LUND UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Stereotypical male uniforms,
an experimental study on leadership and gender.

Amelie Vilson Fritz

Master thesis, spring 2015

Supervisor: Una Tellhed

Abstract

Within the Swedish prison and probation service 80% of the officers on duty (which is a leadership position) are male. Could this inequality have something to do with the stereotypical male authoritarian uniform used in this specific organization? The purpose of this study was to investigate if the uniform used within the Swedish prison and probation service could influence our leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), social identity threats and/or family flexibility, and if it affects men and women differently. Participants were divided into three groups and were presented one out of three manipulations (picture of a uniform, casual clothing or no picture), after which they answered a questionnaire measuring their leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), social identity threats and family flexibility. The results revealed that the uniform does affect our leadership aspiration, and that it affects men and women differently. Also, the results revealed a significant difference to what extent men and women expect to confront social identity threats if they were to work as an officer on duty within the Swedish prison and probation service.

Keywords: Swedish prison and probation service, uniform, male dominated occupations, leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), social identity threats, family flexibility.

Introduction

"Vain trifles as they seem, clothes have, they say, more important offices then to merely keep us warm. They change our view of the world, and the world´s view of us."

- Virginia Woolf

Can clothing influence your choice of career? Can it even influence your leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), perceived social identity threat or importance for family flexibility? In this thesis the connection between clothing and leadership will be examined.

The main purpose of clothing is really to protect your body from the elements, although it has developed into a way of expressing who you are. What you wear is something that sends out signals about you, and that is interpreted by the beholder- conscious or unconsciously. Clothing can create expectations and preconceptions and can be symbols of status, credibility, authority, economical status and background among other things. Some kinds of clothing symbolize certain traits more distinctively, uniforms for example. One example of a working place with uniforms is the Swedish prison and probation service. All workers wear a stereotypical male authoritarian uniform, and the whole organization breaths an undertone of male authority. In comparison to male, there are few female officers on duty in this specific organization; which is interesting considering the male authority that characterizes it. Are women who wear stereotypical male uniforms affected by what they wear? Could one of the reasons for the inequality in leadership positions in this specific organization have to do with the stereotypical male uniform?

In this thesis I will investigate if the uniform can affect our leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), perceived social identity threat and importance for family flexibility, and also if it affects men and women differently?

Theoretical Framework

Men and women in leadership positions. Leadership positions are strictly dominated by males both in Sweden (Statistics Sweden, 2014) and in Europe (European commission, 2012). For example, in Sweden during 2013 only 5% of the leaders in the listed companies were women, which is the same number as in 1999 (Statistics Sweden, 2014). Within the Swedish prison and probation service, about 50% of the guards are men and 50% are women, but 80% of the officers on duty (which is a leadership position) are men (Swedish prison and

probation service, 2014). Even though the Swedish prison and probation service strive for equality, they still have a long way to go when it comes to the posts of officers on duty. There are several theories that concern women not becoming leaders as often as men, and there are also theories that are trying to explain why, of which some are presented below.

Glass ceiling. One theory that explains this phenomenon is the so-called glass ceiling (Morrison, White & Van Velsor, 1987), which is a barrier of discrimination and prejudice that tend to exclude women and hinder them in their quest for leadership positions, regardless of their qualifications, accomplishments and experiences. Lyness & Thompson (2000) point out that women have to spend more time and effort before they reach the same level of success as their male colleagues.

Paula principle. There are not fewer female graduates than male; in fact there are fewer male graduates than female (Statistics Sweden, 2015). Women have higher education but still possess lower positions, which is indicating that women are working below their level of competence, the so-called Paula principle (Schuller, 2012, referred to in Evans, 2013). The Paula principle arose from the Peter principle, which is describing how individuals rise to their level of incompetence; they are getting promoted until they perform the job poorly, after which they are not promoted any further (Peter & Hull, 1969). One could assume that his principle refers to men (since when it was created mostly men were leaders), but for women it is the other way around, they can posses the qualities, the experience and the accomplishments but are still not being promoted; all in accordance with the glass ceiling (Eagly & Karau, 2002). There is still no answer to why it is that way, although the knowledge of its existence is at least one step in the right direction.

Stereotypes. According to Eagly (2007) the concept of leadership has always been associated to stereotypical masculine traits and qualities, and there is a common belief that men are better suited and more capable to be leaders than women. Consequently, women often face a role conflict when aspiring to leadership positions. Women´s stereotypically feminine traits do not match the stereotypical masculine traits that are associated with leadership; something that often is referred to as "lack of fit" (Heilman, 2001). Eagly & Karau (2002) also states that women are at greater risk for prejudice when holding leadership positions, because they challenge the stereotype of a leader, all according to the role congruity theory. This theory states that you will be more positively perceived if you live up to the stereotype that exists about you or the group that you belong to, for example gender. Women holding leadership positions tend to face more obstacles and are more vulnerable than men (Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995).

Leadership is often equivalent with authority, and authority and uniforms are closely related. These factors are very interesting when looking at gender differences within leadership, and this will be discussed below.

Authority & Uniforms. As Milgram (1974) showed in his well-known experiment, the obedience to an authority figure is an extremely strong factor on our behavior. Authority is a way of expressing experience, knowledge, expertise and status for example. It is an automatic response, and creates a hierarchy, which is a sort of cognitive laziness that is used among several species. It provides us with a place in the hierarchy, and thereby also roles that helps us to know how to act and behave. Authority can be expressed in several ways, body language and clothing for example. What you wear is something that has a strong psychological impact on how others perceive you, and we use clothing as a shortcut or mental clue when trying to create an opinion about someone we just met. We use these shortcuts all the time when we meet new people to identify their background; sex, status, authority, group membership and so on (Johnsson, 2001).

The uniform plays an important roll within the Swedish prison and probation service. Both the guards and the officers wear a uniform, which shows that they represent the organization. The uniform resembles the ones that the Swedish police force has, dark blue and breaths authority and power. According to several studies, the color of clothing is important in how we perceive the wearer. For example, Luscher & Scott (1969) showed that the color blue is associated with security and comfort whilst black is associated with power and strength. Adams & Osgood (1973) and Williams, Moreland & Underwood (1970) showed that light colors are associated with goodness and dark colors with strength. Also, dark colors are associated with dominance, anger, hostility and aggression (Valdez & Mehrabian, 1994), which could explain why the color of the uniform within the Swedish prison and probation service is dark blue- to send out signals of authority, power and dominance. It creates a hierarchy, and shows clearly that the one wearing the uniform is the superior. In a historical perspective, the uniform used in the police force, the armed forces and the Swedish prison and probation service is stereotypically male, and all consists of pants and a shirt, most often in dark colors. As mentioned earlier, it is likely that women face a role conflict when aspiring for leadership positions, not least considering the uniform. Consequently, my assumption is that the uniform has a relationship with an individual's leadership aspiration, and that the uniform can affect men and women differently. It seems likely to believe that women´s leadership aspiration is lower than men´s when presented the uniform. Quite a lot of research has focused on what factors that can influence an individual´s aspiration to become a leader,

of which some are presented below.

Leadership aspiration. Leadership aspiration is a concept for measuring an individual´s aspiration for a certain career (Gray & O`Brian, 2007). According to Gordon & Medland (1965) there is a significant relationship between individual's leadership aspiration and leadership ability. Using peer ratings for the leadership ability, they showed that those with the highest leadership aspiration also were the ones estimated by their peers to become most successful in leadership positions.

According to Boatwright & Egidio (2003) there is also a correlation between leadership aspiration and fear for negative evaluation. Women who fear negative evaluation the most showed lower leadership aspiration compared to women who did not fear negative evaluation as much. It is not unlikely that women fear negative evaluation more than men simply because of the role conflict they face when entering the male dominated world of leadership and the masculine view of leadership in general.

It has been shown that some personality traits also have significant correlations with leadership effectiveness and aspiration. For example, women who had experienced social loneliness in the work place and who were shy, were less effective as leaders, and were also presumed to not being as interested in aspiring for leadership positions (Maroldo, 1988). Maybe one could also draw parallels from these findings to the role conflict women face when entering the masculine world in the quest for leadership positions.

