CHAPTER-2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Human Development Report (1993) Women are the world's largest excluded group even though they make up half the adult population and often contribute much more than their share to society, inside and outside the home, they are frequently excluded from the position of power. They make up just over 10 per cent of the world's parliamentary representatives and consistently less than 4 per cent of cabinet ministers or other position of executive authority. Women participate inadequately in employment, and in some industrial countries, women earnings are less than half those of men. Studies on urban women in India are rather recent, while the literature and other studies about women are not so recent and new. Urban women being a small segment of society were probably overlooked by social scientists. But in the changing socio-economic as well as political cultural context, urban women, more so the educated urban women, have become qualitatively a very significant minority which need to be studied in various contexts. Most of these studies are about women and not as women (Kapur: 1976: 65-66).

Women, relative newcomers to the managerial race, seem to be running on a foreign track, according to a set of rules with which they are not fully familiar, and under conditions of an initial handicap. Women fill only a minority of managerial positions and in most cases are virtually invisible in senior positions. Yet there is considerable variance from place to place in the proportion of women in management. Their prospects for entry and promotion into such positions, the factors that explain this variance may be analyzed in terms of cultural traditions and social norms, level and form of economic development, social policy, access to education, and organizational processes (Adler and Izraeli: 1994: 8-9).

Women's careers are tempered by blocked mobility, credibility problems, and a constant battle against disparaging stereotypes of women as
workers who lack commitment to and involvement in their occupation, women are constantly called upon to manage their gender identity in a masculine world of work (Symons: 1994: 50).

In the following pages, we are reviewing the studies on women and their profession. We have tried to divide these studies into different categories i) The recruitment of women in different occupations and profession. ii) Secondly, we have reviewed those studies, which show affect of technology on women and their work. iii) Thirdly, we have reviewed the studies related to the feminization of the work (socialization and dual work) iv) In the fourth category, we have taken those studies which highlight the gender differences in profession. v) Lastly, we have taken those studies, which includes women in managerial profession.

Furthermore, we have tried to review the studies done outside India and studies done in India. Both the situations have quite different social structure, but in the era of the globalization, it is necessary to expect a uniform work culture. We review below the studies done abroad.

(i) Recruitment of Women in Different Occupations and Professions:

Gender differences were especially evident in the case of profession like engineering where a college degree in the field was necessary to pursue a career. The ratios of females to males declined as young people moved further down the path towards the quantitative profession (McILwee and Robinson: 1992: Catsambia: 1994).

By high school, more males than females were likely to be enrolled in advanced level maths and science elective classes (AAUW: 1992, National Science Board: 1993; National Science Foundation: 1994) of the bachelors' degree earned in 1990. Though only 8 per cent of all engineers and 9 per cent of all physicists were females (National Science Foundation: 1996). Thus, in contrast with the vast movement of woman into other professions, such as law and medicine, engineering and the physical Sciences remained extremely male dominated (National Science Foundation: 1996).

Likewise, most students believed maths and science to be more useful and important for boys and better understood by them (Eccles et al.: 1984).

Corell (2001) "Gender and the Career Choice Process: The Role of Biased Self-Assessment" studied the National Educational Longitudinal of 1988 (NELS-98). It took a multistage probability sample of approximately 25,000 eighth grade students, their parents, teachers and school administrators, from over 1,000 schools. Sub samples of the students from the base year were again surveyed in 1990, 1992 and 1994. Seniors and two years beyond high school students were taken respectively. This study showed that males assessed their own mathematical competence to be higher than their otherwise equal female counterparts. Though both males and females were equally mathematically competent. Males were not found to assess their competence at verbal tasks higher than females, demonstrating that males did not globally assess their competence higher for all tasks, regardless of the task's gender association. The effect of performance feedback on self-assessment was found to differ by gender, math's grades had a significantly larger positive effect on the mathematical self-assessment for females than for males. This study's major contribution was to highlight one mechanism by which cultural beliefs about gender constrain the early career relevant choices of men and women. The model presented focused on how gender beliefs bias self-perceptions of competence. The results of this study demonstrated that widely shared cultural beliefs attached to various tasks affected not only how individuals were channeled into particular activities and subsequent career trajectories by others, but also how individuals self-selected into occupationally relevant activities.

The Project by Sonnert and Holton (1995) "Gender Differences in Science Career" was done on a sample of 800 men and women scientists. The sample included scientists working in a range of fields that covered the
biological, physical and social sciences, mathematics, and engineering. According to this study the women's disadvantage in academic rank was concentrated in the physical sciences, mathematics and engineering—not in fields of biology where women advanced at rates more comparable to men. The study reported that women frequently adopted a more meticulous and perfectionist approach to research and tended to more strenuously uphold traditional standards of science, such as carefulness, replicability, and connection to fundamental ideas. It was conceivable that women followed this style because their status as strangers in science compelled them to adhere to extra high standards of conformity in order to be counted as legitimate members by the scientific community. Thus, the study concluded that, 'on the whole the women in sample did not do extremely worse than the men; very large and very obvious gender difference and disparities were absent'. The major implication of this well researched study was that gender differences, had not been eradicated but grew subtler, resulting in disparities of performance, professional opportunities and rewards.

Seymons and Hewitt (1997) in "Talking about Learning: why undergraduates Leave the Sciences" studied over 300 male and female students who were enrolled in an engineering or science major or had switched out of one, and painted a detailed picture of the gendered culture of math's and science. Many of the women in this study said they had difficulty in 'giving themselves permission' to major in science, math's and engineering, even though they could not explain precisely what had discouraged them. They described a dampening effect of a cultural message that suggested that women either could not or should not do maths and science. While empirical support for actual gender differences in mathematical competence was weak (Baker and Jones: 1993; Finn: 1980; Hasmisch: 1984; Hyde et al.: 1990) the belief of male mathematical superiority itself was widely dispersed in American culture.

