-retest reliability over time of .65 (Tharenou, 1997c). In another study, a reliability of .81 was found (Tharenou & Conroy, 1994). In the present study, the Cronbach alpha was .76 – see Table 3.1.

All items had responses ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*eleven or more times*). Some sample items were:

(i) How many times in your career have you interviewed staff for selection/promotion?
(iv) How many times in your career have you attended management training/development courses run by outside organisations/departments?
(vi) How often have you acted for 3 months or more in a higher position in your career?

3.2.2.12. Challenging Work

Challenging work consisted of two 7-point items developed by Tharenou and Conroy (1994) measuring the extent to which the respondent had been involved in work of a challenging nature in their present position. Responses measured frequency from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*eleven or more times*). The items were:

(vii) When you first entered your present job, to what extent were you involved in challenging work assignments? (ie, in the first 3 months in present job)
(viii) How often has your present job since then involved challenging work assignments?

The scale emerged as a distinct factor in previous factor analyses from training and development, and career encouragement (Tharenou, 1997c). Evidence for the reliability of the scale was the alpha value of .77 (Tharenou & Conroy, 1994). The challenging work scale had a satisfactory reliability, but was lower than the reliability coefficients reported in earlier studies (Tharenou, 1995; Tharenou et al., 1994). A similar alpha level of .72 was found for the present sample – see Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Psychometric Data for Each Multi-item Scale Measure

Scale	No. of items	*M*	*S.D.*	Cronbach's Alpha	*N* [a]
Managerial advancement	6	0.00 [b]	0.73	.82	570
Work continuity	3	0.00 [b]	0.84	.79	567
Career encouragement	3	3.00	1.71	.83	547
Mentor support	18	2.86	1.24	.92	572
Male managerial hierarchy	3	0.00 [b]	0.80	.70	569
Male-stereotyped position	3	0.00 [b]	0.79	.71	568
Training and development	6	4.52	1.37	.76	558
Challenging work	2	5.09	1.78	.72	550

[a] The number of cases varied across the measures as not all of the respondents completed all items in the scale.
[b] The means for managerial advancement, work continuity, male managerial hierarchy, and male-stereotyped position scales result from composite items being first standardised as z-scores prior to summing the items.

3.2.3. Analysis

Logistic regression is used to predict group membership from a set of variables when the dependent variable is dichotomous (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Logistic regression does not depend on assumptions about the distribution of the predictors such as that they are normally distributed, linearly related, or of equal variance within each group. The technique of logistic regression is an appropriate technique when the distribution of responses on the dependent variable may be non-linear for one or more of the independent variables. Logistic regression also regression allows a mix of continuous (interval), nominal and dichotomous

variables. The accuracy of logistic regression may be assessed by the extent to which cases are correctly classified into their groups from the resulting regression equation.

The SPSS version 11 logistic regression program was used for analysis, with the independent variables entered in the logistic regression in three steps. The individual variables of director age, highest level of education, managerial advancement, work continuity, CEO experience, partner relationship, and number of dependent children were entered first. The interpersonal variables of career encouragement, mentor support, male managerial hierarchy, male-stereotyped position, board gender proportion, and years worked with women directors were entered second. The organisational variables of occupation category, employment sector, training and development, and challenging work were entered last.

3.3. Results

Of the cases submitted for processing, 70 cases were deleted with missing values, leaving 204 executive directors and 298 nonexecutive directors for analysis. Entry of the individual independent variables produced a statistically reliable model (χ^2 (8, N = 502) = 64.9, p < .001). Entry of the interpersonal independent variables improved the model with a significant chi-square improvement (χ^2 (6, N = 502) = 33.1, p < .001). Entry of the organisation independent variables also improved the model with a further significant chi-square improvement (χ^2 (4, N = 502) = 33.3, p < .001) – see Table 3.2.

A satisfactory rate of prediction was achieved from the final model, with 81.9% of the nonexecutive directors being correctly classified and 59.8% of the executive directors being correctly classified, or an overall correct classification rate of 72.9%. Intermediate probabilities were 77.9% for nonexecutive directors and 42.2% for executive directors with the first step, and 79.2% for nonexecutive directors and 54.9% for executive directors with the second step.

Table 3.2
Logistic Regression Analysis for Nonexecutive versus Executive Directors

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Individual variables					
Director's age	.160*	.077	4.282	.039	1.173
Highest level of education	.159***	.044	12.872	.000	1.172
Managerial advancement	.509*	.214	5.672	.017	1.664
Work continuity	.064	.158	.163	.687	1.066
Organisation tenure	-.072	.067	1.147	.284	.930
CEO experience	-.327	.300	1.187	.276	.721
Partner relationship	.023	.076	.090	.764	1.023
Number of dependent children	-.068	.214	.101	.751	.934
After Step 1with df = 8, χ^2 = 64.9, $p < .001$					
Interpersonal variables					
Career encouragement	-.072	.071	1.051	.305	.930
Mentor support	-.261**	.098	7.115	.008	.771
Male managerial hierarchy	-.249	.161	2.392	.122	.779
Male-stereotyped position	.130	.151	.742	.389	1.139
Board gender proportion	.411**	.140	8.636	.003	1.509
Years worked with women directors	.154*	.077	4.038	.044	1.167
After Step 2 with Δ df = 6, χ^2 *improvement* = 33.1, $p < .001$					
Organisational variables					
Occupation category	.290*	.121	5.756	.016	1.336
Employment sector	1.207**	.382	9.997	.002	3.344
Training and development	.156	.103	2.279	.131	1.169
Challenging work	-.236***	.073	10.456	.001	.790
After Step 3 with Δ df = 4, χ^2 *improvement* = 33.3, $p < .001$					
Constant	-2.765	1.212	5.207	.022	.063

Note: After step 1, 63.3% of directors were correctly classified. After step 2, 69.3% of directors were correctly classified. After step 3, 72.9% of directors were correctly classified.
* $\underline{p} < .05$, ** $\underline{p} < .01$, *** $\underline{p} < .001$.

3.3.1. Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 proposed that human capital investments of age, education, organisation tenure, managerial advancement and CEO experience would be better predictors of

nonexecutive director group membership than individual situational factors of work continuity and their home environment (partner relationship and number of dependent children). Hypothesis 1 was supported; women nonexecutive directors were older, had higher education levels, and had achieved more managerial advancement than executive directors. Nonexecutive and executive directors were not significantly different on other human capital variables of work continuity, organisation tenure, or CEO experience. Relationships with partners and numbers of dependent children also were not significant.

3.3.2. Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 proposed that interpersonal factors relating to board gender composition and relationships with board members would be better predictors of nonexecutive director group membership than interpersonal factors relating to employment environment of career encouragement, career mentoring, and gender composition of the work environment. Hypothesis 2 was supported; interpersonal relationships distinguished nonexecutive directors from executive directors. Interestingly, women nonexecutive directors were dissimilar in general to the board, being more likely to be on boards with a majority of male directors than were executive directors. The support of a mentor was a significant differentiator between nonexecutive directors and executive directors, but in the negative sense. Executive directors were significantly more likely to have an influential mentor than nonexecutive directors. Women nonexecutive directors were also more likely to have worked longer with other women board members than executive directors.

Career encouragement from others was not a significant differentiator. The gender-orientation of the woman's employment organisation also did not appear to be significant, with neither male managerial hierarchy nor male-stereotyped positions showing significance.

3.3.3. Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 proposed that organisational factors relating to structural opportunities of occupation category and employment sector would be better predictors of nonexecutive

director group membership than developmental factors of training and development, and challenging work assignments. Hypothesis 3 was supported; organisational structural opportunities differentiated the nonexecutive directors from executive directors in that women nonexecutive directors had experienced less challenging work than executive directors and tended to work more in public sector employment. The executive directors were more likely to be managers and administrators than the nonexecutive directors were (a low score is the highest category). There was no significant difference between nonexecutive and executive directors on training and development.

3.4. Discussion

The aim of the present study was to determine whether the categorisations of executive and nonexecutive might be salient identities for directors. Although self-identity theory does not require significant similarities between members of salient groups, self-categorisation theory suggests that shared characteristics are likely to predispose directors to identify with groups comprising similar members. Moreover, the principles of group maintenance and cohesion should induce boards to choose nonexecutive directors who appear likely to support or adopt group attitudes (Haslam, 2001).

3.4.1. Individual Factors

The analysis revealed that nonexecutive directors were significantly older than executive directors. Age is often a readily observable characteristic to other people, and most people are sensitive to it in themselves. Board members looking for nonexecutive directors are likely to be aware of their identity as older people. Although boards may tolerate young rising executive directors for other visible factors, for nonexecutive directors they are likely to look for older candidates. Women desiring to become a nonexecutive director and thereby adopt the social identity of a nonexecutive director are also likely to be aware of their own age and its relative fit with the stereotype of a nonexecutive director. Age, being a characteristic

that is readily noticeable, may add to the salience of an executive-director/nonexecutive-director categorisation. Kesner (1988) suggested older age was also consistent with women developing a high industry profile to be recognised as a candidate for appointment to boards.

Nonexecutive directors were significantly more highly educated than executive directors. Although the education level an individual has reached is not a visible characteristic, it is an attribute that is readily evident from an individual's resume and often becomes evident to others after a modicum of conversation. Westphal and Zajac (1995) suggested that education, particularly advanced degrees, were a potentially salient characteristic. If corporate boards do value a high level of education and select nonexecutive directors on this basis then this may well be a salient characteristic. Executive directors may have reached their position in the corporation through many years of hard work without necessarily gaining a high level of education. When potential nonexecutive directors, including current and former executive directors, consider directorships on other corporations they may be conscious of their relatively modest education despite their accomplishments in their employment organisation. These aspiring nonexecutive directors may complete advanced qualifications (eg. MBAs) to conform to the perceived social identity of a nonexecutive director of another corporation.

A traditional way of nonexecutive directors getting onto boards is reported as by being, or having been, a chief executive officer or top executive (Lorsch & MacIver, 1989; Mattis, 1997). It was thus expected that women who had been in senior executive ranks over their last three positions, had gained the greater number of career and managerial promotions, and had the greatest salary will be those offered nonexecutive director board appointments. Executive directors are likely to have risen relatively rapidly to the position of seniority that earns them a seat on the board.

Interestingly CEO experience was also not a significant differentiator between women nonexecutive directors and executive directors. Unlike male nonexecutive directors, who are

frequently reported to be former CEOs, women appear to be accepted without having made it to the top of an organisation as a CEO.

The woman's relationship with their partner and the number of dependent children did not appear to make a difference between nonexecutive directors and executive directors. As work continuity did not appear to be a differentiator between nonexecutive directors and executive directors, presumably both groups showed a similar history of near-continuous full-time work. The women's tenure with their current organisation was also not a significant factor.

3.4.2. Interpersonal Factors

A finding of the study was that women nonexecutive directors report less mentor support. Nonexecutive directors were significantly different from executive directors in that they did not appear to find the support of a mentor a factor in gaining a board appointment. Women nonexecutive directors may have needed less mentor support and sought less assistance from mentors, similar to men who have reached top levels (Burt, 1992; Schor, 1997).

Executive directors, who are earlier in their career development than nonexecutive directors, might value their mentor, whereas nonexecutive directors have progressed to the point where a mentor is no longer important. Women nonexecutive directors may have needed less mentor support and relied more on their expertise, credibility, and visibility from their age, education, and managerial advancement than executive directors, to advance onto company boards.

The finding that women nonexecutive directors were appointed more to boards with a majority of males suggests that women might be appointed as "tokens." Women executive directors gain their position through promotion within their organisation, so it is unlikely that these women would be "tokens," having worked their way up the management hierarchy through internal promotions. This effect suggests that token nonexecutive director appointees

would find themselves in an outgroup on the board in that the board would choose someone whom they do not identify, to suit other purposes.

Women nonexecutive board directors had a positive link with the number of years of working with other women directors. When women have strong interpersonal ties, they have sponsors for their mobility (Izraeli & Talmud, 1997). Working closely for substantial periods with women board members most likely provides the nonexecutive director with strong ties to other women directors. Working with other women board members may also provide opportunities for learning the norms, rules, and values of the boardroom.

Neither the amount of career encouragement received from people within her employment organisation, the extent to which men occupied senior positions in the managerial hierarchy, nor the extent to which the woman's current position was male-stereotyped was a significant factor in distinguishing nonexecutive directors from executive directors.

3.4.3. Organisational Factors

A finding in the study was that executive women were more likely to be in higher occupational categories (i.e., managers and administrators) than nonexecutive women. The means for occupational categories indicated that executive women overall were managers and administrators; i.e., the nonexecutive directors were more likely to come from the significant alternative category of professionals. Nonexecutive directors, being older than executive directors, are more likely to be retired and therefore may be no longer managers or administrators, and may now perceive themselves to be "professional" directors.

Being a nonexecutive director was also related to being employed in organisations in the public sector. The nonexecutive directors worked in the public sector (community services, government) more than the executive directors. Executive directors, of course, are employed in the same employment sector as the board's organisation.

Challenging work (initial and subsequent work assignments) was less important for nonexecutive directors than executive directors. This probably reflects the developmental stage of executive directors versus nonexecutive directors. Executive directors are likely to be developing their managerial skills and therefore value challenging work assignments. Nonexecutive directors on the other hand are more likely to have experienced sufficient challenging work assignments to see them as no longer having much personal value.

The extent of participation in training and development courses, outside meetings, acting in higher positions, organisational committees, and selection panels was not a relevant factor.

3.5. Limitations of the Study and Future Research

A limitation was that the measures used in the study were self-report items. Self-report measures can have weaknesses of reliability and validity (Hinkin, 1995). For instance, asking women to estimate the extent that their managerial hierarchy or position was male-stereotyped are highly subjective assessments. Future research should increase the reliability of observations by using measures that are more objective, especially for situational variables.

Future research should consider adding more items regarding the organisations of which women are board members so that other questions such as the following could be addressed. Are women more likely to be appointed to boards when the business strategy of the company suggests they would fulfil organisational needs (as suggested by Harrigan, 1981; Holton & Rabbetts, 1989; and Mitchell, 1984)? The present study did not fully explore the characteristics of the companies to which women were appointed as board members.

The study suggested that nonexecutive director women's social capital was important in their selection to boards, through having long-term links with other women directors. However, the study did not examine the influence of social capital (e.g., networks). Burt (1992) suggested that women require close networks, especially of other women, and strong sponsors to advance to top positions. Since women are outsiders and lack legitimacy, they

needed to borrow the social capital of their sponsors, and gain a large disconnected network. Future research should examine women's networks links, and the nature of their board sponsors. The study examined mentor support for career advancement, rather than sponsorship for board appointment.

The study examined what might help women gain appointment and influence as nonexecutive directors as opposed to executive directors. Future research should compare male and female nonexecutive directors with male and female executive directors to assess the differences between the factors linked to men and women in nonexecutive director roles. The factors that affect women's effectiveness and men's effectiveness on boards as nonexecutive directors are likely to be different (e.g., long-standing network links, social similarity).

3.6. Conclusion

At the individual level, women should be encouraged to enhance their human capital, especially education and managerial advancement. Women also need to increase their social capital by developing networks of other women directors. Women also need to work in organisations that give them a greater opportunity, such as the public sector.

In conclusion, the results of the study suggested that women were appointed as nonexecutive directors to boards based on their human capital, their social capital, and opportunity. Women who had more skill, knowledge, and expertise for executive work from age, education, and managerial advancement were more likely to be nonexecutive directors than executive directors were. Women who had more social capital, through long-term contacts with women directors, were more likely to be nonexecutive directors than executive directors were. The public sector also presented opportunities for women to be appointed as nonexecutive board members. However, women may be appointed as nonexecutive directors to fulfil a token requirement as indicated by their prevalence on male-majority boards.

The study demonstrated that there were significant differences between nonexecutive directors and executive directors in Australia. These differences support a categorisation of nonexecutive directors versus executive directors as distinct groups that are potentially salient in terms of social identity theory.

Chapter 4

4. LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF SUCCESSFUL WOMEN DIRECTORS

4.1. Introduction

Having identified a substantial sample of women corporate directors and confirmed that the distinction between executive directors and nonexecutive directors is valid for this sample, the next challenge was to identify the successful women directors. As discussed in Chapter 1, there is no clear measure of director success (Johnson, Daily, & Ellstrand, 1996), so a simple definition was made that women who were still directors six years later are successful. In addition, as directors as a study group pose difficulties in terms of administering experimental interventions (Hill, 1995), it was thought that significant changes in the women's characteristics may give clues as to factors in their success.

There does not appear to be any longitudinal studies of women directors. The few studies that compare women directors over time are annual descriptions of statistical changes in the demographic composition of women directors by periodically re-sampling women directors who happen to be on the boards of top corporations (e.g. Catalyst, 1998b, 1998c; Korn/Ferry International, 1999; Holton, 2000). The researcher could not find any studies that tracked the same sample of women directors over time.

Many authors lament the lack of success of women in gaining significant numbers of appointments to corporate boards (e.g. Bilimoria, 2000;Burke & Mattis, 2000; Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001). Some authors also express scepticism that some of the women who are appointed to boards may not have earned the position on merit and may be mere “tokens” (e.g. Barr, 1996; Scherer, 1997). The present study examines a group of women who were board directors in 1995, and again in 2001, as likely examples of successful women directors. These women are likely to perceive themselves as members of an ingroup of board directors.

The notion of an ingroup of board directors is likely to be subject to the meta-contrast principles of categorisation described by Haslam (2001). The salience of the ingroup may vary depending on whether the board is of a small, relatively insignificant company or a major multinational corporation. Being a member of a board of a small company is likely to have salience only under a limited set of circumstances and therefore be of limited influence on how the woman perceives herself. However, being a member of a board of a major multinational corporation might have broad salience in a wide range of circumstances, and would have significant influence on how the woman perceives herself.

In performing a longitudinal study, there is an assumption that changes or even lack of changes that are detected during the intervening period will be significant. However, the researcher could not apply any experimental interventions to the sample over the intervening years, so factors in their success may not be detected. Some of the women directors may have already established an appropriate level of identity with an ingroup of boards of directors and will not exhibit any significant change. However, most of the women are expected to be asserting themselves in their identity of a board director and so should exhibit change as they align themselves with their perceptions of the ingroup.

In forming hypotheses about the way that women might change in attempting to match perceptions of themselves with perceptions of the ingroup, the attributes of nonexecutive directors rather than executive directors were used as a guide. Most directors will have only one substantive employment organisation and therefore, by definition, are limited to one executive director position at any one time. In Australia, this executive director position will typically be that of Chief Executive Office or Chief Financial Officer (Korn/Ferry International, 1995). The salient social identity of an executive director is more often likely to be that of a CEO or CFO rather than their identity as a board member. However, appointments to nonexecutive director positions are more likely to be at the discretion of a board that seeks out people who conform to that board's social identity.

According to Korn/Ferry International (1999), nonexecutive directors on boards of larger companies hold more directorships than those of smaller ones. Korn/Ferry International (1999) reported that boards are comprised mostly of current (26%) or retired (29%) CEOs, and current (21%) or retired (16%) executives. Over half (59%) of the directors of large corporations describe themselves as professional directors (those with two or more paid directorships). The most usual (39%) tenure was 1-3 years, and the next most frequent (26%) tenure was 4-6 years. In addition, just over 40% of the companies surveyed had one or more nonexecutive directors resign during the year. Of the CEOs that held nonexecutive director positions (on other boards), over half (52%) held two or more other board appointments. On an average board, there was a maximum of six directorships held by any one director (Korn/Ferry International, 1999).

Corporate boards of directors provide a novel opportunity for the study of ingroup relations. Recent research has focussed on corporate boards, of which many are reported to function as “old boys’ clubs” (Leighton & Thain, 1993). The debatable effectiveness of corporate boards and what constitutes appropriate board responsibilities has been a subject of research (Gillies, 1992), as has been the explanations of ingroup solidarity (Tolbert et al., 1999). Patton and Baker (1987) referred to corporate board ingroup solidarity as a “let’s not rock the boat” mentality. Patton and Baker provided a number of explanations for corporate board ingroup solidarity such as; (a) the dual authority of a CEO who is also a board chair, (b) board members who are CEOs of other companies, and (c) board members valuing their social ties with the other members. Patton and Baker’s reasoning suggests that directors actively protect their status as ingroup members and that their self esteem may be based on their identification as a board director with its associated social status. Such explanations imply that the social identity category of board director may be highly salient for many directors.

4.1.1. Highest Level of Education

As the women in the sample are apparently successful, having held board directorships in 1995 and 2001, it may be reasonably assumed that they have established a level of social identification with the ingroup of board directors. According to Haslam (2001), when people self-categorise as members of an ingroup, they will actively strive to conform to their perception of attributes of the ingroup. With respect to educational level, one researcher found that women directors are more highly educated than male directors (Burke, 1994c). However, this is likely to be a strategy to get them noticed or appear credible. Once accepted as a board member they are likely to play down their educational qualifications in an attempt to match their perceptions of the ingroup. A report of OECD Principles of Corporate Governance in Korn/Ferry International (1999) suggests that the educational requirement of directors is that "board members acquire…and remain abreast of relevant new laws, regulations and changing commercial risks" (p. 24). Such a requirement is unlikely to induce a director to improve their formal academic qualifications. Therefore, unless the salient ingroup happens to be significantly more highly educated than the woman, she is unlikely to pursue further educational qualifications for fear of distancing her social identity from that of the ingroup.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that the women directors will not significantly increase their educational qualifications between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.2. Managerial Level

Korn/Ferry International (1999) reported that in 1998, over 90% of board directors were current or former CEOs or executive (26% were current CEOs of other companies, 29% were retired CEOs, 21% were current executives, and 16% were retired executives). From Study 1, Characteristics of Women Board Directors in Australia, over 70% of the women from the sample already had a managerial level of executive or above. If most of the women in the sample already conform to the managerial level of the majority of board directors, then they

are unlikely to feel compelled to advance in managerial level to meet perceptions regarding the ingroup of board directors.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that the women directors will not significantly advance in managerial level between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.3. Total Directorships

According to Korn/Ferry International (1999), the most usual tenure was 1-3 years (39%), and the next most frequent tenure was 4-6 years (26%). In addition, just over 40% of the companies surveyed had one or more nonexecutive directors resign during the year. At the same time, over half (59%) described themselves as professional directors (those with two or more paid directorships). With this reported level of turnover in directorships, it is likely that the social identity of a successful board director will include a record of accomplishment of past directorships.

Women directors are likely to seek to build their record of board directorships in order to increase their identification with the ingroup of board directors. As the women directors improve perceptions of themselves as members of the ingroup of board directors, they are likely to be offered further opportunities for board directorships and thus provided with an opportunity to increase their total board directorships.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that the total number of board appointments held by the women will significantly increase between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.4. Concurrent Directorships

According to Korn/Ferry International (1999), nonexecutive directors on boards of larger companies hold more directorships than those of smaller ones. Of the CEOs that held nonexecutive director positions (on other boards), over half (52%) held two or more other board appointments. On an average board, the maximum number of directorships that were held by any one director was six.

If the women perceive that their identity as board directors is related to holding multiple concurrent board directorships, then they are likely to be more active in their pursuit of multiple board appointments. As they become recognised as members of an ingroup of board directors, they are likely to be in greater demand to participate as directors on corporate boards. The number of concurrent board directorships they hold is then likely to increase in response, up to the maximum number of concurrent boards that they can reasonably service.

Hypothesis 4 proposes that the number of concurrent board appointments held by the women will significantly increase between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.5. Director Position

Australia may be unique in that it is now the norm for the Chair and CEO to be separate (Korn/Ferry International, 1999). Therefore, in Australia the identity of a successful nonexecutive director is likely to include multiple directorships with at least one board chair position. Women directors who perceive that a board chair position is a salient attribute of a successful corporate director will actively seek out additional board positions in the anticipation that at least one of these board positions will in turn include the position of board chair.

Hypothesis 5 proposes that of the women's board positions there will be a significant increase in the number of board chair positions held between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.6. Partner Relationship

Early research on U.K. women directors by Holton et al. (1993) found that women's partners were often prominent businessmen that may have facilitated their admission to corporate boards. However, in Australia there does not appear to be any connection between board directorships and the status of partner relationships. The male-dominated nature of boards is likely to give rise to an ingroup attitude that partners are ancillary to the social identity of a corporate director. The nature of the women's relationships with their partners is

unlikely to have any bearing on their social identity as board directors. Therefore, no significant change is expected in partner relationships.

Hypothesis 6 proposes that the women's relationships with their partners will not change significantly between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.7. Basis of Recruitment

As women directors become perceived as members of the ingroup of board directors, the basis of their recruitment to board positions would shift to that of reputation (who they are perceived to be) rather than merit (who they are). However, the extent of any change in recruitment will depend on how much they were perceived as part of the ingroup in 1995 compared to perceptions of their ingroup status in 2001, and how many new directorships they have gained.

Hypothesis 7 proposes that there will be a significant difference in the basis of recruitment of the women to board positions in 2001 from the basis of recruitment in 1995.

4.1.8. Board Chair Gender

Although these women are likely to be perceived as members of the ingroup of board directors, it is unlikely to have a significant effect on the gender of the board chair, notwithstanding that many board chair positions are likely to be held by these successful women. The gender of the board chair is unlikely to be a factor in the perception of a salient ingroup of board directors. Therefore, any change in the gender of the board chairs is likely to be coincidental. However, if there was to be a significant change in the board chair's gender this might imply that individual familiarity between a female board chair and the woman director might be more salient that the social identity.

Hypothesis 8 proposes that there will be no significant difference in the gender of the board chairs of boards between 1995 and 2001, notwithstanding any new board chair positions the women gain in accordance with Hypothesis 5.

4.1.9. Employment Industry

The social identity of board directors generally is expected to be independent of the director's employment industry. However, within individual boards the salience of the director's employment industry may be salient. Board directors are likely to be offered board positions in industries in which they have prior experience. Overall, being a member of a social ingroup of board directors is unlikely to have any significant influence on the industry in which the women work. The social identity of a salient group of board directors is unlikely to cause women to change industry.

Hypothesis 9 proposes that there will be no significant difference in the employment industries of the women directors between 1995 and 2001.

4.1.10. Board Employees

The social identity of being a board director is likely to include the ambition to pursue directorships on the presumably more prestigious boards of larger organisations. The women are likely to be more active in seeking out prestigious board directorships to enhance their self-esteem. As the women become perceived as members of an ingroup of board directors, they may be more likely to receive additional offers of board directorships, including offers of directorships on boards of larger organisations. It is expected that the women will take up these offers of directorships on the boards of larger organisations and so the apparent organisation size of the boards will appear to increase significantly.

Hypothesis 10 proposes that the women directors will hold board seats on significantly larger organisations in 2001 than they did in 1995.

4.1.11. Board Corporation Type

The women who do adopt the social identity of a board director are likely to seek out and receive more offers of directorships of higher-profile prestigious boards. It is argued that these higher-profile prestigious boards are more commonly the boards of publicly listed

corporations and statutory authorities than other organisations such as public unlisted, private, trust, and not for profit organisations.

Hypothesis 11 proposes that the women directors in 2001 will hold significantly more positions on publicly visible organisations (publicly listed corporations and statutory authorities) than those held in 1995.

4.1.12. Board Directors

Women's perception of the social identity of a board director is unlikely to be connected to the size of boards. Although women who are members of an ingroup of board directors are likely to change boards over six years, and change to more prestigious boards on higher-profile organisations, this will not show as a significant effect on board size. The board size of most reasonably large organisations appears to be static at eight directors (Korn/Ferry International, 1999). However, there is some speculation in the literature (e.g. Catalyst, 1998c) that some board positions are created by expanding the board size by one specifically to accommodate a woman board member.

Hypothesis 12 proposes that the sizes of the boards in 2001 will not be significantly different from the sizes of the boards in 1995.

4.2. Method

4.2.1. Six-year Follow-up Sample Selection

Of the 572 women directors who responded to the 1995 study, 298 women (52%) agreed to participate in follow-up research. The original sample of 572 women was compared to the follow-up sample of 298 women to determine whether it was a representative subset. Chi-square tests investigated whether the women who agreed or declined to follow-up research differed due to (i) age, (ii) highest education level, (iii) total board directorships, (iv) total board directorship years, (v) senior management years, (vi) total directorship

remuneration, (vii) employment industry, (viii) managerial level of current position, (ix) total annual salary, (x) employment organisation size, and (xi) state of residence.

The results of the chi-square tests showed significant differences between those women who agreed to follow-up research and those who declined for (a) highest education level – see Table 4.1, (b) total annual salary – see Table 4.2, (c) managerial level of current position – see Table 4.3, and (d) employment industry – see Table 4.4.

More directors (56%) with an education level of Year 12 through to a Masters Degree agreed to follow-up research than those with a lower level of education of Year 10 or less (34%) or higher level of education of a Doctorate/PhD (48%). A chi-square test confirmed the differences in follow-up agreement rates by level of education were significant (χ^2 (10, N = 570) = 18.57, p = .046).

Table 4.1
Director's Agreement to Follow-Up by Highest Level of Education

	Declined		Agreed	
Education level	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Some Secondary School	9	64.3	5	35.7
Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate	43	66.2	22	33.8
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation	42	48.8	44	51.2
TAFE College Course	14	43.8	18	56.3
Associate Diploma	2	20.0	8	80.0
Undergraduate Diploma	19	45.2	23	54.8
Undergraduate Degree	75	48.4	80	51.6
Postgraduate Diploma/Honours	22	39.3	34	60.7
MBA	12	41.4	17	58.6
Masters Degree	20	37.0	34	63.0
Doctorate/PhD	14	51.9	13	48.1
Total	272	47.7	298	52.3

Directors who had a total annual salary of over $65,000 were significantly more likely to have agreed to follow-up research than those with a lower total annual salary (χ^2 (5, N = 526) = 17.08, p = .004).

Table 4.2
Director's Agreement to Follow-Up by Total Annual Salary

	Declined		Agreed	
Salary	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Under $45,000	66	27.5	50	17.5
$45,001 to $65,000	55	22.9	50	17.5
$65,001 to $85,000	21	8.8	33	11.5
$85,001 to $105,000	21	8.8	35	12.2
$105,001 to $125,000	16	6.6	40	13.9
Over $125,000	61	25.4	78	27.3
Totals	240	100%	286	100%

Directors who's managerial level in their current position was chief executive officer or divisional head were significantly more likely to have agreed to follow-up research than those with a lower managerial level (χ^2 (7, N = 565) = 23.36, p < .001).

Table 4.3
Director's Agreement to Follow-Up by Managerial Level

	Declined		Agreed	
Managerial level	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Chief executive officer	54	19.9	82	28.0
Divisional head	22	8.1	45	15.4
Executive	90	33.1	95	32.4
Senior level manager	39	14.3	30	10.2
Middle level manager	23	8.5	21	7.2
Lower level manager	12	4.4	5	1.7
Supervisor	7	2.6	3	1.0
Non supervisor/ Non manager	25	9.2	12	4.1
Totals	272	100%	293	100%

Directors with a "white collar" employment industry of (a) communication; (b) finance, property and business services; (c) public administration and defence; (d) community services; (e) recreation, personal and other services; or (f) the mining industry, were significantly more likely to have agreed to follow-up research than those of other industries (χ^2 (10, N = 564) = 41.22, p < .001).

Overall, the follow-up sample appeared to be a reasonable representation of the 1995 sample, with the bias that the directors who agreed to a follow-up were (a) better educated, (b) had a higher salary, (c) tended more to be CEOs and division heads, and (d) were more likely to be from "white collar" industries or the mining industry, than those directors who declined the opportunity for follow-up research. Perhaps this cohort of directors recognised greater value in academic research. Their characteristics of higher education, managerial position, and salary may also better typify a stereotypical board director, and so they may have had a stronger social identity as a board director, thereby feeling more confident of participating in follow-up research.

Table 4.4
Director's Agreement to Follow-Up by Employment Industry

	Declined		Agreed	
Industry	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Mining	2	0.7	9	3.1
Manufacturing	50	18.5	30	10.2
Electricity, gas, and water	3	1.1	3	1.0
Construction	19	7.0	6	2.0
Wholesale and retail trade	51	18.9	35	11.9
Transport and storage	14	5.2	5	1.7
Communication	21	7.8	41	13.9
Finance, property, and business services	50	18.5	85	28.9
Public administration and defence	10	3.7	16	5.4
Community services	26	9.6	35	11.9
Recreation, personal, and other services	24	8.9	29	9.9
Total	270	100%	294	100%

4.2.2. Survey Design and Measures

The present study was designed to be a longitudinal study of the changes in personal, interpersonal, and organisational characteristics of the women directors over the six-year period. The survey repeated many of the survey items on the 1995 survey with some minor changes. Appendix D lists the 1995 survey items and Appendix I lists the 2001 survey items.

The survey letters to women are in Appendix E, the survey instrument for women is in Appendix F, the survey letters to men are in Appendix G, and the survey instrument for men is in Appendix H.

Items that were changed from categorical responses to numeric responses were (a) board directors, (b) director age, (c) years worked with women managers, (d) years worked with women directors, (e) senior management years, (f) total directorship years, and (g) total directorships.

Items that had minor grammatical improvements to their wording were (a) basis of recruitment, (a) board chair gender, (b) board corporation type, (c) board employees, (d) board gender proportion, (e) current board member, (f) employment CEO gender, (g) employment employees, (g) employment salary, (h) financial responsibility for dependents, (i) managerial gender proportion, (j) partner relationship, and (k) work colleagues gender proportion.

Many board-related items provided for up to seven responses to allow for up to seven boards on which the directors might serve. In particular the 1995 item total directorship remuneration was changed to the board-specific item, directorship remuneration. The response categories for the director's board position item was simplified from six response categories to four by combining *chair executive* and *managing director* as *chief executive officer*, and removing *secretary*.

Follow-up detail requested for some board-related items was more clearly identified as pertaining to the board of the organisation with the greatest number of employees. The board for which these answers were given is termed the "focal board" in the study for convenience and compatibility with Westphal and Milton (2000).

Some items were altered to a form that was believed to be more useful for analysis. Number of dependent children was changed to number of children, to be compatible with other research on corporate directors. Age of dependent children (allowing only three

children) was changed to child age categories (allowing up to four age ranges plus a response of *fully independent*). Board meeting frequency was changed to focal board formal meeting frequency, an extra response category of *fortnightly* was added, and an extra item of focal board director meeting frequency to allow for more frequent meetings than just board meetings.

Several new items were introduced to facilitate analysis for analysis in later studies. New items were (a) reason no longer a director, (b) university degree, (c) MBA or similar, (d) functional background, (e) concurrent directorships, (f) concurrent board years, (g) nonexecutive director years, (h) nonexecutive director boards, (i) board industry, (j) board CEO gender, and (k) board chair and CEO is the same person.