Davies, Spencer & Steele (2005) showed in their study that women who are being showed gender stereotypic commercials tend to have lower interest in leadership positions, and instead showed higher interest in a problem solving position. This when compared to women who were shown gender neutral commercials, who then was equally interested in the leadership position as the problem solving position.

Harvey (2007) states that general self-efficacy is a significant mediator to African American women´s leadership aspiration, and one can assume that leadership self-efficacy have an even stronger relationship with leadership aspiration. Some previous research regarding this is presented below.

Leadership self-efficacy. The term self-efficacy was first developed and introduced by Bandura (1986) and can be described as an individuals perceived ability to successfully perform a specific task or handle a specific situation. It is a motivational process and a strong predictor for an individual's behavior (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008). It has later been developed into measuring more specific areas, for example leadership (Bobbio & Manganelli, 2009). Leadership self-efficacy is described by Paglais & Green (2002, p. 217) as "a person's

judgment that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building a relationship with followers in order to gain their commitment to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change". According to Chemers, Watson & May (2000) and Kane, Zaccaro, Tremble & Masuda (2002) individuals with higher leadership self-efficacy also showed higher leadership effectiveness, meaning that those who believe that they can manage to possess a leadership position most likely also can.

According to Judge, Bono, Remus & Gerhardt (2002) there is a negative relationship between neuroticism and leadership effectiveness, which could be associated with the lower leadership self-efficacy that neurotic leaders most likely have.

According to several studies (Murphy, 1992; McCormick, 2001; McCormick, Tanguma & Lopez-Forment, 2002; Hoyt, 2005; Bakken, Sheridan & Carnes, 2003) women tend to show lower leadership self-efficacy than men. Although, women who show high levels of leadership self-efficacy were not affected as negative by stereotype threats as women with low leadership self-efficacy (Hoyt, 2005; Hoyt and Blascovich, 2007). Kray, Thompson & Galinsky (2001) and Johns, Schmader & Martens (2005) showed that if women are informed about these stereotype threats, the negative impact from it disappears. Davies, Spencer & Steele (2005b) showed in his study that in a group task women tend to choose a subordinate role over a leadership role, but when being informed that both men and women are equally capable to occupy both roles the difference was completely eliminated. This is one of the main reasons why this topic is so important, since women, as described earlier, can face role conflicts when aspiring for leadership positions and these role conflicts can increase by the impact of stereotype threats. Women are faced with the belief that men are better suited for possessing leadership positions than women, and together with the stereotype threats and the role conflict they face it is not a surprise that most leaders are men. Why would women aspire for leadership positions if they do not think that they can manage, they think that no one else believes that they can manage, and they also face a major role conflict? It is important that the climate regarding gender differences in leadership positions is open, and that it is highlighted that women are affected by these factors. In conclusion, the overall picture is that men are better suited as leaders, which might not be true at all, but women are not given the chance to prove their leadership skills.

In accordance to all this, it is not unlikely to believe that men´s and women´s leadership self-efficacy will vary depending on if they are presented the uniform or not. One could assume that men will not feel as threatened by the uniform, and therefore their leadership self efficacy will be higher in comparison to women. One could assume that

women who are presented the uniform will report lower levels of leadership self-efficacy, because when they are reminded of the uniform they are also reminded of the stereotypical male traits associated with leadership. This might lead them to think that they cannot perform as good in a leadership position as a man. There are several other factors that could be related to and which could explain the gender differences, some presented below.

        Group identification (gender). According to Tajfel and Turner (1981; 1986, referred to in Worchel & Austin, Eds) our social identity is based on and we define ourselves (and others) by personality traits and characteristics (personal identity), but also by which groups we belong and do not belong to (group identity), called social categorization. Example of such groups could be man or women, Swedish or European, blonde or brunette to mention a few. How we categorize ourselves, or others, then influence how we perceive and what we believe about ourselves or others. As a member of a group we tend to behave and think according to the norms in the particular group, and the personal identity takes a step back (Turner, 1991).

        One kind of group identity is the gender identity, which is a sense of being male or female. One also develops sex-role stereotypes, that are basically stereotypes of how boys and girls should behave and what characteristics that are appropriate for each gender (Martin & Rubble, 2004). Accordingly, all individuals have a certain level of commitment to the membership of their biological gender; their gender identity.

        Since the uniforms earlier described are stereotypically male, one could assume that women who are presented the uniform will report lower levels of group identification (gender) as compared to men. This since most of the characteristics portrayed when describing a good leader are stereotypically male (Eagly, 2007), women feel that they need to adjust to this and sacrifice their feminine traits in order to have a chance to become a leader.

        Social identity threats. Independent of what group we categorize ourselves in; there are sometimes situations that threaten us as members of that group, social identity threats. When a group is negatively evaluated, the members reinforce the behaviors that support the norms of the group, all to maintain a positive image of the group (Steele & Aronson, 1995). This is closely related to stereotype threats, which is the fear that an individual can experience when there is a risk that they will confirm other peoples stereotypes about their in-group (Steele & Aronsson, 1995). In this case we focus on gender, and how men´s and women´s self image can be threatened in relation to their working life. Throughout evolution and history men and women have had different kinds of tasks (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), from the beginning of times men were hunters and women took care of the children. Later, roughly

put, men were farmers and women took care of the children and their home, and women were nurses and house cleaners whilst men were doctors and scientists. We have moved towards equality and women´s roles within the work- and family life have changed remarkably over the past years (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). However, there are still many occupations that are male-dominated and seen as more appropriate for men than for women, and the other way around. Working at the Swedish prison and probation service has historically been considered to be more appropriate for men, in the same way when it comes to the police or the armed forces. It is likely to assume that the Swedish prison and probation service has been shaped by the fact that mainly men worked there, which may be one of the reasons why it still is difficult for women to reach the leadership positions within the organization. As earlier mentioned, there is still inequality between the genders even though they are moving towards more equality.

In 1999, Massachusetts Institute of Technology revealed in a report that female professors in male-dominated areas (science, math, engineering for example) at the faculty had less salary but also less recourses, space and received fewer awards in comparison to their male colleagues. According to Schmitt, Branscombe, Kobrynowicz & Owen (2002) women still expect more prejudice and discrimination than men when it comes to questions concerning gender. They also claim that being the subject of prejudice in a disadvantaged group (such as being a woman in a male-dominated area or workplace) is more harmful than being in a privileged group (such as being a man in a male-dominated area or working place) when being the subject of prejudice.

Schmader, Johns, Keiffer, Healy & Farichild-Ollivierre (2001) investigated women´s performance on a math test and compared two conditions. In the first condition the participants were informed that their result would, among other things, be used as an indicator of women's math ability in general, and in the second condition they were just informed that their result would be an indicator of their personal math ability. The participants in the first condition performed significantly worse than the participants in the second condition, this since the participants in the first group were reminded of their social identity as women, and because there is a stereotype that women are not as good as men at math.

In accordance to this, I believe that women who are presented the uniform will experience a greater level of social identity threat in comparison to men. This since leadership is considered stereotypically masculine and for men only.

Family flexibility. For individuals that have or plan to have a family in the future, the level of flexibility that a specific job can offer often influence the choice of career (Frome,

Alfeld, Eccles & Barber 2006). Combining family with a career is not always easy, and different careers can offer different levels of flexibility. Occupations that are traditionally female are often perceived as easier to combine with family than occupations that are traditionally male (Eccles, 1994; Ware & Lee, 1988), this because traditional female occupations (or even neutral occupations) appear more flexible (Farmer 1997). According to Jozefowicz, Barber & Eccles (1993) when it comes to expectancy of sacrifices, women expect to make more sacrifices than men when it comes to being flexible at work in favor for the needs of the family.

