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A Comparison Study of Gender Role Differences Between Funeral Professionals and Nurses

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2015

Abstract

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by

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BS, University of Wisconsin Oshkosh, 1992

MA, University of Phoenix, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

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Abstract

Women comprise over 57% of all U.S. mortuary school students, yet less than 20% of all funeral directors employed in this country are women. As such, women are underrepresented as funeral directors in the funeral industry. Research to date has not established clear differences between perceived gender roles and occupations in the funeral service industry. The research questions examined the perceived differences of gender role characteristics of masculine, feminine, and androgyny between the occupations of funeral service providers and nursing. Bem's gender role theory was the theoretical framework of this study. The research compared the mean scores of male and female funeral service professionals and nursing professionals as measured by the validated Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). A sample consisted of 214 randomly selected male (n = 88) and female (n = 25) funeral service professionals and male (n = 37) and female (n = 64) nurse professionals. Data scores were analyzed using the factorial multivariate analysis of variance method. Results indicated nonsignificant gender role differences between male and female funeral directors. Funeral directors appear more androgynous compared to nurses. The present study contributed to the development of this important and neglected area of research by quantitatively examining the gender role perceptions of men and women in the funeral service industry for the first time. This study results highlighted the complexity in self-perceived gender role characteristics as measured by BSRI. When the funeral profession begins to dispel gender stereotypes and discrimination issues, positive social change can occur.

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Specialization: Leadership and Organizational Change

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Dedication

This dissertation dedicated to my loving mother:

Concetta F. Penepent

1923-2002

Your gentle guidance has immeasurably influenced

all that I have done, all that I do, and all that I will ever do.

Your sweet spirit has been indelibly imprinted on

all that I have been, all that I am, and all that I will ever be.

Thus, you are part of all that I accomplish and all that I become.

When I help my neighbor,

your helping hand is there as well.

When I comfort the bereaved,

your compassionate love is my tool for healing.

When I ease the pain of friends,

they owe a debt of gratitude to you.

When I show a child a better way,

either by word or by example,

you are the teacher once removed.

Likewise, when I succeed with any educational achievement,

you are the professor emeritus who

embedded in me the importance of knowledge.

Hence, everything I do reflects the values you taught me;

any wrong that I right,

any heart I brighten,

any gift that I share or burden I may lighten,

is in its own small way a tribute to you.

I love you Mom and

Thank you for giving me the Gift of Life.

I share this PhD degree with you, for you earned it too,

Dr. Concetta F. Penepent, PhD

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The focus of this study was on an investigation and comparison of the self-perceived gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors emanating from the funeral industry organization. Title IIV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination against employees based on race, color, religion, sex, and national origin (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2014). In the 5 decades since this Act has been enforced, strides towards parity in the workplace have been gradual yet are improving. Several factors can contribute to improving workplace equality. Aiken, Salmon, and Hanges (2013) attributed improvements in workplace equality to progressive state and federal regulations that require fair employment standards. In addition, court rulings have stimulated a fundamental change in the way American businesses treat their employees. The workplace culture has become more sensitive to discrimination and harassment issues (Aiken et al., 2013).

Despite the inequalities that may exist in some male-dominated organizations in the United States, women are still hopeful they can meet their employment goals with higher education. Women are persevering in their educational preparations and employment quests with the preconceived notion that one day equality in the workplace can be obtainable. Millennials (people who were born between 1982 and 2004) perceive equality in the workplace differently. There appeared to be a difference in the way men and women responded to surveys (Pew Research Center, 2013). The Pew Research Center (2013) reported that 75% of women acknowledge that gender disparities exist in the workplace, especially involving financial compensation, promotions, and overall

advancement as leaders within various professions. However, 39% of millennial men believe that significant changes have been made in this country towards gender equality, compared to only 23% of their female counterparts. Seventy-five percent of millennial women overwhelmingly believe that continued changes need to take place in this country for workplace parity to occur (Pew Research Center, 2013).

The Pew Research Center (2013) also suggested that the perceptions women have about succeeding in top executive positions within business and government arenas have equaled out over the last 3 decades. For example, 67% of those surveyed in 1983 thought that men had an easier time obtaining a job than did women while 23% believed that there was no difference. According to this study, in 2013, the gap in perception (regarding women's equal opportunity) has narrowed considerably. Only 46% believed that men had an easier time obtaining employment while 43% thought that there was no difference in either men or women seeking employment (Pew Research Center, 2013). Fifty-seven percent of millennial men feel that continued changes need to be made in the workplace, while 39% believe that these changes have been addressed (Pew Research Center, 2013). Based on these statistics, on an average, 57% of the millennial men and women believe that changes still need to be made in the workplace toward gender equality compared to 29% of those surveyed who believe that these changes have already occurred (Pew Research Center, 2013).

The trends above demonstrate the way that men and women perceive gender equality in the workplace in an equal light. However, gender equality is still unbalanced in male dominated professions (Lips, 2013). Scholars have explored how organizations

have transformed issues of inequality and made significant strides towards parity (Cuadrado, Navas, Molero, Ferrer, & Morales, 2012; Germain, Herzog, & Hamilton, 2012; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Despite the plethora of scholarly research on gender inequality in various professions such as medicine, law, and engineering, there is still a significant gap in the research that connects gender role characteristics to specific careers. This gap involves how women hope to advance in a profession only to be confronted by intrinsic factors such as gender stereotyping and gender bias mentalities that may create employment obstacles unforeseen and addressed during their training (Dobele, Rundle-Thiele, & Kopanidis, 2014; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011).

One such intrinsic factor might be gender role characteristics that are unique to men and women in various professions (Adachi, 2013). By exploring gender role characteristics within the context of an individual profession, a researcher has an opportunity to evaluate how certain traits may be contributing factors in the way men and women are employed. The importance of exploring these factors would add a new dimension to professions that appear to have women in overwhelming numbers entering educational programs like accounting, funeral directing, and engineering. Women in male-dominated careers are still struggling to make significant employment inroads (Adachi, 2013). Perhaps by understanding the gender role characteristics that are unique in male and female dominated professions, educators could evaluate, educate, and stimulate social change within occupations that struggle with gender inequality.

One of these professions is funeral directing. As each person inevitably reaches the end of his or her life, the funeral service industry is essential for meeting the needs of bereaving families and for properly caring for the remains of their loved ones. Despite the universality of the funeral industry, its work is widely ignored in the literature (Ludlum & Ludlum, 2010). Central to the topic of this study is the assumption that funeral directing is synonymous with a masculine role identity and is considered to be a male dominated profession (Cathles et al., 2010). Although the scope of the funeral director's responsibilities is gender neutral, the funeral profession has a gender imbalance that is predominately men, yet women still pursue careers in funeral directing. Fifty-seven percent of mortuary science students in the United States are women (American Board of Funeral Service Education, 2014). That percentage has increased at the same rate throughout the United States (American Board of Funeral Service Education, 2014). However, even though a significant number of women are entering mortuary science programs, the ratio of women-to-men within the profession appeared to reflect little growth over the past 10 years, based on personal observation at national convention continuing education classes. The upward stratification of women within the funeral profession appears to be stagnant, and it is possible that the overall problem may rest in a misalignment in gender characteristics unique to the funeral profession.

Social barriers and stereotypes may be inhibiting positive social change for female funeral directors, and the single gender image paradigm may be influencing the long-term attrition of women in the profession. Chinkin and Kaldor (2013) noted that feminine characteristics have an association with caring and nurturing emotions. The

paradigm within this culture that men care for the dead may be an evolutionary development as opposed to a gender role characteristic. A discussion of masculine, feminine, or gender neutral traits unique to funeral providers could potentially influence the way the profession solicits future practitioners. In Chapter 1, I extend the discussion on the background, problem statement, purpose, research questions, hypotheses, and theoretical framework of this study.

Background

Gender role characteristics play an important part in people's behavior. Men and women's performance in business organization settings and academia reflect the gender role characteristics of the individual (Adachi, 2013; Bem, 1974; Cuadrado et al., 2012). Before discussing gender roles, it is important to point out that people tend to use sex and gender interchangeably in male and female discussions. Although lay people and researchers alike often use *sex* and *gender* interchangeably, there are distinct differences. Bem (1974) and Cuadrado et al. (2012) use the term *sex* to reference the biological characteristics of being male or female. Whereas, the terms *gender* and *gender roles* describe three specific roles: masculine, feminine, or androgynous (Bem, 1974; Cuadrado et al., 2012).

Bem (1974) described gender role as a person's perceptions about appropriate personality characteristics or expected behavior for his or her biological sex. The premise is that men and women can possess either masculine or feminine traits. However, genetic predispositions along with socialization may cause a man or woman to become stronger in the trait more associated with his or her biological sex. In general, masculinity

connotes physical strength and aggressiveness. By exploring gender role characteristics within the context of professions, an opportunity exists to evaluate how certain traits may contribute to the way men and women are employed or how professions become overrepresented by one particular sex.

Many researchers have examined how traditional gender roles have changed over time in occupational and career choices, as in the teaching profession (Uygun, 2014). Uygun (2014) claimed that teaching is one of the world's oldest professions, and it requires expertise and certain gender-related characteristics. Uygun argued that the social perception of teaching is that it is a female profession. The basic notion is that teaching is appropriate for a woman's role and socially accepted norms as spouse and mother. For this reason, it is believed that more women tend to become teachers.

In addition to teaching, researchers have examined the gender role of women in other historically male dominated professions such as law, medicine, and engineering (Aiken et al., 2013; Fisher, 2011). Ward (2008) claimed that the number of women in these areas remains dismal. Women constitute only 16% of full law professors; however, they constitute almost 50% of law school students nationwide (Ward, 2008). When women become law professors, they receive less pay and receive tenure at lower rates than had men. Ward claimed that gender inequalities become greater as one goes up the educational hierarchy. For example, only 20% of law school deans are women, yet women constitute 65% of instructors and 61% of lecturers, nontenured-track categories (Ward, 2008).

Fisher (2011) conducted a study to determine the gender characteristics of male nurses to establish whether they identified with the culturally constructed feminine image of nursing. The hypothesis was that male nurses would score lower in self-perceived feminine characteristics compared to female nurses. The sex role characteristics were measured using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). The results of this study supported the notion that male nurses perceive themselves as having feminine characteristics essentially required for nursing. Fisher concluded that if those in the nursing profession wish to attract more men into nursing, then gender stereotypes need to be broken down and dispelled. The symbolism and representation of nursing should be more androgynous and not reinforce a single feminine image. The contention was that the nursing profession should encourage the representation of men displaying both feminine and masculine characteristics (Fisher, 2011).

In all of the professions identified, the common thread is that more women are assuming roles that have traditionally been held by men in various fields. Not only is gender role an issue within various professions and occupations, but gender also plays a vital role in organizations. The general nature of people takes an interactive part in how businesses and organizations market their services to their customers. McKee (2012) argued that women are advancing to corporate-level positions in some fields at a slower pace than are men. For instance, in 2010, only an estimated 2.4% of information technology (IT) executive leaders were reported as women (Gardner, 2014; U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). The same is true in the field of mortuary science. Presently, less than 20% of all funeral directors in this country are women (Cathles et al., 2010).

One of the oldest types of service organizations in the world is funeral services, a $13.4 billion industry that continues to grow in tandem with the population (Sanburn, 2013; Vargas-Hernández, 2013). As each person inevitably reaches the end of his or her life, the funeral directing profession is essential for meeting the needs of bereaving families and caring for the human remains properly. The job of licensed funeral directors is both physical (e.g., removal of the deceased, embalming, and directing final services) and emotional labor (Smith, Dorsey, & Mosley, 2009). The licensed funeral director's most important task is to comfort the bereaved as they make final arrangements for their loved ones, a task that requires the provider to be compassionate, understanding, and empathetic. Directors also encourage the bereaved to entrust the care of their loved ones to the funeral establishment (Smith et al., 2009). Ludlum and Ludlum (2010) described the emotional rewards that funeral directors experience when helping families at a difficult period during their grieving process. Coping with the complexity of the physical loss begins with identifying and acknowledging the pains associated with the relationship separation.

According to Ludlum and Ludlum (2010), the funeral industry is largely ignored by researchers in part because the business remains hidden from most Americans yet accessed when death occurs. The funeral industry is facing an imminent crisis; that is, the attrition rate within the profession will eventually create a shortage of funeral directors. Compounded by a significant increase in deaths in the next 10 to 15 years (Ludlum & Ludlum, 2010), the funeral industry could experience an employment disruption. According to the National Funeral Directors Association (2014), there will be a point

when more funeral directors will be leaving the profession without a significant number of seasoned professionals available to replace them. In 2028, 3.4 million deaths are projected in the United States (Penepent, 2015). The shortage of funeral directors that is anticipated could potentially incapacitate or disrupt the caring for the dead and bereavement (National Funeral Directors Association, 2014).

Trust is the foundation for leadership in an organization (Gonzalez, 2013). The people who are in leadership positions can influence the future direction of the organization. With this social and organizational responsibility, the leader must act in the best interests of the organization by maintaining and nurturing a working environment conducive to the advancement of organizational goals and objectives (Gonzalez, 2013).

Addressing human resource needs in an organization is paramount for its survival. Mohammed, Bhatti, Jariko, and Zehri (2013) noted that training and educational development need to be at a level that ensures the continued development of the employee and the organization. Because the role of the funeral director is constantly changing, it is important to identify what gender qualities are essential for meeting the bereavement and funeral needs of the consumer. Shipp and JoHyun (2014) argued that the subculture of leadership and gender roles influence the sustainability and foundational practices within an organization. Quader (2011) explained that a leader's perspective and ability to address situations rationally is what gains and maintains trust in the workplace. Funeral directing is a profession inherently based on the trust factor.

Despite the gender of the funeral director, consumers place their loved ones in the care of funeral providers that they can trust. Levitt (2010) noted that women are

becoming more predominant in the workplace, and Gonzalez (2013) stated that women possess the same leadership qualities as do men. Senge (2009) and Rivera (2012) suggested that a greater focus needs to be on retaining good employees who possess the qualities and characteristics indicative of an organization. Therefore, this human resource needs to be addressed on a micro and macro level. The pending labor shortage in the funeral profession, coupled with a significant increase in death predicted in the next 15 years, makes this labor issue an immediate concern.

In summary, most research to date has focused on gender role issues in professions other than the funeral industry. Professions like teaching, nursing, engineering, and medicine have identified the gender role characteristics of their employees (Nielsen & Huse, 2010; Thayaparan, Amaratunga, & Haigh, 2014; Vonach, 2015). Subsequently, there exists no research data on the gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors. Moreover, no studies to date were found that examined and correlated the gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors. This study is significant for addressing this research gap as well as how gender role characteristics influence the employment process. Despite the inequalities that still may exist in many organizations in the United States, women are persevering in their education and their careers with the preconceived notion that one day equality in the workplace can be obtainable. By understanding the gender role characteristics that are unique to funeral directing, educators will have an opportunity to evaluate, educate, and stimulate social change within a profession that may lead to gender parity.

Problem Statement

Over the next 15 years, the attrition rate in funeral directing will exceed the number of students graduating from mortuary science programs in the United States annually. During the past 2 decades, large numbers of women have steadily entered the mortuary science programs in the United States (American Board of Funeral Service Education, 2014). Despite the significant number of women entering mortuary science programs, the ratio of women-to-men within the postgraduation labor force reflects little growth in funeral directing positions (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, 2010). Less than 20% of all funeral directors in this country are women (Cathles et al., 2010).

This underrepresentation of women in funeral directing roles presents a challenge to the funeral industry at large for many reasons. First, the United States Census Bureau (2010) predicted that the number of deaths will increase by 35% over the next 20 years. In 2030, there will 3.4 million deaths in the United States that will require more funeral directors to handle the baby-boomer generation as they approach their demise (Cathles et al., 2010). Second, a widespread perception in the funeral industry and among funeral consumers is that women are more empathetic than men, giving them a comparative advantage in front room activities (Cathles et al., 2010). Many widows have reported feeling more comfortable making funeral arrangements with another woman. Inversely, some husbands have requested that only women handle their wives' bodies. For this reason, gender conscious consumers are willing to pay for funeral services headed by female funeral directors (Cathles et al., 2010).

The general organizational problem is that women are not staying in the funeral profession after graduation for unknown reasons. Perhaps this trend is due to a misalignment in gender role characteristics perceived by female mortuary science students. The specific organizational problem is that there are no studies that examine the gender role characteristics unique to funeral directors. By identifying gender role characteristics distinctive to funeral directing, women could know what characteristics are conducive to perceived gender roles prior to entering the profession.

The Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental exploration study was threefold. The first purpose was to investigate and compare self-described gender role differences among male and female funeral directors. The second purpose was to determine the extent to which self-perceived gender role differences exist across different occupations that were either dominated by men or dominated by women. The final purpose was to decide if there is an interaction between sex and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses.

Most current research on gender-dominated occupations has focused on men's ability to construct masculine identities in occupations such as nursing. Society perceives the nursing profession as a female dominated profession (Fisher, 2011). No studies to date simultaneously examined the gender identity negotiation of both men and women in the field of mortuary science. Furthermore, no studies to date look at the interactions between sex and occupation based on gender role characteristics. Studies like Fisher's (2011) are one dimensional and were only carried out to understand only the gender

characteristics of men in female dominated professions. Men in female dominated occupations left women out of the research and thereby failed to examine how women may negotiate both masculinity and femininity in female dominated occupational contexts.

Failing to explore the experiences of women and men simultaneously within the context of occupation limits the understanding of how female funeral directors negotiate and identify gender roles. The BSRI allows both men and women in the funeral industry to rate their perceived gender role characteristics. These perceived outcomes compared with perceived gender role characteristics from people in a female dominated profession can help to identify with masculinity, femininity, and androgynous qualities unique to both professions. By identifying these characteristics, an occupational fingerprint can be established for funeral directors and nurses; that is, what are the gender role characteristics unique to both professions? The key element in this research was to understand how sex and occupation may influence gender role characteristics in employment decisions.

For the purpose of this study, the term *gender* refers to the social-psychological characteristics; that is, masculine, feminine, and androgynous (dependent variable) associated with being a man or a woman (independent variable). *Gender role* characteristics sometimes conform to social expectations and actual behaviors (Thayaparan et al., 2014). Erden-Imamoğlu (2013) explained that gender roles are an important element to demonstrate how to construct and maintain positive interpersonal relationships. Erden-Imamoğlu reported that women's gender roles led to differences in

approval, dependence, trusting others, and emotional awareness. The managerial ranks of corporations in the United States have amplified with female entrants for the past 25 years. Still, few women are represented in professions that have been traditionally overrepresented by men (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Erden-Imamoğlu, 2013).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypothesis statements formed the basis for developing and implementing the research process:

Research Question 1: What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?

$H1_0$: There is no significant difference in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors as measured by the BSRI.

$H1_a$: There will be a significant difference between male and female funeral directors self-perceived gender role characteristics as measured by the BSRI scores.

DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IVs: Gender and occupation (Male and female funeral directors)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

Research Question 2: What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?

$H2_0$: There will be no significant differences in the perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations, dominated by men or dominated by women, as measured by the BSRI.

$H2_a$: There will be a significant difference in the perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations, dominated by men or dominated by women, as measured by the the BSRI. DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IV: Gender and occupation (men and women in funeral directing and women and men in nursing)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

Research Question 3: What interaction is there, if any, between gender and occupation (men and women funeral directors and men and women nurses) and the perceptions of gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)?

$H3_0$: There will be no significant interaction between gender and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the the BSRI.

$H3_a$: There will be a significant interaction between gender and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the the BSRI.

DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IVs: Gender and occupation (Male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

The research questions were designed to examine the gender characteristics of female and male funeral directors to establish whether they identify with the masculine,

feminine, or androgynous image of funeral directing. The assumption was that funeral directing is synonymous with masculine characteristics, a man's sex role.

The second research question was constructed to establish how the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) may differ among male overrepresented occupations, like funeral directing, versus female overrepresented occupations, like nursing. Fisher (2011) used a similar rationale when comparing the self-identified gender characteristics of male nurses to female nurses to men from a stereotypical male occupation (engineering). Fisher hypothesized that because nursing socially identifies with *feminine*, a significant difference should exist between male nurses and men in other occupations dominated by men. However, a weakness was that Fisher failed to take into account how the perceived gender role characteristics might be different in an industry dominated by women. Funeral directing is perceived in society as a male dominated or masculine gendered profession: think-funeral director, think-male. In this study, I examine how gender role characteristics may differ from particular sex dominates occupations.

Finally, the third research question was constructed to identify if interactions are present between self-perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses. This research question was designed to identify if there are any connections between gender and occupation. Both professions are caring professions with similar qualities. In constructing this question, I examined the similarities of the two occupations and questioned if there was an intersection between the perceived gender characteristics of the two professions. Thus, do men and women perceive gender role

characteristics the same way in different occupations that have similar occupational qualities? In a search of the literature, this interaction appears to be missing and needed examination.

Theoretical Framework

The androgyny model proposed by Bem (1974) is being used to inform the research questions of this study and to test the hypotheses. According to this model, gender role traits have two dimensions: *instrumentality* (masculine) and *expressivity* (feminine). Instrumental traits suggest skillfulness, rationality, and assertiveness, whereas expressive traits suggest warmth and nurturance. Researchers of androgyny posited that gender role traits are independent of biological sex (Bem, 1974; Helmreich & Stapp, 1975). People possess various levels of masculine or feminine traits. Genetic predispositions along with social norms may influence a man or a woman to become stronger in a particular trait that may be in alignment with his or her biological sex.

Some individuals may be high in both masculine and feminine traits or low in both. Many individuals do not fit into a specific sex-typed category, or some persons are socialized to develop more characteristics more from one dimension than the other (Bem, 1974). An androgynous individual is one who has some of both feminine and masculine traits (Bem, 1974). Androgynous people have characteristics of both genders' role characteristics. They are thought to be more flexible and effective in various jobs performance tasks (Bem, 1974; Cook, 1985). The androgynous person tends to be both yielding and assertive; to be yielding is a stereotypically feminine trait and assertiveness is a stereotypically masculine trait (Carr & McNulty, 2014; Khan & Sutcliffe

2014).Among the reported benefits of an androgynous person is a high level of self-esteem (Berger & Krahe, 2013; Kim, Euna, & Sung-Hee, 2013).

Nature of the Study

This study was a quantitative nonexperimental exploration comparative survey. Quantitative research is used extensively in both natural and social sciences (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2009, 2014). Unlike qualitative research, this type of research is concerned with numerical measurements and statistics. This study addressed two research questions and four corresponding hypotheses (two null and two alternatives). The primary research questions examined the differences between the self-reported gender role characteristics of male and female funeral service professionals and nursing professionals as measured by the BSRI. A factorial Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the gender role scores.

Approximately 1,230 funeral directors (female and male) and graduates from mortuary science programs comprised the target population. These are licensed funeral directors throughout the Northeast region of the United States who have or are pursuing careers as practitioners. The accessible nursing population was approximately 1,500. The independent variables, gender and occupation, were analyzed using the factorial MANOVA statistical model. In the present study, the short-form (30 items) of the BSRI was used. The short form survey consists of the masculine scale (10 items) and the feminine scale (10 items). The remaining 10 items are gender neutral (high in neither male or female characteristics). The self-administered questionnaire was given to a sample consisting of men and women who completed the survey online using

SurveyMonkey. A detailed discussion of the research design and methodology is in Chapter 3.

