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"The influence of self-efficacy with regard to decision-making behaviour when applying for leadership positions in Austria"

verfasst von / submitted by

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For a new chapter in life.

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e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)
et al.	et alii (and others)
etc.	et cetera (and other similar things)

1. Introduction

In many European countries today, unequal gender distribution can still be seen in certain areas of industry. Higher professional positions in particular show a great inequality between the genders (Botzum 2014). According to the European Union (EU), just under 9.4 million people are working in management positions. Of these, men account for 64% with 6 million management positions and women only account for 36% with just under 3.4 million. Although women make up almost half of all professionals in the EU, women are still heavily underrepresented in management positions (Eurostat 2019). To counteract equal rights in leadership positions, the European Commission has introduced the implementation of the women's quota by 2020. The women's quota determines in the respective European country how many women a company must employ and how high the proportion of female managers must be (European Commission 2012). In Austria, the law on the women's quota of 2012 came into force much later. It was not until 2017 that the National Council passed a law providing for a women's quota of at least 30% on supervisory boards (AK Wien 2020). Furthermore, companies are trying to promote the proportion of women at management level internally with targeted programs for the advancement of women, ranging from special training courses to mentoring offers and networking events, but this has been less successful to date. According to a data survey by Statista Austria, only around 8% of management positions and 22.6% of supervisory board positions at the 200 companies with the highest sales in Austria were held by women (Ostermann 2020).

Already in the application process for leading positions according to a study by the German Economy (IW), only 32% of women apply for management positions. Therefore, the proportion of women in management positions is almost equal to the proportion of female applicants for these positions. Women tend to often apply for jobs, that are below their skill level (J. Schmidt 2018). This distribution is often justified by studies due to a high proportion of part-time employment among women, family interruptions, or also a lack of previous professional training (Botzum 2014). Women are increasingly qualified and finish their university degrees more often than men in European country comparisons. Nevertheless, the job opportunities for both sexes are not the same. Often, it is more difficult for women to pursue certain activities due to their still reinforced role as family caretakers and task as parents to care more for the family than for the career. This inequality is not only reflected in the number of women in

leading positions, but also in the fact that women on average earn less than men for the same work or have to go part-time more often due to family changes, which in turn also leads to a lower salary (European Commission 2021). Accordingly, women are more often confronted with obstacles than men when it comes to professional careers. These obstacles, be it internal company factors such as the lack of childcare facilities (OECD 2015), but also the still strongly lived role distribution of men and women, especially in Austria, significantly influence the decision-making behaviour of both genders (Bauer/Baltes 2002). Thus, it is still the case today that men are attributed stronger leadership competencies than women (Botzum 2014). Above all, the aforementioned role distribution and lived characteristics attributed to both women and men based on their gender influence the development of self-efficacy, which in turn influences decision-making behaviour (Bandura/Locke 2003). According to studies, men tend to have overconfidence behaviour in contrast to women, who tend to be underconfident (Niederle/Versterlund 2006). Overconfidence means that an individual is more confident about himself or herself and his or her abilities than he or she is. The preliminary step to explore this possible overconfidence or underconfidence is to explore the self-efficacy of people, how they assess themselves and their abilities without for the first time having a comparative value to real ability competencies (Weinberg 2009).

This study primarily examines the development of self-efficacy and the possible influence of decision-making behaviour shaped by gender roles on the reluctance of women to apply for management positions compared to men. The focus is on Austrians who have a job in Austria and are employed. The implementation of a quantitative data collection is subject to achieving comparative values and gaining an insight into the topic of self-efficacy as well as possible influencing factors.

1.1 Motivation

Many possible perspectives on the different gender distribution, especially in leadership positions, were conducted to gain initial insights. In this context, the structure of companies but also obstacles for women to even apply for a management position was often noted, such as the lack of childcare places. Thus, on the one hand, the women's quota was introduced, and measures were implemented in many companies to promote women more and to give them a better chance to get into a leading position (Institut der Deutschen Wirtschaft 2018)

Nevertheless, the problem is much more deeply rooted in society and in the culture that is lived. We all develop our self-efficacy in the course of our lives, shaped by various events and tasks that we are constantly confronted with throughout our lives. Sometimes these events happen without us noticing how it affects our attitude, mindset, and self-efficacy. Everyone experiences, whether unconsciously or consciously, a certain kind of gender role distribution that is deeply rooted by society and thus lived by people. These stereotypes of women and men can be found in the media, on billboards, but perhaps also at school. People talk about so-called "traditional" men's jobs and "traditional" women's jobs, which in turn fuels an allocation of skills concerning career choice. Furthermore, women are seen as the providers and caretakers of the family, while men are responsible for financial security. All these factors and stereotypes lived out by society shape our self-efficacy and what skills we believe we have. It is therefore obvious to investigate whether the low number of women applying for management positions might have a much more complicated background that is so strongly anchored in the culture that there needs to be a general rethink on the part of society to strengthen self-efficacy, especially for women.

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

The master thesis can essentially be structured into three different parts. The first part deals with the theoretical introduction to topics that are relevant to the research work. Here, the self-efficacy is specifically dealt with, its development, and which external influencing factors shape the self-efficacy of an individual. Another important part of the theoretical section is the topic of gender stereotyping. As already mentioned in the introduction, self-perception is increasingly influenced by which gender one belongs to, as this goes hand in hand with the abilities that are attributed to one gender due to the distribution of roles within society. Thus, the thesis also deals in depth with the issue of stereotyping, its emergence, and influencing factors that promote gender stereotypes. In the further course, the culture of Austria is examined to fathom possible findings regarding the development of self-efficacy among Austrians.

The second part of the paper describes the methodology used to examine the self-efficacy of working Austrians. On the one hand, the hypotheses formulated based on literature research are explained, and on the other hand, the origin of the research question and the research question is explained.

In the last part of the work, the results of the accomplished inquiry are evaluated and equated with the hypotheses around to analyse, which hypotheses prove themselves and which again not. Finally, the results of the data collection are discussed and evaluated in the discussion section.

2 Self-Belief

2.1 Role Expectation Theory

The term role theory can be described as a metaphor-based on theatre. However, the metaphor of "role" has been used in a variety of ways to create different theoretical traditions of role theory (Biddle 1979). Role theory refers to roles as *"behavioural represences derived from the expectations of others and one's own perceptions and selected at least in part in response to cues and demands"* (Walker 1992: 23).

The origin of a social gender role distribution lies primarily in the physical gender differences developed by humans. Here, for example, the size and strength of men or the reproductive activities of women, such as breastfeeding and carrying children, play a role. In interaction with the culture of a society and the aforementioned circumstances, these physical gender differences lead to the fact that certain activities can be carried out more efficiently by one gender or the other. The idea of gender roles of the social roles of men and women reflects the behaviour of a society. Here, people observe both female and male behaviour and conclude from this concerning the dispositions corresponding to the sexes. It can be observed that especially in post-industrial societies, men are more likely to be employed than women, particularly in leadership positions. Women, on the other hand, are more likely than men to perform care tasks both at home and at work. Thus, a cross-gender division of labour takes place in which, depending on the conception of biological abilities, gender-specific task specialisation that promotes the interest of the community as a whole is represented. The socialisation of society further facilitates that gender-typical roles are performed. Men and women are thus enabled to develop corresponding personality traits or even skills. Thus, attributes are attributed to the sexes that endow men and women with gender-typical roles. This is referred to as gender stereotypes. Because gender roles are seen as innate characteristics that seem to reflect genders and their attributes, they are perceived as natural and inevitably accepted by society. In addition, gender roles and their behaviour are influenced by a trio of biological and psychological processes. (Eager/Wood 2012) Gender roles are a

central integrative concept in the social sciences because they provide an analytical link between the individual and the social environment. It can be stated that role expectations not only exist in the minds of individuals but are also shared with other people. This creates a social consensus, which in turn gives rise to a social structure and culture. Thus, the concept of role distribution was not only assigned to a theory of gender depending on male and female behaviour, but external influences such as culture and social structure also shape the role image of society.

Role theory had been developing for many decades in sociology, social psychology and anthropology before it first received attention in the foreign policy literature following K.J. Holstis' (1970) publication on the study of national role concepts. Here he did not integrate many of the conceptual or theoretical approaches of previous studies but instead focused on the self, in this case, the leaders of the state. In his view, the ideas and beliefs of the leaders shaped the identity of the state and how it operated in the international system, which he called the "national role conceptions". Holsti (1970). Nevertheless, his “national role conceptions” did not import much of the conceptual or theoretical language associated with role theory. Instead, he focused on the simple idea that the self, in this case, the leaders of the state, may have a variety of beliefs or conceptions about the identity of the state and that these "national role conceptions" shape the way a state operates in the international system (Thies/Wehner 2019).

However, the beginnings of research on social role theory began as early as 1950. The experiment of the theorist's Parsons and Barnes (1955) serves as an example of the perception of role distribution. They analysed female and male roles within the traditions of role theory. They described the division of labour between husbands and wives in terms of women's socio-emotional behaviour and men's task-oriented or instrumental behaviour. Likewise, in an experiment with mixed-sex groups, women's behaviours exhibited the trait of maintaining the group with its social concerns and men's behaviours were related to task accomplishment. The conclusion of this experiment was that role differentiation was necessary for a functioning harmonious social interaction in which the sexes fulfilled their abilities (Eagly/Wood 2012). In summary, most of the beliefs regarding the early exploration of role differentiation of men and women can be divided into two concise dimensions, agentic and communal (Bakan 1966). For example, men are assumed to be agentic. Here, men have ascribed characteristics such as controlling, assertive, competitive and dominant. Women, in contrast to men, are assumed to

be communal. Here, qualities such as kind, unselfish, concerned about others and emotionally expressive are attributed to women. This summary of traits is similar to those of Parsons by Barnes (1955) between instrumental and task-oriented and socio-emotional. However, the stereotypes are neither arbitrary nor fundamentally inaccurate. The findings of role allocation have been supported by social psychological research. This shows that social perceivers usually assume that behaviours reflect intrinsic characteristics. This is referred to as a correspondence bias, in which the cognitive processes of inferring traits are derived from an observed behaviour (Gilbert/Malone 1995; Ross 1977).

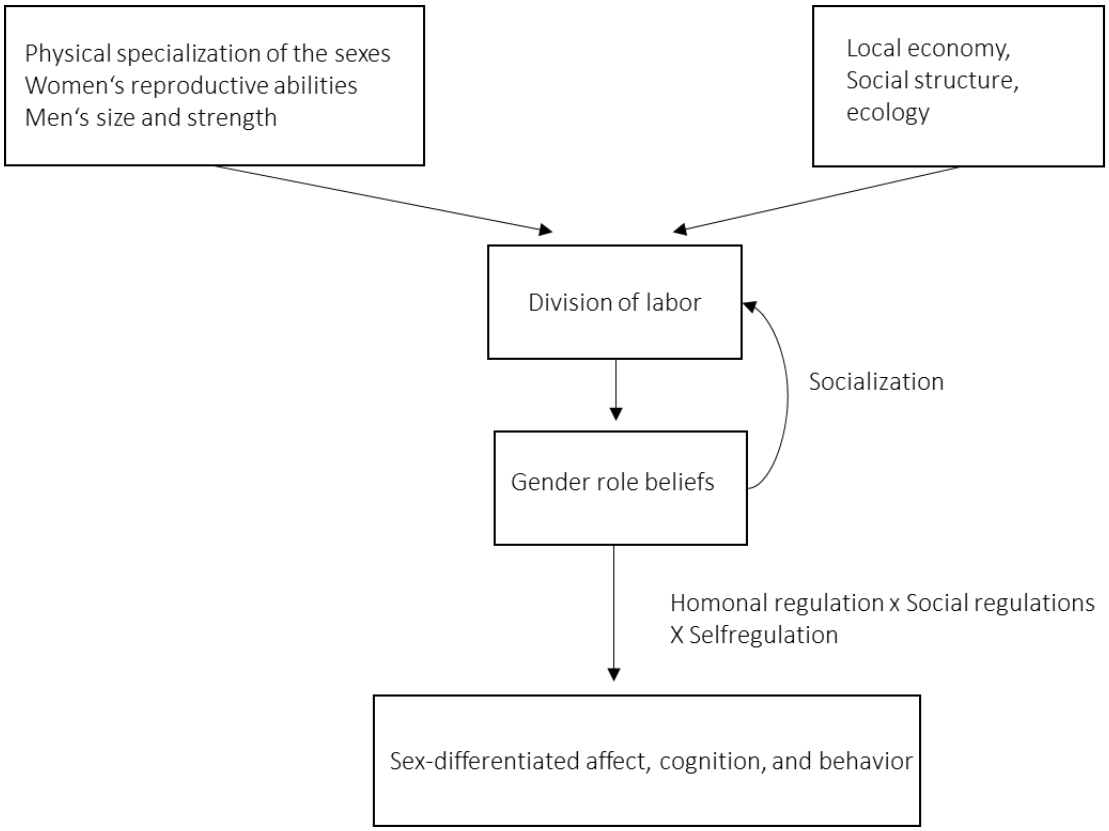

Figure 1:Social Role Theory, gender role differences and similarities through biosocial processes

(Eagly/Wood 2012: 465)

Figure 1 shows an illustration of the connections between various factors that influence the Social Role Theory. On the one hand, biological differences in the abilities of men and women lead to the assumption by society that tasks can be performed differently depending on gender. The ability of women to reproduce allows them to be seen as caring and emotionally social, whereas men have characteristics such as being competitive and task-oriented. This

assumption of different characteristics, together with social structures, the local economy and the ecology of society, influence the division of labour, since depending on the social structure of a society and culture, men and women are also attributed different abilities. Based on the division of labour, gender role beliefs are formed and subsequently socialised. Gender roles and their characteristics are seen as innate abilities by society and are perceived as natural and inevitable (Eagly/Wood 2012).

Thus, the characteristics and abilities attributed to gender become entrenched in people (Eagly/Wood 2012). Wood and Eagly argue (2012) that gender roles influence behaviour through a trio of biosocial mechanisms that in turn influence behaviour in role-appropriate directions. Female and male behaviour includes biological processes involving hormonal changes, socio-cultural factors of gender identity and stereotypical expectations. These three factors interact with each other and influence the cognition, behaviour and sex-differentiated effect of men and women (Eagly/Wood 2012).

2.2 Self Terms

For many, adolescence is an important and crucial stage in life and human development, as it is during this time that cognitive skills are developed that allow them to create a hypothetical-deductive theory of who they are. In doing so, this theory also tries to have internal consistency and avoid contradictions (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to McLean/Breen/Fournier 2010; Piaget 1960). The newly learned cognitive skills influence adolescence, in which one learns to judge and perceive oneself and to reflect on others. At the same time, one thinks about one's abilities, life goals or even behaviour. Probably the most important cognitive skill during adolescence is the development of a coherent and clear sense of identity (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to Erickson 1968), which allows individuals to coordinate their actions, make sense of their own lives and the world, and hopefully establish a positive boundary with society and others. These decisions are always influenced by one's own beliefs, ideals and values. In general, one's identity is seen as a set of goals and beliefs, which is structured according to a cognitive approach (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to Valentine et. Al 2004). These goals and beliefs give a person a coherent and consistent idea of who they want to be and who they are (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to Bronk 2011). The self-beliefs mentioned is in turn a relationship between self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy. These conceptualisations to define self-

belief are the most commonly used terms and all three theoretically share a common focus about a person's characteristics and abilities (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to Loos 2003; Hattie 1992; Wylie 1979). The question of the concept of the self has been around for decades and is of great interest. The self has even been described by some as a human need, so that Fromm (1947), for example, described the self as the "inner nature" and "essential" nature of a person (Hattie 1992).

Self-efficacy beliefs refer to the degree of confidence that individuals possess to achieve the desired outcome. These include the resources available, the amount of effort, the difficulty of the task, the type of help received from others, and one's own and others' expectations (Bandura 2006). The consistency and initiation of the respective behaviour are controlled by influences. On the one hand, the significance and importance of certain outcomes, goals or consequences (outcome value), the expectation regarding the effect of a certain behaviour to achieve the outcome (outcome expectancy), and the judgement and expectation regarding the effectiveness of certain behaviour leading to the outcome (self-efficacy expectancy) (Maddux 2009). Additionally, beliefs are also related to the evaluation of the elements of the self-concept. Furthermore, outcomes can also differ based on the resources and skills a person has available or the organisational ability to cope with a situation (Bandura 2006).

Self-concept is a cognitive, organised structure that includes beliefs, values and attitudes. These are formed with the help of experiences from their environment, such as experiences and actions, as well as a variety of skills, feelings or habits (Rodriguez/Lood-Sant-Ana 2015 quoted according to Cardenal/Fierro 2003). Here, the self-concept gives direction to how one perceives oneself and deals with the questions "Who am I?", "What do I belong to?" and "How do I fit in?" (Oyserman et al.2012). This structure develops over time through experiences, feedback from others or self-reflection and feedback from others.

Self-esteem beliefs, on the other hand, are based on the conceptual domains developed by the individual. Here, the level can vary in domain-related importance (Harter 2003). Thus, several domains of the self-concept are considered for the evaluation of the self. However, it is the case that some are identified as important and others as less important. This is referred to as the contingency domains of self-esteem, in which successes and failures have different effects on self-esteem. Successes increase self-esteem, whereas failures do the exact opposite (Harter 2003). Additionally, it should be noted that self-esteem is only a person's self-perception and

does not indicate how talented a person is and what abilities the person has, even if the person is positively evaluated by others (Orth/Robins 2014).

2.3 Self Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the confidence that a person has in his or her abilities to achieve certain tasks, actions, or even results. According to Bandura (1997), efficacy expectations are thought to influence the degree of perseverance in overcoming difficult actions that occur in the performance and implementation of one or more tasks (Lane et al. 2004). These types of self-beliefs about ability have an impact not only on outcomes but also on life. These self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, motivate themselves, think, or even behave (Bandura 1994).

Self-efficacy is considered subordinate to socio-cognitive theory, which states that human functioning consists of the interactions between behaviours, environmental conditions, and personal factors such as emotions or even cognitions (Schunk/Meece 2006 quoted according to Bandura 1986,1977). Based on this perspective, it can be concluded that self-efficacy influences both one's behaviour and the environmental conditions with which an individual interacts, while at the same time being influenced by one's actions and conditions in the environment (Schunk/Meece 2006). According to Bandura (1994), self-efficacy can be subdivided into four main processes, which cause a wide variety of effects in individuals. These include motivational, cognitive, affective, and selection processes. According to Bandura (1994), the greater the degree of self-efficacy, the higher one's well-being in many respects as well as human performance (Bandura 1994).

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy has a great influence on the choice of tasks, perseverance, effort, and also the performance of individuals. According to this, individuals who have a low feeling of self-efficacy concerning coping with tasks avoid them because they believe they do not have the necessary skills. On the other hand, individuals with high self-efficacy voluntarily participate in the same tasks because they consider their abilities to be very good. Furthermore, it is assumed that individuals with high self-efficacy persevere longer in overcoming difficulties than individuals who doubt their abilities and set challenging goals for themselves and show a strong commitment to maintaining them. Likewise, people with a high sense of self-efficacy can process failures more quickly and use them to increase their efforts,

as they blame insufficient effort for failure. Furthermore, these individuals have certainty of being able to deal with threatening situations and maintain control, as they believe in their abilities to cope with the respective situation (Bandura 1994).

Furthermore, the quality of decisions and academic performance increases the higher the self-efficacy (Zulkosky 2009). According to self-efficacy theory, individuals take information from their performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional states (Figure 2).

One's performance is considered to be the most reliable indicator for self-efficacy . However, successes and failures increase self-efficacy and self-efficacy about one's abilities, although an occasional failure (success) after a few successes (failures) probably does not have much influence (Schunk 1991 quoted according to Bandura 1986). These in turn are based on a person's personal coping successes, for example, early experience with a specific task and its accomplishment). The vicarious experience stands for the accumulated experience that individual gains by observing others successfully performing activities. This creates a process of comparison with a person and his or her environment. Observation can create an expectation for a person to improve their performance and learn from what they have observed (Staples et al. 2006 quoted according to Bandura 1978). The fourth element for influencing self-efficacy is social persuasion. This is the belief that one can succeed in a particular task, which is encouraged by suggestions, such as coaching from rated feedback on performance (Staples et al. 2006 quoted according to Bandura 1977). The final source of information is the physiological and emotional states that can influence an individual in relation to particular tasks. For example, emotional reactions such as anxiety to certain tasks can lead to negative judgments about one's ability to perform the task (Staples et al. 2006 quoted according to Bandura 1988). Self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1982), has a strong explanatory power for a variety of individual behaviours, including the change of specific behaviours induced by a wide range of influences, achievement striving, self-regulation, the level of physiological stress responses, or even the growth of intrinsic interest and career choice (Staples et al. 2006).

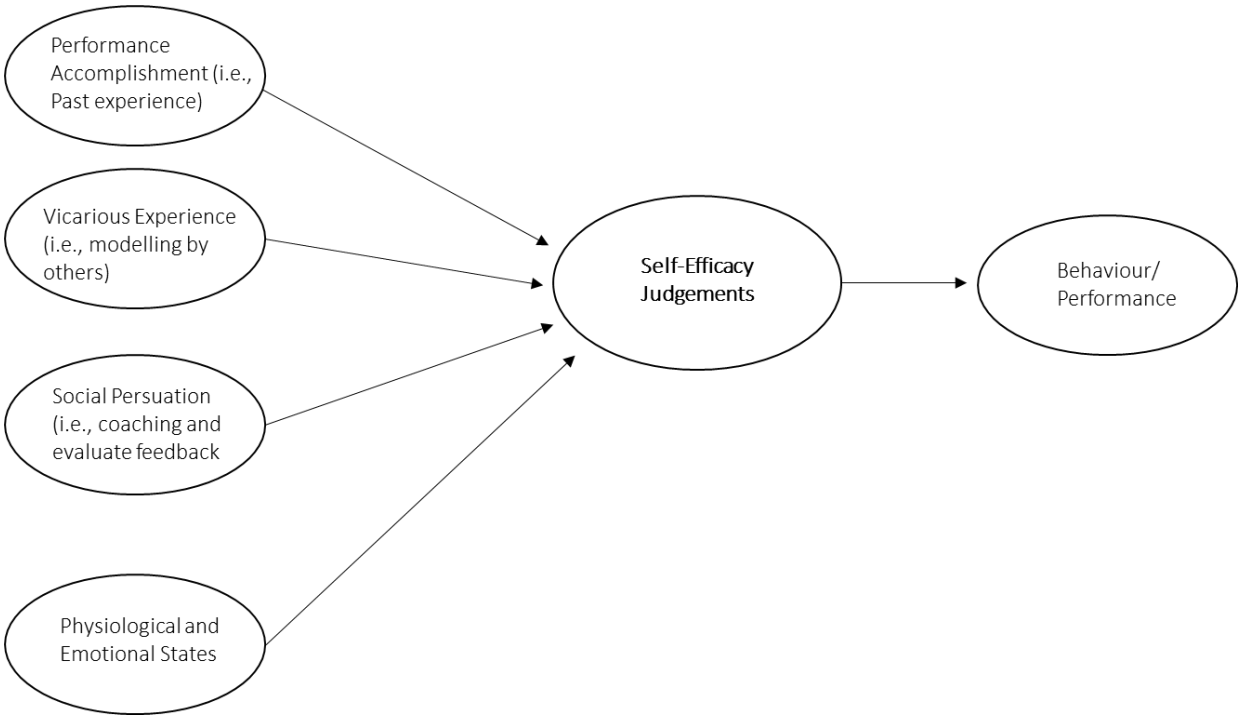

Figure 2: Sources of Self-efficacy information

(Bandura 1977:196 remodelled according to Staples et al. 2006)

2.3.1 Self-Efficacy as Component of Self Concept

The self-concept is unique and differs from person to person. It answers the question "Who am I" and addresses both personal and social identity. However, the self-concept is a process of acting and reflecting on one's actions. Reflection includes the opinions of others as well as one's self-reflection. This in turn means that the self-concept is not innate to a person, but rather develops through interactions with the environment or also reflection. The perception that each person has of themselves is usually relatively constant over time. However, there are already newer research results that assume that the self-concept can be changed. Here, self-reflection plays an important role, enabling people to look at themselves in a new way and thus shape themself according to their new insights (Huitt 2009). Baumeister (1999) defines the self-concept as the individual's belief about oneself, including the person's attributes as well as who and what the self is.