When studying college students and their aspiration for a major in science, women who prioritized family and personal life high were not as likely to choose a major in science as women who prioritized family and personal life lower (Ware & Lee, 1988). One could assume that this has to do with the fact that historically women took responsibility for the family, whilst men were the ones working- that is what society expected. Barnett & Hyde (2001) argued that the roles for men and women have changed remarkably over the last 50 years when it comes to roles within the family. Even if we are moving towards equality on this area as well as many others, Rome was not built in one day, and we are simply not there yet. One could assume that women who are presented the uniform are reminded of the traditional roles between men and women, and they are aware that we have not yet overcome these expectations. In order to have both a family and a working life, women still feel the need to make sacrifices, and therefore will report higher levels of need for family flexibility in comparison to women who are not reminded of the uniform, and men.

Present study

The main objective of this study is to investigate if the stereotypical male authoritarian uniform that is being used at the Swedish prison and probation service affects men and women differently when it comes to leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification, perceived social identity threat and family flexibility. The specific hypotheses are as follows.

Hypotheses. Hypothesis #1. Women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower leadership aspiration as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform.

Hypothesis #2

Women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower leadership self-efficacy as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform.

 Hypothesis #3

Women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower group identification as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform.

Hypothesis #4

Women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have higher perceived social identity threat as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform.

Hypothesis #5

Women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work report a higher importance for family flexibility as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform.

Method

Participants

The participants were 312 students at Lund University, both male and female. A power analysis was performed, which showed that at a significance level of .05 with a medium effect size (.25) at least 52 participants in each group would be required, which adds up to a total of 312 participants. 156 of the participants were female (50%) and 156 were male (50%). The mean age was (M=23.48, SD=3.03), the oldest being 45 and the youngest 18. The participants in the study had a mean of (M=2.85, SD=1.06) on highest education completed, which equals a University education of 1-3 years. In table 1 below the participant´s educational orientation is accounted for. The participants did not receive compensation of any kind.

Table 1. *The participant´s educational orientation.*

Faculty	Percent
Social sciences	49.7%
Economical	13.8%
Humanities & theological	11.5%
Technical	7.7%
Legal	4.2%
Natural sciences	3.8%
Medical	1.0 %
Art	0.3%
Other	2.2%
Missing	5.8%

Instruments

Career aspiration scale. The career aspiration scale (Gray & O'Brien, 2007) measuring leadership aspiration (appendix E). A 10-item scale, with responses to a statement on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being *"Not at all true of me"*, 2 *"Slightly true of me",* 3 *"Moderately true of me"*, 4 *"Quite true of me"* and 5 *"Very true of me"*. Question 3, 4, 7, and 10 was reversely scored. When analyzing the internal consistency, the Cronbach´s alpha was low, 0.69, and the Cronbach´s alpha if item deleted indicated that item 3, 7, 8 and 9 should be deleted. This is consistent with Gray and O´Brien (2007) findings that item 3 and 9 should be deleted according to factor analysis and item 7 & 8 measure educational aspiration and not leadership aspiration and should therefor also be deleted. These four items were deleted, and the Cronbach´s alpha was then .79. In previous studies the Career aspiration scale has shown good internal consistency, with a Cronbach´s alpha coefficient of .82 (Gray & O'Brien, 2007).

Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale. Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale (Bobbio & Manganelli, 2009) measuring leadership self-efficacy (appendix F). A 21-item scale, with responses to a statement on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 being *"Absolutely false"* to 5

"Absolutely true". According to Bobbio & Maganelli (2009) the Leadership self-efficacy Scale had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach´s alpha coefficient reported of .91. In the current study, the Cronbach´s alpha coefficient was .88.

The identity importance subscale. The identity importance subscale from the Collective Self-Esteem Scale (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) measuring group identification (gender) (appendix G). A 4-item scale, with responses to a statement on a 5-point Likert scale. 1 being "*Not at all true of me"*, 2 *"Slightly true of me",* 3 *"Moderately true of me"*, 4 *"Quite true of me"* and 5 *"Very true of me"*. Question 2 and 4 was reversely scored. According to Luthanen & Crocker (1992), the Identity importance subscale had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach´s alpha coefficient reported of .73. In the current study, the Cronbach ´s alpha coefficient was .73.

Social cognitive career theory. Chosen parts from the social cognitive career theory (SCCT) (Brown & Lent, 2006) measuring social identity threats (appendix H). A 11-item scale, with responses to a statement on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 being *"Not at all likely"* to 5 *"Very likely"*. Since the whole scale was not used in this study, there are no Cronbach's alpha reports from previous studies. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .94.

Importance of a Family-Flexible Occupation. Importance of a Family-Flexible Occupation (Frome, Alfeld, Eccles & Barber 2006), measuring family flexibility (appendix I). A 5-item scale, with responses to a statement from 1 being *"Not at all"* and 7 *"A lot"*. According to Frome, Eccles & Barber (2006), the Importance of a family-flexible occupation scale had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported of .84. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .82.

Translations. The scales were originally in English, but were translated into Swedish and back translated into English again by three independent translators.

Experimental manipulation. The scales were used in combination with a manipulation. The manipulation consisted of a text describing a job, together with a picture of the clothing used at that specific job. In the first scenario there was a typical male authoritarian uniform (appendix B), in the second a casual clothing (appendix C), and in the last scenario no picture at all (appendix D).

Manipulation control. To make sure that the participants registered and perceived the manipulation picture (with uniform or casual clothing) in the beginning of the survey, one of

the questions in the end of the survey was if any of the following pictures (picture of uniform and casual clothing) was shown in connection with the ad in search for officer.

Research design

The study had a factorial design (2x3), and used a between group independent sample technique with one measuring occasion. A questionnaire was created to measure leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), perceived social identity threats and the importance for family flexibility. It also contained demographical questions regarding age, education, experience etc. (see appendix E-J). The questionnaire was in Swedish and contained 65 items in total.

Procedure

All participants were randomly assigned in to one of the three conditions, which were presented one out of the three scenarios each. The first where the uniform and the male authority was present (manipulation A), the second where it was not (manipulation B), and the third with no picture at all (manipulation C). They all answered the same five scales measuring leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), social identity threats and family flexibility. They also answered a few control questions. The participants were handed the documents in person, and filled them out in a controlled setting. The purpose of this was to prevent the participants from talking and discussing with each other, and to control for other variables that could affect them while participating. It took approximately 10 minutes for them to complete the procedure.

The participants were handed the documents in following order:

1. Informed Consent (appendix A)
2. Manipulation (appendix B, C or D)
3. Leadership aspiration (appendix E)
4. Leadership self efficacy (appendix F)
5. Group identification (gender) (appendix G).
6. Social identity threats (appendix H)
7. Family flexibility (appendix I)
8. Control questions (appendix J)

Ethical considerations

The participants gave their informed consent; they were informed that their participation was completely voluntary, and they could discontinue at any time, no need to explain why.

They were handed information on how to get in contact with the researcher afterwards, and that there would be a full debriefing. There was a small manipulation, but no deceiving. The manipulation was simply that the participants were shown a picture of a man and a woman wearing uniform or casual clothing, before answering the questionnaire. The participants were unlikely to endure any psychological or physical harm.

Results

Manipulation control

Analysis of the manipulation control showed that 94.2% of the participants that were shown the uniform registered the picture, but only 64.4% of the participants that were shown the casual clothing registered the picture. When it came to the participants that were not shown any picture, 84.6% observed that no picture were present in connection with the job ad. Although, 26.9% of the participants that was shown the casual clothing reported that they had seen a picture with the uniform, which goes hand in hand with the fact that 75.0% of the participants in the casual clothing group reported that they pictured that they would wear a uniform if they got the job. Participants that did not register the manipulation correctly were excluded, leaving total (N=259) participants in the analysis.

Hypothesis #1: **Leadership aspiration**

A two-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for the statistical analysis. The independent variables were gender (man/woman) and clothing (uniform/casual/no picture of clothing), and the dependent variable was leadership aspiration. High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of leadership aspiration. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and the condition on leadership aspiration. There was a difference between males and females in the uniform condition, but not in the casual or the no picture condition. There was a significant main effect for gender depending on condition. There was a difference between the uniform and the casual condition and between the uniform and the no picture condition for males, but not for females. There were no difference between the casual and the no picture condition for either males or females.