Several new items focussed on the board of the largest organisation (by number of employees) of which the woman was a director. New items were (a) executive committee member, (b) focal board directors predate CEO, (c) focal board directorship predates CEO, (d) focal board directorship years, (e) focal board members from same university, (f) focal board members in same industry, (g) focal board members on other boards with director, (h) focal board sells into employment industry, (i) focal board members with MBA or similar, (j) focal board members with no university, (k) focal board members with same functional background, and (l) focal board women directors.

Four new scales were introduced to the 2001 questionnaire, two that measured gender role stereotypes from Cejka and Eagly (1999), the social identification scale of Karasawa (1991), and the board influence scale from Westphal and Milton (2000). These scales are analysed in detail in chapters 5 and 6.

In an attempt to obtain a broader view of the boards on which women held a seat, each woman was asked to invite a male colleague to complete a survey on their experience as a director. An additional survey was created for male directors that had fewer items by dropping

items regarding family environment, salary, gender proportions, and board-related items already covered by the questionnaire for females.

Each woman director received a survey package consisting of an explanatory letter with instructions, consent forms, the questionnaires, and reply paid envelopes. The instructions asked the woman to give a questionnaire to one of the male directors. The questionnaires were clearly marked and colour-coded, one colour for the female directors and another colour for the male director.

4.2.3. Survey Returns and Representativeness

Of the mail-out to the 2001 sample of 298 women, 59 of the surveys were returned with an indication that the women were no longer known at that address. Most of the women in 1995 gave a follow-up address of a company for which they were a director. Six years later most of them had moved on and the companies would not divulge a forwarding address (if known). An attempt was made to locate those women through searching for their names on the current database on the *Business Who's Who of Australia* [Dun & Bradstreet, November 2001]. Thirteen of the women were located again and sent another copy of the survey. The second posting yielded a further three completed surveys.

Of the women completing the surveys, 21 indicated that they were no longer on a company board. Two women who telephoned the researcher commented that their loss of directorship was not of their choice, rather that their retirement was due to changes in the composition and election process of the board. A total of 32 completed returns were received from current women directors.

Of the 298 surveys sent out eight men completed and returned the survey. These responses provided seven cases where a man and a woman from the same board returned completed surveys. The overall return rate for the survey was a satisfactory 20%.

The 32 responses from women who were still board members were analysed to determine whether they were representative of the 298 women directors of the 2001 follow-up

sample. Chi-square tests for independence were used to confirm that the 2001 sample was a representative subset of the 1995 sample. Items tested for sample representativeness were (a) director age, (b) highest level of education, (c) total board directorships, (d) total board directorship years, (e) senior management years, (f) directorship remuneration, (g) employment industry, (h) managerial level of current position, (i) total annual salary, (j) employment organisation size, and (k) the director's state of residence obtained from the postal address.

Only the chi-square test of total directorship remuneration showed a significant variation between the 32 responses and the sample of 298 women directors– see Table 2.12.

Although there was statistical significance to the differences (χ^2 (4, N = 285) = 19.42, p < .001), there was no apparent rationale for the differences. Those with nil remuneration reduced from 44% to 16% of the sample and those receiving up to $7,000 increased from 14% to 36%. However, the proportion of directors receiving $7,001 to $22,000 decreased, while those receiving $22,001 to $47,000 increased, and those receiving over $47,000 decreased.

Table 4.5
Women Director Responses by Total Directorship Remuneration

	No response		Responded	
Remuneration	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Nil	111	43.7	5	16.1
Under $7,000	36	14.2	11	35.5
$7,001 to $22,000	37	14.6	3	9.7
$22,001 to $47,000	31	12.2	9	29.0
Over $47,000	39	15.4	3	9.7
Totals	254	100%	31	100%

Therefore, the sample of 32 current women directors is regarded as a representative subset of the 298 directors who agreed to follow-up research, with the variation in directorship remuneration regarded as a spurious inconclusive result.

4.2.4. Method of Data Analysis

To compare the differences between the women and their boards over the two periods of 1995 and 2001, several two-sample statistical tests were necessary. Both the 1995 data and the 2001 data contain a related sample of women directors, and an independent sample of boards on which the women hold positions.

The women directors are a related sample because they are the same people who were surveyed in 1995. However, the boards on which they are directors are regarded as an independent sample because it is not known whether the boards that they were on in 1995 are the same as the boards that they were on in 2001. In fact, the data shows there was a high turnover in their boards between 1995 and 2001, so we know that most of the boards they were on in 2001 are not the same ones they were on in 1995. Therefore, independent sample statistical techniques were used to evaluate significance for attributes of the boards and the women's positions on boards.

In addition, the data contains items measured on nominal, ordinal, and interval scales. The survey items are a mixture of nominal (eg. board position), ordinal (eg. organisation size on a non-linear categorical scale), and interval (eg. director's age) items. Some items that were surveyed with an interval scale in 2001 (eg. number of board directorships) have been analysed with ordinal statistical techniques to match the 1995 form of the item (e.g., an ordinal scale of uneven intervals).

Nominal data for the related sample of the women directors were analysed for significance with the chi-square test for independence. Although the McNemar test was considered to test for significance of related sample nominal data, it requires dichotomous variables (Siegel, 1956). None of the data in the sample were suitable for the McNemar test, forcing a reliance on the chi-square test. Nominal data for the independent sample of the boards were also analysed by the chi-square test. The Fisher exact probability test was considered as an alternative for independent sample nominal data, but it requires dichotomous

variables (Siegel, 1956). Only one item was suitable for the Fisher test (board chair's gender), so the results of the Fisher test was reported in addition to the chi-square result for that item.

Ordinal data for the related sample of the women directors were analysed for significance with the Wilcoxon signed ranks test. Ordinal data for the independent sample of the boards were analysed with both the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Interval data for the related sample of the women directors were analysed with the *t* test. There was no suitable interval data for the independent sample of the boards (Siegel, 1956).

The SPSS version 11 software package was used for analysis. Assumptions underlying the use of statistical techniques have been observed. The sample was representative of the total population of women directors. Independence of observation was assumed as the survey was separately administered to individual women directors without any information regarding the other participants in the sample. Although the responses to questionnaire items were not necessarily normally distributed, the sample size of women directors was large enough (30+) to tolerate reasonable deviance from normality (Pallant, 2001).

4.3. Results

Survey responses from the two sample periods are given below with descriptive statistics and the appropriate tests for significance of changes.

4.3.1. Director Age

The director's age demonstrated the expected result that the women recorded their ages as six years older than they were in 1995 – see Table 4.6 (one woman did not reveal her age in 2001). The mean change in age categories across all women was 1.2 which, with 5-year categories, equates to six years as expected. As the director's age was measured in 5-year intervals, a paired-samples t test was used to test for significance. The paired-samples *t* test confirmed, that the difference was significant (t (30) = 11.06, $p < .001$).

Table 4.6
Director Age in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Age	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
30 to 34 years	1	3.1	-	-
35 to 39 years	3	9.4	1	3.2
40 to 44 years	7	21.9	3	9.7
45 to 49 years	10	31.3	5	16.1
50 to 54 years	6	18.8	9	29.0
55 to 59 years	2	6.3	7	22.6
60 to 64 years	2	6.3	2	6.5
65 to 69 years	1	3.1	2	6.5
over 70 years	-	-	2	6.5
Totals	32	100%	31	100%

4.3.2. Highest Level of Education

The director's highest level of education was identical to that recorded in 1995 – see Table 4.7. None of the directors increased their level of formal qualifications over the six years. As there was no change, there was no point in testing for significance.

Table 4.7
Highest Level of Education in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Highest level of education	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation	4	12.5	4	12.5
TAFE college course	1	3.1	1	3.1
Undergraduate Diploma	4	12.5	4	12.5
Undergraduate Degree	13	40.6	13	40.6
Postgraduate Diploma/Honours	4	12.5	4	12.5
MBA	1	3.1	1	3.1
Masters Degree	2	6.3	2	6.3
Doctorate/PhD	3	9.4	3	9.4
Totals	32	100%	32	100%

4.3.3. Managerial Level

Numerous changes in the managerial level of the director's current position since 1995 are evident – see Table 4.8. One woman who did not reveal her managerial level in 1995 reported that she was now an executive in 2001. Two divisional heads and two executives from 1995 did not reveal their managerial level in 2001. As the data is in nominal categories, a chi-square test was considered appropriate to test for significance. To achieve expected frequencies of 5 or greater, the categories of senior level manager, middle level manager, and lower level manager were combined. The chi-square test then confirmed that overall the changes were significant (χ^2 (4, N = 59) = 13.4, p = .010).

The substantial changes in the categories of divisional head and non-supervisor/non-manager prompted detailed investigation. Three of the divisional heads from 1995 indicated that they were executives in 2001, one became a senior level manager, one became a non-supervisor/non-manager, and two did not state their managerial level in 2001. The exodus from the category of divisional manager in 2001 suggests that this label was no longer fashionable as a description of a managerial level.

Table 4.8
Managerial Level in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Managerial Level	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Chief executive officer	7	22.6	8	28.6
Divisional head	7	22.6	0	0.0
Executive	12	38.7	9	32.1
Senior level manager	2	6.5	3	10.7
Middle level manager	2	6.5	0	0.0
Lower level manager	1	3.2	2	7.1
Non supervisor/Non manager	0	0.0	6	21.4
Totals	31	100%	28	100%

The non-supervisors/non-managers in 2001 comprised a divisional head, two executives, two senior managers, and a lower level manager from 1995. Respondents

apparently did not interpret the managerial level of non-supervisor/non-manager as a low managerial level as its order, under lower level manager, implied. The non-supervisors/non-managers category appeared to be interpreted as a retirement or "professional" category.

Other managerial categories appeared to be interpreted as expected. The new (eighth) CEO in 2001 was an executive in 1995. The two middle level managers from 1995 shifted to the adjacent categories of senior level manager and lower level manager in 2001.

Dropping the now-defunct category of divisional head and the ambiguous category of non-supervisor/non-manager level, a chi-square test of the remaining categories suggested that the changes in managerial levels were not significant (χ^2 (2, N = 46) = .409, p = .815).

4.3.4. Total Directorships

A distinct shift in the total number of board directorships held was apparent since 1995 – see Table 4.9. A detailed comparison of responses confirmed that all directors reported either the same or a greater number of boards than they did in 1995, as expected. As this data is ordinal, a Wilcoxon signed ranks test was used to test for significance. The Wilcoxon signed ranks test confirmed that the changes were significant (Z (32) = 3.61, p < .001).

Table 4.9
Total Directorships in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Number of boards	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 to 2	17	53.1	11	34.4
3 to 4	11	34.4	7	21.9
5 to 6	3	9.4	5	15.6
More than 6	1	3.1	9	28.1
Totals	32	100%	32	100%

In 1995, the allowable responses for the number of boards were categorised, as per Table 4.9, so the total number of boards across the sample could not be calculated precisely. However, estimating the total number from the response ranges, suggests there were between 72 and 103 or more boards, with a mid-point of about 90 boards. In 2001, a numeric response

was requested so the exact number of boards could be calculated, resulting in a figure of 157 boards. Thus, the women increased the number of board memberships that they had held by about 60% over the six years. The average increase in the number of boards per director, across the 32 women over the six years, was approximately two additional boards.

4.3.5. Concurrent Directorships

The number of concurrent board directorships held by the women in 1995 could not be directly obtained from the questionnaire, as it had no suitable question. However, the number of concurrent board directorships could be deduced from the number of responses to some multiple response items. Several questions, such as the board size, allowed for answers for up to three boards. Therefore, directors who were on one or two boards concurrently could be identified reasonably accurately. However, the women who responded on the three boards allowed for by the item may have been on more boards. Of the 32 directors in the sample, 12 responded on the three boards allowed in 1995. To attempt to detect greater than three boards, two other multiple response items were analysed (basis of recruitment and board corporation type). Although these items did not indicate any particular board, women could respond to any of seven possible categories. Analysis of these items revealed four women who gave four responses out of the seven responses possible and so appeared to be on at least four boards. The estimates for 1995 and the values for 2001 are shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10
Concurrent Directorships in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Number of boards	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	9	28.1	14	43.8
2	11	34.4	7	21.9
3	8	25.0	4	12.5
4 or more	4	12.5	7	21.9
Totals	32	100%	32	100%

The total number of board directorships concurrently held for 1995 appears to be at least 71. However, the number of women with four board directorships for 1995 is a minimum value, so it is possible there were more than four women with four or more concurrent board directorships. Therefore, the total number of board directorships concurrently held for 1995 is likely to be more than 71 and the total number for 2001 was 82.

There appeared to be a reduction in the number of concurrent board directorships, with an increase in the number of women with only one board directorship, and a decrease in the number of women with two or three board directorships. As this data is ordinal, a Wilcoxon signed ranks test was used to test for significance. The Wilcoxon signed ranks test on this imprecise data suggested that the changes were not significant (Z (32) = .484, p = .628). Therefore, the average number of concurrent board directorships across the 32 women was regarded as stable, with an average of about two and one half directorships per woman.

4.3.6. Director Position

To allow comparison of director's board positions between 1995 and 2001, some board positions recorded in 1995 were re-categorised. The 1995 positions of *chair executive* and *managing director* were re-categorised as *chief executive officer*, and the 1995 position of *secretary* was included in the 2001 category of *executive director*. Comparing the resultant board positions for 1995 and 2001, several changes in directors' board positions were evident – see Table 4.11. As the board position categories are nominal, a chi-square test is the most appropriate to test for significance. The chi-square test confirmed that the changes were significant (χ^2 (3, N = 145) = 10.3, p = .016).

The 11 nonexecutive chair positions were held by eight women, of which only two were also CEOs or had any previous CEO experience. The woman that was the only nonexecutive chair in 1995 was the chair of three boards in 2001 and had no CEO experience. Therefore, it appears that for these women having a CEO position was not a criterion for also gaining a nonexecutive chair position.

Table 4.11
Director Position in 1995 and 2001

Board Position	1995 Frequency	1995 %	2001 Frequency	2001 %
Non Executive Chair	1	1.5	11	13.9
Chief Executive Officer	7	10.6	4	5.1
Executive Director	8	12.1	4	5.1
Non Executive Director	50	75.8	60	75.9
Totals	66	100%	79	100%

4.3.7. Partner Relationship

Several changes in the director's relationships with their partners occurred since 1995 – see Table 4.12. Two of the directors who were "living together" in 1995 were "married" by 2001. Of the married directors in 1995, by 2001 one was "divorced," two were "separated," and one was "widowed." The divorced woman in 1995 described herself as "single" in 2001. As the partner relationship categories are nominal, a chi-square test is appropriate for testing significance. To ensure that expected frequencies were 5 or greater, the categories of divorced, separated, single, and widowed were combined. The changes in partner relationships, although apparently quite real, were not statistically significant according to a chi-square test (χ^2 (2, N = 64) = 2.03, p = .363).

Table 4.12
Partner Relationship in 1995 and 2001

Partner Relationship	1995 Frequency	1995 %	2001 Frequency	2001 %
Married	22	68.8	20	62.5
Living together	7	21.9	5	15.6
Divorced	1	3.1	1	3.1
Separated	0	0.0	2	6.3
Single	0	0.0	1	3.1
Widowed	2	6.3	3	9.4
Totals	32	100%	32	100%

4.3.8. Basis of Recruitment

Few changes in the basis of recruitment were evident between 1995 and 2001 – see Table 4.13. As the categories for the basis of recruitment are nominal, a chi-square test is appropriate for testing significance. To ensure that expected frequencies were 5 or greater, the categories of ownership of company and family affiliation were combined, and the categories of informal networking and being a consultant were also combined. A chi-square test confirmed that the changes were not significant (χ^2 (4, N = 126) = .543, p = .969). The lower number of responses (47) in 1995 was due to the question being presented once without reference to any particular boards, although multiple responses were allowed. In 2001, the question was presented for each of the up to seven boards allowed for in 2001

Table 4.13
Basis of Recruitment in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Basis of Recruitment	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Invitation by chair	17	36.2	26	32.9
Invitation by director/ executive	8	17.0	16	20.3
Election	8	17.0	16	20.3
Ownership of company	7	14.9	9	11.4
Family affiliation	0	0.0	1	1.3
Informal networking	7	14.9	10	12.7
Being a consultant	0	0.0	1	1.3
Totals	47	100%	79	100%

4.3.9. Board Chair Gender

Substantial changes in the gender of the board chair were evident between 1995 and 2001 – see Table 4.14. As gender is a nominal category, both chi-square and Fisher exact probability tests are appropriate to test for significance. The chi-square test suggested that the changes were significant (χ^2 (1, N = 112) = 4.88, p = .027), which was confirmed by the Fisher test probability (p = .028).

Table 4.14
Board Chair Gender in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001 – all boards		2001 – boards not chaired	
Gender	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Male	28	90.3	57	70.4	57	81.4
Female	3	9.7	24	29.6	13	18.6
Totals	31	100%	81	100%	70	100%

Detailed examination revealed that of the three board chairs whose gender was given as female in 1995 none of them was from the sample of women directors. (The one woman from the 1995 sample who was a board chair failed to answer the item regarding the gender of the board chair.) However, in 2001, of the 24 female board chairs, the women in the sample held 11 of the board chairs. The high proportion of female board chairs in 2001 who also happened to be the sample respondents may have skewed the comparison with the 1995 sample resulting in a false conclusion of significant changes. To test the degree by which the sample was biased by the presence of these successful women in the sample, the 11 boards were removed from the sample and the test for significance re-run. Of the remaining boards, shown as "2001 – boards not chaired" in Table 4.14, a chi-square test showed that the changes in the gender of the other board chairs, although noticeable, was not significant (χ^2 (1, N = 101) = 1.28, p = .259). The Fisher probability test confirmed the lack of significance (p = .378).

4.3.10. Employment Industry

Few changes in the directors' employment industry were apparent since 1995 – see Table 4.15, although a detailed comparison of responses revealed more changes than are apparent from the table.

As the employment industry categories are nominal, a chi-square test is appropriate for testing significance. To ensure that expected frequencies were 5 or greater, several categories were combined. In an attempt to maximise significance, the category of mining was combined with public administration and defence, and the categories of manufacturing, electricity, gas,

and water, construction, and communication were also combined. A chi-square test suggested that the changes were not significant (χ^2 (4, N = 61) = 1.02, p = .907).

Table 4.15
Employment Industry in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Industry	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Mining	2	6.3	2	6.9
Manufacturing	1	3.1	1	3.4
Electricity, gas, and water	1	3.1	1	3.4
Construction	1	3.1	1	3.4
Communication	3	9.4	1	3.4
Finance, property, and business services	13	40.6	12	41.4
Public administration and defence	1	3.1	3	10.3
Community services	5	15.6	4	13.8
Recreation, personal, and other services	5	15.6	4	13.8
Totals	32	100%	29	100%

4.3.11. Board Employees

The numbers of employees of the organisations of the boards on which the women held their directorships appear to have increased since 1995 – see Table 4.16. The categories measuring board organisation size are ordinal as the uneven categories prevent them from being interval. The boards are an independent sample, as the boards were not identified. The Mann-Whitney U or the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are appropriate to test for significance of ordinal independent samples. The result for the Mann-Whitney U test (Z (149) = 1.74, p = .082) differed from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Z (149) = 1.65, p = .009), however together the results of the two tests suggested that the changes were significant.

It is not clear whether the organisations have grown in size over six years, or the women have been appointed to boards of other larger organisations, as the boards on which the women are directors are not identified. However, most of the women appear to have changed boards over the six years, so it is likely that these are new larger organisations. One director

who was on the boards of three organisations of 101 to 200 employees in 1995, by 2001 was on the boards of six organisations of more than 500 employees (one of 501 to 1000 employees, one of 2001 to 4000 employees, two of 4001 to 8000 employees, and two of 8000 employees).

Table 4.16
Board Employees in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Employees	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Less than 25	24	35.8	27	32.9
25 to 50	8	11.9	8	9.8
51 to 100	10	14.9	11	13.4
101 to 200	17	25.4	4	4.9
201 to 500	2	3.0	6	7.3
501 to 1000	1	1.5	8	9.8
1001 to 2000	3	4.5	3	3.7
2001 to 4000	1	1.5	6	7.3
4001 to 8000	1	1.5	6	7.3
More than 8000	0	0.0	3	3.7
Totals	67	100%	82	100%

4.3.12. Board Corporation Type

Although there were some changes in the types of organisations of which the women were board members between 1995 and 2001, a trend was not apparent – see Table 4.17. As the board organisation type categories are nominal, a chi-square test is appropriate for testing significance. To ensure that expected frequencies were 5 or greater, the categories of private and trust were combined. A chi-square test suggested that the changes were not significant (χ^2 (4, N = 124) = 4.24, p = .374).

To attempt to detect significant changes the organisation types were re-categorised into high-profile (*Publicly listed* and *Statutory authority*) and low-profile (*Public unlisted*, *Private*,

Trust, and *Not for profit*). With this re-categorisation a chi-square test still failed to suggest significant changes (χ^2 (1, N = 124) = 3.91, p = .272).

Table 4.17
Board Corporation Types in 1995 and 2001

	1995		2001	
Corporation type	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Publicly Listed	4	8.7	13	16.7
Public Unlisted	11	23.9	11	14.1
Private	6	13.0	16	20.5
Trust	3	6.5	3	3.8
Statutory Authority	9	19.6	19	24.4
Not for Profit	13	28.3	16	20.5
Totals	46	100%	78	100%

Although there appears to be a greater number of organisation types in 2001 (78) than 1995 (46), the difference is due to different forms of the question in 2001 and 1995. In 1995 the question was asked without reference to any particular boards and allowed multiple responses. In 2001, the question was asked in respect to each of the up to seven boards for which responses were invited. The different presentation of the question in 2001 elicited a greater number of responses, including duplicate responses for different boards that would not have emerged in 1995. Therefore, the difference in the total number of organisation types is not meaningful.

4.3.13. Board Directors

Some changes in board sizes occurred between 1995 and 2001 – see Table 4.18. A change in Australian legislation since 1995 allowed a new minimum board size of one director. There appeared to be a consolidation around 8 to 10 directors as the most frequent board size. Some larger board sizes of 14 or more directors appeared that are due to some of the women gaining directorships on large statutory authorities and not for profit organisations.

As the board size categories are ordinal (the uneven categories preventing them from being interval), and the boards are an independent sample (the boards were not identified), either the Mann-Whitney U test or the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test appeared appropriate to test for significance. The result for the Mann-Whitney U test (Z (148) = .058, p = .954) differed a little from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Z (148) = .523, p = .947), however they suggested that the changes were not significant.

Table 4.18
Board Directors in 1995 and 2001

Number of directors	1995 Frequency	1995 %	2001 Frequency	2001 %
1	-	-	1	1.2
2 to 4	8	11.9	9	11.1
5 to 7	22	32.8	23	28.4
8 to 10	19	28.4	32	39.5
11 to 13	18	26.9	9	11.1
14 or more	0	0.0	7	8.6
Totals	67	100%	81	100%

4.4. Discussion

4.4.1. Highest Level of Education

Hypothesis 1 proposed that the women directors would not significantly increase their educational qualifications between 1995 and 2001. The hypothesis was supported in that there was no change in educational qualifications in 2001 from those held in 1995.

It might be interesting to compare this group of women with norms for other senior executives to determine whether another group of 32 senior executives would also fail to complete any academic courses over a six-year period. If it emerged that it would be expected that a group of 32 senior executives would increase their academic qualifications then the social identity theory that members will not stray from the perceptions of the ingroup norms

would be reinforced. However, at an anecdotal level it is believed unlikely that senior executives complete academic courses at a high enough rate to differ from the sample.

4.4.2. Managerial Level

Hypothesis 2 proposed that the women directors would not significantly advance in managerial level between 1995 and 2001. Investigation of this hypothesis was inconclusive. There were significant changes between 1995 and 2001, particularly an exodus from the title of divisional manager and an emergence of non-supervisor/non-manager as a popular category. The title of "divisional head" appeared to be out of favour in 2001, with no women responding that their level is that of divisional head. The emergence of women responding that their managerial level is that of non-supervisor/non-manager going from zero to six might be understandable if those six women considered themselves now to be professional directors who no longer have any direct reports. It is unclear whether these changes should be interpreted as an advance in managerial level. Further analysis that excluded the categories of divisional head and non-supervisor/non-manager suggested that the managerial level changes were not significant.

4.4.3. Total Directorships

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the total number of board appointments held by the women would significantly increase between 1995 and 2001. Analysis supported the hypothesis, with a significant increase in the total number of board directorships since 1995.

That the total board directorships increased by 60% while there was little if any increase in the number of concurrent directorships indicates that there was a high rate of turnover of directorships. An interpretation of the high rate of turnover might be that some women were now being sought as directors for other boards thereby actively enhancing their identity as a member of the ingroup of board directors.

4.4.4. Concurrent Directorships

Hypothesis 4 proposed that the number of concurrent board appointments held by the women would have significantly increased between 1995 and 2001. Analysis of the available data did not support the hypothesis. As there was no item in 1995 that measured concurrent board directorships, other items were used to deduce the 1995 values. Analysis suggested that there was no significant change.

If the Korn/Ferry International (1999) report that 52% of CEOs had more than two concurrent directorships is indicative of the norm for all directors, then the average number of boards positions held by women in the sample of two and a half directorships may be regarded as normal. Social identity theory suggests that the women will not attempt to stray from the perceived norms of the ingroup (Haslam, 2001).

4.4.5. Director Position

Hypothesis 5 proposed that of the women's board positions there would be a significant increase in the number of board chair positions held between 1995 and 2001. Analysis of director positions supported this hypothesis. There was a dramatic increase in the number of nonexecutive board chairs, from one in 1995 to 11 in 2001. Other board positions showed a reduction in CEO and Executive Director positions. These women had clearly shifted from executive roles to nonexecutive roles. Of interest was the observation that having a CEO position did not appear to be a prerequisite to obtaining a nonexecutive chair position. Of the eight women who held the 11 nonexecutive chair positions, only two had CEO experience. It appears that these women differ from the stereotype of a male nonexecutive director, in not being a past CEO.

4.4.6. Partner Relationship

Hypothesis 6 proposed that the women's relationships with their partners would not change significantly between 1995 and 2001. Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis.

Although several changes had occurred since 1995, the changes were not statistically significant.

4.4.7. Basis of Recruitment

Hypothesis 7 proposed that there would be a significant difference in the basis of recruitment of the women to board positions in 2001 from the basis of recruitment in 1995. Analysis of the data did not support the hypothesis. The few changes in the Basis of Recruitment item were not statistically significant.

Response categories for this item may not have discriminated adequately between reputation and merit as the basis of recruitment. The response categories also might have been inadequate to detect an increase in reputation as the basis for recruitment, as women's salience as a member of the ingroup increases.

4.4.8. Board Chair Gender

Hypothesis 8 proposed that there would be no significant difference in the gender of the board chair of boards between 1995 and 2001, notwithstanding that many board chair positions are likely to be held by the successful women in the sample. Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis. Although an analysis of all changes did show significance, the significance appeared due to the success of some of the women in gaining the position of board chair. Removing the bias that the sample included respondents whom had secured board chair positions by 2001, revealed no significant changes in the gender of the board chair.

4.4.9. Employment Industry

Hypothesis 9 proposed that there would be no significant difference in the employment industries of the women directors between 1995 and 2001. Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis. The few changes in employment industry were not statistically significant.

It is expected that senior executives do not change their employment industry often. Social identity theory suggests that if the board of directors is perceived to be comprised of people from a particular industry then members are more likely to come from that industry and will not move to another industry.

4.4.10. Board Employees

Hypothesis 10 proposed that the women directors would hold board seats on significantly larger organisations in 2001 than they did in 1995. Analysis of the data support the hypothesis, the women were on the boards of significantly larger organisations in 2001.

The large increase in the total number of directorships held (60% increase over six years – see section 4.3.4) tends to suggest that most changes of organisation size were the result of changes of boards. Reinforcing this proposition is the observation that the large increases in organisation sizes occurred at a time when most organisations in Australia were downsizing.

4.4.11. Board Corporation Type

Hypothesis 11 proposed that the women directors in 2001 would hold significantly more positions on publicly visible organisations (publicly listed corporations and statutory authorities) than those held in 1995. Analysis of the data failed to support the hypothesis. There was no significant difference in the types of corporations of which the women were board directors.

Item response categories may not have been appropriate to capture the high profile versus low profile nature of the hypothesis. A more direct question about perceived organisation profile or board prestige may have yielded a different outcome.

4.4.12. Board Directors

Hypothesis 12 proposed that the sizes of the boards in 2001 would not be significantly different from the sizes of the boards in 1995. Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis. There was no significant difference in the sizes of the boards of which the women were

directors. Although not significant, there was a noticeable shift to larger boards of 8 to 10 directors as the norm for board size.

4.5. General Discussion

The women in the present study clearly are successful board directors, having increased the number of their board directorships, gaining more board chair positions, and gaining positions on boards of larger organisations over a period of six years.

While social identity theory is now well established, there does not appear to have been any prior applications of it to corporate boards. However, the responsiveness of social identity to social context is a well-documented aspect of the theory (Hogg, 2000). The importance of ingroup access is vital to women if they want to maintain or enhance their board status. Ingroup membership means that the woman is able to overcome the effects of homophily (Ibarra, 1992). According to Ibarra's research, men prefer to have the same gender networks. Given the strength of men's homophilic tendency, it is not surprising that women have barriers to overcome to gain directorships (Oakley, 2000) and to be effective on the board (Bilimoria & Huse, 1997).

Leighton (2000) in his reflections on being a director described ingroup formation and change in social identity as a rapid and influential process. "The moment an outsider is appointed to the board and accepts his or her first directors fee, a director becomes part of a social group, subject to a host of pressures, obligations, rewards, and liabilities, many of them subtle and unstated, most notably the locus of power in the organization. Independence becomes a relative concept, to be used sparingly by the director depending on a number of factors." (p. 257)

In an attempt to provide a theoretical framework for understanding women directors' experience, Vinnicombe, Singh, and Sturges (2000) focussed on career development theory. An interview study found three distinguishing characteristics of successful careers: mentoring, challenging work, and visibility. Although Vinnicombe et al. explain their findings in terms of

career development theory, an alternative theoretical framework is social identity theory. Mentoring serves the purpose of modelling salient characteristics and shapes the woman into styles, behaviour, and attitudes to match the ingroup. For example, one of the women quoted states "He steered me quite heavily towards creating a bit of the company I could make my own…with his help I started to understand it better…I singled myself out with his help" (p. 64). Having challenging work allows women to accumulate experiences that make them peers with men, and demonstrates their similarity in terms of technical skills and knowledge. Another woman stated "…my job was to handle all the customer complaints that came through to either his office or to the chairman's office…that was a turning point because I learnt about the company and I learnt about the industry…I was exposed to all the directors" (p. 68).

Terry and Hogg (1996) identified that any change that affects self-categorisation also leads to changes to individual attitudes and behaviour. Although the women directors in the Vinnicombe et al. (2000) sample did not specifically state that they needed to adopt a style with which the men felt comfortable, there is evidence from other research that the style or approach that senior women adopt in the workplace is influenced by the prevailing culture (Mainiero 1994b; Ragins, Townsend, & Mattis, 1998). Therefore, to be part of the ingroup of directors the women had to ensure that their self-categorisations and behaviour matched the ingroup norms. Another director in the Vinnicombe et al. sample described the lead up to her joining the directors' ingroup. "The job with headquarters meant I had to travel to London a lot, which meant I got involved with group headquarters. I suppose that created openings and got you noticed" (p.65). Such experiences of ingroup membership or testing the fit between oneself and the ingroup would also have an impact on the women at an individual level.

Few studies examine women's experiences on boards and the present study appears to be the first longitudinal study of one group of women corporate directors across two periods. Therefore, using social identity theory as the basis of the study is somewhat speculative. The

results of this study are encouraging for the application of psychological theory to women directors and the importance that such theory can add to an understating of the social behaviour on corporate boards. Future research should attempt to extend the theoretical basis.

Social identity theory proposes that once women directors perceive themselves to be sufficiently part of the ingroup, they will not strive to advance themselves further towards a stereotypical ideal of a board director. Rather, once they identify as a board director, they may resist furthering their status relative to other board members for fear of being perceived as no longer a member of the ingroup. This paradigm of women directors is in contrast to most of the literature that portrays women directors generally as ever striving to prove themselves against their male peers (McGregor, 2000).

4.6. Limitations and Future Research

A sample of 32 women directors, starting from an original sample of 572 in 1995, was disappointing. Although the 1995 sample of 572 directors yielded 298 women for follow-up, locating these women six years later proved difficult. The finding that the total number of board directorships had increased by an average of about two directorships per woman confirmed that board directorships were a volatile occupation. Considering that the average number of concurrent board directorships held was approximately two and a half, suggested that most of the women will have changed their board directorships over the six years. Many women from the 1995 sample were likely to be no longer with the board that they were members of in 1995. It was fortunate that sufficient directors could be traced to yield the final sample of 32 directors. Future research should consider more frequent sampling than six years to allow more chance of tracking directors as they move.

The study was fortunate to have obtained responses from 21 women who were no longer members of a corporate board, however it may have been valuable to better understand the circumstances leading to this outcome. Future research should consider more frequent sampling than six years to help detect and understand changes in a volatile area.

A limitation of the longitudinal study was the extensive use of categorical responses in the 1995 study when numeric responses were possible. Although categorical responses were sufficient for a description of the characteristics of the women in 1995, the categorical responses did not give enough precision to make accurate conclusions about the changes over the six years. Future research that may lead to a longitudinal study should use numeric responses instead of categorical wherever practical.

The self-report survey was likely to be a limitation in two ways. In the attempt to ask sufficient questions to detect significant changes, it is likely that a considerable number of directors may have considered the survey too time-consuming to answer. On the other hand, trying to foresee questions that were likely to uncover significant changes was likely to imperfect, and there is bound to be some information of significance that was not captured. Future research that included follow-up interviews would give the opportunity to discover additional information of significance and may help compensate for significant changes that may have occurred between sampling periods but not been captured by the survey. However, judging by the questions on the director's age and highest educational level items, the answers to the self-report survey that were given appeared to be accurate, and may not have suffered from the social desirability bias that can affect self-report surveys.