Lueptow (1981) in "Sex-typing and change in the occupational choices of High School Seniors: 1964-1975") was concerned with change in
occupational choices of high school seniors between 1964 and 1975. It was done to study the question of change or stability in sex-typed occupational role assignment by analysis of occupational choices of high school seniors in 1964 and 1975. The study was done on the same seventeen Wisconsin high schools in 1964 and 1975. This study observed some changes in the occupational orientations of high school females between 1964 and 1975 that were consistent with general assumption about changing sex-roles involving increased opportunity and choice and resulted in convergence in the choices of males and females. Females showed a markedly decreased orientation towards a limited number of traditionally female occupations resulting in a reduction in the proportion of females planning to enter sex-typed occupations. Thus, changing patterns of female occupational choices suggested continued development of sex-typed occupations. The changes in male orientations between 1964 and 1975 were considerably different from the female changes. The predominant change in orientation for male choice was from white collar to blue collar occupations and a reduction in the proportion in sex-typed white-collar jobs.

Pattatuchi (1998) in "Women in Science: Meeting Career Challenges" documented a research that showed that right from childhood women were discouraged from studying science. Parents had lower expectations from their daughters than sons. The media further reinforced sex-stereotypical images of boys and girls.

The organisational and institutional barriers encountered by women in science were sometimes referred to as the 'glass ceiling'. Such barriers included particularism in rank advancement (Long and Fox: 1995), scarcity of mentors for women (Caplan: 1993), and discrimination in appointment to administrative positions, less peer encouragement and greater isolation (Holloway: 1998). Women academics were often treated stereotypically because they were women (Benokraitis: 1998).
(ii) **Affect of Technology on Women and their Work:**

Technological changes affected the employment of women in the industries (where unskilled labour was used) adversely (Towards Equality: 1974). In the absence of training opportunities, women already handicapped by illiteracy and mobility could not acquire the skills demanded by modern industry. This created a gap in the earning power of men and women and was responsible for the widespread belief that female labourers associated with backward economies were less productive.

In "Women Encounter Technology: Changing Pattern of Employment in the Third World", by Mitter and Rowbotham (1997) an analysis of women's work in the wake of increased automation had been done in different sectors, different countries and among different groups of women. In some cases computer-aided production foreclosed opportunities for women and in others opened up new (and more skilled) possibilities, notwithstanding that problems of women's 'dual burden', employer's discrimination and gender differences in human capital and training were never far away. It had been observed that despite the ever-increasing relevance of Information Technology both to women and to their countries, there had been a conspicuous silence about it in the academic literature. Though computerized production robbed some workers of their livelihood, new jobs were created by information technology, which might help to forge greater economic and personal power for women, especially if the means were found by which they could obtain a say in the way in which technology affected the 'quality of their working and family lives'. Female employment was declining in industries such as electronics, which was becoming progressively automated, but variety of possibilities opened up for third world women as a result of new technologies. Although small-scale and/or home based industries did not necessarily offer superior earnings and working conditions, for example, the decentralization and flexibilisation of production facilitated by computer technology increased female employment, at least in the short term.
According to Huyer and Carr (2002) in their study on, "Information and Communication Technologies: A Priority for Women", information and communication technologies should be considered a priority for third world women, as these had the potential to integrate women in development. Obstacles to access in developing countries included cost of the technology, lack of infrastructure, lack of technical support in repairs and maintenance, and language barriers. As a result, computer education was either unavailable or costly. In addition to these barriers, women's inability to access training was attributed to the financial constraints, distance from home, paucity of time, cultural inhibitions, and stereotypical attitudes.

Farewell, Wood, and Banks (1999) in their study of "Global networking for Change: Experiences from Association for Progressive Communication Women's Programme" surveyed 700 women's groups and individual women by E-mail to identify women's electronic networking needs and opportunities. Results indicated that women were less active in learning new technologies and needed more initial encouragement and training. The study identified training needs, including basic and advanced skills. Recommendations included offering women-specific, free training, and designing training methodologies and programs in consultation with the women's groups. Training techniques that encouraged critical thinking and learning by doing were also emphasized.

Alloo (1999) studied the "Information Technology and Cyber Culture" and emphasized the importance of workshops to demystify information technology and enhanced its use as an empowering tool for women. She considered such initiatives to be particularly crucial in places where people tended to question the relevance of Information and Communication Technologies.

In the printing and publishing industry, the proportion of female employment increased in both the US and Denmark due to the introduction of microelectronics. In the US the share of women workers increased from 25 per cent in the 1960's to 33 per cent in the 1980's. In absolute terms, the
increase was 56 per cent. It was concluded that women’s employment was 
enhanced due to replacement of traditional male craft skilled jobs such as 
linotype setting by office type skills possessed by women, such as input of 
text on phototypesetting visual display units (VDUs). Similar increases in the 
proportion of women’s employment in the composing and printing work was 
observed in Denmark. It was estimated that by the end of the century more 
than 60 per cent of the North American workforce would be using VDUs. In 
Japan, 70 per cent of all enterprises already use VDU’s. The bulk of these 
VDU users were obviously women workers (ILO Report: 1989 and 1990). 
Women even accounted for the bulk of the workforce engaged in telework, 
which has been facilitated by new technologies like the availability of 
microelectronics. While many women were engaged in telework because of 
the advantage it offered to combine such work with child care and household 
responsibilities, financial motivation and the advantage of flexibility were no 
less important, though telework could lead to isolation, marginalisation and 
exploitation of women workers (Di Marlino: 1992).

While the application of some of the newly emerging biotechnology’s 
tend to threaten women’s employment and made them vulnerable to 
exploitation, women scientists could play a crucial role in generating 
biotechnology’s targeted to meet the needs of the poor. As women 
dominated the micro propagation laboratories in both the Philippines and 
Mexico. For instance, women constituted 80 per cent, 74 per cent and 85 per 
cent of the Philippine Society for Microbiology, Cell Molecular Biology and 
Biotechnology societies respectively (Halos: 1992).

Edwards (1979) in his analysis of “Contested Terrain” found that labour 
market segmentation and work organization distinguished ‘subordinate’ from 
‘independent’ primary sector jobs on the grounds that in the former, work 
tasks were repetitive, routinized, and subject to mechanical pacing. He 
documented the advent of ‘technical control’ in which the pacing of tasks and 
structuring of physical movement in the workplace imposed by technology, 
transferred authority from the boss to the production process itself. The
expropriation and homogenization of workers skill was furthered in the transition to bureaucratic control, which institutionalized the exercise of hierarchical power within the firm already, moulded through technical control. Thus, Edward regarded typologies or scales of technology, representing an historical progression from simple hierarchy to technical and ultimately, bureaucratic- control, manifested in the uneven development of American industrial structure and in the segmentation of the labour force with respect to autonomy, skills, variety and opportunities for physical (and career) movement within the workplace.