There were no missing values on leadership aspiration scale. Residual analysis was performed to test for the assumptions of the two-way ANOVA. There was one outlier among men in the uniform condition, but since it was not extreme it was kept in the analysis. Investigation of normal Q-Q plots showed fairly normal distribution. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene´s test for equality of variances, p= .16.

Testing for interaction effects. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and the manipulation (type of clothing) on "leadership aspiration", F (2, 253) =3.21, p = .04, partial η^2 =. 025. There was a statistically significant difference in leadership aspiration between males and females in the uniform condition, F (1, 253) = 3.64, p= .057, partial η^2 =. 014. For males and females in the uniform condition, mean leadership aspiration score was 1.63, 95% CI [-3.31, .05] lower for males than females, F (1, 253) = 3.64, p= .057, partial η^2 =. 014. As shown in table 2, in the uniform condition, leadership aspiration for males was (M=3.73, SD=. 77) and (M=4.0, SD=. 08) for females. In the casual clothing condition, leadership aspiration score for males was (M=4.12, SD= .57) and (M=4.13, SD=. 71) for females, a mean difference of .03, 95% CI [-2.01,2.07], F (1, 253) =. 001, p = .98, partial η^2 =. 00, which was not statistically significant. In the condition with no picture present, leadership aspiration for males was (M=4.14, SD =. 60) and (M=3.89, SD=. 71) for females, a mean difference of 1.50, 95% CI [-.26,3.26], F (1, 253) = 2.82, p = .09, partial η^2 = .011, which was not statistically significant.

Table 2. *Means and standard deviations for leadership aspiration.*

Condition	Males	Females
Uniform	*M*=3.73 (SD=. 77)	*M*=4.0 (SD=. 08)
Casual	*M*=4.12 (SD=. 57)	*M*=4.13 (SD=. 71)
No picture	*M*=4.14 (SD=. 60)	*M*=3.89 (SD=. 71)

Testing for main effects. There was a statistically significant difference for males depending on condition, F (2, 253) =4.91, p = .01, partial η^2 = .037, but not for females F (2,253) =1.17, p = .31, partial η^2 = .009. For males in the uniform condition (M=3.73, SD = .77) and (M=4.12, SD = .57) for males in the casual condition, a statistically significant mean difference of 2.37, 95% CI [-4.68, -.05], p = .04. For males in the uniform condition (M=3.73, SD =. 77) and in the no picture condition (M=4.14, SD =. 60), a statistically significant mean difference of 2.46, 95% CI [.34, 4.59], p = .02. For males in the casual condition the mean was (M=4.12, SD =. 57) and in the no picture condition (M=4.14, SD = .60), which was not a statistically significant difference, .10, 95% CI [-2.30, 49], p = 1.0.

Hypothesis #2: Leadership self-efficacy

A two-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for the statistical analysis. The independent variables were gender (man/woman) and clothing (uniform/casual/no picture of clothing), and the dependent variable was leadership self-efficacy. High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of leadership self-efficacy. The analysis revealed no statistically significant interaction effects, nor main effects.

There were four cases that had missing values on the leadership self-efficacy scale, which were excluded. There was one outlier among men in the casual condition, and since SPSS labeled it as extreme (3 box-lengths from the edge of the box in a boxplot) it was removed from the analysis. There were also three outliers among women in the casual condition, but since they were not extreme they were kept in the analysis. Data was normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk´s test ($p => .05$) and investigation of normal Q-Q plots also showed normal distribution. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene´s test for equality of variances, $p= .47$.

Testing for interaction effects. There was no statistically significant interaction between gender and manipulation condition on leadership self-efficacy $F (2, 252) = .94$, $p = .39$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$.

Testing for main effects. There were no statistically significant main effects of gender on leadership self-efficacy, $F (1, 252) = .68$, $p = .41$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$, nor of condition on leadership self-efficacy, $F (2, 252) = 2.46$, $p = .09$, partial $\eta^2 = .2$.

Hypothesis #3: Group identification (gender)

A two-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for the statistical analysis. The independent variables were gender (man/woman) and clothing (uniform/casual/no picture of clothing), and the dependent variable was group identification (gender). High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of group identification. The analysis revealed no statistically significant interaction effects, nor main effects.

There were four missing values on the group identification scale, they were spread across the groups and were excluded. There were six outliers on the group identification scale, but since they were random and none of theme was labeled as extreme by SPSS, they were kept in the analysis. Investigation of normal Q-Q plots showed fairly normal distribution. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene´s test for equality of variances, $p= .35$.

Testing for interaction effects. There were no statistically significant interaction between gender and manipulation condition on group identification $F(2, 253) = .24$, $p = .79$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$.

Testing for main effects. There were no statistically significant main effects of gender on group identification, $F(1, 253) = 1.21$, $p = .27$, partial $\eta^2 = .005$, nor of condition on group identification, $F(2, 253) = 1.55$, $p = .22$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$.

Hypothesis #4: Social identity threat

A two-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for the statistical analysis. The independent variables were gender (man/woman) and clothing (uniform/casual/no picture of clothing), and the dependent variable was social identity threat. High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of social identity threat. The analysis revealed no statistically significant interaction effects, nor main effects for conditions on social identity threat. Although, there was a statistically significant main effect for gender on social identity threat.

There were four missing values on the social identity threat scale, which were excluded. There were five outliers on the social identity threat scale, which of one was extreme and therefor was excluded. The remaining three was kept in the analysis since they were spread across both genders and conditions. Investigation of normal Q-Q plots showed fairly normal distribution. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene´s test for equality of variances, $p = .06$.

Testing for interaction effects. There were no statistically significant interaction between gender and manipulation condition on social identity threat $F(2, 248) = .15$, $p = .86$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$.

Testing for main effects. There were no statistically significant main effects of condition on social identity threat, $F(2, 248) = 2.04$, $p = .13$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. There was a statistically significant main effect for gender on social identity threat, $F(1, 248) = 353.08$, $p = .00$, partial $\eta^2 = .59$. As shown in table 3 below, women reported higher perceived social identity threat as compared to men, 19.43, 95% CI [17.39, -21.46], $p = < .001$.

Table 3. *Means and standard deviations for social identity threat.*

Condition	Males	Females
Uniform	*M*=18.04 (SD= 5.46)	*M*=36.73 (SD=9.35)
Casual	*M*= 19.90 (SD= 8.17)	*M*= 40.00 (SD= 8.98)
No picture	*M*= 19.07 (SD= 8.43)	*M*= 38.56 (SD= 8.10)

Hypotheses #5: Family flexibility

A two-way between groups ANOVA was conducted for the statistical analysis. The independent variables were gender (man/woman) and clothing (uniform/casual/no picture of clothing), and the dependent variable was family flexibility. High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of importance for family flexibility. The analysis revealed no statistically significant interaction effects, nor main effects.

There were two missing values on the family flexibility scale, which were excluded. There were 2 outliers on the family flexibility scale, but since none was extreme they were kept in the analysis. Investigation of normal Q-Q plots showed normal distribution. There was homogeneity of variance, as assessed by Levene´s test for equality of variances, p= .56. High scores indicated high levels, and low scores indicate low levels of importance for family flexibility.

Testing for interaction effects. There were no statistically significant interaction between gender and manipulation condition on family flexibility $F(2, 251) = .85$, $p = .43$, partial $\eta^2 = .007$.

Testing for main effects. There were no statistically significant main effects of gender on family flexibility, $F(1, 251) = 3.14$, $p = .078$, partial $\eta^2 = .012$, nor of condition on family flexibility, $F(2, 251) = .78$, $p = .46$, partial $\eta^2 = .006$.