A limitation of the study was that the boards of the organisations of which the women were members were not identified. Although the women directors were positively (and confidentially) identified, the boards of which they were members were not tracked. Boards reported on by the women in 1995 could be inferred to include the organisation to which the survey was addressed, but other boards reported on were completely anonymous. Although the researcher knew the identity of the board to which the survey was addressed in 1995, some directors gave a follow-up address that did not indicate a board. So in 2001, few of the boards could be reliably identified.

Apparent changes in board characteristics could have come from changes in the board and the corporation, or from the woman changing to a different board and corporation. Given that it is likely that most women had changed boards over the six years, it is likely that substantial board and organisation changes could be attributed to the likelihood that a different board and corporation is being reported. Although frequent surveys of directors would help in this regard, some means of identifying the board should be considered. At the time of design of the present survey, it was considered that asking the directors to identify their boards might have been considered a sensitive privacy issue that would have been counterproductive to the survey.

A limitation of the study was that it only tracked women, so changes could not be identified as being peculiar to women or common to both men and women directors. Social identity theory suggests that changes are likely to be different for men and women, as men would naturally be members of an ingroup on male-dominated boards while women would naturally be members of an outgroup. Future research should consider tracking men and women directors, especially if they were paired on the same boards. However, with the relatively high rates of change observed, the divergent paths that they would inevitably take might work against simple conclusions.

4.7. Conclusion

The present study was the first Australian study to compare characteristics of women directors over a six-year period. The research clearly demonstrates the ability of Australian women to advance in corporate boardrooms over a six-year period. The women in the sample are clearly successful members of the ingroup of corporate directors, conforming to salient aspects of this social identity.

The women in the sample appear to have overcome all major hurdles suggested by previous researchers such as a dominant male culture (Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000) external social pressures that reinforce male dominance of boardrooms (Izraeli & Talmud, 1997),

traditional recruitment practices (Karpin, 1995), and exclusion from informal networks (Sinclair, 1998). Social identity theory appears to hold some answers as to how these women, having risen above these obstacles to be perceived as board directors, maintain that identity, and progress to become more successful.

Chapter 5

5. STEREOTYPES OF MALE AND FEMALE DIRECTORS

5.1. Introduction

Social identity theory suggests that as people adopt a social identity of an ingroup, their individual characteristics will become less salient and they will adopt the views, behaviour, and values of the ingroup. The cognitive representation (traits and attributes) of either an ingroup or outgroup that is shared by members of a group or by members of another group, may be considered a stereotype (Haslam, 2001). In the ingroup situation, gender will become less salient if it is not a defining trait of the group. The present study investigated the attributes that are common to the perceptions of both men and women directors. It also identifies the attributes that form salient stereotypes of directors as an occupational category by an ingroup of board directors. It describes the areas of consensus and divergence between men and women directors on gender based director stereotypes.

Hogg (2000) argued that experiences in work groups formed perceptions of social identity and sense of self. For some people, the characteristics of identities based on work-related attributes can be more salient than personal characteristics such as gender, race, or age. In an organisational context, Hogg pointed out that intergroup behaviour can exist between organisations at the broadest level but also between divisions, units or professional groups depending on self-categorisation based on salient characteristics related to context.

Haslam (2001) argued that the advantages of a social identity-based view of stereotypes was that it provided an analysis of the stereotype phenomenon that takes into consideration both social and cognitive factors. As part of social identity theory, Haslam and his research group (Haslam, Oakes, Reynolds & Turner, 1999) provided an explanation of the process of stereotyping. They applied ideas about stereotypes to decision making, intergroup conflict, power, communication, and leadership. Haslam (2001), in describing shared social identity

and consensual group decisions, considered how and under which circumstances group members decide upon the defining characteristics of the "ingroup and relevant outgroups in the process of developing a shared construct of social reality." (p. 168)

The central argument of Haslam's (2001) analysis is that consensus on stereotypes by ingroup members is a consequence of the depersonalisation process. Social identity processes serve to highlight perceptions of ingroup similarity and outgroup dissimilarity over time. Haslam noted that a weakness of many social psychological studies is that they are experimental studies of stereotypes conducted at one instant of time. The social identity that is salient is a result of manipulations by the researchers, with little opportunity for participants to develop their own shared perception of social identity over time. Therefore, one of the strengths of the present study is that it was a field study amongst a group that was expected to have already developed prior perceptions of social identity and associated stereotypes.

Tajfel (1981) argued that social stereotypes are those "perceptions that are shared by large numbers of people within social groups and entities" (p.147). Through an emphasis on group characteristics and values, individual characteristics and values are de-emphasised, and the group member takes on the group identity as their own. Haslam (2001) argued that once a social identity becomes salient a stronger awareness of ingroup and outgroup homogeneity is built. In turn, ingroup and outgroup homogeneity is reinforced and further accentuated by processes of social identity based social influence (Haslam, 2001).

Hogg and Mullin (1999), in acknowledging the role that self-categorisation plays in social identity, presented an argument that self-categorisation also serves to reduce uncertainty about one's subjective perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours. Both Cejka and Eagly (1999), and Hogg (2000) acknowledged that the drive to reduce uncertainty is a normal human motivation. The drive to reduce uncertainty serves to reinforce one's personal sense of status and is a way to identify one's ingroup (Hogg, 2000). Making subjective judgements about one's self-concept creates confidence in how to behave and manage expectations (Hogg

2000). Using generalisations about others is a means to simplify information processing and responding. Stereotypes are more likely to be relied on when the decisions to be made are evaluative, and fewer resources and information on which to base decisions are available (Macrae, Milne, & Bodenhausen, 1994).

Haslam, Turner, et al. (1998) conducted a series of studies that demonstrated that consensus about stereotypes is derived from social interaction. Haslam (2001) used these student-based studies to support the argument that the process of stereotyping relies on cognitive accounts about outgroups and that the same process also shapes a person's self-categorisation regarding their ingroup

Social identity theory has also been applied to extend understanding of the socio-demographic diversity of organisations. Homogeneous workgroups may strengthen ingroup prototypes, social attractiveness, ingroup identification, and norm compliance. Homogeneity is particularly effective when ingroup norms are consistent with wider social demographics and social system norms (Hogg, 2000). However, in an organisational or workgroup setting a person who is part of a minority group is likely to be perceived in terms of their minority status, and as such receive stereotyped expectations and treatment from the dominant group.

According to Hogg (2000), minority status such as gender may result in women being classified and perceived in terms of their gender, and be subject to stereotypical expectations and treatment from the dominant ingroup. Hogg argued that the probability of a woman receiving stereotyped responses is greater if the woman's employment position converges with a gender-typed employment classification. According to Brewer and Miller (1996), the reverse can occur; when there is inconsistency between minority status and gender classification differentiation between stereotypical categories are more likely to be made. When there is little convergence between minority group status and the employment classification, employees will acknowledge differences within both the minority group and the employment classification. In such situations, generalisations and stereotypes are

inconsistent with reality and will be avoided or minimised (Hogg, 2000). However, during periods of uncertainty, groups will strive towards homogeneity and socio-demographic minorities are more likely to be marginalised.

Stereotypes can be reinforced and enhanced by factors that increase the awareness of a shared social identity of a group of perceivers (Bar-Tal, 1998), and by group interactions based on a shared social identity that is relevant to stereotype (Haslam, 2001). In the present study, it is proposed that if the women were successful members of the ingroup then their perceptions of the salient attributes of the stereotypes would agree with the men, but if they were in an outgroup their perceptions would differ from the men.

5.1.1. Stereotypes in the Workplace

Cejka and Eagly (1999) have explored occupational stereotypes through the development of social role theory. Social role theory provides an explanation of women's lack of social influence in task oriented groups. The workplace is an example of a place in which task oriented interaction occurs, so that women's lack of social influence is explained by social structural factors of status and roles. Carli and Eagly (1999) argued that role expectations about male and female behaviour explain variations in social position held by men and women, rather than the variations being a result of individual, cultural, and historical explanations. Carli and Eagly (1999) attributed the sex segregation of occupations to the social roles assigned to men and women. Cejka and Eagly (1999) extended the understanding of stereotype from an individual level to a system level and related it to gender-based divisions of occupation categorisation. Lockheed (1985) conducted a meta-analysis of 64 data sets from 29 studies of influence in mixed gender groups and concluded that men have more influence over others than did women. The explanation he gave of women's reduced influence is that gender affects expectations of performance, and that men are expected to demonstrate superior performance. Wiggins (1992) found men's roles are associated with self-assertion and a desire for achievement.

Carli and Eagly (1999) reported that men were more likely to be found in occupations considered consistent with “agentic” personality characteristics whereas the women were more likely to be found in occupations consistent with “communal” personality characteristics. Carli and Eagly gave examples of men's agentic personality characteristics as more assertive, independent, competitive, daring, and courageous. Examples of women's communal personality characteristics were more gentle, kind, supportive, expressive, affectionate, and tactful.

Boards of directors are assumed to be a male-dominated occupation so it would be expected that the male-oriented agentic characteristics would be perceived as necessary for occupational success. Board directors who have worked alongside a woman as a boardroom colleague may understand that women are capable of agentic characteristics, but other male directors are likely to associate these characteristics with other males. Directors of corporate boards, like any other ingroup, are likely to rely on stereotyped notions of women as directors unless they have evidence to the contrary.

The proposition that exposure and experience changes stereotypes is supported by a study by Eagly and Karau (1991). Eagly and Karau analysed the results of 58 studies of gender and leadership behaviour in small groups. There was a small to moderate tendency for men to emerge as leaders compared to women, although women were found to be stronger than men on social facilitation. Eagly and Karau concluded that men and women were perceived differently, and therefore behaved differently, with men’s leadership decreasing for tasks involving complex social interactions. In addition, the longer the interaction, the less the tendency for men to emerge as leaders. The explanation for the finding by the researchers was that there was a possible weakening of the gender based leadership stereotype. The weakening of the stereotyped ideas may reflect the lessening of gender as a salient characteristic as the amount of information group members have about each other grows with time. The above explanation is consistent with the research on women directors by Burke (1994c) that found

those CEOs who had a women board member were more positive about women's contribution to the board than those who had not.

Carli and Eagly (1999) suggested that as factors of group cohesion and social concerns become more important to groups, women's contribution to these areas becomes more important. Another way to conceptualise the explanation is to argue that as the women become ingroup members common concerns and interests outweigh a focus on gender as a defining group characteristic. The women directors may indeed use their facilitative skills to become part of the ingroup to overcome initial experiences of gender based stereotyping.

Carli and Eagly (1999) argued that the sex segregation of roles that require different behaviours facilitate the development of gender-based stereotypes and gender-based occupational groupings. The argument is made that workplace experience may be more likely to reinforce existing notions of occupation and gender-based characteristics. Occupational categorisation by gender has been reported to exist from childhood and adolescence with males being more fixed in stereotyped views than females (Miller & Budd, 1999). Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, and Liu (1996) examined the perceptions of characteristics required for occupations and reported the problems experienced by those who attempted to traverse gender-based occupational areas. However, not all research appears to report negative consequences. Williams (1992) studied men in female dominated occupations based on "in-depth" interviews. Williams described the men's careers as "glass escalators", their difference to the majority of female members demonstrating that men were more likely to be perceived as having greater leadership skills than women. The conclusion drawn was that regardless of group gender composition men were significantly more likely to attribute leadership qualities to other men than to women.

Recent research by Diekman and Eagly (2000) examined a series of experiments regarding the stereotypes held of men and women in the past, the present, and the anticipated future changes in the stereotype characteristics. The researchers found that stereotypes about

women suggest that they are seen as a dynamic group whereas the stereotypes of men are comparatively unchanging. The analysis demonstrated through the stereotypes of present women that they are seen as more masculine compared to women in past eras. For women, there is a trend towards greater masculine characteristics, especially in the area of personality, which will increase into the future. The changing characteristics that were associated with women included both positive characteristics and negative characteristics associated with men. On the other hand, men were not perceived as developing greater feminine characteristics, with no consistent view from the various samples. Men and women were perceived as converging strongly in their masculine personality characteristics, and also to some extent in their masculine cognitive, physical, and feminine personality characteristics. The changes in attributes that were forecast are explained as a result of "the association of male-dominated occupations with masculine personality characteristics and the move of women into these occupations" (p. 1182).

Thus, Diekman and Eagly (2000) have shown that stereotypes can respond to beliefs that the characteristics of a group are changing in a direction that leads to a reduction of disadvantage for members of the stereotyped group. Burke (2000c) gives an example of a positive stereotype in relation to women on boards when one male CEO comments "in well-run corporations today women have been directors for many years. Women are selected based on the same criteria as the men and are expected to perform the same functions as men – that is – they are supposed to protect the interest of the shareholders" (p.184). Fondas (2000) presented a contrasting view about women directors as a stereotyped group in commenting on the gender bias and the power threat the women pose for groups of male directors. Although her paper does not refer to social identity theory, Fondas argued that having women directors on the board does not support CEO power and legitimacy within the organisation. Specifically Fondas (2000) cited research that demonstrated that CEO domination was less likely when there were more women directors on the boards. It appears possible that the women board

members become part of and strengthen the power base of the other directors, diluting the influence of the CEO. Similarly, another study by Fondas and Sassalos (2000) reported that the greater the number of women on the board the greater the influence the board had over managerial decisions. However, Fondas used Catalyst (1995b) reports of the views of CEOs to argue that women directors have a token role in enhancing the organisation's legitimacy in the eyes of shareholders rather than a role that reflects their membership of the board ingroup.

The present study extends the research of Cejka and Eagly (1999), and Diekman and Eagly (2000) by applying their scales in the context of Australian board directors. Rather than study perceptions of stereotypes amongst psychology students and members of the public, the present study collected perceptions of occupational stereotypes from a group of current male and female company directors.

Research on occupational stereotypes appears to be a neglected area in Australia with a literature search revealing only one study, by Di Pietro (2000). Di Pietro studied a large number of occupational stereotypes held by students. Di Pietro found that occupational prestige was associated with masculine personality and cognitive attributes, and success was associated with masculine cognitive characteristics. An important finding was that the gender of the employee that was being rated was unrelated to ratings given for stereotype dimensions for each occupation. Di Pietro concluded that occupational success is linked with particular stereotypic dimensions rather than the predominant gender of the people in that occupational grouping.

Women directors hold positions in a highly gender-segregated occupational group. Women directors it can be argued are in a gender incongruent occupation. Social role theory (Cejka & Eagly, 1999) suggests there would be differences between men and women as to how the occupation would be perceived; yet, it may well be that the notions of a stereotype have been mellowed by experience. The view that there is a stereotyped view of male or female company directors has not, to the writer's knowledge been a subject of research in

management or social psychology. The present study challenges the notion of a company director as a stereotyped male-gender occupation. For the sample of directors in the present study, their experience and exposure to women appeared to have led to a gender inclusive view of the board director occupation. Presumably, this is based on interaction and social contact with the women directors as colleagues. Using the scales of Cejka and Eagly (1999) several hypotheses were formed.

5.1.2. Hypothesis 1 – Men and Women Directors Share the Same Stereotypes

Hypothesis 1 proposes that men and women directors will not differ significantly in their perceptions of stereotypes of male and female directors.

The existence of salient ingroups of board directors will be demonstrated by a reduction in salience of individual characteristics and the common identification of a stereotype of a board director. Moreover, the identification of a common stereotype will be so salient that it will transcend gender differences so that both men and women demonstrate a consensus on characteristics of the stereotypes of male and female directors.

5.1.3. Hypothesis 2 – Stereotypes Differ on Physical Characteristics

Hypothesis 2 proposes that the stereotypes of male and female directors will differ significantly on masculine and feminine physical characteristics.

Physical characteristics will not be a salient feature of the stereotype of board directors. It is unlikely that an idealised stereotype of the physical characteristics will be relevant to directors. It is more likely that the directors will be aware of the differing physical forms of male and female directors, but regard differing physical forms as largely irrelevant for the conduct of board business.

5.1.4. Hypothesis 3 – Stereotypes Have Similar Personality Characteristics

Hypothesis 3 proposes that the stereotypes of male and female directors will be similar on masculine and feminine personality characteristics.

Personality characteristics will be a salient feature of the stereotype of board directors. It is likely that the personalities of directors will be an important feature of a board director's characteristics. Perceived similarity of style and characteristics has been found to be important for board selection as a board seeks to appoint people seen as similar to the majority (Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000). The ability of board members to work constructively with each other is likely to be regarded as much as a function of their personality as any other characteristics. The importance of compatible personalities is likely to lead to idealised stereotypes of acceptable (ingroup) board director personalities regardless of gender.

5.1.5. Hypothesis 4 – Stereotypes Have Similar Cognitive Characteristics

Hypothesis 4 proposes that the stereotypes of male and female directors will be similar on masculine and feminine cognitive characteristics.

Cognitive characteristics will be a salient feature of the stereotype of board directors. It is likely that the way board directors think will be an important indicator of their ability to work together effectively as directors. This similarity of thinking or cognitive characteristics is likely to be regarded as vital to acceptance as a board director and so it is likely that idealised stereotypes of acceptable (ingroup) board director cognitive characteristics will have been identified.

5.2. Method

5.2.1. Sample Selection

The sample was the 32 women who had been directors in 1995 and returned surveys indicating that they were current board directors in 2001. Eight men directors also returned surveys after being requested to participate in the research project by the women directors in the sample. The 32 women came from an original sample of 572 women directors identified from business listings in 1995. The researcher has no reason to believe that these women are related or know of each other's involvement in the research, and as such are considered an

independent sample. Each of the eight men directors were selected by one of the responding women, so although some of the women knew one of the men, as a group the men are also regarded as an independent random sample.

Of the 32 women who were current board directors, 28 completed the board director stereotype questions. Of the eight men who returned surveys, all completed the board director stereotype questions. However, some respondents (both women and men) did not complete all items that were part of the survey instrument.

5.2.2. Survey Design and Measures

A gender-stereotype scale from Cejka and Eagly (1999) was used to assess stereotypes of female and male board directors held by the women and men in the sample. Cejka and Eagly developed a scale with 56 attributes, with each attribute assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Cejka and Eagly grouped the 56 attributes into six stereotypic dimensions – see Table 5.1. The present study presented the set of attributes twice in the survey, once requesting a ranking on the likelihood that the average Australian *female* board director would possess each attribute, and again for the average Australian *male* board director.

Table 5.1
Attributes included in Gender-Stereotypic Dimensions

Dimension	Attributes
Masculine Physical	Athletic, Brawny, Burly, Muscular, Physically strong, Physically vigorous, Rugged, Tall
Feminine Physical	Beautiful, Cute, Dainty, Gorgeous, Petite, Pretty, Sexy, Soft voice
Masculine Personality	Adventurous, Aggressive, Competitive, Courageous, Daring, Dominant, Stands up under pressure, Unexcitable
Feminine Personality	Affectionate, Cooperative, Emotional, Forgiving, Gentle, Helpful to others, Kind, Nurturing, Outgoing, Sensitive, Sentimental, Sociable, Supportive, Sympathetic, Understanding of others, Warm in relations with others
Masculine Cognitive	Analytical, Exact, Good at abstractions, Good at problem solving, Good at reasoning, Good with numbers, Mathematical, Quantitatively skilled
Feminine Cognitive	Artistic, Creative, Expressive, Imaginative, Intuitive, Perceptive, Tasteful, Verbally skilled

Cejka and Eagly (1999) surveyed 144 introductory psychology students to validate their gender-stereotype scale. Alpha coefficients calculated by Cejka and Eagly for each of the six dimensions were satisfactorily high – see Table 5.2. Di Pietro (2000) replicated the study of Cejka and Eagly using an Australian sample of 103 undergraduate psychology students and found similar levels of reliability.

Cronbach alpha coefficients for the 40 respondents in the present study are also satisfactory, ranging from a low of .79 for masculine personality to highs of .93 for feminine personality. These coefficients are similar to those of Cejka and Eagly, and those of Di Pietro, with lowest coefficients for masculine personality of .84 and .78 respectively, and with highest coefficients for feminine personality of .95 and .94 respectively.

Table 5.2
Alpha Coefficients of Gender-Stereotypic Dimensions

	Gender-Stereotypic Dimension					
Survey Sample	Masculine Physical	Feminine Physical	Masculine Personality	Feminine Personality	Masculine Cognitive	Feminine Cognitive
Cejka & Eagly (1999)	.95	.90	.84	.95	.90	.85
Di Pietro (2000)	.92	.92	.78	.94	.89	.84
Current study	.93	.92	.79	.93	.86	.87

5.2.3. Method of Data Analysis

In comparing the women directors to the men directors, the two groups were treated as independent samples. Although there was an association between each man and one of the women, in that the women had chosen a man to complete the survey, the strength of this association was considered weak enough for the assumption of independent samples. In comparing responses between the female stereotypes and the male stereotypes for each independent group, the two sets of responses were treated as related samples. Each respondent gave answers to the questions regarding the female stereotype and the male stereotype on the

same survey, and so since on a case-by-case basis each person was the same, these responses were clearly related.

As the measures were conducted with an ordinal Likert-type scale, the data is ordinal and so non-parametric tests of significance were used. To test for the differences between the independent samples of women's and men's perceptions of stereotypical female and male directors the Mann-Whitney U test was used. The Wilcoxon test was used to test for the significance of differences between related samples for female stereotypes and male stereotypes.

Although these tests are correct for the ordinal data available, their restriction to analysis of only one dependent variable (characteristic) increases the likelihood of introducing a Type 2 error (rejection of the null hypothesis). To counter the risk of a Type 2 error, the higher order test of a mixed between-within subject analysis of variance test was used to simultaneously test responses from women and men across the female and male stereotypes. Although this test requires interval data, the ordinal data meets most of the assumptions of the test and previous researchers have treated the data as sufficiently reliable for higher-order analysis (for example the analysis of Cejka and Eagly, 1999).

5.3. Results

5.3.1. Women's and Men's Perceptions of Stereotypical Directors

Women respondents and men respondents differed on several gender-stereotypic dimensions of the stereotypical female director, and the stereotypical male director. Details of differences between gender-stereotypic dimensions are shown in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4.

Men and women did not differ on their perceptions of a stereotypical female director except for the masculine cognitive dimension. Women attributed higher masculine cognitive attributes to the stereotypical female director than did men.

Table 5.3
Women's and Men's Perceptions of a Stereotypical Female Director

Gender-Stereotypic Dimensions of a Female Director	Women's responses		Men's responses		Significance of Differences
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Masculine Physical	27	1.87	7	1.75	.415
Feminine Physical	27	2.03	6	2.08	.815
Masculine Personality	28	3.16	8	2.99	.357
Feminine Personality	27	3.11	8	2.79	.102
Masculine Cognitive	28	3.72	8	3.26	.034
Feminine Cognitive	27	3.35	8	3.27	.921

Men and women differed on their perceptions of a stereotypical male director on the masculine cognitive dimension. Women attributed higher masculine cognitive and masculine personality attributes to the stereotypical male director than the men. Interestingly the women rated both the stereotypical female director and the stereotypical male director higher on masculine cognitive attributes than did the men. Thus, the women appeared to have a higher perception of board directors on the masculine cognitive dimension regardless of gender.

Table 5.4
Women's and Men's Perceptions of a Stereotypical Male Director

Gender-Stereotypic Dimensions of a Male Director	Women's responses		Men's responses		Significance of Differences
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Masculine Physical	24	2.42	8	2.53	.948
Feminine Physical	25	1.48	7	1.70	.240
Masculine Personality	26	3.43	8	2.94	.061
Feminine Personality	26	2.44	8	2.70	.300
Masculine Cognitive	26	3.71	8	3.09	.031
Feminine Cognitive	26	2.66	8	3.09	.077

Men and women also differed on masculine personality, and feminine cognitive dimensions, although the significance of the differences for these dimensions was borderline ($p < .1$). Women attributed higher masculine personality to the stereotypical male director

than the men, and men attributed higher feminine cognitive attributes to the stereotypical male director than the women.

Table 5.5
Statistics for the Mixed Between-Within Subject Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factor		Within-Subjects Factors			
Gender	N	Stereotype	Dimensions	Mean	Std Deviation
Women	24	Female	Masculine Physical	1.96	.544
			Feminine Physical	2.03	.686
			Masculine Personality	3.13	.544
			Feminine Personality	3.12	.453
			Masculine Cognitive	3.70	.465
			Feminine Cognitive	3.39	.463
		Male	Masculine Physical	2.42	.862
			Feminine Physical	1.45	.490
			Masculine Personality	3.48	.526
			Feminine Personality	2.40	.567
			Masculine Cognitive	3.70	.612
			Feminine Cognitive	2.65	.679
Men	6	Female	Masculine Physical	1.54	.281
			Feminine Physical	2.08	.600
			Masculine Personality	3.00	.285
			Feminine Personality	2.89	.327
			Masculine Cognitive	3.29	.534
			Feminine Cognitive	3.44	.473
		Male	Masculine Physical	2.54	.445
			Feminine Physical	1.65	.527
			Masculine Personality	3.00	.518
			Feminine Personality	2.76	.504
			Masculine Cognitive	3.06	.585
			Feminine Cognitive	3.19	.247

Although an analysis of individual gender-stereotypic dimensions revealed some differences between the women respondents and the men respondents, it does indicate whether the overall differences were significant. A mixed between-within subject analysis of variance test was conducted to compare the differences between women and men respondents to the gender-role stereotype items for both the female and male stereotypes. The women and men respondents were the two independent groups studied. The ratings for the gender-role

stereotype items on both the female and male stereotypes were used as the within-sample dependent variables. The means and standards deviations for the dependent variables are presented in Table 5.5. There was no significant difference between the women and the men respondents (F (1, 28) = .255, p = .618) on their perceptions of the stereotypical directors.

5.3.2. Differences Between Female and Male Stereotype Characteristics

Women's perceptions of the female and male stereotypes of board directors differed on all the gender-stereotypic dimensions except for masculine cognitive – see Table 5.6. As might be expected, women attributed higher gender-stereotypic attributes in accordance with the gender of the stereotype (eg. males stereotypes scored higher on masculine physical while female stereotypes scored higher on feminine physical). The women respondents appeared to be very gender-aware in their assessment of the stereotypes, except for the masculine cognitive dimension.

Table 5.6
Women's Perceptions of Female and Male Director Stereotypes

Gender-Stereotypic Dimensions of Women's Responses	Female Stereotype		Male Stereotype		Significance of Differences
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Masculine Physical	27	1.87	24	2.42	.008
Feminine Physical	27	2.03	25	1.48	.000
Masculine Personality	28	3.16	26	3.43	.013
Feminine Personality	27	3.11	26	2.44	.000
Masculine Cognitive	28	3.72	26	3.71	.714
Feminine Cognitive	27	3.35	26	2.66	.000

Men's perceptions of female and male stereotypes of board directors appeared to differ only on the physical gender-stereotypic dimensions – see Table 5.7. As might be expected, men attributed higher gender-stereotypic attributes in accordance with the gender of the stereotype (i.e. males stereotypes scored higher on masculine physical while female stereotypes scored higher on feminine physical). The men respondents only appeared to be gender-aware in their assessment of the stereotypes on the physical dimensions.

Table 5.7
Men's Perceptions of Female and Male Director Stereotypes

Gender-Stereotypic Dimension of Men's Responses	Female Stereotype		Male Stereotype		Significance of Differences
	N	Mean	N	Mean	
Masculine Physical	7	1.75	8	2.53	.028
Feminine Physical	6	2.08	7	1.70	.043
Masculine Personality	8	2.99	8	2.94	.573
Feminine Personality	8	2.79	8	2.70	.343
Masculine Cognitive	8	3.26	8	3.09	.478
Feminine Cognitive	8	3.27	8	3.09	.325

There appeared to be consensus between women and men that there were no significant differences between the female and male stereotypes on the masculine cognitive dimension despite differences or a lack of agreement on all other gender-stereotypic dimensions.

5.4. Discussion

5.4.1. Hypothesis 1 – Men and Women Directors Share the Same Stereotypes

Hypothesis 1 proposed that men and women directors would not differ significantly in their perceptions of stereotypes of male and female directors. The hypothesis was supported. Despite differences between the men's and women's perceptions on the masculine cognitive dimension, overall the differences between the women respondents and the men respondents were not significant.

Although we know the women are a representative sample of successful women directors, the sample of men directors may not be representative of all men directors. The women chose the men directors who participated in the survey, therefore the men were likely to be sympathetic towards the women directors and more likely to hold similar perceptions of the stereotypes. A survey of men who are representative of successful men directors, especially those from boards without a woman director, may reveal greater differences on

stereotypes. However, the present result supports the notion that the men and women were both members of the same ingroup.

There were considerable similarities between men and women directors of the perceptions of male and female directors, except in the area of cognitive attributes. Women company directors attributed higher masculine cognitive attributes to the stereotype of a female director than did men. The present finding is consistent with the findings in the recent research by Diekman and Eagly (2000). Diekman and Eagly found that when participants directly compared stereotypes of men and women, the groups predicted similar masculine personality and cognitive characteristics for a future time period. The researchers concluded that there was a perceptual convergence of characteristics occurring.

Cejka and Eagly (1999) found that occupations gained prestige and status to the extent that they were associated with masculine personality or cognitive characteristics. It is likely that the role of corporate board director fits a perception of a professional occupation in which masculine personality and cognitive characteristics are important. The women directors are probably anxious to be perceived as having similar cognitive characteristics as the men and thereby rate the female stereotype higher to match their elevated perception of the male's masculine cognitive abilities.

Bradshaw and Wicks (2000) argued that it is not that women lack experience, credentials, or skills to contribute, but that they lack similarities to other board members. The men surveyed in the present research perceived that female stereotypes were similar in most respects except for the physical dimensions. In the present sample, which admittedly may not be representative of all men directors, following the argument presented by Bradshaw and Wicks, the men directors surveyed would have been quite receptive to more women directors.

5.4.2. Hypothesis 2 – Stereotypes Differ on Physical Characteristics

Hypothesis 2 proposed that the stereotypes of male and female directors would differ significantly on masculine and feminine physical characteristics. The hypothesis was

supported. There were significant differences between the female stereotype and the male stereotype on masculine physical, and feminine physical attributes for both women respondents and men respondents.

The differences between female and male stereotypes on physical attributes were consistent with previous research. Cejka and Eagly (1999) found that physical characteristics were perceived as least important to occupational success, although masculine physical attributes were found to be slightly more important in general. In the Cejka and Eagly sample, occupational prestige lessened to the extent that gender-related physical attributes were thought to be essential for occupational success. However, in female dominated occupations (occupational categories where 75% or more of the incumbents were female) success was thought to require feminine physical and feminine personality qualities. Similarly, occupational success in male dominated occupations (occupational categories where 75% or more of the incumbents were male) was seen as requiring masculine physical and masculine personality qualities. However, Cejka and Eagly concluded that physical attributes were associated with gender distribution rather than being a determinant of occupational success. Physical attributes did not predict the attractiveness of the occupation.

The findings were consistent with an earlier Australian study by Di Pietro (2000). Di Pietro found the masculine physical dimension was positively correlated to the proportion of males within the occupation for most of the occupations rated. Di Pietro found that men and women were significantly different on all gender stereotypic dimensions except for the masculine cognitive dimension. Differences between men and women on other dimensions were as might be expected. The average Australian woman was rated significantly higher on feminine physical, feminine personality, and feminine cognitive dimensions, however the average Australian man was rated significantly higher on only the masculine physical and masculine personality dimensions. Although women received a higher rating than men for the masculine cognitive dimension, the difference in the ratings was not significant.

5.4.3. Hypothesis 3 – Stereotypes Have Similar Personality Characteristics

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the stereotypes of male and female directors would be similar on masculine and feminine personality characteristics. Responses from the men respondents supported the hypothesis, but not the women respondents. The men did not perceive significant differences between the female stereotype and the male stereotype on masculine personality or feminine personality characteristics. However, the women did perceive significant differences between the female stereotype and the male stereotype on both masculine personality and feminine personality.

Although the men did not appear to perceive significant differences on personality dimensions, other researchers have suggested that CEOs (usually men) are aware of the effects of women's personalities on board behaviour. Bradshaw, Murray, and Wolpin (1992) reported that CEOs on boards with women directors were more likely to report "power sharing" rather than "CEO domination." There was also a higher likelihood of a common board vision, strategic planning, and a greater number of board meetings. Such effects are possibly a result of personality attributes rather than physical or cognitive attributes.

A possible explanation for the men reporting similar personality attributes while the women did not might be social desirability. Although the instructions for the men did say the survey was confidential and to send it back directly to the researcher, the fact that the men were selected by their women colleagues may have influenced their answers. The men may have given answers that they thought were complimentary to their women colleagues. The women were apparently conscious of personality differences between male and female directors.

5.4.4. Hypothesis 4 – Stereotypes Have Similar Cognitive Characteristics

Hypothesis 4 proposed that the stereotypes of male and female directors would be similar on masculine and feminine cognitive characteristics. The hypothesis was partially supported. Both women and men respondents perceived the female stereotype and the male

stereotype to be similar on masculine cognitive attributes. However, the women respondents perceived significant differences between the female stereotype and the male stereotype on feminine cognitive attributes, although men respondents did not perceive significant differences on these attributes.

The masculine cognitive dimension was notable in that it was the single gender-stereotypic dimension on which both the women and men agreed that there were no differences between the female and male stereotypes. In other words, if there was a dimension on which gender was not salient to the stereotype of a board director then it was the masculine cognitive dimension. The likelihood that the masculine cognitive dimension is the salient defining gender-stereotypic dimension for board directors is reinforced by the observation that this was the only dimension on which the women and men differed on their perceptions of a female stereotype. The women ranked the female stereotype significantly higher on the masculine cognitive dimension than the men did, however the women also ranked the male stereotype significantly higher on the masculine cognitive dimension compared to the men. The finding suggests that the women perceived the masculine cognitive dimension as particularly important, ranking both the female and male stereotypes significantly higher that the men, but still in agreement that there were no significant differences between either stereotype. The women appeared to have an elevated perception of the men's cognitive abilities and wanted to perceive their own at the same high level.

5.5. General Discussion

Overall women and men agreed in their perceptions of a stereotypical female, and also agreed on the stereotypical male director. However, when examining their perceptions of the differences between female and male stereotypes some interesting differences were apparent. The women perceived significant differences between female and male stereotypes on all dimensions except masculine cognitive, while the men perceived that the only significant differences between female and male stereotypes were on physical dimensions. Thus, the

women appeared to be very conscious of the importance of parity with men on the masculine cognitive dimension, while accepting of differences between female and male directors on all other dimensions. The men on the other hand, were aware of the differences between female and male directors on the physical dimensions, but did not appear to perceive significant differences on other dimensions.