According to Lewis (1990), the self-concept has two different aspects, the existential self, and the categorical self. The existential self describes the development of the awareness that one is separate and distinct from others and is one's, own person. This awareness can emerge as

early as two to three years of age. The second view is the categorical self, which in turn enables the assignment of one's self to categories such as age, size, gender, or even skill (McLeod 2009). Corresponding to social psychologist Roy Baumeister, the self-concept is a kind of knowledge structure, because, through the reactions of others to one's behaviour or even one's states, a person continues to gather new information and process it for one's self-perception. In summary, the self-concept is an overarching construct that has self-efficacy as it is of several components (McLeod 2008).

2.3.2 Development of Self Efficacy

Self-efficacy and confidence in one's abilities differ significantly from person to person. Different stages of life shape different competence requirements, but not everyone necessarily has to go through certain stages and normative changes with required competencies in old age. There are many different paths and phases in life in which people differ in terms of how they cope with events and which shape one. These developmental changes in self-efficacy can shape an individual through various events over the life span.

New-born’s are born without any form of self-esteem. However, in the first days and then months, they already experience the effects of certain actions. For example, the parents come as soon as the child starts to cry, which the baby then remembers. The older infants become, the more they perceive the environment and different people. On this basis, the older infants and later toddlers develop more and more personal and social experiences in their early life, which ultimately develop a symbolic representation of themselves as their self (Bandura 1994). As one progresses, the development of self-knowledge takes place through different social contexts. Especially during adolescence, important changes can be seen in young people's family, peer, and school environments. These influences through different environments and concerning a social context can have profound convictions of growing up one's abilities. As the first efficacy experiences for children, the family is responsible for influencing self-efficacy through certain behaviors or parenting styles. Depending on how families guide and educate their children, children's self-efficacy can develop both positively and negatively. Depending on how the children are motivated to accept challenges to achieve something, and which strategies are necessary to master strategies, the more the children's self-efficacy is strengthened (Schunk/Meece 2006).

However, it is not only families that influence children's self-efficacy, but also their peers, since this is where the social comparison comes into play. First and foremost, siblings within the family are comparison partners. Younger siblings in particular are often in a more difficult situation, as they often find it difficult to compare their abilities with those of older and more developed siblings (Bandura 1994). But friends or classmates of the same age also serve to compare abilities. At school, for example, it is the ease or difficulty of learning, grading practices, or feedback on one's performance. Generally, the influence of peers works through so-called peer networks, for example, groups of friends. This influence is very strong, especially in adolescence, and leads to young people tending to be similar in many ways. This is since young people are not yet familiar with many tasks. Thus, they only have the behaviour of their friends and how they master certain tasks or act in certain situations as a benchmark against which they can measure their self-efficacy (Schunk/Meece 2006).

In addition to the family environment, however, school plays a particularly important role at a young age. There, children learn and develop their cognitive abilities and acquire knowledge as well as the problem-solving skills that are in turn necessary and helpful for effective participation in social society. At school, students are constantly tested on their knowledge and thinking skills, assessed, and also compared socially. Thus, children develop a sense of their intellectual capacity. As already mentioned, especially at school, the comparison between pupils of the same age is very great in terms of performance. However, an increase in motivation through goals, positive incentives, or also the interpretation of the teachers' failures or successes can have either a positive or negative effect on the children's assessment of their performance and thus also on their self-efficacy (Bandura 1994).

Every stage in a person's life brings new challenges and demands coping skills. The older young adults become, the more they are on their own and have to take responsibility for their decisions in life. Thus, experimenting with oneself and choices is not uncommon to further develop one's self-efficacy beliefs. Depending on the interplay between personal competencies, self-management efficiency, and the prevailing influences of a person, this influences the willingness to take risks. For example, an impoverished environment will strain a young person into lacking the resources and often social support for culturally valued activities to develop strong coping skills in contrast to a more affluent environment (Bandura 1994).

2.3.3 Gender and Career Self-Efficacy

Research has shown that the belief in oneself and one's abilities, so-called self-efficacy, plays a central role in one's conviction to achieve goals and also influences the career aspirations of individuals (Beaman et al. 2012). Furthermore, self-efficacy influences people's beliefs about whether they can be successful, what kind of decisions they make in their lives or whether they can get through difficult situations (Bandura & Locke 2003). According to previous studies, an increase in a person's self-efficacy concerning leadership tasks can lead to a positive development of self-confidence in one's abilities, and success is achieved. This happens without having made any cognitive or physical effort at all for a leadership task (Lester et al. 2010). Self-efficacy has been empirically linked to a variety in the workplace with the help of various studies. These include, for example, motivation to lead, attempts to attain a leadership position, and increased ratings of leadership potential and job performance (Lester et al. 2010). Furthermore, self-efficacy has been shown to play a crucial role in the successful completion of requirements within a domain, as well as engagement in educational domains. The authors found that positive self-efficacy leads to challenges being met more successfully and is more likely to lead to engagement in an academic field (Chemers et al. 2011). In one particular study, career self-efficacy was examined in specific professions such as law, teaching, sales, and engineering. Care was taken to use and examine the typical categorization of occupations as traditionally male-dominated (for example, law or engineering) as well as traditionally female-dominated occupations (for example, social worker, sales). It was found that there are significant differences in self-perception concerning these professions. Furthermore, it was confirmed that low self-efficacy expectations reduce perceived career options. Thus, the persistent underrepresentation of women due to low self-efficacy expectations in traditionally male-dominated occupations was also confirmed (Kelly 1993 quoted according to Betz & Hackett 1981). There are also gender differences in adolescence. In a study of American teenagers with both female and male participants, it was found that although they have comparable self-confidence, it differs in key areas. Thus, girls showed low self-efficacy in areas such as mathematics, finance, and decision-making, and problem-solving, in contrast to boys (Marlino/Wilson 2003). Further research has also examined mathematical self-efficacy to investigate the differential distribution of males and females with respect to scientific and technical occupations. The study found that men were significantly more confident than women in, for example, solving mathematical problems or even everyday mathematical tasks.

In addition, a link was found between the different genders' mathematical self-efficacy with scientific or mathematical career choices (Pajares 2004). According to research by Hartung et al. 2004), boys believed they had a greater option than girls regarding career options. Girls, on the other hand, with high self-esteem are more likely to choose non-traditional careers such as mathematics or science, in contrast to girls with lower self-esteem. In particular, once girls are encouraged to enter so-called STEM professions, increased self-esteem can promote this career path in addition to other career development initiatives such as increased career knowledge and social support, as well as the availability of female role models, thus breaking down occupational gender stereotypes (Scott/Mallinckrodt 2005). In summary, it can be seen that the aforementioned gender differences are particularly evident when they are associated with stereotypically "male" abilities, including entrepreneurial careers. Furthermore, studies have shown that due to gender differences in self-efficacy, women are more likely than men to limit their career aspirations and interests because they believe they do not have the necessary skills (Bandura 1992 quoted according to Wilson et al. 2007). Furthermore, Bandura et al. (2001) were able to prove that women can be more strongly influenced by perceived skill deficits in the entrepreneurial field than men, which in turn significantly influences their professional careers (Bandura et al. 2001). Therefore, increased self-efficacy leads to a high likelihood of individuals expressing a desire for leadership and becoming involved. Thus, self-efficacy emerges as a predictor of leadership. A supportive example is a study by Dickerson and Taylor (2000), that college-aged women with high task-specific self-efficacy have a greater interest in fulfilling a leadership role than women with low self-efficacy (Dickerson/Taylor 2000).

2.3.4 Self Efficacy and Overconfidence

Overconfidence is an important indicator and influencing factor when it comes to making decisions. According to Bandura, overconfidence has benefits, stating, "The efficacy judgments that are the most functional are probably those that slightly exceed what one can do at any given time" (Bandura 1986:394). Overconfidence is fostered by individuals disregarding information about their abilities. Thus, some individuals underestimate their abilities, and others overestimate their abilities. Individuals who tend to overconfidently assess their abilities positively and have extreme self-efficacy hardly process negative information or underweight the new information about their abilities. This is also referred to as a cognitive bias (Weinberg

2009). A common experiment to measure this gender gap in terms of confidence is to conduct a maths test with people. After the test, they had to estimate how well they did. Afterward, the test is evaluated and the actual test result is compared with the estimated result.

A direct gender comparison shows that men tend to be more overconfident and feel more competent in their abilities to solve a problem than women. In one study it was found that women, for example, did not compete even though the chances of success were very high, whereas men competed more often even when the chances were very low (Niederle/Versterlund 2006). Additionally, Men tend to have a stronger preference for competition than women do which is partly influenced by their self-efficacy s about their abilities.

Different factors such as socialized gender roles, male-oriented schools, and societal environments, but also behavioural and environmental differences during childhood are the triggers for the different perceptions of self-efficacy and the associated confidence.

Women, in particular, develop their self-identities depending on the stereotypical gender roles that are prevalent and lived in society and these are often opposed to professional identity and competitiveness (Cadsby et al. 2013). These different perceptions of one's abilities and the resulting self-confidence are important factors concerning gender inequality. This confidence gap between men and women leads people to choose different educational and career paths depending on their gender. This, in turn, also promotes the imbalance in salaries between men and women and promotes socially defined male and female occupations. However, there is a crucial difference between confidence and overconfidence. Confidence is a positive quality that can help to cope with tasks and a positive self-efficacy of oneself. Overconfidence, on the other hand, is an overestimation of one's abilities that does not reflect true performance but only what one believes one is capable of. While both confidence and overconfidence can promote self-confidence and competence, the outcome of competition can vary greatly. The differences between men and women in terms of confidence are often two extremes, which thus affect competitiveness and performance. While women are less competent and possess a lack of confidence, men are often just the opposite and are overconfident about their abilities, and possess excessive competition (Cho 2017).

In addition to gender and gender roles shaped by society as a factor of self-confidence and overconfidence, the ability is also important to consider. The relationship between ability and self-confidence may not be so easy to relate, assuming that higher ability leads to more self-

confidence when gender is taken into account. In many societies, men and women are valued differently and women are often neglected or even stigmatized because, for example, highly able women deviate from their socially assigned gender role. According to Gneezy et al. (2003), these stereotypical gender identities are one of the reasons why women often rate themselves lower inability, and this, in turn, exaggerates gender differences in self-efficacy beyond actual differences in inability. This leads to women in particular being negatively influenced by stereotypical beliefs about the capabilities of genders who are, however, no less qualified than men. As a result, female skills have a less positive impact on women's self-confidence than male skills have on men's self-confidence (Cho 2017).

2.3.5 Self-Efficacy and Gender Stereotyping on the Job Performance

Based on gender stereotyping, women are not only evaluated by other fellow human beings but also how they evaluate themselves. Research shows that women's self-perceptions and descriptions of themselves largely correspond to the descriptions of women in general (Hentschel et al 2019). Furthermore, women's self-descriptions differ from the self-descriptions of men, who are considered more agentic, and women communal. The trait agentic promotes the pursuit of goals and is considered goal-oriented and assertive, whereas the trait communal reflects social ability within a group. The process of self-efficacy in women based on gender stereotyping influences women's decisions not only in everyday life but also when they assess their "fit" with gender-specific occupations (Heilmann 2012).

Additionally, researchers have shown that once one is aware of negative stereotyping within a group, this, in turn, has a negative impact on the performance of the relevant domain. This is called the "stereotype threat" (Steele 1997; Steele/Aronson 2000). Every job involves the evaluation of other employees, which is not only a natural phenomenon but a little anxiety caused by the evaluation of others can even promote performance a little. However, this anxiety can also harm certain employees, especially if they belong to the so-called negative stereotype group. This anxiety is further intensified when employees of the negative stereotype group perform tasks that, according to the stereotype, they do not have the skills for and consequently perform poorly in the task (Heilmann 2012). As soon as people are also aware of stereotyping while performing a task, prejudiced that they perform certain tasks worse than others due to stereotyping, this is called the psychological experience of "stereotype threat".

The stereotyping threat, however, does not concern the grouping of skills between men and women, but can also concern, for example, age, skin colour, or culture (Mello 2014).

Often women evaluate their attributes as negative, so that, for example, prejudices such as "women are not good with numbers" are taken for granted and believed. These negative perceptions of performance, which are influenced by gender-stereotyping perceptions, thus lead to women being more reluctant to make decisions or to take chances that may enable them to advance or to be unwilling to take risks (Heilmann 2012).

The "stereotype threat" was recognized as early as the school years when implicit stereotypes regarding mathematics and languages were measured in school children. According to the explicit stereotypes, girls showed the association that boys are good at maths and girls are good at languages. In contrast, the boys in the study did not show implicit gender stereotypes as they associated their gender group with both mathematics and languages. This study has concluded that the development of interests in boys and girls is not free from existing roles and stereotypes and thus influences perceptions of ability (Ebert/Steffens 2013).

However, different individual perceptions of stereotyping can be identified. Some people are more gender-typed and strongly insist on traditional beliefs about the stereotyped characteristics of men and women, whereas individuals who are non-gender-typed do not rely to the same extent on gender stereotypes to process information. These two different perspectives on gender stereotyping are also evident in performance evaluation. Thus, this evaluation is not necessarily subject to the gender of the individuals but rather to the consequences of the individual evaluator's social cognitive process in terms of his or her beliefs about gender stereotyping and its associated attributed characteristics and abilities. Thus, individuals who are gender-typed and have strong beliefs in the traditional stereotyping of men and women will more often associate women with an ineffective performance of certain tasks than those who are non-gendered (Bauer/Baltes 2002).

Further research has also shown that women are less self-confident and more trepidatious when they have to cope with male-typical tasks so that they perceive their competencies as insufficient in terms of coping with the task. Another study showed that women's self-ratings of task ability did not differ from the self-ratings of individuals who experienced negative feedback about their task ability. The only time women's self-perceptions of task ability using a rating were the same as men's was when they received direct positive feedback about their abilities (Heilman et al. 1990). According to research, this negative expectancy is due to a self-

directed bias. One example of this research is the demonstration that attributional rationalization always occurs when one has to evaluate oneself and at the same time evaluate others. One study states that when women worked with men, they did not want to take the same credit as men for a joint outcome. Rather, the women saw themselves as less competent than their male co-workers and thus, in their opinion, did not deserve the recognition (Haynes/Hentschel 2013).

3 Stereotypes and Gender

3.1 Gender Stereotypes

"The woman is from Venus - the man is from Mars. To avoid always looking at the moon, they once met on Earth. And now their descendants are preparing to head back into space."
Willy Meurer (1934-2018)

"Women are from Venus and men are from Mars" is a frequently used metaphorical phrase to explain the differences in how women and men feel, act or think. It suggests that the two sexes each come from a different planet, millions of years and kilometres away and that men and women are therefore inherently different as if they were separate species. The differences are visible, but they cause women and men to be trapped to a certain extent in the stereotypical images of the respective group. Indeed, the question arises to what extent the perceived or presupposed differences also result from the fact that people think that women and men differ from each other because of different gender stereotypes. However, the content and identification of gender stereotypes also make it clear that not only are typical differences described, but gender stereotypes also prescribe how women and men should behave in different life situations (Ellemers 2018). Thus, gender stereotyping is a represented belief and assumption about characteristics or traits of men and women, which in turn influences the perception of each man and woman (Bauer/Baltes 2002). Gender stereotyping can thus be divided into two categories: descriptive properties and prescriptive properties. Descriptive properties are how women and men behave and are. On the other hand, prescriptive gender stereotyping assigns women and men how they should be in their behaviour and characteristics. (Heilmann:2012) Even if, despite the obvious differences, men and women have similar preferences, characteristics, or even ambitions, the stereotypical expectations, and different perspectives divide them into two different worlds - "Venus and Mars" (Ellemers 2018).

Gender Stereotypes	**Male**	**Female**
Stereotypical domain	Agency	Communality
Relevant behavior	Individual task performance	Care for others
Anticipated priorities	Work	Family
Perceived qualities	Competence	Warmth
Neglected needs	Interpersonal connection	Professional achievement

Figure 3: Gender Expectations and Gender Stereotypes

(Ellemers 2018: 281)

Gender stereotypes affect the expectations we have of the priorities, needs, and characteristics of individual women and men, as well as the expectations we have of them, in several ways (see Table 1). The influence of gender stereotypes indicates in research that the way women are viewed and evaluated is primarily subject to relational criteria. Thus, both women and men tend to judge women, for example, primarily on their appearance and not on their performance, whereas men are not judged in this way (Fredrickson/ Roberts 1997). Thus, appearance dominates society's judgment of women's overall worth, even in situations where it should be irrelevant. Thus, when evaluators focus on appearance rather than competence, women are seen as less competent or less fully human, which in turn can affect career or job promotions (Cikara et al. 2011). Unlike women, appearance does not diminish perceived qualities in men (Heflick et al. 2011). Likewise, women and men are also assigned different skills with the help of which they can cope well with different tasks. Thus, the male stereotype is assigned the competencies of the so-called MINT subjects (mathematics, information technology, natural sciences, and technology), whereas women are considered more suitable for more social activities such as care or kindergarten teacher (Ebert/Steffens 2013).

Another example is parenthood, in which role men and women are perceived differently and guided by gender stereotypes. For women who become parents, it is often assumed that women's priority should be to care for the children and therefore be less ambitious and committed to their jobs. Conversely, fatherhood will not negatively affect perceived suitability as an employee. These expectations, shaped by society, affect women's and men's work and career opportunities when they are unwarranted. In addition, various studies have shown that there are also differences in the workplace depending on whether a woman is a mother or not. Thus, working women are perceived as less competent after becoming mothers than women

without children. This perception is not known to fathers. (Cuddy et al. 2004). As a result, mothers' lower perceived competence leads them to be seen as less suitable for promotion in the workplace (Heilman/Okimoto 2008). However, it is not only women who suffer from implicit gender stereotypes, but also men who are severely underrepresented, especially in professional and family roles that emphasize commonality and caring (Croft et al. 2015).

The aforementioned descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotyping and the gender expectations that result from it can significantly influence a woman's career. Descriptive gender stereotyping already causes rather negative expectations about women's performance and "lack of adaptation" to the qualities considered important for the success of traditionally male positions (Heilman 1983, 2001). Prescriptive gender stereotyping at the same time causes normative expectations to be placed on men's and women's behaviour, which often conversely leads to a devaluation of women or indirectly violates gender norms (Heilmann 2001; Heilmann/Parks-Stamm, 2007).

Gender differences are often explained by abilities that are deeply rooted in evolution and firmly anchored in the brain so that women are assigned different abilities than men. Thus, the hunter-gatherer relationship is often referred to, in which each sex pursues its biological abilities. However, this type of representation is no longer up-to-date and does not correspond to the latest scientific findings. These indicate that the assumed division of gender roles into hunter-gatherers is much more egalitarian than often assumed (Dyble et al. 2015). Hormones are also often cited as a reason for the different abilities of men and women. For example, while the hormone testosterone tends to be known as a precursor to more aggressive behaviour, it can also trigger social behaviour and caring (Van Honk et al. 2011). At the birth of the first child, both men and women show an equal increase in oxytocin levels, which helps to adapt caregiving demands to the new situation. Thus, the hormonal change in men and women is not only gender-dependent but is also triggered by important life events or situational experiences (Gordon et al. 2010). In a study of cognitive performance (e.g. mathematical ability), social behaviour and personality (leadership skills), and also psychological well-being (e.g. academic self-esteem), more similarities were found between men and women than differences (Hyde 2014). The study cited above generally observed greater differences between individual men and women than between the sexes as a group, which subsequently argues against the influence of biology as the main factor in creating behavioural differences between men and women. The inferences underlying gender stereotyping are so minimal that they cannot explain

the inferences society often makes about the differences between men and women (Bussey/Bandura 1999). Research shows that gender differences develop over a lifespan and shape members of society. Already the way girls and boys are brought up and educated sets the foundation for gender stereotyping. Nevertheless, biological differences are still used as the basis for explaining gender characteristics and abilities, even though they have been refuted by research. The different social roles and power positions of women as housewives and men as economic providers are rather the focus and promotion of gender stereotyping (Ellemers 2018).

3.2 Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theory was developed by Sandra Bem and is a social-cognitive theory about how people in society are gendered from childhood. Likewise, this theory is used to describe the effects that this gendering has on cognitive and categorical processing throughout life (Starr/Zurbringgen 2016). The cognitive structure in this case is a network of associations that shape people's perceptions to sort information into schema-relevant terms. According to Bem (1981), schematic processing is highly selective. Thus, it enables people to give structure and meaning to concomitant stimuli. Gender schema theory states that what an individual perceives is the result of the interaction of the perceiver's pre-existing schemas and incoming information, influenced by the society's belief about men in women (Bem 1981). The influences of gender schema theory and its effects are illustrated in Figure 4. According to Gender Schema Theory, two different evolving views can be identified in people, one is a gender-typical view and the other is a non-gender-typical view (Davis/Wilson 2016). The gender-typical view states that people compartmentalize their world and behaviour is regulated based on gender. The non-gender-typical view, on the other hand, is based on the fact that gender is a rather unimportant category for people and thus they are less likely to regulate their organized information or behaviour based on it (Starr/Zurbriggen 2016). The theory states that the event of gender stereotyping results in part from gender-based schematic processing. The gender schema in turn is constituted based on information and gender-bound associations. An essential component of the gender schema theory additionally states that the self-concept itself is assimilated into the gender schema, and thus gender affiliation results in part from it. According to Bem's (1981) findings, children already learn through the content of the social gender schema which attributes and abilities should be associated with their gender and thus with themselves. The learning and anchoring of attributes for the genders, for example, that boys are strong and girls are weak, is not the only thing that children learn indirectly through the social schema, but also the deeper lesson, which means that the dimensions apply differently to the two genders (Bem 1981). In summary, according to gender schema theory, children are gendered by society and its culture

without realizing it. Furthermore, it contributes to children becoming conventional gender types by imposing a gender classification on reality. As a result, children evaluate different behaviours about cultural definitions of gender appropriateness and any behaviour that they believe does not correspond to their gender (Starr/Zurbriggen 2016). Gender-schema theory is not a global theory and thus does not claim to predict every individual's gender theory. Rather, the theory proposes to describe how people adapt to gender-related cultural templates or become gender-stereotyped (Davis/Wilson 2016).