Discussion

In this study I investigated whether the stereotypical male authoritarian uniform used within the Swedish prison and probation service could affect participant's leadership aspiration, leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender) social identity threats and/or family flexibility. None of the hypotheses were supported, although some very interesting

results were found. The uniform used within the Swedish prison and probation service does influence our leadership aspiration, and it does affect men and women differently. Also, women´s social identity threat was significantly higher in comparison to men´s. This study is important because there is an inequality between men and women on the position of officer on duty within the Swedish prison and probation service, and it is important to investigate why and thereby also what can be done to even it out.

Hypothesis #1 was that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower leadership aspiration as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform. This hypothesis was not supported, although some really interesting results were reveled. There was an interaction effect between gender and condition on leadership aspiration. In the uniform condition there was a difference between men and women, but in the casual condition and the no picture condition there were no difference between men and women. When moving on to main effects, the analysis revealed that there was no difference for women depending on condition. For men on the other hand, there was a statistically significant difference between both the uniform condition and the casual condition and between the uniform condition and the no picture condition. There was no difference between the casual condition and the no picture condition for men. The fact that there is no difference between the casual condition and the no picture condition is not unexpected, since they are both "uniform absent" in contrast to the uniform condition, which of course is "uniform present". That the uniform is present is the manipulation, and no differences between the casual clothing condition and the no picture condition were expected.

It is interesting that there were no differences between women depending on condition; the uniform did simply not affect them. It is surprising when considering the results that Davies, Spencer & Steele (2005) found; that women´s leadership aspiration dropped when they were presented gender stereotypical commercials. In contrast to women, men were affected by the uniform, but not in the expected way. In complete opposite of the hypothesis, men´s leadership aspiration dropped when they were reminded of the uniform. But why is that? When considering the results that Boatwright & Egidio (2003) presented, one could imagine that they feel that they cannot live up to the masculine stereotype that comes with the uniform, and that they fear negative evaluation in connection to this, and therefore are less interested in becoming a leader.

Hypothesis #4 was that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have higher perceived social identity threat as compared to men who are reminded of the

uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform. The analysis did not support the hypothesis, although it revealed that women experience higher social identity threat as compared to men in general. This goes hand in hand with the results that Schmitt et al (2002) presented, that women still expect more prejudice and discrimination when it comes to questions concerning gender, in comparison to men. It is also equivalent with the results presented by Schmader et al (2001) concerning women's performance on a math test. To sum up, the results are not surprising, but it does not make it less tragic.

Hypothesis #2 was that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower leadership self-efficacy as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform. The analysis showed no support for this hypothesis, and it was rejected. As earlier discussed, Davies, Spencer & Steele (2005b) showed in their study that in a group task, women tend to choose a subordinate role over a leadership role, but when being informed that both men and women are equally capable to occupy both roles the differences were completely eliminated. When considering these results, one could imagine that because of the discussion regarding inequality that has exploded in the social media during the last couple of years, women are not feeling threatened by the uniform. This since they are aware of the fact that the inequality has nothing to do with men´s and women´s capability to perform leadership, and so they believe that they can become good leaders, and also want to, all in line with the results from Davies, Spencer & Steele (2005b).

Hypothesis #3 was that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work have lower group identification as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform. The analysis showed no support for this hypothesis, and it was rejected. As Turner (1991) described, our personal identity sometimes takes a step back and instead we behave and think according to the norms in the group that we belong to. Since the participants in this study were recruited at their University, one could imagine that they categorize themselves in accordance to their education and not to their gender when answering the questionnaire, which could explain the results.

Hypothesis #5 was that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform at work report a higher importance for family flexibility as compared to men who are reminded of the uniform, and both men and women who are not reminded of the uniform. The analysis showed no support for this hypothesis either, and it was rejected. Barnett & Hyde (2001) showed in their study that the roles within the family have changed remarkably for men and women over the last 50 years. It might be so, that the uniform does not remind women of the

stereotypical role and that they have to take the biggest responsibility within the family, but that it reminds men that they have to take as much responsibility for the family as women. This could explain the results, or lack of results regarding this hypothesis in this study.

Limitations

When it comes to limitations of the study, first of all it is difficult to be completely sure that the manipulation is strong enough. It is difficult to capture a dark uniform with all its details in a photo. This in combination with the description of the post of officer on duty might not be as covering as it could have been. Although, it is difficult to describe all about the post of officer on duty, without the participants getting suspicious. It is important that the participants do not suspect that they are being primed with the photo, but that it is just a part of the advertisement. The post of officer on duty within the Swedish prison and probation service is maybe not so well known among the population, which could reduce the participant´s interest, which also could have affected their answers. One could also mention the participants, and that they were all quite young and still in the beginning of their education, and may not yet be interested in a career of any kind. If the participants would have been individuals working within the Swedish prison and probation service the results might have been different, mostly since they are aware of the organization and the post of officer on duty and its position as a leader. They would also be older and more interested in a career as compared to the students in this study.

Regarding the validity and reliability of the study, the scales that were used are well known, frequently used and have shown good internal consistency (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2009) both in previous studies (Gray & O'Brien, 2007, Bobbio & Maganelli, 2009, Luthanen & Crocker, 1992, Frome, Eccles & Barber, 2006) and the present study. In addition to this, when significant results were found, there were no differences between the casual condition and the no picture condition. This provides us with the information that it is the presence or absence of the uniform that has lead to the results. The picture is the only factor that separates the groups, and thus possible confounders can be eliminated. Regarding the external validity and the generalizability of the study, the results can at this stage not be generalized to all kinds of uniforms, but only the one used in this study. In the same way, the sample consists of students only and can thus not be generalized to the whole population (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2001). Since the study is the first of its kind, the aim was not to create a study with results generalizable to the entire population, but rather to serve as a starting point for further research on the topic. There are no factors indicating that the sample should not be representative for students in general (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2001).

Future research

It is clear that the uniform affects leadership aspiration, but even though no support was found for the hypothesis regarding the uniform affecting our leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender), social identity threat or family flexibility it is difficult to imagine that they do not have any connection at all.

For future research, it would be interesting to see if women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform and who have a high group identification (gender) could have lower levels of leadership aspiration as compared to women with low levels of group identification (gender). Could it be that women with high group identification (gender) experience a greater role conflict when asked to wear a stereotypically male uniform, and therefore does not want to become a leader to the same extent as compared to women with low group identification (gender)? You could also apply the same kind of thought for social identity threat and leadership self-efficacy as mediators on leadership aspiration. For example, could it be that women who are reminded that they will wear a uniform will experience higher social identity threat and therefore have lower leadership aspiration, this as compared to women who are not reminded of the uniform and men? One could imagine that women would feel threatened by the stereotypical male uniform, and therefore would report lower levels of leadership aspiration due to this. You could also imagine that women who are reminded that they would wear a uniform would have lower levels of leadership self efficacy, and therefore also report lower levels of leadership aspiration as compared to women who are not reminded of the uniform, and men. This since the uniform would remind women of the stereotypical view of leadership as masculine and something for men only.

It would also be interesting to investigate if different kinds of uniforms and clothing in general affects us in different ways, maybe in connection to group identification (gender). It would not be to bold to state that individuals are affected by their level of group identification (gender) and therefore maybe choose a career where you are allowed to wear the kind of clothing that goes hand in hand with it.

For the Swedish prison and probation service, it is of great importance that they apply resources to try to not only figure out the reasons for the inequality, but also to eliminate it.

Conclusions

To sum up and answer the question I asked in the beginning of this thesis; can clothing influence your choice of career? Is Virginia Woolf´s well known quote also applicable on working life and leadership? The answer is yes. At the very least, the uniform used at the Swedish prison and probation service does influence our leadership aspiration, and it does

affect men and women differently. The fact that there was a statistically significant difference in men´s and women´s perceived social identity threat when imagining working as an officer on duty within the Swedish prison and probation service is concerning, even though no parallels could be drawn to the uniform. Although no support was found for the hypothesis regarding the uniform affecting our leadership self-efficacy, group identification (gender) or family flexibility, we cannot rule out that clothing (and specifically the uniform) is not an important factor when it comes to the connection between these factors and leadership in general. It is of great importance that we continue to investigate this topic, because even if we value equality and its importance higher today than we did 100 years ago, we still have a long way to go. Women are just as well fitted to become leaders as men; we just need to get rid of the old-fashioned view of leadership as something for men only, and start seeing the individual instead of the gender.