Operational Definitions

The American Board of Funeral Service Education (ABFSE): An educational accreditation agency that maintains statistical information regarding mortuary science programs in the United States (Habenstein, Lamer, & Raether, 1995).

Androgyny: Having both feminine and masculine traits in stereotypical terms (Bem, 1974; Mueller & Data-On, 2008).

Attrition Cliff: An employment crisis that exists when an industry ignores employment trends, and the shortage of personnel that is created by this neglect threatens to disrupt normal business practices (Penepent, 2015).

Expressivity: The individual with expressive traits displays behaviors that suggest he or she is a warm and nurturing person.

Feminine: Exhibiting behaviors that suggest warmth and nurturance (Bem, 1974).

Feminization: The number of women who gravitate to traditionally male-dominated occupations (Roos & Reskin, 1992).

Gender: The social-psychological ramifications associated with being a man or a woman (Bem, 1974).

Gender roles: Characteristics that men and women possess that society recognizes as ideally masculine, feminine, and androgynous in nature (Bem, 1974; Choi, Herdman, Fuqua, & Newman, 2011).

Gender role conflict: Poorly integrated gender roles; a psychological state where gender roles have negative consequences or impact on a person or others (Choi et al., 2011).

Gender role identity: The individual's attitude toward gender during development and the individual's belief about the psychological qualities of males and females, sometimes known as gender stereotyping (Berger & Krahe, 2013).

Gender role traits: Characteristics that exist in two orthogonal dimensions, labeled as *instrumentality* (masculine/agentic) and *expressivity* (feminine/communal) (Bem, 1974). For the purpose of this study, the biological sex, male or female, denotes gender, while *gender role* refers to the terms masculinity, femininity, and androgyny as defined by Bem (1974).

Instrumentality: An individual with instrumental traits or masculine traits such as skillfulness, rationality, and assertiveness (Bem, 1974).

Masculine: Exhibiting behaviors that suggest skillfulness, rationality, and assertiveness (Bem, 1974).

Assumptions

A basic assumption was that there are differences in the way men and women perceive being a professional in both the funeral and nursing industries. An additional assumption is that the experience of a female funeral services provider would be different from the experience of a male funeral services provider. The funeral director's responses should reflect these differences. I assumed that the participants' responses would reflect honesty and thoughtfulness. Another reasonable assumption was that the participants had

no involvement with me during the study. Thus, the research outcomes were not influenced. The final assumption was all funeral director participants were graduates from an accredited mortuary science program in the United States considering that all states in the Northeast require educational training prior to licensure. Because most states require the National Board Exam for licensure, an assumption that the educational training for becoming a funeral director is consistent and based on the American Board of Funeral Service Education outlines. Thus, the training and preparation that leads to the National Board Exam, which tests for basic competency, is consistent among mortuary programs. In the data collection process, the survey instrument was administered consistently between participants; to effectively measure the intended construct, a test of validity and reliability was conducted (Creswell, 2014).

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study was within the content area of *gender role* in terms of masculinity, femininity, and androgyny as measured by the BSRI instrument only. The delimited sample of randomly selected participants was categorized as certified funeral directors or graduates from approved mortuary science programs pursuing careers in funeral directing in the Northeast region. Additionally, the sample included registered or licensed practical male and female nurses from the Northeastern region of the United States.

Limitations

The data collection method might have had certain limitations. The self-reported data on which the study relied may have been subject to recall biases inherent in the

questions being asked. One of the limitation of online surveys was to ensure the participants met the survey criteria (Fuller, Pearson, Peters, & Anderson, 2015; Meng-Jung Tsai1, Jyh-Chong, Huei-Tse, & Chin-Chung, 2015). Another limitation of the online survey was that it was difficult to determine whether the participants answered the questions honestly. Additionally, when using a Likert-type scale, participants may have presented different interpretations of the scaled degrees between the responses. Only funeral directors and individuals pursuing careers in the funeral industry were invited to participate in addressing this limitation. The funeral directors were a homogeneous group of participants. Despite their additional duties associated with funeral directing (such as a manager or an owner), the generalizability of the statistics gathered could be matched to a larger population. The results did not establish a cause and effect conclusion. Thus, only two participant groups were used, and neither was a control group.

Another key limitation of this study was the generalizability of the findings. Generalizability refers to how the findings from a study apply to a wider population or in different contexts. Bryman (2012) and Creswell (2014) noted that in quantitative studies, generalizability is mainly statistical in nature, which is an indicator that the study sample is matched to the study population at large to ensure comparability of demographic characteristics. To ensure generalizability, the findings from the present study instrument and sample were introduced to a wider population with similar demographics. A random sampling was used. The homogeneity of the sample of nurses appeared to be a more complex limitation than just being licensed to practice nursing. The methodology section of Chapter 3 outlines the procedures employed in this study.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant in bringing attention to the problem of women in the funeral service industry who are not advancing to leadership positions as funeral directors proportionately to their male colleagues. Research in this area clearly falls within the discipline of organizational management and leadership. The relevance to funeral directing is that there are significant differences in the way men and women perceive their roles as funeral directors. In fact, women's effectiveness as funeral directors has been challenged (Cathles et al., 2010). Contrary to the beliefs of many, funeral directing is a very noble and highly rewarding profession. Developing an understanding of the gender characteristics of funeral directors can determine what gender qualities are unique to the profession.

Greater insight into men and women's perspectives on the gender role characteristics of funeral services providers may help inform current published literature concerning women's careers as funeral directors. Based on the findings, mortuary science faculty should provide information to students about the type of gender role characteristics unique to the profession. Understanding the gender role characteristics in funeral directors might create a climate of acceptance and empowerment for female students to counteract gender bias in the development of their careers as funeral directors. Furthermore, future employment trends could be impacted by developing a comprehensive understanding of the gender role characteristics unique to the funeral profession.

Although more women are entering mortuary science programs nationwide, the feminization of women in the funeral service industry remains stagnant. Furthermore, the feminization of women in mortuary schools appears to have little impact on the upward stratification of women entering and remaining in the funeral profession. In a survey of workers in the funeral industry, Ludlum and Ludlum (2010) reported that desire for women to be a part of the funeral industry has grown to 71% in the last decade. This trend is likely to continue, for women are rapidly becoming the majority (approximately 60%) of students in mortuary science programs (Donley, 2014). Given the latest statistical data, more women are preparing to become funeral directors than are men (National Funeral Directors Association, 2013). The attrition for female mortuary science students may be the leadership skills associated with funeral directors including communication, organizational, and event-planning skills, as well as the expression of compassion and empathy. Still, women are not becoming actual funeral directors at a rate commensurate with their preparation.

Penepent (2015) noted that there is a growing crisis in an organization that ignores employment statistics and projected labor needs in the future. Penepent believed that an *attrition cliff* occurred when an organization ignored employment demographics and a shortage of personnel at the same time that more personnel are necessary to accommodate projected consumer demands. When a profession ignores the pending need for personnel, the lack of qualified professionals threatens to disrupt business operations (Penepent, 2015). Ignoring current employment trends could lead to a disruption in the

funeral industry or at best a compromised of the professional services being provided to the consumer.

Positive social change can occur when more female funeral directors are recruited and employed based on their skills and abilities to serve bereaved families. The changing needs of the funeral industry require diversification as the baby-boom generation increasingly has need for services (Cathles et al., 2010). Female funeral services professionals, as well as other professionals in traditional one gender dominated occupations, should experience equal opportunities to participate in today's workforce based on the person's knowledge and ability rather than his or her gender. As an advocate for gender equality and improving the upward stratification of women in nontraditional fields like funeral directing, I aspired to conduct additional research that supports and validates gender parity.

Summary and Transition

The underrepresentation of women in funeral directing roles presents a major challenge in the funeral industry at large (Cathles et al., 2010). As demonstrated in this chapter, a growing body of research has attempted to account for this inequality aside from the gender gap in the funeral industry (Cathles et al., 2010). Defining common characteristics of professionals in the funeral industry field would be valuable in the pursuit of promoting knowledge through research. As such, I examined the qualities and characteristics that distinguish male and female funeral service providers. While there is an extensive study on the industry itself, factors contributing to the gender gap and comparative analysis of male and female funeral directors in this profession are limited,

therefore demanding further in-depth study. In this quantitative study, I examined draws on gender role theory to determine whether there is a significant relationship between the self-reported gender role characteristics of male and females in funeral services and nursing, as measured by the BSRI.

The focus of Chapter 2 is on a synopsis of the current literature that establishes and supports the relevance of the problem. Peer-reviewed articles on the topic of this study are reviewed, analyzed, and discussed. Chapter 3 presents an explanation of the methodology and research design of this study. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study and Chapter 5 the conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The problem I addressed in this study is the underrepresentation of women in the funeral service industry at-large, and more specifically, in funeral directing positions. During the past 2 decades, large numbers of women have steadily entered mortuary science programs in the United States. However, within the funeral directing labor force, females have advanced to positions as funeral directors at a slow pace (Cathles et al., 2010). The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental survey/research study was to investigate and compare self-perceived gender role characteristics of men and women from two different occupations, funeral profession and nursing. The aim was to measure the extent to which men and women differ in terms of how they describe their gender roles in the funeral directing industry compared to the nursing industry. In the literature review, I present a wealth of information and knowledge relevant to the topic of gender role differences between men and women in various industries. The independent variables of gender and occupation and the dependent variables (gender role characteristics) were analyzed using a factorial MANOVA statistical approach.

A preview of the major headings includes those specifically outlined on the quantitative checklist: theoretical framework, a literature review related to key variables, and summary. For the theoretical framework, gender role theory was used, as a model by Bem (1974), to inform the research questions of this study and to test the hypotheses. A review of the key variables in the body of literature served as a foundation for the current

study. These include androgyny, which represents a combination of stereotypically feminine and masculine personality traits (Bem, 1974).

Literature Search Strategy and Scope

Several primary sources were used to explore the topic including statistical books, scholarly journals, and web information (Google Scholar). Other research sources included PubMed, Walden's online library, and several online databases. The years of publication ranged from 1974 to 2014. Every attempt was made to use current peer reviewed articles; however, seminal or classical works were used to show origins and trends. Search terms and descriptors included but not limited to the following: *gender traits, the funeral industry, funeral directors, masculinity, femininity*, and *BSRI*. The following headings served as the foundation literature review search: theoretical foundation, literature and related literature, gender vs. sex, gender role defined, funeral industry, studies relating to gender roles and industries, examination of the Bem Sex Role Inventory, validity concerns of the BSRI (Schmitt and Millard, 1988) current studies using BSRI, a synthesis of literature, the literature gap, and a summary and conclusion.

Determining what articles are relevant to this study required narrowing the search to specific terms that address gender in the workplace. The objective in this search was to find other areas such as law and construction that had male overrepresentation and how the BSRI instrument was used to identify the similarities and differences in personality characteristics. Through this investigation, gender bias was discovered in a variety of male dominant professions. Thus, the search was expanded to include this topic. Finally, an extensive search was done on the relevance of the BSRI, Short and Long Forms. This

search yielded various pros and cons regarding the validity of both instruments. The conclusions drawn by this search revealed that the BSRI short form was sufficient to accomplish the objectives of this study.

In this literature review, I introduce a new area of research and gaps in the literature. While there was extensive research on the funeral industry itself, factors contributing to the gender gap in the industry were very limited. There was an adequate amount of research on how gender role socialization impacted women's levels of employment. However, in some settings, there remains a dearth of research relevant to the gender gap in the funeral industry. Women have the necessary skills, training, knowledge, experiences, and competency to become funeral directors; however, it remains unclear in the literature why women experience challenges in obtaining leadership positions in funeral service planning.

Theoretical Foundation

The gender role theory proposed by Bem (1974) was used to inform the research questions of this study and to test the hypotheses. According to this model, gender role traits have two dimensions: *instrumentality* (masculine) and *expressivity* (feminine). Instrumental traits like skillful, rational, and assertive exhibit masculine characteristics whereas behaviors that suggest warmth and nurturing behaviors towards people exhibit feminine characteristics.

Androgyny, a relatively new concept in masculinity and femininity research, emerged as a framework suggesting that women and men could possess similar personality characteristics. The term *androgyny* represents a combination of

stereotypically feminine and masculine personality traits (Bem, 1974). Men traditionally exhibit masculine characteristics while women customarily display feminine characteristics.

Gender researchers have struggled to define masculinity and femininity. Some researchers explored the possibility that they may be two independent constructs (Bem, 1984, 2000). People use interpersonal skills as they interact with their environment. Masculinity and femininity comprise interpersonal skills that allow humans to adapt to different situations. The exploration of masculinity and femininity as two separate concepts enabled the development of two self-reported measures of gender-related traits: the BSRI and the PAQ. Despite the fact that both measures contain a separate masculinity and femininity scale, for the purpose of this study, I employed only the BSRI scale.

This gender role theory proposed by Bem (1974) served as a foundation for this study primarily because the theory about men and women outlines the behaviors and characteristics they display. The key premise is that individuals socially identified as males and females tend to occupy different roles within various social structures, and judgments prevail against opposing expectations for how they should behave. Theoretically, it is important for me to expand my knowledge and understanding of key gender differences and characteristics. This understanding could potentially affect all women employed in nontraditional gender occupations, especially the funeral industry, where little research is available. Understanding gender characteristics in male-dominated fields could provide insight regarding the type of person who is not only drawn to the profession but also the type of person who maintains employment within male

overrepresented occupations. Assimilation and how a person fits into a working environment could be determined by developing an understanding of the gender role characteristics unique to individuals in a given profession.

Gender Versus Sex

Gender and sex are two different things. Sex is the biological feature that every individual is born, whereas gender is more specific to the qualities and characteristic that each possesses. Leading researchers Bem (1974, 1984) and Carl (2012) have argued that gender and sex are deferentially separated. Carl saw gender as what society labels as masculine or feminine, as well as personal traits. An example is how people dress: most men wear suits and ties, and many women wear skirts and high heels. These are social norms associated with masculine and feminine behavior. Contrary to accepted belief, the terms *sex* and *gender* are different. Sex is strictly a biological term unrelated to personal traits or characteristics. Some men, for example, may be more in touch with their feminine side.

Chinkin and Kaldor (2013) described gender as a standardization of femininity and masculinity, reflecting cultural institutions and practices (p. 167). As mentioned, masculinity is associated with hardness and aggression, in contrast to femininity, which is associated with passivity, empathy, caring, and emotion. Elm, Kennedy, and Lawton (2001) referred to gender characteristics as socially constructed sex-role orientations, whereas a man may display masculine or feminine characteristics regardless of his biological sex. Theories regarding traditional sex roles hold that those who are consistent

with the expectations of their biological gender tend to be the healthiest (Elm et al., 2001)`.

Yi-Ching and Billingham (2014) argued that sex means the biological differences between male and female whereas gender is considered one's sex orientation based on the individual's external social and psychological patterns of behavior and self-perception. In other words, sex is genetic, while gender is acquired. *Gender role identity* is the individual attitude toward gender during development and the individual's belief about the psychological qualities of males and females, sometimes known as gender stereotyping (Berger & Krahe, 2013).

Another theory relevant to this study was Bandura's (1977) concept of self-efficacy. Bandura's self-efficacy theory refers to a person's belief in his or her capabilities to mobilize the motivation and courses of action needed to meet the demands of a given situation or event. Mueller and Dato-On (2008) supported the idea that self-efficacy happens based on experience and anticipation of future hurdles. Individuals question whether they can attain specific goals. If self-efficacy is low, an individual will not act, even if social approval for that behavior is perceived (Mueller & Dato-On, 2008).

The underrepresentation of women as entrepreneurs in various professions, like funeral services, is a concern of researchers. Mueller and Dato-On (2008) wanted to know if men are the contributing factor to lower entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) among women. This question suggests that men have higher ESE and are more likely to become entrepreneurs than are women. The premise is that ESE may be a strong predictor of entrepreneurial intentions and behavior (Mueller & Dato-On, 2008). To

determine self-efficacy in entrepreneurs, Mueller and Dato-On studied gender role orientation.

Regarding the historically different roles of women and men, the literature has indicated that men have dominated jobs like those in the funeral industry or construction because the positions were considered inappropriate for women. These gender stereotypes, reinforced by widespread customs and beliefs, are based on psychological characteristics for both women and men (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Mueller & Dato-On, 2008). Beliefs persist that men are more aggressive than women, and women are more nurturing and emotional than are men. As long as people hold the beliefs as true, women and men will assign themselves to differing occupational roles (Mueller & Dato-On, 2008).

Gender Role Defined

Gender is an understudied area in the social sciences, particularly among funeral directors in the funeral industry. The most commonly used and repeatedly validated measure of gender roles is the BSRI developed by Sandra Bem (1974). Bem defined gender role in terms of masculine and feminine role characteristics. Masculine role characteristics were considered instrumental traits that included taking the lead, being aggressive, being competitive, being dominant, being self-reliant, and being athletic as masculine characteristics. Feminine role characteristics were found to be expressive and included the traits of compassion, affection, sympathy, warmth, and being yielding. In this research, I used the short version of the BSRI to examine and assess gender role in a sample of both male and female funeral directors.

The terms *sex* and *gender* have been traditionally used interchangeably among researchers. More modern and informed researchers define sex as a physiological construct, whereas gender is defined as a psychological cultural construct (Carver, Vafaei, Guerra, Freire, & Phillips, 2013). Gender is often linked to the expectations men and women associated with their roles and behaviors in a particular culture at a given period of time. Erden-Imamoğlu (2013) stressed the correlation between gender role orientation and emotional expressions of gender.

For the purpose of this study, *gender role* is defined as the beliefs, values, and expectations people hold about social and interpersonal behaviors of a man or a woman. These roles provide guides for determining ideal and desirable behaviors for each sex within certain social contexts and in interpersonal relationships (Eagly, 2009; Erden-Imamoğlu, 2013). Konrad and Harris (2002) defined gender roles as how society associates sex with a person's attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, his or her age, race, and social class define their individual role in society. These characteristics often influence how men and women interact and the behaviors expected of each.

The Funeral Industry

Death is inevitable, yet people normally do not want to talk or think about it, let alone be around the deceased (Smith et al., 2009). Professionals in the funeral services industry choose to make a career of addressing death on a daily basis. The funeral industry is unique because it serves the living while caring for the dead. The U.S. funeral market is estimated to be a $20.7 billion per year industry (Ludlum & Ludlum, 2009). The industry employed more than 102,877 workers in 2007. As of 2008, it was reported

that 25,680 funeral directors and 8,200 embalmers worked in the United States. Most U.S. funeral homes (86%) are run privately and are generally family businesses (National Funeral Directors Association, 2014). Publicly traded corporations own the remaining 14% (National Funeral Directors Association, 2013).

The Funeral Rule Improvement Act of 2014, introduced in the House of Representatives, directed the Federal Trade Commission to revise funeral industry regulations affecting funeral providers and services (Congress.gov, 2014, para 4). The definition of *funeral provider* and *funeral services* was redefined to include any services connected with the care, preparation, and disposition of deceased human remains (Congress.gov., 2014, para 4).

Each state regulates the licensing process of prospective funeral directors. The requirements vary from state-to-state, but most states require the applicant to be at least 18 or older and of good moral character, to be protected from communicable diseases, and to have completed a prescribed educational program (Department of Commerce and Insurance, 2013). Other requirements include successfully completion of an ABFSE approved curriculum, passing both the Arts and Science sections of the National Board Exam, and completing a 1-year residency experience (Department of Commerce and Insurance, 2013).

Smith et al. (2009) described funeral directing as an emotional labor job. In addition to physical labor, such as removal of the deceased and embalming, the licensed funeral director is required to comfort the bereaved in preparation for the final arrangements for their loved one. The director is expected to display understanding,

sympathy, empathy, and caring behaviors when clients lose a loved one. This display of emotions encourages the bereaved to entrust the care of their loved one to the funeral director and his or her company.

Embalmers must at least have an Associate of Arts degree. They have to complete many hours of instruction toward that degree under the accreditated ABFSE program in addition to serving a 1-year a residency under another licensed funeral director. These requirements may vary at the state and are dependent on the type of license pursued. States like New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania require at least 60 college semester hours from an accredited mortuary science program for funeral directors and embalmers to become licensed and eligible for a residency experience (NFDA, 2013).

LuBrant (2013) examined practitioners' perceptions of the academic preparation of funeral directors and embalmers in accredited ABFSE programs in the context of the changing death care preferences in the United States. Participants were funeral directors or embalmers sampled from across the country who had completed an accredited funeral service education program during the past 12 months and worked for a funeral establishment. Furthermore, the participants sold both funeral goods and services to the public and held a license to practice funeral directing or embalming.

In this study, I used an online survey instrument, and participants were asked to evaluate the importance of the professional practice of approximately one-third of the 170 ABFSE learning objectives. Participants were also invited to assess the extent to which they believe their education adequately prepared them for mastery of each set of learning

objectives. Perceptions of academic preparation for both the National Board Examination (NBE) and entry-level work-related responsibilities participated were also studied.

With respect to workforce preparation, practitioners generally perceived themselves to have been well prepared by their funeral service education programs to take the National Board Examination (NBE) administered by the International Conference of Funeral Service Examining Boards (ICFSEB). This study revealed that the participants felt not well prepared for the work they were expected to perform as entry-level funeral directors and/or embalmers. The results also indicated a disparity in annual income between men and women, with women earning significantly less money than men employed in similar positions. Practitioners recommended an expansion of work-related clinical experiences for students as part of their funeral service education. In addition, an increased efforts to prepare students for the kinds of funeral directing activities in which they will engage post-graduation needs to be part of the curriculum.

Patterson (2010) examined graduated mortuary science students to determine how their educational experience correlated with their scores on the NBE. Of the 33 accredited programs evaluated, only 22% of the graduates had a family member in the funeral industry and 50% had prior working experience in a funeral home setting. Both online and *brick & mortar* programs were evaluated. The study revealed that the majority of the students (49%) always embalmed with other students present. Patterson points out that a criticism within the profession is that graduates lack the technical skills necessary for entry level positions. The most alarming statistics produced from this study was the fact that 60% have never witnessed the cremation process and 57% never attend a funeral or

religious service. Also, 50% never observed funeral arrangement being made and 69% never set up or participated in visitations. Furthermore, students who earned their degree online scored higher on the Arts section of the NBE than those students who studied in conventional on-campus programs. With respect to readiness for the NBE, students who had prior work experience in the funeral home before their mortuary science education scored higher on the NBEs than those who did not have the same opportunities. This study revealed while the theoretical knowledge taught in the classroom results in pass rates on the NBE, most graduates are lacking the technological or practical knowledge to integrate the concepts into practice. Most mortuary science programs teach to the test and fail to develop the funeral professional.

Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and state regulators monitor compliance with state and federal laws governing the practice of funeral directing. Ethical conduct and regulated practices in funeral homes require the practitioner to engage in the practice of funeral directing under certain guidelines (Kopp & Kemp, 2007). The Funeral Rule, created by the FTC, was created under the assumption that consumers are not in an emotional state of mind, to make clear and informed purchase decisions in at-need situations. Some consumers feel emotionally stressed, time-pressured, and unfamiliar with available goods and services (Kopp & Kemp, 2007). The cost of funeral services and merchandise, for most people, is the third largest lifetime expenditure after the cost of houses and cars. The average cost of a funeral is $8,500, including the burial (National Funeral Directors Association, 2014).