Baran and Bielby (1982) in “Workers and Machines: Dimensions and Determinants of Technical Relations in the Workplace” conducted a survey in two waves, consisting of a nationally representative cross-section of the labour force comprising 2,662 individuals. The first wave focussed on detailed aspects of technology, and the sub sample they used in that wave consisted of respondents not self employed and who used machinery at least 'some of the time' on their jobs. These 525 cases i.e. 39 per cent of the wave contained the requisite data with which operationalized person machine relations. On the basis of the study conducted certain results were found which showed that among women, relations to technology were determined to a substantial degree by factors brought into the world of work age, race and schooling. Education affected person-machine relation in-directly: educated women end up in high status office (or teaching) jobs, involving more variety, diversity interdependence and worker pacing. Even unions also affected men and women's technical roles quite differently. Male craft workers performed more skilled, variable, diverse, self-paced work, and those in unions possessed even greater skill and variety. Women belonging to non craft unions in the late 60's had less skill and variety than comparable females, while industrial union membership was neither an asset or liability in this respect for men. Industrial unionism implied machine paced work for both sexes, though for women the effect reflected job content associated with such work situation. Specific job training and content affected relation with technology much more among
women than among men. The complexity and importance of relations with people affected the skill and variability of women's work, but not men's; as predicted, complex involvement with people implied more routine work, while jobs dealing frequently with people were more variable and skilled. Complex involvements with data and simple duties concerning things facilitated equipment diversity and self-paced work for women. However, women's work oriented primarily towards data was actually less diverse and more machine-paced. There might be a clerical aspect to most jobs which were sex-typed as 'women's work', but jobs principally concerned with data involved functionally specific tasks not agreeable to pacing by the worker. Thus, women who worked primarily with things were most likely to command a diverse repertoire of equipment.

Information Technology was a mobilizing force for women. The field of women's employment and information technology was an extremely broad one, eluding glib generalizations about the gender consequences of the information revolution in different sectors, in different countries, and among different groups of women. New jobs were created by information technology, which might help to forge greater economic and personal power for women, especially if the means were found by which they obtained say in the way in which technology affected the 'quality of their working and family lives'. Idea that women need to gain greater control in this domain was clearly 'somewhat problematic' (Mitter and Rowbotham: 1997).

New industries had introduced flexibilisation and had brought changes in organisational, managerial technological and operational systems. These changes had aggravated informalisation of work relations, feminisation of work was on the rise. The new opportunities for the female workers were generated in the 'informal segments' of organized sector. The new industries, which had come up in the context of deregulated, liberalized market economy, female workers were preferred in certain sectors (Standing: 1989; ILO: 1996). In fact these 'new employment' opportunities had been created for female workers (Hirway: 1996).
With technological changes the labour force faced constant displacement. And women, with the employer's preference for male labour, were the worst affected, but there was little reaction in women's movements against the process of development itself. Demands were made for equality of opportunities within the system. Even within this system vague labour laws failed to protect women. According to the National Commission on Self-Employed Women and Women in the informal sector, existing provisions were not implemented due to inadequate enforcement machinery and penalties (Anon: 1988).

Webster Juliet (1989) in "Office Automation: The Labour Process and women's work in Britain" studied office workers in Britain which highlighted the way computer technology contributed to polarization by accentuating inequalities in a given occupation. She showed the rationalization and fragmentation of clerical work had long predicted the advent of computer technology; its introduction only reinforced a tendency for typists to perform repetitive, standardized tasks. At the same time, word processors reduced the burden of routine work for secretaries, enabled them to continue to do a variety of relatively responsible tasks. Thus, the introduction of word processors exacerbated pre-existing divisions between two groups of women office workers, enhanced the position of some secretaries but not that of typists.

In the service industries, the use of computers had been generally women-friendly. The QWERTY-keyboard of the computers allowed women to use the typist's skills in many jobs in the services sector. In the banking, insurance, and telecommunications industries, the rate of entry of women had been impressive in both the rich and poorer parts of the world. Despite the current quantitative gains, however, women's career progression in these new fields had been less spectacular: their presence in managerial and technical posts had been minimal (Tremblay: 1991: 140).
The Feminisation of the Work (Socialisation and Dual Work):

If one took into account women's unpaid work, particularly in developing countries, women in poorer households worked much longer hours and had much less leisure time than the males (Buvinic: 1993). It was a little surprising that the trend in the feminization of work had been accompanied by the feminization of poverty, in third world countries. As a response to the twin challenges of feminization of work and feminization of poverty it was suggested that a combination of multiple policy strategies for (i) the boosting of productivity in women's paid and unpaid work, (ii) the expansion of women's employment opportunities, (iii) the raising of income levels in women's jobs and (iv) the mobilization of women into participatory groups be pursued as these together constitute the basic foundations of women's empowerment.

In "Women's job mobility processes within and between Employers" Felmlee (1982) examined the role of firm in women's job mobility using a dynamic approach. For the study, data was derived from the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience of Yong women (1968-1973). The findings showed that individual resources had a larger effect on different employer rates of voluntary job changes to new employers and had insignificant effect on the same employer job changes rates. This study also indicated that those making job changes between employers rely on their general resources when they shifted to new jobs. While those in firm-internal labor markets gained promotion by obtaining seniority and accumulating experience within an organization.