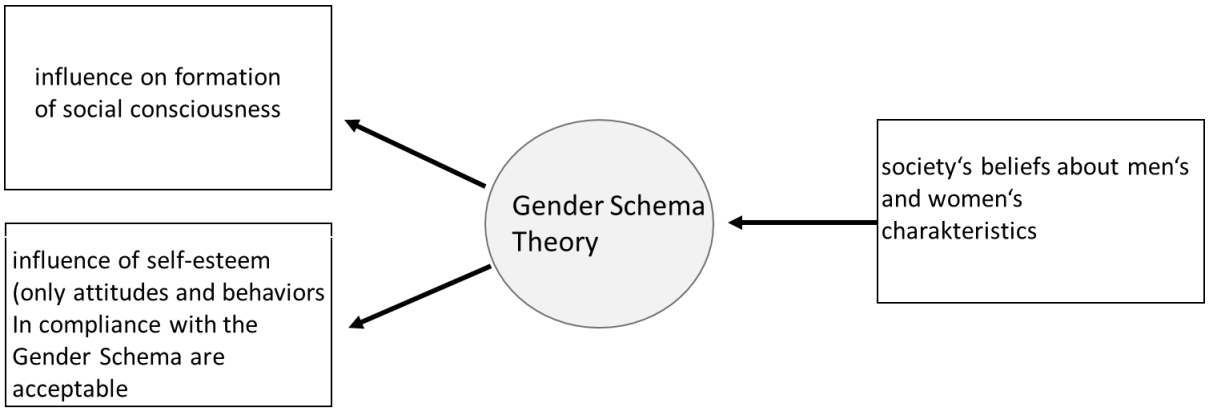

Figure 4: Gender Schema Theory

(Mazaheri/ Molaee 2011 adopted according to Myers 2007: 132-133)

3.3 Implicit and Explicit Stereotypes

The difference between explicit and implicit is that implicit stereotypes operate largely outside of consciousness, whereas explicit gender stereotypes are direct and openly expressed ideas of women and men. Thus, implicit gender-stereotypical thinking is much harder to control because people are not aware of their thinking. These two characteristics act differently from each other and can accordingly be of different strengths (Ebert/Steffens 2013). More specifically, implicit stereotypes are assumptions people make in their thinking content that can be activated by the mere presence of affected group members. Thus, this type of stereotyping plays a significant role in everyday situations. As an example, we can take a human resources manager who is asked whether he thinks that women are, on average, just as suitable for management positions as men. Perhaps he would answer this question with a "yes". However, if he meets a female manager in his professional environment who has subsequently been newly hired, the HR manager may spontaneously, uncontrollably, and unconsciously lower his expectations of the female manager compared to his male colleagues. In contrast to

implicit stereotypes, people honestly express their attitudes and views towards gender (Steffens/Elbert 2016).

3.4 Environmental Influence on Gender Stereotyping

3.4.1 Gender Stereotypes and the Society

To find out to what extent gender differences are related to society, the origins and implications of gender stereotypes need to be considered. In general, stereotypes reflect general expectations about members of a particular social group. However, it should be noted that while there is an overall difference between these groups, not all individuals necessarily differ from each other. An example would be that men are usually taller than women, but there are enough men or even women for whom this is not true or the difference is reversed. (Ellemers 2018). The stereotyped perception, however, causes society to regard certain features as characteristic for genders. Thus, differences between groups are often overemphasized and at the same time variations within a group are underestimated. However, cultural practices also play a decisive role here, which in turn dictate what kind of practices are intended for girls and for boys, regardless of income, neighbourhood, or ethnicity. Therefore, a gender schema develops according to which society and people orient themselves and create an understanding of gender (Tenenbaum & Campbell 2003).

Generally, gender is seen as a feature of people's perception, so that children and adults, for example, immediately and implicitly cluster unknown people according to their gender, even though this categorization is not relevant to the situation and has no informational value (Bennett et al. 2000; Ito/Urland 2003). Gender is still seen as a binary categorization, which means that we tend to compare men and women and vice versa and anchor any differences between them in the form of a contrast. This leads to gender categorization being immediately recognized and appearing relatively fixed and easily polarised, which in turn leads to the formation and perpetuation of gender stereotypes in society and reinforces the perception of differences between women and men (Ellemers 2018).

In addition to the gender stereotypical assessment of women and men in terms of their competencies in task performance and social skills, for men, the indicators are seen as their assertiveness and performance for a greater agency. For women, on the other hand, warmth, caring and a greater sense of community are seen (Kite et al. 2008). These aforementioned differences in the emphasis on agency and caring as prescribed by society are also reflected in the behaviour and life choices of men and women. In this respect, men tend to be overconfident and have a tendency to act, whereas women are much more cautious in these

areas (Byrnes et al. 1999). Gender segregation is also visible in different occupations so that men and women often have different jobs and take on different care responsibilities. According to a social survey and census data, in 30 industrialized countries there is a clear separation of occupational roles according to gender, for example, the caring profession, which is dominated by women. Likewise, in different countries and cultures, women spend more time with the household than men, regardless of their occupational status (Jarman et al. 2012).

3.4.2 Gender Stereotyping in the Family Context

The cognitive development of gender stereotyping begins in childhood and, according to research, is influenced on the one hand by siblings and on the other hand by parents and their upbringing style. People are influenced by the gender schemas that define different characteristics for genders (Figure 4). Thus, according to a study, parents with daughters report that despite their daughters' good grades in mathematics, they believe that they have lower abilities in mathematics than boys. Furthermore, the mothers of daughters believed that their daughters had to work harder to do well in mathematics, unlike mothers of sons (Tenenbaum/Campbell 2003). Parents can hold on to stereotypes both implicitly and explicitly (Ebert/Steffens 2013). According to research, men display stronger gender stereotypes, whereas the level of implicit attitudes is the same for both men and women, or even slightly stronger for women. It has also been found that mothers are less likely than fathers to share traditional gender stereotyping attitudes (Blakemore/Hill 2008).

Likewise, mothers have stronger implicit gender stereotyping towards adults without children, while fathers have stronger explicit gender stereotyping. A possible reason for this phenomenon is that women have a higher degree of social desirability and thus reject explicit gender stereotypes. Another possible explanation given by the study is that women have implicit gender stereotypes, which are, however, not considered appropriate by society. Men, on the other hand, can use both their implicit and explicit channels simultaneously. The strength of explicit stereotypes can also be seen in children, according to studies. According to Endendijk et. al. (2013), however, boys and girls do not differ already at pre-school age but only during school years, because the influence among each other is greater and children have different and more gender-related experiences outside the home. Siblings also influence children's explicit gender stereotyping. Studies have shown that boys with older sisters or girls with older brothers show less explicit gender stereotyping, whereas boys or girls with older siblings of the same sex show more explicit gender stereotyping. This suggests that the increase

or decrease in explicit gender stereotyping is due to opposite-sex or mixed-sex siblings. However, the study found that family constellation also plays a significant role in gender stereotyping. Thus, fathers with same-sex children had stronger implicit gender stereotypes in contrast to fathers with mixed-sex children, in which the children's characteristics also influence the parents and thus correspond to the family systems theory. The reason given for this is that parents with a boy and girl can see possible similarities and thus there is a desire to treat both equally. In the study, however, only implicit stereotyping was explored because explicit stereotyping is considered rather socially undesirable (Endendijk et. al.2013).

In terms of influencing gender stereotyping, mothers usually have a greater influence on the development of these attitudes in children, as they spend more time raising children than fathers do and thus have more time to create gender-related experiences of their stereotypes for the children. However, fathers do influence gender stereotypes later in childhood and can have a positive influence in increasing time spent with the child on schoolwork, household chores, or even social activities (Yeung et al. 2001). In addition, daughters exhibited stronger implicit gender stereotyping when their mothers also possessed it, according to one study. Thus, the result of the study additionally showed that especially for boys, other factors than the paternal or maternal stereotypes influence the development of gender stereotypes (Endendijk et. al. 2013).

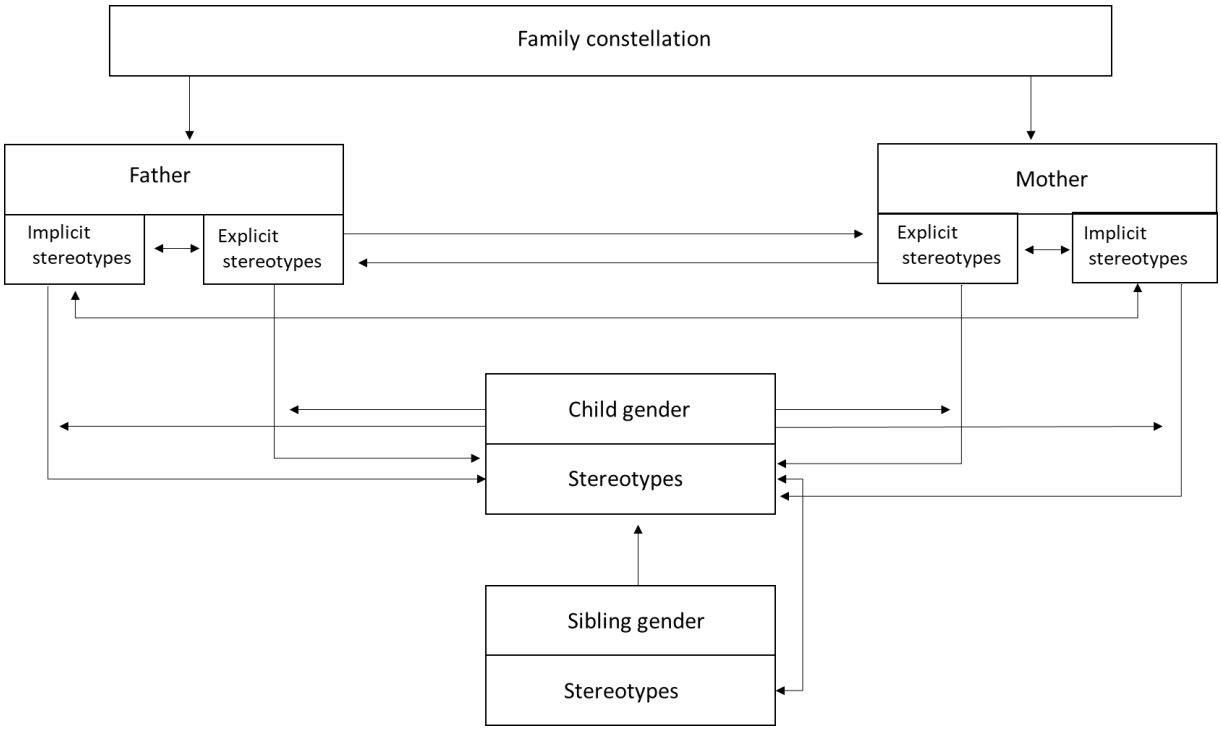

Figure 5: Model of the relationship and association between parental gender stereotypes, child gender stereotypes, child gender, parent gender, sibling gender and family constellation

(Endendijk et al. 2013: 578)

3.4.3 Gender and School Environment

Even at the young age of two, young children can assign genders to people and use it to guide their social inferences and preferences about others (Dunham et al. 2016). In a US study, preschool children went on to show gendered group preference and tended to hold gendered beliefs about the characteristics of others (e.g. girls like dolls and boys prefer to play with trucks). Further studies showed that not only did children of the United States exhibit this development but also children of other cultures categorize genders and prefer members of their gender. Many young children spend a lot of time in social settings where gender is often emphasized, such as preschools. Studies have been conducted to determine the extent to which schools influence children's stereotyping (Shutts et al. 2017). A more recent experiment by Hillard/Liben 2010) manipulated the meaning of gender categories for children in a preschool for 2 weeks. The children were aged 3 to 5 years and were divided into high-salience and low-salience classrooms. In the "low-salience" classrooms, lessons were taught with familiar classroom conditions that adhered to the school's guidelines. However, the use of gendered language or even gendered classroom organization was prohibited. Within the "high-salient" classrooms, gender was comparatively intentionally emphasized or gender-stereotyped classroom material was covered. As a result, children in the "high-salience" classrooms showed increased gender

stereotyping, valued the opposite sex more negatively, and often played only with the same sex. The children in the "low-salience" classrooms, on the other hand, showed none of these effects. The result of this study as well as previous research is in line with the developmental intergroup theory. This states that as soon as adults emphasize a social distinction (e.g. by using labels), children are influenced to consider this emphasized distinction as a psychologically common distinction (Bigler/Liben 2007). Nevertheless, no research has yet been done that shows longer-term differences between the pedagogical approach and gender stereotyping in children, as this experiment confronted children with sudden and very strong gender differentiation. However, there are a small number of preschools that aim to create a "gender-neutral" classroom environment and teachers typically refrain from using gender-specific language as well as actively work to counteract gender stereotypes (Shutts et al. 2017). The different treatment of girls and boys by teachers in schools and society can have an impact on girls' self-esteem and career choice (Hill/Sillvia2005). Accordingly, both the self-concept and academic performance of female and male children can be influenced by stereotypes. Self-concept is the totality of a person's self-image, emotions, feelings, or beliefs. Here, both past experiences and present experiences are important in influencing self-image. Depending on whether the experiences are positive or negative, one's self-image changes positively or negatively. One study explored this concept and was able to confirm through an experiment that gender stereotyping both caused a significant influence on the students' self-concept in favor of male students and also influenced academic performance (Igbo et al. 2015). Complementing this, Martin et al. (2007) found that negative stereotyping within a group can cause cognitive and emotional distress for some group members, which in turn can lead to negative expectations and inhibit performance. Once stereotypes are strongly promoted in schools as well as in society, this can have a negative impact on the academic potential of women and men and limit them in their career choices. According to Francis and Skelton (2005), women are much less likely to study engineering and computer science, for example, than men (Igbo et al. 2015).

3.4.4 Gender Stereotyping in Media and Advertisement

Media in any form have been developed into two opposing points of view. One is the "mirror" view and the other is the "mould" view. The "mirror" point of view states that advertising reflects values that are prevalent and exist within a society. Here, advertising merely serves as a kind of "magnified lens" that reveals an image of the social phenomenon. Thus, the influence of advertising is not considered significant within a society, so that the portrayal of men and women in terms of gender roles merely follows the prevailing gender roles. The "mould" view, on the contrary, states that the perception of social reality is influenced and shaped by the media. Thus, people adopt the stereotypes presented by the media into their value system and form an image of reality that largely corresponds to the advertised

images (Zotos/Tsichla 2014). Accordingly, advertising campaigns create and promote stereotypical ideals of men, women, and gender identity based on their images (Schroeder/Zwick 2004). However, Eisend's (2009) study investigated to what extent advertising has an impact on behaviour and gender education in society. It was found that the "mirror" argument is supported in contrast to the "mould" argument (Eisend 2009).

Although the image of women in advertising has changed due to events such as the rise of feminism in 1960 or the slow transformation of the world of work and the changing role of women within the family, recent studies have shown that gender stereotyping still exists in the global media. Figure 6 shows an advertising campaign released in the UK in 2019, encouraging people to stay at home due to the Coronavirus. Gender stereotyping is very strong here, with only women seen doing the jobs society ascribes to their genders, such as cleaning, ironing, looking after the child, and homeschooling. Only one picture shows a man who is not doing anything but lying on the sofa. Mandu Reid, leader of the Women's Equality Party, describes this advertising campaign as follows: "This kind of typecasting makes my blood boil – the people who produced this are dinosaurs!" (Topping 2021).

Figure 6: Corona Virus Advertisement by the Government

(Topping 2021: https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2021/jan/28/no-10-pulls-sexist-covid-ad-showing-all-chores-done-by-women, accessed 04.08.2021)

Another example is the website of the surfwear brand "Billabong" shown in Figure 4. It shows a man doing an impressive surf move on a big wave, while the women's clothing page shows a woman in a bikini sitting on the beach. This type of gender image is again strongly conducive to stereotyping (Knott 2018).

Figure 7: Billabongs Website-Advertisement

(Knott: 2018: https://www.scmp.com/lifestyle/article/2109627/six-examples-mad-men-style-sexism-and-gender-stereotyping-modern-ads, accessed on 08.04.2021)

In a 2011 study, Knoll et al. found that in German television, the degree of stereotyping depended strongly on the type of channel (private channel or public channel). In general, however, it was evident that women were mostly younger in the commercials and often associated with domestic products and shown in the home with dependent roles. In contrast, men were portrayed as authoritarian in the majority of the advertisements and were usually older and shown in independent roles outside the home. The difference between the public channel and the private channel was that in the private channel the stereotypes were more adapted to the role behaviour and physical characteristics and in the public channel gender stereotyping was evident based on the role of the actors, the location, and the occupational status (Zotos/Grau 2016). Because some evidence suggests that gender roles are determined by social factors rather than biological factors, equal representation of the sexes in various spheres is one of the most important concerns of gender policy (Eisend 2009).

3.4.5 Gender Stereotyping in Books and Language

To illustrate the extent to which language influences gender stereotyping, the experiment by Oakhill et al.(2005) can be considered. In this experiment, two words were displayed next to each other on a computer screen, for example, "aunt and doctor" or "queen and uncle". The respondents' task was to decide whether both words could refer to the same person. The answers of the respondents hardly showed any more stereotypical assessments, but the reaction times did. The more a stereotype is anchored in the person's memory, the slower the yes answers were. Another supporting example is the study by Most et al. (2007) in which children heard words that were more or less strongly associated with gender roles (e.g. doll, football). The words were each spoken by a woman or a man and the children had to decide which gender spoke the word. The result showed that with more male-associated words such as football in combination with a female voice, the reaction time was significantly higher (Ferstl/Kaiser 2013). However, gender stereotyping is not only influenced by the language, but also by other factors such as the content of children's books, films, or television program. According to studies, children begin to identify gender as the basis of the self at the age of 7. According to the gender schema theory, children develop a sense of masculinity or femininity based on gender stereotypes and base their behaviour on them. Therefore, children's books can also be an important source of gender stereotypes, in which gender-specific codes are often hidden. Children use these codes to classify gender-specific behaviour and characteristics. However, gender ideologies are not only found in books; they are also embedded in children's toys, mass media, and even clothing (Frank 2003). In addition to children's books, textbooks already represent gender stereotyping and sexist content can occur. Numerous different reviews of textbooks revealed that women are underrepresented, and men are mentioned more often than women, or images are not balanced between the genders (Kelly 2011). Children or rather pupils should learn to see books or even other gender-stereotyped enticements in patriarchal gender codes to understand that these have no meaningful significance for the abilities and character traits of girls/women and boys/men. However, books and other media reveal the extent to which language can distort perceptions of reality (Frank 2003).

3.4.6 Gender Stereotypes and Leadership

Stereotyping takes place in many different areas of everyday life, and in the workplace women and men are often treated differently. The skills needed to be a leader are attributed to men, while women are often stereotyped as lacking leadership skills and thus managerial and personal skills (Block/Crawford 2013). Earlier research, such as Schein's (1972; 1975), sampled the social image of successful middle managers in the USA. The study revealed that the skills attributed to managers showed a significantly higher correlation with the characteristics of men than of women. This phenomenon has been described as the "think-manager-think-man" phenomenon and has been further confirmed in the course of further studies, which in turn indicates that management is still associated with being a man (Sczesny, et. al. 2004). Thus, women are less favoured than male managers in a range of personnel assessments and hiring, placement, promotion, and performance appraisals (Block & Crawford: 2013). In general, it should be noted that while women have gained increased access to management positions, they remain in lower levels of management and are less represented in upper management (Eagly/Karau 2002).

Prejudice against female leaders occurs primarily in situations that reinforce perceptions between the leadership role and the female gender role (Sczesny et al. 2004). Additionally, they result from the incongruence that many people see between the requirements of a leadership role and the characteristics of women (Eagly/Karau 2002). Eagly and Karau (2002) develop the so-called role congruence theory concerning congruence. According to this theory, the potential for prejudice of female leaders, which in turn is inherent in the female gender role, is due to the lack of similarity with the expectations that people have of leaders. In other words, these prejudices arise because gender stereotyping assumes that women do not have the necessary skills to be successful as leaders because of their gender (Eagly/Karau 2002). One study found that males evaluate women more negatively than men in terms of leadership potential. Women who make the step to leadership are thus often subject to biased evaluations that originate from their non-conformity with cultural definitions of femininity. Women thus violate their traditional gender role, which leads to the dilemma of being either "too feminine" or "too masculine" (Sczesny et. al. 2004). Nevertheless, a realistic job expectation can strongly influence a person's future job satisfaction. However, an unrealistically optimistic job expectation can reduce job satisfaction, job performance, and commitment (Wanous et al. 1992). As an example, a woman can be considered who accepts a management position and

has the expectation that there will be no gender stereotyping and that she will therefore not be treated differently from her male colleagues. Accordingly, a very unrealistic expectation could be when women underestimate the superiority of men in the workplace. On the other hand, a female manager might already have a very pessimistic expectation towards men stereotyping women. Women who already expect being discriminated against tend to look for examples of discrimination in the workplace, unlike other women (Pinel 1999).

3.4.7 „Female Jobs“ and „Male Jobs”

Different professional fields are still divided into a "female job" and a "male job". In particular, professional fields such as business, computer science, or engineering are still considered male domains and are still underrepresented by women, despite a remarkable increase in their numbers (Ceci et al. 2014). A few analysts assume that it is precisely this underrepresentation that leads people to believe that women do not belong in STEM fields (Wu 2017).

The job classification into male and female professions means that "female jobs" often have less authority and esteem than "male jobs", even if a minority of men also do the "female jobs". For example, in every English-speaking country, male nurses are called nurses as their job title. Thus, it confirms the fact that some professions are so strongly gendered that in some countries gender has been embedded directly into the job and title. Similarly, midwives or even postman have gender directly embedded in their definition.

Some gendered professions have been organized according to old stereotypes of women as breadwinners and men as financial decision-makers. Nevertheless, there are enough occupational branches that have been arbitrarily assigned to one gender, such as taxi driving is men's work and bank clerk is more women's work. According to one study, years of gender stereotyping have led to men still being responsible for financial security and thus holding jobs that are highly skilled and well paid. However, the study also found that even when men are arbitrarily given a job, it is always perceived as very credible in contrast to the same situation for women (Hedreen 2019).

Economics is also still a male domain and is heavily understudied by women. In addition, there is already a low proportion of female students during their studies, which is exacerbated the further up the academic ladder one goes. For example, in Germany, there are just 20% of economics professorships written by women, which is no different in other countries. Thus, top positions in research and teaching often go to men (Junge 2021). According to recent research

by Dupas, et al. 2021) it was found that during research presentations women are not only confronted with more questions than their male colleagues, but they are also more often treated with hostility and condescension. Accordingly, research presentations are important because they form an important part of the application process to university faculties. The more interposed questions are during the presentation, the more likely the quality of the presentation can suffer for both the presenter and the audience. The audience finds it harder to follow the presentation and the presenter is more likely to lose control over the flow of the presentation. The research has also shown that women are more exposed to hostile and condescending questions than their male counterparts. This can lead to women who have had a bad experience in seminars often re-evaluating whether a career in economics is the best choice. More broadly, numerous studies in recent years have found that women in economics feel treated differently than their male counterparts and not only face greater hurdles in getting their academic work published in journals, but they are also less likely to be hired and have poor chances of being promoted than their male counterparts (Dupas et al. 2021). In a 2019 survey by the American Economic Association (AEA), the largest economist association in the world, among the 9000 current and former members of the respondents said they had experienced discrimination based on their gender. Another 63 percent of women said they were disrespected by their colleagues and more women said they avoided speaking at conferences due to harassment or disrespectful treatment (Junge 2021).

Women and men who cross the gender divide in professional fields are often perceived as less masculine or feminine. Nevertheless, progress can be seen in recent years. Women, in particular, are increasingly entering male-dominated professions because there is traditionally more respect, more fringe benefits, and higher pay. The situation is different for men in female-dominated professions, where the financial attraction is not there (Hedreen 2019).

4 Austrian Culture

4.1 Austria's separate Gender Roles Model

In Austria, families have a special status and play an important role in the Austrian social organization and economy. Here, however, the separation of the sexes in terms of different role fulfillment is important. In Austria, the man is considered the main wage earner, and women are considered partially integrated into the labour market, but they are mainly responsible for raising and caring for children. According to a study of comparable countries,

which are also small but high-income European economies, Austria scored as the most gender-diverse (OECS 2015). Nevertheless, there has been an increase in female labour force participation over the last 10 years. Here, the rate of women aged 15-64 in employment increased from 65.2% (2009) to 69.2% (2019). However, the increase is largely due to an equally present increase in part-time work. The rate of women in part-time work has risen in parallel with their employment, showing an increase from 43.1% (2009) to 47.7% (2019). Especially women with children fall under part-time employment so that in 2019 the share of women with children under 15 was 74.3% and for men 5.6% (OECD 2015). About 90% of childless young men and 91% of childless women were employed in 2014. A frequent reason for part-time work is the birth of a child, which makes the role differences in Austrian society more pronounced. In general, most households in Austria are couple families with 53%, of which the majority with about 60% have children, 40% have two children and 15% have 3 children or more. As soon as the first child is born, this triggers separation of roles in many families, even in childless areas, whereas in childless couple families domestic tasks such as cleaning, shopping, childcare, or washing up are equally distributed. A study shows that in families with children, up to 70% of domestic tasks such as shopping, dusting, etc. are taken over by mothers, as a comparison in Figure 8 shows. These mostly remain, even if the woman additionally has a part-time or full-time job. In a comparison of countries, Austria lags far behind in terms of the strong gender role distribution, whereas Sweden and Denmark are the best performers (OECD 2015).