The women's apparent focus on the masculine cognitive could be interpreted as a focus on the content of a board director's role and perhaps being less attentive to the relationship (personality dimensions) perspective of a board director's role. However, the women are successful board directors; over the period of six years since 1995, they have increased the number of their board directorships, have gained more board chair positions, and have gained positions on boards of larger organisations. So it appears that the speculative arguments of researchers such as Bradshaw and Wicks (2000) that social similarity to board directors is more important than experience, credentials, and skills may not be valid for these women.

Demographic similarity has been found to influence work team formation (Jackson, Stone, & Alvarez, 1992) and superior-subordinate dyads (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992), with perceived and actual similarity influencing individual's self-esteem from perceived group membership. Tsui et al (1992) found that demographic similarity provided a basis of salient characteristics for group membership in that people favour demographically similar individuals. Westphal and Zajac (1995) argued that people create and affiliate with homogeneous groups to enhance personal self-esteem and identity. That the women in the present study perceive significant differences between the male and female stereotypes on the personality dimensions, and both women and men directors perceive significant differences on the physical dimensions, diminishes the apparent importance of demographic similarity for this sample. Although there is likely to be an element of social compatibility, the personality dimensions may be more important for obtaining an appointment to a board, but less so once the women were established on boards.

Social identity theory suggests that some attributes of a role will be salient in certain contexts while others are not. Presumably, the women perceive that retaining personality differences from the men is more useful on the board than if they exhibited similar personality characteristics to the men. The men also perceived that they were similar on feminine cognitive attributes while the women did not. However, both the women and men agreed on the masculine cognitive attributes, while women went further and elevated the masculine cognitive attributes for both the female and male stereotypes. Such agreement between women and men, and the emphasis by women on masculine cognitive attributes points strongly to the relevance of masculine cognitive attributes as salient characteristics of board directors. The salience of masculine cognitive attributes is likely to reflect in their identity as board directors. Burke (2000c) reported that women directors attribute their success to knowledge and skill rather than social influences.

5.6. Limitations and Future Research

The most obvious limitation of this study is an assumption that the men surveyed are representative of all men directors. As the men were chosen by the women respondents, it is likely that they chose men who they had sufficiently close relationships to confidently ask to complete the survey. There is likely to be considerable bias in this sampling technique, however the present study is only part of the larger study of women directors and was seen as a prudent method to gain access to a sample of men directors. In addition to the likely bias in the sample of men, the small number of men respondents (eight) was a limitation in the statistical power of the tests. A larger sample, comparable in size to the sample of women would have also helped the validity of comparisons.

Future research on the similarities and differences between women and men directors should strive to obtain a representative sample of men directors, although obtaining adequate samples is one of the major challenges to research on board directors (Hill, 1995). However, the preceding studies in the present research program demonstrated that the present sample of

women is representative of successful women directors, and so the conclusions should be sound for other successful women directors.

From comments written on the surveys, some of the respondents did not understand the value in ranking all of the attributes. The idea that a woman might be described as “burly” or a man as “dainty” appeared to offend some respondents. Some examples of comments written on the surveys were “irrelevant,” “this is rubbish,” “silly,” and “stupid questions, not worthy of an answer.” The objections to some of the descriptions manifested in some women not answering the items on stereotypes and some men ranking only a portion of the attributes. Although most respondents did complete the survey items, the partial completion of some attributes might have had a negative impact on the robustness of the scale, although this is not evident from the calculation of alpha coefficients of the scale dimensions. Di Pietro (2000) found that the *unexcitable* description from the masculine personality attributes on the Cejka and Eagly (1999) scale was an issue with her survey of psychology students. Future research employing this scale for the types of people in this sample should elaborate on the importance of ranking all attributes to counter likely objections to the relevance of some of the descriptions given for the stereotype subjects.

The survey of the board director stereotypes presented 112 attributes to be ranked on a 5-point Likert-type scale for both the female and male stereotypes. For women respondents these represented only two survey items on a 71-item survey covering other aspects of their career as successful board directors. Response fatigue may have been a reason for some of the women not ranking the attributes. Diekman and Eagly (2000), in an adaptation of the Cejka and Eagly (1999) scale for a large sample of 954 participants, used only 36 of the original 56 attributes for university students, and only 24 attributes for the general public. Further research studying stereotypes should consider a smaller more focussed survey to avoid the possibility of respondent fatigue.

The broad-based gender-stereotypic scale of Cejka and Eagly (1999) may have been too general to detect some of the more subtle differences between women and men board directors. With only the masculine cognitive dimension emerging as the salient common dimension of the shared stereotype, further refinement of this dimension may have value. The apparent agreement between women and men over the shared stereotypes may have little relevance if the overall stereotypes as presented were too simplistic. Comments from some of the respondents regarding the relevance of the questions imply other more relevant attributes describing the stereotypes may have been possible to construct. Further research regarding stereotypes of board directors might consider constructing a scale more focussed on items of relevance to board directors that might have the ability to detect more subtle differences.

5.7. Conclusion

The present study indicates that successful women board directors perceive that masculine cognitive attributes are the salient characteristics of the ingroup of board directors. This in contrast to the speculation of many authors who suggest that personal homogeneity to the CEO and other board members is of the greatest importance for women to be selected as board directors (Westphal & Milton, 2000). Of course, the women in the present study were appointed to their first board over six years ago, so the salience of masculine cognitive attributes will reflect their perceptions of what is currently important to their identity as board directors. The current salience of masculine cognitive attributes does not necessarily indicate the important factors in their transition from an outgroup of women who aspire to be board directors to an ingroup of successful board directors.

The apparent difference between women and men over perceptions of personality characteristics may suggest an explanation as to what helped women make the transition to acceptance by the ingroup of successful board directors. The women in the sample perceived that they had significant differences from the men on personality characteristics while the men thought they were similar to the women. The women in the sample may be sufficiently adept

at varying personality perceptions and their associated image management so that whilst the men perceive them as similar, in line with the speculation of authors on the need for homogeneity to gain acceptance (Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000), the women understand the power of using their personality differences when necessary to advantage.

Social identity theory and its treatment of stereotypes appears to be valuable in analysing group perceptions in an area that has been of great interest to researchers but elusive in achieving firm conclusions. The finding of this study that masculine cognitive attributes are the salient feature of the social identity of board directors and allows women to overcome gender differences by making this dimension salient should agree with most researchers. However, the obtaining of empirical evidence for this conclusion is a new aspect of the research on women board directors and a novel application of field-based research into social identity theory.

Chapter 6

6. NONEXECUTIVE DIRECTOR SOCIAL IDENTITY AND INFLUENCE

6.1. Introduction

Boards of directors provide a rich area for the application of social identity theory due to the variety of potentially salient ingroups and their corresponding outgroups. The salience of an ingroup categorisation depends on the perceptions by the ingroup members of corresponding outgroups (Haslam, 2001). For boards of directors, some potentially salient outgroups could be the top management, employees, shareholders, customers, competitors, government, and the public. Each director may have a different perception of the salience of each of these outgroups in their role as a director. For example, the CEO is likely to perceive top management differently from nonexecutive directors, while nonexecutive directors who are appointed by majority shareholders are likely to perceive those shareholders differently from other directors.

On another level, the board itself will consist of several subgroups that may be salient in different contexts. The board is typically comprised of executive directors and nonexecutive directors, of which both groups may at times view the other as an outgroup. The board may also have an executive committee and other committees as ingroups with other directors who are not committee members as outgroups. Several directors may have functional or industry expertise in common and regard other directors without that functional or industry expertise as an outgroup (Westphal & Milton, 2000). The challenge for effective directors is to be aware of ingroup and outgroup categorisations that are salient in any particular context, and manage perceptions to ensure that they are part of whatever is the currently dominant ingroup. Nonexecutive directors are pertinent for the present study, as their enduring success is likely to be a function of their ongoing identity as a member of an ingroup of board directors.

Many researchers have identified the importance of developmental opportunities for potential women directors to increase their visibility and networking opportunities. Daily, Certo, and Dalton (2000) reported that there were numerous studies to demonstrate that women's opportunities to be part of corporate boards were restricted because they had limited job and development opportunities to prepare them for board appointments. In social identity terms, such developmental opportunities would provide women with the opportunity to demonstrate through communication style and behaviour that they can fit in with an ingroup of board directors, sharing the values and attitudes of members of the dominant ingroup.

Haslam (2001) identified five important purposes of organisational communication that are relevant to board interactions. Communication is used (a) to exert influence over others, (b) to reduce uncertainty between people, (c) to obtain information on work performance, (d) to organise and arrange group operations, and (e) to build social capital. All of these purposes are likely to occur on a board. According to Turner (1991), the ability to achieve any of the five possible communication outcomes is dependent on self-categorisation effects and the existence of shared social categories. McGarty, Turner, Oakes, and Haslam (1993) demonstrated that shared social categories are needed before a person is perceived as legitimate to influence another's social reality and reduce their level of uncertainty.

Leighton (2000) argued for the importance of board homogeneity based on shared social backgrounds because homogeneity can eliminate "painful and fractious discussion, speeding and simplifying the process of working together towards a consensus" (p. 259). In contrast, Mattis (1997) presented a range of findings to support the value of gender diversity in reducing inward-looking decision making and fostering a greater openness to alternative ideas. However Burke (1994c), in supporting greater gender diversity, cautions that CEOs expressed concern that greater diversity could result in communication difficulties and prolong board processes. The ability of board members to function effectively is dependent on their ability to harness strategies of social influence such as those identified by Haslam

(2001), particularly shared social characteristics to communicate ideas, to establish and maintain a shared purpose, and to manage social and affiliation needs.

Westphal and Milton (2000) examined whether people who were minorities on boards, such as women, could overcome their inherent barriers to influence boards by demonstrating salient, shared social characteristics. By pursuing strategies to diminish the board's focus on the director's minority attributes, such as gender, they could become effective ingroup members through a perception of salient shared similarities. Westphal and Milton argued that if the majority of the directors shared a common characteristic, a director who is in a minority could still influence the majority through successfully appealing to the majority on the basis of that other shared characteristic. Westphal and Milton examined several potential minority and common characteristics across a sample of directors at Fortune 500 companies to support their proposition that minority directors could effectively influence board decision-making.

6.1.1. Identification with the Board

Abundant research proves that women directors are in the minority of most boards of directors (e.g., Catalyst, 1993-1998; Holton, 2000; Korn/Ferry International, 1993-1999; Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001). Yet to perceive themselves as members of an ingroup of a board, women must overcome gender differences by making other characteristics salient. The barriers that women face are likely to be similar to the barriers other minority groups face (Westphal & Milton, 2000). The present study attempts to identity salient factors in women's social identity with the board of which she is a director, thereby offering the opportunity to overcome the demographic factor of gender.

According to self-categorisation theory, a demographic minority may re-categorise themselves as an ingroup member depending on the categories that are perceived to be salient (Haslam, 2001). The categories that are perceived to be salient can change with context. People can hold multiple social categorisations and associated social identities, and group identities can change over time depending on the dominant characteristics (Tsui, Egan &

O'Reilly, 1992). Social context, topic of conversation, and psychological groups have been identified by researchers as a basis for group affiliation and categorisation (Brewer, 1991).

Shared salient characteristics build social capital between people and fulfil the need for affiliation with similar others (Haslam, 2001). Shared characteristics enable people to strengthen their self-identity and meet self-esteem needs. However, social identity is a continuum between personal identity and group identity. Frequency of personal contact heightens knowledge of, and awareness of, individual characteristics and thereby decreases social identity with an ingroup that is based on depersonalisation of individual characteristics (Haslam, 2001). Directors who have relationships with directors on other boards may perceive their membership of a particular focal board as less salient than their membership of a more general categorisation of board directors.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that social identification with a focal board will be based on shared personal characteristics between focal board members rather than on organisational factors such as frequency of contact with board members.

6.1.2. Perceived Ability to Contribute

What are the significant factors that give the women directors the perception that they are able to contribute to board discussions? Although women may identify as board directors, do they perceive themselves as effective contributors to the board or are they, as some authors fear, tokens that may participate in board meetings but are ineffective or limited in their contribution (Bilimoria & Piderit, 1994). Presumably, women who have a strong sense of identity as a board member will believe they have an ability to contribute. Other directors who perceive themselves to be on the board due to their relationships with board members may perceive themselves as less able to contribute. The present study attempts to determine what factors are significant in assisting successful women directors perceive that they are capable of contributing to board discussions and strategic decision making.

Westphal and Milton (2000) studied the effectiveness of minority groups, including women, on board decision making. Westphal and Milton described an effective communication strategy for minorities when presenting ideas as using a reference to shared characteristics that they have in common with the majority of the board. By emphasizing shared characteristics they make these attributes salient and thereby reestablish their acceptance as a board member. For example, a minority board member might appeal to their shared understanding of the target industry.

Bradshaw and Wicks (2000), in an interview study with women on Canadian boards, identified one of the strategies used by women directors to gain influence was to use unique expert knowledge and demonstrate an understanding of both the industry and the company. One quote from a woman director interviewed was "It's a combination of doing your homework and being competent" (p. 202). Bilimoria and Huse (1997) also identified a strategy used by Norwegian and American women directors as presenting as knowledgeable experts that were accepted as part of the ingroup.

For women directors, their relationships with male directors can be complex and potentially confusing (Bilimoria, 2000). Bilimoria suggests women are expected to provide strategic input on women's product and market issues. Mattis (1997) reported that CEOs in her sample suggested that women directors' roles include positively influencing recruitment and retention of women in the company. Burke (1997) reported that some women are expected to add a woman's perspective to the board. Adams (1993, cited in Bilimoria, 2000) suggests some men may be uncomfortable in socialising with women and may find it difficult to communicate informally. Selby (2000) suggests that women directors need to overcome other directors' sense of discomfort before they can effectively contribute. Given such issues, it would be more effective for women to appeal to shared social identity, dismissing their gender differences, rather than to rely on personal relationships with other directors.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that the women's perceived ability to contribute will be based on their social identity as board directors rather than their relationships with other board directors.

6.1.3. Board Dynamics and Perceived Ability to Contribute

Boards of directors are organisational units in which the dynamics of the board are just as important as the contributions of individual members (Hill, 1995). The present study measured director effectiveness on one dimension of many possible director roles, that of advice to the CEO. The study attempts to determine whether women directors' behaviour is predicated more on their identity as a board director, or from pragmatics based on the behaviour of the board with respect to the CEO.

Board effectiveness relies on the ability of board members to make decisions on behalf of the shareholders that will lead to growth of the company. Johnson, Daily, and Ellstrand (1996) elaborated on the service role of directors as "… advising the CEO and top managers on administrative and other managerial issues, as well as more actively initiating and formulating strategy" (p. 410). Maitlis and Clegg (1998) asserted that "CEOs may need to get information, advice or financial resources from directors in order to make decisions or take action" (p. 4). Daily, Certo, and Dalton (2000) argued that to fulfil the service and expertise roles directors must "serve as sounding boards and sources of advice and counsel to the CEO" (p. 15). The frequency with which the director gives advice to the CEO then is a valuable measure of director influence.

The basis of board decision making is the communication between the board members. In fact, the argument against diversity on boards is that people from different backgrounds will have difficulty communicating within the board context (Burke, 2000c; Leighton, 2000). Haslam (2001) argued that ingroup identification leads to shared styles of communication, ingroup codes of communication, and shared implicit meaning between ingroup members. Haslam provided an example of the use of acronyms and abbreviations amongst group

members, where the acronym or abbreviation may have little meaning outside of the ingroup and can serve to highlight group status.

Bradshaw and Wicks (2000) invited women directors to describe their view of the contributions they make to their boards. In each of the views of success presented by the women there was a strong theme of communication effectiveness through understanding board dynamics. Some examples of comments were: "You have to find your place to be heard, it takes about two to three years to do that," and "I have to fit into this environment if I don't want to be squashed like a moth… you know, dead. That's the reality" (p.205). Bradshaw and Wicks found that board success was a balance between behaving like one of the dominant ingroup and remaining invisible so as not to disrupt communication processes and board functioning.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that the frequency of giving advice to the CEO will be based more on board dynamics than on women's perceptions of their identity as board directors.

6.1.4. Significance of Gender

Many researchers have commented on the importance of diversity to boards and the significance of gender diversity in board composition (Bilimoria & Wheeler, 1997; Mattis, 2000). Other authors (Bilimoria & Piderit, 1994; Mattis, 2000) have commented on the barrier that gender appears to present to aspiring women directors. However, few authors (Pearce & Zahra, 1992; Ibrahim & Angelidis, 1994) have studied the affect of a woman's gender in performing effectively as a board director. The present study attempts to determine the gender-related factors that are significant to successful women board directors.

Interview studies and reports from women directors such as Selby (2000), Huse (1998), and Burke (2000b) indicate that women directors consider their gender to be of less importance on the board than their expertise or business background. It is argued that women must suppress their minority characteristic to identify with the board, to perceive that they have the ability to contribute, and to give advice to the CEO effectively.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that gender is not a significant factor for either identification with the board, perceived ability to contribute, or frequency of advice to the CEO.

6.2. Method

6.2.1. Sample Selection and Size

The sample for the present study consisted of 25 women nonexecutive directors who participated in follow-up research as part of a six-year longitudinal study on women corporate directors. The women had been board directors in the first year of the study (1995) and confirmed that they were current nonexecutive directors on the follow-up survey in 2001. These women are regarded as successful corporate directors who have passed the challenges of appointment to boards and now focus on their status as effective board members.

The women in the present sample were part of an original sample of 572 Australian women directors identified from various business listings in 1995, of which 298 agreed to follow-up research. Six years later, 52 of the women were located and returned surveys, although only 32 were directors in 2001. The 32 women are regarded as a sample of successful directors as they significantly increased their number of board directorships between 1995 and 2001, and gained significantly more board chair positions during this time.

The women were given the opportunity to report on demographic information for up to seven boards on which they were a director. The respondents were instructed to select the largest organisation by number of employees of which they were a director as the focal board. Additional items were then asked regarding social identity factors and scales from Karasawa (1991), and Westphal and Milton (2000). Of these 32 directors, 7 were executive directors on their focal board, leaving only 25 nonexecutive directors of focal boards.

Only nonexecutive directors were included in the present study for two reasons. The women's identity as a board director was expected to be more salient with respect to the dependent variables for nonexecutive directors than executive directors. Similarly, previous

research on director contribution and influence by Westphal and Milton (2000) also focussed on the effects of minority status with respect to outside (nonexecutive) directors. Executive directors were expected to consider their salient role as that of a senior manager of the organisation rather than that of board member. Executive directors were expected to be secure in their status as members of an ingroup of board directors, while nonexecutive directors may have some ambiguity about themselves as members of an ingroup.

6.2.2. Dependent Measures

Three separate dependent measures were identified with respect to social identity salience and influence. The salience of social identity with the board of directors was regarded as the foundation of the director's effectiveness. Building on that foundation, the next level of director effectiveness was regarded as their self-perceived ability to contribute, arising out of their social identity as a board member. Finally, their self-reported frequency of providing the CEO with advice on strategic issues was regarded as direct confirmation of director effectiveness, arising from their social identity as a board director. Such dependent measures also progressively shift the focus from the board as a salient ingroup, to focus on the woman's interpersonal relationships within the board, and then her individual relationship with the CEO. Thus, we should observe a shift in salience from group identity-related factors to interpersonal factors.

6.2.2.1. Identification with the Board Scale

To assess social identification with the board several measures of social identification listed in Haslam (2001) were considered. Karasawa's (1991) two-component measure was believed to be most suitable for administration to board directors. Although Karasawa developed the scale to examine Japanese undergraduate students' identification with their school, the nature and wording of the questions were readily adaptable to boards of directors. The wording was changed for the present sample of board directors by replacing references to "student" with "director" and "this school" with "the board." For example, "Would you feel

good if you were described as a typical student of this school" became "Would you feel good if you were described as a typical director of the board", and "How often do you refer to this school when you introduce yourself" became "How often do you refer to the board when you introduce yourself."

Karasawa developed two components of the scale to differentiate between students' identification with the school as a salient group and their identification with other students at the interpersonal level. Similarly for board directors, it was intended to differentiate between directors' identification with the board as a group and their identification with other directors. Karasawa's two-component measure consists of a five-item "identification with group" sub-scale and a two-item "identification with group members" sub-scale. Each item was scored in a similar fashion to Karasawa (1991), on 7-point Likert type scales, ranging from -3 (strongly negative) to +3 (strongly positive).

The first sub-scale, Identification with the Board, had adequate reliability with a Cronbach's alpha value of .77. Karasawa (1991) only reported the results of the factor analysis in developing the scale. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was not reported.

The second sub-scale, Identification with Board Members, was not reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of .16. A correlation analysis between the two items on the second sub-scale confirmed a very low correlation (r = .09). The wording of one of the items ("Where do most of your best friends come from, this board or not?") was probably not appropriate for mature directors (mean age 54 years) who would already have well-established social networks. Most directors had been on their focal boards for a relatively short time (mean duration 6 years) and for many directors their identity with the board would have little effect on their friendships. For some directors, their membership of the board may have even been a result of their pre-existing friendships rather than new friendships being a result of their board membership.

Correlational analysis found a significant correlation ($r = .45$, $p = .024$) between the Identification with the Board sub-scale and the other Identification with Board Members item ("Are there many directors of this board who have influenced your thoughts and behaviours?"). This item had a mean score of +1 indicating that a considerable number of directors had influenced respondents' thoughts and behaviour. However, an attempt to add this item to the Identification with the Board sub-scale reduced the reliability of the scale, so the Identification with the Board sub-scale was retained as the dependent variable without modification.

6.2.2.2. Perceived Ability to Contribute Scale

Westphal and Milton (2000) developed a minority influence scale to explore the influence of minorities on corporate boards. The minority statuses of interest to Westphal and Milton were functional background, industry background, educational background, race, and most importantly for the present study, gender. For the present study with an Australian sample, race was not considered a significant factor, however functional background, industry background, and educational background were all considered relevant for inclusion.

Carpenter and Westphal (2001) divided the minority influence scale of Westphal and Milton (2000) into three sub-scales: a "perceived ability to contribute" sub-scale, a "board monitoring" sub-scale, and a "board advice interactions" sub-scale. For example, an item from the perceived ability to contribute sub-scale is "To what extent are you capable of contributing to board discussions on strategic issues", an item from the board monitoring sub-scale is "To what extent does the board monitor top management strategic decision making", and an item from the board advice interactions sub-scale is "To what extent does the CEO solicit board assistance in the formulation of corporate strategy".

Each item was scored on a 5-point Likert type scale from 1 (minimal) to 5 (maximum), with the exception of the last item of the board monitoring sub-scale that sought a numeric

response. Westphal and Milton (2000) reported a Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale of .89. However, for the present sample Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was only .45.

Carpenter and Westphal (2001) reported separate Cronbach's alphas for the perceived ability to contribute sub-scale of .88, the board monitoring sub-scale of .92, and the board advice interactions sub-scale of .89. For the present sample the corresponding Cronbach's alphas were .86, .12, and .16 respectively. A correlation analysis of the items confirmed significant correlations between the items on the perceived ability to contribute sub-scale, but no significant correlations for the other two sub-scales – see Table 6.1.

Table 6.1
Correlations between Minority Influence Scale Items

	Perceived ability to contribute				*Board monitoring*			*Board advice*	
Scale Items	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	1	2
Perceived ability to contribute sub-scale									
1. Capable of contribution to discussions	1.00								
2. Sufficient knowledge for discussions	.65**	1.00							
3. Capable of adding insight to focal board	.57**	.67**	1.00						
4. Capable of contribution to decision making	.57**	.49*	.72**	1.00					
Board monitoring sub-scale									
1. Board monitors management decisions	.34	.32	.28	.42*	1.00				
2. Board evaluates CEO performance	.48*	.56**	.40	.38	.21	1.00			
3. Board defers to CEO judgement	-.04	.01	.27	-.12	.00	-.05	1.00		
Board advice interactions sub-scale									
1. Board CEO solicits assistance	.28	.13	.36	.03	.12	.02	.52**	1.00	
2. Nonexecutive directors are a sounding board	.48*	.36	.31	.37	.51*	.31	-.15	.14	1.00
3. Frequency of advice to the CEO	.47*	.43*	.16	.28	.09	.32	-.19	.24	.25

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

For the present study, measures of the directors' self-perceptions are the important dependent variables rather than the board's behaviour as represented by the board monitoring sub-scale. The perceived ability to contribute sub-scale measures directors' perceptions of their ability to contribute to board discussions regarding corporate strategy. The board

monitoring sub-scale measures the director's perceptions of board behaviour, not of their own behaviour. The board advice interactions sub-scale measures both the director's perceptions of CEO behaviour and the director's own behaviour. The third item of the board advice interactions sub-scale that measures the director's activity in providing advice to the CEO was thought to be particularly relevant. The frequency of advice to the CEO was thought to be a useful means to gauge the outcome of the logical progression from social identity through self-perceptions of ability to communication to actual frequency of communications.

The dependent variables chosen for the present study from the minority influence scale of Westphal (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001; Westphal & Milton, 2000) were the perceived ability to contribute sub-scale and the frequency of advice to the CEO item.

6.2.2.3. Correlations between Dependent Variables

Correlations were calculated between three dependent variables to confirm that they were not measuring similar things, as evidenced by a high correlation. The proposition of the present study was that perceived ability to contribute follows social identification with the board, and advice to the CEO follows a perceived ability to contribute, therefore some correlation was expected.

Table 6.2
Correlations between Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	Identification with group	Perceived ability to contribute	Frequency of advice to the CEO
Identification with the board	1.00		
Perceived ability to contribute	.35	1.00	
Frequency of advice to the CEO	.17	.40	1.00

Note: None of the correlations were significant at the 0.05 level.

Calculation of correlations between the three dependent variables shows correlation suggesting a relationship, but not high enough to suggest that the items should be combined as a scale – see Table 5.2. The correlation analysis supports the proposition of a relationship

between identification with the board, perceived ability to contribute, and frequency of advice to the CEO.

6.2.3. Independent Measures

Numerous independent measures were taken of the director's situation including age, education, employment situation, background as a director, and board situation. Correlations between independent variables that might relate to the director's identity as a board director are given in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3
Dependent Variable Correlations with Director Characteristics

	Dependent variables		
Independent variables	Identification with the board	Perceived ability to contribute	Frequency of advice to the CEO
Director age	.46*	-.04	-.20
Highest level of education	-.09	.20	-.17
Number of functional backgrounds	.04	.09	.37
Employment salary	-.36	-.08	.04
Total directorships	.05	.38*	-.22
Concurrent directorships	.07	.38*	-.17
Nonexecutive director boards	.06	.38*	-.23
Senior management years	.33	.24	.02
Total directorship years	.10	-.19	-.05
Concurrent directorship years	-.22	-.20	.01
Nonexecutive director years	-.10	-.29	-.40*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Numerous items were measured regarding the woman's identity as a director of the focal board. Items relating to number of board members (e.g. "How many other women are on this board?") were normalised by converting them to percentages of the total count of directors. Items were also created to represent minority status and social identity status.

For the purposes of their study on minority directors, Westphal and Milton (2000) defined the concept of a minority based on earlier research by Moscovici and Faucheux in 1972, and Nemeth in 1980. A minority director was defined as "an individual who has a salient attitude, belief, or social feature, such as a demographic characteristic, that is

possessed by less than 50 percent of the group" (p. 367). Directors may be in the minority in one characteristic (e.g., gender), while being in the majority on other characteristics (e.g., industry background). Minority status was coded as a dichotomous variable. For example, on the basic characteristic of gender the women would be in the minority if over half of the other directors were men. Using another example, the director would be in the minority if most of the other directors did not have a MBA but they did, or if they did not have a MBA but most of the other directors did.

Some of the variables measuring minority status in the present sample exhibited a poor distribution with only a few cases not in the minority. For example, few directors on the same board went to the same university. Westphal and Milton (2000) enhanced the distribution of the common characteristic of shared university background by using a concept of "Ivy League" universities that is unfortunately not readily transferable to Australia. However, from a social identity perspective, it is not whether a director is in the minority or not that matters, it is whether the director identifies with the relevant in-group. To reinforce the salience of a director characteristic in terms of board identity as few as one other director may be sufficient to validate the characteristic. The status of the potential social identity salience of a characteristic was coded as a dichotomous variable to signify if there was at least one other similar director. For example, on the basic characteristic of gender the women might socially identify with the board (e.g. the board accepts women) if at least one of the other directors was a woman. Using another example, the women might socially identify if they and at least one of the other directors had a MBA, or if they did not have a MBA and neither did at least one of the other directors.

Correlations between independent variables relating to the director's identity as a director of the focal board are given in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4
Dependent Variable Correlations with Board-Related Characteristics

Independent variables	Dependent variables		
	Identification with the board	Perceived ability to contribute	Frequency of advice to the CEO
Focal board directors	-.04	.31	-.17
Focal board directorship years	.03	-.08	.15
Focal board directorship remuneration	.19	.15	-.02
Focal board sells into employment industry	.08	-.16	-.35
Focal board formal meeting frequency	-.32	.20	-.16
Focal board director meeting frequency	-.34*	-.03	-.11
Executive committee member	.19	.25	.08
Percentage directors predate CEO ‡	.36*	-.15	.06
Percentage members on other boards †	-.41*	-.49**	-.25
Social identity via other boards	-.22	-.28	-.24
Percentage members in same industry	.36*	-.17	-.09
Minority industry	-.23	.08	.09
Social identity via industry	.12	-.36*	-.21
Percentage members functional background	.32	-.12	-.25
Minority functional background	-.39*	.07	.19
Social identity via functional background	.14	-.24	-.47*
Percentage members from same university	.35	-.17	-.23
Minority same university	-.35	.19	.30
Social identity via same university	.51*	.04	-.11
Percentage members university background §	-.32	.06	-.27
Minority university background	.26	.03	.03
Percentage members with MBA or similar	-.14	-.30	-.07
Minority MBA or similar	-.12	-.08	-.17
Social identity via MBA or similar	.07	.36	.14

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
‡ Only one woman was in a minority with respect to having been appointed after the CEO.
† No women shared enough boards with other members to have other than a minority status.
§ All women had at least one other matching director who had or had not been to university.

6.2.4. Multiple Regressions

A standard multiple regression was performed for each of the three dependent variables of the identification with the board, perceived ability to contribute, and frequency of advice to the CEO. When entering an independent variable into the regression analysis for which there

was a choice of percentage, minority or social identity transformations, the variant with the highest correlation with the dependent variable was used.

All multiple regressions were run with 95% confidence limits, although the small sample size makes this confidence limit questionable. The sample size is discussed further in the section on limitations. Multiple regression assumptions regarding multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were checked using the facilities of the SPSS package. Residuals scatterplots and normal probability plots were checked for assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Mahalanobis distances were calculated using an alpha level of .001.

6.3. Results

6.3.1. Regression 1: Identification with the Board

A standard multiple regression was performed with the identification with the board scale as the dependent variable and other measures from the survey as the independent variables. Some independent variables were transformed as described in the method section. Eliminating independent variables that were non-significant contributors as coefficients resulted in a multiple regression equation with four significant coefficients. All correlations between variables were satisfactory at less than .7 – see Table 6.5.

Table 6.5
Correlations between Identification with the Board Regression Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables			
		1	2	3	4
1. Percentage members in same industry	.36*	1.00			
2. Percentage members on other boards	-.41*	.33	1.00		
3. Senior management years	.33	.06	.10	1.00	
4. Executive committee member	.19	-.22	-.10	-.21	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Multiple regression assumptions regarding multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were all within acceptable limits (Pallant, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A test of collinearity returned respectable tolerances of greater than .8 for all coefficients. A residuals scatterplot and a normal probability plot suggested adequate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. No outliers were evident, from either the residuals scatterplot or the Mahalanobis distances.

The multiple regression model provided a satisfactory result with an adjusted R Square of .60 (adjusted R Square was reported due to the small sample size). An ANOVA of the model also returned a satisfactory result, F (4, 20) = 8.43, p = .001. The only limitation of the multiple regression was the sample size as discussed in the limitations section. Coefficients of the multiple regression equation show significant contributions – see Table 6.6.

Table 6.6
Multiple Regression Coefficients for Identification with the Board

Independent measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	B (unstd.)	Std. Error	Beta (std.)	*p* (sig.)
Percentage members in same industry	24.57	24.35	.025	.006	.615	.001
Percentage members on other boards	2.48	7.54	-.081	.020	-.614	.001
Senior management years	8.00	6.52	.066	.022	.429	.009
Executive committee member	1.48	.51	.688	.290	.352	.031

6.3.2. Regression 2: Perceived Ability to Contribute

A standard multiple regression was performed with the perceived ability to contribute scale as the dependent variable and other measures from the survey as the independent variables. Some independent variables were transformed as described in the method section. Eliminating independent variables that were non-significant contributors as coefficients resulted in a multiple regression equation with five significant coefficients. All correlations between variables were satisfactory at less than .7 – see Table 6.7.

Table 6.7
Correlations between Perceived Ability to Contribute Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables 1	2	3	4	5
1. Years worked with women directors	-.40*	1.00				
2. Percentage members on other boards	-.49**	-.16	1.00			
3. Executive committee member	.25	.21	-.10	1.00		
4. Concurrent directorships	.38*	-.15	-.06	-.32	1.00	
5. Social identity via functional background	-.24	-.08	-.08	.10	-.18	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Multiple regression assumptions regarding multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were all within acceptable limits (Pallant, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A test of collinearity returned satisfactory tolerances of greater than .8 for all coefficients. A residuals scatterplot and a normal probability plot suggested adequate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. No outliers were evident, from either the residuals scatterplot or the Mahalanobis distances.

The multiple regression model provided a satisfactory result with an adjusted R Square of .72 (adjusted R Square is reported due to the small sample size). An ANOVA of the model also returned a satisfactory result, F (5, 19) = 10.68, $p < .001$. The only limitation of the multiple regression was the sample size as discussed in the limitations section. Coefficients of the multiple regression equation show significant contributions – see Table 6.8.

Table 6.8
Multiple Regression Coefficients for Perceived Ability to Contribute

Independent measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	B (unstd.)	Std. Error	Beta (std.)	*p* (sig.)
Years worked with women directors	6.45	5.09	-.061	.014	-.545	.001
Percentage members on other boards	2.48	7.54	-.040	.009	-.528	.001
Executive committee member	1.48	.51	.505	.147	.452	.004
Concurrent directorships	2.92	2.53	.081	.030	.357	.017
Social identity via functional background	.63	.50	-.345	.145	-.299	.032

6.3.3. Regression 3: Advice to the CEO and Director Characteristics

A standard multiple regression was performed with Frequency of Advice to the CEO as the dependent variable and measures from the survey as the independent variables. Some independent variables were transformed as described in the method section. Eliminating independent variables that were non-significant contributors as coefficients resulted in a multiple regression equation with four significant coefficients. All correlations between variables were satisfactory at less than .7 – see Table 6.9.