Gender and the Funeral Industry

Few studies to date have focused on the role gender plays in the funeral service industry. Funeral service planning was traditionally a male-dominated profession and was often a *family* profession. Funeral home owners for several generations of the same family have for decades passed down funeral establishments (Creecy, 2013). More recently, people whose families were never in the industry are coming into the profession and find it a satisfying career. Cathles, Harrington, and Krynski (2010) reported that funeral directorships are mostly held by men, as is traditional. Women have recently entered mortuary schools in great numbers in the last ten years, but not, however, in the embalming sector. The widespread belief is that women are not equipped to embalm, as compared to men. Women specializing in embalming are the exception to the rule. In 27 states, women are offered only a single combined license for funeral directing and embalming (Harrington, 2007).

"Think funeral director – think male," is a widely accepted social norm and stereotype for reasons unknown other than men have dominated the profession since the Civil War. Male funeral directors claimed that the funeral industry is a man's job because of the physical requirements for lifting (Cathles et al., 2010; Pruitt, 2010). Women are more sensitive and emotional than men, which may interfere with accomplishing the task of burying the dead. Despite this claim, women's enrollment in mortuary schools continues to increase significantly in the past 15 years. However, this increase does not align with the number of female funeral directors currently employed in the workplace. There appears to be a misalignment between mortuary science enrollment and career

placement. Gender stereotyping may be one of the reasons for this misalignment and research is needed to understand fully the gender disparity in terms of how gender may result in the underrepresented number of female funeral directors.

Researchers suggested that perceptions and beliefs about the capabilities of women may be the cause of disparities for women (Cathles et al., 2010; Harrington, 2007). The requirement for funeral directors to become licensed embalmers, in some states, may be a barrier for women. Cathles et al. (2010) pointed out that such legal requirements can act as barriers and impede women from entering in the funeral service industry, reducing the proportion of female funeral directors by 24%. The premise states that invoke ready-to-embalm laws, which increase the gender gap in women funeral directors by 5.3 percentage points. The major argument is that funeral directing and embalming are two different professions within the funeral industry. The effect of ready-to-embalm laws implies that women are less likely to be funeral directors in states that require them to be embalmers (Cathles et al., 2010).

Work Stress Among Female Funeral Service Practitioners

Funeral service practitioners (FSPs) fall under the health care profession, yet little research exists on industry specific problems like work stress. In particular, female FSPs have to cope with typical healthcare stressors, considering that their profession includes working with dead human remains, trauma situations, and grieving families, all in a socially isolated environment. FSPs also work in an occupation that is not traditional, so discrimination and harassment may be present, as noted by Donley (2014).

Goldenhar, Gershon, Mueller, Karkasian, and Swanson (2001) studied female FSPs' perceived stress, depression, and anxiety, and how these stressors interact with relationships. The framework used to guide the data collection for the study was based on a job stress model and constructs measuring funeral industry-specific stressors, gender-based and nonwork stressors, perceived stress, and depression and anxiety. Goldenhar et al. (2001) found that both indirect and direct relationships may exist through perceived stress between anxiety and depression and the stressors. Goldenhar et al. reported that only 10% of the approximately 70,000 FSPs in the United States were female, confirming that funeral directing is a nontraditional occupation for women. The study did not survey men. The researchers suggested that more research should be conducted to include both men and women. By researching both genders, the patterns of relationships could be different, given their dominant role in the funeral industry.

Studies Related to Gender Role in Other Industries

Adachi (2013) argued that gender separation still exists, and a gender gap in occupational behaviors still is present among both men and women. Adachi suggested that often such separation is a psychological element that restrains people from participating in areas considered nontraditional for their gender. Adachi examined whether or not the distribution of women and men in other occupations experienced occupational gender stereotypes. Adachi gathered gender stereotyping scores from a Japanese sample of 30 occupations. These scores ranged from low scores (extreme masculine) to high scores (extremely feminine). Adachi hypothesized that the gender ratio of job holders would be a powerful determinant of occupational gender stereotypes.

The results supported the hypothesis and revealed that the ratio of jobholders experienced occupational gender stereotypes, indicating that six occupations were statistically different from the other 24. These were automobile assembler, taxi driver, dental technician, barber and hairdresser, banker, and insurance canvasser. Men gave higher (more feminine) ratings than women did in these six occupations. Men also generally gave higher scores than women in 14 other professions. The findings suggested that women were being discouraged or prevented from participating in areas considered nontraditional for their gender (Adachi, 2013).

Studies have demonstrated that women who work in traditionally male-typed fields and occupations continue to face gender barriers. Germain, Herzog, and Hamilton (2012) examined barriers presented during aviation training, a male-dominated industry. Based on data from 296 female pilots-in-training, pilots and flight instructors, the results revealed that the females in training were not accepted. Social stereotyping was among the top obstacles they encountered during their flight training that often lead women to quit the profession.

Adachi (2013) and Germain et al. (2012) demonstrated that despite women's increased educational attainment, occupational segregation by gender remained widespread and helped to explain a significant part of occupational gender stereotypes. Both studies emphasized that differences in employment distributions of women within occupations have been and continue to be a prominent feature of the labor market. A weakness in both of the studies is that the researchers only looked at the difference among the occupational employment patterns of women. Perhaps it would be beneficial if

studies would analyze to what extent the employment of women and men in occupations is dependent on one's sex predominantly. Neither study established criteria for what constituted a "female" or "male" occupation.

Occupational differences are also noteworthy in the aforementioned studies that tested occupations other than the funeral director industry. The lack of research in funeral directing makes the case for conducting the present study because funeral directing is considered a nontraditional occupation for women. By understanding commonalities related to gender characteristics among funeral directors, an increased awareness of how the concepts of sex and androgyny may affect the funeral directing relationship can provide insight into sex stereotyping. These findings could provide valuable knowledge relating to the ways male and female funeral service practitioners interact.

The homogeneous university backgrounds in addition to only surveying people who had Internet access was a weakness of the Adachi (2013) study. The demographic may not have been as inclusive and could have created a gender bias sampling of participants. Also, Adachi only used a 5-point rating scale instead of a 7-point scale. While this may seem to be a researcher preference, analyzing and comparing this study to other studies needs to be approached with caution. Comparing Adachi's results to another researchers' results that had a 7-point scale could produce misaligned assumptions and conclusions regarding occupational gender stereotypes. Nevertheless, Adachi's research revealed how educators and career counselors explore gender characteristics and employment stereotypes when advising students in their career paths. From this

conclusion, I developed the rationale for the importance of exploring this topic with funeral directors and using a 7-point scale to avoid a possible weakness within my study.

Gender Role Formation and Perception

To develop a better understanding of how gender role develops in a person's psycho-social environment, a search of the literature on gender role development in toddlers. Gender roles are learned behaviors that occur through personal interactions in a social environment. The way a person responds, positively or negatively, to clues or sex specific role identification from authoritative figures could have a significant impact on the stereotypes and gender role perceptions. Hupp, Smith, Coleman, and Brunell (2010) suggested that a parent's behavior in a social setting has a greater influence on a child's development of gender role characteristics. In an earlier study, McHale, Shanahan, Updegraff, Crouter, and Booth (2004) suggested that the mother influenced thegender role development of the child more than did the father.

Gender role development is complex and influenced by situational factors and other environmental interactions, like school, places of worship, sports activities, and the media. Hupp, Smith, Coleman, Brunell (2010) studied the household duties of mothers to determine if they influenced the child's gender role development. The results indicated that married mothers had children with a greater knowledge of gender role types than nonmarried mothers. South and Spitze (1994) identified that married men and women tend to engage in stereotypical behaviors as part of the family dynamics and setting. Understanding how a child develops gender role perceptions could become crucial when

studying adult stereotypes and the way people perceive certain gender roles in gender dominant professions.

I further researched the topic of gender role identification and how the BSRI instrument facilitated career placement in college settings. Specifically, I wanted to know if there has been any research to determine student success based on gender roles. Gender role identity is the foundational element of self and is the fundamental tenant in self-esteem (Berger & Krahe, 2013; Kim, Euna, & Sung-Hee, 2013). Huang, Zhu, Zheng, and Zhang (2012) analyzed the gender role characteristics of 434 Chinese undergraduate students using the BSRI. The objective was to discover the ideal personality model and to examine relationships among androgyny and self-esteem and coping skills. The majority of participants who took part in this study identified with androgynous (33%) and undifferentiated (32%) gender role traits. Two additional instruments were used to test the students' self-esteem and coping skills.

The BSRI was used to compare the results of these two tests. The results indicated that students who identified with androgynous traits had higher self-esteem and positive coping skills than the other gender role groups. Moreover, while the undifferentiated group scored extremely high in self-esteem, they possessed negative coping skills. This study supports Bem's (1976) study that found androgynous people can adapt and cope with difficult situations. In an unrelated study, Shin, Yang, and Edwards (2010) found that cultures that are homorganic in structure appear to be more androgynous in nature.

Cultural norms and social expectations play a considerable role in the formation of gender role perceptions. Some cultures, such as those in Asia, possess strong gender

stereotyping. Social norms and behaviors within the cultural context have an influence on social relationships (Gale-Ross, Baird, & Towson, 2009). Cultural context and social expectations greatly influence job selection, especially in male dominant and female dominant professions. Chen, Lee, Yu, and Shen (2014) examined male Taiwan flight attendants and how family support aided in their adjustment in work situations. The level of support these flight attendants received from their families potentially influenced their adjustment and job performance. The BSRI (Short Form) was used to identify the gender role characteristics of the flight attendants. Being a flight attendant in Taiwanese culture is considered a feminine or androgynous role. Chen et al. (2014) discovered that family support greatly influenced a male flight attendant's adjustment in the workplace. For those flight attendants who did not receive family support for their career choice, additional care and assistance in the workplace were needed to compensate and maintain work performance.

Chen et al. (2014), Jakupcak et al. (2006), and Osborne (2004) found that there was a correlation among gender roles, family support, and androgyny. Chen et al.'s study revealed that men who had high levels of masculine gender role characteristics required less family support and subsequently required higher levels of work adjustment. On the other hand, male flight attendants who had high levels of feminine and androgynous characteristics required higher levels of family support though they had lower levels of work adjustment. This study demonstrated how culture and social expectations not only influence job performance but also that family support could have a potential influence on gender role characteristics.

There may still be an attitude in the funeral industry that holds to stereotypically male bias. Some funeral directors may still possess the mentality, *think funeral director – think male*. This attitude is similar to the McLean and Unter (2010) study of male public management students at a university to determine if a *think manager – think male* stereotype exists. Researchers who did further testing on female public management students sought to determine if they sex type management positions. The results indicated that some cultures still hold to stereotypical bias towards managers being male. McLean and Unter discovered that this mentality still existed in male public management students.

Širec and Močnik (2012) made a distinction between how distinct differences emerged in gender roles when looking at social and human capital characteristics. Bosma and Levie (2010) and Kelley, Singer, and Herrington (2012) explained that there is a gender gap in female entrepreneurs creating and owning businesses. Širec and Močnik studied the gender differences and the personal characteristics of Slovenian entrepreneurs. While Širec and Močnik did find a statistical difference in the psychological motivating factors between the sexes, they did not find a significant difference between the human capital of male and female entrepreneurs. Hence, both genders had similar social and personal attributes or skills necessary to be an entrepreneur. However, women, in this study, had a lower tolerance for risk and a greater desire to achieve, when compared to their male counterparts.

Women are emerging in top level positions as well as in jobs socially reserved for men in the past. Way and Marques (2013) stated that over a period of three years, there has been a slight increase in the representation of women in top level management

positions in Fortune 500 companies. While correlation does not imply causation, Way and Marques noticed in their research that there appears to be a positive correlation between women in leadership positions and job performance as business leaders. They further noted that diversity seems to have demonstrated strong financial rewards when evaluating monetary gains to business performance measurements.

Way and Marques' (2013) research consisted of surveying 48 participants from the Los Angeles area enrolled in an MBA program; the participants were also educators. While the number of the participants may have appeared to be a small number for a quantitative study, asking the participants to justify and describe their answers made this study a mixed-method approach. The researchers asked the participants questions regarding their perceptions of effective and efficient leadership abilities. The researchers further wanted to know how and why the participants would prefer to work in an educational setting. The results indicated that the majority of participants, 54%, said it did not matter if the leader was male or female, followed by 38% who would prefer a male. An interesting find from this research was the duration of time the participants worked for either male or female leaders in the past. The results demonstrated that participants worked almost twice as long (58%) for men than they did for women (37%).

I wanted to know how the visual media portrays gender roles in the past 30 years and if there has been a paradigm shift. The way media, advertisements, and entertainment portray images of masculine, feminine, and androgynous characteristics could reinforce influence social norms relating to gender role identity. For example, Disney characters have traditionally exhibited stereotypical masculine and feminine gender roles in their

animated characters. England, Descartes, and Collier-Meek (2011) noted that after the 1980s, there has been a shift in the way Disney portrays gender roles in their characters, especially in male characters. After the 1980s, the male characters appear to portray a more androgynous gender role characteristic.

While a small portion of gender role characteristics is intrinsic, social norms and gender role perceptions seem to be molded by extrinsic observation. Coltrane and Shih (2010) and Luo (2014) noted that the portrayal of traditional stereotypical roles are still prevalent. This prevalence is designedto appeal to and include the audience that still possesses stereotypical gender role beliefs. England, Descartes, and Collier-Meek (2011) noted that the portrayal of Disney characters in movies could influence how gender role identity evolves in children.

Gender Differences in Academic Environments

Ward (2008) argued that subtle sex discrimination continues to permeate educational institutions. The number of women in areas that are historically male dominated, more specifically law, medicine, and engineering, remain dismal. Women constitute only 16% of full professors; however, they constitute almost 50% of law school students nationwide. While the employment of female law professors is evident, women still receive less pay and are tenured at a slower pace. Ward (2008) claimed that racial and gender inequalities become greater as one goes up the educational hierarchy. For example, only 20% of law school deans are women, yet women constitute 65% of instructors and 61% of lecturers, non-tenured-track categories.

Ward (2008) reported gender disparities in three fields: law, medicine, and engineering. Ward argued that historically, women's low representation in science and engineering was due in part to their lack of ability or interest. In this era of technology, such factors asre no longer the case because schools now promote math and sciences to girls in elementary schools. The belief is that many qualified female applicants fail to receive the same opportunities to become engineering faculty because of their family obligations. Common themes throughout the report included lower pay for female professionals who have the same credentials as their male colleagues. Ward argued that the eradication of sexist policies and norms have to be recognized and addressed for equity to occur in teaching law, medicine, and, engineering. Ward failed to address any of the weaknesses in his research. However, by studying these three professions, Ward noted how important future research is other male-dominated professions for improving the employability of women in nontraditional fields leading towards gender parity. Funeral directing is one such nontraditional field that is experiencing an influx of women in training programs.

Researchers maintain that gender inequality is complex and requires a multidimensional approach to promoting gender equality (Peterson, 2013; Yeganeh & May, 2011; Yusuf, 2013). Barrios and DiDona (2013); Delacollette, Dumont, Sarlet, and Dardenne (2013); and Dodson and Borders (2006) noted that women entering into male dominated professions and who exhibit stereotypical feminine characteristics, are perceived as less competent than are men who exhibit similar behaviors. Still, when their leadership style is stereotypically masculine, though the perception of women is negative,

they are usually viewed as successful (Barrios & DiDona, 2013). Conversely, men in female-dominated industries are celebrated and propelled into higher leadership positions more in line with male gender roles. This phenomenon was known as access and treatment discrimination, which mostly happens when employers from gender-traditional occupations select both men and women. This treatment includes and excludes individuals from gender nontraditional occupations (Barrios & DiDona, 2013). That is, the employer hires both male and female employees (inclusion) but treats one fairly, and the other is treated unfairly (exclusion).

Lipinska-Grobelny and Wasiak (2010) investigated different cognitive factors like job satisfaction along with one's effect in various industries, both positive and negative, and the connections to gender role identity for female managers and nonmanagers. They conducted the study to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and gender schema theory for these women using a sample of 122 women (62 nonmanagers and 60 managers). The participants completed three assessments: the Job Affect Scale, the BSRI, and the Job Description Inventory. Lipinska-Grobelny and Wasiak applied a one-way ANOVA to measure how gender identity affected emotional aspects in the workplace. They conducted a two-way ANOVA to find if there was an interplay between gender role orientation and job position, and the participants' thoughts and feelings about their positions on the other (Lipinska-Grobelny & Wasiak, 2010).

The results indicated that the oriented managers perceived masculine and androgynous characteristics, whereas the nonmanagers were also androgynous, but with feminine characteristics. Those women with different levels of sex-typing had both

negative and positive effects. Those most contented with their income levels were managers and the least content were nonmanagers (Lipinska-Grobelny & Wasiak, 2010). The positive implication of this study revealed that structural factors influence gender role personalities and behavioral practices. Lipinska-Grobelny and Wasiak (2010) noted that job position is a weak modifying variable between gender identity and satisfaction in the workplace.

Travis, Gross, and Johnson (2009) conducted qualitative case study research to explore the pay gap between the two genders in female-dominated fields as well as in the science field dominated by men, traditionally. Travis et al. wanted to study differences in wage compensation and the gaps in gender. They found more gaps in female-dominated fields than in those where males dominated. By using multiple regression and resampling analysis, the gender salary differences were $3,278 and $2,986. Even after controlling for the academic field, years of service, and rank, the differences remained. The strength of this study was that the researchers used multiple regression analysis as opposed to a single analysis to assess the data. Travis et al. noted in their analysis that both regression and the simulation approach had limitations in providing details, especially when addressing single institutions. Multiple regression analysis is used to predict unknown values from a variable from known values for two or more predictors, such as pay.

Gender Bias in the Nursing Field

Hollup (2014) claimed that although women increasingly choose education as their career, within occupations previously considered male dominated, the sex imbalance in the nursing workforce has largely remained. The contention is that nursing is for

women which reproduces stereotypical perceptions of caring, feminine attributes, and compassion. Limiñana-Gras, Sánchez-López, Román, Saavedra, and Corbalán-Berná (2013) argued that nursing is still a traditionally feminine profession. Despite the number of men choosing the nursing profession, male nurses only represent 10% of the occupational population (McDonald, 2013). The researchers believed this imbalance is largely because of cultural and image stereotypes concerning the role of professional nurses.

Liminana-Gras et al. (2013) examined the impact and differences that completing nursing tasks may have on the health of male nurses who work in a female dominated occupation. A sample of 196 participants, 98 male, and 98 female, completed a sociodemographic questionnaire, conformity to gender norms questionnaire, and physical health self-perceived job satisfaction questionnaire. Liminana-Gras et al., found that there were no significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female nurses, which demonstrates that the difficulties faced by males had nothing to do with gender role characteristics and their profession.

Barrios and DiDona (2013) looked at employees in the nursing and construction industries (dominated respectively by women and men) and measured the stressors the women and men experienced. Barrios and DiDona hypothesized that women would experience, overall, higher rates of workplace stress than men. Additionally, they hypothesized that a wider gap exists between the stressors of female and male construction workers than those for male and female nurses (Barrios & DiDona, 2013). The researchers found that stressors for women in professions dominated by men were

not higher than for men in professions dominated by women. Thus, their hypothesis was not supported. At the same time, men in the nursing profession did not have significant lower stressor levels in the workplace than did women in construction. One possible explanation was that as gender roles change over time in male dominated industries like construction, women feel fewer stigmas than they did when first entering the industry. The researchers noted that recent adjustments in gender ratios render the experiences of both sexes as more in congruence than previously (Barrios & DiDona, 2013; Sobiraj, Korek, Weseler, & Mohr, 2011).

Rajacich, Kane, Williston, and Cameron (2013) explored issues regarding recruitment, work life satisfaction, and retention of male nurses working in health care acute settings. Some challenges identified by the researcher's literature review were male graduates lower satisfaction rates, sexual stereotypes, lack of male role models, and people's perception of nursing as a female profession. The experiences of men in nursing are similar to workplace situations where there is a gender-based divide. The researchers employed a descriptive qualitative design in which they conducted focus groups with sixteen men.

The most common finding was the way men entered the field of nursing, which was through family encouragement or friends who were in the health profession (Rajacich et al., 2013). Men also reported experiences that identify them as gender linked. A unique challenge by the males in nursing is their minority status. The nursing profession is one composed mostly by women, where men displayed a universal dislike as being labeled as a "male nurse." Men in the study identified that they would prefer

being referred to simply as “nurse” (Rajacich et al., 2013). The researchers noted that a common societal view of nursing is that it is “woman’s work” partly because of the association with caring and empathetic tasks (Rajacich et al., 2013). The participants’ recommendations for recruiting more male nurses were to change the stereotypes surrounding the nursing profession.

Gender Differences in Leadership and Management

Statistics indicated that the gap between gender parity has narrowed in many areas such as educational attainment and other parts of the workforce. However, women are still underrepresented in leadership positions (Schuh et al., 2014). Hausmann, Tyson, and Zahidi (2010) reported that in the United States, 47% of the workforce is female but women account for only 14% of top management positions. Hausmann et al. further noted that women only occupy 17% of the seats in Congress. Other countries exhibit similar gender underrepresentation patterns. In Germany, senior female managers account for only 13% (Hausmann et al. 2010). These statistics indicate women, despite some progress in key areas, who are still at a disadvantage in the largely male-defined domain of leadership.

In an earlier experimental study, Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, and Tamkins (2004) hypothesized that gender stereotypes are biased when women are in the position of evaluating other women. Even when women are in an evaluating positions, they have proved their competencies in traditionally male recognized positions. Heilman et al. hypothesized that women and men who are successful in the same positions nevertheless have different experiences; successful women are less liked and more disdained than are

successful men. Heilman et al. conducted this study to provide some insight into why high-powered, successful women often fail to advance to the top levels of organizations (Heilman et al., 2004). These researchers found that others did not view women as competent members of upper management teams regardless of their abilities. The results of such studies support the idea that success in traditionally male domains can have harmful consequences for women. The key tenet is that when women occupy male jobs, women are more likely to experience penalization for their successes than when they occupy traditional female or gender neutral jobs.

Yeganeh and May (2011) argued that inequality between the genders prevails globally as an important preoccupation. Such inequities remain for all professionals and other workers including business people, politicians, and educators, to name a few. Yeganeh and May investigated the connection between gender-based inequality and cultural values because societal cultural mores exist to maintain order and regularity; thus, they might be connected to gender-based inequality. The researchers studied inequalities in educational settings. Yeganeh and May investigated the effects of cultural values on gender-based inequality. A gender gap is defined as gender-based inequalities in the four areas of educational achievement, economic opportunities, and participation, political equality, and survival/health (Bredtmann & Otten, 2014). Sohn (2014) also noted that gender bias has historically been present in teaching.

Yeganeh and May (2011) defined culture as the distinction of one culture over another regarding norms, traditions, rituals, and meanings. After controlling for the effects of socioeconomic variables, the data analysis revealed important cultural

implications for the gender gap. Further, the researchers found a link between a wider gender gap and conservatism, that gender equality may result from autonomy, and that autonomy and conservatism are principal cultural dimensions both for modern and traditional societies. The findings by Yeganeh and May and similar studies could have important practical implications for the fields of management and organizational studies, education, political science, and international law.