"Women and Employment: A life time Perspective" study by Martin and Roberts (1984) was based upon the results from the nationally representative survey of 5,588 women between the ages of 16-59. The survey was done on the basis of unstructured in-depth interviews. It was found that women who worked with men were found to be in better jobs, in term of pay, work conditions and promotion prospects, than women in 'women only' jobs. Women with children overwhelmingly gave priority to their family and to their
husband's work. Most women reported a high financial dependence on work, even though part-timers rated convenient hours more important to them. The study attempted to explore the inter-relationship between work of both husband and wife, not just by describing hours of work and earnings or the extent to which jobs were shared within the home, but also in terms of the respondent's perception of their situation. This work showed widely accepted bi-model pattern of women's employment was an over simplification; increasingly women were returning to work between births, and were having less time out of the labor market over the child-bearing period. However, a return to part-time, rather than full timework was likely to result in mobility to a lower level occupation. Thus, this report formed a comprehensive analysis both of women's position in the labour market and the role of paid work in their lives.

Sylvester and Vicki (1995) in their study on “Co-relation of Success among Female Managers Sex-role Orientation, Directness and Self-Esteem” examined the relationships between the level of achievement of female managers and their instrumentality, inner-directness, and self esteem. Based on theories of sex role socialization and achievement motivation, it was hypothesized that achievement would be related directly to an instrumental rather than to an expressive orientation, to inner-directness rather than to other-directness, and to high self-esteem rather than to low self-esteem. The mushroom sampling procedure was used to obtain a sample of 164 female managers representing a wide range of fields. The results showed the theory of sex role socialization as indicating the need to foster instrumentality and inner directness among young women. To the extent that women were socialized to be expressive and other-oriented, they tend to achieve less and had relatively low self-esteem.

Abbot (2000) in his article on "Gender" said that women were less likely to gain positions of high economic value because they were women. This was true of women from all social class backgrounds and related to the system of gender hierarchies in a direct relationship with material inequality. The role of
women in biological production limited their employability or the ease with which they could go to work. This was a result of cultural assumptions about childcare responsibilities and mothering as well as structural constraints such as inflexible work structures and poor childcare facilities (Abbot: 2000; Charles: 1993; Crompton and Sanderson: 1990; Floya Anthias: 2001).

Ki-Nam, and Shik (2002) in "Social Capital of Managerial Women and Gender related Job Segregation in the Korean Companies" watched the rapid economic growth of Korea during past several decades which could not be imagined without contribution of women workers. However, despite their great roles in the Korean economy, women workers had always been the first scapegoats to be forced to return their home whenever economic crisis happened. That was why that after more than four decades of economic development, women work forces in Korean society were still concentrated at the lower hierarchies of industrial world. However, despite difficult situation of women workers, the educated women started taking part in the managerial jobs from mid 1980’s. This study aimed at two major thrusts. First, it tried to describe the gender related job segregation realities and the conditions of managerial women in the Korean companies. Secondly, in organizational environments where social capital played very important role across organizations, how women workers tended to specialize in jobs where the social capital was not much required. This study found that women were all working and competing with male managers in the same work places and most of them felt very sensitive on sexual discrimination in work places.

Ford and Ford (1986) in their article "Can Gender Inequalities be Reduced" said that women in American society were generally expected to be less capable than men, particularly in situation involving some sort of task performance. Such sex-stereotyped expectations had strong and widespread behavioral consequences, showing gender inequalities. For reducing gender inequalities for women it involved raising their status; for men it involved lowering their status. But the means by which and the degree to which reduction occurred might therefore be quite different for men and women.
According to the disposition approach, gender inequality resulted from differences in the repertories of attitudes and behaviors to which men and women were socialized. In most situations where men and women interacted, women were accorded the lower status. Consequently, in most situations women used the repertoire of attitudes and behaviors that was associated with their status inferiority—just as the disposition approach would predict. The nature and extent of gender inequality was situational specific and through the confirmation of gender based status expectancies. Consequently it could be concluded with reasonable confidence that gender inequality could be reduced at least when men and women work collectively on well-defined tasks with clear performance standards. The possibility of unambiguous demonstration of ability just as Epstein (1970) argued the more closely the situation approximated these theoretical conditions, the more successful the intervention was likely to be.

Feminists plead for treating women as a full decision-maker subject to collective influence, which in turn was determined by her resource endowment known as entitlement. The first approach underlined various societal restrictions that were placed on women or women workers and the consequences they had in causing a segmental labor market. There were various versions of this approach, known as feminist or gender or radical theories. It had many divergences and incorporated both Marxist and non-Marxist approach. The main point of the feminist theories was that the subordinate position of women in the labor market and in the home/family were interrelated and part of an overall social system in which women were subordinate to men. In order to understand the relation between women and inferior jobs, one had to leave the internal dynamics of the labor market and look at the conditions in which women sell their labor power (Freeman: 1982).

Crompton (1986) in “Women and the Service Class” conducted a study to see the background of the working women. The size of the sample was 400 working women. The field of study was three large bureaucratic white-collar organizations in local government, banking and insurance sector. Thus, on
the basis of this study it can be concluded that if more women achieved promotions, fewer men will be promoted—unless, of course, the number of 'service-class' positions increased at the same rate as the proportion of potential 'service-class' women available to take them up. Secondly, if the increase in the proportion of young women gaining qualifications was reflected in promotion, then the likelihood of such women remaining in the labor force, or only withdrawing for a short period, will be further enhanced. According to Crompton, the 'Service class' was populated overwhelmingly by males. She argued that this gender imbalance was by no means accidental, but was a direct consequence of gender-assigned roles in society in both the 'private' and 'public' spheres. Middle-class women's work in the family and marriage both liberates the husband/fathers to pursue a career and often made a direct contribution to that career. Crompton said that it was also important to recognize that liberal feminism was without an impact and had indeed made gains, which were perhaps beginning to have an effect.

The research done by Cohen, Broschak and Havemann (1998) in "The Hiring and Promotion of Managers" was designed in order to explore the complex linkages between the changing system of gender relations and the structuring of women's employment through a comparative analysis which included five countries (Britain, Norway, France, Russia and the Czech Republic). Analysis of two 'feminizing' occupation, 'medicine and banking was done and through it, it showed that the occupational structure also played an important role in shaping relatively more, or less, stereotyped gender identities. For the study biographical interviews (fifteen women in each occupation from every country) was done. It was observed that women doctors, in contrast to bankers, had tended to be more systematic in the construction of their work life and domestic lives. Professionally trained women often adopted 'family friendly' strategies which enabled them to continue in professional practice. Women in banking often found it difficult to make 'family friendly' working arrangements and they had fewer children and were more likely to have a less stereotyped gender division of labor. In
Hakim's term all of the women were committed to an employment rather than a domestic or marriage, career. All had worked continuously with only short breaks for child rearing nevertheless of organizational sex composition.