Table 6.9
Correlations between Frequency of Advice to the CEO Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables			
		1	2	3	4
1. Social identity via functional background	-.47*	1.00			
2. Nonexecutive director years	-.40*	-.23	1.00		
3. Social identity via other boards	-.24	-.08	-.11	1.00	
4. Percentage members university background	-.27	-.25	.21	-.12	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Multiple regression assumptions regarding multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were all within acceptable limits (Pallant, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A test of collinearity returned satisfactory tolerances of greater than .8 for all coefficients. A residuals scatterplot and a normal probability plot suggested adequate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. No outliers were evident, from either the residuals scatterplot or the Mahalanobis distances.

The multiple regression model provided a satisfactory result with an adjusted R Square of .68 (adjusted R Square was reported due to the small sample size). An ANOVA of the model also returned a satisfactory result, F (4, 18) = 10.54, $p < .001$. The only limitation of the multiple regression was the sample size as discussed in the limitations section. Coefficients of the multiple regression equation show significant contributions – see Table 6.10.

Table 6.10
Multiple Regression Coefficients for Frequency of Advice to the CEO

Independent measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	B (unstd.)	Std. Error	Beta (std.)	*p* (sig.)
Social identity via functional background	.63	.50	-8.259	1.620	-.722	.000
Nonexecutive director years	9.68	4.55	-.651	.174	-.524	.002
Social identity via other boards	.12	.33	-6.894	2.324	-.404	.010
Percentage members university background	73.38	27.91	-.080	.029	-.393	.015

6.3.4. Regression 4: Advice to the CEO and Board Dynamics

A standard multiple regression was performed with frequency of advice to the CEO as the dependent variable and adding focal board behaviour items as well as measures from the survey as the independent variables. Some independent variables were transformed as described in the method section. Eliminating independent variables that were non-significant contributors as coefficients resulted in a multiple regression equation with three significant coefficients. All correlations between variables were satisfactory at less than .7 – see Table 6.11.

Table 6.11
Correlations between Frequency of Advice to the CEO Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables		
		1	2	3
1. Focal board defers to CEO judgement	-.19	1.00		
2. Focal board CEO solicits assistance	.24	.52**	1.00	
3. Number of functional backgrounds	.37	.13	-.02	1.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Multiple regression assumptions regarding multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were all within acceptable limits (Pallant, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A test of collinearity returned satisfactory tolerances of greater than .7 for all coefficients. A residuals scatterplot and a normal

probability plot suggested adequate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. No outliers were evident, from either the residuals scatterplot or the Mahalanobis distances.

The multiple regression model provided a satisfactory result with an adjusted R Square of .28 (adjusted R Square was reported due to the small sample size). An ANOVA of the model also returned a satisfactory result, F (3, 20) = 3.57, $p < .036$. The only limitation of the multiple regression was the sample size as discussed in the limitations section. Coefficients of the multiple regression equation show significant contributions – see Table 6.12.

Table 6.12
Multiple Regression Coefficients for Frequency of Advice to the CEO

Independent measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	B (unstd.)	Std. Error	Beta (std.)	*p* (sig.)
Focal board defers to CEO judgement	3.28	.89	-3.287	1.430	-.517	.034
Focal board CEO solicits assistance	4.24	.66	4.404	1.903	.516	.033
Number of functional backgrounds	1.92	1.67	1.510	.655	.444	.034

6.3.5. Regressions 5-7: Significance of Gender

Noting that regressions 1 through 4 above failed to identify a regression equation with a significant coefficient related to gender, further exploratory regressions were conducted to attempt to identify any significant gender-related items that could explain the variance in the dependent variables. A correlation analysis of the gender-related independent variables against the dependent variables revealed only one significant correlation – see Table 6.13.

None of the regressions for the dependent variables of identification with the board, perceived ability to contribute, or frequency of advice to the CEO produced an equation with a significant gender-related coefficient. Eliminating least significant coefficients continued until only the constant remained (R = 0) in all three regressions against the dependent variables.

Table 6.13
Dependent Variable Correlations with Gender-Related Variables

	Dependent variables		
Independent variables	Identification with the board	Perceived ability to contribute	Frequency of advice to the CEO
Employment CEO gender	-.04	.07	.01
Managerial gender proportion	-.28	.11	.08
Work colleagues gender proportion	-.15	.17	.02
Years worked with women managers	.13	-.18	.19
Years worked with women directors	.31	-.40*	.05
Focal board gender proportion	-.08	-.04	-.29
Focal board CEO gender	.13	-.19	.15
Focal board chair gender	.19	.16	-.11
Focal board women members	.00	.13	.16
Percentage women members	.01	-.22	.14
Minority women members	-.11	-.03	-.01
Social identity via women members	.23	.01	.26

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.4. Discussion

6.4.1. Identification with the Board

Hypothesis 1 proposed that social identification with a focal board would be based on shared personal characteristics between focal board members rather than on organisational factors such as frequency of contact with board members. The hypothesis was supported as two of the three positive factors (percentage members in same industry, senior management years) represented shared personal characteristics. The negative factor (percentage members on other boards) represented additional contact with other board members rather than a personal characteristic.

The four factors that emerged from the multiple regression as predictors of the women's identification with the board explained 60% of the variability in Karasawa's (1991) identification with group sub-scale. Other factors showed significant correlation but they did not contribute significantly to the regression. As the present sample was smaller than

recommended for multiple regression, some of these other factors might prove to be significant contributors to the regression in a larger sample.

6.4.1.1. Percentage Members in Same Industry

The percentage of board members that worked in the same industry as the woman contributed most to the regression with a beta coefficient of .615. Being from the same industry provides a shared social identity with other directors. The more that board members are from the same industry, the more that the woman may identify with the board as a subset of industry members. Thus, a shared identity with one group (industry members) could give rise to another shared identity (the board).

Westphal and Milton (2000) quoted Spender as coining the term "industry recipes" in 1989 for the tendency of managers from the same industry to have shared beliefs and strategies. Haslam (2001) argued that shared social identity is reflected in communication content and style. Communication is one means through which people can demonstrate their ingroup status compared with outgroup members. Westphal and Milton cited research that demonstrates that shared social identity based on industry can have other consequences in terms of evaluating decisions about acquisitions, shared perceptions of environmental threat, and the evaluation of performance criteria. Such findings point to the challenges facing women directors whose industry background is outside that of other board members. On the other hand, the social identity explanation of industry background as a potentially salient characteristic supports the findings of Mattis (2000). In an interview study of CEOs that responded to Catalyst's 1995 survey, Mattis indicated that the business background sought for board appointments was "industrial experience in a top-drawer manufacturing company with a global presence" and "significant general management experience" (p.49).

6.4.1.2. Percentage Members on Other Boards

The percentage of board members that were on other boards with the woman contributed an almost identical amount to the regression as percentage of board members that

worked in the same industry, but with a negative beta coefficient of -.614. However, as this is a negative contribution the converse argument applies: the fewer board members that were on other boards with the woman, the greater the woman's identification with the focal board. This may be related to the effect that Karasawa (1991) sought to distinguish that of identification with a group member as opposed to the group itself. Identification with the board is a demonstration of social identity, however identification with a board member is a demonstration of interpersonal relationships. As social identity is a continuum between interpersonal identity and group identity (Haslam, 2001), it can be expected that an increase in relationships with other board members will reduce the salience of the woman's identification with the board.

6.4.1.3. Senior Management Years

The number of years the woman spent in a senior management position before accepting a board directorship contributed significantly to identification with the board, with a beta coefficient of .429. Presumably, other board members have a spent a considerable amount of time in a senior management position and this gives the woman a shared sense of identity from which to form her identity as a board member. Leighton (2000) argued that it is a circumstance of labour market history that there are few women directors, pointing to the demographics of women's participation in the labour force and their attainment of higher degrees. Leighton argued that age and experience are critical factors for board work, and that there are few women who have the age and experience for the role. The relatively few women who do have the experience may be aware of this as a relatively unique asset that assists them identify with the category of board director.

6.4.1.4. Executive Committee Member

Being a member of the board's executive committee contributed significantly to identification with the board, with a beta coefficient of .352. Bilimoria and Piderit (1994), in a study of U.S. women directors, found that women were more likely to serve on the less

central subcommittees of the board such as public affairs and were unlikely to be on central committees such as the executive committee. Being a member of the inner sanctum of the executive board is likely to contribute to a heightened sense of identity with the board.

6.4.1.5. Other Factors

Other factors that had a significant correlation but did not emerge as significant contributors to the present regression were:

- Director age – presumably other directors on the board are of a similar age. Age has been found to be a significant influence in previous research (Holton, 2000; Leighton, 2000; Pynes, 2000)
- Focal board director meeting frequency – with a negative correlation, the less the women meet other directors, the greater their identity with the board. Frequent meetings with directors are likely to increase the salience of interpersonal relationships and thereby reduce the salience of the social identity of the board.
- Percentage board directors predate CEO – if the woman forms one of several of an "old guard" of directors who predate the CEO's appointment, her identification with the board is likely to be enhanced. Westphal and Zajac (1995) conducted a study of director appointments that found that when CEOs are influential they appoint people who are demographically similar to them. The demographic similarity of a group of directors appointed by the same CEO is likely to heighten social identification with the board. If the CEO is a relative newcomer then the salience of the directors' identity with the board may be increased, with the new CEO and possibly new top management as a new threatening intra-board outgroup.
- Minority functional background – with a negative correlation, this suggests the women do not want to be in the minority with respect to their functional background (the percentage of members sharing a functional background with the woman showed a positive, although not significant, correlation). A majority of directors with a similar functional background shared with the woman is likely to heighten her social identification with the board.

- Social identity via same university – if the woman shared a university with at least one other director then her sense of identification with the board was increased. Westphal and Milton (2000) also identified shared university institutions, particularly "Ivy League" universities, as a salient characteristic for board identification.

From the results of the multiple regression, it appeared that the women have a greater sense of social identity with the board when they share some personal attributes with other directors such as industry or length of senior management experience. Significant correlations on other personal attributes such as age, time of appointment with respect to the CEO, functional background, and having attended the same university supported the above hypothesis. The converse is that contact with other directors that is on the basis of relationship-related attributes, such as meeting directors on other boards, and including significant correlations, frequency of meeting directors, decreases their sense of identity with the board. Nevertheless, being an executive committee member also clearly facilitates board identification.

6.4.2. Perceived Ability to Contribute

Hypothesis 2 proposed that the women's perceived ability to contribute would be based on their social identity as board directors rather than their relationships with other board directors. The hypothesis was supported as one of the positive factors (concurrent board directorships) represent social identity as a board director, and the two of the negative factors (years worked with women directors, percentage members on other boards) represent relationships with other board directors.

The five factors that emerged as predictors of the women's perceived ability to contribute explained 72% of the variability in Westphal's (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001; Westphal & Milton, 2000) perceived ability to contribute sub-scale. Several other factors demonstrated significant correlation but they did not contribute significantly to the regression.

As the present sample was smaller than recommended for multiple regression, some of these other factors might prove to be significant contributors to the regression in a larger sample.

6.4.2.1. Years Worked With Women Directors

The number of years that the women had worked with other women directors contributed most to the regression, with a beta coefficient of -.545. However, this is a negative contribution so the length of time that women worked with other women directors decreased their perceived ability to contribute. From studies by Bilimoria and Huse (1997), and Bradshaw and Wicks (2000), it appears that women value highly a position as a unique knowledgeable expert. However, a lengthy amount of time working with other women directors may diminish their perception of themselves as having a unique ability to contribute.

6.4.2.2. Percentage Members on Other Boards

The percentage of board members that were on other boards with the woman contributed a similar amount to the regression as working with other women directors, with a beta coefficient of -.528. As this was a negative contribution, it also suggested that the fewer the number of board members that were on other boards with the woman, the greater her perceived ability to contribute. The women's perception of having a unique ability to contribute may be reduced by sharing other boards with directors on the focal board.

6.4.2.3. Executive Committee Member

The woman's status as an executive committee member made a positive contribution to the regression, with a beta coefficient of .452. Clearly, being a member of the executive committee increases the woman's perceived ability to contribute. Being a member of the executive committee is a special position accorded to relatively few board directors and is likely to increase the woman's perception of making a special contribution.

6.4.2.4. Concurrent Directorships

The number of concurrent board directorships that the women held made a positive contribution to the regression, with a beta coefficient of .357. Note that the positive effect of multiple board memberships is in contradiction to the negative effect of sharing boards with other members. The women's perceived ability to contribute is enhanced by being a director on other boards that she does *not* share with members on the focal board. Being on several boards concurrently is likely to increase the woman's perception of being able to make a special contribution to the board. If those other boards are not shared with other women directors then the woman is likely to perceive her contribution as unique.

6.4.2.5. Social Identity via Functional Background

The existence of at least one other board member with the same functional background made a negative contribution to the regression, with a beta coefficient of -.299. This suggests that the women find having someone else of the same functional background on the board decreases their perceived ability to contribute. The woman's perception of having a unique contribution to make to the board is likely to decrease if her functional background is common with another board member.

6.4.2.6. Other Factors

Other factors with a significant correlation that did not emerge as contributors to the present regression were:

- Total board directorships (and nonexecutive director boards) – the more boards the woman was on, the more her perceived ability to contribute. These factors are similar to the factor in the regression of the number of concurrent board directorships that the woman held.
- Social identity via industry – similar to the existence of at least one other board member with the same functional background, the existence of at least one other board member with the same industry background also decreased the woman's perceived ability to contribute.

From the multiple regression results, it appeared that the women have a greater perceived ability to contribute when they operate as “loners”, without sharing other boards or functional backgrounds with other directors, or even having worked for a lengthy time with other women directors. This generalisation was further supported by a significant negative correlation on the existence of other members with the same industry background. Enhancing the women’s perceived ability to contribute is the number of their board directorships, whether counted as concurrent, total or nonexecutive director board memberships. Being an executive committee member also clearly facilitated a perceived ability to contribute.

6.4.3. Frequency of Advice to the CEO

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the frequency of giving advice to the CEO would be based more on board dynamics than on women’s perceptions of their identity as board directors.

A regression performed with social identity related factors resulted in four factors emerging as predictors of the frequency of giving advice to the CEO. These factors explained 68% of the variability in the frequency of giving advice to the CEO as per Westphal’s (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001; Westphal & Milton, 2000) frequency of advice to the CEO item. No other factors showed significant correlation, however as the all the coefficients were negative and the hypothesis suggests board dynamics will be more relevant than social identity a further regression was performed with measures of board behaviour-related factors. The second regression resulted in three factors that explained only 28% of the variability in the frequency of giving advice to the CEO item, however for this regression two of the coefficients were positive.

6.4.3.1. Social Identity via Functional Background

The existence of at least one other board member with the same functional background made a negative contribution to the social identity-related regression, with a beta coefficient of -.722. Similar to the reduction in the perceived ability to contribute scale, the existence of at least one other board member with the same functional background reduced the number of

times that the woman advised the CEO. Some authors (Bilimoria & Huse, 1997; Bradshaw & Wicks, 2000) have reported that women directors believe their expert knowledge is one of their most valuable assets to bring to the board. The existence of another board member with similar functional expertise may reduce their inclination to advise the CEO on strategic matters.

6.4.3.2. Nonexecutive Director Years

The number of years that the woman had been a nonexecutive director made a negative contribution to the social identity-related regression, with a beta coefficient of -.524. This is an interesting result, that the greater the number of years that the woman had been a nonexecutive director, the less frequent their advice to the CEO. Unlike age, which had a positive correlation with board identity, and number of boards including nonexecutive directorships, which had a positive correlation with perceived ability to contribute, the number of years that the woman had been a nonexecutive director was a negative factor.

6.4.3.3. Social Identity via Other Boards

The existence of board members that were on other boards with the woman made a negative contribution to the social identity-related regression, with a beta coefficient of -.404. This is similar to identification with the board and perceived ability to contribute, where the percentage of board members that were on other boards with the woman had a negative effect.

6.4.3.4. Percentage Members with University Background

The percentage of board members that had been to university made a negative contribution to the social identity-related regression, with a beta coefficient of -.393. The more board members that had been to university the less the frequency of the woman's advice to the CEO. The fewer board members that had been to university the more women perceived that they had valuable advice for the CEO (88% of the women directors had been to university).

6.4.3.5. Focal Board Defers to CEO Judgement

The factor for how much the focal board defers to the CEO's judgement on final strategic decisions made a negative contribution to the board behaviour-related regression, with a beta coefficient of -.517. The more that board members deferred to the CEO the less that the women directors give advice to the CEO.

6.4.3.6. Focal Board CEO Solicits Assistance

The factor for how much the CEO solicits assistance from the focal board in the formulation of corporate strategy contributed an almost identical amount to the board behaviour-related regression as the factor for the focal board deferring to the CEO's judgement, but with a positive beta coefficient of .516. The more that the CEO solicits assistance from the focal board the more that the women directors give advice to the CEO.

6.4.3.7. Number of Functional Backgrounds

A count of the directors' different functional backgrounds made a positive contribution to the board behaviour-related regression, with a beta coefficient of .444. Having a broad base of functional expertise on which to draw increased the frequency with which the woman gave advice to the CEO on final strategic decisions.

6.4.3.8. Other Factors

No other significant factors were found for the frequency of advice to the CEO item. The factor with the next highest correlation was the perceived ability to contribute scale (r = .40, p = .069). The director's perceived ability to contribute was positively correlated to frequency with which they gave advice to the CEO, although it did not emerge as a significant contributor in either regression.

6.4.4. Significance of Gender

Hypothesis 4 proposed that gender is not a significant factor for either identification with the board, perceived ability to contribute, or frequency of advice to the CEO. The

hypothesis was supported in that only one regression had a significant gender-related coefficient and an attempt to find other significant gender-related coefficients failed. The sole gender-related factor in the perceived ability to contribute regression, years worked with women directors, may not have been significant because of its relationship to gender. The years worked with women directors is an interpersonal-relationship factor that may have represented a more general factor for years worked with directors, including male directors, that was not measured. The years worked with women directors was a negative contribution to the regression, similar to the other negative interpersonal-relationship contribution factor of the percentage of members that were also on other boards with the director. The similarity of these two factors in the regression suggests that it is the interpersonal-relationship nature of the years worked with women directors factor rather than its relationship to gender that was salient.

Mattis (2000) demonstrated through her study of CEO views that once a woman is appointed to the board her gender ceased to be a salient characteristic. The majority of CEOs in her sample did not expect the contributions of the directors to differ because of gender. Either the CEOs studied by Mattis were extremely enlightened or the women directors they appointed were successful in making sure that gender was not perceived as a salient difference from other directors. Burke (2000b) suggested that women on boards try to change the focus to be on their competence on the board rather than gender.

6.5. General Discussion

Overall, the results demonstrate the relevance of social identity theory for consideration of women nonexecutive directors' identity with the board and their perceived ability to contribute to board discussions on strategic issues. Social identity theory provided an adequate explanation for the women directors' perceptions of themselves. The women's actual behaviour in terms of their frequency of advising the CEO demonstrated a pragmatic awareness of the board dynamics, particularly with the receptiveness or otherwise of the CEO

to advice from the board. Prior research has not addressed in a systematic way the issues associated with board dynamics for women directors, although a few studies touch on specific aspects. For example, Across the Board (1994) reported that male directors were more careful about what they said or did when women were present and found that women enhanced discussion through their interpersonal skills. Rosener (1990) suggested that women provided an alternative transformational model of leadership.

An unanticipated finding was the high correlation between focal board CEO gender and best friends come from focal board ($r = .52$, $p = .008$). The high correlation suggests that the women directors were more likely to have their best friends on the board if the CEO was a woman. Was one of these best friends the CEO? The present survey did not have a response category for the director to indicate that they might have gained membership of the board via invitation from the CEO (it had a response for invitation by the Chair). There was no significant correlation between focal board chair gender and best friends come from focal board.

The findings of the present study appear to contradict those of Westphal and Milton (2000) on director inter-board networking. Westphal and Milton found that "minority directors are more influential if they have direct or indirect social network ties to majority directors through common memberships on other boards" (p. 366). However, Westphal and Milton did not limit themselves to women as minorities and included race, educational background, functional background, and industry background as minority categories. By including several other minority categories Westphal and Milton gathered an impressively large sample (526 directors), but women only appeared to have made up 11% of the sample. However, Westphal and Milton did find a positive effect for the influence of gender-based minorities as the number of common board memberships with other, majority directors increased. The present study did not differentiate whether the other directors with whom the women shared a common board membership were in the majority or not on the focal board.

6.6. Limitations and Future Research

The present research offers some fascinating insights into factors affecting women directors' social identity with their boards, their perceived ability to contribute and their frequency of contributing advice to CEOs. However, a concern is the small sample upon which the analyses have been performed. Further research that conducts a similar line of inquiry with a larger sample would be invaluable.

Having only 25 women in the sample presented a limitation for powerful statistical analyses such as multiple regression. Stevens (1996) recommended about 15 subjects per predictor. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) suggested a simple rule of at least 50 cases, and a more complex indicator that under ideal circumstances with large effect sizes would allow as few as 23 cases. The current sample is unlikely to conform to the ideal assumptions of lack of skew in dependent variables, large effect sizes, and low measurement error from reliable variables, so results derived from the statistical analyses must be regarded as tentative. However, as it was believed to be innovative research never before performed on such a group, the results of such statistical analyses were expected to be informative, if not definitive.

Karasawa (1991) was concerned to distinguish between identification with the group and identification with group members. Corporate boards also should be very concerned to ensure that their directors identify with the board and the organisation it governs. Corporate boards should guard against directors who identify more with other directors than the board itself or the organisation. Having directors who identify with the other directors may be conducive to harmonious working relationships, but that may not result in the best decisions for the board's corporation. Reliable measures to distinguish between identification with the board and identification with other board members are likely to be invaluable.

The difference in findings between the present study and that of Westphal and Milton (2000) regarding the effect of common board memberships between directors should be

investigated further. If the director's identity with other directors was salient then common board memberships are likely to have a positive effect. However, if the director's identity with the board as a whole is salient then common board memberships between individual directors may be counter productive as the present study suggests. As Westphal and Milton comment, the appointment of directors who lack social ties with existing board members could have implications for practices regarding director selection and board processes (p. 393). Clarification of the effect of common board memberships and/or social ties with existing board members, at least in Australia, should have a bearing on corporate governance policy.

Some of the effects described in the present survey may not be peculiar to women. Further research should also examine these effects for male directors, attempting to detect whether the male directors may be in a minority category. A comparison between male and female directors on the effects described in the present survey would have added greatly to the understanding of whether these were general effects or effects that are specific to women.

The somewhat arbitrary definition by the present survey of the focal board as the largest board by number of the organisation's employees may not have been optimal. Respondents' identity with a board may vary with other factors than that of the largest organisation. Providing some means by which the respondent can nominate the board with which they have the greatest identification may provide improved results.

All surveys were self-administered, so responses may not be completely accurate. Substantial scope for errors and self-report bias exists in evaluating topics that may carry emotional content for some of the respondents, and with respondents who may not put the time and care into their responses that respondents with less time-pressure may provide.

Westphal and Milton (2000) identified the limited coverage of likely director influence tactics as a weakness of their study. Similarly, the present study is limited in its coverage of likely factors in women's identification as a board director, their perceptions of ability, and

their behaviour as a board director. The present study and future studies will hopefully add to an understanding of board directors and board dynamics to assist more effective investigations of this elusive group.

6.7. Conclusion

The hypotheses predicated on social identity theory appear to be well supported. Women directors' identification with the board was a factor of shared personal characteristics such as working in the same industry, having the same functional background, or having gone to the same university as other directors. These characteristics are likely indicators of shared group identities that support the sublimation of individual characteristics and allow the director to perceive the board as a salient group. On the other hand, the negative factors in the women's identification with the board such as contact with individuals on other common boards and frequency of contact with directors generally would raise the salience of the other directors as individuals, thereby reducing the salience of the board as an ingroup.

However, social identity is a between-groups phenomenon that describes attitudes and likely interactions between an ingroup and salient outgroups. When salience is shifted from inter-group relationships to intra-group relationships, we expect different factors to become salient. The other analyses in the present study that focus on perceived ability to contribute and frequency of advice to the CEO can be interpreted as shifting the salience from the group as a whole to focus on the director's likely interactions with the group, and then the director's interactions with the CEO respectively. Thus, we see a shift away from the factors that were salient for the director's identification with the board. With the director's perceived ability to contribute, the existence of other directors with the same industry or functional background now becomes a negative factor, and the positive factor of the number of directorships is related to the woman's identity as a director generally, not specifically as a director of the focal board. With the director's frequency of advice to the CEO, all of the social identity-related factors are negative, and the positive factors are the interpersonal factors to what

extent the CEO solicits assistance and how secure the director feels with a broad base of numerous functional backgrounds to work from.

Membership of the executive committee is unsurprisingly a positive factor in both the women's identity with the board and her perceived ability to contribute. Membership of the ingroup of the executive committee is an example of meta-categorisation at work, whereby membership of a salient sub-group (the executive committee) will reinforce the salience of membership of the higher order group (the board as a whole). However, for the strongly interpersonal measure of frequency of advice to the CEO, even membership of the executive committee was not a significant factor.

That only one gender-related factor emerged in any of the analyses, and that factor may have been more related to interpersonal relationships than gender, reinforces the notion that successful women directors have avoided their gender being a salient characteristic during board discussions. The finding that gender-related factors do not appear to be significant also accords with social identity theory which would immediately place the woman in an outgroup on a typically male-dominated board.

Chapter 7

7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1. Introduction

Boards of directors are a unique group for a psychological study. Corporate boards are the pinnacle of a corporation with no clear superior and must determine business purposes for the corporation below (Mattis, 1997; Sheridan, 2001). The amount of contact board members have with each other between board meetings will vary markedly, with executive directors meeting daily and nonexecutive directors meeting much less frequently, typically monthly or less. Corporate board intragroup ingroup and outgroup dynamics are likely to be complex and transient, with intragroup cohesiveness and intergroup (other board) dynamics likely to be low. In addition to the challenges posed by the unique nature of corporate boards, the study of women in board director positions also requires special attention as described by Fagenson (1990a) with her proposal for a gender-organisation-system approach.

A review of available research on women directors found that while many researchers contributed to the debate regarding the low representation of women directors on boards and the value that women might contribute to boards, many articles were based on secondary data. Of those studies based on primary data, most had proceeded without the grounding of a theoretical framework. Previous research results had often been analysed with limited non-parametric statistical techniques. Burke and Mattis (2000) stressed the importance for future research of developing a theoretical framework for the analysis of gender diversity on corporate boards.

Several theoretical frameworks were considered for the present research program: the Similarity-Attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), Social Contact theory (Blau, 1977; Kanter, 1977), Group Competition perspective (Blalock, 1967), Relative Deprivation (Crosby, 1982), and Social Identity theory (Haslam, 2001; Turner, 1991). Against the challenging demands of

corporate board dynamics, social identity theory was thought most appropriate, with its concept of multiple possible ingroups whose salience is on a continuum between purely interpersonal and purely group-oriented corresponding to the approach described by Fagenson (1990a). Other theories were considered too simplistic for the complexities under study. Both similarity attraction theory and group competition theory offer little for modelling complex group interactions (Tolbert, Graham & Andrews, 1999). Social contact theory neglects the impact of social prestige and status, considered integral to boards with the CEO and Chair and the likelihood that some nonexecutive directors will represent the interests of owners or majority shareholders. Relative deprivation theory contradicts observations of male director's presumed low level of internal satisfaction regarding women and lacks support for analysing gender-related group dynamics. Tolbert et al (1999) also found that social identity was superior as it provided explanations most consistent with previous empirical findings.

An understanding of the functions of corporate boards, the roles of directors, the composition of typical boards, and previous research calling for greater diversity on boards through the acceptance of women directors, were an integral part the research program. The distinction between *executive* directors (also called *inside* directors) and *nonexecutive* directors (also called *outside* directors) was examined. The characteristics of these two types of directors were sufficiently different to constitute two distinct groups within a typical board. In Australia, women are usually nonexecutive directors and are typically in the minority on boards (Korn/Ferry International, 1999).

The research program consisted of five studies. The first was to detail the characteristics of Australian women board directors and validate their profile against the available literature. The next study was to confirm that nonexecutive directors were indeed a distinct group from executive directors. A follow-up study on directors after an interval of several years identified those successful women directors and their characteristics. A study analysing stereotypical perceptions of male and female directors determined the likely salience of male/female group

attitudes. Finally, a study confirmed significant factors in the directors' identification with the board, their perceived ability to contribute, and their behaviour with respect to the CEO along an interpersonal to group-oriented continuum.

7.2. Study 1: Characteristics of Australian Women Board Directors

A study of the characteristics of Australian women board directors was important from at least two viewpoints. Surveys of the characteristics of Australian women directors have relied on relatively small populations of fewer than 50 directors (Korn/Ferry International, 1999; Sheridan, 2001). Comparisons of the characteristics of Australian women directors and reported characteristics of women directors from other countries should help understand the general applicability of the current research program.

Unlike the U.S., where large populations of women directors and board positions are regularly monitored (Mattis, 2000), Australian women directors have received comparatively little attention. Korn/Ferry International invites Australian organisations to participate in regular surveys, but must rely on relatively low numbers of participants. For example, in their 1998 sample, Korn/Ferry International (1999) surveyed 82 organisations, of which there appeared to be about 30 women holding approximately 50 board positions.

The present research program identified 1,859 Australian women company directors using several business directories (e.g., Business Who's Who of Australia, Beck, 1995) and other professional sources (e.g., Professional Nonexecutive Directors Association). A self-report survey mailed out in 1995 received 572 useful responses, however the average board size was only 6 directors and half of the 39% of sample that were executive directors reported that they were owners of the company. The comprehensive search for women directors had apparently captured a large number of small owner-operated businesses. As the research sought larger organisations and larger boards where gender of the director might be a salient discriminating characteristic, responses from women on organisations with boards of four or

less directors were dropped. The resulting 325 women directors held 507 board positions on public (27%), private (30%), government (18%), and not-for-profit (25%) organisations.

Based on available literature covering a similar era, the Australian women directors were compared to women directors from the U.S. (Catalyst, 1993), Canada (Burke, 1994b), the U.K. (Holton, Rabbetts, & Scrivener, 1993), New Zealand (Pajo, McGregor, & Cleland, 1997), and Israel (Talmud & Izraeli, 1998). Women were of similar ages (median ages 41-50) with the exception of U.S. women who appeared to be a little older (median age 50-59). Women appeared to have similar levels of education, with 81-89% being tertiary qualified, with possible differences in Israel (only 68%) and New Zealand (93% tertiary qualified and 83% with postgraduate qualifications). Australian women were usually married (65%), consistent with the U.S. (69%) and Canada (71%), and had similar numbers of children (mode 2, means of 2.4-2.9).

Many additional characteristics of Australian women directors were analysed although they were not readily comparable with available literature. The most frequent managerial level reported was executive (31%), followed by CEO (30%). Most of the women (92%) had been in full-time employment for more than 10 years, but many of them had been in their current occupation (55%) or organisation (62%) for fewer than 10 years. Most of the women (81%) also had fewer than 10 years of senior management experience before their board appointment and 76% had only been on boards for fewer than 10 years. Overall, Australian women directors appeared to be well-educated successful executives who had worked many years in the workforce and had been rewarded with board positions soon after they gained executive status.

7.3. Study 2: Nonexecutive Directors as a Distinct In-Group Category

One of the distinguishing attributes of board directors is whether they are an executive (inside) director or a nonexecutive (outside) director, yet there is little discussion in the literature of differences between executive and nonexecutive women directors. Social identity

theory prompted a consideration of whether the potential distinction between executive directors and nonexecutive directors is truly distinct and is therefore a potentially salient categorisation in the context of the sample of Australian women directors.

Possible salient characteristics of directors about themselves (individual factors), about their relationships with others (interpersonal factors), and their organisational context (organisational factors) were analysed to determine influence on self-perceptions. Logistic regression, testing three hypotheses regarding group membership with different factors, revealed significant differences between nonexecutive and executive directors.

Nonexecutive directors were older, had higher education levels, and had achieved more managerial advancement than executive directors. However, nonexecutive and executive directors did not differ significantly on other human capital variables of work continuity and organisation tenure. Interestingly, CEO experience did not emerge as significant differentiator despite its reported importance (Mattis, 1997). Perhaps CEO experience is not something that many Australian women directors have had, regardless of whether they are executive directors or nonexecutive directors. Australian boards may be selecting women who do not have CEO title but have other relevant experience, like current U.S. practice (Gutner, 2001). Relationships with partners and numbers of dependent children were also not significant. Women nonexecutive directors were more likely to be on boards with a majority of male directors than executive directors, and were more likely to have worked longer with other women board members than executive directors.

While career encouragement was not a significant differentiator, the support of a mentor was significant, with executive directors more likely to have an influential mentor than nonexecutive directors. Organisational structural opportunities were significant in that nonexecutive directors tended to work more in public sector employment, while executive directors were more likely to be managers and administrators than the nonexecutive directors. There was no significant difference between nonexecutive and executive directors on training

and development, although executive directors experienced more challenging work than nonexecutive directors. Nonexecutive directors had enough significant differences from executive directors to be confirmed as a distinct category.

7.4. Study 3: Longitudinal Study of Successful Women Directors

A longitudinal study of women directors was valuable from two aspects. No previous research could be identified that tracked the same sample of women directors over time, and by definition women who remained as board directors for a significant period must be regarded as successful. Previous studies that compared women directors over time were actually samples of organisations over time and the corresponding changes in demographics of the women who served as directors at the time (e.g., Catalyst, 1995a, etc.). Although much is written about the business case for women directors (Daily, Certo & Dalton, 2000), the characteristics of a successful woman director (Bilimoria, 2000), or even a successful man director, remains ill defined (Francis, 1997). However, with the suspicion that some women are appointed as "tokens" (Scherer, 1997), a definition of a successful director has value. For the present research, a simplistic assumption is that women who served as directors over a significant period were successful board members.

Several hypotheses were formulated regarding changes in characteristics that might accrue in the women over the six-year period of the research program. Some characteristics were hypothesised not to change, as their improvement in any respect (e.g., an increase in educational qualifications) may shift the director away from the stereotypical norms of the ingroup. Some other characteristics were hypothesised to change, as any improvement (e.g., promotion to board chair) will be regarded as positive by ingroup norms.