Kurtulus (2012) claimed that women and minorities seem to be rising in high-paying positions like technical and management jobs to the detriment of white men, whose numbers are decreasing. Kurtulus conducted a longitudinal study, comparing the occupational positions of minorities and women in places with federal contracts that had mandated Affirmative Action over three decades. The dataset consisted of over 100,000 large private-sector firms across all industries. The purpose was to confirm that numbers of minorities and women have increased in occupational fields since Affirmative Action began. Kurtulus found a rise in higher jobs held by women and minorities when Affirmative Action laws from 1973 through 2003 bound the federal contractors. Kurtulus discovered that the Glass Ceiling Act of 1991 led to most of the advances. The advancement of minorities and women over the 31 years in the study was tied directly to Affirmative Action. This study offered another example of gender inclusion that is taking place in various occupations occupied by the male gender, which may be representative of future trends in the funeral industry.

The Firefighting Industry

Hulett, Bendick, Thomas, and Moccio (2008) examined women's entry into the firefighting occupation, their work experiences, and best practices by which employers can enhance inclusivity of women. The researchers collected questionnaires from 675 male and female firefighters using convenience sampling. Four hundred and fifty-seven were women, and two hundred and eighteen were men. On all 26 questions, women reported higher rates of gender issues than did their male counterparts. Of the women surveyed, 84.7% agreed that they experienced different treatment because of their gender, compared to approximately 12.4% (Hulett et al., 2008). Female firefighters join their male counterparts in rating the occupation well above average as a career, demonstrating their interest. The lack of physical ability to meet requirements is not true of all women, which the researcher noted is reflected by the substantial numbers employed by several departments. Hulett et al. (2008) noted that barriers to inclusion are prevalent in the workplace culture today. The researchers suggest that to reduce these obstacles, a universal application of best practices should occur, ultimately changing the underlying workplace culture from one of exclusivity to gender inclusivity.

Severiens and Dam (2012) investigated gender differences in higher education with a focus on understanding the role of gender as it relates to the number of women and men represented in various course programs. The researchers analyzed census data and conducted a survey of *leavers*, students who enrolled in one year but did not return the following year to obtain their degrees (Severiens & Dam, 2012). The reasons students left their higher education goals was part of this survey. The findings indicated that the low

male retention scores seemed to be in female dominated course programs (Severiens & Dam, 2012). The male and female leavers in the study attributed the reason for leaving to low motivation and cognitive skills. Severiens and Dam's findings also confirmed that men often leave because of poor job conditions and finances. Thus, their results should be taken in the context of the state of the economy, the fluctuation of the job market, and familial responsibilities.

Stoker, Vander Velde, and Lammers (2012) examined the gender of the employee, the sex of the manager, and the management gender ratio in an organization regarding employees' managerial stereotypes. The purpose was to investigate preferences of employees for masculine and feminine leadership characteristics (Stoker et al., 2012). The sample consisted of 3,229 respondents who were subscribers to a weekly Dutch journal and who worked in various organizations. The researchers noted research demonstrates that women who are the minority in a male dominated field, such as management, are indeed likely to experience discrimination. The dataset reflected a preference for male leaders. Stoker et al. added that if the percentage of female managers in the management gender ratio is high, and if an employee is female or a female manager, then the male preference is significantly less strong. The researchers also found that male employees appreciate female leaders and their traits when they are represented members in the organization.

Kelly and McGee (2012) investigated the relationship between gender roles and night sky watching using a sample of 161 college students. The notion surrounding gender roles suggest that individuals are characterized as masculine, feminine, and

androgynous regardless of their actual sex (Kelly & McGee, 2012). Two instruments, the BSRI and Noctcaelador Inventory (NI), were used to investigate the differences between gender role groups for the activity. Kelly and McGee used a one-way ANOVA and found that gender roles correlated with NI scores. The researchers also concluded that there was a significant effect of sex and gender role (Kelly & McGee, 2012).

The researchers' results supported the hypothesis of androgynous individuals reporting more night watching. The researchers' results remain consistent with research that suggests a correlation between androgyny, creativity, and its associate aesthetic sensitivity. Stoltzfus, Nibbelink, Vredenburg, and Thyrum (2011) noted that creativity is part of individuals who identify with androgynous characteristics. Kelly and McGee (2012), however, discovered a lack of support for the hypothesis that people with a feminine gender role would score higher. The researchers noted that gender roles can be used to predict specific behaviors and interests along with broad personality variables (Kelly & McGee, 2012).

Synthesis of the Literature

The study variables were both independent and dependent variables. The biological sex of the participants labeled as male or female are the independent variables as stated in *H*1 and *H*2. The dependent variables are the participant's self-perceived gender roles (masculinity, femininity, and androgyny) scores as measured by the BSRI. Review of the literature relating to these variables revealed that this topic between men and women is of interest and importance for not only researchers but also for people seeking employment after higher education training.

Men and women are inevitably going to have to interact in various social settings (i.e. school, work and public events). Researchers have always been fascinated with how men and women function and interact in social settings (Chen & Abedin, 2014; Dahl, Vescio, & Weaver, 2015; Tao, 2014; Wright, Eaton & Skagerberg, 2015). Kelly and McGee (2012) noted that regardless of a person's sex, the gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine, and androgynous) can be used to predict specific social behaviors. An individual's sex, the independent variable, is determined at birth. However, how the individual is raised and nurtured within a culture could have an influence on how the dependent variables develop.

Gender role characteristics develop over time and reflect interactions with the social milieus. Hausmann et al. (2011) and Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, and Reichard (2008) have noted this correlation, especially when women have succeeded in traditionally male dominated occupations. Social stereotypes may still be influencing the upward stratification of women. Despite women's advances in educational and professional accomplishments, perceived gender role stereotypes prevail (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). This bias is how barriers and obstacles evolve in organizations, which could place an organization, and the profession, in an irreversible position that threatens long-term survivability.

The dependent variables, that is, self-perceived gender roles (masculinity, femininity, and androgyny) constitute how a person perceives various qualities associated with their sex in society. Bem (1974) and Bem (1981) identified these different gender role characteristics and suggested that these dependent variables may in part influence a

person's behavior within an organization. Bem (1974) acknowledged that gender roles fashion an individual behaviors within the social context of biological sex. Furthermore, individual perceptions of gender roles could influence how people identify with socially accepted social norms in society.

Also, gender roles fashion individual behaviors within the social context of biological sex.The social assumption here is that men are masculine, and women are feminine and that over time, each sex becomes stronger in their gender role traits that identify them as men or women. An example of this assumption is that by nature, men are strong and aggressive while women are caregivers and nurturing. This assumption is not always black and white, especially when gender role characteristics need to cross the line and become prevalent in professions that utilize masculine, feminine, and androgynous behaviors because of the nature of a business.

Fisher (2011) examined the perceived gender characteristics in male nurses and thus concluded that men identified with the feminine characteristics indicative to nursing. Fisher further noted that the feminine characteristics associated with nursing is symbolic whereas the gender neutral, or androgynous, traits better represent the characteristics that best represent the nursing profession. While these results produced a significant discovery regarding androgynous gender role characteristics in male nurses, Fisher only examined male nurses against male engineers. Moreover, Fisher neglected to examine if the gender role characteristics varied or were similar to the characteristics of female nurses and female engineers.

After assessing this weakness, I determined that in my study there needed to be a broader cross-section to determine the gender role characteristics of both sexes and occupations. The evolution of the organization of nurses caring for men on the battlefield could have been the origin of the profession being associated with females. Moreover, this historical event could have morphed the social structure that perpetuated the gender identity of a nurse as feminine was rooted more in sex association than in the complex gender role characteristics unique to the profession. Kelly and McGee (2012) explained how gender roles can be used to predict personality variables and behavioral and social interests. In my study, I wished to use the BSRI to examine gender roles to predict personality variables and behavioral and social interest in male and female funeral directors compared with male and female nurses.

Examination of the Bem Sex Role Inventory

Cited in several studies, the BSRI identifies self-attribution of traits, indicative of gender roles. In developing the BSRI, Bem (1974) placed the masculine role characteristics into a category described as instrumental traits. These traits included taking the lead, aggressiveness, being competitive, being dominant, being self-reliant, and demonstrating athleticism. Feminine role characteristics were categorized as expressive in nature, which included traits such as showing compassion, affection, and sympathy. Aside from the masculinity and femininity, Bem referred to gender roles that were not exclusively masculine and feminine as *androgyny*. Androgynous individuals are people with traits both masculine and feminine. The *undifferentiated* roles were individuals low in both masculine and feminine traits.

The key premise of Bem's (1974) claim as it relates to the present study is that funeral service providers might possess both masculine and feminine traits. In some settings, the feminine role may be displayed more than the masculine role, with the main focus on completing the job (Bem, 1974). Carver et al. (2013) suggested that gender equalities should be explored and measured using quantitative research to develop a deeper understanding of the correlations between biological sex, gender, and career choices.

Validity Concerns of the BSRI

Despite its age, many researchers still use the BSRI because it has consistently demonstrated validity when measuring gender roles. The BSRI is a popular measure of constructs, but the measure remains controversial in several studies. Many researchers noted, with new and different study populations as in any study, revalidation of the BSRI may be required. The following studies demonstrate dated and current studies to show balance issues and validation reports of the BSRI (Carver et al., 2013).

1974

Bem (1974) reported high internal consistency and test-retest reliability of the BSRI. Bem used a sample from two groups of both male and female undergraduates from Stanford University (one group in 1973 and the other in 1978). The results for the both groups were masculinity (.86 and .86) and femininity (.80 and .82) respectively. Coefficient alphas computed for masculinity and femininity revealed high reliability (Masculinity alpha = .86; Femininity alpha = .82). The BSRI test-retest reliability within

a sample of 28 males and 28 females demonstrated high reliability over a 4-week period (Masculinity r = .90; Femininity r = .90; Androgyny r = .93).

1998

Since Bem selected gender roles identity two decades prior, Holt and Ellis (1998) contended that the BSRI may have outdated terms to represent masculinity and femininity, a younger and changing population. Moreover, researchers felt that the validity on the original BSRI needed reexamining. In their study, 138 (68 men and 70 women) predominately White, and middle-class individuals ranging in ages from 18-52 years participated. All were volunteers from the summer term psychology courses taught at a Southern university. The procedure, instructions, and materials used were identical to the method that Bem (1974) used to validate feminine and masculine characteristics with the BSRI.

Holt and Ellis (1998) reported that all of the masculine adjectives rated significantly more desirable for a man than for a woman, $p < .001$. All but two of the feminine adjectives were rated as significantly more desirable for a woman than for a man, $p < .001$. One of these exceptions was the feminine trait *loyal*, which was only marginally rated as more desirable for a woman (M = 6.26, *SD* = 0.86) than for a man (M = 5.94, *SD* = 1.32), t (136) = -1.70, p = .09. A Cronbach alpha computed to assess the internal reliabilities of the BSRI showed a masculinity scale (a = .95) and (a = .92) for the femininity scale, which were higher yet considered still comparable to Bem's (1974) internal reliabilities in the original study.

2000

Similar to the previous study, Auster and Ohm (2000) argued that masculinity and femininity have changed in contemporary American society and that the BSRI needed reevaluation. The key premise is that since the original BSRI was developed, women's and men's roles in American society have changed dramatically. For example, married women and married women with children participate in workplaces that have children. Also, women's educational achievement and employment in previously male-dominated fields grew over the past 25 years. For example, in 1970, women received 5% of law degrees compared with over 40% of law degrees awarded in the mid-1990s (Auster & Ohm, 2000).

Based on this premise, Auster and Ohm (2000) conducted research to evaluate the impact of possible changes on male and female masculine and feminine dimensions from the original BSRI (Bem, 1974). Their purpose was to determine whether the ratings of the masculine and feminine traits of the BSRI were still valid. The research question addressed was whether the characteristics that comprise the masculine and feminine dimensions of the original BSRI were still valid nearly 30 years later. They used the same rating scale. They found that 18 of the 20 feminine characteristics still qualified as feminine, but only 8 of 20 masculine characteristics qualified as masculine. One explanation offered for the results was that the way men and women identify gender role characteristics may have changed along with the roles that men and women identify within society (Auster & Ohm, 2000).

2002

Konrad and Harris (2002) reported strikingly different results when students from a northeastern urban university were asked to validate the BSRI's traits. They reported that women rated only one masculine item out of 20 that was considered more desirable for men than for women. On the other hand, men rated only 13 out of the 20 masculine items as more desirable for men than for women. Also, women rated only two of the feminine characteristics more desirable for women than for men, and men rated just seven feminine items more desirable for women than for men (Konrad & Harris, 2002).

2014

Vafaei, Alvarado, Tomás, Muro, Martinez, and Zunzunegui (2014) reported that the BSRI has been infrequently validated in older adults and health studies. This study revealed that a person's gender role identity plays a crucial part in overall health. Individuals who are androgynous in nature are more adaptable to difficult situations. Hence, they usually have better overall health. Researchers concluded that a person's mobility, physical and mental health appeared to be better in participants who possessed more androgynous characteristics than masculine or feminine characteristics. This study validates the seminal research that suggests socially adjusted individuals who possess androgynous gender roles appear more psychologically well adjusted (Ballard-Reisch and Eltonm, 1992; Bem, 1974; Khan & Sutcliffe, 2014; Whitley, 1984).

Without further studies, it may be difficult to reconcile these discrepancies. However, one possibility is that the participant views of gender may widely vary according to geographic region. Holt and Ellis's collected data were from the southern

United States, whereas Konrad and Ellis's participants were from an urban northeastern region of the United States. The researchers also suggested that the participants may have slanted their answers to conceal their self-images.

Hoffman and Borders (2001) claimed that since the development of the widely used BSRI in 1974, the instrument has received criticism. They presented a review and discussion of several methodological issues related to the BSRI instrument 25 years since it was developed. It is important to note that since this article was written, the BSRI is presently used by gender researchers worldwide. Hoffman and Borders (2001) reported the majority of BSRI criticism occurred with the reliability and validity of the BSRI Short Form designed in assessing an individual's perception of self-described gender type characteristics. However, researchers were provided the Original Form of 60 items and that researchers must purchase all 60 items. There was considerable doubt expressed regarding the use of the BSRI in research designed to assess masculinity and femininity.

The key reason was that perceptions of femininity and masculinity in the 1990s and beyond are different from perceptions of these constructs presented in 1974. Therefore, Hoffman and Borders (2001) challenged how useful BSRI would measure masculinity-femininity at that time. Hoffman and Borders concluded that the usefulness and meaningfulness of the BSRI, both present, and past, are debatable, suggesting that the instrument was flawed and outmoded. The results indicated that when researchers use Bem's (1974) classifications, findings may differ considerably on the basis of the form and scoring method used.

Current Studies Using the BSRI

Despite the BSRI critics, the BSRI is still widely used globally in the research community. For example, Fisher (2011) used the BSRI to determine the gender characteristics of male nurses to establish whether they identified with the stereotypical constructed feminine image of nursing. The researchers acknowledged validation issues in earlier studies. However, they claimed that the short version of the BSRI was more homogenous and provided a good fit to the two-factor model and used the BSRI short version in their study. The BSRI computed values of Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the feminine and masculine subscales were 0.88 and 0.82, respectively.

Powell and Butterfield (2011) used a short version of the BSRI to determine how both genders regarded an "ideal president" and other politicians running in the 2008 elections. They found that this idea was based more on masculine than feminine traits, considerably less similar to female candidates as a group than to male candidates as a group. Ten items in the inventory were connected to feminine sex roles, 10 to masculine roles, and 10 to neutral items. The inventory tallied feminine and masculine traits by averaging the responses to the 10 items. A 7-point scale was used (ranging from 1 = *never or almost never true* to 7 = *always or almost always true* of the respondent's description).

Burton, Grappendorf, and Henderson (2011) examined the unequal representation of men and women holding administrative positions in the athletic field. The researchers used role congruity theory as a framework with a sample of 158 female and 118 male NCAA Division I intercollegiate athletic administrators who evaluated female or male

candidates for a position within athletics. The positions were an athletic director, life skills director, and compliance director. The positions were chosen to include equal representation of men and women. The researchers utilized a wave analysis, a tool to assess nonresponse bias, to examine differences between early and late respondents (Burton et al., 2011).

The short version of Bem's (1974) Sex Role Inventory was used to evaluate the feminine and masculine characteristics of participants who were asked to evaluate candidates whom they believed had the potential for success. The positions evaluated were life skills director and the athletic director position. Using 5-point Likert scale survey, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test whether participants perceived the life skills of a female director position as more feminine than female athletic director position, as more masculine (Burton et al., 2011).

The researchers found that female candidates did not receive significantly different scores on the masculine rating on the BSRI. However, the participants perceived female candidates for the athletic director position as less feminine than the female candidate for the life skills director position. Burton et al. (2011) and Berkery, Morley, and Tiernan (2013) noted that based on these gender role stereotypes, women may be prevented from getting positions in the organization generally held by men.

Parent, Moradi, Rummell, and Tokar (2011) evaluated the construct distinctiveness of masculine gender role conformity, as currently operationalized from the big five personality traits, from self-esteem, and from masculinity/instrumentality and femininity emotional expressiveness dimensions using the BSRI. The researchers used

two archival samples of men attending a large Midwestern public university. Sample 1 completed an online survey on the relations of conformity to masculine norms with self-esteem masculinity/instrumentality, and femininity/expressiveness. Sample 2 provided information on the relations of conformity to masculine norms with big five personality dimensions. The big five dimensions were openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.

Parent et al.'s (2011) findings suggested that conformity to masculine norms, as assessed by the subscales of the CMNI-46, does not overlap by a large percentage with personality type. Masculine norms referred to the attitudes, behaviors, and traits that men and women are expected to demonstrate. These expectations included being nonfeminine, being agentic, and being a breadwinner. The present results also suggested that the previously observed associations between masculine norms and conformity and other variables such as vocational interest and reluctance to seek psychological help may be independent of personality and self-esteem. These findings revealed how the subscales of the CMNI-46 were interpreted, thus providing for a more in-depth understanding of the correlation between traditional masculine norms in individuals with higher levels of conformity to masculine norms (Parent et al., 2011).

Gómez-Gil et al. (2012) used the BSRI to assess differences in gender roles in male and female transsexuals and male and female volunteer controls. The sample included 70 male to female (MF) transsexuals, 51 female to male (FM) transsexuals, 77 control men, and 79 control women, all of whom voluntarily participated. Statistically significant differences between groups were only found on the femininity scale, on which

MF transsexuals and control women scored significantly higher than FM transsexuals and controlled men. The results indicate that only the femininity scale of the BSRI appears to be useful today for evaluating differences in the sex-role identification in Spanish controls and transsexuals. Moreover, MF and FM transsexuals score as a function of their gender identity instead of their anatomical sex on the BSRI femininity scale. Gómez-Gil et al. concluded that the feminine scale of the BSRI, but only such a scale, was a useful instrument in the Spanish population because it differed not only in transsexuals but also between control men and women.

Lipinska-Grobelny and Wasiak (2010) investigated different cognitive and emotional aspects of job satisfaction, negative and positive affect at work, and their relations to gender role orientation of 122 women who occupied both nonmanagerial and managerial positions. According to Bem's sex-typed theory, gender-focused women and men have developed a strong identification with the role that has led them to display the expected behavior and traits of their gender. The researchers used the BSRI to estimate the degree of sex-typing, which includes 15 adjectives describing male characteristics, 15 adjectives describing female characteristics and five adjectives describing neutral characteristics. The researchers found that the majority of female managers represented masculine and androgynous types, whereas female nonmanagers represented feminine and androgynous types (Lipinska-Grobelny & Wasiak, 2010). The masculine female managers also demonstrated greater satisfaction with income and least satisfied were feminine nonmanagers. The researchers further note that women who possess both masculine and female traits can respond appropriately across a variety of settings.

Yi-Ching and Billingham (2014) used the BSRI to examine the relationship between parenting styles and gender role identity among 230 undergraduate students. Descriptive statistics was used on this sample of students, categorizing them by sex (M/F) and demographics (sex and age). These groups were further broken down into gender roles (masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated). An independent sample *t*-test was performed between men and women on the mean masculinity and femininity scores.

To test whether participant sex related to their gender role identity, cross-tabs with Pearson Chi-square tests were used to compare the distribution of men and women across the four gender groups (Yi-Chang & Billingham, 2014). The results indicated that on masculinity, men scored significantly higher than women ($d = 1.03$). The women scored significantly higher than men ($d = 1.02$) on femininity. Yi-Ching and Billingham (2014) found that the correlation between the masculinity and femininity scores was negative and statistically significant, but weak ($r = –.14$, $p < .05$, 95%CI = –.25, .01). Also, the gender role status measured with the BSRI-12 showed no correlation with being male or female in older adults living in Brazil, though it appeared to be a valid indicator of gender among the older Brazilians (Carver et al., 2013).

Mueller and Dato-On (2008) used Bem's instrument to measure gender role orientation; feminine and masculine factors confirmed the anticipated results. The two factors had Cronbach alpha scores of 0.833 for femininity and 0.882 for masculinity, which were strongly reliable. The four gender role orientation categories used were feminine, masculine, undifferentiated, and androgynous (Mueller & Dato-On, 2008). The

mean femininity and masculinity scores for these data were 4.02 and 4.43. A 4.02 score was categorized as androgynous, and masculinity scores greater than 4.43 were also categorized as androgynous. A masculinity score greater than 4.43 and femininity scores less than 4.02 were put into the masculine category. The feminine category was marked by femininity scores greater than 4.02 and masculinity scores less than 4.43. Finally, respondents with femininity scores less than 4.02 and masculinity scores less than 4.43 were placed in the undifferentiated category (Mueller & Dato-On, 2008).

Mueller and Dato-On (2008) concluded that statistically significant differences did not exist between females and males with a *p* greater than 0.05 as far as ESE for searching for, planning, marshalling, or implementation of tasks, even when the four measures combined made one composite measure. Mueller and Dato-On did find that although sex by itself had no effect on self-efficacy in any one of the four entrepreneurial task phases, gender role orientation played a clear role.

In summary, the BSRI is a widely used instrument for measuring gender role perceptions; however, as the literature suggested, there were concerns regarding the validity of the variables when used in different context. It was never been used to test any claims relevant to the gender gap in the funeral industry. The literature suggests that the BSRI may still be a valid instrument for assessing gender roles in various industries. However, there was evidence that the interpretations of the traditional masculine and feminine gender role meanings may be changing. In light of these findings, future validation of the BSRI is warranted through additional research.

The Literature Gap

Despite a growing number of studies investigating gender characteristics in various occupations, a literature gap yet exists in the male dominated funeral industry profession. Most research reviewed, current and seminal, focused mainly on male or female dominated professions other than the funeral industry such as the law, nursing, and firefighting (Nielsen & Huse, 2010). Subsequently, there exists no research data on the gender role characteristics of female funeral directors. More specifically, no studies to date were found that examined and correlated the gender characteristics of both male and female funeral directors. This study is significant in addressing this research gap.

Summary and Conclusion

Researchers detailed in this chapter have sought to provide plausible explanations for the gender gap or disparity in some settings, including the funeral industry. The studies reviewed provided empirical evidence to support the idea that gender based problems still exist in some industries and occupations, including the funeral industry. The studies made the case that there remains a clear need for additional research. The gender of a person reflects the masculine or feminine attributes of an individual, with respect to his or her psychology, biology, and role in society (Bem, 1974, 1981).