Chusmir and Koberg (1988) in "Gender Identity and Sex-role Conflict among Working Women and Men" studied 293 American working women and men which showed that gender had a significant effect on sex-role conflict, notably greater effect on women than on men. However, the combined affect of gender and sex-role orientation had no major impact on sex-role- conflict scores for the total sample and for the women subjects. But males with masculine sex-role orientation scored higher in sex-role conflict than those with feminine, undifferentiated or androgynous gender identity.

(iv) Gender Differences in Profession:

Women's education became an area of controversy, where ambiguities and contradictions arose because of prevailing patriarchal structures. Our contention is that despite employment of educated women, and new economic forces at work, that ambivalence continues till today. While the rise of capitalism loosened feudal fetters for the upper castes, gender relations molded by a transformed patriarchy continues to influence the position of women within the home and outside. At another level, the development of science and technology under colonial aegis prevented the growth of a vigor, self-reliant science and technological infrastructure. This, in turn, affected the growth of a scientific attitude.

In "The Gender Gap in Earning at Career Entry" Marini and Fan (1997) said it was well-established fact that in the United States on average, women’s wages were lower than those of men. Thus, this study tried to analyze the gender differences in wages at career entry when market constraints on competition and gender differences in human capital were at their lowest. This work studied the extent to which workers as compared to social influences externally imposed at career entry could attribute gender differences in wages to choices and investments. The study was conducted by analyzing data from the National Longitudinal Survey of youth collected
between 1979 and 1991. For study the sample of 6,11 youth was taken from the age group of 14 to 22 years in 1979. According to their study the differences in mean wages by gender indicated that the wage gap at career entry was 16 per cent. The women according to this sample earned 84 cents for every dollar men earned. The two sexes had similar fertility aspirations. The occupations and industries in which men were employed paid higher wages than those in which women were employed (Marini et al: 1996). It was observed that neither fertility aspiration or gender role attitudes had a direct effect on the wages of either sex. Occupational aspiration in contrast had a significant effect on the wages of both sexes. This effect was somewhat larger for men than for women, indicating that men's aspirations had more important consequences for earnings than those of women, perhaps because men were more likely than women to realize their aspiration for high-earning occupations. Thus analysis of this study indicated that even when the effects of worker qualifications and choice on job placements were effectively controlled by detailed measures, gender differences in job placements, bore strong and significant relationship to gender differences in wages and there was 30 per cent of the gender differences in wages at career entry.

Wright, Baxter and Birkelund (1995) in "The Gender Gap in Workplace Authority: A Cross-National Study" explored this issue in seven countries (The United States, Canada, The United Kingdom, Australia, Sweden, Norway and Japan). For this study data was collected from 11,540 (including all the seven countries) employees. For this study, survey method was adopted in which interviews telephonic, personal, were taken and mail was sent. This study found out that gap was lowest in the four English-speaking countries (especially The United States and Australia) and highest in Japan. The gender gap in authority within countries and the pattern of cross-national variation did not appear to be the result of gender differences in personal attributes or employment settings. While gender gap in workplace authority because of family responsibilities did not exist except in Canada. Though the 'Glass ceiling' to upward promotions for women in authority hierarchies were
not greater than the barriers they faced in getting into hierarchies in the first place which was least in The United States. Lastly, this study showed that variations across countries in the gender gap in authority were explained by the interaction between the availability of managerial positions and the capacity of politically organized women’s movements to challenge barriers to women gaining authority in the workplace.

Hale and Kelly’s (1989) in “Gender, Bureaucracy and Democracy”, surveyed public employees in Arizona, California, Utah and Texas. They found that the living situations and domestic responsibilities of the male and female respondents were significantly different. It also noted that despite the fact that the women in their study had changed jobs within the bureaucracy at a faster rate and at younger age’s than male respondents. They were still paid from $3,000 to $5,000 less than the men were and an average supervised fewer employees. For more women experienced organizational reality in the administrative state and in corporation, as data entry clerks, secretaries, book keepers, and maintenance worker than as vice-president does. In addition, Hale and Kelly found in both state and federal government’s career ladders for female dominated positions had lower entry levels; less mobility across grade levels, and lower top levels.

In “Income to difference between Men and Career Women” Suter and Miller (1967) tried to compare the median earnings of woman workers and male workers in the United States. There was gap in the median earnings of male and female work, though the reasons might be because -women might have less work experience, they might be less productive, they might change jobs more often, and they might have other characteristics that made them less desirable as workers might. Their earnings might be lower because of discrimination; that is, women might be paid less than men, for doing the same work. In this study authors tried to find out difference between income of men and career women of approximately 5,000 women aged 30-44 who reported retrospective work experience for each year in their adult life. The wage or salary incomes in 1966 of men 30-44 years of age were compared
with those of women in the same age group classified according to education, occupational status and work experience. Women who worked every year earned 73 per cent of the amount earned by men, while those who worked in only half the years earned only 23 per cent of the amount earned by men. The ratio of the median wages between men and women actually understated the difference in earning between the sexes. Men were much more likely than women to have wages, for full time working women were skewed towards lower income interval. The overall difference between mean wages for men and women was great, men had jobs with somewhat higher status than women did and their educational attainment was also slightly higher. But the difference in average level between these two socio-economic measures alone does not explain the large difference in income. Thus, the inability of women to convert occupational status into income to the same extent as men suggested that much of the remaining unexplained difference in male/female earnings could be attributable to discrimination in payment for jobs with equal status.

Sanborn (1960) in “Income Difference between Men and Women in the United States” found that nearly 90 per cent of the difference between the income of men and women in 1950 could be accounted for the differences in education, residence, occupation, job turnover, absenteeism, experience and productivity. He concluded on the basis of evidence available at that time that less than 10 per cent of the difference between the incomes of men and women was due to market discrimination.