Of the 1995 sample of 572 women directors, 298 women agreed to follow-up research. Six years later, 52 of the women were located and returned surveys, although only 32 of these women were still on boards in 2001. The 32 women in the 2001 sample clearly demonstrated that they were successful board directors, having increased the number of their board

directorships, gained more board chair positions, and gained directorships of larger organisations over the six-year period. The women showed no significant change in their education level, managerial level, employment industry, or the types of organisations of which they were directors. These observations supported the social identity theory that when people perceive themselves to be part of an ingroup, they will not strive to advance themselves in directions that stray from their perceptions of a stereotypical ingroup member (Haslam, 2001).

7.5. Study 4: Stereotypes of Male and Female Directors

Social identity theory suggests that as people adopt the social identity of an ingroup, their individual characteristics will become less salient and they will adopt the views, behaviour, and values of the ingroup (Haslam, 2001). If women directors are truly successful board members, they should share similar perceptions of stereotypes of directors as their male counterparts. Cejka and Eagly (1999) developed a scale providing six stereotypic dimensions that allowed exploration of physical attributes, personality attributes, and cognitive attributes of gender-oriented stereotypes. The Cejka and Eagly scale was applied twice; once in the context of a typical female director and once in the context of a typical male director so that the salience of stereotypical male and female director attributes could be determined.

In addition to the 32 women in the 2001 sample of directors, survey returns from male directors who were solicited by the women directors in the sample allowed a comparison of women and men directors. Men and women agreed on their perceptions of a stereotypical female director except for the masculine cognitive dimension, with women attributing higher masculine cognitive attributes to the stereotypical female director. Men and women also agreed on their perceptions of a stereotypical male director except for the masculine cognitive dimension, with women again attributing higher masculine cognitive attributes. The women apparently had a higher perception of board directors on the masculine cognitive dimension regardless of gender. However, a mixed between-within subjects ANOVA suggested that the

differences between men and women's perceptions of the stereotypes were not significant overall.

Comparisons of women's perceptions between the stereotypes of male and female directors confirmed that the women perceived that both stereotypes were similar on masculine cognitive attributes, but differed on all other attributes. Men however, thought the stereotypes of male and female directors were similar on cognitive and personality attributes, but not physical attributes. Both the men and women perceived that the stereotypes of male and female directors differed on physical attributes and so presumably physical attributes are not salient characteristics for a board director. The men and women disagreed on their perceptions of male and female personality characteristics. However, as the women recruited the men respondents, social desirability may have influenced the men's responses. The men may have unwittingly given different answers from those of the women, thinking that their responses would be complimentary. The men and women also differed on their perceptions of feminine cognitive attributes between male and female stereotypes, so these attributes too were unlikely to be salient. However, the perceptions of both the men and women agreed on masculine cognitive attributes between male and female stereotypes, so these appear to be the salient characteristics for board directors.

The 2001 sample of women directors appeared to perceive themselves as members of the ingroup of board directors as they shared similar perceptions of stereotypes of board directors with men directors. The men and women agreed on their perceptions of male and female director stereotypes, and they agreed that male and female directors would differ on physical attributes and be similar on masculine cognitive attributes. The men directors should regard the 32 women as successful if they conformed to the masculine cognitive attributes of the stereotypes, and accept the women differing on physical attributes.

7.6. Study 5: Nonexecutive Director Social Identity and Influence

Social identification as a board director should be more often salient for nonexecutive directors than executive directors. Executive directors may often consider their salient role as that of a senior executive (CEO or CFO) of the organisation rather than that of board member, and they should be secure in their status as a board director. However, nonexecutive directors may have some ambiguity about themselves with respect to their salient role and their status as members of the ingroup of board directors. In a study of network ties and board influence, Westphal and Milton (2000) chose to focus on the effects of minority status for nonexecutive (outside) directors.

Social identity salience is a continuum between ingroup identity and interpersonal identity (Haslam, 2001). Three measures covered scenarios from the director's social identification with the board as an abstract entity, her perceived capability as a director to contribute to the board, and her frequency of interactions with the CEO in providing advice. Multiple regression allowed confirmation of the types of factors that would contribute to social identification in the three different scenarios. Of particular interest was the contribution, if any, of specific gender-related factors to the social identification of these successful women directors.

Hypotheses based on social identity and self-categorisation theories were supported. The personal characteristics of the director that were common with other group members contributed positively to social identification with the board, whereas increased contact with individual board members was a negative factor. The women's social identity as a board director was a positive contributor to her perceived ability to contribute to the board, whereas interpersonal relationships with other directors were negative factors. However, for her frequency of providing advice to the CEO, the interpersonal factors of the behaviour of the CEO with respect to the board and the breadth of the woman's functional background were positive contributors, whereas social identity with the board was a negative contributor.

No gender-related factors could be found to support any of the three hypotheses under consideration. This finding is consistent with both Mattis (2000), who found that once a woman is appointed to the board her gender ceases to be a salient characteristic, and Burke (2000b), who suggested that women on boards want to be known for their competence on the board rather than their gender. Overall, the results demonstrate the value of social identity theory for consideration of women nonexecutive directors' identity and their potential to influence the board, providing an adequate explanation for perceptions of themselves.

7.7. Limitations of the Research Program

A fundamental limitation with the research program was that all the measures used in the study were self-report items, which are of course subjective and may be inaccurate. Further research might use a variety of other measures to ensure the accuracy of data. For example, secondary data could be analysed to determine the number of and duration of directorships and board composition. Interviews with the women and other directors could confirm the correct interpretation of items and reduce the incidence of socially desirable responses. Qualitative interviews may reveal interpretations of the responses that are not evident from a statistical analysis of the data.

A limitation of the research program was that in concentrating on women directors it gave little attention to comparative men directors. Some of the effects noted in the research are ambiguous as to whether they are peculiar to women or are common to both men and women directors. A broader set of surveys that included equal numbers of men and women directors would have helped distinguish the factors that are unique to women in their attempts at board success.

Following up the women after an interval of six years was a limitation in that many more of them had moved on than had been anticipated, leaving a smaller sample for the longitudinal study than desired. Unfortunately, privacy restrictions prevent the pursuit of women who left their organisation without a forwarding address. Future research that uses a

longitudinal design should consider re-surveying sooner than six years to reduce sample loss and/or specifying additional identifiers (e.g., home address, telephone numbers, e-mail addresses, etc) to allow the women to be traced without violating privacy restrictions.

A limitation of combining a longitudinal study in an exploratory analysis breaking new ground such as the present research program is that items with the most research value could not be foreseen during creation of the first survey in 1995. Although the 1995 survey was based on an understanding of literature at the time, upon analysis of the 1995 data a clearer understanding of Australian women directors and their boards was obtained. Unfortunately for a longitudinal study detection of changes are limited to the items presented in the first survey. For example, the literature reported marital status and numbers of children of women directors and it seemed prudent to include such items on the first survey. Although similar items were included on the 2001 survey, analysis of them only served to confirm expectations that they would change little over the years and had no predictive value regarding the women and their directorships. Subsequent research in the area could learn from the results obtained to date and create new survey instruments that include items of greater value.

An assumption was made in the current research program that the 2001 survey would be reliably understood by the follow-up sample as many of the items followed the 1995 survey. However, numerous new items were added to the 2001 survey that were not pre-tested on women directors before being administered to the follow-up sample. This oversight manifested itself in a lower response rate than was desired to the director stereotype scales, where some of the respondents apparently took offence at some of the trite descriptions (e.g., “dainty” for male directors). A pre-test may have detected this problem and allowed the survey to be constructed in a way that may have overcome respondent resistance (e.g., with instructions that reassured the respondent that this was a generic scale and not to take offence at some descriptions). Future research should avoid this oversight with longitudinal surveys.

In terms of social identity, the present research had a limitation in that it did not have a reliable measure of identification with board directors. The distinction between a director's identification with the board as a salient group and their identification with individual directors is likely to be vital to understanding quality of decision making. A board whose members identify with each other but not the board as a whole may be more likely to make self-serving decisions. Corporate boards are understood to have a prime purpose to make strategic decisions for the good of the organisation and its shareholders, not for the individuals who sit on the board (Lorsch & MacIver, 1989). Future research should attempt to identify a reliable measure of identification with board directors to detect this effect.

7.8. Implications of the Research Program

While the present research does not deal directly with the issue of increasing the number of women on corporate boards that is so common in the research literature (Bilimoria, 2000; Singh & Vinnicombe, 2001) and the popular press (e.g., Eaglesham, 2002; Gutner, 2001), some of the findings here may help women find success. Those women attempting to appear to be more acceptable board candidates should be aware of the need to develop numerous traits that can be used as a basis for establishing social identity. Women should avoid relying too much on interpersonal relationships no matter how valuable they may be in getting initial introductions. Women should be careful about appearing so outstanding that they make the men feel uncomfortable and therefore will not be accepted as part of the ingroup. Women should understand that the phenomenon of outstanding people making groups uncomfortable is not necessarily a gender-related issue; it is a general principle of ingroup categorisation that also applies to outstanding men. By nurturing a broad range of traits that can become salient in different contexts, women can establish and maintain identification with the ingroup despite their gender and other individual differences.

Boards and organisations that are seeking women directors should understand that acceptance of women can occur on a number of different levels. Not all of the board members

have to be CEOs or former CEOs. Potential candidates may have many other attributes such as industry or functional experience and expertise that are sufficient for their acceptance as a board member. Organisations should be wary of candidates who are sponsored by particular directors, including the CEO, but may not have substantial other attributes of value. Organisations need to consider whether the candidate's allegiance will be to the organisation and its board or to the sponsoring director (or CEO).

Although corporate boards and women directors are a novel research area with many atypical group characteristics, the findings of this research program demonstrate that a psychological theory such as social identity theory is applicable. Social identity theory adequately addresses the concerns of Fagenson (1990a) and others (e.g., Bilimoria, 2000) that specific theory to deal with the particular context of women directors might be required, along with the attendant limitations which specific-context theory brings. Women directors, despite being a subject area of some emotional debate, are not significantly different from other psychological subject groups and can be examined within the framework provided by robust psychological principles now available.

7.9. Suggestions for Future Research

The present research program focussed on the personal experiences of women directors. Although, other research has attempted to link directors with organisation performance with little success (Johnson, Daily, & Ellstrand, 1996), a definition of director success other than that used by the present research program of surviving for significant period should be determined. Social identity theory, in proving to be applicable to the study of women corporate directors, might be of value in widening the scope to include more robust measures of success linked to organisation performance.

In addition to attempting to understand the predictors of board success, value is likely to accrue from understanding factors in board failure or lack of success. The women who were no longer board members after a significant period might also be fertile ground for lessons

learnt. A longitudinal study that examines why women are no longer board members may provide just as much insight as a study of "successful" women directors.

The apparent difference in findings between the present research and that of Westphal and Milton (2000) regarding the effect of common board memberships and/or social ties with existing board members should be investigated. It is generally believed that extensive director networking is beneficial to boards (Holton, 2000). However, if as the present research found and social identity theory implies, that interpersonal ties lower identification with the board and perceived ability to contribute, such social ties might be counterproductive. Clarification should be sought as to whether the apparent counterproductive nature of social ties is a phenomenon of women directors or a more general effect that also applies to men directors. This could be a vital issue with a bearing on corporate governance policy.

The lack of detailed research on the topic of corporate board functioning and their directors may have resulted in survey items that were imprecise. The surveys may have felt to some respondents like a "shotgun" approach as its exploratory nature attempted to find items of relevance. It is hoped that future researchers will take the present findings into account to formulate more precise questions in the future with the hope of obtaining a more detailed understanding of women's significant experiences and how they relate to board success.

7.10. Conclusions

The present research program provides a systematic investigation of an unusual phenomenon in Australia – women corporate directors. The primary outcomes have been to identify new information previously unknown about Australian women directors, their boards, factors in their identification with boards, and their perceptions of stereotypical directors. The research also points to the value of social identity and self-categorisation principles as a theoretical underpinning for the research area.

Pynes (2000) describes three objectives of exploratory studies. Firstly, such studies meet the needs of the researcher by satisfying curiosity and desire for understanding.

Secondly, that studies act as a pilot to indicate whether further extensive research is justified. Thirdly, to develop appropriate research methods for the area under consideration.

The present research program seeks to fulfil all the above criteria. The topic arose from the researcher's personal curiosity about Australian women directors. Who are they? What are they like? How do they do their board work in the context of the "boy's club" mentality that is widely believed to dominate boardrooms. The studies in the research program promoted a broader and in depth understanding of the topic and offered some insights as to the differences between women in nonexecutive director and executive director roles.

The sample of women under study appeared similar to women directors in other countries so the results might be applicable internationally. The women were well-educated senior managers who had worked many years in the workforce, gaining board positions soon after their promotion to executive status. Most were not CEOs or former CEOs, suggesting that the requirement that male directors have CEO experience does not necessarily apply to women. Whether the women directors were initially appointed as tokens or not is a moot point, as a reasonable number of them had proven to be successful. The key to their success appeared to be an ability to highlight enough salient characteristics to become accepted as part of the ingroup of board directors, and particularly to display masculine cognitive attributes.

Social identity theory appears to be valuable in analysing director perceptions in an area that has been of great interest to researchers but elusive in achieving firm conclusions. Certain findings of this study should prompt further research, whilst other findings are consistent with previous studies. For example, the finding that interpersonal ties with other directors may be counterproductive to board functioning needs further examination, while the finding that masculine cognitive attributes are salient features of social identity should confirm current understandings. The obtaining of empirical evidence for these findings is a valuable addition to the research on women board directors and a unique application of social identity theory.

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Appendix A. Ethics Approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee

Appendix B. 1995 Letter to Participants

Dear Ms ,

We are contacting you as part of an Australia-wide research project to enhance our understanding of how women advance to Boards of Australian companies. As you are aware, women are currently under-represented on Boards. There is significant interest in having an increased representation of Australian women on Boards, yet there is very little known about the factors which assist Australian women's progression and advancement to Board level. Australian data are needed to enable organisations and individuals to understand and develop strategies for progression to Board level.

We know that you have many demands on your time, but would like to invite you to take a few minutes to enjoy a cup of peppermint tea, collect your thoughts and complete this survey. Even if you are not currently on a Board, or feel some of the questions do not reflect your experiences, please think back to when you were last a member of a Corporate Board and complete this survey. Each response is vital to gaining an understanding of women's experiences in this area.

The results of this research project will provide a clear understanding of what assists and constrains Australian women's progression to Board level. Recommendations could then be developed with respect to practices and strategies which enable women to progress to this level. We hope you can be part of this important research as each individual's information is critical to our explanations.

Although each survey has been allocated a file number, the survey is completely voluntary and confidential. If you are willing to participate, complete privacy is assured. Results will be published only in aggregate form. Your individual information is not available to anyone. We are trying to contact as many women as possible in order to obtain a representative sample. If you know of other women on the Board of your Company or women who are members of other Boards of Directors, please invite them to fax us on (03) 9819-0780 and we could send them a survey.

I hope you can spare some time to help us. It is vital that you complete all sections of the survey.

Yours sincerely

Phyllis Tharenou
Department of Business Management
Faculty of Business & Economics
Monash University

Zena Burgess
PhD Student
Monash University

Appendix C. 1995 Survey Instrument

Opportunities and Experiences of Women Directors:

A National Survey

In Confidence

The responses to this questionnaire will be held in **STRICTEST CONFIDENCE** and data will be published in aggregate form only. The biographical data are crucial to this study and, therefore, we would ask that you complete each question. Please answer the following questions by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response unless otherwise instructed.

SECTION 1 - BACKGROUND

Q.1 What is your sex?

Female 1
Male 2

Q.2 What is your age?

Under 25 years 1
25 to 29 years 2
30 to 34 years 3
35 to 39 years 4
40 to 44 years 5
45 to 49 years 6
50 to 54 years 7
55 to 59 years 8
60 to 64 years 9
65 to 69 years 10
70 to 75 years 11
Over 70 years 12

Q.3 Please indicate your country of birth.

Australia 1
New Zealand 2
Other Oceania countries (eg, Fiji) 3
United Kingdom and Ireland 4
Other European countries 5
The Middle East and North Africa 6
Southeast Asia 7
Northeast Asia 8
Southern Asia 9
USA and Canada 10
The Middle and South Americas 11
Africa 12

Q.4 If you were not born in Australia, please give your year of arrival in Australia.

Arrived prior to 1971 1
Arrived 1971-1975 2
Arrived 1976-1980 3
Arrived 1981-1985 4
Arrived 1986-1990 5
Arrived 1991 to survey date 6
Not applicable 7

Q.5 Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed:

Some secondary school 1
Year 1O/School Certificate/Intermediate 2
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation 3
TAFE College course 4
Undergraduate: ..... Associate Diploma 5
Diploma 6
Degree 7
Postgraduate: ..... Diploma/Honours 8
MBA 9
Masters Degree 10
Doctorate 11

Q.6 What is the title of the first post-secondary qualification you obtained?

.....

Q.7 Do you have qualifications from professional associations (e.g. Australian Institute of Management, Australian Institute of Engineers)

No 1
Yes 2

SECTION 2 - BOARD STATUS

Q.8 Are you currently on a Board of Directors of a company?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.9 How many Boards have you been on, including the present one(s)?

None 1
1 to 2 2
2 to 4 3
5 to 6 4
More than 6 5

Q.10 How many years have you been on Boards of Directors?

0 1
1 to 3 years 2
4 to 6 years 3
7 to 9 years 4
10 to 12 years 5
More than 12 years 6

Q.11 How did you gain Board membership?

Invitation by the Chair 1
Invitation by a Director/Executive 2
Election 3
Ownership of the Company 4
Family affiliation 5
Informal Networking 6
Through Being a Consultant for the Company 7

Q.12 Is the Chairman of the Board a Woman?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.13 For what types of organisations are you a Director?

Publicly listed 1
Public unlisted 2
Private 3
Trust 4
Partnership 5
Statutory authority 6
Not for profit 7

Q.14 How many Directors are there on each of the Board(s) on which you are a member?

	first	*second*	*third*
2 to 4	1	1	1
5 to 7	2	2	2
8 to 10	3	3	3
11 to 13	4	4	4
14 to 16	5	5	5
17 to 19	6	6	6
20 or more	7	7	7

Q.15 Approximately how often do you attend Board meetings?

Weekly 1
Monthly 2
Bi-monthly 3
Quarterly 4
Half-yearly 5
Annually 6

Q.16 How many hours per week (on average) are you involved in Board business?

0 to 5 hours 1
6 to 10 hours 2
11 to 15 hours 3
16 to 20 hours 4
21 to 25 hours 5
26 to 30 hours 6
31 to 35 hours 7
36 to 40 hours 8
More than 40 hours 9

Q.17 What is your position on the Board(s)?

	first	*second*	*third*
Chair - Executive	1	1	1
Chair - Non Executive	2	2	2
Managing Director	3	3	3
Director - Executive	4	4	4
Director - Non Executive	5	5	5
Secretary	6	6	6

Q.18 What is approximately the total number of employees in the organisations for which you serve as a Director?

	first	*second*	*third*
Less than 25	1	1	1
25 to 50	2	2	2
51 to 100	3	3	3
101 to 200	4	4	4
201 to 500	5	5	5
501 to 1000	6	6	6
1001 to 2000	7	7	7
2001 to 4000	8	8	8
4001 to 8000	9	9	9
More than 8000	10	10	10

Q.19 How many years were you in a senior management position prior to accepting Board directorship?

0 to 4 years 1
5 to 9 years 2
10 to 14 years 3
15 to 19 years 4
20 or more years 5

Q.20 Is being a Director of a Company your principal employment?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.21 Please indicate your total annual remuneration range for Board directorship.

Nil 1
Under $2,000 2
$2,000 to $7,000 3
$7,001 to $12,000 4
$12,001 to $17,000 5
$17,001 to $22,000 6
$22,001 to $27,000 7
$27,001 to $32,000 8
$32,001 to $37,000 9
$37,001 to $42,000 10
$42,001 to $47,000 11
Over $47,000 12

Q.22 What is the proportion of men and women on the Board(s)?

	first	*second*	*third*
All women	1	1	1
A majority of women and a minority of men	2	2	2
About 50% women and 50% men	3	3	3
A majority of men and a minority of women	4	4	4
All men	5	5	5

Q.23 If there are other women on the Board, how long have you worked closely with women Board members?

Not at all 1
Less than 1 year 2
1 to 2 years 3
3 to 4 years 4
5 or more years 5
Not applicable 6

SECTION 3 - CAREER SUPPORT

Q.24 Please think of a higher-ranking individual with advanced experience and knowledge who has played the most significant role in the development of your career to the level of Director. Pick only one person; this person can be anyone of your choice. For the person you have selected, indicate their SEX and RELATIONSHIP TO YOU by circling the appropriate numbers from the lists below. Note that in the case of relationship option 5; specify your answer by writing it in the space below the item.

(i) RELATIONSHIP:

Your immediate supervisor 1
Another senior person in your organisation 2
A more senior person outside of your organisation 3
A past boss 4
Another category of person, please specify..... 5

.....

(ii) SEX:

Male 1
Female 2

Q.25 Indicate how long this kind of relationship has lasted with the person you have selected.

Less than 6 months 1
6 months to a year 2
1 to 2 years 3
3 to 4 years 4
5 to 6 years 5
7 to 8 years 6
9 or more years 7

Q.26 Please indicate your extent of agreement with following statements concerning your relationship with this person. This person has had:

		Not at all	*To a small extent*	*To some extent*	*To a large extent*	*To a very large extent*
(i)	Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that presented opportunities to learn new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with managers in different parts of the company.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Given or recommended you for assignments that increased your contact with higher level managers.	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Given or recommended you for assignments that helped you meet new colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Helped you finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Protected you from working with other managers or work units before you knew about their likes/dislikes, options on controversial topics, and the nature of the political environment.	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Gone out of his/her way to promote your career interests.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Kept you informed about what is going on at higher levels in the company or how external conditions are influencing the company.	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	Conveyed feelings of respect for you as an individual.	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	Conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings you have discussed with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety or fears that detract from your work.	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems.	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	Discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	Shared history of his/her career with you.	1	2	3	4	5
(xv)	Encouraged you to prepare for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
(xvi)	Encouraged you to try new ways of behaving on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
(xvii)	Served as a role model.	1	2	3	4	5
(xviii)	Displayed attitudes and values similar to your own.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 4 - HOME FACTORS

Q.27 Are you:

Married 1
Living Together 2
Divorced 3
Separated but not divorced 4
Single 5
Widowed 6

Q.28 For how many dependent children are you responsible?

None 0
One 1
Two 2
Three 3
Four 4
Five 5
Six or more 6

Q.29 Age of dependent children. If not applicable, please circle 5.

	first	second	third
Pre-school age	1	1	1
Primary school age	2	2	2
Secondary school age	3	3	3
Post-school age	4	4	4
No dependent children	5	5	5

Q.30 Do you share financial responsibility for these dependent children and other dependents with anyone else? If not applicable, please circle 6.

No. I do not contribute directly to the finances 1
Yes, partly. I contribute a *minority* 2
Yes, jointly (50/50) 3
Yes, partly. I contribute the *majority* 4
No. I contribute all the finances 5
No dependents 6

Q.31 Does your spouse/partner work in the same industry:

No 1
Yes 2
No spouse/partner 3

Q.32 Please answer each of these questions with respect to your spouse/partner. If not applicable, please circle 6

	Not favourable at all	*Not very favourable*	*Fairly favourable*	*Very favourable*	*Extremely favourable*	*No partner*
(i) How favourable is your partner's attitude to your career?	1	2	3	4	5	6
(ii) How favourable would your partner's attitude be to your being in a senior management positionr?	1	2	3	4	5	6
	None at all	***Not much***	***Some***	***A fair amount***	***A great deal***	***No partner***
(iii) When you have a work problem, how much emotional support are you able to gain from your partner?	1	2	3	4	5	6
(iv) How much does it bother your partner when your work results in less time spent with them?	1	2	3	4	5	6
(v) How much does your partner encourage you in your attempts to further your career?	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Strongly disagree	***Disagree***	***Unsure***	***Agree***	***Strongly agree***	***No partner***
(vi) I could go further ahead in my career if my partner was more supportive of my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
(vii) I would find it easier to coordinate my work and family demands if my partner was more supportive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
(viii) I feel my partner should take on a larger share of the household work/child care activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q.32 (Cont'd) Please answer each of these questions with respect to your spouse/partner. If not applicable, please circle 6

	Not at all willing	*Not very willing*	*Fairly willing*	*Very willing*	*Extremely willing*	*No partner*
(ix) How willing is your partner to accommodate occasional work demands which you may have to do to further your career?	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Not supportive	*Not very supportive*	*Fully supportive*	*Very supportive*	*Extremely supportive*	*No partner*
(x) How supportive is your partner of the development of your career?	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Never	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Often*	*Frequently*	*No partner*
(xi) How often does your partner assist you with domestic responsibilities, such as housework/child care?	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION 5 - WORK HISTORY

Q.33 What is your occupational category?

Manager and administrator 1
Professional 2
Paraprofessional 3
Tradesperson 4
Clerk 5
Salesperson and personal service worker 6
Plant and machine operator and driver 7
Labourer and related worker 8

Q.34 In which industry are you employed?

Mining 1
Manufacturing 2
Electricity, gas and water 3
Construction 4
Wholesale and retail trade 5
Transport and storage 6
Communication 7
Finance, property and business services 8
Public administration and defence 9
Community services 10
Recreation, personal and other services 11

Q.35 Do you work

Greater than 50 hours per week 1
35-50 hours per week 2
20-34 hours per week 3
Not employed 4

Q.36 Are you an owner-manager?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.37 Since leaving full-time education, have you worked as a full-time employee, CONTINUOUSLY, without leaving the workforce?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.38 Have you ever worked part-time?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.39 What is the total duration of breaks you have had from full-time work since leaving full-time education?

No breaks 1
Up to 2 years 2
2 to 5 years 3
5 to 10 years 4
10 or more years 5

Q.40 Would you most describe yourself as a

Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8

Q.41 Would you most describe your LAST FULL TIME POSITION as:

Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8

Q.42 Would you most describe your SECOND LAST FULL TIME POSITION as

Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8

Q.43 Would you most describe your spouse/partner as a:

Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8
Not employed 9
No spouse/partner 10

Q.44 Please indicate the total annual salary range for YOURSELF ALONE IN COLUMN 1 and for your SPOUSE/ PARTNER ALONE IN COLUMN 2. (Circle one response in each column.)

Salary Range	*(1) Self*	*(2) Spouse/Partner*
Under $45,0001	1	
$45,001 - $55,000	2	2
$55,001- $65,000	3	3
$65,001- $75,000	4	4
$75,001- $85,000	5	5
$85,001- $95,000	6	6
$95,001- $105,000	7	7
$105,001- $115,000	8	8
$115,000- $125,000	9	9
Over $125,00010	10	

Q.45a How many years have you been in full-time employment in your present ORGANISATION?

Less than one year 1
1 to 2 years 2
2 to 5 years 3
5 to 10 years 4
10 to 15 years 5
15 to 20 years 6
20 to 25 years 7
25 to 30 years 8
30 to 35 years 9
35 or greater years 10

Q.45b How many years have you been in full-time employment in your present OCCUPATION?

Less than one year 1
1 to 2 years 2
2 to 5 years 3
5 to 10 years 4
10 to 15 years 5
15 to 20 years 6
20 to 25 years 7
25 to 30 years 8
30 to 35 years 9
35 or greater years 10

Q.45c What is the total number of years over your entire lifetime during which you have been a FULL-TIME EMPLOYEE?

Less than one year 1
1 to 2 years 2
2 to 5 years 3
5 to 10 years 4
10 to 15 years 5
15 to 20 years 6
20 to 25 years 7
25 to 30 years 8
30 to 35 years 9
35 or greater years 10

Q.46 What is approximately the total number of employees in the organisation where you work?

Less than 25 1
25 to 50 2
51 to 100 3
101 to 200 4
201 to 500 5
501 to 1000 6
1001 to 2000 7
2001 to 4000 8
4001 to 8000 9
More than 8000 10

Q.47 Are your colleagues/peers in your most immediate work environment where you work:

All female 1
Majority female, minority male 2
About 50% male and 50% female **3**
Majority male, minority female 4
All male 5

Q.48 What is the proportion of men and women in the managerial/supervisory hierarchy in your local organisation? *A hierarchy consists of at least one management level who supervise staff.*

All women 1
A majority of women and a minority of men 2
About 50% women and 50% men 3
A majority of men and a minority of women 4
All men 5

Q.49 Is the Chief Executive Officer of the organisation where you work a woman?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.50 Have there been women appointed to the same level as your own within your organisation?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.51 Have the previous occupants of your position usually been women?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.52 Were you the first woman to be appointed to this position?

No 1
Yes 2

Q.53 When was the first time your position was occupied by a woman?

Less than 1 year ago 1
1 to 2 years ago 2
3 to 5 years ago 3
6 to 9 years ago 4
10 to 16 years ago 5
Over 16 years ago 6

Q.54 How long have you worked closely with a woman manager in your organisation?

Not worked with a woman manager 1
Less than 12 months 2
1 up to 2 years 3
2 up to 4 years 4
4 or more years 5

SECTION 6 - CAREER PROGRESSION AND DEVELOPMENT

Q.55 How many promotions have you had in your career? (None is 1, one/two is 2, etc) ***A promotion is an increase in job responsibility, scope, authority, or level either WITHIN OR OUTSIDE your organisation.***

Zero promotions 1
One/Two promotions 2
Three/Four promotions 3
Five/Six promotions 4
Seven/Eight promotions 5
Nine or more promotions 6

Q.56 Over your career, how many supervisory or managerial promotions have you had? ***These are promotions where you move up the supervisory/managerial hierarchy,- eg from middle level manager to senior level manager***

Zero promotions 1
One/Two promotions 2
Three/Four promotions 3
Five/Six promotions 4
Seven/Eight promotions 5
Nine or more promotions 6

Q.57 Over your career, have you mostly gained senior management experience through

Line management experience 1
Staff management experience 2
Equally through line and staff positions 3

Q.58 Please indicate how often each of these has happened to you.

	Never	*One or two times*	*Three or four times*	*Five or six times*	*Seven or eight times*	*Nine or ten times*	*Eleven or more times*
(i) How many times in your career have you interviewed staff for selection/promotion?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) How many times in your career have you participated in conferences or industry meetings or any other outside meetings as a representative of your organisation/department?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) How many times in your career have you served on committees of any type within your organisation/department?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) How many times in your career have you attended management training/development courses run by outside organisations/departments?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) How many times in your career have you attended management training/development courses run by your organisation/department?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) How often have you acted for 3 months or more in a higher position in your career?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vii) When you first entered your present job, to what extent were you involved in challenging work assignments? (ie, in the first 3 months in present job)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(viii) How often has your present job since then involved challenging work assignments?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ix) To what extent has a person more senior in position than yourself inside your organisation encouraged you in your career development? (eg, in promotion or advancement within or outside your organisation/department?)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(x) To what extent have colleague(s) at the same level as yourself within your organisation/department encouraged you in your career development? (eg, in promotion or advancement within your organisation/ department)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xi) To what extent have you been encouraged by others in your organisation to apply for, or express interest in, promotion when opportunities become available?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 7 - HOW I SEE MYSELF

Q.59 Below is a sheet of characteristics. Please use these characteristics in order to describe yourself; that is, please circle on a scale from 1 to 7 how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

		Never or almost never	*Usually not true*	*Sometimes but infrequently true*	*Occasionally true*	*Often true*	*Usually true*	*Always or almost always true*
(i)	Defend my own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii)	Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii)	Conscientious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv)	Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v)	Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi)	Moody	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vii)	Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(viii)	Sensitive to needs of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ix)	Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(x)	Strong personality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xi)	Understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xii)	Unsystematic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiii)	Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiv)	Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xv)	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xvi)	Have leadership abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xvii)	Eager to soothe hurt feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xviii)	Secretive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xix)	Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xx)	Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxi)	Adaptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxii)	Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxiii)	Tender	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxiv)	Solemn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxv)	Willing to take a stand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxvi)	Loyal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxvii)	Tactful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxviii)	Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxix)	Gentle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xxx)	Conventional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 8 - TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Q.60 Please read each statement carefully, then indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling your preferred response.

		Strongly Disagree	*Somewhat Disagree*	*Neutral*	*Somewhat Agree*	*Strongly Agree*
(i)	Participating in training programs will help my personal development.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Participating in training programs will increase my chances of getting a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Participating in training programs will help me obtain a salary increase.	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Participating in training programs will help me perform my job better.	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Participating in training programs will result in having to do extra work without being rewarded for it.	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Participating in training programs will result in more opportunities to pursue different career paths.	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Participating in training programs will lead to more respect from my peers.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Participating in training programs will give me a better idea of the career path I want to pursue.	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	Participating in training programs will help me reach my career objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	Participating in training programs will help me network with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Participating in training programs will help me stay up to date on new processes, products or procedures relating to my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Q.61 In which State do you live?

New South Wales 1
Victoria 2
Queensland 3
South Australia 4
Western Australia 5
Tasmania 6
Australian Capital Territory 7
Northern Territory 8

Q.62 In which location do you work?