Bem (1977) described gender roles as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated (neither strong masculine nor strong feminine characteristics). Most cultures see men as confident, competitive, assertive, and ambitious while they see women as empathetic nurturers who are gentle, sympathetic, and helpful. Those with perspectives that are more contemporary believe both women and men have behaviors

that go across the gender spectrum. More women now occupy leadership positions in the workplace and can be nurturing. Similarly, the modern day man provides childcare at home yet usually remains aggressive and independent (Bem, 1977).

The literature suggested that marked differences between the male and the female perceptions have narrowed considerably. Cathles et al. (2010) reported that the enrollment of women in mortuary schools has increased and is presently 57% of U.S. mortuary school graduates are women. Donley (2014) discuss the feminization of women in funeral services over the past 40 years. As shown in Figure 1, over the past 40 years there has been a steady decline of men entering into the mortuary science programs in the United States. During the same duration of time, an upward trend enrollment of women entering into mortuary science programs occurred. In early 2000, women represented half of all students in mortuary science students in the United States (see Figure 1). Currently, 59% of mortuary science students are women, and 41% are men. The inference is that more women are pursuing fields in the funeral industry and have access to the appropriate education and training. Despite this welcome development, fewer than 20% of all funeral directors in this country are women (Cathles et al., 2010).

While Donley's (2014) research captures the feminization of women in mortuary science programs, as well as some of the discrimination and negative stereotypes they encounter during their employment. However, she failed to note the disparity of women as long term funeral directors after their mortuary science education. Even though a large number of women enter into the education process, (see Figure 1), it does not necessary translate to long-term employment opportunities for the majority of graduates. Donley

(2014) did, however, acknowledge the sexism, male chauvinism, and blatant discrimination that some women experienced because of their gender in the funeral profession.

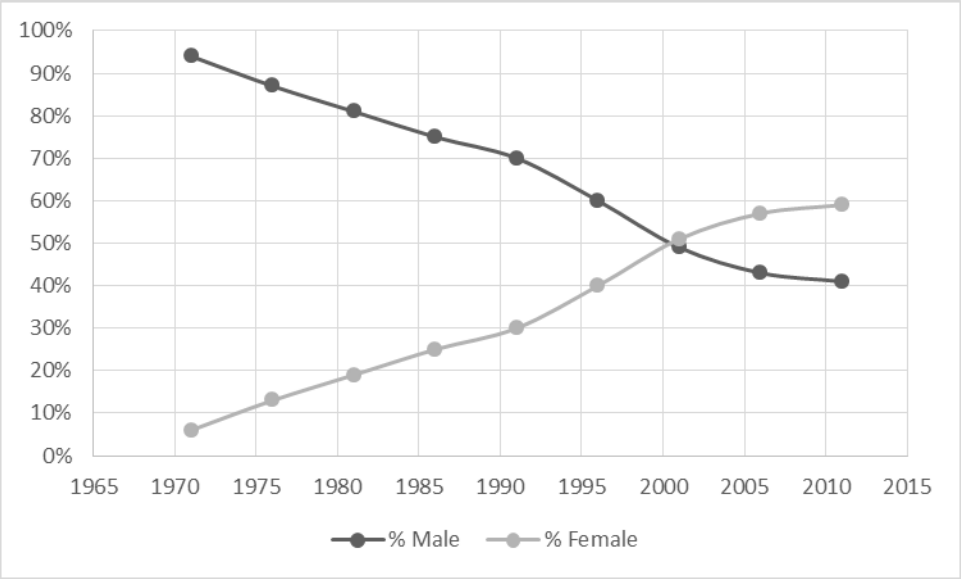

Figure 1. Enrollment of male and female mortuary science students. Adapted from "The overtaking of undertaking: Feminization and the changing gender type of funeral directing," by Donley, 2014, Dissertation, Order No. 3639077, Kansas State University, p.18. Copyright 2014 by ProQuest. Reprinted with permission.

Mueller and Dato-On (2008) investigated gender role orientation as a determinant of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The theory seemed to indicate that men with higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy are more likely to become entrepreneurs than are women. Mueller and Dato-On further suggested that the underrepresentation of women as entrepreneurs in various professions may be rooted in a lack of self-efficacy as defined by Bandura (1977). Similarly, in the fields of project management and construction, women are underrepresented, or they occupy low levels in the profession even though they are

beginning to enter these areas (Barrios & DiDona, 2013; Sobiraj, Korek, Weseler, & Mohr, 2011).

The literature reviewed also suggested how people's socialization depends largely on their gender or whether they displayed traditional or androgynous sex roles. An elaborate discussion of what constituted traditionally *masculine* and *feminine* formed the review. Individuals can exhibit both masculine and feminine characteristics, and behaviors appropriate for one's sex regardless of biological gender (Bem, 1974; Gale-Ross, Baird, & Towson, 2009)

The underrepresentation of women in funeral directing roles presents a significant challenge to the funeral industry at large (Cathles et al., 2010). As demonstrated in the literature, a growing body of research has attempted to account for this inequality. Besides theoretical progress, a primary goal of this study was to inform measures designed to increase the share of women in leadership positions in the funeral industry.

Aside from the gender gap in the funeral industry (Cathles et al., 2010), there is a research gap in the literature that addresses gender roles of both men and women in the funeral industry. This study examined whether there would be a significant difference between the self-reported gender role characteristics of male and female funeral service professionals as measured by the BSRI. Additionally, this study examined whether women with high masculinity gender role characteristics are more likely to engage in funeral directing activities than are women and men with low masculinity characteristics.

Using BSRI, Auster and Ohm (2000), Carver et al. (2013), and Holt and Ellis (1998) suggested that women socialized with androgynous orientations are more likely to

observe, learn and be reinforced to possess and identify with high amounts of traditionally masculine, as well as feminine traits, including aggressiveness, competitiveness, assertiveness, and nurturance. Androgynous socialization seemed to influence women's values, perceptions and behaviors relevant to educational, occupational, and possibly financial achievement (Bem, 1974; Helmreich & Stapp, 1975).

The literature reviewed indicated relationships between characteristics of gender role (androgynous, feminine, masculine) and self-perceptions as shown on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. Moreover, it appears that fewer stereotypes are involved when knowledge about others increases. The main purpose of this study is to investigate any existing differences between self-perceptions of femininity and masculinity (gender) of funeral directors as well as other funeral planning professionals.

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate any existing differences between self-perceptions of femininity and masculinity (gender) characteristics of funeral directors as well as other funeral planning professionals. The literature reviewed indicated relationships between characteristics of gender role (androgynous, feminine, masculine) and self-perceptions as shown on the BSRI. Moreover, it appears that fewer stereotypes are involved when knowledge about others increases. In this study, I sought to test this hypothesis with members in the funeral industry. Chapter 3 explains in detail the mythological approach that was used to test this hypothesis.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental exploration study was threefold. The first purpose was to investigate and compare self-described gender role differences among male and female funeral directors from approved mortuary science programs. The second purpose was to determine the extent to which self-perceived gender role differences exist across different industries that are either dominated by men or dominated by women. The final purpose was to determine if there is an interaction between sex and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses. A quantitative, nonexperimental survey design was selected to address the problem and research questions of this study.

Most current research on gender-dominated occupations has focused on men's ability to construct masculine identities in occupations such as nursing. The nursing profession is socially perceived as a female dominated profession (Fisher, 2011). No studies to date were found that have simultaneously examined the gender identity negotiation of both men and women in the field of mortuary science. Additionally, no studies to date were found that compared sex and occupation to gender role characteristics. Studies of men in female-dominated occupations left women out of the research parameters; thereby, they failed to examine how women may negotiate both masculine and feminine characteristics in a female-dominated occupation. Furthermore, no studies were found that compared the gender role characteristics between male

dominated and female dominated occupations. While Fisher (2011) looked at gender role characteristics in male nurses compared to male architects, the researcher failed to determine if there was an interaction between sex and occupation as identified in the perceived gender role characteristics of the participants. No studies to date have addressed these gaps in the literature.

In this study, I argued that by failing to examine sex and occupation simultaneously within the context of gender role characteristics, an understanding of how female funeral directors negotiate and identify gender roles is limited. By drawing on the BSRI survey conducted with both men and women in the funeral industry and comparing the outcome with another female dominated profession, I should have been able to demonstrate how individuals of both sexes and occupations identify with the masculinity and femininity while working in or pursuing careers in the male dominated funeral profession.

For the purpose of this study, the term *gender* referred to the social-psychological characteristics associated with being a man or a woman. Expected and actual behaviors attached to a particular social status are defined as *gender role* characteristics (Nagoshi, Terrell, Nagoshi, & Brzuzy, 2014). Erden-Imamoğlu (2013) explained that gender role is an important element to demonstrate how to construct and maintain positive interpersonal relationships. Erden-Imamoğlu reported that women's gender roles led to differences in approval, dependence, trusting others, and emotional awareness. The managerial ranks of corporations in the United States have amplified with female entrants for the past 25

years. Still, few women are represented in professions that have traditionally been dominated by men (Ely et al., 2011; Erden-Imamoğlu, 2013).

The primary focus of Chapter 3 is the research design and methodology that were used to investigate the issues and test the hypothesis of this study. The components of this chapter include five major headings: the research design and rationale, the methodology, procedures for recruitment, participation, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Design and Rationale

In this section, I communicate important information about key features of the study's research design and rationale. After an examination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, I selected a quantitative, nonexperimental cross-sectional survey research design. Quantitative research involves the collection of numerical data, attempts to maximize objectivity and generalizability of the findings, and is typically directed toward prediction (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014). This study was designed to investigate the relationship between the variables of male and female gender role preferences as measured by the BSRI in funeral service and nursing professionals. Ely et al. (2011); Erden-Imamoğlu (2013); Fisher (2011); and Ward (2008) who have used the BSRI to evaluate gender role differences in various professions employed a quantitative approach to correlate and establish a relationship between sex and gender role traits. None of the researchers explored gender role characteristics and occupation to see if there was an interaction between the variables and the gender role characteristics (Ely et al. 2011; Erden-Imamoğlu, 2013; Fisher, 2011; Ward, 2008).

Qualitative mythological approaches were ruled out because of the type of information that was desired. Such methods address nonnumerical data and uncover phenomenological information. BSRI can discover the intensity of self-perceived gender role characteristics in men and women. These values are numeric in nature, thus requiring statistical analysis for correlation between the dependent and independent variables. I sought to establish conclusive evidence that there are no differences between the self-perceived gender characteristics between male and female funeral directors. By comparing these results to the gender role characteristics in male and female nurses, I sought to understand if there is an interaction between the occupations and gender. Furthermore, by looking at a male dominated and a female dominated profession that have similar characteristics, I was able to determine if there is a difference between like occupations. The most scientific way of measuring these differences is by using a nonexperimental quantitative approach because there are no variables being manipulated to determine cause and effect relationships.

As noted in Chapter 1, the ultimate goal in quantitative research is generalizability; the term refers to the ability of the researcher to apply findings from the study to a wider population or in different contexts (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). A key way to ensure generalizability in quantitative research is to select an instrument that is both valid and reliable, as I have done in the present study with the selection of the BSRI (Bem, 1974). Another way to obtain generalizability is the sampling procedure. In the sampling and threats to validity sections that follow, I addressed the validity and reliability of the instrument and outlined sampling procedures.

A key feature of this quantitative study is the use of the BSRI (Bem, 1974) survey instrument. The selected quantitative research design and instrument choice are consistent with several other study designs used to investigate and advance knowledge relevant to gender-related topics (Bem, 1974; Fisher, 2011; Holt & Ellis, 1998). Using the present research methodology provided me with a better understanding of quantitative methods used in organizational and applied management research. Additionally, this body of research laid the foundation for the necessary theoretical and practical knowledge and skills I needed to plan and conduct future quantitative research in the funeral service industry.

Study Variables

The study variables were both independent and dependent variables. The biological sex of the participants labeled as male or female, and the nursing and funeral profession are the independent variables as stated in *H*1, *H*2, and *H*3. The dependent variables are the participant's self-perceived gender roles (masculinity, femininity, and androgyny) scores as measured by the BSRI.

The nonexperimental comparative cross-sectional survey research designs are ones in which the independent variable is not manipulated by the researcher; that is, the variables cannot be controlled by the researcher. For example, I cannot manipulate the sex, age, occupation, or educational level of the participants. Aside from looking for naturally occurring patterns, in a nonexperimental design, the researcher has to decide the problem to be investigated, decide on the variables to include in the study, collect data,

analyze the data, and make conclusions based on the results (Bryman, 2012; Fink, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

Another component of this design is the survey or the dependent variable. Survey research is a nonexperimental research method based on questionnaires or interviews (Bryman, 2012; Fink, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). I used the survey data collection method to target a broad cross-section so that generalizations can be made about specific populations. The responses from the survey were used to assess differences among the male and female participants. The cross-sectional survey is the choice for this study because this type of survey can be given to a large group of people at a single point in time and can be used to compare the group characteristics such as gender.

Population

The population for this study is both the target population and the accessible population. The target population for this study is all funeral directors or individuals in the funeral planning industry throughout the United States in which I wish to generalize the study findings. The accessible population is a portion of the target population, and I had reasonable access to these participants during the study. Ludlum and Ludlum (2008) reported an estimated 25,680 funeral directors in the United States and 8,200 embalmers. There were 3.5 million employed nurses in 2011, about 3.2 million of whom were female and 330,000 male. Of the employed nurses, 78% were registered nurses, 19% were licensed practical and licensed vocational nurses, and 3% were nurse practitioners (United State Census Bureau, 2014).

According to the SurveyMonkey administrator, the accessible population included a minimum of 1,230 male and female funeral directors or graduates from approved Mortuary Science programs working in the funeral industry in the Northeastern region of the United States. The accessible population for nurses is approximately 3,500 or more.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

Sampling was both random and convenience sampling. Random sampling is a sampling technique where each individual selected from the accessible population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. By using random sampling, the likelihood of bias is reduced (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Convenience sampling includes individuals who are available and willing to take the survey. The sample was drawn from a list of funeral directors and nurses who are subscribers and members of professional associations listed in the SurveyMonkey database. The minimum sample size was calculated using G*Power version 3.0. Using the MANOVA statistical test and given the effect size of .25 (a medium effect size), alpha .05, and .95 power, the minimal sample size was calculated to be 210 (Bin & Lynn, 2015; Garson, 2015).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The recruitment process consisted of randomly selecting participants online by the SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey.com) database, a commercial online database used worldwide for dissertations. The surveys were distributed to participants after recruitment using the following inclusion criteria:

1. 21 years of age and older.
2. Both male and female funeral service providers who are currently employed in the funeral industry.
3. Graduates from state approved Mortuary Science programs pursuing careers in the funeral service industry.
4. Licensed practical and/or registered male and female nurses.
5. Willing and voluntary participants.

Contact with the participants was initiated via email, inviting them to participate in the study with a website linked to SurveyMonkey. In the initial email, the participant received informed consent (see Appendices B and C) prior to being able to select the link that led the participant to the survey instrument on SurveyMonkey.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The BSRI (see Appendix F) was used to provide an assessment of the degrees of masculinity, femininity, and androgyny (Bem, 1981). The BSRI was developed by Bem in 1971 and was designed to characterize the personality of individuals as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated. The instrument is based on gender stereotypes and used to measure how well people fit into particular gender roles (see Table 1). Although the BSRI (Bem, 1974) instrument can be found in the public domain, I sought written approval to distribute it as part of my research from the authors. The written consent was added to the IRB packet.

As shown in the present study, the short-form (30 items) of the BSRI (see Appendix F) was used: the masculine scale (10 items), the feminine scale (10 items), and

the remaining 10 neutral items (neither high in men nor women characteristics). It is important to note that in the actual scale, the items are not divided according to sex-type but are mixed up in random order. Although the BSRI assessment tool may be found in the public domain, a written expressed letter of consent to reproduce the instrument for group surveys was obtained from the authors or its representative once the design was approved by the dissertation committee and was submitted with the IRB application.

Table 1

Gender Roles of BSRI

Masculinity	Femininity	Androgynous
Defend my own beliefs (1)	Affectionate (2)	Conscientious (3)
Independent (4)	Sympathetic (5)	Moody (6)
Assertive (7)	Sensitive to the needs of others (8)	Reliable (9)
Strong Personality (10)	Understanding (11)	Jealous (12)
Forceful (13)	Compassionate (14)	Truthful (15)
Have leadership abilities (16)	Warm (20)	Secretive (18)
Eagar to smooth hurt feelings (17)	Tender (23)	Adaptive (21)
Willing to take risks (19)	Love Children (26)	Conceited (24)
Dominant (22)	Aggressive (28)	Tactful (27)
Willing to take a stand (25)	Gentle (29)	Conventional (30)

Note. The numbers represent the order in which the questions are asked on the BSRI Short Form instrument.

A survey instrument should be reliable and valid; that is, there should be consistency in how the various items align with the same characteristics being measured. When the survey is repeatedly administered, the results should produce similar results under the same or similar circumstances (Fink, 2013). Validity simply means that the

instrument is constructed to measure what it is intended to measure; in the case of the BSRI, it should measure the traits of masculinity and femininity. Bem's (1974) correlational test for internal stability produced alpha coefficients for masculinity at .86, and for femininity, .80 to .82. In a later study, the androgyny difference scores showed alpha coefficients at .86. Bem also found masculinity and femininity correlations to be .90 in a test-retest over a 4-week period of time.

In recent years, studies have been cited using the BSRI survey instrument. Fisher (2011) conducted a comparative cross-sectional survey to examine gender characteristics of randomly chosen male nurses, female nurses, and male engineers. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between sex and occupation with perceived gender characteristics. The primary aim was to identify how gender male nurses identify with the culturally constructed feminine image of nursing. The hypothesis under investigation was that male nurses would score lower in self-perceived feminine characteristics compared to female nurses but would score higher than male engineers. Additionally, the null hypothesis was tested for self-perceived masculine characteristics that there is no difference in masculine characteristics between male and female nurses and male engineers. Sex role characteristics were measured using the BSRI, Short Form.

The short version of the BSRI consisted of 30 items measuring personality characteristics, 10 of which were stereotypically feminine, 10 stereotypically masculine and 10 characteristics filler items (Bem, 1974). The participants were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale how well each characteristic described them using a scale ranging from 1 (*never* or *almost never true*) to 7 (*always* or *almost always true*). The femininity

and masculinity scores were obtained by calculating the mean score of the femininity and masculinity scales, respectively. The internal consistency for each subscale of the BSRI was estimated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The computed values of Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the feminine and masculine subscales of the BSRI were 0.88 and 0.82, respectively.

With regard to validity, to ensure that the BSRI was valid, the masculinity and femininity scales were analyzed to ensure they measured the same trait. The premise was that masculinity and femininity were independent dimensions of gender and should be measured separately. Bem (1974) demonstrated this premise by correlating scores on the masculine scale and the feminine scale of the BSRI. The computed correlations revealed that the scales were clearly unrelated and functioned independently from each other.

Bem (1974) then verified and confirmed that the scales were measuring masculine and feminine gender characteristics. The mean scores on the masculine and feminine scales for men and women were computed separately. An analysis showed that men scored higher on the masculine items, and women scored higher on the feminine items; thus, it was concluded that the difference was highly statistically significant, hence, the BSRI is a valid instrument.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process followed the procedures by Bem (1981) and replicated the study by Powell and Butterfield (2011) using the Short Form BSRI. The data were collected online via SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey.com), a tool used by many students to conduct research for their dissertations. The participants were assured of

anonymity and confidentiality. SurveyMonkey administrators openly declared that security controls are in place to protect data and that they will not use the information collected from the surveys in any way in violation of the privacy rights of participants. In addition, any other material provided to SurveyMonkey (email addresses) was held in the strictest confidence. All data were backed up daily on SurveyMonkey servers.

A consent form was on the first page of each survey. This form included a data confidentiality statement. At the end of the survey, the participant was given the option to withdraw from the survey. The participants were asked to fill out a two-part survey:

Part 1: Demographics (see Appendix D)

Part 2: the BSRI Short Form (Bem, 1981)

Part 1-A and Part 1-B: The demographics are comprised of eight items. These items assess the individual's biological sex, age, educational level, employment status, and years of employment. In this section, the participants were also asked if they were in a position of hiring a funeral director (or a nurse), how likely would they be to hire a man, or a woman, or the sex does not matter as long as the person was qualified. In addition, the participants were asked to identify the characteristics and qualities that they perceive as indicative of a funeral director (or of nurse).

In Part 2: The short-form of the BSRI, the participants did a self-assessment of how well each of the 30 personality characteristics describe themselves by using a 7-point scale (1 = *almost never true*, 7 = *almost always true*).

Upon completion of the last question of the survey, a message appeared thanking the participant for his or her contribution to the study. If there were any unanswered

questions within the survey, SurveyMonkey redirected the participant to the specific unanswered question before allowing him or her to receive the thank you message. In the event that the participant chose to leave voluntarily prior to completion, the data were collected but not analyzed, and a notation was made of any uncompleted surveys in the result section of Chapter 4.

Data Analysis Plan

The following research questions and hypothesis statements formed the basis for the analysis process:

Research Question 1: What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?

$H1_0$: There are no significant differences in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors as measured by the BSRI.

$H1_a$: There will be significant differences between male and female funeral directors self-perceived gender role characteristics as measured by the BSRI.

DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IV: Gender and occupation (Male and female funeral directors)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

Table 2

Summary of Research Questions and Instrumentation

Research questions	Instrument	Variables	Data analysis
Research Question 1: What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?	Demographics	Categorical	Median Split Chi-square
	Short BSRI	Ordinal Type IV: Gender and occupation DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)	Factorial MANOVA
Research Question 2: What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?	Short BSRI	Ordinal Type IVs: Gender and occupation DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)	Factorial MANOVA
Research Question 3: What interaction is there, if any, between gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses) in perceptions of gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)?	Short BSRI	Ordinal Type IVs: Gender and occupation DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)	Factorial MANOVA

Research Question 2: What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?

$H2_0$: There are no significant differences in perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women as measured by the BSRI.

$H2_a$: There are significant differences in perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women as measured by the BSRI.

DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IV: Gender and occupation (men and women in funeral directing and women and men in nursing)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

Research Question 3: What interaction is there, if any, between gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses) in perceptions of gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)?

$H3_0$: There will be no significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the BSRI.

$H3_a$: There will be a significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the BSRI.

DV: Gender role (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)

IVs: Gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses)

Statistics: Factorial MANOVA

Bem (1974) designed the BSRI to differentiate among masculine, feminine, and androgynous individuals by looking at the difference in the score on the feminine and masculine section of the scale. Bem's scale is comprised of a list of personality characteristics or traits. Gender scores are based on each gender role characteristic that is rated on a scale of 1 to 7. This scale indicates to what degree the participants perceive and describe their particular gender role traits. The response scale is as follows: 1- *Never True,* 2- *Usually Not True,* 3- *Sometimes True,* 4- *Occasionally True,* 5- *Often True,* 6- *Usually True,* and 7- *Always True*.

Scoring

Bem (1974) suggested a method for scoring and interpreting the BSRI. After participants had completed the scale, the participants received three scores: a masculinity score, a femininity score, and an androgyny score. These scores were used to address Research Question 1. The masculinity score was determined by adding up all the scores on the masculine items and dividing by 10 to obtain the average rating on those items, which was repeated to determine the femininity score. The mean score on each of these scales might have ranged from 1.0 to 7.0. The androgyny score was determined by subtracting the masculinity score from the femininity score. The androgyny scores might have ranged from -6 to +6. For example, a woman's BSRI masculinity score is 2.5 and

her femininity score is 5.4. The 5.4 score subtracted from 2.5 equals an androgyny score of 2.9.