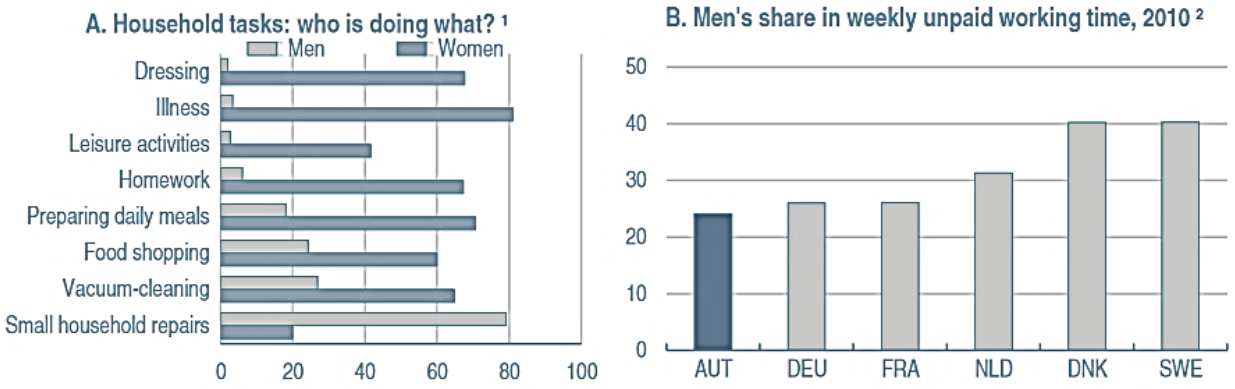

Figure 8: family Services provided by women and men in Austria in %-percentage

(OECD 2015: 8 ; Source. European Commission 2012)

However, this pattern is more pronounced in some regions of Austria than in others. For example, mothers in Vienna re-enter the labour market more quickly after the birth of their

first child, first from maternity leave to part-time work and later back to full-time employment. However, in Vienna, too, a tendency can be discerned according to which mothers fall into the national pattern of lower employment after the birth of the second child. The situation is different in most of the other federal provinces. According to this pattern, it is mainly mothers who stay away from gainful employment. In the figure, the steady decline of employed women is visible and becomes less and less the more children the family has. The rate of employed men, on the other hand, remains constant and there are no differences between the number of children and employed fathers. Furthermore, the study distinguished between Vienna, Carinthia, and Salzburg, where Vienna is always slightly above the other provinces (OECD 2015).

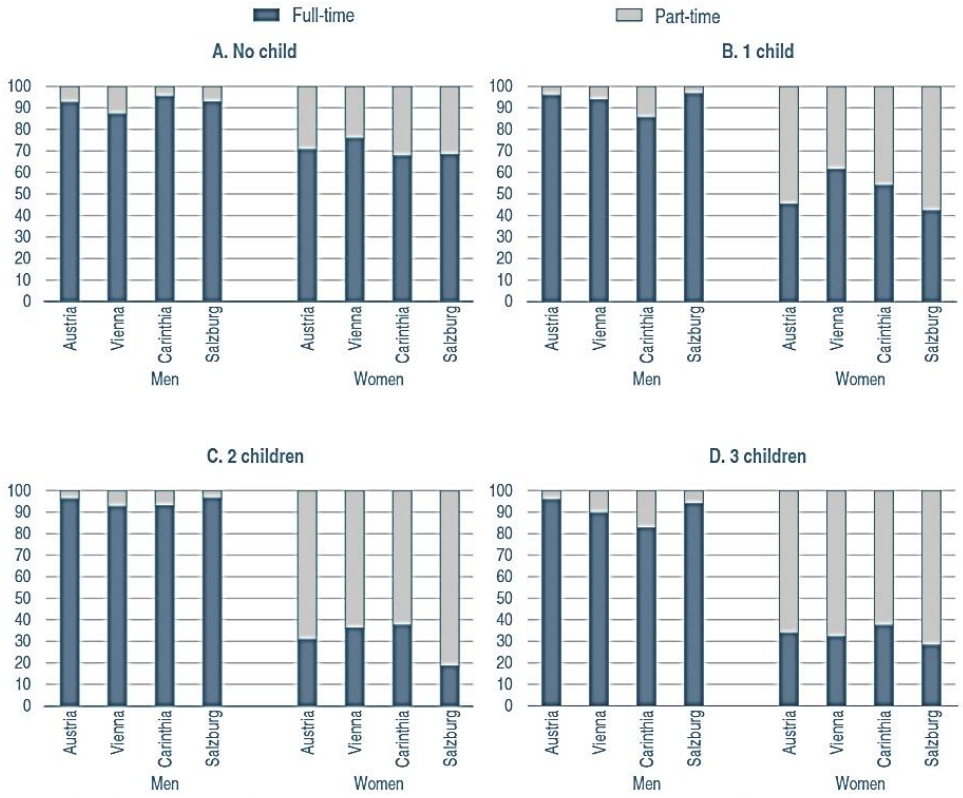

Figure 9: Estimates of employment shares according to full-time and part-time and number of children in %-percentage

(OECD 2015: 8)

The slight difference in the distribution of gender roles across the provinces seems to be inversely proportional to the availability of childcare facilities outside the family, according to research. In Vienna, in contrast to other federal provinces, the majority of childcare places are

compatible with parents' full-time jobs. Compared to Vienna, only a small proportion of children are enrolled in such facilities in other provinces as illustrated in figure 10.

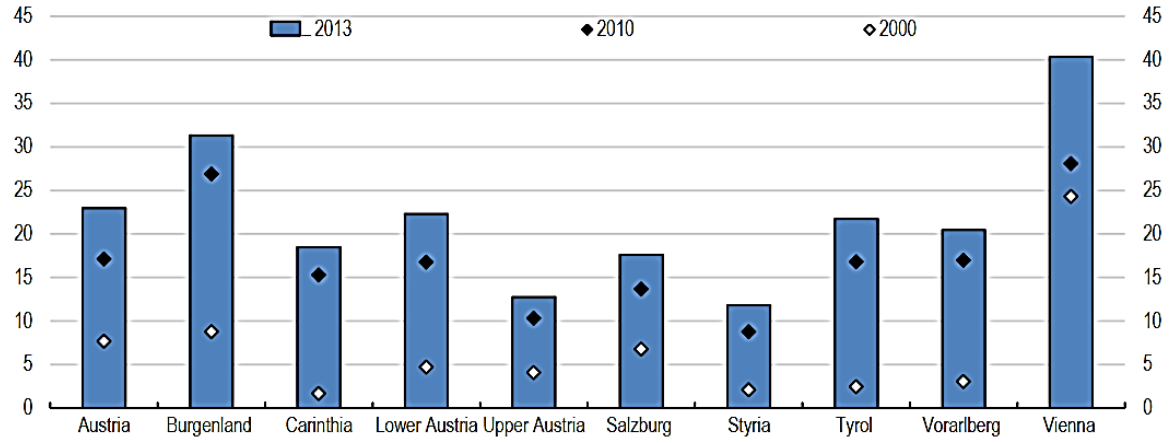

Figure 10: Participation of under 3-year olds in formal childcare services in %-percentage

(OECD 2015:27)

The consequence of this divergence is that fathers participate only slightly in their child's development. According to the Austrian Institute for Family Research, less than 5% of fathers take parental leave days (OECD 2015 quoted according to Buber-Ennser/Panova 2014).
In contrast to countries such as Sweden, the Netherlands, and Denmark, where the ratio of fathers to mothers on parental leave is 75%, 60%, and 48% respectively, in Austria it is only 10%. Thus, according to an EU study of identifiable fathers, Austria is considered an outlier in this field (Europäische Kommission 2012).

4.2 Employment and Gender Roles

In terms of years of education, women have already overtaken men, but they are still underrepresented in the most financially rewarding professions (OECD 2015 quoted according to Lassnigg et al., 2014). The interests for fields of study can be categorized by gender at an early stage. Men tend to be more interested in professions with higher earning potential than women. Young women, on the other hand, are mainly interested in three of 250 possible sectors, office management, retail, and hairdressing. In addition, women are typically more interested in non-technical fields concerning further education or studies.

Figure 11 shows the most common female occupations in Austria in 2018, which illustrates that jobs that seem to require less responsibility and do not belong to the high-earning occupations were preferred. At 11.3%, the most popular job in 2018 was sales assistant (Statista 2019).

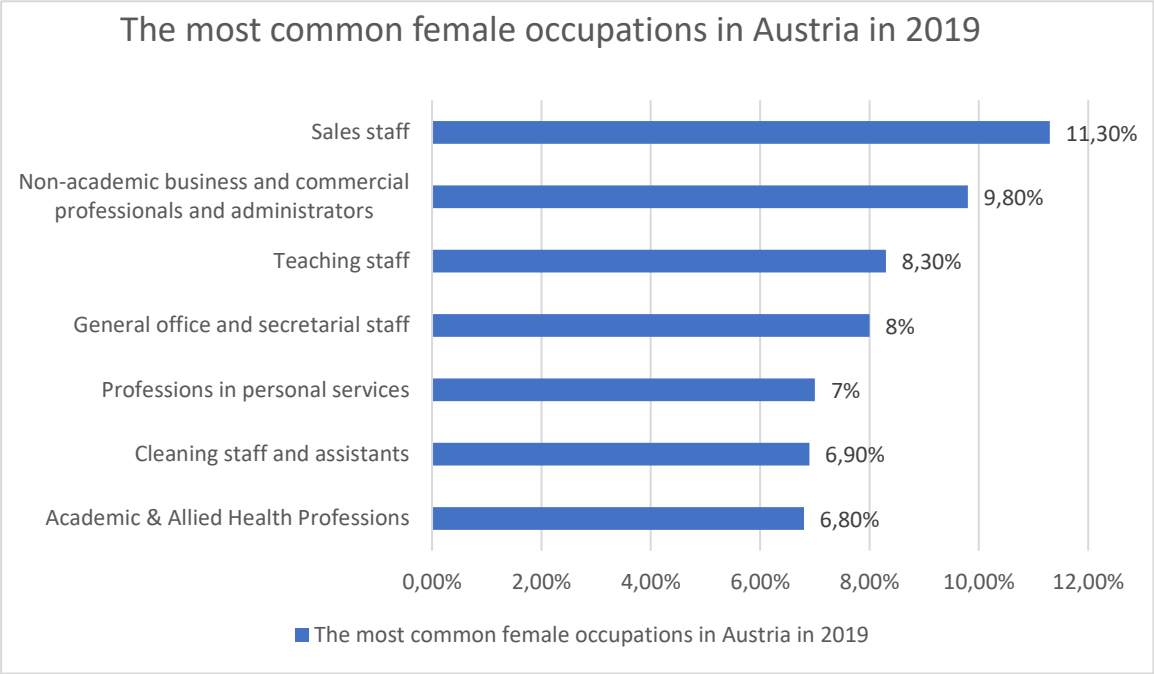

Figure 11: Most common female occupations in Austria in 2019 in %percentage

(Statista 2019)

The different occupational specializations of the two genders result above all in large differences in hourly wages and net income. In general, women prefer occupations with less responsibility. This gender pay gap is particularly large in Austria and much larger than in many other countries. According to Geisberger (2014), more than half of the pay gap in Austria remains unexplained. This wage gap is particularly burdensome for women, as it exposes them to considerable poverty risks, especially poverty in the event of divorce or even poverty in old age (OECD 2015 quoted according to Geisberger 2014).

The European average of gender pay gaps was around 14.1% in 2019. Austria was able to reduce the pay gap from 24.3% (2009) to 19.9% (2019), but it is still far above the European average (Austria Statistik 2021).

To supplement the family budget, women work a lot and accept overtime, so that Austrian women score with a higher sum of unpaid and paid work in a country comparison than women

in other countries. Figure 12 shows how different the ratio of men and women is about atypical employment. Atypical employment is understood to mean fixed-term employment and temporary or part-time work, which make it easier for women to take care of family responsibilities while working. While the rate for standard employment is 85.3% for men, it is only 49.7% for women, while the rate for non-standard employment, in this case, part-time work, is around 35.7% for women and only 5% for men (OECD 2015).

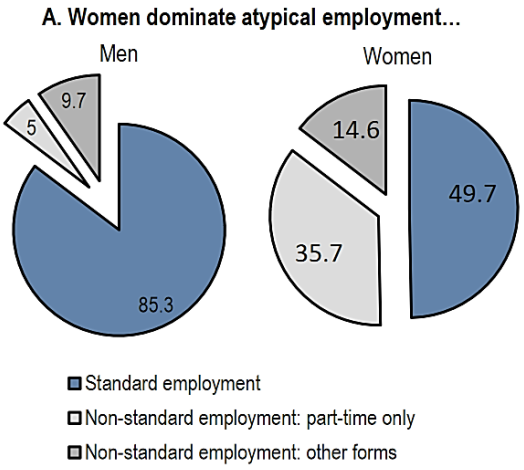

Figure 12: Gender gaps in employment quality in %-percentage

(OECD 2015: 25)

4.3 Women and Leadership in Austria

Women in leadership positions in Austria are still a rarity. According to a study by Statista Austria, 22.6 percent of supervisory board positions and 8 percent of executive management positions at the 200 companies with the highest turnover in Austria were held by women at the beginning of 2020. Compared to the last few years, however, there has been little change in the management level of companies. The situation is no different in middle management, where, according to Statistics Austria, a total of 7.9% of men in paid employment held a managerial position in their profession in 2019, compared to only 3.5% of women (Ostermann 2021). One reason for the low numbers of women in leadership roles is the fact that women often have to choose between a career and children. The reconciliation of work and family is mostly borne by women and, as already mentioned, there is more support regarding childcare in some federal provinces and less in others (see Figure 13). In an international comparison, the proportion of women in management as well as in top senior positions was particularly low,

as shown in Figure 13. In a contrast, the USA has exceeded the 40% threshold in both categories, and thus the ratio of men and women in senior positions is almost balanced (Prokopp/Schranz 2013).

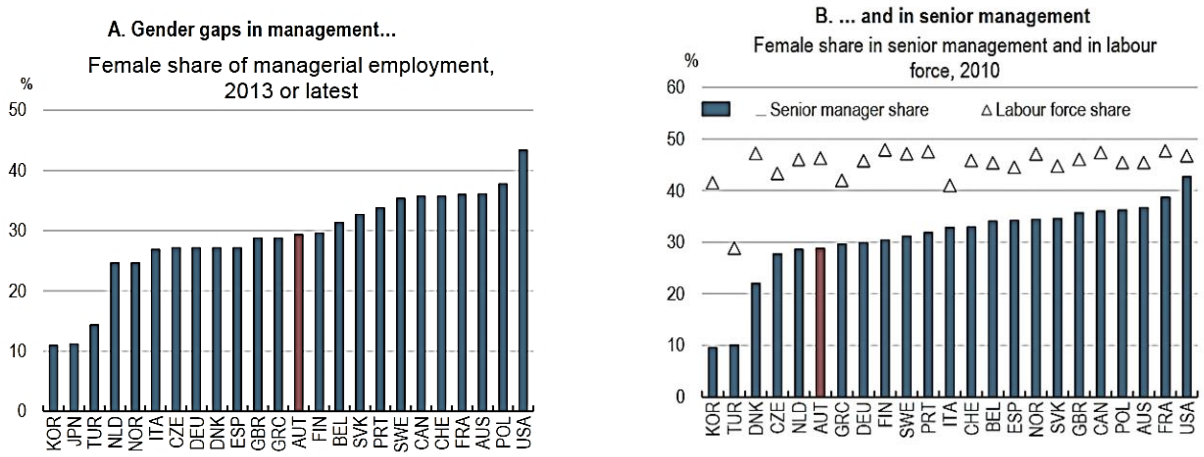

Figure 13: Gender gaps in management in %-percentage

(OECD 2015: 25)

Studies through interviews also show that some women have reservations or fears and thus do not trust themselves with a leadership position or career and thus shift their priorities (Prokopp/Schranz 2013).

5 Research Topic

5.1 Research Problem

Recent studies have shown that the gender distribution in leadership positions is imbalanced, despite extensive programs for the advancement of women. Furthermore, it can be noted that even with equal educational qualifications of men and women, men are more often promoted to management positions while women are represented in executive positions. According to the evaluation by Statistics Austria, the difference was particularly striking for persons with a university degree. According to previous studies, however, a greater number of women in leadership positions increases the financial performance of companies because of their different abilities to lead than men. (Carter et. al 2003). Nevertheless, further studies have shown that women tend to have fewer interests, especially in senior management positions (Sheppard 2018). The difference of genders in leadership positions is viewed and explained

through different approaches. Initial explanations for the low number and interest of women in leadership positions in contrast to men, according to Lacy et al. (1983), were implied to be that it is up to women to aspire to higher roles within the profession and to promote gender representation in management. Sandberg (2013) suggests a new perspective in the context of the previous one that women need to look for opportunities to 'lean in' to leadership positions. Nevertheless, other studies suggest that the low proportion of women in leadership positions can also be explained by the fact that women may be pushed out of these positions because they are not perceived as full members of leadership groups despite being equally or better qualified (Groysberg/Bell 2013). In addition, it is assumed that women have less power in strongly male-dominated bodies, which thus harms the desire and intention to hold a leadership position (Goodwin et al. 2020). Gender stereotyping is explained as one of the biggest factors for the low quota of women in management positions and the low participation of applicants. Gender stereotyping means that various factors such as the media, school years, family environment, and society in general shape how we perceive the genders and which different abilities we assign to them. Thus, according to increased gender stereotyping, women are more likely to be seen as caring emotional personalities who primarily have the task of caring for the family, while men have the role of the financial provider (Ebert/Steffens 2013; Heilmann 2012). Due to this gender role distribution and the allocation of different skills within a society, women, and men often perceive themselves according to their gender models, which in turn can affect career choices as well as types of employment and positions (Bauer/Baltes 2002).

5.2 Research Gap

Numerous studies have already dealt with the issue of inequality of women in leadership positions and examined different approaches. However, the process of deciding whether or not to apply for a leadership position and the desire to do so is not only dependent on the possible factors already mentioned, but also on how individuals assess themselves. This refers to the assessment of one's abilities, which can differ from the actual abilities that a person possesses. Thus, studies have shown that low self-efficacy leads to people rating themselves as less suitable for certain tasks or obstacles. On the other hand, a very positive self-efficacy also positively promotes self-perception and these people who have a high self-efficacy are more confident concerning tasks or challenges and are more motivated to tackle them. Studies

already carried out have concluded that the type of self-efficacy changes depending on which gender one belongs to. In areas influenced by gender stereotyping, such as mathematics, finance, or decision-making in a problem, the female gender tends to have low self-efficacy and the male gender very positive self-efficacy (Marlino/Wilson 2003). Accordingly, it could be proven that the underrepresentation of women in traditionally male professions is due to lower self-efficacy among women (Kelly 1993 quoted according to Betz/Hackett 1981).

However, not only is the proportion of women in male-dominated professions very low, but women are also still underrepresented in management positions in various sectors. Nevertheless, according to the Institute of the German Economy (IW), a study was published according to which, for example, only about one-third of women in Germany apply for management positions and the remaining two-thirds of applications come from men (Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft 2018).

5.3 Research Question

To provide a new perspective on the low percentage of women in leadership positions and their low percentage of applications for leadership positions, this paper examines the issue of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy influences how individuals make decisions and, as already mentioned, especially in tasks traditionally defined by society, women show a lower self-efficacy than men do. Additionally, to investigate a possible link between gender differences in self-efficacy and decision-making, and possibly to explore a new approach to the distribution of applicant quality between men and women, the research question of this thesis is as follows:

"How does self-efficacy differ between men and women with regard to decision-making behaviour when applying for management positions in Austria?"

In order to take into account the connection between gender stereotyping and society in order to identify possible connections with regard to self-efficacy, the following sub-questions will also be addressed:

1. What is the impact of gender stereotyping on the self-efficacy of women and men?

2. Does gender stereotyping have a negative influence on women's decision-making behaviour?

3. Is there a connection between Austrian culture and the unequal gender distribution in leadership positions?

5.4 Hypotheses

The objective of this work is to investigate a total of seven hypotheses relevant to the topic, which are to test the self-efficacy under different conditions.

Previous studies have shown that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and career choices (Beaman et al. 2012). Self-efficacy is shaped by various factors and varies among people. Some have a high self-efficacy and other individuals have a rather low self-perception. However, self-efficacy can also depend on the task or challenge in question (Kelly 1993 quoted according to Betz & Hackett 1981). Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated to test whether a positive self-efficacy also has a positive effect on the choice of a leadership position that entails responsibility and challenging decisions and tasks from time to time:

Hypothesis 0: People with a high self-efficacy do not seek leadership positions.

Hypothesis 1a: People with a high self-efficacy seek leadership positions.

Many studies have addressed the issue that men are often assumed to apply for jobs when they have only 60% of the qualifications and women when they have 100% of the qualifications. Nevertheless, it has been found that both women and men have the same reason for not applying for a job that does not match their qualifications. This is the fact that it is assumed that due to a lack of qualifications one will not be taken anyway and therefore does not want to expend energy. Nevertheless, the study pointed out that almost 78% of the summarised responses from women had less to do with self-confidence and more to do with the fact that the female gender follows more rules and sticks to them. For men, on the other hand, it was largely that they had a false self-perception about the hiring process. To check whether the self-efficacy of people could play a decisive role when it comes to applying for a management position in which the requirements are not met 100% (Mohr 2021), the following hypotheses were made:

Hypothesis 0: Peoples self-efficacy does not influence the choice to apply for a leadership position with a lack of skill level.

Hypothesis 1b: Peoples self-efficacy influences the choice to apply for a leadership position with a lack of skill level.

Self-efficacy develops over the years and influences the way individuals perceive themselves and evaluate their performance (Bandura 1994). This not only influences how individuals make decisions but also what kind of career path is pursued (Beaman et al. 2012). According to studies, differences between the genders can be perceived about the development of self-efficacy. According to these studies, the gender role distribution given by society influences the development of self-efficacy of individuals. According to studies, men show a higher self-efficacy than women, especially in the context of work (Wilson et al. 2007 quoted according to Bandura 1992). For this reason, the following hypothesis serves as a test of this assumption:

Hypothesis 0: People's self-efficacy do not depend on gender identity.
Hypothesis 1c: People's self-efficacy depends on gender identity.

Self-efficacy is formed and shaped by different phases of life. Accordingly, people differ from one another in terms of which decisions they make for which tasks or activities. Self-efficacy therefore already develops in infancy and changes over the years (Bandura 1994). Family, school, or even the group of friends influence this development, in which the individuals compare themselves with others or depending on how the parents educate and motivate the children to master certain tasks (Schunk/Meece 2006). In line with the developing self-perception in the course of life, both children and adults are confronted with different role models for men and women depending on society and culture. These are usually firmly anchored and lived by society. In part, this kind of gender stereotyping is hardly perceived by individuals as discriminatory but is taken for granted. Gender stereotyping can be found in four different aspects of life, for example in the media and advertising, in school, but also in language or books. All these aspects shape individuals in terms of their gender and the abilities that society ascribes to them based on their gender (Ellemers 2018). According to studies, the self-efficacy of women is often very strongly dependent on and oriented towards the stereotype of women. Accordingly, women have less suitable skills for the world of work than men do (Heilmann 2012). Everyone has already experienced gender stereotyping in some way, even in childhood, for example watching an advertisement, movie even the toy selection for girls and boys. Nonetheless, some may not be aware of it, as these gender assignments and skills have become firmly embedded in mindsets. Accordingly, the hypothesis tests the self-efficacy of

women who may have subconsciously imprinted behavioral patterns concerning gender stereotyping.