References

Adams, F. & Osgood, C. (1973). A cross-cultural cultural study of the affective meaning of color. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology. 4(2),* 135-156.

Aron, A., Aron, E. N., & Coups, E. J. (2009). Statistics for psychology, 5th edition. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Bakken, L., Sheridan, J. & Carnes, M. (2003). Gender differences among physician-scientists in self-assessed abilities to perform clinical research. *Academic Medicine 78(12),* 1281–1286.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: a social cognitive theory. Prentice Hall, NJ: Englewood Cliffs.

Barnett, R.C. & Hyde, J.S. (2001). Women, men, work, and family. *American Psychologist, 56,* 781–796.

Boatwright, K. J. & Egidio, R.K. (2003). Psychological predictors of college women´s leadership aspirations. *Journal of collage student development, 45 (5),* 653-669.

Bobbio, A. & Manganelli, A. M. (2009). Leadership self-efficacy scale. A new multidimensional instrument. *TPM. Testing, psychometrics, methodology in applied psychology. 16 (1),* 3-24.

Brown, S. D. & Lent, R.W. (2006). On conceptualizing and assessing social cognitive constructs in career research: A measurement guide. *Journal of career assessment, 14(1),* 12–35.

Chemers, M. M., Watson, C. B., & May, S.T. (2000). Dispositional affect and leadership effectiveness: A comparison of self-esteem, optimism, and efficacy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26(3),* 267-277.

Davis, P.G., Spencer, S.J. & Steele, C.M. (2005b). Clearing the air: Identity safety moderates the effects of stereotype threat on women´s leadership aspirations. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 88(2),* 276-287.

Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The Leadership styles of women and men. *Journal Of Social Issues, 57(4),* 781-797.

Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J., & Makhijani, M. G. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 117,* 125–145.

Eagly, A. & Karau, S. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological review, 109(3),* 573-598.

Eagly, A.H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: resolving
    the contradictions. *Psychology of women Quarterly, 31*, 1-12.

Eccles, J. S. (1994). Understanding women's educational and occupational choices: Applying
    the Eccles et al. model of achievement-related choices. *Psychology of
    Women Quarterly, 18,* 585 – 609.

European Commission. (2012). Progress on equality between women and men in 2011.
    Retrieved March 1, 2015 from:
    http://ec.europa.eu/justice/genderequality/files/progress_on_equality_between_women
    _and_men_in_2011.pdf

Evans, M. (2013). Women in leadership- a different story. *The Psychologist, 26(12),* 874-877.

Farmer, H. S. (1997). Women's motivation related to mastery, career salience, and
    career aspiration: A multivariate model focusing on the effects of sex role
    socialization. *Journal of Career Assessment, 5*, 355–381.

Frome, P.M., Alfeld, C.J., Eccles, J.C. & Barber, B.L. (2006). Why don't they want a male-
    dominated job? An investigation of young women who changed their occupational
    aspirations. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on
    Theory and Practice, 12(4),* 359-372.

Gordon, L.V. & Medland, F.F. (1965b). Leadership aspiration and leadership ability.
    Psychological reposts, 17, 388-390.

Gray, M. P., & O'Brien, K. M. (2007). Advancing the assessment of women's career
    choices: The Career Aspiration Scale. *Journal of Career Assessment, 15*, 317-337.

Harvey, T.R. (2007). African American woman´s career development: the role of self-
    efficacy as a mediator of leadership aspirations. The Pennsylvania State University.

Heilman, M.E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent
    women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues, 57,* 657-674.

Hoyt, C.L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in
    women's identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational
    Studies 11,* 2–14.

Hoyt, C.L. & Blascovich, J. (2007). Leadership efficacy and women leaders' responses
    to stereotype activation. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 10,* 595–616.

Johnsson, R.R (2001). The psychological influence of the police uniform. *Law
    and enforcement bulletin, 70(3),* 27-32.

Johns, M., Schmader, T., & Martens, A. (2005). Knowing is half the battle:
    teaching stereotype threat as a means of improving women's math performance.

Psychological Science, 16(3), 175–179.

Jozefowicz, D.M., Barber, B. L. & Eccles, J. S. (1993). Adolescent work-related values
and beliefs: Gender differences and relation to occupational aspirations. *Paper
presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research on Child Development,
New Orleans, LA.*

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies. R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A
qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(4),* 765-780.

Kane, T. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Tremble, T. T., Jr. & Masuda, A. D. (2002). An examination
of the leader's regulation of groups. *Small Group Research, 33(1),* 65-120.

Kray, L.J., Thompson, L. & Galinsky, A. (2001). Battle of the sexes: gender
stereotype confirmation and reactance in negotiations. *Journal of Personal and Social
Psychology, 80(6),* 942–58.

Luhtanen, R., & Crocker, J. (1992). A collective self-esteem scale: Self-evaluation of
one´s social identity. *Personal and social psychology Bulletin, 18,* 302-318.

Luscher, M. & Scott, I. (1969). The Luscher color test (The Luscher color test (New York,
NY Washington Square Press, 1969), L B Wexner. "The degrees to which colors are
associated with mood-tones*". Journal of applied psychology 38,* 432-435.

Lyness, K. S., & Thompson, D. E. (2000). Climbing the corporate ladder: Do female and
male executives follow the same rules? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 86–101.

Maroldo, G. K. (1988). Private shyness, social loneliness, and supervisory
behavior. *Organization Development Journal, 6,* 56-62.

Martin, C.L., & Rubble, D. (2004). Children´s search for gender cues: Cognitive
perspectives on gender development*. Current directions in psychological science, 13,*
67-70.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology. (1999). A study on the status of women faculty
in science at MIT. *The MIT Faculty newsletter, 11(4).* Milgram, S. (1974). Obedience
to authority. New York: Harper & Row.

McCormick, M.J. (2001). Self-efficacy and leadership effectiveness: applying social
cognitive theory to leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies 8,*
22–33.

McCormick, M.J., Tanguma, J. & Lopez-Forment, A.S. (2002). Extending self-efficacy
theory to leadership: a review and empirical test. *Journal of Leadership Education, 1,*
34–49.

Morrison, A. M., White, R. P., & Van Velsor, E. (1987). Breaking the glass ceiling: Can

women reach the top of America's largest corporations? Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Murphy, S.E. (1992). The contribution of leadership experience and self-efficacy to group performance under evaluation apprehension. Seattle: University of Washington.

Ng, K.Y., Ang, S. & Chan, K.Y. (2008). Personality and leader effectiveness: A moderated mediation model of leadership self-efficacy, job demands, and job autonomy. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93(4),* 733-743.

Paglis, L.L., & Green, S.G. (2002). Leadership self-efficacy and managers' motivation for leading change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23(2),* 215-235.

Peter, L & R, Hull. (1969). The Peter Principle: why things always go wrong. New York, William Morrow and company.

Schmader, T. (2002). Gender identification moderates stereotype threats on women´s math performance. *Journal of experimental social psychology, 38,* 194-201.

Schmader, T., Johns, M. Keiffer, V.A., Healy, E.A. & Fairchild-Ollivierre, S (2001). Stereotype threats as "double devaluation." Un-published manuscript. University of Arizona.

Schmitt, M.T., Branscombe, N.R., Kobrynowicz, D. & Owen, S. (2002). Perceiving discrimination against one´s gender group has different implications for well-being in women and men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28,* 197-210.

Shadish, W.R., Cook, T.D., & Campbell, D.T. (2001). Experimental and Quasi-Experimental designs for Generalized Causal Inference. Boston Houghton Mifflin Company.