In summary, Bem's (1974) scoring on the BSRI was interpreted as follows:

- Scores closest to zero indicate androgyny.
- Scores farther away from zero in the plus direction indicate greater femininity as indicated.
- When scores move farther away from zero in the minus direction, greater masculinity is indicated (-1.0 or greater).

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to describe and summarize data. Statistics was calculated using SPSS 22.1 software. Descriptive statistics were used to obtain a general overview of the sample under study. The mean scores and standard deviations of the female nurses, male funeral directors, and female funeral directors were computed for masculinity, femininity, androgyny on the BSRI. The BSRI was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis to validate it as a measure of gender roles in this population of funeral directors and nurses. Results were reported for the total sample.

In the literature, there were multiple methods cited for classifying participants into gender roles. A commonly used method, the *median split*, was used to classify the gender roles of the participants. This method ascribed by Bem (1981) was used in recent studies by Gale-Ross, Baird, and Towson (2009) and Fisher (2011). The premise is that when using this method, the researcher avoids methodological issues that may occur when multiple approaches are used (Field, 2009; Mears, 2012; Tse & Troth, 2013; Zhao,

Kessel, & Kratzer, 2014). First, the median for the whole sample was computed for the masculine and the feminine scales following Bem's original median split method. Participants were categorized as masculine gender-typed, feminine gender-typed, or androgynous. If the individual's mean scores on both the masculine and feminine scales were equal to or above the median, the participants were classified as androgynous.

Females were coded as 0 and males coded as 1. Between-groups comparison of categorical variables (male, female) was performed using the chi-square analysis and comparisons of proportions. A factorial MANOVA was conducted, with gender and occupation entered as independent variables, to determine whether gender role characteristic scores (feminine, masculine, and androgynous) differed across the dependent variables. Because I extended the number of independent variables, the factorial design offered greater efficiency for analyzing these multiple independent variables simultaneously (Horovitz, Matson, & Sipes, 2011). I also tested for an *interaction effect* between the independent variables.

Threats to Validity

Some of the most common threats to validity in quantitative research noted by Henderson, Kimmelman, Fergusso, Grimshaw, and Hackam (2013); Purpura, Brown, and Schoonen (2015); Schmitt and Millard, (1988); and Rideout and Gray (2013) include elements such as self-selection effects, volunteer effects, attrition, and communication among subjects. The impacts of self-selection present themselves if subjects are not randomly assigned to the groups that interest the researcher (Vogt, 2007), which means that the participants assign themselves to their own groups and are not randomly

assigned. The participants were randomly selected by the survey administrator to avoid self-selection.

Ethical Considerations

The aim of the study was to protect the rights of the research participants during data collection and throughout this study. To do so, researchers comply with all principles and guidelines required by Walden University Institutional Review Board (Approval # 04-06-15-0034948). All participation was voluntary, and no participants were coerced into participating in the study. Prospective research participants were fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in the study and were provided with an electronic consent form. All data were stored on a USB flash drive in a secured locked file cabinet for 5 years and later destroyed in a secure manner to protect the privacy of the participants.

The participants were not subjected to physical and psychological harm. Participants could be assured of anonymity. No identifying information was made available to anyone who was not directly involved in the study and in the research. Because of the online data collection process, participants' information was anonymous, even to the researcher. There was no compensation for participants in the study.

Summary

Chapter 3 focused on the research design and methodology that were used to investigate the issues and test the hypothesis of this body of research. The research design and rationale, the methodology, procedures for recruitment, participation, data collection, and data analysis were discussed. The selected research design was quantitative cross-

sectional survey design. Quantitative research involves the collection of numerical data. Nonexperimental research designs are ones where the independent variable is not manipulated by the researcher, such as the sex of participant, which occurs because the variables cannot be controlled by the researcher (Fink, 2013). In summary, in this study, I sought to determine if there were no differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics, as measured in the BSRI, between male and female funeral directors. In addition, in this study, I evaluated the self-perceived gender roles differences, as measured in the BSRI, between female funeral directors and female nurses. Chapter 4 reports the results from the study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The primary purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental study was to investigate and compare self-described gender role differences among male and female funeral directors from approved mortuary science programs. The aim was to determine the extent to which self-perceived gender role differences existed across different industries, and to determine if there was an interaction between sex and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics in the funeral and nursing professions. The following research questions and hypothesis statements were the basis for implementing the research process:

Research Question 1: What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?

$H1_0$: There are no significant differences in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

$H1_a$: There are significant differences in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors self-perceived gender role characteristics as measured by the BSRI.

Research Question 2: What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?

$H2_0$: There are no significant differences in the perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women as measured by the BSRI.

$H2_a$: There are significant differences in perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women as measured by the BSRI.

Research Question 3: What interaction is there, if any, between gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses) in perceptions of gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)?

$H3_0$: There is no significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the BSRI.

$H3_a$: There is a significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the BSRI.

The organization of Chapter 4 is divided into four sections: A pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument. Also in this section are the procedures and data collection process that describe the statistical methods used to evaluate the raw data. Finally, a data analysis was conducted to interpret the results.

Pilot Procedure

Prior to conducting the research for this study, a pilot sample of funeral directors (n = 5) and nurses (n = 5) was surveyed. The aim was to pretest Bem's (1994) survey

instrument for this population of individuals. As a result of the pilot, I elected to construct two distinct survey instruments, one for nurses and the other for funeral service providers, to provide more clarity and a minimum of confusion with respect to the survey instrument. Each survey reported a Cronbach Alpha reliability > .70. There was no impact from the pilot study, and I did not change the instrument or the data analysis strategy. The pilot participant's results were not included in the data obtained from the sample population.

Data Collection Process

The collection of data took place over a 6-week period of time. Sampling was both random and convenient sampling. The sample was drawn from a list of more than 850 funeral directors obtained from a list of Afsep, a limited liability company and 225 nurses obtained from the SurveyMonkey register of nurses. There was a 15% response rate from the funeral directors and a 44% response rate from the nurses.

The final sample for this study was 214 respondents. There were 113 males (n = 88) and female (n = 25) FSPs. The nurse sample (n = 101) consisted of 37 men and 64 women, respectively. The employment status of the FSPs varied widely with nearly one-third (n = 40) employed as funeral directors. The majority (63.4%) of the nurses described themselves as educators.

Upon approval of Walden's IRB (Approval # 04-06-15-0034948), contact with the participants was initiated via email through a website linked to SurveyMonkey. I created two separate surveys combined with two separate Informed Consent forms, one for FSPs and a form for nurses (see Appendix B and C). The short-form BSRI was used

to measure the self-perceived gender role characteristics with the masculine scale (10 items), feminine scale (10 items), and androgyny (10 items). Written approval to distribute it was obtained from the author (see Appendix E). The items were not grouped according to gender characteristics but were mixed in random order. In the data collection process, any participant who failed to answer all the demographic questions, in conjunction with the BSRI questions, was disqualified, and his or her results were discarded. There were five funeral directors and two nurses' results that were discarded and not included in this study as a result of a lack of information. The gender role characteristics are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Gender Roles of BSRI Conversion Codes

Masculinity	Femininity	Androgynous
MAS 1 = Defend my own beliefs	FEM 1 = Affectionate	AND 1 = Conscientious
MAS 2 = Independent MAS 3 = Assertive	FEM 2 = Sympathetic	AND 2 = Moody
MAS 4 = Strong personality	FEM 3 = Sensitive to the needs of others	AND 3 = Reliable
MAS 5 = Forceful	FEM 4 = Understanding	AND 4 = Jealous
MAS 6 = Have leadership abilities	FEM 5 = Compassionate	AND 5 = Truthful
MAS 7 = Eager to smooth hurt feelings	FEM 6 = Warm	AND 6 = Secretive
MAS 8 = Willing to take risks	FEM 7 = Tender	AND 7 = Adaptive
MAS 9 = Dominant	FEM 8 = Love children	AND 8 = Conceited
MAS 10 = Willing to take a stand	FEM 9 = Aggressive	AND 9 = Tactful
	FEM 10 = Gentle	AND 10 = Conventional

The BSRI demonstrated a high level of internal consistency (see Table 4).

Table 4

Bem's Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items	*N* of items
.787	.810	30

The reliability statistics as shown in Table 4 indicated that the Cronbach's Alpha based on the standardized items (30) of .810 was reasonably reliable for the participants in the study. Fink (2013) noted that a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered "acceptable" using Cronbach's Alpha.

Sample Demographics Characteristics

The sample for this study was comprised of 214 respondents. There were 113 male (n = 88) and female (n = 25) FSPs. The nurse sample (n = 101) respondents were 37 male and 64 females, respectively (see Table 5).

Table 5

Gender Representation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Male nurses	37	17.3	17.3	17.3
Female nurses	64	29.9	29.9	47.2
Male FSPs	88	41.1	41.1	88.3
Female FSPs	25	11.7	11.7	100.0
Total	214	100.0	100.0	

The employment status of the FSPs varied widely with nearly one-third (n = 40) employed as funeral directors represented in Table 6. Table 7, that follows, represents the occupation status of the nurses with the majority (63.4%) describing themselves as educators.

Table 6

Occupations of FSPs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Cemetery	3	2.7	2.7
educator	27	23.9	23.9
Embalmer	1	.9	.9
Employed in another profession	10	8.8	8.8
Funeral director	40	35.4	35.4
Manager	7	6.2	6.2
Owner	25	22.1	22.1
Total	113	100.0	100.0

Table 7

Occupation of Nurses

Occupations	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Educator	64	63.4	63.4
Employed in hospital	37	36.6	36.6
Total	101	100.0	100.0

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Composite scores were calculated by averaging mean scores for each category of gender traits: femininity, masculinity, and androgyny as shown in Table 8. The possible

range of the mean scores was between 1 and 7. The average mean and standard deviations are displayed in Table 8.

Statistical Assumptions

The statistical assumption in this study was that all the participants answered the gender role questions based on their own experience as a funeral director or a nurse. It was a further assumed that the gender role characteristics of funeral directors and nurses are unique to their occupation and that because both professions are caregiving professions, there should be some similarities in the results despite the fact that one profession is male dominant (funeral directing) and the other is female dominant (nursing). I assumed that participants' responses would reflect honesty and thoughtfulness. I had no interactions with the participants during the study to prevent statistical bias. Finally, it was assumed that all the participants were graduates from either an accredited mortuary science program or an accredited nursing program, and they were currently licensed to practice within their respective occupation. I applied consistency in the data collection process and the survey instrument and effectively measured the intended construct, a test of validity and reliability (Creswell, 2003).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics

	Occupation	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*
Masculine average	Funeral directors	Males	5.1023	.83101	88
		Females	5.0800	.57155	25
		Total	5.0973	.77879	113
	Nurses	Males	5.4054	.49774	37
		Females	4.8438	.83986	64
		Total	5.0495	.77944	101
	Total	Males	5.1920	.75878	125
		Females	4.9101	.77812	89
		Total	5.0748	.77763	214
Androgyny average	Funeral directors	Males	5.0227	.47892	88
		Females	5.0400	.35119	25
		Total	5.0265	.45238	113
	Nurses	Males	4.4054	.49774	37
		Females	4.3750	.48795	64
		Total	4.3861	.48929	101
	Total	Males	4.8400	.55938	125
		Females	4.5618	.54262	89
		Total	4.7243	.56806	214
Feminine average	Funeral directors	Males	5.6136	.68534	88
		Females	5.3600	.95219	25
		Total	5.5575	.75520	113
	Nurses	Males	5.5135	.50671	37
		Females	5.6563	.47871	64
		Total	5.6040	.49151	101
	Total	Males	5.5840	.63733	125
		Females	5.5730	.65518	89
		Total	5.5794	.64331	214

Hypothesis 1

$H1_0$: There are no significant differences in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors as measured by the BSRI.

For *H*1, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine and androgyny were the same or different for the occupations of male and female funeral directors. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices was tested. Specifically, Box's M test was conducted to determine if the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups. Test results revealed that the assumption was met: $F(6,11583) = 2.504$, $p = .020$. Pillai's Trace and Hotelling-Lawley trace were used as measures of effect. Pillai's trace is considered the most reliable of the multivariate measures and offers the greatest protection against Type I errors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The Hotelling-Lawley Trace is generally used when the independent variable forms two groups and represents the most significant linear combination of the dependent variables.

Based on findings from the MANOVA test conducted in SPSS 22.1, there was no statistically significant difference in combined gender role (masculine, feminine and androgyny) as a condition of funeral director's gender, F (3, 109) = .869, p =.459; Pillai's Trace = 0.234, partial η^2 = .023. For Hotelling-Lawley Trace, F (3, 109) = .869, p =.459; Hotelling-Lawley trace = 0.234, partial η^2 = .023. Results from the MANOVA test are displayed in Table 9. Since the multivariate test was not significant, conducting independent ANOVA's was not appropriate.

Table 9

MANOVA Test for FSPs

	Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Powerc
Intercept	Hotelling's Trace	110.692	4021.827	3	109	0	0.991	1.00
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.023	0.869	3	109	0.459	0.023	2.34
Gender	Hotelling's Trace	0.024	0.869	3	109	0.459	0.023	0.234

As displayed in Table 9, the Hotelling-Lawley Trace output value for gender (.459) was not significant. The multivariate partial ETA squared ($\eta^{2=}$ .023) indicated that 2.3% of variance of the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine, and androgyny was accounted for by gender. Because output data revealed no significant differences among gender and the three dependent variables, a post hoc MANOVA was not conducted. Therefore, I retained the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2

H2$_0$: There are no significant differences in the perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations (funeral directors and nurses) that are dominated by men or dominated by women as measured by the BSRI. For *H2*, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine, and androgyny were the same or different for different occupations.

Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices was tested. That is, Box's M test was conducted to determine if the observed

covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups. Test results revealed that the assumption was not met: F (6,314765) = 6.885, p < .001. Given that Box's M test was significant, Pillai's Trace and Hotelling-Lawley trace was used as measures of effect.

Based on findings, there was a statistically significant difference in combined gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine and androgyny) as a function of occupation, F (3, 210) = .869, p < .001; Hotelling-Lawley trace = 0.560, partial η2 = .359. For Pillai's Trace, F (3, 210) = 39.193, p < .001; Pillai's Trace = 0.359, partial η2 = .359. The results of the MANOVA test are displayed in Table 10. Because the multivariate test was significant, conducting independent ANOVA's was undertaken.

Table 10

Multivariate Test for Occupation

Effect		Value	Exact *F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig. (*p*)	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.993	10201.351b	3	210	0.000	0.993	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	145.734	10201.351b	3	210	0.000	0.993	1.00
Occupa-tion	Pillai's Trace	0.359	39.193	3	210	0.000	0.359	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	0.560	39.193	3	210	0.000	0.359	1.00

Post hoc testing revealed a nonsignificant difference in masculinity and femininity as a function of occupation; F(1,212) = .201, p = .654, partial eta-squared = .001; F(1,212) = .277, p = 599, partial eta-squared = .001 respectively. However, after

correcting for family-wise error using Bonferroni's method (p/number of DVs = 0.17), there was a significant difference in androgyny characteristics between occupation type (Funeral Director, Nurses), $F(1,212) = 98.953$, $p < .001$ (Table 11).

Table 11

Test of Between Subjects Effects as a Function of Occupation

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Masculinity	.122a	1	0.122	0.201	0.654	0.001
	Androgyny	21.873b	1	21.873	98.953	0	0.318
	Femininity	.115c	1	0.115	0.277	0.599	0.001
Intercept	Masculinity	5490.963	1	5490.963	9046.231	0.000	0.977
	Androgyny	4725.125	1	4725.125	21376.57	0.000	0.990
	Femininity	6644.003	1	6644.003	15999.73	0.000	0.987
Occupation	Masculinity	0.122	1	0.122	0.201	0.654	0.001
	Androgyny	21.873	1	21.873	98.953	0.000	0.318
	Femininity	0.115	1	0.115	0.277	0.599	0.001
Error	Masculinity	128.682	212	0.607			
	Androgyny	46.861	212	0.221			
	Femininity	88.035	212	0.415			
Total	Masculinity	5640	214				
	Androgyny	4845	214				
	Femininity	6750	214				
Corrected Total	Masculinity	128.804	213				
	Androgyny	68.734	213				
	Femininity	88.15	213				

Figure 2 displays the estimated marginal means of average androgyny for funeral directors and nurses. Average androgyny score for nurses was 4.386 while average androgyny score for funeral directors was 5.026. Accordingly, funeral directors scored higher on the androgyny scale than did nurses.

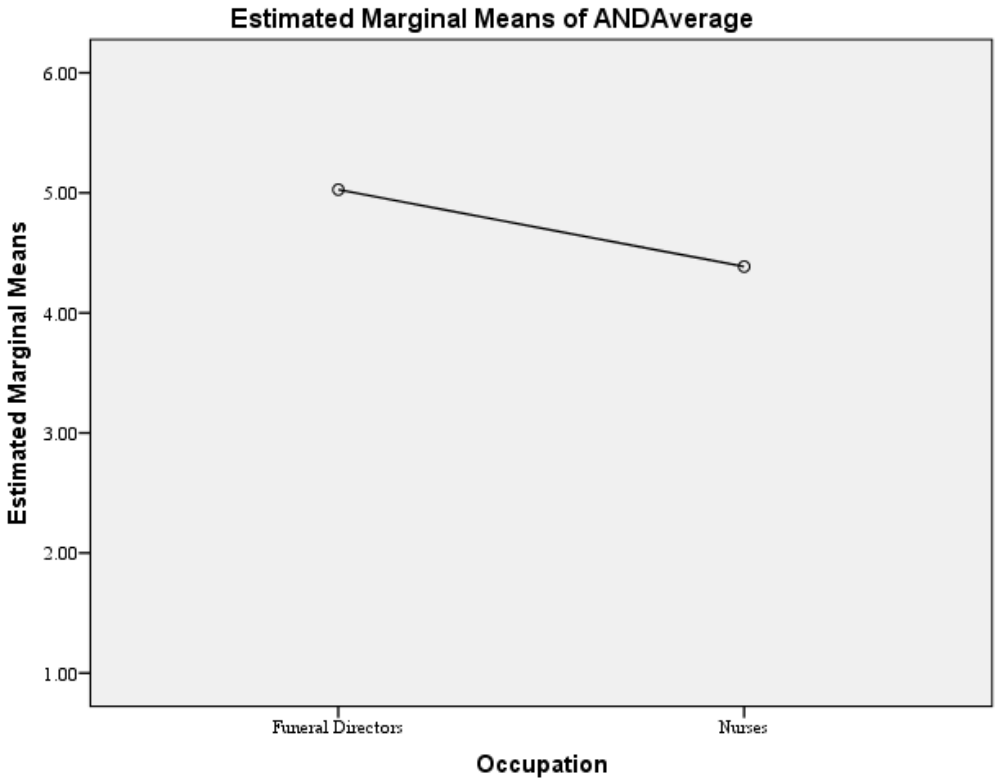

Figure 2. Estimated marginal means of average androgyny for funeral directors and nurses

Hypothesis 3

H3$_0$: There is no significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses as measured by the BSRI.

For *H3*, a factorial MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine and androgyny characteristics were the same or different for different occupations by gender.

Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices was tested. Box's M test was used to determine if the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups. Test results revealed that the assumption was not met: $F(12,24816) = 3.783$, $p < .001$. Given that Box's M test was significant, Pillai's Trace and Hotelling-Lawley trace was used as measures of effect.

Based on findings from testing Hypothesis 3, there was a statistically significant difference in combined gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine and androgyny) as a function of occupation by gender, F (3, 208) = 3.94, $p < .001$; Hotelling-Lawley trace = 0.057, partial $\eta^2 = .054$. For Pillai's Trace, F (3, 208) = 3.94, $p < .001$; Pillai's Trace = 0.054, partial $\eta^2 = .054$.The results of the MANOVA test is displayed in Table 12. Because the multivariate test was significant, an independent ANOVA test was conducted.

Table 12

Results of the MANOVA Test

Effect		Value	Exact *F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.991	8070.07	3	208	0.000	0.991	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	116.395	8070.07	3	208	0.000	0.991	1.000
Occupation * Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.054	3.94	3	208	0.009	0.054	0.826
	Hotelling's Trace	0.057	3.94	3	208	0.009	0.054	0.826

Post hoc testing revealed a nonsignificant difference in androgyny characteristics as a function of occupation by gender; $F(1,210) = .108$, $p = .742$, partial eta-squared = .001; however, after correcting for family-wise error using Bonferroni's method (p/number of DVs = 0.17), there was no significant difference in masculinity and femininity characteristics between occupation type by gender, Masculinity $F(1,210) = 5.358$, $p = .022$; Femininity $F(1,210) = 4.066$, $p = .045$ (Table 13).

Table 13

Test of Between Subjects Effects as a Function of Occupation by Gender

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	Partial Eta Sq	Observed Power
Corrected Model	Masculinity	7.528a	3	2.509	4.345	0.005	0.058	0.865
	Androgyny	21.900b	3	7.300	32.733	0.000	0.319	1.000
	Femininity	1.845c	3	0.615	1.497	0.217	0.021	0.392
Intercept	Masculinity	4440.146	1	4440.146	7688.503	0.000	0.973	1.000
	Androgyny	3776.644	1	3776.644	16934.369	0.000	0.988	1.000
	Femininity	5215.409	1	5215.409	12690.387	0.000	0.984	1.000
Occupation * Gender	Masculinity	3.095	1	3.095	5.358	0.022	0.025	0.635
	Androgyny	0.024	1	0.024	0.108	0.742	0.001	0.062
	Femininity	1.671	1	1.671	4.066	0.045	0.019	0.519
Error	Masculinity	121.276	210	0.578				
	Androgyny	46.833	210	0.223				
	Femininity	86.304	210	0.411				
Total	Masculinity	5640	214					
	Androgyny	4845	214					
	Femininity	6750	214					
Corrected Total	Masculinity	128.804	213					
	Androgyny	68.734	213					
	Femininity	88.15	213					

Figure 3 displays the estimated marginal means plot of masculinity as a function of the interaction term (gender by occupation). Findings did not support the alternative hypothesis that that the interaction term (Gender by Occupation) affected masculinity characteristics. That is, after correcting for family-wise error, a significant difference in masculinity between genders by occupation was not found.