Hypothesis 0: Women's self-efficacy at work does not depend on experienced gender stereotyping in their childhood.

Hypothesis 1d: Women's self-efficacy at work depends on experienced gender stereotyping in their childhood.

5.5 Research Methodology

5.5.1 Variables of Measurement

The testing of the hypotheses is largely based on the development of self-efficacy and its change according to different circumstances and gender. Accordingly, self-efficacy can be described as the dependent variable in hypotheses except for the first two pairs of hypotheses. The necessary data for the self-efficacy can be taken from the questionnaire, in which the participants had to rate five questions on a Likert scale of 1-5 to what extent certain characteristics apply to them. The mean value of these five questions results in the mean value of the self-efficacy for women, men.

The first two hypotheses in turn deal with the assumption that self-efficacy has an influence on decision-making behaviour with regard to a leadership position. Accordingly, gender in combination with self-efficacy is considered an independent variable in both cases, and the decision to take up a management position as well as applying for a management position with a lack of skill level is considered an independent variable, as it may depend on the degree of self-efficacy (see figure 14).

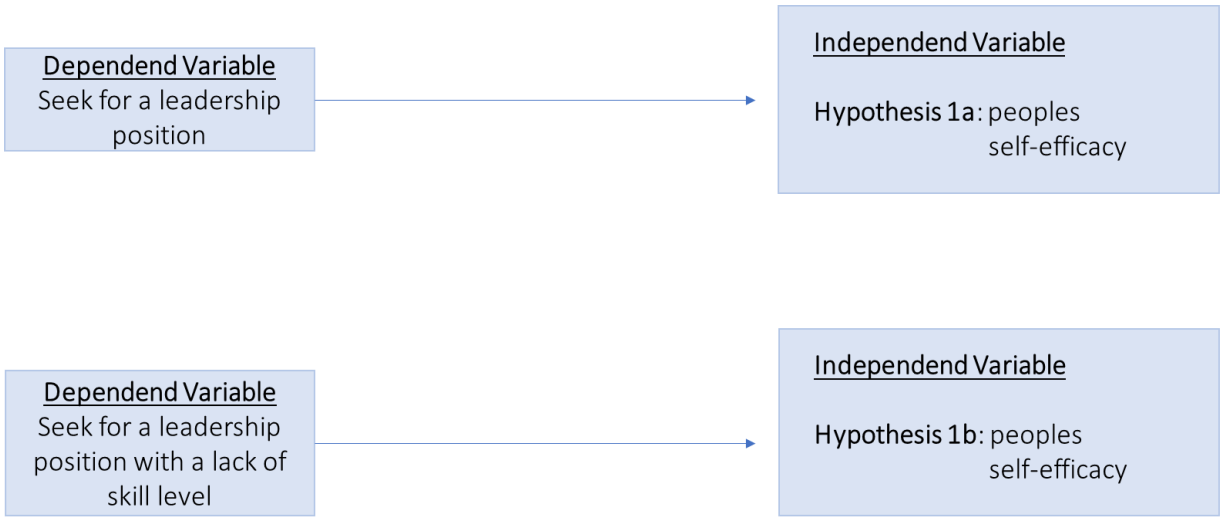

Figure 14: Relationship between dependent and independent variables for hypotheses 1a and 1b

(own illustration 2021)

In the other two hypotheses, the summary self-efficacy is the dependent variable. The independent variables of the hypotheses are different and deal with gender identity, experienced gender stereotyping in den childhood. All these variables may influence the extent to which the dependent variable, the self-efficacy, changes (figure 15).

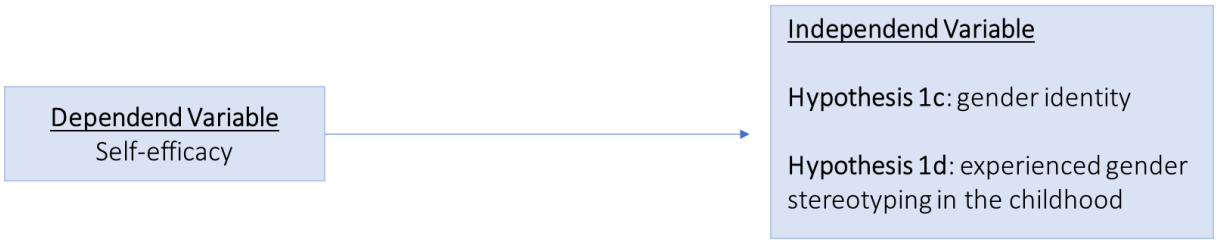

Figure 15: Relationship between dependent and independent variables for hypotheses 1c and 1e

(own illustration 2021)

5.5.2 Research Design and Method

In the context of this work, a questionnaire was designed via the SoSci Survey platform, which participants had to fill out independently online. The questionnaire was divided into four parts: The first part of the survey aimed to explore the general self-efficacy and thus the self-efficacy concerning the professional career. Questions were asked which the participants had to answer intuitively to ensure the probability of truthful answers. The second part of the questionnaire

was largely concerned with whether there was a general interest in a career as a manager. The third part of the questionnaire deals with the topic of gender stereotyping, in that the participants had to assign certain characteristics to the genders and also experience their own perceived gender stereotyping as well as possible influencing factors that promote gender stereotypes. The last part of the questionnaire deals with the demographic data of the participants, such as the occupation or age, place of residence.

In total, the questionnaire contains 22 questions and takes about 6-7 minutes to complete. Most of the participants were drawn from the SoSci panel after the questionnaire was revised by two reviewers after receiving feedback and then approved by SoSci Survey. Please refer to Appendix 5 to get an insight into the complete online self-completion questionnaire.

5.5.3 Sampling and Data Collection

The prerequisite for participation in the questionnaire was that the participants were employed in Austria and currently reside in Austria. After confirming the use of the SoSci Panel, 2000 participants who met the above criteria were contacted on the 4th of May 2021. In order to calculate an optimal sample size to increase the credibility of the evaluation, the following formula was used:

$$\frac{[z^2 \, x \, p(1-p)]}{e^2} = required\ sample$$

e= margin of error

z= Z-Value

p= standard deviation

Applied to the necessary sample size for participants in Austria, the value of the current employed Austrians was chosen as the population size, which is around 4,296,9000. Due to the fact that the value is very high, an adapted formula to large population sizes was applied.

The margin of error was determined using the following formula:

$$z\ x\ \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = Error\ margin$$

The Z-value is the confidence level, which in turn is the number of standard deviations that a certain proportion is away from the mean. At a confidence level of 90%, the Z-value is 1.65. The symbol σ stands for the standard deviation of the population. The higher the variance, the greater the standard deviation. Since it is not really possible to determine how high the standard deviation is before conducting a study, this value is usually set to 0.5 (50%). The last value needed to calculate the margin of error is n, which represents the population. In this case, it is the population of Austrians who live in Austria and are employed. Accordingly, the calculation of the margin of error is:

$$1{,}65\ x\ \frac{0{,}5}{\sqrt{4296900}} = 0{,}05 = Error\ margin$$

z= 1,65

σ= 0,5

n= 42969000

Subsequently, the calculated value of the margin of error, which is 0.05, can be inserted into the formula of the sample calculation.

$$\frac{[1{,}65^{\mathbf{2}}\ \boldsymbol{x}\ \mathbf{0,5(1-0,5)}]}{\mathbf{0,05^2}} = 272\ Participants$$

e = margin of error= 0,05

z = Z-value = 1,65

p = Standard deviation = 0,5

In order for the survey to be meaningful, a necessary number of participants of 272 was calculated, which should be filtered out randomly based on the criterion of Austrians in employment.

6 Data Analysis

6.1 Evaluation Survey Data

The survey reached a total of N=294 participants who are employed in Austria. Of the 294 participants, around 64,96% were women, 33,33% were men and the remaining 1.7% were diverse (see table 1).

Gender Identity

	frequency	percentages
female	191	64,96%
male	98	33,33%
diverse	5	1,7%
total	294	100%

Table 1: Gender Identity Distribution

(own illustration 2021)

Because the study is exclusively oriented towards the differences and distinctions regarding the assignment of either female or male gender, the participants who ticked diverse as their gender identity were left out for this study. The distribution of age groups among male and female participants is fairly evenly distributed, with percentages ranging from 17.3% to 32.2% of age groups. A full 28.7% of participants were in the 50+ age category, 17.3% of participants were in the 41-50 age group, 21.1% were in the 30-40 age group, 32.2% of participants were between 18-29 years of age and 0.3% were under 18 years of age (see table 2).

Age Groups

	frequency	percentages
under 18	1	,3%
18-29	93	32,2%
30-40	61	21,1%
41-50	50	17,3%
50+	83	28,7%
total	288	99,7%
missing	1	,3%
total	289	100,00%

Table 2: Age Group Distribution

(own illustration 2021)

In terms of educational qualification, most of the participants have a higher education entrance qualification (Matura) or a university degree. About 24,4% of the female and 21,4% of the male participants have a higher education entrance qualification (Matura), 30,2% of the female participants and 17,3% of the male participants have a university degree bachelor. Additionally, 25% of the women have a university degree in Master, Magister, Diploma or Engineer as well as 5,7% have a university degree doctorate, Ph.D.. Of the male participants 36,7% have a university degree in Master, Magister, Diploma or Engineer and 13,2% a university degree doctorate, Ph.D. (see table 3).

Type of educational qualification			
		Gender Identity	
Education qualification		Women	Men
	compulsory education	1,5%	0%
	apprenticeship diploma	6,7%	4%
	vocational school "without Matura"	3,6%	3%
	higher education entrance qualification (with "Matura")	24,4%	21,4%
	University degree Bachelor	30,2%	17,3%
	University degree Master, Magister, Diploma, Engineer	25%	36,7%
	University degree doctorate, Ph.D.	5,7%	13,2%
	other	2,6%	4%

Table 3: Educational qualification women and men in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

With regard to professional activities, four industry groups stand out. Most of the male and female participants have a profession in the field of "public service and administration", where the female participants have a rate of 20,3% compared to the other activities of the female participants and the male participants have a rate of about 19.5% compared to the same gender category. The second most prominent industry is "healthcare". In this sector, mainly female participants work with about 14.1%, and of the male participants only 6.1%. The situation is similar in the industry group "education", in which 14.1% of female participants also work and only about 6.1% of the male participants. The situation is different in the field of "EDV and IT", in which only 3.9% of the female participants are employed and 12.3% of the male participants. The last somewhat more pronounced industry sector is "business, consulting or management", which is occupied by 4.5% of female participants and 6.1% of male participants (see table 4).

Industry Sectors

		Gender Identity	
Industry		Women	Men
	business, consulting or management	4,5%	6,1%
	accounting, banking or finance	1,6%	5,1%
	charity and volunteering	1,1%	2%
	creative art or design	1,6%	1%
	healthcare	14,1%	6,1%
	marketing, advertisement pr PR	1,6%	4,1%
	public service or administration	20,3%	19,5%
	retail	2,2%	3%
	forestry or agriculture	0%	2%
	transport or logistics	1,1%	5,1%
	education	14,1%	6,1%
	sales	1,6%	4,1%

	recruitment or HR	0,05%	0%
	EDV and IT	3,9%	12,3%
	service	0,05%	0,1%
	hotel industry or gastronomy	1,6%	0%
	sport	0,05%	0%
	real estate or construction industry	0,1%	0,1%
	chemistry or pharmaceuticals	0,2%	0,2%
	energy sector and environment	1,1%	1%
	craft industry	1,6%	0
	insurance	0,2%	1%
	law and taxes	1,6%	0,1%
	other	18%	15,4%

Table 4: Educational qualification women and men in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

The questionnaire asked participants about their aspirations for a leadership position. The answer options were divided into five categories from "do not agree at all" to "fully agree", the evaluation of which can be seen in figure 16. 20% of the female participants and 23,5% of the male participants confirmed this statement with "fully agree", 23% of the female participants, and 30,6% of the male participants ticked "agree". For the answer option "neutral", 19,37% of the female participants and 19,38% of the male participants confirmed. "Do not agree" was ticked by around 19,89% of the female participants and 16,32% of the male participants. The last category with "do not agree at all" was confirmed 15,18% times by female participants and 10,2% times by male participants (10.2%) (see figure 16).

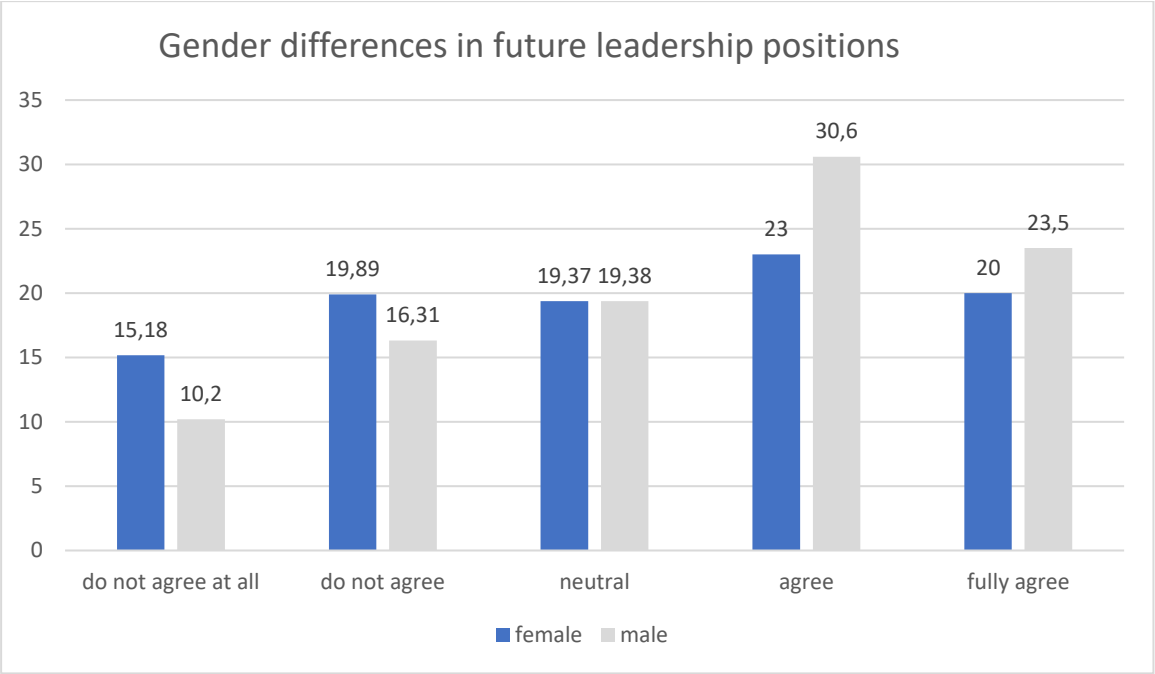

Figure 16: Survey Question: "I aspire to a leadership position." in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

Another question in the survey asked the participants to what extent they agreed to apply for a management position where the participants' skills were only 70% of the job description. Here 19,89% of the female participants agreed with "very likely and 16,32% of the male participants. Regarding the answer option "rather likely", 30,37% of the female participants and 40,81% of the male participants ticked it. In the neutral answer area, 13,6% of the female participants and 12,3% of the male participants are located. The answer option "rather likely" was confirmed by 21,5% of the female participants and 18,34% of the male participants. The last answer option "very unlikely" was ticked by 12,6% female participants and 9,2% male participants (see figure 17).

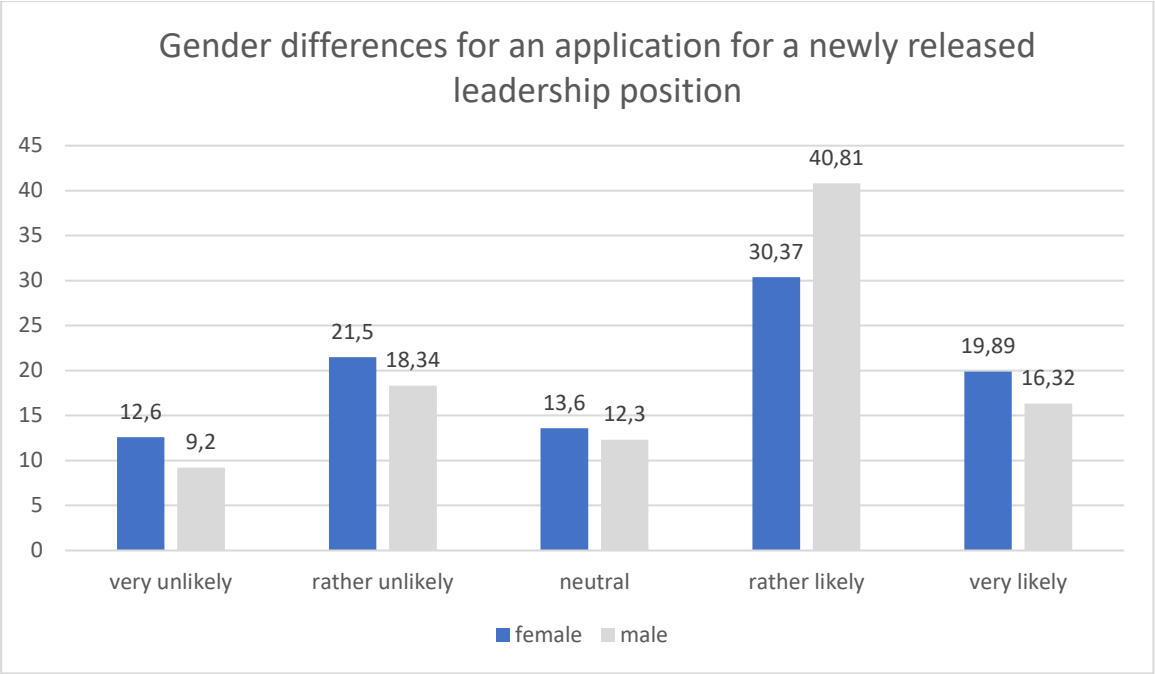

Figure 17: Survey Question:" How likely are you to apply for a newly released managerial position?" in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

To evaluate the self-efficacy of the participants, seven questions were asked in the survey, which the participants were asked to answer in good conscience and intuitively from a scale of 1=not at all agree to 5=agree completely (see table 5). These questions were combined into one variable according to gender, and the average value of all questions was calculated for men and women. The average answer for female participants account for 3.88, which again corresponds to the answer option "rather agree". For the male participants, the average value of all questions and their answers comes to 4.08, which is higher than for the female participants but is also assigned to the answer option "rather agree". Accordingly, men show a higher self-efficacy than women, since 5 with fully agree represents the maximum of self-efficacy. Furthermore, concerning the possible answer options, which in turn are intended to measure the self-efficacy of the participants, it can be seen that in all seven possible options, based on the scale "agree - not agree at all", women on average have a lower value than men (see table 6).

Self-Efficacy		
	mean	N
female	3,8883	190
male	4,0766	97

Table 5: Self-Efficacy and Gender Identity

(own illustration 2021)

Determination of Self-Efficacy							
	„I will be able to achieve most of the goals I have set myself."	"When I am faced with a difficult task, I am sure that I will overcome them."	"In general, I think I can achieve the results that are important to me."	"I believe that I can succeed in almost any eneavour I set my mind to."	"I will be successfully overcome many challenges."	"I have a lot of confidence."	"Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well."
female							
mean	3,92	3,83	4,25	3,93	4,19	3,41	3,65
N	186	190	188	187	190	187	175
male							
mean	4,04	4,08	4,33	4,03	4,33	3,80	3,93
N	95	97	97	97	97	97	94

Table 6: Determination of Self-Efficacy

(own illustration 2021)

Concerning a possible influence on the development of the self-efficacy, the participants were asked whether they had siblings. The sibling groups were divided into the answer options sister, brother, both or no siblings. Among the women, it can be seen that women with an average self-efficacy score of 4 or 5, which again reflects a high self-efficacy, have siblings. 12,1% of the female participants with a brother have an average self-efficacy score of 4 or 5. Women with a sister and a self-efficacy of 4 or 5 accounted for 12,5% of participants and 13,2% reported having both sexes as siblings and have a high self-efficacy average of 4 or 5. Among participants without siblings, 5,8% have a self-efficacy score of 4 or 5 (see figure 18).

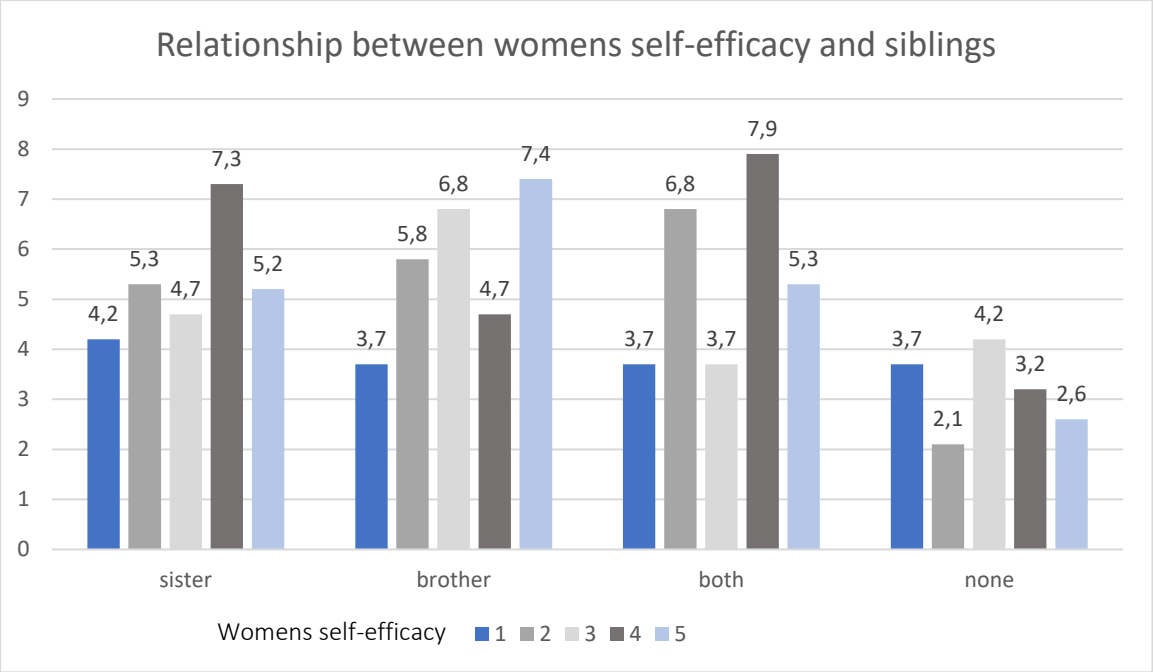

Figure 18: The development of women's self-efficacy and having siblings in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

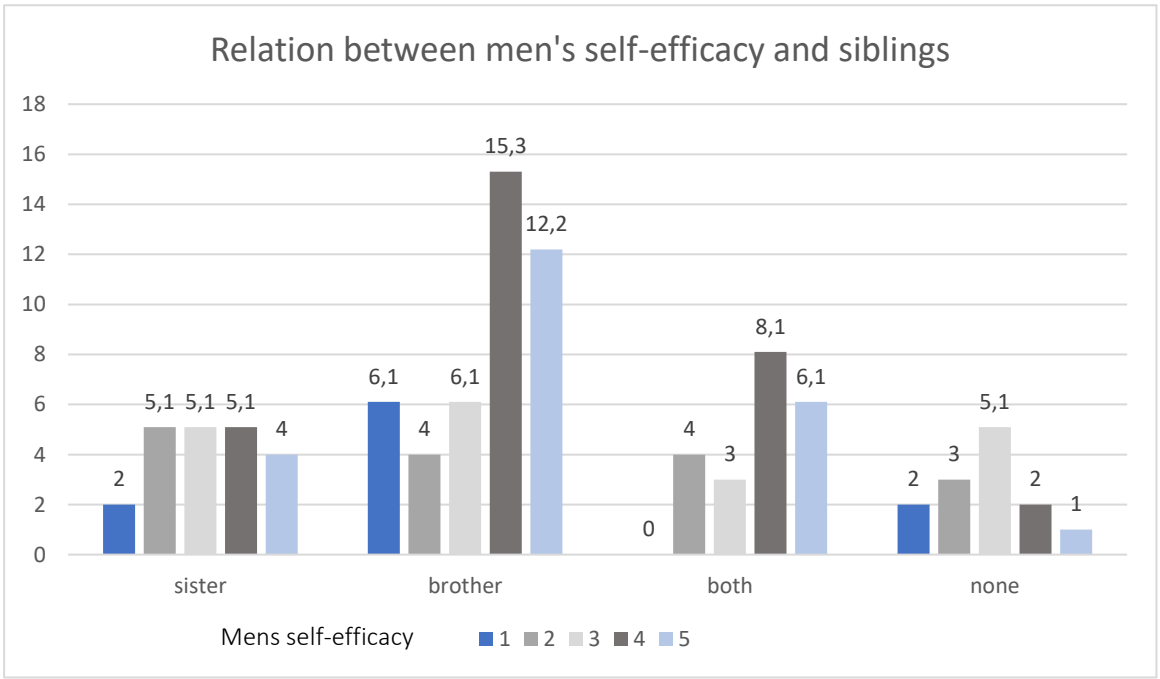

Figure 19: The development of men's self-efficacy and having siblings in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

The self-efficacy for men with siblings differs slightly from the women's quote. With a value of 4 or 5 of self-efficacy, 27.5% of the participants have a brother. For male participants with a

sister, the self-efficacy scores were almost the same with 5.1% , having an average score of 2,3 or 4 on the self-efficacy scale and 4% having a score of 5. The average self-efficacy score for men without siblings is 1% with a score of 5, 2% with a score of 4. Furthermore, 5.1% of the participants have a score of 3%, and 2% have a score of 1 (see figure 19).