Statistics Sweden. (2014). Women and men in Sweden 2014. Facts and figures. Retrieved March 1, 2015 from:
http://www.scb.se/Statistik/_Publikationer/LE0201_2013B14_BR_X10BR1401.pdf

Statistics Sweden. (2015). Befolkningens utbildning, version 2015-01-01. Retrieved from:
http://www.scb.se/Statistik/UF/UF0506/_dokument/UF0506_BS_2014_150413.pdf

Steele, C. M., & Aronson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African-Americans. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69,* 797–811.

Swedish prison and probation service (Kriminalvården). (2014). Lönebild 2014-04-01.

Tajfel, H. (1981). Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Univ. Press.

Worchel, S. & Austin, W.G. (Eds.), The psychology of intergroup relations, 7-24. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Turner, J.C. (1991). Social influence. Milton Keynes: Open University press.

Valdez, P., & Mehrabian, A. (1994). Effects of color on emotion. *Journal of experimental psychology: general. 123,* 394-409.

Ware, N.C. & Lee, V.E. (1988). Sex differences in choice of college science majors. *American Educational Research Journal, 25(4),* 593 – 614.

Williams, J., Moreland, J. & Underwood, W. (1970). Connotations of color names in the US, Europe and Asia. *Journal of social psychology, 82*, 3-14.

Appendix A, informed consent

Följande enkät är en del av min masteruppsats i psykologi vid Lunds Universitet, som handlar om intresset för att göra karriär. Ditt deltagande är helt frivilligt, och du kan välja att avbryta när helst du önskar utan att förklara varför. Dina svar är helt anonyma, och kommer inte att kunna bli härledda tillbaka till dig. Genom att svara på enkäten lämnar du ditt samtycke. Det är viktigt att du svarar färdigt på ett blad i taget, och inte tittar på resterande blad i förväg. Samtala inte med någon annan, det är dina svar som jag är intresserad av. Det är viktigt att du svarar på alla frågor. Det tar ca 10 minuter att svara på enkäten, men det är ingen tidspress så ta den tid du behöver.

Om du i efterhand har några frågor, är du varmt välkommen att höra av dig till ameliefritz@live.se.

Varmt tack för ditt deltagande, det är mycket uppskattat!
Amelie Vilson Fritz

Appendix B, manipulation with uniform

Vänligen läs följande arbetsannons noggrant.

Vakthavande Befäl Anstalt/Häkte

Anställning
Anställningsform: Tillsvidareanställning
Omfattning: Heltid. 100 %
Arbetstid: Vakthavande Befäl tjänstgör enligt schema, arbetstid kan vara förlagt när som helst på dygnet (även helger och röda dagar).

Arbetsuppgifter
Som Vakthavande befäl ansvarar du för säkerheten vid verksamhetsstället. Vakthavande befäl ska operativt leda och fördela dagliga arbetsuppgifter. Vakthavande befäl finns i tjänst måndag till söndag och utgör, utanför kontorstid, lokalt högsta operativa beslutsfattare under Kriminalvårdschef i beredskap. Vakthavande befäl företräder arbetsgivaren och är en garanti för att chefslinjen bibehålls hela vägen ut till samtlig personal, förankrar fattade beslut, kommunicerar rakt och tydligt och bidrar till en trygg och effektiv arbetsmiljö. Några av de arbetsuppgifter befattningen innefattar är; Följa upp det dagliga säkerhetsarbetet och vid behov vidta åtgärder t ex visitationer, följa upp säkerhetsrutiners efterlevnad, genomföra säkerhetssamtal, säkerhetsbedömningar och suicidscreening, skapa och utveckla system för uppföljning av dagliga säkerhetsinsatser, planera transporter, bedöma behovet av bemanning mm. Vakthavande befäl har också ett särskilt operativt ansvar vid incidenter. Vakthavande befälsgruppen är inne i en utvecklingsfas med fokus på att förtydliga ledarskapet.

Vänligen svara på dessa frågor. Ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som passar in bäst på dig.

Hur intresserad är du att söka ovanstående tjänst som Vakthavande befäl i framtiden?

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls intresserad				Mycket intresserad

Hur säker är du på att du framgångsrikt skulle klara av de arbetsuppgifter som krävs av ett vakthavande befäl.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls säker				Helt säker

Appendix C, manipulation with casual clothing

Vänligen läs följande arbetsannons noggrant.

Vakthavande Befäl Anstalt/Häkte

Anställning
Anställningsform: Tillsvidareanställning
Omfattning: Heltid. 100 %
Arbetstid: Vakthavande Befäl tjänstgör enligt schema, arbetstid kan vara förlagt när som helst på dygnet (även helger och röda dagar).

Arbetsuppgifter
Som Vakthavande befäl ansvarar du för säkerheten vid verksamhetsstället. Vakthavande befäl ska operativt leda och fördela dagliga arbetsuppgifter. Vakthavande befäl finns i tjänst måndag till söndag och utgör, utanför kontorstid, lokalt högsta operativa beslutsfattare under Kriminalvårdschef i beredskap. Vakthavande befäl företräder arbetsgivaren och är en garanti för att chefslinjen bibehålls hela vägen ut till samtlig personal, förankrar fattade beslut, kommunicerar rakt och tydligt och bidrar till en trygg och effektiv arbetsmiljö. Några av de arbetsuppgifter befattningen innefattar är; Följa upp det dagliga säkerhetsarbetet och vid behov vidta åtgärder t ex visitationer, följa upp säkerhetsrutiners efterlevnad, genomföra säkerhetssamtal, säkerhetsbedömningar och suicidscreening, skapa och utveckla system för uppföljning av dagliga säkerhetsinsatser, planera transporter, bedöma behovet av bemanning mm. Vakthavande befäl har också ett särskilt operativt ansvar vid incidenter. Vakthavande befälsgruppen är inne i en utvecklingsfas med fokus på att förtydliga ledarskapet.

Vänligen svara på dessa frågor. Ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som passar in bäst på dig.

Hur intresserad är du att söka ovanstående tjänst som Vakthavande befäl i framtiden?

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls intresserad				Mycket intresserad

Hur säker är du på att du framgångsrikt skulle klara av de arbetsuppgifter som krävs av ett vakthavande befäl.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls säker				Helt säker

Appendix D, manipulation without picture

Vänligen läs följande arbetsannons noggrant.

Vakthavande Befäl Anstalt/Häkte

Anställning
Anställningsform: Tillsvidareanställning
Omfattning: Heltid. 100 %
Arbetstid: Vakthavande Befäl tjänstgör enligt schema, arbetstid kan vara förlagt när som helst på dygnet (även helger och röda dagar).

Arbetsuppgifter
Som Vakthavande befäl ansvarar du för säkerheten vid verksamhetsstället. Vakthavande befäl ska operativt leda och fördela dagliga arbetsuppgifter. Vakthavande befäl finns i tjänst måndag till söndag och utgör, utanför kontorstid, lokalt högsta operativa beslutsfattare under Kriminalvårdschef i beredskap. Vakthavande befäl företräder arbetsgivaren och är en garanti för att chefslinjen bibehålls hela vägen ut till samtlig personal, förankrar fattade beslut, kommunicerar rakt och tydligt och bidrar till en trygg och effektiv arbetsmiljö. Några av de arbetsuppgifter befattningen innefattar är; Följa upp det dagliga säkerhetsarbetet och vid behov vidta åtgärder t ex visitationer, följa upp säkerhetsrutiners efterlevnad, genomföra säkerhetssamtal, säkerhetsbedömningar och suicidscreening, skapa och utveckla system för uppföljning av dagliga säkerhetsinsatser, planera transporter, bedöma behovet av bemanning mm. Vakthavande befäl har också ett särskilt operativt ansvar vid incidenter. Vakthavande befälsgruppen är inne i en utvecklingsfas med fokus på att förtydliga ledarskapet.

Vänligen svara på dessa frågor. Ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som passar in bäst på dig.

Hur intresserad är du att söka ovanstående tjänst som Vakthavande befäl i framtiden?

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls intresserad				Mycket intresserad

Hur säker är du på att du framgångsrikt skulle klara av de arbetsuppgifter som krävs av ett vakthavande befäl.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls säker				Helt säker

Appendix E, leadership aspiration

Efter varje påstående, vänligen ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som bäst stämmer överens med dig.