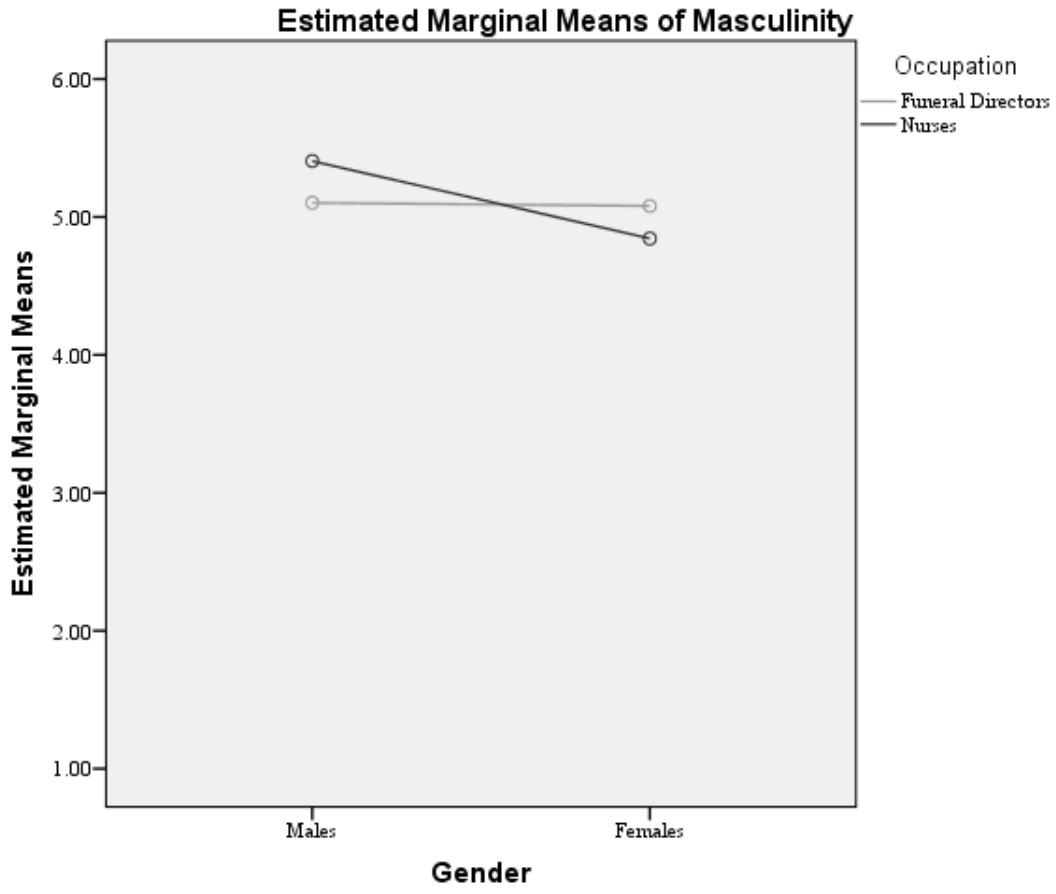

Figure 3. Estimated marginal means plot of masculinity as a function of the interaction term (gender by occupation)

Figure 4 displays the estimated marginal means plot of femininity as a function of the interaction term (gender by occupation). Findings did not support the alternative hypothesis that that the interaction term (Gender by Occupation) affected femininity characteristics. That is, after correcting for family-wise error, a significant difference in femininity between genders by occupation was not found.

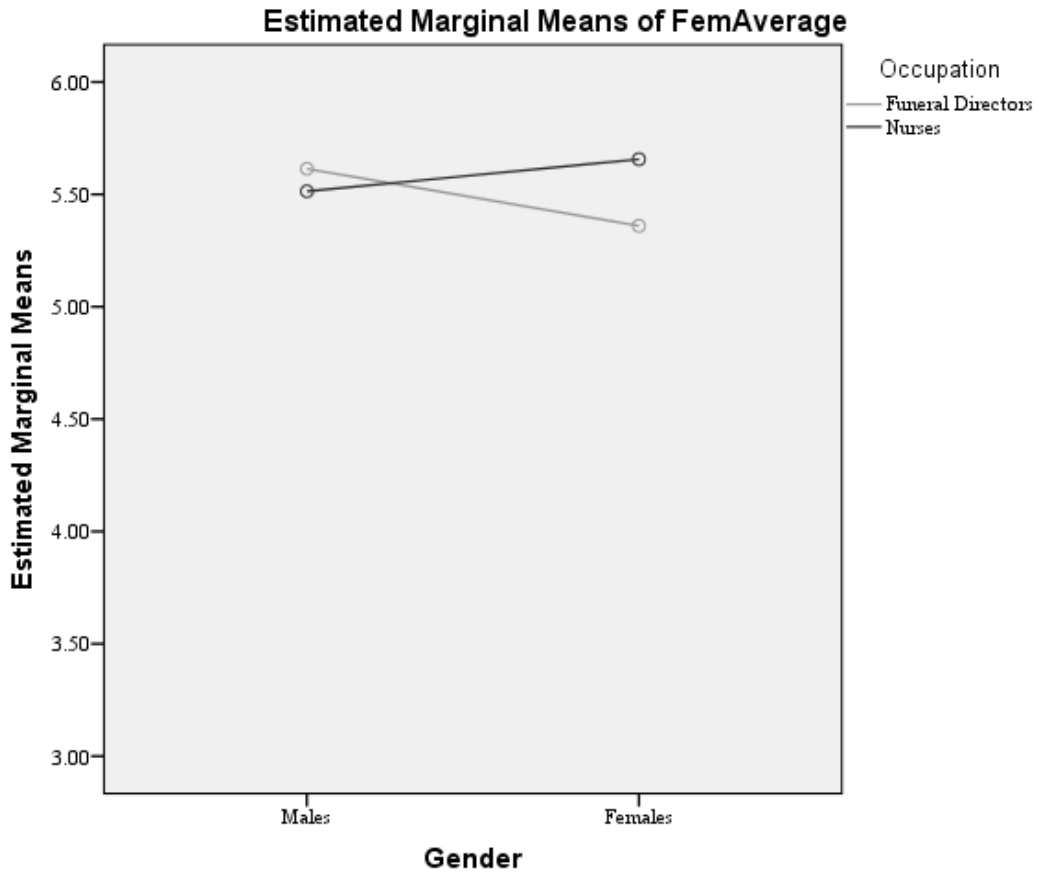

Figure 4. Estimated marginal means plot of femininity as a function of the interaction term (gender by occupation)

Summary of Results

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate and compare gender role differences among male and female funeral service professionals, and to determine whether gender role differences existed across different occupations that were either dominated by men or dominated by women. The final purpose was to determine if there were an interaction between sex and occupation in the perceived gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses. The short-form BSRI was used to measure the self-perceived gender role characteristics of masculine, feminine, and androgyny. Participants' responses were entered into SPSS and analyzed using a factorial MANOVA procedure (Green & Salkind, 2013). Results of the analysis provided answers for the research questions and support for the 3 test hypotheses.

Research Question 1: What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine, and androgyny were the same or different for the occupations of male and female funeral directors. Test results revealed that the assumption was met. Pillai's Trace and Hotelling-Lawley trace were used as measures of effect. Based on findings from the MANOVA test, there was no statistically significant difference in combined gender roles as a condition of funeral director's gender. Because

the multivariate test was not significant, conducting independent ANOVAs was not appropriate. The null hypothesis was retained.

Research Question 2: What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables of masculine, feminine, and androgyny were the same or different for different occupations. Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices was tested. Based on findings, there was a statistically significant difference in combined gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine and androgyny) as a function of occupation. Because the multivariate test was significant, independent ANOVAs were undertaken.

Post hoc testing revealed a nonsignificant difference in masculinity and femininity as a function of occupation. However, after correcting for family-wise error using Bonferroni's method (*p*/number of DVs = 0.17), there was a significant difference in androgyny characteristics between occupation type (funeral director, nurses).
The average androgyny score for nurses was 4.386 while average androgyny score for funeral directors was 5.026. Accordingly, funeral directors scored higher on the androgyny scale compared to nurses.

Research Question 3: What interactions are there, if any, between gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses)?

For *H3*, a factorial MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the combined dependent variables were the same or different for different occupations by gender. Prior

to conducting the analysis, the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices was tested. Test results revealed that the assumption was not met, and subsequently the Pillai's Trace and Hotelling-Lawley trace was used as measures of effect. Based on findings from testing Hypothesis 3, there was a statistically significant difference in combined gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine and androgyny) as a function of occupation by gender. Because the multivariate test was significant, independent ANOVA tests were conducted.

Post hoc testing revealed a nonsignificant difference in androgyny characteristics as a function of occupation by gender. After correcting for family-wise error using Bonferroni's method (*p*/number of DVs = 0.17), there was no significant difference in masculinity and femininity characteristics between occupation type by gender. Findings did not support the alternative hypothesis that the interaction term (gender by occupation) affected femininity characteristics. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

In Chapter 5, I include an interpretation of the results of this study and summarize the limitations to these findings. Chapter 5 also includes a discussion of recommendations for further research in light of the findings and continued gaps in the literature. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications of social change and informed recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Gender inequality in organizations has been transformed over the past 3 decades, and significant strides have been made towards parity (Cuadrado et al., 2012; Germain et al., 2012; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Lips (2013) stated that gender equality is still unbalanced in male dominated professions. The aim of this study was to fill the gap in the literature that addresses the perceived gender role characteristics of male and female funeral directors. By examining the relationship between gender role characteristics of men and women funeral directors (a male dominated profession) and nurses (a female dominated profession), and any interactions between gender roles and occupation, the data can be used to identify the qualities necessary in becoming a funeral director or a nurse. Three research questions were developed to evaluate the gender role characteristics of FSP and nurses:

1. What are the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors?
2. What are the differences in gender role perceptions across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women?
3. What interactions are there, if any, between gender and occupation (male and female funeral directors and male and female nurses) in perceptions of gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny)?

The BSRI short form was used for both groups to understand the gender role characteristics (masculine, feminine, and androgynous) of the participants. Separate demographic questions were asked that were specific to each occupation. Once the participants completed the demographic and informed consent form, they gained access to the BSRI. The participants who identified themselves as FSP or nurses rated their perceived gender role characteristics on a 7-point Likert Scale.

The first hypothesis ($H1_a$) for this study was that there would be a significant difference in the gender role characteristics between male and female funeral directors as measured by the BSRI. The findings indicated that there were no statistically significant mean differences between the gender role characteristics of men and women FSP. The second hypothesis ($H2_a$) was that there would be a significant difference in perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) across different occupations that are dominated by men or dominated by women. The findings revealed evidence to reject the null hypothesis as it relates to the feminine and masculine characteristics. However, the results did indicate that there were significant differences in the androgynous characteristics. It appears that funeral directors are more androgynous than nurses. Finally, the third hypothesis ($H3_a$) was that there would be a significant interaction between gender and occupation in perceived gender role characteristics in male and female funeral directors and nurses. Again, the findings produced no evidence to support the alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis for $H3_0$ was retained.

Interpretation of Findings

When asked, "If you were in a hiring position, would you hire a male, female, or doesn't matter as long as the person was qualified?" an interesting pattern emerged from this question. This demographic question was designed to test how a person in an authority position would react in the hiring process. Grissom, Nicholson-Critty, and (2012) suggested an effect on employee retention based on if supervisors are male or female. All of the nurses surveyed indicated that gender did not matter as long as the person was qualified. However, a small percentage, about 8% of the funeral directors surveyed, indicated that they would only hire men if they were in a position for hiring a funeral director. While this number is statistically insignificant, it demonstrates that there are pockets of gender bias that exist within the funeral profession. Further investigation of the men who would only hire male funeral directors revealed that the age range of these respondents was between 55 and 73, which is consistent with the findings from the Pew Research Center (2013) that suggested the gender gap is narrowing with respect to gender bias in the workplace.

On the other hand, Way and Marques (2013) discovered that 38% of the teaching participants surveyed stated that they would only hire men in educational leadership positions even though the industry is strongly dominated by women. It is evident that gender bias may be narrowing across the United States; however, it is still prevalent. Such bias still exists throughout a multitude of professions for unknown reasons. "Think funeral director – think male" may still be a perception among some funeral directors because as a society, perceptions of gender association to professions may still prevail

culturally, as noted by McLean and Unter (2010). Despite the majority of funeral directors indicating in this survey that they would hire a funeral director not based on their sex, Donley (2014) clearly stated that even though the feminization of women in mortuary science programs has proliferated numerically over the past 15 years, there still are dovetail signs of sexism, male chauvinism, and discrimination within the profession. This plight of women in funeral services is prevalent based on Cathles et al. (2010) who noted that in over the past 15 years of upward stratification for women in funeral services, the demographics have remained below 20%.

Grissom et al. (2012) discovered that gender matters more for men in supervisory roles than for women. All the nurses and 92% of the funeral directors surveyed indicated that they would hire a person who was qualified for the position, which demonstrates that gender does not matter in either the male dominant or female dominant caregiving professions. There are two assumed behaviors within both professions; that is, getting the job done efficiently and being concerned about the welfare of others. I discovered that the two gender role characteristics that best represent these assumed behaviors in the BSRI was sensitivity to the needs of others and conscientiousness. Funeral service providers acknowledged that sensitivity to the needs of others (M = 6.19) and conscientiousness (M = 6.36) was consistent with the nurses' scores (sensitivity to the needs of others [M = 6.34] and conscientiousness [M = 6.29]).

In the first research question of this study, I examined the differences between the self-perceived gender role characteristics (masculinity, femininity, or androgyny) of male and female funeral directors. In this study, the results of MANOVA analysis revealed that

there was a not a statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between the gender role characteristics of male and female FSPs. The sample of the male of FSPs adhered to more feminine gender role traits ($m = 5.67$) than did the sample of female FSPs ($m = 5.54$). The results indicated that FSP identified with mostly androgynous roles, such as being trustful ($M = 6.64$), conscientious ($M = 6.53$) and adaptive ($M = 6.04$), and feminine roles, compassionate ($M = 6.19$), sensitive to the needs of others ($M = 6.19$), sympathetic ($M = 6.12$), and love children ($M = 5.86$); the FSP top masculine gender role characteristics were having leadership abilities ($M = 6.26$) and independence ($M = 6.17$).

On the other hand, the gender role characteristics of nurses did reveal a statistical difference between the gender role characteristics of male and female nurses. The findings indicated that between occupations, there were no significant differences between nurses and FSPs with respect to masculine and feminine gender role characteristics. However, the findings indicated that FSPs scored higher in androgynous gender role characteristics than did nurses. In contrast to the Fisher (2011) study, these results revealed that male nurses identified with the feminine gender role characteristics, and there was a lack of statistical significance that supports feminine gender role traits. Such results are consistent with Kaldor's (2013) findings that acknowledge that feminine characteristics are traditionally associated with caring and nurturing emotions. Because there was no significant difference between the feminine and masculine characteristics, there was a significant difference in the androgynous characteristics.

Širec and Močnik (2012) studied the gender differences and the personal characteristics of Slovenian entrepreneurs. While Širec and Močnik did find a statistical

difference in the psychological motivating factors between the genders, they did not find a significant difference between the human capital of male and female entrepreneurs. The current study supports the work of Širec and Močnik regarding soft skills, which best represents the personal skills necessary to connect to the grieving experience in funeral directing, that appear to be similar in male and female FSPs.

The Fisher (2011) study failed to determine if there was an interaction between sex and occupations as identified in the perceived gender role characteristics of the participants. My study sought to fill this gap in the literature. When comparing the mean scores of FSP and nurses, there appeared to be similarities in the top 10 responses in both groups. With the exception of jealousy, the mean gender role characteristics scores are in close similarity between men and women FSP and nurses. Both groups identified with androgynous roles, such as being trustful (FSP*M* = 6.64, nurses *M* = 6.37), conscientious (FSP*M* = 6.53, nurses *M* = 6.29) and adaptive (FSP*M* = 6.04, nurses *M* = 6.01); and feminine gender roles, compassionate (FSP*M* = 6.19, nurses *M* = 6.36), sensitive to the needs of others (FSP*M* = 6.19, nurses *M* = 6.34), sympathetic (FSP*M* = 6.12, nurses *M* = 5.80) and love children (FSP*M* = 5.86, nurses *M* = 6.20); and masculine gender roles leadership abilities (FSP*M* = 6.26, nurses *M* = 5.70) and independence (FSP*M* = 6.19, nurses *M* = 6.06). Initially, I determined that the nursing profession was closely related to the funeral profession because both were caregivers that provided care for people in their community during their time of need.

As researchers Bem (1974), Ballard-Reisch and Eltonm (1992), and Whitley (1984) explained, androgynous behavior is not a polar opposite of masculine or feminine

gender role characteristics. Individuals could possess high levels of masculine or feminine gender role characteristics; however, androgynous characteristics suggest a behavioral flexibility that is situationally appropriate. Ballard-Reisch and Eltonm (1992) stated that the driving force in social change is an ability to demonstrate flexible behaviors within the context of a complex situation in order to meet social demand or an organization needs. Bem (1977, 1979) suggested that androgynous gender role characteristics nurture a fully assimilated individual who is socially adjusted and possesses the flexibility to change in complex situations.

In the funeral profession, regarding the growing complexities of family dynamics during the grieving process and in nursing regarding the various psychological needs associated with caring for the infirmed, an androgynous gender role orientation can maximize the psychological well-being of the caregiver (Whitley, 1984). This concept is consistent with Vafaei et al. (2014), who found that mobility and physical and psychological health was better in individuals with androgynous natures as opposed to more masculine or feminine ones. The results from Research Question 2 indicated that funeral directors are more androgynous than are nurses. Thus, the latter would be consistent with the seminal research (Ballard-Reisch & Eltonm, 1992; Bem, 1974; Whitley, 1984). Above all, this finding is significant considering that funeral directors have been perceived by society in a masculine gender role; however, their occupational fingerprint appears to be androgynous in nature. Gender neutral occupational identity could influence whom the funeral profession attracts in the future.

Limitations of the Study

An appropriate sample size of 210 participants was determined by using G*Power version 3. Two sources were used to acquire the needed participants for this study; that is, a database from AFSEP, LLC for the funeral service providers and a database from SurveyMonkey for the nurses were used. Even though the group of FSPs had different roles (i.e., owner, manager, embalmer, or funeral director) the genotype of this group took an active role in the direct care of the living and the dead.

The major limitation of this study was the unequal variances in terms of sample size, which may have accounted for the Type 1 error. The Box M test further validated the findings. Future studies should consider occupational comparison groups consisting of equal numbers of male and female samples. All participants were licensed nurses; however, the research sample nurses was comprised of male practitioners who worked in hospital settings and engaged in direct patient care while the female nursing instructors teach nursing from a theoretical point of view. The two groups could potentially possess different perceptions of their gender role within the profession. While an assumption can be made that nursing instructors had to practice nursing at one point in a career prior to being educators, I argued that teaching concepts about nursing employ a different set of cognitive skills that may differ from actually engaging in the practice of nursing care in a clinical setting. An assumption can be made that the reason there were statistically significant differences in gender role characteristics between funeral directors and nurses could be that the nursing participants were a less homogeneous group who actively engaged in the active clinical practice of nursing.

Furthermore, Wang and Elston (2005) noted that population stratification could have a confounding effect on the nonreplication of traits of interest. Fisher (2011) identified feminine gender role characteristics with a more homogeneous sample in nature. The small sample size of nurses compared to that of funeral directors could be an additional limitation in this study. Kühberger, Fritz, and Scherndl (2014) stated that a small sample size could lead to an overestimation of the true effect within a study. Considering that the number of participants for this study was determined by G*Power, it is important to note that because the nurse participants were not homogeneous, the male and female nurses should be considered subgroups, thus creating a size bias within this study. The parameters for evaluating the gender role characteristics in nurses needed to be narrower in its scope of selection.

Recommendations

Future researchers need to consider homogeneous groups when testing for gender role characteristics. In addition, a mixed-method study should be used to understand better why the gender role characteristics are an integral part of the behavior traits of funeral directors. In this study, I examined current funeral service providers; however, future researchers should look at mortuary science graduates who abandoned their career choice to determine if there was a misalignment in gender role characteristics. By studying gender role characteristics as they relate to career choice, future researchers can identify factors that might lead to employee retention. Such research could answer the question of why women choose funeral directing as a profession but often later abandon their career decision.

While gender role characteristics may be similar for nurses and men, people have a tendency to leave academic programs and places of employment for a multitude of reasons. Severiens and Dam (2012) noted that one of the reasons people leave academic programs is that the quality of the educational program. Patterson (2010) asserted that part of quality mortuary science education is learning information in the context of experiences within a funeral home setting. Considering that fewer men than before are entering into the mortuary science programs nationwide, the type of individuals that mortuary science programs are attracting should play an important role in this process. In addition to Patterson's criticism that mortuary science graduates lack the technical skills necessary for entry level positions, gender role characteristics should also be examined as part of the alignment process in mortuary programs.

The changing needs of the consumers, coupled with an industry that is trying to meet the consumer's needs using old customer service paradigms, in addition to an educational structure that teaches memorization and regurgitation of facts necessary for success on the National Board Exam, could be a reason the attrition rate in mortuary science programs is extremely high. Severiens and Dam (2012) further noted that negative culture has a significant influence on the reason men leave female dominant programs, which could also be a factor in male dominant programs. Future researchers need to evaluate the negative culture that "teaching to the test" (i.e., the National Board Exam) creates without practical experiences and how this may influence women's career choices.

In this study, I used a cross-sectional approach in evaluating the gender role characteristics in male and female funeral providers. A longitudinal study should be conducted with male and female mortuary science students to determine if gender role characteristics are influenced and modified to be in conformity to the expectations of the profession. In other words, do gender role characteristics change over time as a person becomes entrenched in a profession? Because practical experiences should be part of the educational process, freshmen's BSRI scores should be compared to their Senior BSRI scores and their BSRI scores after 3 years of practice in the field to see if the practical experiences influenced their perceived gender role characteristics. I propose having two groups of students: one group who has a practical experience as part of their educational process and a second group who only learns theory as part of their education experience. The findings could demonstrate how gender role characteristics evolve over time within a profession. These findings will fill another gap in the literature relating to gender roles.

Implications for Positive Social Change

It is intended that the present study will contribute to the development of this important and neglected area of research by quantitatively examining the gender role perceptions of male and female funeral service providers in the United States for the first time. More research relating to women in caring roles, such as funeral directors and nurses, may lead to a greater understanding and attraction of more females to the funeral service profession. Women, if attracted in greater numbers, may help alleviate the attrition cliff previously described and funeral director shortage that currently exists. One of the problems in society today is the fear of being labeled with opposite gender role

characteristics. However, certain professions, because of the services they provide and the traits that are associated with that service, have gender role characteristics that are commonly associated in society with either masculine or feminine stereotypes. Social stereotypes may play more of a role in perception by the current male dominant funeral service providers, rather than by the social perceptions that may or may not be present in society.

Fisher's (2011) study identified male nurses as having feminine gender role characteristics, and I have found in this study that funeral directors also have high mean scores for feminine and androgynous behaviors. Further analysis in this study revealed that FSPs have a significantly higher androgynous score when compared to nurses, which does not suggest that male funeral directors are feminine but rather the gender role characteristics that create the occupational fingerprint for funeral directing requires FSPs to possess high levels of feminine traits (Compassion, Sensitivity to the Needs of Others, Sympathy, Love of Children) and to have androgynous traits (Truthfulness, Conscientiousness, and Adaptability). Nor should male nurses be labeled as feminine because they possess feminine role characteristics unique to the practice of nursing. Societal character assassination of men and women who enter male dominant and female dominant professions only perpetuates gender stereotypes, employment bias, discrimination, and attrition.

As noted in Chapter 1, one of the problems in the funeral industry is that over the past 15 years, 57% of mortuary science students are women, yet the ratio of female-to-male funeral directors has remained below 20% nationwide. Part of this problem could be

that women entering into mortuary science programs fail to possess the gender role characteristics unique to funeral directors. I propose that one of the ways to address this problem is to implement social change in the educational process. Patterson (2010) noted that students who had independent practical experiences in funeral homes performed better on the National Board Exam (NBE) than students who did not have these experiences.