Rural 1
Metropolitan 2

Appendix D. Alphabetical List of 1995 Survey Items and Derived Variables

Name	***Description***
Age of dependent children	Q.29 "Age of dependent children. If not applicable please circle 5." 1 (*Pre-school age*) 2 (*Primary school age*) 3 (*Secondary school age*) 4 (*Post-school age*) 5 (*No dependent children*)
Basis of recruitment	Q.11 "How did you gain board membership?" 1 (*Invitation by the chair*) 5 (*Family affiliation*) 2 (*Invitation by director/executive*) 6 (*Informal networking*) 3 (*Election*) 7 (*Through being a consultant to the company*) 4 (*Ownership of the company*)
Board chair gender	Q.12 "Is the Chairman of the Board a Woman?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Board corporation type	Q.13 "For what types of organisations are you a Director?" 1 (*Publicly listed*) 3 (*Private*) 5 (*Partnership*) 7 (*Not for profit*) 2 (*Public unlisted*) 4 (*Trust*) 6 (*Statutory authority*)
Board gender proportion	Q.22 "What is the proportion of men and women on the Board(s)?" 1 (*All women*) 2 (*A majority of women and a minority of men*) 3 (*About 50% women and 50% men*) 4 (*A majority of men and a minority of women*) 5 (*All men*)
Board directors	Q.14 "How many Directors are there on each of the Board(s) on which you are a member?" 1 (*2 to 4*) 3 (*8 to 10*) 5 (*14 to 16*) 7 (*20 or more*) 2 (*5 to 7*) 4 (*11 to 13*) 6 (*17 to 19*)
Board employees	Q.18 "What is approximately the total number of employees in the organisations for which you serve as a Director?" 1 (*Less than 25*) 4 (*101 to 200*) 7 (*1001 to 2000*) 10 (*More than 8000*) 2 (*25 to 50*) 5 (*201 to 500*) 8 (*2001 to 4000*) 3 (*51 to 100*) 6 (*501 to 1000*) 9 (*4001 to 8000*)
Board meeting frequency	Q.15 "Approximately how often do you attend Board meetings?" 1 (*Weekly*) 3 (*Bi-monthly*) 5 (*Half-yearly*) 2 (*Monthly*) 4 (*Quarterly*) 6 (*Annually*)
Career encouragement	Q.58 A scale derived from three 7-point items measuring frequency from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*eleven or more times*). The three items were: (ix) To what extent has a person more senior in position than yourself inside your organisation encouraged you in your career development (eg, in promotion or advancement within or outside your organisation/department)? (x) To what extent have colleague(s) at the same level as yourself within your organisation/department encouraged you in your career development (eg, in promotion or advancement within your organisation/ department)? (xi) To what extent have you been encouraged by others in your organisation to apply for, or express interest in, promotion when opportunities become available?
Career promotions	Q.55 "How many promotions have you had in your career?" 1 (*Zero promotions*) 3 (*Three/four promotions*) 5 (*Seven/eight promotions*) 2 (*One/two promotions*) 4 (*Five/six promotions*) 6 (*Nine or more promotions*)
Career tenure	A heading for a combination of the three items *Employment tenure*, *Occupation tenure*, and *Organisation tenure*.

Name	***Description***
CEO experience	A dichotomous variable representing the occurrence of *Chief Executive Officer* as a response to either of *Managerial level of current position*, *Managerial level of last position*, or *Managerial level of second-last position*.
Challenging work	Q.58 A scale derived from two 7-point items measuring frequency from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*eleven or more times*). The items were: (vii) When you first entered your present job, to what extent were you involved in challenging work assignments? (ie, in the first 3 months in present job) (viii) How often has your present job since then involved challenging work assignments?
Continuous full-time employment	Q.37 "Since leaving full-time education, have you worked as a full-time employee, continuously, without leaving the workforce?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Country of birth	Q.3 "Please indicate your country of birth." 1 (*Australia*) 7 (*South-east Asia*) 2 (*New Zealand*) 8 (*North-east Asia*) 3 (*Other Oceania countries, eg, Fiji*) 9 (*Southern Asia*) 4 (*United Kingdom and Ireland*) 10 (*USA and Canada*) 5 (*Other European countries*) 11 (*Middle and South Americas*) 6 (*Middle East and North Africa*) 12 (*Africa*)
Current board member	Q.8 "Are you currently on a Board of Directors of a company?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Director age	Q.2 "What is your age?" 1 (*Under 25 years*) 4 (*35 to 39 years*) 7 (*50 to 54 years*) 10 (*65 to 69 years*) 2 (*25 to 29 years*) 5 (*40 to 44 years*) 8 (*55 to 59 years*) 11 (*70 to 75 years*) 3 (*30 to 34 years*) 6 (*45 to 49 years*) 9 (*60 to 64 years*) 12 (*Over 70 years*)
Director board obligations	A heading for a combination of the two items *Board meeting frequency* and *Director time commitment*.
Director position	Q.17 "What is your position on the Board(s)?" 1 (*Chair - Executive*) 3 (*Managing Director*) 5 (*Director - Non Executive*) 2 (*Chair - Non Executive*) 4 (*Director - Executive*) 6 (*Secretary*)
Director time commitment	Q.16 "How many hours per week (on average) are you involved in Board business?" 1 (*0 to 5 hours*) 4 (*16 to 20 hours*) 7 (*31 to 35 hours*) 2 (*6 to 10 hours*) 5 (*21 to 25 hours*) 8 (*36 to 40 hours*) 3 (*11 to 15 hours*) 6 (*26 to 30 hours*) 9 (*More than 40 hours*)
Director type	A dichotomous variable formed by collapsing the *Director position* responses of *Chair - Executive*, *Managing Director*, *Director - Executive*, and *Secretary* into a category of *Executive Director*, and the responses of *Chair - Non Executive* and *Director - Non Executive* into a category of *Nonexecutive Director*.
Employment CEO gender	Q.49 "Is the Chief Executive Officer of the organisation where you work a woman?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Employment industry	Q.34 "In which industry are you employed?" 1 (*Mining*) 7 (*Communication*) 2 (*Manufacturing*) 8 (*Finance, property and business services*) 3 (*Electricity, gas and water*) 9 (*Public administration and defence*) 4 (*Construction*) 10 (*Community services*) 5 (*Wholesale and retail trade*) 11 (*Recreation, personal and other services*) 6 (*Transport and storage*)

Name	***Description***
Employment employees	Q.46 "What is approximately the total number of employees in the organisation where you work?" 1 (*Less than 25*) 4 (*101 to 200*) 7 (*1001 to 2000*) 10 (*More than 8000*) 2 (*25 to 50*) 5 (*201 to 500*) 8 (*2001 to 4000*) 3 (*51 to 100*) 6 (*501 to 1000*) 9 (*4001 to 8000*)
Employment sector	Derived by collapsing the employment industries of *Mining*, *Manufacturing*, *Electricity, gas and water*, *Construction*, *Wholesale and retail trade*, *Transport and storage*, *Communication*, *Finance, property and business services*, and *Recreation, personal and other services* to a category of *Private sector*, and the industries of *Public administration and defence* and *Community services* to a category of *Public sector*.
Employment tenure	Q.45c "What is the total number of years over your entire lifetime during which you have been a full-time employee?" 1 (*Less than one year*) 5 (*10 to 15 years*) 9 (*30 to 35 years*) 2 (*1 to 2 years*) 6 (*15 to 20 years*) 10 (*35 or greater years*) 3 (*2 to 5 years*) 7 (*20 to 25 years*) 4 (*5 to 10 years*) 8 (*25 to 30 years*)
Financial responsibility for dependent children	Q.30 "Do you share financial responsibility for these dependent children and other dependents with anyone else?" 1 (*No. I do not contribute directly to finances*) 4 (*Yes, mostly. I contribute the majority*) 2 (*Yes, partly. I contribute a minority*) 5 (*No. I contribute all the finances*) 3 (*Yes, jointly – 50/50*) 6 (*No dependents*)
Highest level of education	Q.5 "Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed." 1 (*Some secondary school*) 7 (*Undergraduate: Degree*) 2 (*Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate*) 8 (*Postgraduate: Diploma/Honours*) 3 (*Year 12/HSC/ Leaving/Matriculation*) 9 (*Postgraduate: MBA*) 4 (*TAFE College course*) 10 (*Postgraduate: Masters Degree*) 5 (*Undergraduate: Associate Diploma*) 11 (*Postgraduate: Doctorate*) 6 (*Undergraduate: Diploma*)
Immigration year	Q.4 "If you were not born in Australia, please give your year of arrival in Australia." 1 (*Arrived prior to 1971*) 4 (*Arrived 1981-1985*) 7 (*Not applicable*) 2 (*Arrived 1971-1975*) 5 (*Arrived 1986-1990*) 3 (*Arrived 1976-1980*) 6 (*Arrived 1991 to survey date*)
Interval since first woman in director's organisation position	Q.53 "When was the first time your position was occupied by a woman?" 1 (*Less than 1 year ago*) 3 (*3 to 5 years ago*) 5 (*10 to 16 years ago*) 2 (*1 to 2 years ago*) 4 (*6 to 9 years ago*) 6 (*Over 16 years ago*)
Male managerial hierarchy	A scale derived from the three items of *Managerial gender proportion*, *Work colleagues gender proportion*, and *Employment CEO gender*.
Male-stereotyped position	A scale derived from the three items of *Women previously appointed to director's organisation level*, *Women previously appointed to director's organisation position*, and *Women usually occupy director's organisation position*.
Managerial advancement	A scale derived from the six items of *Managerial level of current position*, *Managerial level of last position*, *Managerial level of second-last position, Managerial promotions, Career promotions* and *Total annual salary*.
Managerial experience type	Q.57 "Over your career, have you mostly gained senior management experience through:" 1 (*Line management experience*) 3 (*Equally through line and staff positions*) 2 (*Staff management experience*)

Name	***Description***
Managerial gender proportion	Q.48 "What is the proportion of men and women in the managerial/supervisory hierarchy in your local organisation?"
	1 (*All women*) 2 (*A majority of women and a minority of men*) 3 (*About 50% women and 50% men*) 4 (*A majority of men and a minority of women*) 5 (*All men*)
Managerial level of current position	Q.40 "Would you most describe yourself as a:" 1 *Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager – you do not delegate work to any others* 2 *Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman* 3 *Lower Level Manager* 5 *Senior Level Manager* 7 *Divisional Head* 4 *Middle Level Manager* 6 *Executive* 8 *Chief Executive Officer*
Managerial level of last position	Q.41 "Would you most describe your last full time position as:" 1 *Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager – you do not delegate work to any others* 2 *Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman* 3 *Lower Level Manager* 5 *Senior Level Manager* 7 *Divisional Head* 4 *Middle Level Manager* 6 *Executive* 8 *Chief Executive Officer*
Managerial level of partner	Q.43 "Would you most describe your spouse/partner as a:" 1 *Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager – you do not delegate work to any others* 2 *Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman* 3 *Lower Level Manager* 6 *Executive* 9 *Not employed* 4 *Middle Level Manager* 7 *Divisional Head* 10 *No spouse/partner* 5 *Senior Level Manager* 8 *Chief Executive Officer*
Managerial level of second-last position	Q.42 "Would you most describe your second last full time position as:" 1 *Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager – you do not delegate work to any others* 2 *Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman* 3 *Lower Level Manager* 5 *Senior Level Manager* 7 *Divisional Head* 4 *Middle Level Manager* 6 *Executive* 8 *Chief Executive Officer*
Managerial promotions	Q.56 "Over your career, how many supervisory or managerial promotions have you had?" 1 (*Zero promotions*) 3 (*Three/four promotions*) 5 (*Seven/eight promotions*) 2 (*One/two promotions*) 4 (*Five/six promotions*) 6 (*Nine or more promotions*)
Mentor support	Q.26 A scale derived from eighteen 5-point items from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*to a very large extent*) measuring the respondent's extent of agreement with statements concerning their relationship with a mentor. The items listed below had the preface "This person has". (i) Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that presented opportunities to learn new skills. (ii) Given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with managers in different parts of the company. (iii) Given or recommended you for assignments that increased your contact with higher level managers. (iv) Given or recommended you for assignments that helped you meet new colleagues. (v) Helped you finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete. (vi) Protected you from working with other managers or work units before you knew about their likes/dislikes, options on controversial topics, and the nature of the political environment. (vii) Gone out of his/her way to promote your career interests. (viii) Kept you informed about what is going on at higher levels in the company or how external conditions are influencing the company. (ix) Conveyed feelings of respect for you as an individual. (x) Conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings you have discussed with him/her. (xi) Encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety or fears that detract from your work. (xii) Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems.

Name	***Description***
Mentor support (cont.)	(xiii) Discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts. (xiv) Shared history of his/her career with you. Encouraged you to prepare for advancement. (xv) Encouraged you to try new ways of behaving on the job. (xvi) Served as a role model. (xvii) Displayed attitudes and values similar to your own.
Number of dependent children	Q.28 "For how many dependent children are you responsible?" 0 (*None*) 2 (*Two*) 4 (*Four*) 6 (*Six or more*) 1 (*One*) 3 (*Three*) 5 (*Five*)
Occupation category	Q.33 "What is your occupational category?" 1 (*Manager and administrator*) 5 (*Clerk*) 2 (*Professional*) 6 (*Salesperson and personal service worker*) 3 (*Paraprofessional*) 7 (*Plant and machine operator and driver*) 4 (*Tradesperson*) 8 (*Labourer and related worker*)
Occupation tenure	Q.45b "How many years have you been in full-time employment in your present occupation?" 1 (*Less than one year*) 5 (*10 to 15 years*) 9 (*30 to 35 years*) 2 (*1 to 2 years*) 6 (*15 to 20 years*) 10 (*35 or greater years*) 3 (*2 to 5 years*) 7 (*20 to 25 years*) 4 (*5 to 10 years*) 8 (*25 to 30 years*)
Organisation tenure	Q.45a "How many years have you been in full-time employment in your present organisation?" 1 (*Less than one year*) 5 (*10 to 15 years*) 9 (*30 to 35 years*) 2 (*1 to 2 years*) 6 (*15 to 20 years*) 10 (*35 or greater years*) 3 (*2 to 5 years*) 7 (*20 to 25 years*) 4 (*5 to 10 years*) 8 (*25 to 30 years*)
Partner accommodates occasional work demands	Q.32 (ix) "How willing is your partner to accommodate occasional work demands which you may have to do to further your career?" 1 *Not at all willing* 3 *Fairly willing* 5 *Extremely willing* 2 *Not very willing* 4 *Very willing* 6 *No partner*
Partner annual salary	Q.44 (2) "Please indicate the total annual salary range for your spouse/partner." 1 (*Under $45,001*) 5 (*$75,001- $85,000*) 9 (*$115,000- $125,000*) 2 (*$45,001 - $55,000*) 6 (*$85,001- $95,000*) 10 (*Over $125,000*) 3 (*$55,001- $65,000*) 7 (*$95,001- $105,000*) 4 (*$65,001- $75,000*) 8 (*$105,001- $115,000*)
Partner assists with domestic responsibilities	Q.32 (xi) "How often does your partner assist you with domestic responsibilities, such as housework/child care?" 1 (*Never*) 3 (*Sometimes*) 5 (*Frequently*) 2 (*Occasionally*) 4 (*Often*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner bothered by reduced time together	Q.32 (iv) "How much does it bother your partner when your work results in less time spent with them?" 1 (*None at all*) 3 (*Some*) 5 (*A great deal*) 2 (*Not much*) 4 (*A fair amount*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner encourages career advancement	Q.32 (v) "How much does your partner encourage you in your attempts to further your career?" 1 (*None at all*) 3 (*Some*) 5 (*A great deal*) 2 (*Not much*) 4 (*A fair amount*) 6 (*No partner*)

Name	***Description***
Partner favourable to career	Q.32 (i) "How favourable is your partner's attitude to your career?" 1 (*Not favourable at all*) 3 (*Fairly favourable*) 5 (*Extremely favourable*) 2 (*Not very favourable*) 4 (*Very favourable*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner favourable to senior management position	Q.32 (ii) "How favourable would your partner's attitude be to your being in a senior management position?" 1 (*Not favourable at all*) 3 (*Fairly favourable*) 5 (*Extremely favourable*) 2 (*Not very favourable*) 4 (*Very favourable*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner in the same industry	Q.31 "Does your spouse/partner work in the same industry?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*) 3 (*No spouse/partner*)
Partner provides emotional support	Q.32 (iii) "When you have a work problem, how much emotional support are you able to gain from your partner?" 1 (*None at all*) 3 (*Some*) 5 (*A great deal*) 2 (*Not much*) 4 (*A fair amount*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner relationship	Q.27 "Are you:" 1 (*Married*) 4 (*Separated, but not divorced*) 2 (*Living together*) 5 (*Single*) 3 (*Divorced*) 6 (*Widowed*)
Partner reluctant with domestic responsibilities	Q.32 (viii) "I feel my partner should take on a larger share of the household work/child care activity." 1 (*Strongly disagree*) 3 (*Unsure*) 5 (*Strongly Agree*) 2 (*Disagree*) 4 (*Agree*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner supportive of career development	Q.32 (x) "How supportive is your partner of the development of your career?" 1 (*Not supportive*) 3 (*Fairly supportive*) 5 (*Extremely supportive*) 2 (*Not very supportive*) 4 (*Very supportive*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner unsupportive of career	Q.32 (vi) "I could go further ahead in my career if my partner was more supportive of my career." 1 (*Strongly disagree*) 3 (*Unsure*) 5 (*Strongly Agree*) 2 (*Disagree*) 4 (*Agree*) 6 (*No partner*)
Partner unsupportive of work and family demands	Q.32 (vii) "I would find it easier to coordinate my work and family demands if my partner was more supportive." 1 (*Strongly disagree*) 3 (*Unsure*) 5 (*Strongly Agree*) 2 (*Disagree*) 4 (*Agree*) 6 (*No partner*)
Part-time work	Q.38 "Have you ever worked part-time?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Principal employment is board directorship	Q.20 "Is being a director of a company your principal employment?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Senior management years	Q.19 "How many years were you in a senior management position prior to accepting Board directorship?" 1 (*0 to 4 years*) 3 (*10 to 14 years*) 5 (*20 or more years*) 2 (*5 to 9 years*) 4 (*15 to 19 years*)
Total annual salary	Q.44 (1) "Please indicate the total annual salary range for yourself." 1 (*Under $45,001*) 5 (*$75,001- $85,000*) 9 (*$115,000- $125,000*) 2 (*$45,001 - $55,000*) 6 (*$85,001- $95,000*) 10 (*Over $125,000*) 3 (*$55,001- $65,000*) 7 (*$95,001- $105,000*) 4 (*$65,001- $75,000*) 8 (*$105,001- $115,000*)

Name	***Description***
Total directorship remuneration	Q.21 "Please indicate your total annual remuneration range for Board directorship." 1 (*Nil*) 5 (*$12,001 to $17,000*) 9 (*$32,001 to $37,000*) 2 (*Under $2,000*) 6 (*$17,001 to $22,000*) 10 (*$37,001 to $42,000*) 3 (*$2,000 to $7,000*) 7 (*$22,001 to $27,000*) 11 (*$42,001 to $47,000*) 4 (*$7,001 to $12,000*) 8 (*$27,001 to $32,000*) 12 (*Over $47,000*)
Total directorship years	Q.10 "How many years have you been on Boards of Directors?" 1 (*Less than 1 year*) 3 (*4 to 6 years*) 5 (*10 to 12 years*) 2 (*1 to 3 years*) 4 (*7 to 9 years*) 6 (*More than 12 years*)
Total directorships	Q.9 "How many Boards have you been on, including the present one(s)?" 1 (*None*) 3 (*2 to 4*) 5 (*More than 6*) 2 (*1 to 2*) 4 (*5 to 6*)
Total duration of work breaks	Q.39 "What is the total duration of breaks you have had from full-time work since leaving full-time education?" 1 (*No breaks*) 3 (*2 to 5 years*) 5 (*10 or more years*) 2 (*Up to 2 years*) 4 (*5 to 10 years*)
Training and development	Q.58 A scale derived from six 7-point items measuring frequency from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*eleven or more times*). The items were: (i) How many times in your career have you interviewed staff for selection/promotion? (ii) How many times in your career have you participated in conferences or industry meetings or any other outside meetings as a representative of your organisation/department? (iii) How many times in your career have you served on committees of any type within your organisation/department? (iv) How many times in your career have you attended management training/development courses run by outside organisations/departments? (v) How many times in your career have you attended management training/development courses run by your organisation/department? (vi) How often have you acted for 3 months or more in a higher position in your career?
Women previously appointed to director's organisation level	Q.50 "Have there been women appointed to the same level as your own within your organisation?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Women previously appointed to director's organisation position	Q.52 "Were you the first woman to be appointed to this position?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Women usually occupy director's organisation position	Q.51 "Have the previous occupants of your position usually been women?" 1 (*No*) 2 (*Yes*)
Work colleagues gender proportion	Q.47 "Are your colleagues/peers in your most immediate work environment where you work:" 1 (*All female*) 4 (*Majority male, minority female*) 2 (*Majority female, minority male*) 5 (*All male*) 3 (*About 50% male and 50% female*)
Work continuity	A scale derived from the three items of *Continuous full-time employment*, *Part-time work*, and *Total annual salary*.
Years worked with women directors	Q.23 "If there are other women on the Board, how long have you worked closely with women Board members?" 1 (*Not at all*) 3 (*1 to 2 years*) 5 (*5 or more years*) 2 (*Less than 1 year*) 4 (*3 to 4 years*) 6 (*Not applicable*)

Name	***Description***
Years worked with women managers	Q.54 "How long have you worked closely with a woman manager in your organisation?" 1 (*Not worked with a woman manager*) 4 (*2 up to 4 years*) 2 (*Less than 12 months*) 3 (*1 up to 2 years*) 5 (*4 or more years*)

Appendix E. 2001 Women Participants Letters and Consent Forms

INFORMATION LETTER TO FEMALE PARTICIPANTS

Title of Project: Experiences and Influences of Board Directors

Staff Supervisor: Professor Barry Fallon

Student Researcher: Zena Burgess

Programme In Which Enrolled: Psychology PhD

Dear female corporate director,

Six years ago you responded to a survey on Opportunities and Experiences of Women Directors: A National Survey in which you agreed to participate in follow-up research. Now we are contacting you again as part of an Australia-wide research project to enhance the understanding of board directors of Australian corporations.

This Australian data will help individuals and organisation understand and develop strategies for progression of directors at board level. The results of the research project will provide a clearer understanding of the types of experiences that are factors in board appointments, perceptions of board director roles and sources of influential power on corporate boards. Formulation of recommendations with respect to practices and strategies that help board members maximise their effectiveness on a board may be possible.

Enclosed are two surveys together with return envelopes, one for yourself and a shorter one with an introductory letter and consent form that I would like you to give to a male director that you share a board with. The appropriate introductory letters and surveys should be easy to identify as being labelled for female and male. Completion of the survey for female directors should take about 15 minutes of your time to complete, while the one for male directors should only take 10 minutes.

Research participation is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential. Results will only be published in aggregate form making it impossible to identify any individual. Although we are keen for you to contribute to the research project, you are free to refuse to participate without any reason or withdraw consent to any possible follow up at any time with giving a reason.

Questions regarding this project should be directed to the Supervisor, Professor Barry Fallon, on (03) 9953 3108 in the School of Psychology, St Patrick's Campus, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065, or the Researcher, Zena Burgess, care of Professor Barry Fallon at the above address.

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University.

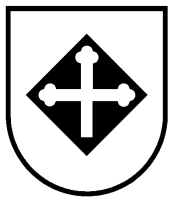
In the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisor and Researcher has (have) not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee, care of Research Services, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065 (telephone 03 9953 3157, fax 03 9953 3305). Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Researcher.

Yours sincerely,

……..
Zena Burgess
Researcher

……..
Professor Barry Fallon
Supervisor



Australian Catholic University

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: Experiences and Influences of Board Directors

Staff Supervisor: Professor Barry Fallon

Student Researcher: Zena Burgess

I ..... *(the participant)* have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT: .....
(block letters)

SIGNATURE ..... DATE .....

SIGNATURE OF SUPERVISOR: .....

DATE:……..

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER: .....

DATE:.....…….

Title of Project: Experiences and Influences of Board Directors
Staff Supervisor: Professor Barry Fallon
Student Researcher: Zena Burgess
Programme In Which Enrolled: Psychology PhD

Dear female corporate director,

Two weeks ago you should have received an invitation to participate in a research project on Opportunities and Experiences of Women Directors. This research continues a study you participated in six years ago and indicated you were interested in a followup. We have not yet received a response from you and would encourage you to send your response by return mail as soon as possible. If you have already returned your survey in the last few days we sincerely appreciate your willingness to assist our research. If you have misplaced your survey please contact myself or Professor Fallon via the Australian Catholic University.

This Australian data will help individuals and organisation understand and develop strategies for progression of directors at board level. The results of the research project will provide a clearer understanding of the types of experiences that are factors in board appointments, perceptions of board director roles and sources of influential power on corporate boards. Formulation of recommendations with respect to practices and strategies that help board members maximise their effectiveness on a board may be possible.

Research participation is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential. Results will only be published in aggregate form making it impossible to identify any individual. Although we are keen for you to contribute to the research project, you are free to refuse to participate without any reason or withdraw consent to any possible follow up at any time with giving a reason.

Questions regarding this project should be directed to the Supervisor, Professor Barry Fallon, on (03) 9953 3108 in the School of Psychology, St Patrick's Campus, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065, or the Researcher, Zena Burgess, care of Professor Barry Fallon at the above address.

Yours sincerely,

.....	.....
Zena Burgess	Professor Barry Fallon
Researcher	Supervisor

Appendix F. 2001 Survey Instrument for Women Participants

Experiences and Influences of Women Directors:

A National Survey

In Confidence

The responses to this questionnaire will be held in **STRICTEST CONFIDENCE** and data will be published in aggregate form only. The biographical data are crucial to this study and, therefore, we would ask that you complete each question. Please answer the following questions by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response or responses, or writing a number in the box supplied.

Q.1 Are you currently on a Board of Directors?
No 1
Yes 2

Q.2 If the answer to Q.1 was No, then why are you no longer on a Board of Directors?
Career change 1
Not reappointed 2
Retired 3
Personal reasons 4
Other reasons 5

If you are no longer on a Board of Directors, do not answer any more questions, but please return the survey so that we know that you are no longer on any Boards.

SECTION 1 – PERSONAL BACKGROUND

Q.3 What is your age? .....

Q.4 Have you completed a university degree?
No 1
Yes 2

Q.5 Do you have an MBA or similar advanced management degree?
No 1
Yes 2

Q.6 Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed:
Some secondary school 1
Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate 2
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation 3
TAFE College course 4
Undergraduate: ..... Associate Diploma 5
Diploma 6
Degree 7
Postgraduate: ..... Diploma/Honours 8
MBA 9
Masters Degree 10
Doctorate 11

SECTION 2 – FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

Q.7 What relationship with a partner do you have?
Married 1
Living Together 2
Divorced 3
Separated but not divorced 4
Single 5
Widowed 6

Q.8 How many children do you have? .....

Q.9 If you have children, what are their ages? Please mark all that apply.
Pre-school age 1
Primary school age 2
Secondary school age 3
Post-secondary school age 4
Fully independent 5

Q.10 Do you have financial responsibility for any dependents (children or anyone else)? Please indicate your share of financial responsibility.
No. I do not contribute directly to the finances 1
Yes, partly. I contribute a minority 2
Yes, jointly (50/50) 3
Yes, mostly. I contribute the majority 4
I contribute all the finances 5
No financial dependents 6

SECTION 3 – EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

Q.11 In which industry are you employed?
Mining 1
Manufacturing 2
Electricity, gas and water 3
Construction 4
Wholesale and retail trade 5
Transport and storage 6
Communication 7
Finance, property and business services 8
Public administration and defence 9
Community services 10
Recreation, personal and other services 11

Q.12 Which terms best describe your functional backgrounds? Please mark all that apply.
Marketing 1
Sales 2
Operations 3
Research and development 4
Engineering 5
Law 6
Finance 7
Accounting 8
Other 9

Q.13 Would you most describe yourself as a:
Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8

Q.14 Is the Chief Executive Officer where you are employed a woman?
No 1
Yes 2

Q.15 What is the total number of employees in the organisation where you work?

Less than 25 1
25 to 50 2
51 to 100 3
101 to 200 4
201 to 500 5
501 to 1000 6
1001 to 2000 7
2001 to 4000 8
4001 to 8000 9
More than 8000 10

Q.16 Please indicate your total annual employment salary (not including remuneration from Boards).

Nil 1
Under $45,0002
$45,001 - $65,000 3
$65,001- $85,000 4
$85,001- $105,000 5
$105,001- $125,000 6
$125,001- $145,000 7
$145,001- $165,000 8
$165,001- $185,000 9
$185,001- $205,000 10
Over $205,00011

Q.17 What is the proportion of men and women in the managerial/supervisory hierarchy in your local organisation? *A hierarchy consists of at least one management level who supervise staff.*

All women 1
A majority of women and a minority of men 2
About 50% women and 50% men 3
A minority of women and a majority of men 4
All men, apart from yourself 5

Q.18 For how many years have you worked closely with other woman managers in your employment organisation? ..... ☐

Q.19 Are your colleagues in your immediate work environment:

All women 1
A majority of women and a minority of men 2
About 50% women and 50% men 3
A minority of women and a majority of men 4
All men, apart from yourself 5

SECTION 4 – DIRECTOR BACKGROUND

Q.20 For how many years were you in a senior management position before accepting a Board directorship? ..... ☐

Q.21 For how many years have you been on Boards of Directors? ..... ☐

Q.22 How many Boards have you been on, including the present one(s)? ..... ☐

Q.23 How many Boards are you presently on concurrently? ..... ☐

Q.24 If you are presently on more than one board, how many years have you been on more than one board? ..... ☐

Q.25 For how many years have you been a *non-executive* director? ..... ☐

Q.26 On how many Boards have you been a *non-executive* director? ..... ☐

Q.27 For how many years have you worked closely with other women directors? ..... ☐

SECTION 5 – BOARDS AND THEIR ORGANISATIONS

Please provide answers for up to seven Boards on which you are a director using one column per organisation, from the organisation with the greatest number of employees to the organisation with the least number of employees.

Greatest no of employees	*Organisations in order of number of employees*	Least no of employees

Q.28 What is the total number of employees in the organisation of which you are a board member?

Less than 25	1	1	1	1	1	1
25 to 50	2	2	2	2	2	2
51 to 100	3	3	3	3	3	3
101 to 200	4	4	4	4	4	4
201 to 500	5	5	5	5	5	5
501 to 1000	6	6	6	6	6	6
1001 to 2000	7	7	7	7	7	7
2001 to 4000	8	8	8	8	8	8
4001 to 8000	9	9	9	9	9	9
More than 8000	10	10	10	10	10	10

Q.29 What is the proportion of men and women on the Board?

All women	1	1	1	1	1	1
A majority of women and a minority of men	2	2	2	2	2	2
About 50% women and 50% men	3	3	3	3	3	3
A minority of women and a majority of women	4	4	4	4	4	4
All men, apart from yourself	5	5	5	5	5	5

	Greatest no of employees	*Organisations in order of number of employees*				Least no of employees
Q.30 In which industry does the organisation operate?						
Mining	1	1	1	1	1	1
Manufacturing	2	2	2	2	2	2
Electricity, gas and water	3	3	3	3	3	3
Construction	4	4	4	4	4	4
Wholesale and retail trade	5	5	5	5	5	5
Transport and storage	6	6	6	6	6	6
Communication	7	7	7	7	7	7
Finance, property and business services	8	8	8	8	8	8
Public administration and defence	9	9	9	9	9	9
Community services	10	10	10	10	10	10
Recreation, personal and other services	11	11	11	11	11	11
Q.31 What type of organisation is this?						
Publicly listed on the stock exchange	1	1	1	1	1	1
Public unlisted	2	2	2	2	2	2
Private	3	3	3	3	3	3
Trust	4	4	4	4	4	4
Partnership	5	5	5	5	5	5
Statutory Authority or Government Enterprise	6	6	6	6	6	6
Not for profit	7	7	7	7	7	7
Q.32 Is the CEO a Woman?						
No	1	1	1	1	1	1
Yes	2	2	2	2	2	2
Q.33 How many Directors are there on the Board, including yourself?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Q.34 Is the Chair of the Board a Woman?						
No	1	1	1	1	1	1
Yes	2	2	2	2	2	2
Q.35 Does the same person serve as Chair and CEO?						
No	1	1	1	1	1	1
Yes	2	2	2	2	2	2
Q.36 What is your position on the Board?						
Non Executive Chair	1	1	1	1	1	1
Chief Executive Officer	2	2	2	2	2	2
Executive Director	3	3	3	3	3	3
Non Executive Director	4	4	4	4	4	4
Q.37 How did you gain membership of this Board?						
Invitation by the Chair	1	1	1	1	1	1
Invitation by a Director/Executive	2	2	2	2	2	2
Election	3	3	3	3	3	3
Ownership of the company	4	4	4	4	4	4
Family affiliation	5	5	5	5	5	5
Informal networking	6	6	6	6	6	6
Through being a consultant for the company	7	7	7	7	7	7
Significant shareholding	8	8	8	8	8	8
Q.38 Please indicate your total annual remuneration range for your Board directorship.						
Nil	1	1	1	1	1	1
Under $2,000	2	2	2	2	2	2
$2,000 to $7,000	3	3	3	3	3	3
$7,001 to $17,000	4	4	4	4	4	4
$17,001 to $27,000	5	5	5	5	5	5
$27,001 to $47,000	6	6	6	6	6	6
$47,001 to $87,000	7	7	7	7	7	7
Over $87,000	8	8	8	8	8	8

SECTION 6 – DIRECTOR ATTRIBUTES

Q.39 Listed below are various attributes. Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *female* board director would possess each attribute. Please use the following scale:

1 ***(Not at all likely)*** **2** ***(Not very likely)*** **3** ***(Likely)*** **4** ***(Very likely)*** **5** ***(Definitely likely)***

☐ Adventurous	☐ Dainty	☐ Imaginative	☐ Sensitive
☐ Affectionate	☐ Daring	☐ Intuitive	☐ Sentimental
☐ Aggressive	☐ Dominant	☐ Kind	☐ Sexy
☐ Analytical	☐ Emotional	☐ Mathematical	☐ Sociable
☐ Artistic	☐ Exact	☐ Muscular	☐ Soft Voice
☐ Athletic	☐ Expressive	☐ Nurturing	☐ Stands up under pressure
☐ Beautiful	☐ Forgiving	☐ Outgoing	☐ Supportive
☐ Brawny	☐ Gentle	☐ Perceptive	☐ Sympathetic
☐ Burly	☐ Good at abstractions	☐ Petite	☐ Tall
☐ Competitive	☐ Good at problem solving	☐ Physically strong	☐ Tasteful
☐ Cooperative	☐ Good at reasoning	☐ Physically vigorous	☐ Understanding of others
☐ Courageous	☐ Good with numbers	☐ Pretty	☐ Unexcitable
☐ Creative	☐ Gorgeous	☐ Quantitatively skilled	☐ Verbally skilled
☐ Cute	☐ Helpful to others	☐ Rugged	☐ Warm in relations with others

Q.40 Listed below are various attributes. Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *male* board director would possess each attribute. Please use the following scale:

1 ***(Not at all likely)*** **2** ***(Not very likely)*** **3** ***(Likely)*** **4** ***(Very likely)*** **5** ***(Definitely likely)***

☐ Adventurous	☐ Dainty	☐ Imaginative	☐ Sensitive
☐ Affectionate	☐ Daring	☐ Intuitive	☐ Sentimental
☐ Aggressive	☐ Dominant	☐ Kind	☐ Sexy
☐ Analytical	☐ Emotional	☐ Mathematical	☐ Sociable
☐ Artistic	☐ Exact	☐ Muscular	☐ Soft Voice
☐ Athletic	☐ Expressive	☐ Nurturing	☐ Stands up under pressure
☐ Beautiful	☐ Forgiving	☐ Outgoing	☐ Supportive
☐ Brawny	☐ Gentle	☐ Perceptive	☐ Sympathetic
☐ Burly	☐ Good at abstractions	☐ Petite	☐ Tall
☐ Competitive	☐ Good at problem solving	☐ Physically strong	☐ Tasteful
☐ Cooperative	☐ Good at reasoning	☐ Physically vigorous	☐ Understanding of others
☐ Courageous	☐ Good with numbers	☐ Pretty	☐ Unexcitable
☐ Creative	☐ Gorgeous	☐ Quantitatively skilled	☐ Verbally skilled
☐ Cute	☐ Helpful to others	☐ Rugged	☐ Warm in relations with others

SECTION 7 – DIRECTOR NETWORKING ON THE LARGEST BOARD

Please answer the following questions based on the largest board for which you are a board director (i.e. the board described by the answers in the first column of Section 5.)