Fuchs (1971) in “Difference in Hourly Earnings between Men and Women” tried to account for the earnings differential between men and women on the basis of the 1960 Census Data, Fuchs found that average women earned about 60 per cent as much as men in hourly earnings. This ratio was increased to only 61 per cent when the data were adjusted for color, schooling, age, and city size and to 66 per cent when marital status, class of worker, and the length of the work trip were also taken into account.
The factor, which lead to low wages for female worker was the fact that customarily a female worker was not considered as the primary breadwinner. This was followed by the practice that the employers did not recognize specific skills and capacities of female workers and those skills they possessed were considered as part of feminine (Band: 1993).

Charles and James (2003) in “Gender and Work Orientation in Conditions of Job insecurity” explored the gender dimensions of job insecurity and the consequences of job insecurity for women’s and men’s commitment to paid employment and their work orientations. The study was done on 55 women and 56 men in manufacturing public and retail sector of employment in South Wales in between July 1999 and September 2000. The interview technique was adopted. This study found that the paid work in people’s lives was affected not only by the nature of the job that was done but also by experiences of job insecurity, changing domestic circumstances and stage in the life cycle. Priority given to paid work relative to family life was subject to change and that women and men might both be home-centered this home centered ness was expressed in gendered ways. Both women and men, valued work for its own sake, they did not necessarily prioritize work over home but paid work was very important in their lives and was often as important as home. According to this study the assumption that men were work oriented and that work was their central life interest was not true rather work orientation was same for men and women.

In "Gender Inequality in the Japanese occupational structure: A Cross-National, comparison with Great Britain and the United States". Shirahase and Ishida (1994) attempted to examine the position of Japanese women in the occupational structure from a cross-national perspective. To understand systematically the sources and mechanisms which produced the differences to the extent of sex segregation in occupation between Japan and the other two industrial nations, Britain and the United States. The major finding of this study was that the overall degree of sex segregation in occupation in Japan was distinctively lower than that of Britain and the United States. The results
of the counterfactual exercise and cross-national comparisons identified two factors, which was responsible for a low degree of sex segregation in occupation in Japan. First, the low extent of sex segregation in Japan was partly explained by relatively smaller shares of managerial and service occupational categories in which men and women respectively were overrepresented. Second, the low index of sex segregation was partly explained by more equal sex composition in clerical, blue-collar production process, and agricultural occupation groups in Japan. Japan stood in contrast to Britain and the United States in terms of the role of part-time work in sex segregation in occupation. Because a relatively large proportion of female part-time workers were engaged in blue-collar occupation, part-time work tended to reduce occupational segregation in Japan. In the other two societies, part-time work functioned to widen the occupational differences between men and women. Thus, it can be said that the Japanese labor market was less segregated by sex because of the low degree of sex segregation in occupation and the role of part-time work in further reducing such segregation. However, gender inequality in the Japanese labor market was probably manifested in the form of career prospects access to authority, employment status, and full-time/part-time distinction within occupations. Thus, there appeared to be an internal sex differentiation in the forms of authority and promotion chances within clerical work in Japan. Even when men and women shared the same occupational title, men were more likely to have managerial and supervisory capacity and women were more likely to be assigned to the routine clerical work which allowed minimum exercise of authority and autonomy. Male and female clerical workers also tended to have different career prospects (Brinton: 1989, 1993; Lam: 1992). Therefore, these results suggested that gender inequality was present within occupation in Japan. Although the sexual division of labors along the occupational line formed an important basis for understanding inequality in the Japanese labor market, other forms of differentiation should not be overlooked.
Crompton and Feuvre (1996) in “Paid Employment and the Changing System of Gender Relation: A Cross-National Comparison” compared women’s employment in France and Britain at the macro, meso (occupational) and micro (individual) levels. For this study two occupations finance and pharmacy were studied. For this study, meso level case studies and in depth work life history interviews were taken. Aggregate (macro) level data suggested that French women fared considerably better in respect of employment than British women. The empirical material presented in this study was open to conflicting interpretation concerning the relationship between the increase in women’s paid employment and the changing system of gender relations. One interpretation would relate broadly to the persistence of patriarchal structures. The other to possible changes and/or continuities in the psychology of individual women. The equality agenda, associated with emancipator polities, gave women more opportunities. Nevertheless women often found that if they attempted to abandon their older traditional or fixed identities, they were constrained to assume a masculine alternative. In short many of the opportunities available to women in respect of paid employment were in practice open only to those who were prepared to behave as surrogate men. Significant changes in gender relations could only be achieved with the abandonment of ‘masculine’ job model. However particular schemes and employment opportunities designated to appeal to women were not actually restricted to the female sex. Men, as well as women, might choose (or be constrained) to work flexibly; there was nothing about flexible work as such which was ‘masculine’ or ‘feminine’. Indeed it was entirely possible that an increase in higher level flexible work might be associated with an increase in flexible working amongst men.

“Sex, Salary and Achievement: Reward- dualism in Academia” by Fox (1981) presented a cross-sectional salary analysis for the academic employees at a major Midwestern university. The data came from the personnel tape of the university for one point in time, June 1971. This study took three main characteristics i.e. Achieved, Ascribed and Location into...
consideration. Achieved characteristics took educational attainment, academic title and years at the university into account. While ascribed was related with race and citizenship. Location characteristics included properties of the academics context of employment, nature of the work, structural feature of the work and percentage of females doing the work. The male and female returns for achieved, ascribed and location characteristics were not only different in payment rate, but different also in payment pattern. That was for each set of characteristics, women's salary returns were lower; they were less directly related to each other set and thus, they were different in both the amount and structure of payment. Increasing age gave decreased salary return for both sexes. But, for each interval, women's returns were lower, and after age of 35 years women received little payment for increased age experience. For men, however, increasing age, experience yields higher salary return over a wider range of ages. Similarly, for academic titles, salary returns were significantly higher for men. Thus, this study revealed that achievements were, indeed, rewarded in this university, but with sex-differential rates. Hence, achievement may govern reward, but a universalistic sex standard does not. Though, males and females were both rewarded for achievements, but not at the same rate. The very character of the salary reward discrepant but not necessarily apparent- might then reduce recognition and hence the strained gap between ideology and practice. A second factor reduced the visibility and strain of reward disparity might be the sex segregation of work in academic. Academic men tend to hold high level administrative, research, and faculty position and tended to be located in business, technical and medical professional schools and the natural and social science department of the literary college. Women in contrast hold lower level research and faculty positions and tended to be located in university services or in public health, welfare and education professional school units. Attainments were also the result of restricted and sex-related access. Institutional barriers and cultural obstacles place women in structural positions, which made it more difficult for them to accumulate credentials and
produce evidence of performance. These barriers restricted access to training, sponsorship and support so those academic credentials represented limited opportunities. Thus, restricted access makes for sex-bias in any achievement measure.