The implementing of theory into practice is not only important for the NBE results, but it also develops the student's interpersonal skills by learning behaviors and traits that are customary to the funeral profession. "Teaching to the test" only assesses the cognitive understanding of the material (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956); however, practical experiences could potentially develop the gender role characteristics unique to the profession. Observing how funeral directors conduct themselves and participate in providing care to the bereaved could develop the gender role characteristics in a new graduate. I believe that gender role characteristics in the workplace develop over time, and close association with funeral professionals could influence and stimulate the adaptation of these behaviors.

As part of the entrance requirements in mortuary science programs, I propose using the BSRI as an assessment tool to identify the student with gender role characteristics unique to funeral directing. A person who possesses extremely high mean scores in being *Aggressive, Moody, and Conceited* and has extremely low mean scores in Sensitivity to the Needs of Others, Sympathy, and Compassion, for example, would probably not succeed in the funeral profession. This assessment could identify gender

role pattern uncharacteristic of funeral directors to improve the quality of students coming out of mortuary science programs, In addition, most mortuary science programs require letters of recommendations prior to admission into the program. These letters can also be analyzed to determine if the gender role characteristics typical of funeral professionals are observed by the community leader.

An education process needs to take place as part of social change in the funeral profession. This process needs to inform FSP on how masculine and feminine traits are greatly influenced by social norms. As Bem (1977); Ballard-Reisch and Elton (1992) 1992; and Whitley (1984) explain, androgynous behavior is not a polar opposite of masculine or feminine gender role characteristics. Individuals could possess high levels of masculine or feminine gender role characteristics; however, androgynous characteristics suggest a behavioral flexibility that is situationally appropriate. Ballard-Reisch and Eltonm stated that the driving force in social change is an ability to demonstrate flexible behaviors within the context of a complex situation to meet social demands or organizational needs.

Bem (1977, 1979) suggested that androgynous gender role characteristics nurture a fully assimilated individual who is socially adjusted and possesses the flexibility to change in complex situations. In the funeral profession, with the growing complexities of family dynamics during the grieving process and in nursing with the various physical and psychological needs associated with caring for the infirm, an androgynous gender role orientation will maximize the psychological well-being of the caregiver (Whitley, 1984). While society may perceive funeral directing as a male dominated profession, women, in

general, innately possess the androgynous and feminine gender role characteristics identified in this study, whereas male funeral directors adopt these unique traits over time as part of their behavioral and occupational fingerprint.

Conclusion

Gender roles characteristics are occupational fingerprints that are unique to each profession. Identifying these traits could have a significant impact on recruitment, hiring, and retention of employees. The funeral industry is at the cusp of a looming crisis known as the attrition cliff. Penepent (2015) explained that this problem is occurring in the funeral industry because the leadership is ignoring the social trends and demographic facts. In the next 15 years, the death rate in the United States will reach 3.4 million annually, which is a 50% increase in the current mortality rate. The decreased number of mortuary science graduates annually coupled with an aging population of funeral directors, managers and owners, suggest that the funeral industry in the United States will be confronted with the crisis of an excessive number of deaths and insufficient funeral providers available to provide care. This human resource issue needs to be at the forefront of the recruitment and retention process in funeral services. Funeral directors are unique individuals and the distinct gender role characteristics play a significant part in the way they serve their client's needs.

The complexity of the funeral profession requires a practitioner who is flexible and has the ability to adapt to various situations and professional demands. The literature has demonstrated that the more androgynous a person's gender role characteristics are, the more flexible and adaptable they will be in their practice. Mortuary science programs

that identify people with high androgynous mean scores have the potential of creating social change in the funeral industry with the next generation of funeral service practitioners. Positive social change is possible by encouraging and developing androgynous traits in the classroom and in the workplace. Feeding the stereotypical mentality, "think funeral director – think male," only perpetuates the attrition cliff problem in funeral services and could contribute to the collapse of the industry. This study revealed a new pathway for the funeral profession; *think funeral director – think androgynous.*

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Appendix A: BSRI Survey

Part 1 for Funeral Directors: Demographics

Please answer the following questions:

1. Are you:

   Male____ Female___

2. Age (state your age) _____

3. When did you graduate from Mortuary Science School (State year)? _____

4. Select the status that best represents your current employment status:

   Owner__ Manager ___Funeral Director ___ Embalmer ___ Resident___

   Cemetery employee_____ Unemployed_____ Educator _____

   Employed in a profession unrelated to Funeral Directing _____

5. How many years have you been in the present position? _____

6. How many years have you been a practicing funeral director? _____

7. If you were in a position to hire a funeral director, would you likely

   A. Hire a male

   B. Hire a female

   C. Does not matter if they are male or female as long as they were qualified.

8. Please describe the characteristics or qualities that make a good funeral director.

_____

_____

Part 1 for Nurses: Demographics

Please answer the following questions:

1. Are you:

   Male____ Female___

2. Age (state your age) _____

3. When did you graduate from Nursing School (State year)? _____

4. Select the status that best represents your current employment status:

   Employed in Hospital ___ Health Care Agency ___ Doctor's Office ___

   Private Practice ___ Private Duty___ Other Health Related Services_____

   Unemployed___

5. How many years have you been in the present position _____

6. How many years have you been a practicing nursing? _____

7. If you were in a position to hire a nurse, would you likely

   A. Hire a male

   B. Hire a female

   C. Does not matter if they are male or female as long as they were qualified.

8. Please describe the characteristics or qualities that make a good nurse.

_____

_____

Appendix B: Permission to Use the Bem Sex Role Inventory Short Form

Bem Sex Role Inventory

Original Form, Short Form, and Scoring Guide

by Sandra Lipsitz Bem

Distributed by Mind Garden, Inc

Info@mindgarden.com www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C: Bem Sex Role Inventory (Short From)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never true	Usually or almost never true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally	Often true	Usually true	Always true

1. Defend my own beliefs
2. Affectionate
3. Conscientious
4. Independent
5. Sympathetic

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: ***Bem Sex Role Inventory***

Author: ***Sandra Lipsitz Bem***

Copyright: ***1978, 1981 Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.***

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
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Appendix D: Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Mas1	214	5	2	7	5.58	.089	1.300
Mas2	214	4	3	7	6.12	.052	.757
Mas3	213	5	2	7	5.29	.085	1.236
Mas4	213	5	2	7	5.18	.104	1.517
Mas5	214	6	1	7	2.97	.094	1.379
Mas6	212	5	2	7	6.00	.071	1.028
Mas7	214	6	1	7	5.19	.105	1.542
Mas8	214	5	2	7	4.48	.084	1.225
Mas9	213	6	1	7	3.93	.088	1.280
Mas10	212	5	2	7	5.32	.090	1.314
Fem1	214	5	2	7	5.50	.096	1.400
Fem2	214	6	1	7	5.97	.074	1.083
Fem3	214	3	4	7	6.26	.046	.669
Fem4	214	4	3	7	6.06	.049	.713
Fem5	208	3	4	7	6.27	.053	.771
Fem6	214	5	2	7	5.68	.070	1.017
Fem7	213	6	1	7	5.23	.084	1.231
Fem8	213	6	1	7	6.02	.082	1.197
Fem9	214	5	1	6	3.01	.084	1.228
Fem10	213	5	2	7	5.61	.071	1.039
And1	214	4	3	7	6.42	.046	.678
And2	209	6	1	7	3.13	.080	1.151
And3	213	4	3	7	6.00	.083	1.207
And4	214	6	1	7	4.30	.147	2.151
And5	214	4	3	7	6.51	.041	.603
And6	214	6	1	7	2.66	.091	1.332
And7	214	5	2	7	6.02	.055	.807
And8	212	5	1	6	1.95	.071	1.027

(*table continues*)

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
And9	212	5	2	7	5.70	.069	1.009
And10	209	6	1	7	4.49	.086	1.237
Valid N (listwise)	188						

Appendix E: Descriptive Statistics (MANOVA) for FSP

	Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
	1	5.46	1.491	68
Defend my own beliefs	2	5.68	1.180	25
	Total	5.52	1.411	93
	1	5.53	1.321	68
Affectionate	2	5.32	1.376	25
	Total	5.47	1.332	93
	1	6.57	.719	68
Conscientious	2	6.68	.557	25
	Total	6.60	.678	93
	1	6.19	.885	68
Independent	2	5.96	.935	25
	Total	6.13	.900	93
	1	6.16	1.074	68
Sympathetic	2	6.12	1.054	25
	Total	6.15	1.063	93
	1	2.96	1.321	68
Moody	2	3.12	1.201	25
	Total	3.00	1.285	93
	1	4.96	1.510	68
Assertive	2	5.12	1.394	25
	Total	5.00	1.474	93
	1	6.24	.694	68
Sensitive	2	6.24	.926	25
	Total	6.24	.758	93
	1	5.51	1.398	68
Reliable	2	5.68	1.180	25
	Total	5.56	1.339	93
	1	4.96	1.510	68
Strong Personality	2	5.12	1.394	25
	Total	5.00	1.474	93
	1	6.06	.570	68
Understanding	2	6.00	.577	25
	Total	6.04	.569	93
	1	6.21	.821	68
Jealous	2	6.32	.748	25
	Total	6.24	.799	93
	1	3.01	1.344	68
Forceful	2	3.16	1.434	25
	Total	3.05	1.362	93
	1	6.21	.821	68
Compassionate	2	6.32	.748	25
	Total	6.24	.799	93
	1	6.72	.452	68
Truthful	2	6.76	.436	25
	Total	6.73	.446	93
	1	6.22	.990	68
Leadership	2	6.20	.816	25
	Total	6.22	.942	93
	1	5.69	1.296	68
Eager to smooth hurt feelings	2	5.16	1.248	25
	Total	5.55	1.298	93

	Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Secretive	1	3.10	1.631	68
	2	2.44	1.121	25
	Total	2.92	1.534	93
Risky	1	4.69	1.307	68
	2	4.64	1.319	25
	Total	4.68	1.304	93
Warm	1	5.85	.966	68
	2	5.56	1.387	25
	Total	5.77	1.095	93
Adaptable	1	6.03	.977	68
	2	6.24	.723	25
	Total	6.09	.917	93
Dominant	1	3.90	1.508	68
	2	3.72	1.100	25
	Total	3.85	1.406	93
Tender	1	5.07	1.539	68
	2	5.08	1.288	25
	Total	5.08	1.469	93
Conceited	1	1.97	1.106	68
	2	1.48	.823	25
	Total	1.84	1.056	93
Willing	1	5.44	1.274	68
	2	5.92	.909	25
	Total	5.57	1.201	93
Love	1	6.15	1.110	68
	2	5.04	2.091	25
	Total	5.85	1.510	93
Tactful	1	5.79	1.153	68
	2	5.64	1.150	25
	Total	5.75	1.148	93
Aggressive	1	3.10	1.351	68
	2	2.76	.926	25
	Total	3.01	1.255	93
Gentle	1	5.63	1.158	68
	2	5.48	1.085	25
	Total	5.59	1.135	93
Conventional	1	5.10	1.362	68
	2	4.84	1.281	25
	Total	5.03	1.339	93

Appendix F: Pairwise Comparisons of FSP (1=male, 2=female)

Dependent Variable	(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Defend my own beliefs	1	2	-.224	.331	.500	-.882	.433
	2	1	.224	.331	.500	-.433	.882
Affectionate	1	2	.209	.312	.504	-.411	.830
	2	1	-.209	.312	.504	-.830	.411
Conscientious	1	2	-.106	.159	.505	-.422	.209
	2	1	.106	.159	.505	-.209	.422
Independent	1	2	.231	.210	.274	-.186	.649
	2	1	-.231	.210	.274	-.649	.186
Sympathetic	1	2	.042	.250	.868	-.455	.538
	2	1	-.042	.250	.868	-.538	.455
Moody	1	2	-.164	.302	.588	-.764	.435
	2	1	.164	.302	.588	-.435	.764
Assertive	1	2	-.164	.346	.637	-.852	.524
	2	1	.164	.346	.637	-.524	.852
Sensitive	1	2	-.005	.178	.979	-.359	.349
	2	1	.005	.178	.979	-.349	.359
Reliable	1	2	-.165	.314	.600	-.790	.459
	2	1	.165	.314	.600	-.459	.790
Strong Personality	1	2	-.164	.346	.637	-.852	.524
	2	1	.164	.346	.637	-.524	.852
Understanding	1	2	.059	.134	.661	-.207	.325
	2	1	-.059	.134	.661	-.325	.207
Jealous	1	2	-.114	.188	.545	-.487	.259
	2	1	.114	.188	.545	-.259	.487
Forceful	1	2	-.145	.320	.651	-.781	.490
	2	1	.145	.320	.651	-.490	.781
Compassionate	1	2	-.114	.188	.545	-.487	.259
	2	1	.114	.188	.545	-.259	.487
Truthful	1	2	-.039	.105	.708	-.247	.169
	2	1	.039	.105	.708	-.169	.247

Dependent Variable	(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Leadership	1	2	.021	.222	.926	-.420	.461
	2	1	-.021	.222	.926	-.461	.420
Eager to smooth hurt feelings	1	2	.531	.300	.080	-.065	1.127
	2	1	-.531	.300	.080	-1.127	.065
Secretive	1	2	.663	.354	.064	-.040	1.366
	2	1	-.663	.354	.064	-1.366	.040
Risky	1	2	.051	.307	.868	-.558	.660
	2	1	-.051	.307	.868	-.660	.558
Warm	1	2	.293	.256	.255	-.215	.801
	2	1	-.293	.256	.255	-.801	.215
Adaptable	1	2	-.211	.214	.329	-.637	.215
	2	1	.211	.214	.329	-.215	.637
Dominant	1	2	.177	.330	.593	-.479	.833
	2	1	-.177	.330	.593	-.833	.479
Tender	1	2	-.006	.345	.985	-.693	.680
	2	1	.006	.345	.985	-.680	.693
Conceited	1	2	.491*	.243	.046	.008	.973
	2	1	-.491*	.243	.046	-.973	-.008
Willing	1	2	-.479	.278	.088	-1.031	.073
	2	1	.479	.278	.088	-.073	1.031
Love children	1	2	1.107*	.336	.001	.440	1.774
	2	1	-1.107*	.336	.001	-1.774	-.440
Tactful	1	2	.154	.270	.569	-.381	.690
	2	1	-.154	.270	.569	-.690	.381
Aggressive	1	2	.343	.293	.245	-.239	.925
	2	1	-.343	.293	.245	-.925	.239
Gentle	1	2	.152	.266	.569	-.377	.682
	2	1	-.152	.266	.569	-.682	.377
Convent	1	2	.263	.314	.404	-.360	.886
	2	1	-.263	.314	.404	-.886	.360

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Appendix G: Pairwise Comparisons – Nurses

Dependent Variable	(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Defend	1	2	.377	.255	.142	-.129	.883
	2	1	-.377	.255	.142	-.883	.129
Independent	1	2	.333*	.131	.013	.072	.594
	2	1	-.333*	.131	.013	-.594	-.072
Assertive	1	2	-.063	.180	.727	-.421	.295
	2	1	.063	.180	.727	-.295	.421
Strong Personality	1	2	.794*	.350	.026	.098	1.491
	2	1	-.794*	.350	.026	-1.491	-.098
Forceful	1	2	-.409	.314	.196	-1.032	.215
	2	1	.409	.314	.196	-.215	1.032
leadership	1	2	-.733*	.253	.005	-1.235	-.231
	2	1	.733*	.253	.005	.231	1.235
Eager	1	2	-.005	.409	.989	-.819	.808
	2	1	.005	.409	.989	-.808	.819
Risky	1	2	.173	.238	.470	-.301	.647
	2	1	-.173	.238	.470	-.647	.301
Dominant	1	2	.410	.270	.132	-.126	.947
	2	1	-.410	.270	.132	-.947	.126
Willing to take a stand	1	2	1.254*	.296	.000	.665	1.843
	2	1	-1.254*	.296	.000	-1.843	-.665
Affectionate	1	2	-.408	.320	.205	-1.043	.227
	2	1	.408	.320	.205	-.227	1.043
Sympathetic	1	2	-.794*	.228	.001	-1.247	-.341
	2	1	.794*	.228	.001	.341	1.247
Sensitive to the needs of others	1	2	-.557*	.097	.000	-.750	-.365
	2	1	.557*	.097	.000	.365	.750
Understanding	1	2	-.353*	.106	.001	-.564	-.142
	2	1	.353*	.106	.001	.142	.564
Compass	1	2	-.315*	.144	.032	-.602	-.028
	2	1	.315*	.144	.032	.028	.602

Dependent Variable	(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Warm	1	2	-.030	.205	.885	-.438	.379
	2	1	.030	.205	.885	-.379	.438
Tender	1	2	-.511*	.165	.003	-.840	-.183
	2	1	.511*	.165	.003	.183	.840
Love Children	1	2	.211	.150	.163	-.087	.509
	2	1	-.211	.150	.163	-.509	.087
Aggressive	1	2	-.301	.284	.293	-.865	.264
	2	1	.301	.284	.293	-.264	.865
Gentle	1	2	-.058	.182	.749	-.419	.303
	2	1	.058	.182	.749	-.303	.419
Conscientious	1	2	.009	.096	.925	-.182	.200
	2	1	-.009	.096	.925	-.200	.182
Moody	1	2	-.488*	.224	.032	-.934	-.042
	2	1	.488*	.224	.032	.042	.934
Reliable	1	2	-.462*	.104	.000	-.669	-.255
	2	1	.462*	.104	.000	.255	.669
Jealous	1	2	.461*	.144	.002	.175	.748
	2	1	-.461*	.144	.002	-.748	-.175
Truthful	1	2	-.122	.107	.257	-.335	.091
	2	1	.122	.107	.257	-.091	.335
Secretive	1	2	-.117	.239	.625	-.592	.357
	2	1	.117	.239	.625	-.357	.592
Adaptable	1	2	-.255	.151	.094	-.555	.045
	2	1	.255	.151	.094	-.045	.555
Conceited	1	2	.009	.220	.969	-.428	.445
	2	1	-.009	.220	.969	-.445	.428
Tactful	1	2	-.766*	.174	.000	-1.112	-.419
	2	1	.766*	.174	.000	.419	1.112
Convent	1	2	.386*	.148	.010	.093	.679
	2	1	-.386*	.148	.010	-.679	-.093

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Appendix H: Univariate Tests of Occupation

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	1.192	1	1.192	.663	.417	.004
Error	332.762	185	1.799			
Contrast	.014	1	.014	.025	.875	.000
Error	102.982	185	.557			
Contrast	16.418	1	16.418	10.760	.001	.055
Error	282.265	185	1.526			
Contrast	17.394	1	17.394	8.531	.004	.044
Error	377.195	185	2.039			
Contrast	6.045	1	6.045	3.267	.072	.017
Error	342.355	185	1.851			
Contrast	16.003	1	16.003	15.470	.000	.077
Error	191.368	185	1.034			
Contrast	33.301	1	33.301	15.133	.000	.076
Error	407.114	185	2.201			
Contrast	5.074	1	5.074	3.371	.068	.018
Error	278.454	185	1.505			
Contrast	1.473	1	1.473	.928	.337	.005
Error	293.570	185	1.587			
Contrast	2.643	1	2.643	1.619	.205	.009
Error	302.077	185	1.633			
Contrast	.580	1	.580	.284	.595	.002
Error	377.563	185	2.041			
Contrast	6.654	1	6.654	6.061	.015	.032
Error	203.107	185	1.098			
Contrast	4.778E-005	1	4.778E-005	.000	.991	.000
Error	76.521	185	.414			
Contrast	.015	1	.015	.032	.857	.000
Error	88.613	185	.479			
Contrast	.217	1	.217	.380	.538	.002
Error	105.697	185	.571			
Contrast	.295	1	.295	.284	.594	.002
Error	192.228	185	1.039			
Contrast	4.680	1	4.680	3.289	.071	.017
Error	263.263	185	1.423			
Contrast	13.638	1	13.638	10.266	.002	.053
Error	245.780	185	1.329			
Contrast	2.650	1	2.650	2.113	.148	.011
Error	231.963	185	1.254			
Contrast	3.010	1	3.010	3.182	.076	.017
Error	175.038	185	.946			
Contrast	7.207	1	7.207	21.880	.000	.106
Error	60.937	185	.329			
Contrast	.127	1	.127	.100	.752	.001
Error	234.132	185	1.266			
Contrast	46.337	1	46.337	41.930	.000	.185
Error	204.444	185	1.105			
Contrast	594.977	1	594.977	1074.035	.000	.853
Error	102.483	185	.554			
Contrast	9.540	1	9.540	49.475	.000	.211
Error	35.673	185	.193			
Contrast	5.351	1	5.351	3.023	.084	.016
Error	327.504	185	1.770			

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Dependent Variable
And7	Contrast	.548	1	.548	.799	.372	.004
	Error	126.749	185	.685			
And8	Contrast	9.302	1	9.302	10.688	.001	.055
	Error	160.999	185	.870			
And9	Contrast	.652	1	.652	.623	.431	.003
	Error	193.876	185	1.048			
And10	Contrast	44.801	1	44.801	37.178	.000	.167
	Error	222.936	185	1.205			

The F tests the effect of Occupation. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means. . Computed using alpha = .025

Appendix I: Permission to Use Figure 1

From: "David Penepent" <david.penepent@waldenu.edu>
To: sdonley@jsu.edu
Sent: Tuesday, September 15, 2015 12:36:16 AM
Subject: Permission to use Figure 2-1

Dear Dr. Donley,
I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University and currently in the final stage of my dissertation on the "Gender Role Characteristics of Funeral Directors and Nurses." I was stunned when I read your dissertation on the feminization of women in funeral directing; excellent work and a fine contribution to our profession.
May I have your permission to use Figure 2-1 (located on page 18 in your dissertation) in my final dissertation? I will properly cite your work.
I look forward to sharing with you my final dissertation, and I welcome the opportunity to collaborate with you on a peer-reviewed article in the future.
Respectfully,

David R. Penepent
Doctoral Candidate at
Walden University

from: Sarah Donley <sdonley@jsu.edu>
to: David Penepent <david.penepent@waldenu.edu>
date: Tue, Sep 15, 2015 at 2:13 PM
subject: Re: Permission to use Figure 2-1

David,

I'm fine with you using table 2.1 from my dissertation, not a problem. I retrieved the information directly from the ABFSE; as they keep records of enrollment/graduation by sex over time. The data are not publicly posted, but they are available if you inquire about it.

I'm curious to learn more about your project, your research questions, methodology, and preliminary findings. In what program are you a doctoral candidate?

Best,

Sarah Donley

from: Sarah Donley <sdonley@jsu.edu>
to: David Penepent <david.penepent@waldenu.edu>

date: Tue, Sep 15, 2015 at 3:27 PM
subject: Re: Permission to use Figure 2-1 Table attached.

I enjoyed speaking with you today, though it was cut short due to lost connection.

Best of luck with your dissertation completion. Please send it on to me when you are finished. I'm curious to see your results.

And I am interested in collaborating with you in the future. It could be particularly beneficial combining our two different approaches to the same phenomenon.

Take care,

sd

Sarah Donley, PhD
Assistant Professor
Sociology & Social Work
Jacksonville State University