Concerning the experience of gender stereotyping, two different environments were considered. Firstly, gender stereotyping at work and secondly, gender stereotyping in childhood. Regarding the gender stereotyping experienced on the job, about 48,2% of the female participants and 59% of the male participants stated that they had not experienced any. In contrast, 42,4% of the female participants and 41% of the male participants stated that they had already experienced gender stereotyping in their professional environment (see figure 20).

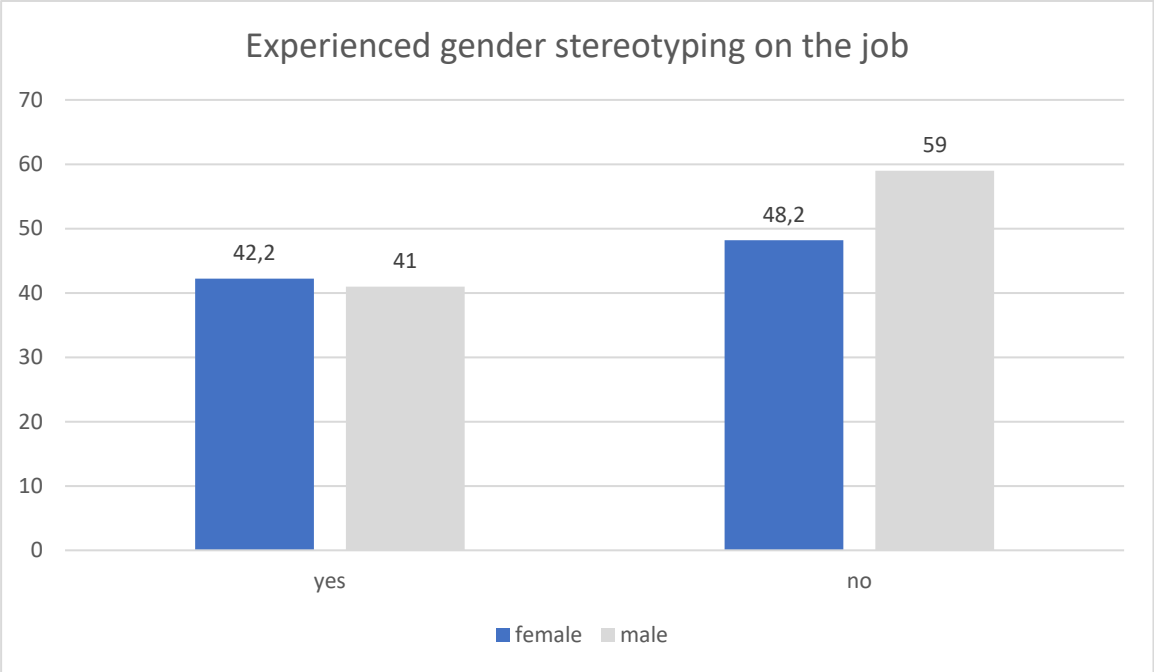

Figure 20: Survey Question:"Do you feel that you have recently experienced gender stereotyping in your current job/company?" in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

When asked how many participants had experienced gender stereotyping in their childhood (figure 21), 77,5% female participants and 76,5% of the male participants confirmed this assumption. Comparatively, 17,3% of the female participants and 17,3% of the male participants denied having had gender-stereotyped experiences in childhood (see figure 21).

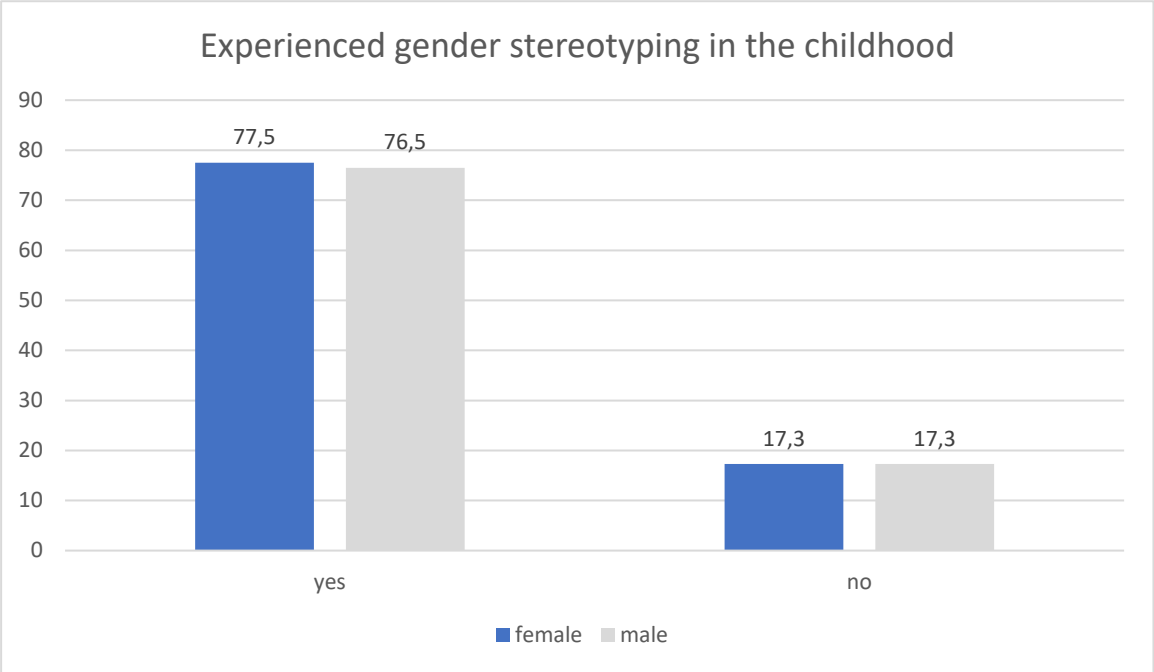

Figure 21: Survey Question: "Did you experience gender stereotyping in you childhood?" in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

In the further course of the questionnaire, participants were asked whether they had been influenced by gender stereotyping with regard to their professional career, starting with the search for their first job or future professional goals. 54,18% of the female participants answered "yes" and 45.81% answered "no". Among the male participants, 27.47% confirmed the answer option "yes" and 72.53% ticked the answer option "no" (see figure 22).

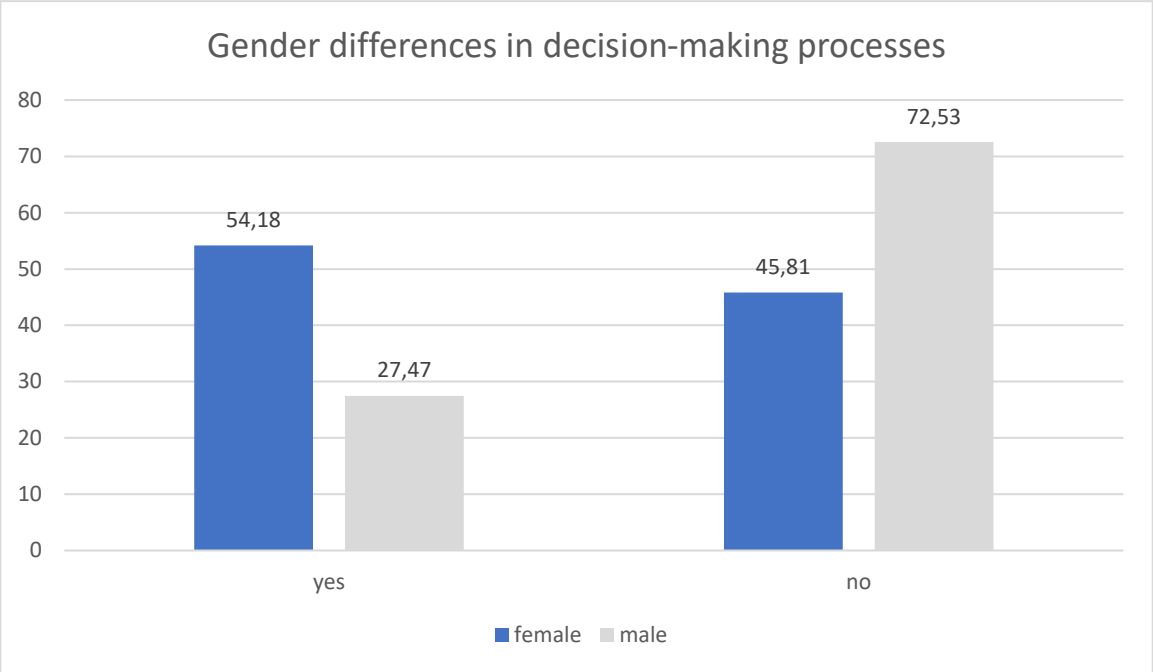

Figure 22: Survey Question: "Do you feel that gender stereotyping influences your decisions regarding your work?" in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

The influence of gender stereotyping can be shaped to different degrees by different environments. To find out which environments the participants perceive as particularly influential, it was possible to choose between various options as to which ones apply to the participants (see table 7). There was the possibility to tick as many as one wanted. It was given a choice between representation in the media (e.g. TV, news, film, social media, etc.), society and culture, family and social environment, religion, school, vocational school or university, or none of the mentioned options. Furthermore, the participants could add further influencing factors in a text field if this was desired. Regarding gender stereotyping in the media, 88.6% of the female and male participants ticked this answer option, 84.8% confirmed gender stereotyping starting from society and culture, 71.6% from the family and social environment, 66.8% ticked religion, 45% the school or university environment and 1% ticked none of the options. Furthermore, some participants gave further reasons for an environment that promotes gender stereotyping. Long-established traditions", "capitalism", "lack of thematization", "corporate policy decisions" or "politics" were mentioned. For further information's regarding open Input on other influencing factors supporting gender stereotyping, please refer to Appendix 3.

Environments and gender stereotyping		
	frequency	percentage
Representation in the media (e.g. TV, News, Film, Social Media, etc.)		
not selected	32	11,1
selected	256	88,6
missing	1	0,3
Society and Culture		
Not selected	43	14,9
selected	245	84,8
missing	1	0,3
Family and Social Environment		
not selected	81	28
selected	207	71,6
missing	1	0,3
Religion		
not selected	95	32,9
selected	193	66,8
missing	1	0,3
School, Vocational School, or University		
not selected	158	54,7
selected	130	45
missing	1	0,3
None of the mentioned options		
not selected	285	98,6
selected	3	1,0
missing	1	0,3

Table 7: Different Environments and their influence on Gender Stereotyping

(own illustration 2021)

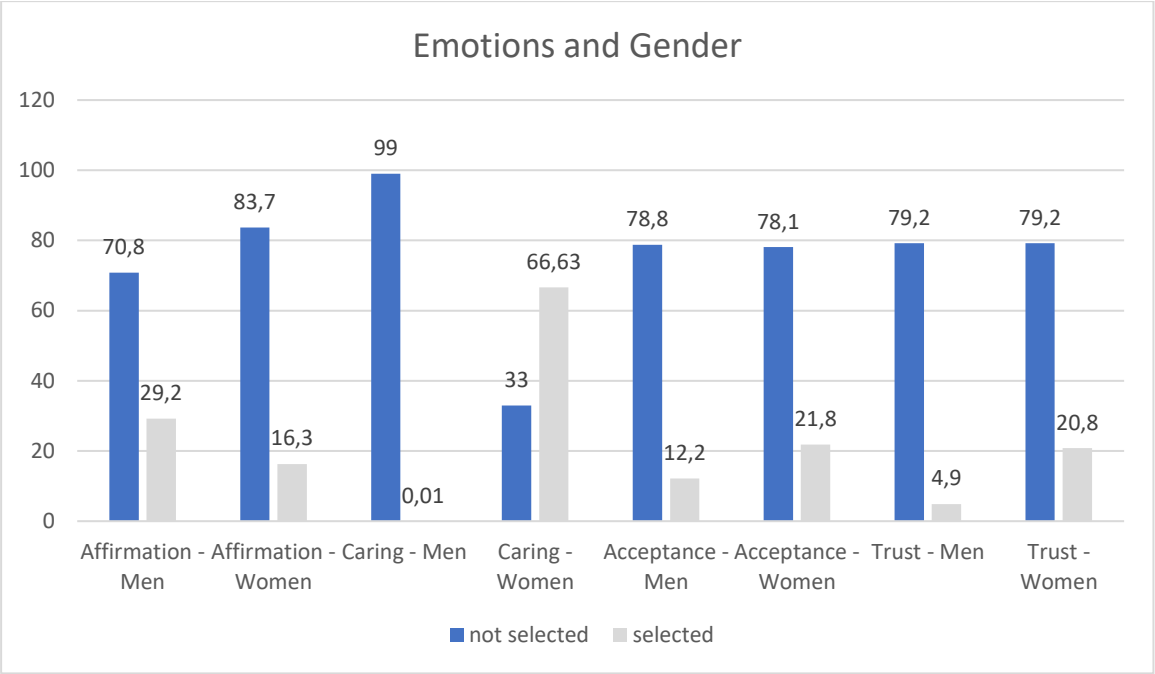

Figure 23: Survey Question: "Which emotional needs do you think are more important for men and women?" in %-percentage

(own illustration 2021)

Participants were further asked to rate and categorize various emotions and to what extent they apply to women or men. In the following, four of the studied feelings are evaluated, which could provide interesting information regarding the examination of assumed gender stereotyping and the allocation of different abilities according to gender. The category affirmation in women as a character trait was selected by a total of 16.3% men and women and 83.7% did not select the category. For affirmation in men, 29.2% of men and women combined selected the category and 70.8% chose not to. The emotion of caring in women was selected 66.63% times by men and women and 33% left this trait unselected. For the same trait related to men only, around 0.01% selected the category and the remaining 99% decided against this category and assignment of the trait Caring in men. The next emotion examined in the survey is acceptance. Here, a total of 21.8% selected the category for women and 78.1% did not select it. When examining the same emotion for men, 12.2% selected the category and the remaining 78.8% omitted the category. The last emotion is trust. When assigning the emotion in women, 20.8% agreed with it and 79.2% did not select the category. For the emotion trust in men, a total of 4.9% selected this category and the remaining 95.1% did not select the category (see figure 23).

6.2 Data Limitation

Participation in the questionnaire was almost exclusively through candidates from the SoSci panel. As this panel is a very specific one, most of the participants have a higher degree and therefore the results do not include individuals who may have completed an apprenticeship and are therefore working in other occupational fields. Furthermore, the number of participants was calculated as N=272 necessary participants. Nevertheless, the number of all employed Austrians is 4,296,9000 in 2020, so that the sample for this work is relatively small. Accordingly, the more participants are included, the more accurate the sample becomes, especially from different occupational fields. The panel of participants in Austria was also quite small, which is why only 2000 emails were sent out to participants. Of these, however, only about 200 participants responded, so the questionnaire had to be passed around again individually among acquaintances. It is, therefore, possible that many of the respondents live in the Vienna area so that other provinces are less represented. Finally, the questionnaire went online on 4th May 2021 and reached a survey quota of 294 participants. Of these, however, five questionnaires were not evaluated because they indicated their gender as "diverse", because only the gender differences of women and men are considered in the context of this work.

6.3 Hypothesis Testing

6.3.1 Evaluation of the Hypotheses

Two different methods were used to evaluate the hypotheses. Firstly, a correlation analysis was carried out with the help of the Kendall-Tau-b and Spearman-Rho tests. For further application of the hypotheses, the Mann-Whitey U-test was also used. A total of four hypotheses were equated with a matching null hypothesis in order to identify possible correlations. The type of test for the respective hypotheses was determined partly with the help of the so-called measurement of the normal distribution or tested on the basis of the data set for prerequisites for the application of parametric procedures.

6.3.2 Bivariate Correlation

The measurement of the first two pairs of hypotheses was carried out with the help of a test of the bivariate correlation test group. The following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 0: People with a high self-efficacy do not seek leadership positions.

Hypothesis 1a: People with a high self-efficacy seek leadership positions.

To determine which test is necessary to perform, the data were first tested for a normal distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test (table 8). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test also use a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis. Accordingly, the null hypothesis corresponds to the assumption that the values of the examined variables are normally distributed in the population. The significance level in this study is always 5%, σ=.05.

If the significance level is higher than 5%, the null hypothesis is rejected and there is no normal distribution.

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Variable	statiscits	N	significance	statistics	N	significance
future leadership	,193	284	<,001	,893	284	<,001
self-efficacy	,110	284	<,001	,945	284	<,001
a. Significance corrwction according to Lilliefors						

Table 8: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Test Hypothesis 1a

(own illustration 2021)

The variable " self-efficacy ", which summarises all data from men and women regarding their self-efficacy, has a significance of p< 001, which in turn means that the variable is not normally distributed. The significance level p<.001 was confirmed by both Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test. The variable "future_leadership", which summarises data from men and women who aspire to a leadership position, is also significant in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-wilk p< .001. Accordingly, the variable is also not normally distributed.

Due to the fact that there is no normal distribution, the Spearman-Rho and Kendall-Tau-b tests were used to test the hypotheses. The only prerequisite for the test is that the variables are at least ordinally scaled data, which is the case for the two variables to be tested (see table 9).

Correlation between self-efficacy and a future leadership role

			self-efficacy	future leadership
Kendall-Tau	self-efficacy	correlation coefficient	1,000	,199**
		Sig. (2-sided)		,000
		N	287	284
	future leadership	correlation coefficient	,199**	1,000
		Sig. (2-sided)	,000	
		N	284	284
Spearman-Rho	self-efficacy	correlation coefficient	1,000	,252**
		Sig. (2-sided)		,000
		N	287	284
	future leadership	correlation coefficient	,252**	1,000
		Sig. (2-sided)	,000	
		N	284	285

*** The correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (two-sided)*

Table 9: Kendall-Tau-B and Spearman-Rho Test hypothesis 1a

(own illustration 2021)

The significance level was set at 5% in the measurement, so that a significant difference can be assumed if the value of the line "Sig. (2-sided)" is less than 5% or σ=.05 respectively. A value of exactly or higher than 5% would mean that the result is not significant. In the table, both Kendall-Tau-b and Spearman-Rho show a result value of .000 in all four rows, which again is a rounded result and means that the p-value is smaller than .0005, which means p<.001. Thus, in summary, a high significance between the two variables can be determined. Accordingly, the two variables react positively with each other, so that the 0-hypothesis can be rejected. In summary, it can be said that an increased self-efficacy has a positive effect on the application for a managerial position.

A further examination of the following hypotheses should also be tested with the help of a bivariate correlation.

Hypothesis 0: Peoples self-efficacy does not influence the choice to apply for a leadership position with a lack of skill level.

Hypothesis 1b: Peoples self-efficacy influences the choice to apply for a leadership position with a lack of skill level.

In order to check the appropriate test, an analysis is first carried out with regard to the normal distribution which will be carried out by using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov as well as the Shapiro-Wilk test assume a significance level of 5%, σ=.05. If the value is above 5%, there is a normal distribution, and if the significance is less, there is no normal distribution.

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Variable	statiscits	N	significance	statistics	N	significance
Self-efficacy	,107	282	<,001	,946	282	<,001
Application for a leadership position with a lack of skill	,246	282	<,001	,881	282	<,001
a. Significance corrwction according to Lilliefors						

Table 10: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test Hypothesis 1b

(own illustration 2021)

The significance of both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk test is .001, which again means p<.001. Therefore, it can be concluded that a normal distribution can be excluded as the value is less than the 5% significance level for the variable " self-efficacy " as well as for the variable "application for a leadership position with a lack of skill level" (table 10).
In conclusion, the Spearman-Rho and Kendall-Tau-b tests are used to evaluate the hypotheses, which also work in the case of a non-normal distribution (see table 11).

Correlation between self-efficacy and application for a leadership position with a lack of skill level

			self-efficacy	application future leadership with lack of skill
Kendall-Tau	self-efficacy	correlation coefficient	1,000	,230**
		Sig. (2-sided)		,000
		N	287	282
	application future leadership with lack of skill	correlation coefficient	,230**	1,000
		Sig. (2-sided)	,000	
		N	282	282
Spearman-Rho	self-efficacy	correlation coefficient	1,000	,295**
		Sig. (2-sided)		,000
		N	287	282
	application future leadership with lack of skill	correlation coefficient	,295**	1,000
		Sig. (2-sided)	,000	
		N	282	282

*** The correlation is significant at the 0,01 level (two-sided)*

Table 11: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test Hypothesis 1b

(own illustration 2021)

The significance level for both tests was set at 5%, σ=.05. Accordingly, a significant difference can also be assumed here as soon as a value in the row "Sig. (2-sided)" is smaller than 5% or σ=.05. In the table, the significance values of the respective rows are .000 after the Kendall-Tau-b and Spearman-Rho tests, which is again a rounded result. Thus, the p-value is less than .0005, respectively. p< .0005. For this reason, it can be concluded that there is a high significance of the two variables and thus the null hypothesis can be rejected. There is a positive relationship, so that an increased self-efficacy has a positive effect on the application for a management position, even if only 70% of the skill level of the job description is present.

6.3.3 Non-Parametric Method

To answer the other two hypotheses, a parametric procedure was chosen due to the variables. This in turn tests whether there is a difference between two groups in the population. The variables to be tested are independent variables, which is why two tests were considered. One is the T-test and the other is the so-called Mann-Whitney U-test. The T-test assumes that the data to be examined are metric and normally distributed. As soon as one of these conditions is not met, the Mann-Whitney-U test can be used. The prerequisites for using the Mann-Whitney-U test are that the variables are independent of each other, the independent variable is nominally scaled and has two values and, finally, that the dependent variable is at least ordinally scaled. If these conditions are met, the distribution of variables relevant to the data interpretation of the Mann-Whitney U test is calculated.

H 0: People's self-efficacy do not depend on gender identity.

H 1c: People's self-efficacy depends on gender identity.