Q.41 How often do you attend meetings of this board?
Weekly 1
Fortnightly 2
Monthly 3
Bimonthly 4
Quarterly 5
Half-yearly 6
Annually 7

Q.42 How often do you meet other directors of this board?
Daily 1
Weekly 2
Fortnightly 3
Monthly 4
Bimonthly 5
Quarterly 6
Half-yearly 7
Annually 8

Q43 Are you a member of the board's executive committee?
No 1
Yes 2

Q44 Does the organisation make sales into the same industry in which you are employed (as per Q.5)?
No 1
Yes 2

Q45 Were you appointed prior to the current CEO?
No 1
Yes 2

Q46 How many other directors were appointed prior to the current CEO? .....

Q47 For how many years have you been a director on this board? .....

Q48 How many other women are on this board? .....

Q49 How many directors on this board are on other boards with you? .....

Q50 How many other board members work in the same industry (as per Q.5) as yourself? .....

Q51 With how many board members do you share a functional background (as per Q.6)? .....

Q52 If you went to university, how many board members went to the same university as yourself? .....

Q53 How many of the other board members have not been to university? .....

Q54 How many of the other board members have an MBA or similar advanced management degree? .....

SECTION 8 – DIRECTOR INFLUENCE ON THE LARGEST BOARD

Please indicate your extent of agreement with following statements, based on the largest board for which you are a board director, by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response from -3 to 3.

Q.55 Would you think it was accurate if you were described as a typical director of this board?
extremely inaccurate ... extremely accurate
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.56 How often do you acknowledge the fact that you are a director of this board?
never ... extremely often
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.57 Would you feel good if you were described as a typical director of this board?
not at all ... extremely
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.58 How often to you refer to this board when you introduce yourself?
never ... extremely often
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.59 To what extent do you feel attachment to this board?
not at all ... extremely
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.60 Are there many directors of this board who have influenced your thoughts and behaviours?
none ... very many
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.61 Where do most of your best friends come from, this board or not?
none from this board ... most from this board
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Please indicate your extent of agreement with following statements, based on the largest board for which you are a board director, by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response from 1 to 5.

Q.62 To what extent are you capable of contributing to board discussions on strategic issues?

Not at all 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.63 To what extent do you have sufficient knowledge on relevant strategic issues to contribute to board discussions?

Not at all 1 ..... 2 ..... To some extent 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.64 To what extent are you able to add valuable insight to the board on strategic issues?

Not at all 1 ..... 2 ..... To some extent 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.65 I am capable of making important contributions to the strategic decision making process.

Strongly disagree 1 ..... 2 ..... Neither agree nor disagree 3 ..... 4 ..... Strongly agree 5

Q.66 To what extent does the board monitor top management strategic decision making?

Minimally 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.67 To what extent does the board formally evaluate the CEO's performance?

Minimally 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.68 To what extent does the board defer to the CEO's judgement on final strategic decisions?

Minimally 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.69 To what extent does the CEO solicit board assistance in the formulation of corporate strategy?

Minimally 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.70 To what extent are non-executive directors a "sounding board" on strategic issues?

Minimally 1 ..... 2 ..... Moderately 3 ..... 4 ..... Very much so 5

Q.71 In the past twelve months how often have you provided advice and counsel to the CEO on strategic issues?

☐ **times.**

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS DETAILED QUESTIONNAIRE

Please check that you have answered all questions before you posting (in the self-addressed, reply-paid envelope provided), to Zena Burgess, C/o Professor Barry Fallon, School of Psychology, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065.

Appendix G. 2001 Letters to Men Participants and Consent Forms

INFORMATION LETTER TO MALE PARTICIPANTS

Title of Project: Experiences and Influences of Board Directors

Staff Supervisor: Professor Barry Fallon

Student Researcher: Zena Burgess

Programme In Which Enrolled: Psychology PhD

Dear male corporate director,

We are contacting you as part of an Australia-wide research project to enhance the understanding of board directors of Australian corporations. This Australian data will help individuals and organisation understand and develop strategies for progression of directors at board level. The results of the research project will provide a clearer understanding of the types of experiences that are factors in board appointments, perceptions of board director roles and sources of influential power on corporate boards. Formulation of recommendations with respect to practices and strategies that help board members maximise their effectiveness on a board may be possible.

Completion of the survey and the consent form should only take 10 minutes of your time to complete.

Research participation is voluntary and all responses will be kept confidential. Results will only be published in aggregate form making it impossible to identify any individual. Although we are keen for you to contribute to the research project, you are free to refuse to participate without any reason or withdraw consent to any possible follow up at any time with giving a reason.

Questions regarding this project should be directed to the Supervisor, Professor Barry Fallon, on (03) 9953 3108 in the School of Psychology, St Patrick's Campus, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065, or the Researcher, Zena Burgess, care of Professor Barry Fallon at the above address.

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University.

In the event that you have any complaint or concern about the way you have been treated during the study, or if you have any query that the Supervisor and Researcher has (have) not been able to satisfy, you may write to the Chair of the Human Research Ethics Committee, care of Research Services, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065 (telephone 03 9953 3157, fax 03 9953 3305). Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. The participant will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this project, you should sign both copies of the Consent Form, retain one copy for your records and return the other copy to the Researcher.

Yours sincerely,

……	……..
Zena Burgess	Professor Barry Fallon
Researcher	Supervisor

Australian Catholic University

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: Experiences and Influences of Board Directors

Staff Supervisor: Professor Barry Fallon

Student Researcher: Zena Burgess

I ..... *(the participant)* have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realising that I can withdraw at any time. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT: .....
(block letters)

SIGNATURE ..... DATE .....

SIGNATURE OF SUPERVISOR: .....

DATE:……..

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER:.....

DATE:.....…….

Appendix H. 2001 Survey Instrument for Men Participants

Experiences and Influences of Male Directors:

A National Survey

In Confidence

The responses to this questionnaire will be held in **STRICTEST CONFIDENCE** and data will be published in aggregate form only. The biographical data are crucial to this study and, therefore, we would ask that you complete each question. Please answer the following questions by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response or responses, or writing a number in the box supplied.

SECTION 1 – PERSONAL BACKGROUND

Q1 What is your age? .....

Q2 Have you completed a university degree?
No 1
Yes 2

Q3 Do you have an MBA or similar advanced management degree?
No 1
Yes 2

Q4 Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed:
Some secondary school 1
Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate 2
Year 12/HSC/Leaving/Matriculation 3
TAFE College course 4
Undergraduate: ..... Associate Diploma 5
Diploma 6
Degree 7
Postgraduate: ..... Diploma/Honours 8
MBA 9
Masters Degree 10
Doctorate 11

SECTION 2 – EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

Q.5 In which industry are you employed?
Mining 1
Manufacturing 2
Electricity, gas and water 3
Construction 4
Wholesale and retail trade 5
Transport and storage 6
Communication 7
Finance, property and business services 8
Public administration and defence 9
Community services 10
Recreation, personal and other services 11

Q.6 Which terms best describe your functional backgrounds? Please mark all that apply.
Marketing 1
Sales 2
Operations 3
Research and development 4
Engineering 5
Law 6
Finance 7
Accounting 8
Other 9

Q.7 Would you most describe yourself as a:
Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager (you do not delegate work to any others) 1
Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman 2
Lower Level Manager 3
Middle Level Manager 4
Senior Level Manager 5
Executive 6
Divisional Head 7
Chief Executive Officer 8

Q.8 What is the total number of employees in the organisation where you work?
Less than 25 1
25 to 50 2
51 to 100 3
101 to 200 4
201 to 500 5
501 to 1000 6
1001 to 2000 7
2001 to 4000 8
4001 to 8000 9
More than 8000 10

SECTION 3 – DIRECTOR BACKGROUND

Q9 For how many years were you in a senior management position before accepting a Board directorship? .....

Q10 For how many years have you been on Boards of Directors? .....

Q11 How many Boards have you been on, including the present one(s)? .....

Q12 How many Boards are you presently on concurrently? .....

Q13 If you are presently on more than one board, how long have you been on more than one board? .....

Q14 For how many years have you been a *non-executive* director? .....

Q15 On how many Boards have you been a *non-executive* director? .....

SECTION 4 – DIRECTOR ATTRIBUTES

Q.16 Listed below are various attributes. Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *male* board director would possess each attribute. Please use the following scale:

1 ***(Not at all likely)*** **2** ***(Not very likely)*** **3** ***(Likely)*** **4** ***(Very likely)*** **5** ***(Definitely likely)***

☐ Adventurous	☐ Dainty	☐ Imaginative	☐ Sensitive
☐ Affectionate	☐ Daring	☐ Intuitive	☐ Sentimental
☐ Aggressive	☐ Dominant	☐ Kind	☐ Sexy
☐ Analytical	☐ Emotional	☐ Mathematical	☐ Sociable
☐ Artistic	☐ Exact	☐ Muscular	☐ Soft Voice
☐ Athletic	☐ Expressive	☐ Nurturing	☐ Stands up under pressure
☐ Beautiful	☐ Forgiving	☐ Outgoing	☐ Supportive
☐ Brawny	☐ Gentle	☐ Perceptive	☐ Sympathetic
☐ Burly	☐ Good at abstractions	☐ Petite	☐ Tall
☐ Competitive	☐ Good at problem solving	☐ Physically strong	☐ Tasteful
☐ Cooperative	☐ Good at reasoning	☐ Physically vigorous	☐ Understanding of others
☐ Courageous	☐ Good with numbers	☐ Pretty	☐ Unexcitable
☐ Creative	☐ Gorgeous	☐ Quantitatively skilled	☐ Verbally skilled
☐ Cute	☐ Helpful to others	☐ Rugged	☐ Warm in relations with others

Q.17 Listed below are various attributes. Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *female* board director would possess each attribute. Please use the following scale:

1 ***(Not at all likely)*** **2** ***(Not very likely)*** **3** ***(Likely)*** **4** ***(Very likely)*** **5** ***(Definitely likely)***

☐ Adventurous	☐ Dainty	☐ Imaginative	☐ Sensitive
☐ Affectionate	☐ Daring	☐ Intuitive	☐ Sentimental
☐ Aggressive	☐ Dominant	☐ Kind	☐ Sexy
☐ Analytical	☐ Emotional	☐ Mathematical	☐ Sociable
☐ Artistic	☐ Exact	☐ Muscular	☐ Soft Voice
☐ Athletic	☐ Expressive	☐ Nurturing	☐ Stands up under pressure
☐ Beautiful	☐ Forgiving	☐ Outgoing	☐ Supportive
☐ Brawny	☐ Gentle	☐ Perceptive	☐ Sympathetic
☐ Burly	☐ Good at abstractions	☐ Petite	☐ Tall
☐ Competitive	☐ Good at problem solving	☐ Physically strong	☐ Tasteful
☐ Cooperative	☐ Good at reasoning	☐ Physically vigorous	☐ Understanding of others
☐ Courageous	☐ Good with numbers	☐ Pretty	☐ Unexcitable
☐ Creative	☐ Gorgeous	☐ Quantitatively skilled	☐ Verbally skilled
☐ Cute	☐ Helpful to others	☐ Rugged	☐ Warm in relations with others

SECTION 5 – DIRECTOR NETWORKING ON THIS BOARD

Please answer the following questions based on the board that you share with your female co-director.

Q.18 What is your position on the Board?
Non Executive Chair 1
Chief Executive Officer 2
Executive Director 3
Non Executive Director 4

Q.19 How did you gain membership of this Board?
Invitation by the Chair 1
Invitation by a Director/Executive 2
Election 3
Ownership of the company 4
Family affiliation 5
Informal networking 6
Through being a consultant for the company 7
Significant shareholding 8

Q.20 How often do you attend meetings of this board?
Weekly 1
Fortnightly 2
Monthly 3
Bimonthly 4
Quarterly 5
Half-yearly 6
Annually 7

Q.21 How often do you meet other directors of this board?
Daily 1
Weekly 2
Fortnightly 3
Monthly 4
Bimonthly 5
Quarterly 6
Half-yearly 7
Annually 8

Q22 Are you a member of the board's executive committee?
No 1
Yes 2

Q23 Does the organisation make sales into the same industry in which you are employed (as per Q.5)?
No 1
Yes 2

Q24 Were you appointed prior to the current CEO?
No 1
Yes 2

Q25 For how many years have you been a director on this Board? ..... ☐

Q26 How many directors on this board are on other boards with you? ..... ☐

Q27 How many other board members work in the same industry (as per Q.5) as yourself? ..... ☐

Q28 With how many board members do you share a functional background (as per Q.6)? ..... ☐

Q29 If you went to university, how many other board members went to the same university as yourself? ..... ☐

SECTION 6 – DIRECTOR INFLUENCE ON THIS BOARD

Please indicate your extent of agreement with following statements, based on the board that you share with your female co-director, by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response from 1 to 5.

Q.30 Would you think it was accurate if you were described as a typical director of this board?
extremely inaccurate ... extremely accurate
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.31 How often do you acknowledge the fact that you are a director of this board?
never ... extremely often
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.32 Would you feel good if you were described as a typical director of this board?
not at all ... extremely
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.33 How often to you refer to this board when you introduce yourself?
never ... extremely often
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.34 To what extent do you feel attachment to this board?
not at all ... extremely
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.35 Are there many directors of this board who have influenced your thoughts and behaviours?
none ... very many
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Q.36 Where do most of your best friends come from, this board or not?
none from this board ... most from this board
-3 ..... -2 ..... -1 ..... 0 ..... 1 ..... 2 3

Please indicate your extent of agreement with following statements, based on the board that you share with your female co-director, by circling (e.g., ①) the most appropriate response from 1 to 5.

Q.37 To what extent are you capable of contributing to board discussions on strategic issues?

Not at all ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.38 To what extent do you have sufficient knowledge on relevant strategic issues to contribute to board discussions?

Not at all ..... To some extent ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.39 To what extent are you able to add valuable insight to the board on strategic issues?

Not at all ..... To some extent ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.40 I am capable of making important contributions to the strategic decision making process.

Strongly disagree ..... Neither agree nor disagree ..... Strongly agree
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.41 To what extent does the board monitor top management strategic decision making?

Minimally ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.42 To what extent does the board formally evaluate the CEO's performance?

Minimally ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.43 To what extent does the board defer to the CEO's judgement on final strategic decisions?

Minimally ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.44 To what extent does the CEO solicit board assistance in the formulation of corporate strategy?

Minimally ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.45 To what extent are non-executive directors a "sounding board" on strategic issues?

Minimally ..... Moderately ..... Very much so
1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 5

Q.46 In the past twelve months how often have you provided advice and counsel to the CEO on strategic issues?

☐ **times.**

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS DETAILED QUESTIONNAIRE

Please check that you have answered all questions before you posting (in the self-addressed, reply-paid envelope provided), to Zena Burgess, C/o Professor Barry Fallon, School of Psychology, Australian Catholic University, Locked Bag 4115, Fitzroy Victoria 3065.

Appendix I. Alphabetical List of 2001 Survey Items and Derived Variables

No.	*Name*	*Description*
37	Basis of recruitment	[For each board] "How did you gain membership of this Board?" 1 *Invitation by the chair* 2 *Invitation by director/executive* 3 *Election* 4 *Ownership of the company* 5 *Family affiliation* 6 *Informal networking* 7 *Through being a consultant to the company* 8 *Significant shareholding*
37	Basis of recruitment to focal board	Derived from *Basis of recruitment*
61	Best friends come from focal board	"Where do most of your best friends come from, this board or not?" -3 *none from this board*.....-2 .....-1 .....0 ..... 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 *most from this board*
S5	Board advice interactions scale	Westphal and Milton's (2000) "Board advice interactions" sub-scale, consisting of the three items *Board CEO solicits assistance*, *Nonexecutive directors are a sounding board*, and *Frequency of advice to the CEO*
32	Board CEO gender	[For each board] "Is the CEO a woman?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
69	Board CEO solicits assistance	"To what extent does the CEO solicit board assistance in the formulation of corporate strategy?" 1 *Minimally* ..... 2 ..... 3 *Moderately*..... 4 ..... 5 *Very much so*
35	Board chair and CEO is the same person	[For each board] "Does the same person serve as Chair and CEO?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
34	Board chair gender	[For each board] "Is the Chair of the Board a Woman?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
31	Board corporation type	[For each board] "What type of organisation is this?" 1 *Publicly listed* 3 *Private* 5 *Partnership* 7 *Not for profit* 2 *Public unlisted* 4 *Trust* 6 *Statutory authority or Government Enterprise*
68	Board defers to CEO judgement	"To what extent does the board defer to the CEO's judgement on final strategic decisions?" 1 *Minimally* ..... 2 ..... 3 *Moderately*..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
33	Board directors	[For each board] "How many Directors are there on the Board, including yourself?" *Numeric response*
28	Board employees	[For each board] "What is the total number of employees in the organisations of which you are a board member?" 1 *Less than 25* 4 *101 to 200* 7 *1001 to 2000* 10 *More than 8000* 2 *25 to 50* 5 *201 to 500* 8 *2001 to 4000* 3 *51 to 100* 6 *501 to 1000* 9 *4001 to 8000*
67	Board evaluates CEO performance	"To what extent does the board formally evaluate the CEO's performance?" 1 *Minimally* ..... 2 ..... 3 *Moderately*..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
29	Board gender proportion	[For each board] "What is the proportion of men and women on the Board?" 1 *All women* 2 *A majority of women and a minority of men* 3 *About 50% women and 50% men* 4 *A minority of women and a majority of men* 5 *All men, apart from yourself*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
30	Board industry	[For each board] "In which industry does the organisation operate?" 1 *Mining* 7 *Communication* 2 *Manufacturing* 8 *Finance, property and business services* 3 *Electricity, gas and water* 9 *Public administration and defence* 4 *Construction* 10 *Community services* 5 *Wholesale and retail trade* 11 *Recreation, personal and other services* 6 *Transport and storage*
S4	Board monitoring scale	Westphal and Milton's (2000) "Board monitoring" sub-scale, consisting of the three items *Board monitors management decisions*, *Board evaluates CEO performance*, and *Board defers to CEO judgement*
66	Board monitors management decisions	"To what extent does the board monitor top management strategic decision making?" 1 *Minimally* ..... 2 ..... 3 *Moderately*..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
64	Capable of adding insight to focal board	"To what extent are you able to add valuable insight to the board on strategic issues?" 1 *Not at all*..... 2.....3 *To some extent* ..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
65	Capable of contribution to decision making	"I am capable of making important contributions to the strategic decision making process." 1 *Strongly disagree* ...2 .....3 *Neither agree nor disagree* ..... 4.....5 *Strongly disagree*
62	Capable of contribution to discussions	"To what extent are you capable of contributing to board discussions on strategic issues?" 1 *Not at all*..... 2.....3 *Moderately* ..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
9	Child age categories	"If you have children, what are their ages? Please mark all that apply." 1 *Pre-school age* 3 *Secondary school age* 5 *Fully independent* 2 *Primary school age* 4 *Post-secondary school age*
24	Concurrent board years	"If you are presently on more than one board, how many years have you been on more than one board?" *Numeric response*
23	Concurrent directorships	"How many Boards are you presently on concurrently?" *Numeric response*
1	Current board member	"Are you currently on a Board of Directors?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
56	Director acknowledges focal board directorship	"How often do you acknowledge the fact that you are a director of this board?" -3 *never* .....-2 ..... -1 ..... 0.....1 ..... 2.....3 *extremely often*
3	Director age	"What is your age?" *Numeric response*
36	Director position	[For each board] "What is your position on the Board?" 1 *Non Executive Chair* 3 *Executive Director* 2 *Chief Executive Officer* 4 *Non Executive Director*
38	Directorship remuneration	[For each board] "Please indicate your total annual remuneration range for your Board directorship." 1 *Nil* 4 *$7,001 to $17,000* 7 *$47,001 to $87,000* 2 *Under $2,000* 5 *$17,001 to $27,000* 8 *Over $87,000* 3 *$2,000 to $7,000* 6 *$27,001 to $47,000*
14	Employment CEO gender	"Is the Chief Executive Officer where you are employed a woman?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
15	Employment employees	"What is the total number of employees in the organisation where you work?" 1 *Less than 25* 4 *101 to 200* 7 *1001 to 2000* 10 *More than 8000* 2 *25 to 50* 5 *201 to 500* 8 *2001 to 4000* 3 *51 to 100* 6 *501 to 1000* 9 *4001 to 8000*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
11	Employment industry	"In which industry are you employed?" 1 *Mining* 2 *Manufacturing* 3 *Electricity, gas and water* 4 *Construction* 5 *Wholesale and retail trade* 6 *Transport and storage* 7 *Communication* 8 *Finance, property and business services* 9 *Public administration and defence* 10 *Community services* 11 *Recreation, personal and other services*
16	Employment salary	"Please indicate the total annual employment salary, not including remuneration from Boards." 1 *Nil* 2 *Under $45,000* 3 *$45,001 - $65,000* 4 *$65,001- $85,000* 5 *$85,001- $105,000* 6 *$105,001- $125,000* 7 *$125,001- $145,000* 8 *$145,001- $165,000* 9 *$165,000- $185,000* 10 *$185,001- $205,000* 11 *Over $205,000*
43	Executive committee member	"Are you a member of the board's executive committee?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
59	Feeling of attachment to focal board	"To what extent do you feel attachment to this board?" -3 *not at all*.....-2 .....-1..... 0.....1 .....2.....3 *extremely*
39	Female director attributes	"Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *female* board director would possess each attribute." *Adventurous*, *Affectionate*, *Aggressive*, *Analytical*, *Artistic*, *Athletic*, *Beautiful*, *Brawny*, *Burly*, *Competitive*, *Cooperative*, *Courageous*, *Creative*, *Cute* *Dainty*, *Daring*, *Dominant*, *Emotional*, *Exact*, *Expressive*, *Forgiving*, *Gentle*, *Good at abstractions*, *Good at problem solving*, *Good at reasoning*, *Good with numbers*, *Gorgeous*, *Helpful to others* *Imaginative*, *Intuitive*, *Kind*, *Mathematical*, *Muscular*, *Nurturing*, *Outgoing*, *Perceptive*, *Petite*, *Physically strong*, *Physically vigorous*, *Pretty*, *Quantitatively skilled*, *Rugged* *Sensitive*, *Sentimental*, *Sexy*, *Sociable*, *Soft voice*, *Stands up under pressure*, *Supportive*, *Sympathetic*, *Tall*, *Tasteful*, *Understanding of others*, *Unexcitable*, *Verbally skilled*, *Warm in relations with others*
10	Financial responsibility for dependents	"Do you have financial responsibility for any dependents (children or anyone else)? Please indicate your share of financial responsibility?" 1 *No. I do not contribute directly to finances* 2 *Yes, partly. I contribute a minority* 3 *Yes, jointly – 50/50* 4 *Yes, mostly. I contribute the majority* 5 *I contribute all the finances* 6 *No financial dependents*
32	Focal board CEO gender	Derived from *Board CEO gender*
35	Focal board chair and CEO is the same person	Derived from *Board chair and CEO is the same person*
34	Focal board chair gender	Derived from *Board chair gender*
42	Focal board director meeting frequency	"How often do you meet other directors of this board?" 1 *Daily* 2 *Weekly* 3 *Fortnightly* 4 *Monthly* 5 *Bimonthly* 6 *Quarterly* 7 *Half-yearly* 8 *Annually*
36	Focal board director position	Derived from *Director position*
33	Focal board directors	Derived from *Board directors*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
60	Focal board directors influenced thoughts and behaviour	"Are there many directors of this board who have influenced your thoughts and behaviours?" -3 *none*.....-2 ..... -1..... 0.....1 ..... 2.....3 *very many*
46	Focal board directors predate CEO	"How many other directors were appointed prior to the current CEO?" *Numeric response*
45	Focal board directorship predates CEO	"Were you appointed prior to the current CEO?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
38	Focal board directorship remuneration	Derived from *Directorship remuneration*
47	Focal board directorship years	"For how many years have you been a director on this board?" *Numeric response*
28	Focal board employees	Derived from *Board employees*
41	Focal board formal meeting frequency	"How often do you attend meetings of this board?" 1 *Weekly* 3 *Monthly* 5 *Quarterly* 7 *Annually* 2 *Fortnightly* 4 *Bimonthly* 6 *Half-yearly*
29	Focal board gender proportion	Derived from *Board gender proportion*
30	Focal board industry	Derived from *Board industry*
52	Focal board members from same university	"If you went to university, how many board members went to the same university as yourself?" *Numeric response*
50	Focal board members in same industry	"How many other board members work in the same industry as yourself?" *Numeric response*
49	Focal board members on other boards with director	"How many directors on this board are on other boards with you?" *Numeric response*
54	Focal board members with MBA or similar	"How many of the other board members have an MBA or similar advanced management degree?" *Numeric response*
53	Focal board members with no university	"How many of the other board members have not been to university?" *Numeric response*
51	Focal board members with same functional background	"With how many board members do you share a functional background?" *Numeric response*
31	Focal board organisation type	Derived from *Board corporation type*
44	Focal board sells into employment industry	"Does the organisation make sales into the same industry in which you are employed?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
48	Focal board women directors	"How many other women are on this board?" *Numeric response*
71	Frequency of advice to the CEO	"In the past twelve months how often have you provided advice and counsel to the CEO on strategic issues?" *Numeric response*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
12	Functional background	"Which terms best describe your functional backgrounds? Please mark all that apply?" 1 *Marketing* 4 *Research and development* 7 *Finance* 2 *Sales* 5 *Engineering* 8 *Accounting* 3 *Operations* 6 *Law* 9 *Other*
6	Highest level of education	"Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed." 1 *Some secondary school* 7 *Undergraduate: Degree* 2 *Year 10/School Certificate/Intermediate* 8 *Postgraduate: Diploma/Honours* 3 *Year 12/HSC/ Leaving/Matriculation* 9 *Postgraduate: MBA* 4 *TAFE College course* 10 *Postgraduate: Masters Degree* 5 *Undergraduate: Associate Diploma* 11 *Postgraduate: Doctorate* 6 *Undergraduate: Diploma*
S2	Identification with board members scale	A scale derived from Karasawa's (1991) "identification with group members" sub-scale, consisting of the two items *Focal board directors influenced thoughts and behaviour*, and *Best friends come from focal board*
S1	Identification with the board scale	A scale derived from Karasawa's (1991) "identification with the group" sub-scale, consisting of the five items *Typical focal board director description is accurate*, *Director acknowledges focal board directorship*, *Typical focal board director description feels good*, *Self-reference to focal board on introduction*, and *Feeling of attachment to focal board*
40	Male director attributes	"Indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how likely it is that the average Australian *male* board director would possess each attribute." *Adventurous* *Dainty* *Imaginative* *Sensitive* *Affectionate* *Daring* *Intuitive* *Sentimental* *Aggressive* *Dominant* *Kind* *Sexy* *Analytical* *Emotional* *Mathematical* *Sociable* *Artistic* *Exact* *Muscular* *Soft voice* *Athletic* *Expressive* *Nurturing* *Stands up under pressure* *Beautiful* *Forgiving* *Outgoing* *Supportive* *Brawny* *Gentle* *Perceptive* *Sympathetic* *Burly* *Good at abstractions* *Petite* *Tall* *Competitive* *Good at problem solving* *Physically strong* *Tasteful* *Cooperative* *Good at reasoning* *Physically vigorous* *Understanding of others* *Courageous* *Good with numbers* *Pretty* *Unexcitable* *Creative* *Gorgeous* *Quantitatively skilled* *Verbally skilled* *Cute* *Helpful to others* *Rugged* *Warm in relations with others*
17	Managerial gender proportion	"What is the proportion of men and women in the managerial/supervisory hierarchy in your local organisation?" 1 *All women* 2 *A majority of women and a minority of men* 3 *About 50% women and 50% men* 4 *A minority of women and a majority of men* 5 *All men, apart from yourself*
13	Managerial level	"Would you most describe yourself as a:" 1 *Non-Supervisor/Non-Manager – you do not delegate work to any others* 2 *Supervisor/Leading Hand/Foreman/Forewoman* 3 *Lower Level Manager* 5 *Senior Level Manager* 7 *Divisional Head* 4 *Middle Level Manager* 6 *Executive* 8 *Chief Executive Officer*
5	MBA or similar	"Do you have an MBA or similar advanced management degree?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
51	Minority functional background	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board members with same functional background* is less than half of *Focal board directors*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
50	Minority industry	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board members in same industry* is less than half of *Focal board directors*
54	Minority MBA or similar	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board members with MBA or similar* is greater than half of *Focal board directors* if *MBA or similar* is true, or less than half if *MBA or similar* is false.
52	Minority same university	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board members from same university* is less than half of *Focal board directors*
53	Minority university background	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board members with no university* is greater than half of *Focal board directors* if *University degree* is true, or less than half if *University degree* is false.
48	Minority women members	Dichotomous variable signifying that *Focal board women directors* is less than half of *Focal board directors*
26	Nonexecutive director boards	"On how many boards have you been a non-executive director?" *Numeric response*
25	Nonexecutive director years	"For how many years have you been a non-executive director?" *Numeric response*
70	Nonexecutive directors are a sounding board	"To what extent are non-executive directors a "sounding board" on strategic issues?" 1 *Minimally* ..... 2 ..... 3 *Moderately*..... 4 .....5 *Very much so*
8	Number of children	"How many children do you have?" *Numeric response*
12	Number of functional backgrounds	Derived from *Functional background*
7	Partner relationship	"What relationship with a partner do you have?" 1 *Married* 3 *Divorced* 5 *Single* 2 *Living together* 4 *Separated but not divorced* 6 *Widowed*
S3	Perceived ability to contribute scale	Westphal and Milton's (2000) "Perceived ability to contribute" sub-scale, consisting of the four items *Capable of contribution to discussions*, *Sufficient knowledge for discussions*, *Capable of adding insight to focal board*, and *Capable of contribution to decision making*
46	Percentage board directors predate CEO	Derived from dividing *Focal board directors predate CEO* by *Focal board directors*
52	Percentage members from same university	Derived from dividing *Focal board members from same university* by *Focal board directors*
51	Percentage members functional background	Derived from dividing *Focal board members with same functional background* by *Focal board directors*
50	Percentage members in same industry	Derived from dividing *Focal board members in same industry* by *Focal board directors*
49	Percentage members on other boards	Derived from dividing *Focal board members on other boards with director* by *Focal board directors*
54	Percentage members with MBA or similar	Derived from dividing *Focal board members with MBA or similar* by *Focal board directors* and subtracting from 1.
53	Percentage members with university background	Derived from dividing *Focal board members with no university* by *Focal board directors* and subtracting from 1.
48	Percentage women members	Derived from dividing *Focal board women directors* by *Focal board directors*

No.	*Name*	*Description*
2	Reason no longer a director	"If the answer to Q.1 was No, then why are you no longer on a Board of Directors?" 1 *Career change* 3 *Retired* 5 *Other reasons* 2 *Not reappointed* 4 *Personal reasons*
58	Self-reference to focal board on introduction	"How often do you refer to this board when you introduce yourself?" -3 *not at all*.....-2 .....-1..... 0.....1 .....2.....3 *extremely*
20	Senior management years	"For how many years were you in a senior management position before accepting a Board directorship?" *Numeric response*
52	Social identity via from same university	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board members from same university*
51	Social identity via functional background	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board members with same functional background*
50	Social identity via industry	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board members in same industry*
54	Social identity via MBA or similar	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board members with MBA or similar* if *MBA or similar* is true, or less than *Focal board directors* if *MBA or similar* is false.
49	Social identity via other boards	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board members on other boards with director*
48	Social identity via women members	Dichotomous variable signifying a count of at least one for *Focal board women directors*
63	Sufficient knowledge for discussions	"To what extent do you have sufficient knowledge on relevant strategic issues to contribute to board discussions?" 1 *Not at all*..... 2.....3 *To some extent* ..... 4.....5 *Very much so*
21	Total directorship years	"For how many years have you been on Boards of Directors?" *Numeric response*
22	Total directorships	"How many Boards have you been on, including the present ones?" *Numeric response*
57	Typical focal board director description feels good	"Would you feel good if you were described as a typical director of this board?" -3 *not at all*.....-2 .....-1..... 0.....1 .....2.....3 *extremely*
55	Typical focal board director description is accurate	"Would you think it was accurate if you were described as a typical director of this board?" -3 *extremely inaccurate*.....-2 ..... -1 ..... 0..... 1.....2 .....3 *extremely accurate*
4	University degree	"Have you completed a university degree?" 1 *No* 2 *Yes*
19	Work colleagues gender proportion	"Are your colleagues in your immediate work environment:" 1 *All women* 2 *A majority of women and a minority of men* 3 *About 50% women and 50% men* 4 *A minority of women and a majority of men* 5 *All men, apart from yourself*
27	Years worked with women directors	"For how many years have you worked closely with other women directors?" *Numeric response*
18	Years worked with women managers	"For how many years have you worked closely with other woman managers in your employment organisation?" *Numeric response*

Appendix J. List of additional publications

Burgess, Z. & Tharenou, P. (1997). What distinguishes women non-executive directors from executive directors? Individual, interpersonal and organisational factors related to women's appointment to boards. *International Review of Women and Leadership, 3,* 46-62.

Burgess, Z. M. & Tharenou, P. (2000). What distinguishes women non-executive directors from executive directors? Individual, interpersonal and organisational factors related to women's appointment to boards. In R. J. Burke & M. C. Mattis (Eds.), *Women on corporate boards of directors* (pp. 111-127). The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Burgess, Z. & Tharenou, P. (2002). Women board directos: Characteristics of the few. *Journal of business ethics, 37,* 39-49.

Burgess, Z. & Fallon, B. (In press). A longitudinal study of women directors in Australia. *Women in Management Review*.