Hakim (1991; 1995; 1996) argued that there were two 'qualitatively different' types of working women, the 'committed' and the 'uncommitted', the former gave priority to their employment careers, the latter to their domestic responsibilities. 'Committed' women worked full time, 'uncommitted' women worked part-time. 'Feminists', have claimed that women's apparent lack of commitment, job stability and so on was a reflection of the jobs they were forced into because of patriarchal pressures. These jobs tended to be insecure, characterized by high rates of turnover, with few career prospects, and so on, and these characteristics were reflected in women's employment behavior. Far from it, Hakim argued, women's lack of commitment, job instability, etc., accurately reflected the labor market behavior of women whose employment was secondary to their domestic involvement. Walby (1986) and Hartmann (1982) argued that women have been deliberately denied access to jobs, which would allow them to live independently.

While reviewing the literature, one observes that women have been seen to be at disadvantage when selection decisions were made (Dipboye, Fromkin and Wiback: 1975; Heneman: 1977; Zickmud, Hitt and Pickens: 1978), when starting salaries were set (Dipboye, Arvey and Terpstra: 1977; Terborg and Igen: 1975), and when likely success was predicted (Cash, Gillen and Burns: 1977) Differential treatment of women was also reported in promotion policies (Day and Stogdill:1972; Rosen and Jerdee:1974a), employee utilization (Rosen and Jerdee:1974b) and employee development (Rosen and Jerdee: 1974a).

Morrison (1989) in her book, "Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Can Women reach the top of America's largest Corporation?" observed that mounting evidence suggested that when careers were matched, women were remarkably similar to men in their characteristic abilities and motives. Yet
stereotypical perceptions lead people to set unrealistic standards for executive women and these expectations were part of the environment in which women must work and live. This environment was quantitatively different from the environment executive men operate in and this difference may be the crucial and the only meaningful one, between male and female executives.

(v) Women in Management:

De'Souza, (1994) in her study of "An Examination of the Organizational Glass Ceiling Its Process and Implications for Managerial Staffing" examined the process and implications of the organizational glass ceiling for individuals in management. It examined the organizational glass ceiling by focussing upon managerial promotions. Data were collected from male and female managers across several different organizations in the United States. For the survey random sampling was done and questionnaire technique was used to collect the data. According to the study, women in management across organization were not promoted less frequently than men. They did not spend significantly more time at each managerial level in their present organization or received fewer increase with each managerial promotion therefore under the original definition of the glass ceiling, the study conducted here did not show that it existed. However the existence of gender based segregation was evident in other ways. Women in management were found to be clustered into relatively few occupational functions and in smaller organizations they gained in terms of their relative position in the managerial hierarchy in smaller organizations, but lose out in term of the same in larger organization. Men on the other hand, gained in terms of their relative position in the managerial hierarchy in larger organization. This study also discovered that women managers were paid much less than male managers, a finding that was consistent with national reports. All in all, the study carried out here demonstrated that some barriers existed, although it provided little support for the existence of the glass ceiling in terms of fewer managerial promotions being awarded to women in management. The findings also provided some
reason to believe that women managers might face incorrect assumptions about their career orientation, although they provided us with no evidence for lowered attributions regarding female managers, managerial abilities or their non-inclusion in dominant organizational influential.

Wajeman and Martin (1998) in "My Company or My Career: Managerial Achievement and loyalty" based their research on a study of six large Australian based companies that operated in the financial services and manufacturing/ engineering sector. 470 managers constituted the universe out of which 79 per cent were men and 21 per cent were women. For the methodology questionnaire technique was adopted. It was found that the profile of women managers in the companies was similar to that of their male colleagues in most respects, although they were slightly younger and earn significantly less than their male counterparts in each age group, with the gap increasing with age. Predictably, while nearly 40 per cent of married male respondents had partners who did not work for pay, all the married women had husbands who worked full-time and only 27 per cent of them had children. This research indicated that there was no difference among male respondent and female respondents regarding their attitude towards their career and loyalty. It can not be said that women were less inclined towards their career or less loyal.

Adler and Izraeli (1994) in "Women in Management Worldwide" found that according to management Center Europe's 1982 survey of 420 companies in 9 Western European countries- Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, and The United Kingdom – fewer than half (49 per cent) had ever employed a female manager. Of the remaining 51 per cent, 15 per cent claimed they would never consider promoting a woman into management. Among the countries surveyed, The United Kingdom (83 per cent), France (74 per cent), and Portugal (67 per cent) reported the most companies with female managers and Italy the least (12 per cent). Companies in the Netherlands, Germany and Italy reported no women in top management. But even these figures created
an illusion, since the percentage of companies having at least one female managers were included in it. According to the Management Center Europe study, only 8 per cent of British managers, 9 per cent of French managers, and 13 per cent of Portuguese managers were women. In country after country, the proportion of women holding managerial position falls short of that of men. Corporations, it appears, have systematically ignored women as a potential resource. In all countries, the higher the rank within the organization, the fewer the women found there. In some countries, the percentage, though small, increased over the last decade; but in none have they approached equality. This pattern prevailed in oriental and occidental cultures, communist, socialist, and capitalist systems and both economically developed and developing countries.