For this reason, the T-test ca be excluded, as the condition of the type of variable is already not fulfilled. Accordingly, the Mann-Whitney U test is again used to test the hypotheses. However, the distribution of the variables is tested in the first step in order to carry out a justified interpretation of the Mann-Whitney-U test in the next step (see table 12).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Test		
		self-efficacy
Extreme differences	absolute	,144
	positive	,144
	negativ	-,014
Kolmogotov-Smirnov-Z		1,158
Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)		,137
a. Group Variable: Gender Identity		

Table 12: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test hypothesis 1c

(own illustration 2021)

The result of this test shows that the two groups are not normally distributed, as p<.137, well above the significance level σ=.05 of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov. The Mann-Whitney U test is then conducted to test the significance of the two variables. In this test, too, the significance level is σ=.05, so that significance is present as soon as the p-value of "Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)" is less than .05.

Mann-Whitney-U-Test	
	self-efficacy
Mann-Whitney-U-Test	8021,000
Wilcoxon-W	26166,000
Z	-1,800
Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	,072
a. Group Variable: Gender Identity	

Table 13: Mann-Whitney-U-Test Hypothesis 1c

(own illustration 2021)

Ranks				
	gender identity	N	middle rank	rank total
People self-efficacy	female	190	137,72	26166,00
	male	97	156,31	15162,00
	total	187		

Table 14: Ranks Mann-Whitney-U-Test Hypothesis 1c

(own illustration 2021)

No significance between the self-efficacy of women (M rank=137.72) and the self-efficacy of men (M rank= 156.31) can be detected, U=8021,000, Z=-1,800, p<0,072.
For this reason, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected (see table 13; table 14).

The next pair of hypotheses includes the variable "Peoples self-efficacy ", an ordinally scaled variable that represents the dependent variable, and the variable "experienced gender stereotyping in the childhood", which in turn is nominally scaled and represents the independent variable.

Hypothesis 0: Women's self-efficacy at work does not depend on experienced gender stereotyping in their childhood.

Hypothesis 1d: Women's self-efficacy at work depends on experienced gender stereotyping in their childhood.

The prerequisites apply to the variables of the hypothesis, with "women's self-efficacy " as the dependent and ordinal scaled variable and "experienced gender stereotyping in the childhood" as the independent and nominal scaled variable. For this reason, the T-test cannot be carried out because the variables are already not metric data. Nevertheless, the normal distribution is also tested, which also provides information in the subsequent data evaluation when the Mann-Whitney U test is applied. Depending on whether the variables are normally distributed or not, the interpretation of this test also changes. To test the normal distribution, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is used in the first step (see table 14).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Test		
		self-efficacy women
Extreme differences	absolute	,0,91
	positive	,000
	negativ	-,091
Kolmogotov-Smirnov-Z		0,580
Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)		,889
a. Group Variable: experienced stereotyping childhood		

Table 15: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Hypothesis 1d

(own illustration 2021)

The distribution of the two groups do not differ from each other, as the value P is .889, but the significance value Kolmogorov-Smirnov is p<.05. In the next step the Mann-Whitney U-test was calculated to test whether women's self-efficacy differs according to the gender-stereotyping they experienced in childhood. The significance level was set at 5%(σ=.05), so that a significant difference can be assumed as soon as the value in the row "Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)" is less than 5%, or in other words p<.05. However, if the value is exactly 5% or more, the result is not significant.

Ranks				
	Experienced gender stereotyping childhoof	N	middle rank	rank total
Women self-efficacy	yes	145	91,00	13194,50
	no	33	82,92	2736,50
	total	178		

Table 16: Mann-Whitney-U-Test Hypothesis 1d

(own illustration 2021)

Mann-Whitney-U-Test	
	self-efficacy women
Mann-Whitney-U-Test	2175,500
Wilcoxon-W	2736,500
Z	-,830
Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	,407
a. Group Variable: experienced gender-stereotyping	

Table 17: Ranks Mann-Whitney-U-Test Hypothesis 1d

(own illustration 2021)

There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of women with experienced stereotyping in childhood (M rank= 91) and with not experienced gender stereotyping in childhood (M rank= 33), U= 2175.500, Z= -.830, p< .407.

Due to the fact that the significance level is at σ=.05, but the p-value is larger, the null hypothesis can not be rejected (see table 15; table 16).

7 Discussion

The unbalanced distribution of men and women in many professional areas and aspects is due to many influences. This does not only refer to the career choice itself of women and men, whether they want to or can pursue a job, but also to the extent to which a management position with correspondingly more responsibility is aspired to. One of the possible influencing factors that can significantly affect the decision-making behaviour is the "self-efficacy " which develops individually over the years and is also shaped by various events. With the help of the questionnaire with 289 female and male participants who are employed in Austria, a possible connection between the self-efficacy and the decision-making behaviour when applying for a management position was to be examined. According to studies, women often show a lack of

self-efficacy and perception, so that they usually present themselves worse than their abilities indicate. The situation is different for men, who, according to studies, are demonstrably more goal-oriented and self-confident (Heilmann 2012). The results of the survey confirm this assumption, in which the average answer of the female participants was 3.88, which again corresponds to "rather agree", and the male participants had an average value of 4.08. Furthermore, the individual values of the female participants were not as high as those of the male participants. Additionally, the individual scores of the male participants regarding the self-efficacy survey were higher than the responses of the female participants. Nevertheless, the hypothesis test showed that there is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and gender identity. However, the significance value was only just missed at $p<0.05$, so that a possible explanation, as well as the fact that the self-efficacy values of women and men differ but are close to each other, is that twice as many female participants took part as male participants so that the result might have been more significant with a larger and more evenly distributed sample. The social environment in which a child grows up has a significant influence on the development of self-efficacy. In this context, the child's gender perception plays a decisive role, which is shaped by various impressions and determines which abilities are assigned to which gender. This is referred to as "gender stereotyping", which significantly influences the perception, beliefs, and assumptions about one's characteristics (Bauer/Baltes 2002). According to studies, siblings have a positive influence on self-efficacy and gender perception and its development, since they compare their abilities with those of their siblings and receive feedback (Bandura 1994). The analysis of the study partially confirms these statements, in which women show a higher self-efficacy if they have siblings, the gender is not relevant here. In the case of male participants, having a brother in the family has a positive effect on self-efficacy.

Regarding stereotyping and its perception in the survey, 42.4% of the female participants and 42% of the male participants stated that they had already experienced gender stereotyping in the professional context. Regarding the gender stereotyping experienced in childhood, 77.5% of the female and 76.5% of the male participants confirmed the experience. Thus, the perceived gender stereotyping was equally pronounced among men and women. The negative answers of the participants are also significant, as they indicate that gender stereotyping is often not perceived but lived as a culture. Accordingly, when experiencing gender stereotyping in childhood, around 17.3% of the women and 17.3% of the male participants denied the

statement. Nevertheless, gender differences are already conveyed through advertising, books, and language, which are lived by society and inevitably shape behaviour and the development of the perception of one's gender and the associated abilities. The answers in the negative clearly show that the division of roles between the female and male sexes is strongly anchored in the structures of society and is partly taken for granted. Because women have a lower self-efficacy than men, a possible connection between experienced gender stereotyping in childhood and the self-efficacy of women was investigated. However, this connection could not be confirmed, so that it can probably be assumed that experienced gender stereotyping does not influence self-efficacy.

In the further course, the questionnaire was used to examine the extent to which gender stereotyping influences decision-making behaviour concerning work. Here, for example, the application for a job, industry, choice of job, or also application for a management position was given as examples that can be associated with decision-making in the job. 54.18% of the female participants and 27.47% of the male participants affirmed that gender stereotyping has an influence on decision-making behaviour at work. This is just over half of the female participants and far below the average for the male participants. Thus, it can be concluded that gender stereotyping has an influence on decision-making behaviour among women, but less so among men. However, this finding should again take into account that participants may not be aware of gender stereotyping and thus may not consider it relevant to the decision-making process.

Furthermore, the aspiration to hold a leadership position was examined with regard to the self-efficacy. Accordingly, a strong significance can be found between the two factors, so that an increased self-efficacy leads to an increase in the aspiration to hold a leadership position in one's career. The comparison of self-efficacy and application for a possible job is no different, even if the skill level is not yet 100 percent sufficient. This confirms the results of other studies in which a positive relationship between self-efficacy was empirically linked to variations in the workplace, including motivation to lead (Lester et al. 2010). Given that women have a lower average self-efficacy level than men, it can be confirmed that fewer women apply for leadership positions and men have a greater interest in holding a leadership position. This supports studies showing that women tend to limit their career aspirations more than men (Wilson et al. 2007 quoted according to Bandura 1992). As factors influencing gender stereotyping, which have been shown to influence the decision to apply for a leadership position, as well as a connection between self-efficacy and applying for a leadership position, 88.6% of the participants indicated

the media sector as the main influencing factor, and the family and social environment as the second largest with 84.6% and school, vocational school or university with 45%. This confirms the already formulated assumption that every person has already experienced gender stereotyping in some way in their life, only this is no longer perceived as such by some members of society, as the result of the survey regarding experienced gender stereotyping already showed. Advertising, for example, reflects which values a society represents so that the genders are represented differently depending on the society (Eisend 2009). However, the family environment is also influenced by these external factors, so that these values also play a role in children's education. The cultural environment is dependent on the values of the society that are lived so that in the context of this study, the focus was exclusively on Austrian culture. Austrian culture is particularly characterized by the traditional image of the family, in which men are considered the financial providers of the family and women take care of the household and the children (OECD 2015). Accordingly, some occupations are classified as women's or men's occupations according to traditional job profiles. The traditional occupations are classified according to skills and characteristics attributed to the other gender (Ceci et al. 2014). In the survey, the proportion of women and men in the occupational area of "public administration" is relatively balanced, whereas clear differences are already emerging in the sectors of "healthcare" and "education". In the "healthcare" sector, about 13.1% are women, but only 6.1% are men, which is about half the proportion of women. The situation is no different in the other sector, where 14.1% of the participants are women but only 6.1% are men. In the traditionally male occupation of "EDV and IT", which is defined by society, only 3.9% of women work, but 12.2% of men. Accordingly, the traditional occupational image of women and men can most likely be clarified with the help of the survey, since women and men often pursue occupational fields that correspond to their gender in society. About the aspiration to take up a management position in the future, the proportion of female participants was very high, so that 44.39% gave a confirmation and 35.8% only a complete denial. However, if one compares this number with the male participants, the result is that 59.6% of the male participants definitely aspire to a management position and only 29.2% completely reject the idea. In summary, men are more willing and motivated to aspire to a leadership position than women. A 2020 Statista study on women in leadership positions in Austria confirms that the number of female leaders is extremely low compared to the rest of the world, with only 22.6% of the supervisory board and 8% of executive management held by female leaders in the 200

largest Austrian companies. The survey conducted for this thesis shows that the general interest in a management position among the female participants is almost more than 10% lower than that of the male participants, as well as regarding the fact that there is a strong significance between self-efficacy and leadership applications, which could in turn be a possible explanation for the low number of female managers in Austria in general.

8 Limitations

The research has some limitations that need to be taken into account. Firstly, the sample size was calculated with the help of a formula, but there are currently 4,296,900 employed persons in Austria so that the calculated sample size of a minimum of 272 participants and the actual sample size of 289 male and female participants correspond to the calculation. However, the precision of the response distribution increases the higher the sample size. Thus, another limitation occurs in that over half of the participants are women, so there is a gender imbalance. This may have influenced the hypothesis testing in terms of measuring significance, resulting in a negative relationship between gender identity and self-efficacy, which again contradicts studies in the literature. The questionnaire was also partly answered with a likert scale and with a nominal scale so that the hypothesis testing was made more difficult, and a uniform response model would have been useful. Furthermore, it cannot be guaranteed utilizing the answers that only the Austrian culture influences the answers of the participants, as not all of them grew up in Austria. Finally, the areas of self-efficacy and gender stereotyping were only slightly addressed by the questionnaire, so that a more specific and individual questionnaire for each topic unit is necessary to achieve even better results.

9 Conclusion

The research work aimed to examine a possible connection between self-efficacy and the aspiration to a management position. In this context, the shortage of female managers in Austria should be mentioned, the possible influence of which is based on the different self-efficacy of men and women and thus their subsequent aspiration to take up a management position.

The results of the survey show that on average women have a lower self-efficacy than men, although no significant relationship between gender and self-efficacy was found. However, this may also be the effect and consequence of the unequal participation of the sexes in this study,

in which twice as many women as men participated. The results of the significance did not reach the necessary value of $p<0.05$ so that a larger sample with an equal gender distribution could provide more significant results. Concerning consciously experienced gender stereotyping in childhood, 77.5% of the women and 76.5% of the men stated that they had experienced it. However, it is worth noting that for both genders, almost 17.3% stated that they had not experienced gender stereotyping. This development in childhood is of great importance, as it is there that self-efficacy about one's gender and abilities are formed. Generally, everyone has experienced some form of gender stereotyping in their lives, as it is present in the media, language, books, parents, and most importantly, in the structures that are lived out in society. The participants who state that no stereotyped experience took place in childhood could therefore take the role distribution and gender differences that are lived within society for granted. Austria has a strongly family-oriented social structure that lives according to the traditional role model. Here the man sees himself as the financial supporter of the family while the woman is responsible for domestic tasks at the latest after the birth of the first or second child. It should also be noted that especially in rural areas of Austria it is difficult to find childcare, making it difficult for working parents to return to work after the birth of a child. It is therefore reasonable to assume that there is a link between Austrian culture and the unequal gender distribution in leadership positions, as leadership positions are particularly time-intensive and require responsibility. Another clear assumption of gender-stereotyped structures in Austrian society is the distribution of occupational fields between men and women. Here, clear occupational fields could be classified that are strongly assigned to the gender occupations "traditional" by society. Most women work in the fields of "healthcare" and "education", whereas men work mainly in the sector of "EDV and IT" and are less represented in the more traditionally female professions. Since in Austria the role models are increasingly lived in society, most people associate certain character traits with them, depending on their gender. Thus, women are portrayed as warm-hearted and empathetic but less ambitious, whereas men are motivated and determined. The study found that 54.18% of women and 27.47% of men have made or are making career decisions based on gender-stereotyped assumptions. For this reason, experienced gender stereotyping can have a negative impact on both women and men, for example, when they have to make career-related decisions about applying for jobs, management positions, or other relevant career decisions. Given that almost twice as many women as men reported that gender stereotyping affected their decision-

making, this suggests that significantly more women are affected by the negative influence of society's gender stereotyping than men.

According to this, gender stereotyping can be related to the decision-making behaviour of individuals, but the hypothesis tests showed that there is no connection between gender stereotyping in childhood, the most important developmental phase of a person, and self-efficacy. The result thus contradicts previous studies which show that there is a correlation, and that gender stereotyping significantly shapes self-efficacy and general self-confidence levels, depending on the strength of gender stereotyping. This can be explained by the fact that gender stereotyping attributes certain abilities to the genders so that depending on the type of challenge, people see themselves as more able to cope with this task and others less. Thus, self-efficacy in terms of gender stereotyping is dependent on the type of challenge, which was not explored in detail in this paper and thus the result may not represent the correct correlation. However, there is a very strong positive significant correlation between the self-efficacy and the decision-making behaviour, whether a leadership position is aspired to, and whether the persons themselves would apply for a leadership position, should the requirements not be met 100%. The higher the self-efficacy level, the higher the probability that an individual will apply for a management position. The research question of the thesis is as follows:

"How does self-efficacy differ between men and women concerning decision-making behaviour when applying for management positions in Austria?"

On average, the self-efficacy of men is higher than that of women and there is a positive significant correlation between the average answer regarding the self-efficacy and the decision to apply for a management position. According to this, men and women differ to a large extent in that men have a more positive self-efficacy and are therefore more likely to aspire to a management position than women, who on average have a lower self-efficacy and are therefore less likely than men to make the decision regarding a management position.

Thus, it can be concluded that self-efficacy can provide a possible answer to the unequal distribution of genders in leadership positions. The development of self-efficacy depends on the individuals' perceptions of society and thus on the external influences that affect them during the development phase, especially at a young age. Although no direct connection between gender stereotyping and self-efficacy could be established using the research object, it nevertheless became clear that concerning the choice of occupation, the sexes increasingly

pursue occupations traditionally assigned to gender as well as that women showed a lower self-efficacy than men. Likewise, the term "traditional occupations" already proves within a society that a certain form of gender stereotyping prevails. For this reason, it would be interesting for further research to look at a larger sample with an evenly distributed number of men and women and intensify at the topic of gender stereotyping and society. A possible way to explore society and its lived norms and traits more deeply and to what extent gender stereotyping is lived is to examine different countries with each other in terms of different factors such as gender differences in salaries as well as family services.

Additionally, it can also be said that self-efficacy is often dependent on the type of challenge and task for individuals, as some obstacles are already preloaded by stereotypical events and therefore possible differences or connections regarding self-efficacy and gender stereotyping can be recognized. This study only investigated the possible factor of self-efficacy in terms of decision-making behaviour related to the possible application for a managerial position. Besides self-efficacy, there might be other factors influencing the decision-making behaviour about management positions that have not been recognized in this paper. Therefore, a comparison of self-efficacy in combination with other possible factors might give some deeper insights into the barriers that possibly affect the uneven gender distribution in leadership positions in Austria.

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Appendixes

Appendix 1 - Abstract

Abstract – English Version

In many professional fields in European countries there are still strong differences in terms of gender distribution. Especially the leadership level in most companies is still dominated by the male gender. In a Europe-wide comparison of countries, Austria is far behind in terms of gender distribution. EU-wide measures have already been implemented to promote the quota of women in management-relevant positions, but with little success. However, the reason for a lower representation of women in leadership positions could also be of a different origin. According to studies, the application rate for women is far below the rate for men. For this reason, the aim of this study is to examine whether the topic of so-called "self-efficacy " could play a decisive role with regard to the interest in applying for a management position and to what extent men and women differ in their self-efficacy. It was hypothesised that there is a strong link between a positive or negative self-perception and the likelihood of wanting to apply for a leadership position. Furthermore, it is assumed that the development of self-perception is dependent on gender and that experienced gender stereotyping influences the development of self-efficacy. For the investigation, a quantitative survey was conducted by means of a questionnaire, which was filled out by persons living in Austria who are employed. The results show that women on average have a lower self-perception than men and that there is a strong correlation between self-perception and the tendency to apply for a leadership position. Since no significance could be found with regard to experienced gender stereotyping and self-perception, it is recommended for further studies to deal more intensively with the topic of gender stereotyping because it has been proven that it shapes the development of a person's self and therefore a connection to self-perception is very likely.

Abstract – German Version

In vielen beruflichen Bereichen in europäischen Ländern sind noch immer starke Unterschiede hinsichtlich der Geschlechterverteilung zu verzeichnen. Vor allem die Führungsebene in den meisten Unternehmen wird noch vom männlichen Geschlecht dominiert. Im europaweiten Ländervergleich liegt Österreich hinsichtlich der Geschlechterverteilung weit hinten. Es wurden zwar bereits EU-weite Maßnahmen umgesetzt, um die Frauenquote zu fördern in führungsrelevanten Positionen, jedoch mit wenig Erfolg. Der Grund für eine geringere Vertretung von Frauen in Führungspositionen könnte jedoch auch eines anderen Ursprungs sein. Studien zu Folge liegt die Bewerberquote bei Frauen weit unter der Quote der Männer. Aus diesem Grund ist das Ziel der vorliegenden Arbeit, zu untersuchen, ob die Thematik der sogenannten „Selbstwahrnehmung" eine entscheidende Rolle spielen könnte hinsichtlich des Interesses an einem Bewerben für eine Führungsposition und inwieweit sich Männer und Frauen demnach in ihrer Selbstwahrnehmung unterscheiden. Hierbei wurde hypothesiert, dass es eine starke Verbindung zwischen einer positiven oder negativen Selbstwahrnehmung gibt und der Wahrscheinlichkeit sich für eine Führungsposition bewerben zu wollen. Des Weiteren wird davon ausgegangen, dass die Entwicklung der Selbstwahrnehmung abhängig vom Geschlecht ist und das erlebte Geschlechterstereotypisierung die Entwicklung der Selbstwahrnehmung beeinflusst. Zur Untersuchung wurde eine quantitative Erhebung mittels eines Fragebogens durchgeführt, welcher von in Österreich wohnenden Personen, die in einem Angestelltenverhältnis stehen, ausgefüllt wurde. Die Ergebnisse bezeugen, dass Frauen im Durchschnitt eine geringere Selbstwahrnehmung aufwiesen als die Männer und es einen starken Zusammenhang zwischen der Selbstwahrnehmung und der Tendenz hinsichtlich der Bewerbung für eine Führungsposition gibt. Da keine Signifikanz hinsichtlich erlebter Geschlechterstereotypisierung und der Selbstwahrnehmung festgestellt werden konnte, wird für weitere Studien empfohlen sich verstärkt mit der Thematik der Geschlechterstereotypisierung zu beschäftigen auf Grund dessen, dass diese die Entwicklung des Selbst eines Menschen nachweislich prägen und demnach Verbindung zur Selbstwahrnehmung sehr wahrscheinlich ist.

Appendix 2: Open Input regarding Gender Stereotyping

Gender Stereotyping – Open Input from Survey

English-Translated	German - Original
Coordinating one's own professional interests with those of the partner; compromise in decision-making, childcare obligations	Abstimmung der eigenen beruflichen Interessen mit denen des Partners; Kompromiss bei Entscheidung; Kinderbetreuungspflichten
Old-established traditions	Alteingesessene Traditionen
Archetypes	Archetypen
Known cases of workplace bullying in non-gender-typical career choices	Bekannte Fälle von Mobbing am Arbeitsplatz bei nicht geschlechtertypischer Berufswahl
Career choice	Berufswahl
Workplaces	Die Arbeitsplätze
Financial situation and thus the opportunity to personally experience other countries at a young age	Finanzielle Situation und somit die Möglichkeit, schon in jungen Jahren andere Länder persönlich zu erleben
Company policy decisions	Firmenpolitische Entscheidungen
Friends	Freunde
Some professions need a male quota e.g. veterinarians	In einigen Berufen bräuchte es eine Männerquote z.B. Tierärzte
Capitalism	Kapitalismus
Kindergarten	Kita
Corporate culture of the organisation/company	Unternehmenskultur der Organisation/Unternehmen
Lack of thematisation	Mangelnde Thematisierung

Male-dominated and long-established professions (federal army, police, judiciary, civil service, health care)	Männerdominierte und alteingesessene Berufe (Bund-Heer, Polizei, Justiz, Beamtentum, Gesundheitswesen)
Politics	Politik
Politics and legislation	Politik und Gesetzgebung
As long as there is a pay gap between men and women, there will be gender stereotyping (Iceland best example)	Solange e eine Gehaltskluft zwischen Männer und Frauen gibt, wird es Geschlechterstereotypisierung geben (Island bestes Beispiel)
Socialisation	Sozialisation
Our whole system is based on this – patriarchy	Unser ganzes System basiert darauf - Patriachat
Many women, and I may say this, I am one myself, behave one-to-one as the stereotypes dictate, often there doesn't even have to be a certain environment for this, as many women do indeed display such behaviour and then wonder why they are stereotyped. The same applies to men, in my opinion. Except that the stereotype often has rather positive effects for men in relation to work.	Viele Frauen und ich darf das sagen, ich bin selbst eine, verhalten sich eins zu eins wie die Stereotypen es vorsehen, dafür muss oftmals nicht mal ein bestimmtes Umfeld vorliegen, da viele Frauen tatsächlich ein solches Verhalten an den Tag legen und sich anschließend wundern, warum sie in eine Stereotype eingeordnet werden. Selbiges gilt meiner Meinung nach auch für Männer. Nur, dass der Stereotyp für Männer in Bezug auf Arbeit oft eher positive Auswirkungen hat.
Lots of men in the team.	Viele Männer im Team.
Science (medicine, psychology)	Wissenschaft (Medizin, Psychologie)

Appendix 3: Survey Template

Questionnaire English Version

Survey on professional development and career

Dear Participant,

My name is Lisa Schrock, a prospective Master's graduate in International Business at the University of Vienna. Professional development and career is a relevant topic for every professional once he or she has entered into professional life.