	Stämmer inte alls in på mig	Stämmer lite grand in på mig	Stämmer någotsånär in på mig	Stämmer till stor del in på mig	Stämmer helt in på mig
Jag hoppas på att bli ledare inom mitt yrkesområde.	1	2	3	4	5
När jag är etablerad i min karriär skulle jag vilja leda andra anställda.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag skulle vara tillfreds med att bara göra mitt jobb inom ett yrke som intresserar mig.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag har inte för avsikt att lägga energi på att försöka att bli befordrad inom den organisation eller företag där jag arbetar.	1	2	3	4	5
När jag är etablerad i min yrkeskarriär skulle jag vilja utveckla och lära upp andra.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag hoppas på att kunna klättra i karriären inom vilken organisation eller företag jag än arbetar.	1	2	3	4	5
När jag avslutat den grundläggande utbildning som krävs för ett specifikt jobb, ser jag ingen poäng med att fortsätta studera.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag planerar att utvecklas till en expert inom mitt yrkesområde.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag tror att jag skulle vilja vidareutbilda mig inom det yrkesområde som intresserar mig.	1	2	3	4	5
Att bli en ledare under min yrkeskarriär är inte särskilt viktigt för mig.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F, leadership self-efficacy

Har du tidigare arbetat som ledare?   ☐Ja   ☐Nej

Hur bra ledare bedömer du att du är/ skulle vara?

1	2	3	4	5
Mycket dålig				Mycket bra

Efter varje påstående, vänligen ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som bäst stämmer överens med dig.

	Stämmer inte alls in på mig				Stämmer helt in på mig
ag har förmågan att leda en grupp i en ny riktning, om ag anser att den nuvarande inte är korrekt.	1	2	3	4	5
ag kan vanligtvis förändra gruppmedlemmars attityder ch beteende, om de inte möter gruppens mål.	1	2	3	4	5
ag har förmågan att påverka saker i en grupp även om len inte är helt under min kontroll.	1	2	3	4	5
ag är trygg med min förmåga att välja ruppmedlemmar för att bilda ett effektivt och verksamt eam.	1	2	3	4	5
ag har förmågan att på ett optimalt sätt fördela arbete nellan gruppmedlemmar för att nå det bästa resultatet.	1	2	3	4	5
ag skulle klara att delegera uppgiften att uppnå pecifika mål, till andra gruppmedlemmar.	1	2	3	4	5
ag förstår vanligen vem det är bäst att delegera pecifika uppgifter till, inom en grupp.	1	2	3	4	5
/anligtvis kan jag skapa väldigt bra relationer med de ersoner jag arbetar med.	1	2	3	4	5
ag är säker på att jag kan kommunicera med andra och å direkt till ämnets kärna.	1	2	3	4	5
ag kan framgångsrikt hantera relationerna med alla nedlemmar av en grupp.	1	2	3	4	5

Jag kan identifiera mina styrkor och svagheter.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag är trygg i min förmåga att få saker gjorda.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag vet alltid hur jag ska få ut det bästa av de situationer jag befinner mig i.	1	2	3	4	5
Med min erfarenhet och kompetens kan jag hjälpa gruppmedlemmar att nå gruppens mål.	1	2	3	4	5
Som ledare kan jag oftast få mina övertygelser och värderingar bekräftade.	1	2	3	4	5
Som förebild är jag är säker på att jag kan motivera medlemmarna i en grupp.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag kan oftast motivera gruppmedlemmar och väcka deras entusiasm när jag startar ett nytt projekt.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag har förmågan att motivera och ge möjligheter till alla gruppmedlemmar, när de arbetar med sina uppgifter eller funktioner.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag kan oftast få personerna som arbetar med mig att uppskatta mig.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag är säker på att jag kan uppnå enighet hos medlemmarna i en grupp.	1	2	3	4	5
Jag kan vanligtvis leda en grupp med enighet hos alla medlemmar.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G, group identification (gender)

Vilket är ditt juridiska kön (det som står i ditt pass)? ☐ Man ☐ Kvinna

Efter varje påstående, vänligen ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som bäst stämmer överens med dig.

	Håller inte alls med	Håller med lite grand	Håller med något sånär	Håller med till stor del	Håller helt med
Att vara kvinna/man är viktigt för min självbild.	1	2	3	4	5
Att vara kvinna/man har ingen betydelse för min känsla av vilken sorts person jag är.	1	2	3	4	5
Att vara kvinna/man är en viktig återspegling av vem jag är.	1	2	3	4	5
Att vara kvinna/man har väldigt lite att göra med hur jag känner för mig själv.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix H, social identity threats

Nedan följer en lista av vanligt förekommande karriärhinder, d.v.s. saker som kan hindra personers karriärframsteg, oavsett vilket område de arbetar inom. Jag är intresserad av att veta dina uppfattningar av hur sannolikt du tror att det är att du kommer stöta på dessa hinder i framtiden, <u>om du skulle arbeta som vakthavande befäl</u>. Vänligen ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som bäst stämmer överens med dig.

Om du i framtiden skulle arbeta som vakthavande befäl, hur sannolikt tror du att det är att du kommer att…

Känna att andra personer anser att yrket inte passar personer med mitt kön.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Få en chef som är fördomsfull mot personer av mitt kön.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Bli avrådd från att göra karriär inom detta yrke.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Bli sexuellt trakasserad på jobbet.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Oroa mig för att andra kommer uppleva mig som inte tillräckligt feminin/maskulin.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Bli diskriminerad av arbetsgivare p.g.a. att jag har eller planerar att skaffa barn.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Bli könsdiskriminerad i rekryteringssammanhang.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Känna att det finns begränsade karriärmöjligheter för personer av mitt kön, inom yrket.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Uppleva att personer av det andra könet blir befordrade oftare, jämfört med personer av mitt kön.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Känna att denna karriär är fel för mig, p.g.a. mitt kön.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Få lägre lön jämfört med kollegor av det andra könet.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls troligt				Mycket troligt

Appendix I, family flexibility

Efter varje påstående, vänligen ringa in en siffra från 1-5 beroende på vad som bäst stämmer överens med dig. Hur viktigt det är för dig att ha ett jobb med följande egenskaper.

Att ha ett flexibelt arbetsschema som du kan justera för att möta din familjs behov.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls				Mycket

Som inte kräver att du är borta mycket från din familj.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls				Mycket

Som ger dig mycket tid för andra saker i ditt liv.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls				Mycket

Som tillåter dig att vara hemma när dina barn är lediga från skolan (om du har/ får barn).

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls				Mycket

Som möjliggör så att du kan ta mycket ledigt för familjeangelägenheter.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls				Mycket

Appendix J, control questions

Frågor om dig:

Ålder:_____år

Vänligen sätt ett kryss bredvid alternativet som passar bäst in på dig.

Vilken är din högsta genomförda utbildning?

☐ Gymnasium

☐ Högskola/ Universitet mindre än 1 år

☐ Högskola/ Universitet 1-3 år

☐ Högskola/ Universitet 3-5 år

☐ Högskola/ Universitet mer än 5 år

Inom vilket ämne?_____

När du läste jobbannonsen, hur föreställde du dig att du skulle gå klädd om du arbetade som vakthavande befäl? Vänligen sätt ett kryss.

☐ Uniform

☐ Valfri klädsel

☐ Annat, nämligen _____

☐ Tänkte inte på det

Skatta hur bekväm du skulle vara att arbeta i uniformen du ser ovan.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls bekväm				Helt bekväm

Skatta hur bekväm du skulle vara att arbeta i klädseln du ser ovan.

1	2	3	4	5
Inte alls bekväm				Helt bekväm

Visades någon av dessa bilder i samband med jobbannonsen? Vänligen kryssa i ett av de tre alternativen.

Nej, ingen bild
visades.

☐   ☐   ☐

Vad tror du att denna studie handlar om?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Stort tack för din medverkan!