However, the ideas of personal development within the job differ from each other, which can be influenced by various factors, attitudes and experiences. In the context of my Master's thesis, I would like to ask you questions in the following questionnaire regarding the topic of professional development and personal career.

This survey will take about 6 - 7 minutes to complete. For the success of the study, it is important that you complete the

Complete the questionnaire in full and do not omit any of the questions. All data is collected anonymously, they cannot be assigned to your person and will be treated strictly confidentially.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Lisa Schrock

T002

I hereby confirm my voluntary participation in this study.

Yes

No

A001

The following statements concern attitudes or feelings you may have about yourself and your performance in a range of tasks. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements, by placing a cross (X) in the box at one end of the scale if you completely agree or completely disagree. Put a cross (X) in the box at the second end of the scale if you tend to agree or tend to disagree, and put a cross (X) in the box at the third end of the scale if you only slightly agree or slightly disagree. Put your cross (X) in the middle of the scale if you neither agree nor disagree.

Very important: Work quickly and give your first impression.

A004

Questions to be scaled

- I will be able to achieve most of the goals I have set myself.
- When I am confronted with difficult tasks, I am sure that I will be able to cope with them.
- In general, I think that I can achieve the results, that are important to me.
- I believe that in almost all I can succeed in any endeavour I set my mind to.
- I can be successful.
- I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges successfully.
- I have a lot of self-confidence.
- Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

Scale

disagree at all | rather not agree | neither agree nor disagree | rather agree | fully agree | cannot judge

T206

This is about your professional goals. To what extent do you agree with the following statement?

Please answer on a scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

I aspire to a leadership position in the profession.

disagree at all | rather not agree | neither agree nor disagree | rather agree | fully agree | can not judge

T311

Now think about your current supervisor. If you could choose your superior, would you rather be led by a woman or a man?

Please rate which gender you favour in terms of your personal professional leadership. If both genders are possible, tick the box.

If both genders are possible, please tick "Both".

- Woman
- Man
- Both
- cannot judge

T209

Imagine that a managerial position becomes vacant in your company. The skills listed in the description do not match your profile 100%, but only 70%. Would you still apply for this position?

Please answer on a scale from "very unlikely" to "very likely".

How likely is it that you would apply for a newly vacant position as a manager?

very unlikely | rather unlikely | neutral | rather likely | very likely | cannot judge

T 309

This part of the questionnaire is about intuitively assigning certain characteristics to women and men. Please for each characteristic mentioned, put a cross either under "Women", "Men" or "Both".

Very important: Work quickly and give your first impression.

Which emotional needs do you think are more important for men or women?

Tick "Both" if you think that the emotional needs are equally important for both sexes. genders.

- Caring
- Trust
- Understanding
- Acceptance
- Respect
- Appreciation
- Admiration
- Validation
- Appreciation
- Encouragement
- Affirmation

Women | Men | Both

In your experience, which characteristics do men and women express more often when they work in a leadership position?

Tick "Both" if you think that both women and men express these qualities equally.

- Perceptive
- Self-confident
- Persistent
- Determined
- Trustworthy
- Friendly
- Open-minded

- Conscientious
- Diligent
- Sensitive
- Empathic

Women | Men | Both

T307

The following part of the questionnaire is about gender stereotyping. Examples of gender stereotyping are: Men are good at maths and finance, men should like sports, men are the providers of the family; women should want to look good, women should want to have a family, women are good at household, etc.

T310

Gender stereotyping in the workplace makes it more difficult for a woman than for a man to develop professionally.

Please rate the following statement and choose between "yes" (it is more difficult) and "no" (it is not

more difficult).

yes | no | cannot judge

T302

Do you feel that you have recently experienced gender stereotyping in your current job/company?

in your current job/company?

Please rate whether you have already been confronted with gender stereotyping in your professional career in your current job.

yes | no | cannot judge

T303

Did you experience gender stereotyping in your childhood ?

Please rate whether you were confronted with gender stereotyping in your childhood.

yes | no | cannot judge

T305

Consider your professional career, start by looking for the first job or future or professional goals. Do you feel that gender stereotyping your decisions in In relation to your work?

Please rate whether job-related decisions such as job choice, job industry, application for a Management position, etc., in your professional career at the time was influenced already due to gender-stereotyping.

yes | no | cannot judge

T306

In your opinion, which environment influences gender stereotyping?

Please select one or more possible environments which, in your opinion or from personal experience, have an increased influence on gender stereotyping. To add another environment that you think influences stereotyping, please tick "Other" and then enter your answer in the text box.

- *Representation in the media (e.g. television, news, film, social media, etc.)*
- *Society and culture*
- *Religion*
- *Family and social environment*
- *School, vocational school, or perhaps university*
- *None of the above*
- *Others*

Thank you for answering all the questions up to here! You are almost there. Please answer the following questions.

T505

In which department of the company do you work?

Please select one of the departments from the list in which you currently work. If your department is not listed, please select "Other" and add your department in the text field.

- Production
- Research and Development (R&D)
- Purchasing
- Marketing
- Sales
- Human Resource Management
- Accounting and Finance
- Customer Service
- IT

T504

In which sector do you work?

Please select an industry in which you are currently employed. If your industry is not listed, please select "Other" and enter your industry in the text field.

- Business, consultancy or management
- Accountancy, banking or finance
- Charity and voluntary work
- Creative arts or design
- Energy and utilities
- Engineering or manufacturing
- Environment or agriculture
- Healthcare
- Hospitality or events
- Computing or IT
- Law
- Law enforcement and security
- Leisure, sport or tourism

- Marketing, advertising or PR
- Media or digital
- Property or construction
- Public services or administration
- Recruitment or HR
- Retail
- Sales
- Science or pharmaceuticals
- Social care
- Teacher training or education
- Transport or logistics

T503

Please indicate your highest level of education.

Please select the highest educational qualification you have achieved so far.

- no compulsory school leaving certificate
- Compulsory school leaving certificate
- Apprenticeship diploma
- Vocational secondary school without Matura
- Higher education entrance qualification (Matura completed)
- University degree Bachelor
- University degree Master,Magister, Diplom Engineer
- University degree: doctorate, PHD
- Other
- Other degree, namely:T401

T401

Where did you mainly live between the ages of 6 and 18?

Please select in which Austrian province you spent your childhood. If you did not spend your childhood in Austria, please choose one of the two "Outside the EU" fields, depending on whether your country of origin is an EU country or a non-EU country.

- Burgenland
- Carinthia
- Lower Austria
- Upper Austria
- Salzburg
- Styria
- Tyrol
- Vorarlberg
- Vienna
- Outside Austria
    - EU
    - Non-EU

T402

Which of the following statements best describes the area where you mainly lived between the ages of 6 and 18?

Please select whether you spent your childhood in a city (>10,000 inhabitants) or in a rural region (<10,000 inhabitants).

- City
- Rural area
- No indication

T403

Which of the following statements best describes the area in which you currently live?

Please select whether you currently live in a city (>10,000 inhabitants) or in a rural area (<10,000 inhabitants).

- City
- rural area
- no indication

T404

Do you have siblings?

Please indicate if you have any siblings. If you have both a sister/brothers and a brother/brothers, please tick "both".

- Sister/s
- Brother/Brothers
- Both
- none
- not indication

Did you attend a "mixed school" during your childhood?

Please indicate whether you attended a mixed school throughout your school career, or whether you attended a girls' or boys' school at any time. A "mixed school" in this context means a school attended by both boys and girls.

- Yes
- No
- no indication

E102

Which gender do you feel you belong to?

Please select a gender to which you feel you belong.

- female
- male
- diverse

E101

How old are you?

Please select the age group to which you belong. If you do not wish to reveal your age, please select "no information".

- under 18
- 18-29
- 30-40
- 41-50
- 50+

T506

Thank you very much!

Dear Participant,

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. With the help of this study, the topic of self-efficacy was tested in combination with various factors that could influence it. Self-perception has an important role with regard to decision-making behaviour on a possible application for a leadership position. One major factor tested in this study is the gender stereotyping, which, according to previous studies, limits the self-perception of one's own abilities, especially for women. Thus, it can be assumed that there is a connection between the gender stereotyping, self-perception and ultimately decision-making behaviour.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Your answers have been saved and you can now close the browser window.

If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact me at the following email address:

a11925308@unet.univie.ac.at

Questionnaire – Original

T001

Umfrage zum Thema berufliche Entwicklung und Karriere

Liebe:r Teilnehmer:in,

Mein Name ist Lisa Schrock, angehende Masterabsolventin des Studienganges International Business an der Universität Wien.
Die beruflichen Entwicklung und Karriere ist für jede:n Berufstätige:n ein relevantes Thema, sobald der Einstieg in das Berufsleben gelungen ist. Allerdings unterscheiden sich die Vorstellungen der persönlichen Entwicklung innerhalb des Jobs voneinander, welche durch verschiedenste Faktoren, Einstellungen und Erfahrungen beeinflusst werden können.

Im Rahmen meiner Masterarbeit möchte ich Ihnen im folgenden Fragebogen gerne Fragen hinsichtlich der Thematik der beruflichen Entwicklung sowie persönlicher Karriere erfahren.
Die Bearbeitungsdauer dieser Umfrage beträgt etwa 6 – 7 Minuten. Für den Erfolg der Studie ist es wichtig, dass Sie den Fragebogen vollständig ausfüllen und keine der Fragen auslassen. Alle Daten werden anonym erhoben, Sie können Ihrer Person nicht zugeordnet werden und werden streng vertraulich behandelt.

Ich bedanke mich herzlichst für Ihre Teilnahme!

Lisa Schrock

T002

Hiermit bestätige ich die freiwillige Teilnahme an dieser Studie.

- ○ Ja
- ○ Nein

A001

Die folgenden Aussagen betreffen Einstellungen oder Gefühle, die Sie über sich selbst und Ihre Leistung bei einer Reihe von Aufgaben haben könnten. Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie jeder dieser Aussagen zustimmen oder nicht zustimmen, indem Sie ein Kreuz (X) in das Feld am einen Ende der Skala machen, wenn Sie völlig zustimmen oder völlig nicht zustimmen. Setzen Sie ein Kreuz (X) in das Feld am zweiten Ende der Skala, wenn Sie eher zustimmen oder eher nicht zustimmen, und setzen Sie ein Kreuz (X) in das Feld am dritten Ende der Skala, wenn Sie nur leicht zustimmen oder leicht nicht zustimmen. Setzen Sie Ihr Kreuz (X) in die Mitte der Skala, wenn Sie weder zustimmen noch nicht zustimmen. Ganz wichtig: Arbeiten Sie schnell und geben Sie Ihren ersten Eindruck wieder.

A004

	stimme gar nicht zu	stimme eher nicht zu	unent-schieden	stimme eher zu	stimme voll zu	kann ich nicht beurteilen
Ich werde die meisten der Ziele, die ich mir gesetzt habe, erreichen können.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Wenn ich vor schwierigen Aufgaben stehe, bin ich sicher, dass ich sie bewältigen werde.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Im Allgemeinen denke ich, dass ich die Ergebnisse, die mir wichtig sind, erreichen kann.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ich glaube, dass ich bei fast allen Unternehmungen, die ich mir vornehme, erfolgreich sein kann.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ich werde in der Lage sein, viele Herausforderungen erfolgreich zu meistern.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Ich habe eine Menge Selbstvertrauen.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Im Vergleich zu anderen Menschen kann ich die meisten Aufgaben sehr gut erledigen.	○	○	○	○	○	○

T206

Hier geht es weiter um Ihre beruflichen Ziele. Inwiefern stimmen Sie der folgenden Aussage zu?

Bitte antworten Sie auf einer Skala von „stimme überhaupt nicht zu“ bis „stimme voll zu“.

	stimme überhaupt nicht zu	stimme nicht zu	neutral	stimme eher zu	stimme voll zu	kann ich nicht beurteilen
Ich strebe eine Führungsposition im Beruf an.	○	○	○	○	○	○

T311

Denken Sie nun an Ihre:n derzeitige:n Vorgesetzten. Wenn Sie sich Ihre:n Vorgesetzte:n aussuchen könnten, würden Sie lieber von einer Frau oder einem Mann geführt werden?

Bitte bewerten Sie, welches Geschlecht hinsichtlich ihrer persönlichen beruflichen Führung favorisieren.Sollten beide Geschlechter in Frage kommen, kreuzen Sie bitte „Beide“ an.

- ○ Frau
- ○ Mann
- ○ Beide

- ○ kann ich nicht beurteilen

T209

Stellen Sie sich vor, dass in Ihrem Unternehmen eine Position als Führungskraft frei wird. Die in der Beschreibung aufgeführten Fähigkeiten stimmen jedoch nicht zu 100%, sondern nur zu 70% mit Ihrem Profil überein. Würden Sie sich trotzdem auf diese Position bewerben?

Bitte antworten Sie auf einer Skala von „sehr unwahrscheinlich“ bis „sehr wahrscheinlich“.

Wie wahrscheinlich ist es, dass Sie sich auf eine neu freigewordene Position als Führungskraft bewerben?

sehr unwahrscheinlich	eher unwahrscheinlich	neutral	eher wahrscheinlich	sehr wahrscheinlich	kann ich nicht beurteilen
○	○	○	○	○	○

T312

In diesem Teil des Fragebogens geht es darum, bestimmte Eigenschaften intuitiv Frauen und Männern zuzuordnen. Bitte hinterlegen Sie bei jeder erwähnten Eigenschaft ein Kreuz entweder bei "Frauen","Männer" oder "Beide".
Ganz wichtig: Arbeiten Sie schnell und geben Sie Ihren ersten Eindruck wieder.

T309

Welche emotionalen Bedürfnisse sind Ihrer Meinung nach für Männer oder Frauen wichtiger?

Kreuzen Sie „Beide" an, wenn Sie der Meinung sind dass die emotionalen Bedürfnisse gleichermaßen wichtig sind für die Geschlechter.

	Frauen	Männer	Beide
Fürsorge	☐	☐	☐
Vertrauen	☐	☐	☐
Verständnis	☐	☐	☐
Akzeptanz	☐	☐	☐
Respekt	☐	☐	☐
Wertschätzung	☐	☐	☐
Bewunderung	☐	☐	☐
Validierung	☐	☐	☐
Würdigung	☐	☐	☐
Ermutigung	☐	☐	☐
Bestätigung	☐	☐	☐

T308

Welche Eigenschaften bringen Ihrer Erfahrung nach Männer und Frauen häufiger zum Ausdruck, wenn sie in einer Führungsposition arbeiten??

Kreuzen Sie „Beide" an, wenn Sie der Meinung sind, dass sowohl Frauen als auch Männer diese Eigenschaften gleichermaßen zum Ausdruck bringen.

	Frauen	Männer	Beide
Wahrnehmungsfähig	☐	☐	☐
Selbstbewusst	☐	☐	☐
Hartnäckig	☐	☐	☐
Zielstrebig	☐	☐	☐
Vertrauenswürdig	☐	☐	☐
Freundlich	☐	☐	☐
Aufgeschlossen	☐	☐	☐
Gewissenhaft	☐	☐	☐
Fleißig	☐	☐	☐
Einfühlsam	☐	☐	☐
Empathisch	☐	☐	☐

T307

Im folgenden Teil des Fragebogens geht es um Geschlechterstereotypisierung. Beispiele für geschlechterspezifische Stereotypisierung sind: Männer sind gut in Mathe und Finanzthemen, Männer sollten Sport mögen, Männer sind die Versorger der Familie; Frauen sollten gut aussehen wollen, Frauen sollten eine Familie haben wollen, Frauen sind gut im Haushalt usw.

T310

Geschlechterspezifische Stereotypisierung am Arbeitsplatz machen es für eine Frau schwieriger als für einen Mann, sich beruflich weiterzuentwickeln.

Bitte bewerten Sie die folgende Aussage und wählen Sie zwischen „Ja" (es ist schwieriger) und „nein" (es ist nicht schwieriger aus).

- ○ Ja
- ○ Nein

- ○ kann ich nicht beurteilen

T302

Haben Sie das Gefühl, dass Sie in letzter Zeit in Ihrem jetzigen Job/Unternehmen Geschlechterstereotypisierung erlebt haben?

Bitte bewerten Sie, ob Sie in Ihrer beruflichen Laufbahn in Ihrem derzeitigen Job bereits mit Geschlechterstereotypisierung konfrontiert wurden.

- ○ ja
- ○ nein

- ○ kann ich nicht beurteilen

T303

Haben Sie in Ihrer Kindheit geschlechtsspezifische Stereotypisierung erlebt ?

Bitte bewerten Sie, ob Sie in Ihrer Kindheit mit geschlechterspezifischer Stereotypisierung konfrontiert wurden.

- ○ ja
- ○ nein

- ○ kann ich nicht beurteilen

T305

Betrachten Sie Ihre berufiche Karriere, angefangen von der Suche nach dem ersten Job oder zukünftige berufliche Ziele. Haben Sie das Gefühl, dass geschlechtsspezifische Stereotypisierung Ihre Entscheidungen in Bezug auf Ihre Arbeit beeinflusst?

Bitte bewerten Sie, ob berufsbezogene Entscheidungen wie zum Beispiel Jobwahl, Job Branche, Bewerbung für eine Führungsposition usw., in Ihrer beruflichen Karriere zum einem Zeitpunkt bereits auf Grund geschlechtsspezifischer Stereotypisierung beeinflusst wurde.

- ○ ja
- ○ nein
- ○ kann ich nicht beurteilen

T306

Welches Umfeld beeinflusst Ihrer Meinung nach die Geschlechterstereotypisierung?

Bitte wählen Sie eine oder mehrere mögliche Umfelder aus, die Ihrer Meinung nach oder auch aus persönlicher Erfahrung eine Geschlechterstereotypisierung verstärkt beeinflussen.

Um ein weiteres Umfeld hinzuzufügen, welches Ihrer Meinung nach die Stereotypisierung beeinflusst, kreuzen Sie bitte „Andere“ an und geben Sie dann Ihre Antwort im Textfeld ein.

- ☐ Darstellung in den Medien (z.Bsp. Fernsehen, Nachrichten, Film, Social Media, etc.)
- ☐ Gesellschaft und Kultur
- ☐ Religion
- ☐ Familie und soziales Umfeld
- ☐ Schule, Berufsschule, oder etwa Universität
- ☐ Keine der erwähnten Optionen
- ☐ Andere:

T406

Vielen Dank, dass Sie bis hierher alle Fragen beantwortet haben! Sie haben es gleich geschafft. Bitte beantworten Sie abschließend die folgenden Fragen.

T505

In welcher Abteilung des Unternehmens arbeiten Sie?

Bitte wählen Sie eine der Abteilungen aus der Liste aus, in welcher Sie aktuell tätig sind. Sollte Ihre Abteilung nicht aufgelistet sein, wählen Sie bitte „Andere" und fügen Ihre Abteilung im Textfeld hinzu.

[Bitte auswählen]

T504

In welcher Branche sind Sie beruflich tätig?

Bitte wählen Sie eine Branche, in welcher Sie aktuell berufstätig sind. Sollte Ihre Branche nicht aufgelistet sein, wählen Sie bitte „Andere" und geben Ihre Branche in das Textfeld ein.

[In welcher Branche sind Sie tätig?]

T503

Bitte geben Sie Ihren höchsten Bildungsabschluss an.

Bitte wählen Sie den höchsten Bildungsabschluss, den Sie bisher erreicht haben.

- ○ kein Pflichtschulabschluss
- ○ Pflichtschulabschluss
- ○ Lehrabschluss
- ○ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule ohne Matura
- ○ Hochschulreife (Matura abgeschlossen)
- ○ Universitätsabschluss/Hochschulabschluss Bachelor
- ○ Universitätsabschluss/Hochschulabschluss Master,Magister, Diplom Ingenieur
- ○ Universitätsabschluss: Doktorat, PHD
- ○ Sonstiges
- ○ Anderer Abschluss, und zwar:

T401

Wo haben Sie hauptsächlich im Alter von 6 bis 18 Jahren gelebt?

Bitte wählen Sie aus, in welchem österreichischem Bundesland Sie Ihre Kindheit verbracht haben. Sollten Sie Ihre Kindheit nicht in Österreich verbracht haben, wählen Sie bitte eines der zwei „Außerhalb der EU"- Felder, je nachdem ob es sich bei der Herkunft um ein EU Land handelt oder ein Nicht-EU Land.

[Bitte auswählen]

T402

Welche der folgenden Aussagen beschreibt am besten die Gegend, in welcher Sie hauptsächlich im Alter von 6 bis 18 Jahren gelebt haben?

Bitte wählen Sie aus, ob Sie ihre Kindheit in einer Stadt (>10.000 Einwohner) oder in einer ländlichen Region (< 10.000 Einwohner) verbracht haben.

- ○ Stadt
- ○ Ländliche Gegend

- ○ keine Angabe

T403

Welche der folgenden Aussagen beschreibt die Gegend,in welcher Sie derzeit leben am besten?

Bitte wählen Sie aus, ob Sie momentan in einer Stadt (>10.000 Einwohner) oder in einer ländlichen Region (<10.000 Einwohner) wohnen.

- ○ Stadt
- ○ ländliche Gegend

- ○ keine Angabe

T404

Haben Sie Geschwister?

Bitte geben Sie an, ob Sie Geschwister haben. Sollten Sie sowohl Schwester/n als auch Bruder/Brüder haben, kreuzen Sie bitte „Beide“ an.

- ○ Schwester/n
- ○ Bruder/Brüder
- ○ Beide
- ○ keine

- ○ keine Angabe

T405

Haben Sie in Ihrer Kindheit eine „gemischte Schule“ besucht?

Bitte geben Sie an, ob Sie in Ihrer Schullaufbahn stehts eine gemischte Schule besucht haben oder zu irgendeinem Zeitpunkt auf einer Mädchen- bzw. Jungenschule waren.

Unter „gemischter Schule“ wird in diesem Zusammenhang eine Schule verstanden, welche sowohl Jungs als auch Mädchen besuchen.

- ○ Ja
- ○ Nein

- ○ keine Angabe

Seite 08

E102

Welchem Geschlecht fühlen Sie sich zugehörig?

Bitte wählen Sie ein Geschlecht, welchem Sie sich zugehörig fühlen.

- ○ weiblich
- ○ männlich
- ○ divers

E101

Wie alt sind Sie?

Bitte wählen Sie die Altersgruppe aus, der Sie angehören. Falls Sie Ihr Alter nicht verraten möchten, wählen Sie bitte „keine Angabe".

- ○ unter 18
- ○ 18-29
- ○ 30-40
- ○ 41-50
- ○ 50+

- ○ keine Angabe

Seite 09

T506

Vielen Dank!

Liebe Teilnehmer:in,

vielen Dank, dass Sie sich die Zeit genommen haben diesen Fragebogen auszufüllen.

Mit Hilfe dieser Studie wurde das Thema Selbsteinschätzung in Kombination mit verschiedenen Faktoren getestet, die diese beeinflussen könnten. Die Selbstwahrnehmung hat eine wichtige Rolle hinsichtlich des Entscheidungsverhalten auf eine mögliche Bewerbung für eine Führungsposition. Ein großes Faktor, der in dieser Studie getestet wird, ist die Geschlechterstereotypisierung, die laut vorherigen Studien die Selbstwahrnehmung der eigenen Fähigkeiten vor allem bei Frauen sehr stark begrenzt. Somit kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass es einen Zusammenhang zwischen der Geschlechterstereotypisierung, der Selbstwahrnehmung und schlussendlich dem Entscheidungsverhalten gibt.

Ich bedanke mich herzlichst für Ihre Teilnahme!
Ihre Antworten wurden gespeichert und Sie können das Browser Fenster nun schließen.

Sollten Sie Fragen zu der Umfrage haben, kontaktieren Sie mich gerne unter folgender E-Mail Adresse:

a11925308@unet.univie.ac.at