In "Women Development in Management: A Focus on Women Managers of Bagladesh" by Bhattacharjee (1992) covered socio-economic, demographic, organizational, achievement and development related variables. Data used in the study have been collected from both primary and secondary sources. Data was collected through sample survey method and used purposive sampling technique. For present study as many as 86 organizations including public sector organizations, private sector enterprises and multinational companies and donor agencies inclusive of Non Governmental Organisations's were covered. The number of samples drawn from women managerial personnel was 363. The recent emergence of women in management jobs explained the phenomenon of predominance of the younger generation of women managers in various sectors. (It was revealed that opportunity to meet and interact with a variety of people has been/ranked first, challenging and stimulating job has been ranked second security on the job has been ranked third and so on). According to this study only 12 per cent women managers were at higher or middle level all the rest were at junior level management positions. The study revealed more than 50 per cent respondents did not receive any promotion. Study showed that the promotion is the highest in the multinational companies and foreign agencies.
followed by that of public sector organization. The lowest percentage is observed in the private sector enterprises. Most of the respondents feel that training is useful in overcoming the problem affecting their career, while executive training programmes are preferred by the junior level managers and top level and on the job training was most preferred by senior and mid level managers. Women at managerial level in service and personal functions while only a few in industry indicated that the corporate sectors are experiencing the entry of young and highly educated women managers.

Savage and Witz (1992) in "Gender and Bureaucracy" showed that although the proportion of women managers in banking increased in recent years, this was accompanied by a change in the structure of management such that power and authority was removed from many managerial position. He suggested that the class structure needed to be understood as gender in a fundamental sense and that this gendering can be conceptualized by making a distinction between skill and organizational assets. According to him women were found in middle class jobs where expertise was required but that were much less likely to be found in jobs involving power and authority. These were still in the hands of men despite the entry of women into managerial position.

Schein's (1973) studied "The Relationship between Sex-role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics" documented the potential of sex-role stereotyping and its impact on perceptions of managerial ability and performance. From the sample of 300 middle line male managers and 167 middle line female managers found that successful managers and men were perceived to possess the characteristics of leadership, ability, competitiveness, self confidence, objectivity, aggressiveness, forcefulness, and as being ambitious and desirous of responsibility. Women were perceived as not possessing these characteristics. In other words, for both male and female respondents to 'think manager' meant to 'think male'.

Donnell and Hall (1980) in "Men and Women as Managers: A Significant Case of no Difference" attempted to investigate the whole range of managerial practices of male and females. They conducted study on 950
females and 966 male managers and found that women in general did not differ from men in ways in which they administered the management process.

The Indian Scenario:

In India, in much of social science researches, 'Women' as a social group are increasingly becoming visible. Much of the researches on women have been confined to stereotypical areas such as problems of working women, status of women, attitudes of women towards various aspects of job etc. But there is a general dearth of literature regarding 'women in Management'. Though stray researches of women managers have been made and virtually there is no systematic research on the recruitment pattern, working pattern, hierarchical structure, role conflict and inequality among the women managers. Though, here an attempt is made to put the researches together systematically in already listed five categories:

(i) Recruitment of Women in different Occupations and Professions:

All modern societies recognized that education and a career were not only the right of a woman but key factor that contributed to the economic and social development of a nation. In spite of this recognition, the participation and contribution of women in many professions was significant. Although an increasing number of women were entering work organizations in India and many of them were acquitting themselves well in challenging managerial roles, women continued to face subtle forms of resistance at the workplace. Outwardly, most organizations did not present instances of blatant discrimination. Organizations often had the same personnel policies, selection procedures and promotion criteria for men as for women, and some organizations in fact offered extra concessions to their female employees like convenient working hours, and easy postings. Yet underneath this veneer of sexual equality, one often found deep-rooted biases and negative attitude towards women. This was most evident in the field of engineering, where women represented a large untapped source of talent. In India, the participation of women in engineering was negligible till the early 1980s (Parikh and Sukhatme: 2004:193).
To highlight this problem Parikh and Sukhatme did extensive studies on "Women Engineers in India" at IIT Bombay. Parikh and Sukhatme (1992, 1994, 1997) conducted a study on women engineers i.e. those having degree in engineering (B.E., B.Tech., B.Sc. (Engineering) from all over the country during the period of 1975-1990. The questionnaire technique was adopted for this study. This study was conducted to see data on enrolment and their turnout, state-wise and discipline wise, their job opportunities, job status, nature of work etc. Sample of 2,753 women engineers was taken. The study showed that in 1975 women enrolled as engineers was only 1.5 per cent of the total, which increased to 7.6 per cent in 1990. It also showed that 68.7 per cent were employed, while 26.1 per cent were unemployed and 5.2 per cent were doing post graduation. Problems faced by women engineers were - there was no campus interviews, difficulty in getting placement of their choice for practical training, lack of opportunities, reluctance of the employers to appoint women engineers, an overall scarcity of jobs and abundance of engineers. According to this study Kerala had the largest number of women engineers in the country, followed by Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Maharashtra.

Parikh and Sukhtame (2002) conducted another study on women engineers who obtained degrees in civil, computer science, electrical, electronics and mechanical engineering during 1994-1998. The universe of study was Andhra Pradesh, Delhi, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. The sample of the study constituted of 1,020 respondents. For this study, the questionnaire technique was adopted. The study compared both the studies and difficulties encountered by women. Thus, the study found that over 50 years from 1951-2001, there was nearly a 50-fold increase in intake capacity. There was a surprising fact that the percentage of employed women engineers was 68.7 per cent in earlier study and in later study, it was 54.9 per cent. Which showed that placement of their choice for practical training, difficulty in getting a cell for a campus interviews and a job through campus recruitment (especially in girls colleges) had increased. It also found that
employed percentage had decreased while unemployed percentage increased which is not a happy situation.

Meenakshi (2000) in her work "Status of Working Women in Organized Banking Sector in Madras Metropolis" did a study on the status of the employed women in the organized banking sector in Madras City. For this study sample of 114 women employees from all branches of Canara Bank in Madras City were selected on the basis of stratified random sampling technique. This study showed that the higher the level of employment, higher was the level of respect earned by the women from the superior's. At the place of work irrespective of high or low educational qualifications if women did the same type of work when employed in same category it was only their efficiency that earned them respect and not the educational level. Respondents earned high respect from their male colleagues irrespective of their age, and educational level. As far as respect from superiors and subordinates was concerned it was found that there was greater level of respect for high level employed women than the low level employed women, while educational qualification and age did not make much difference. The difficulties faced by women because of their sex were also found to be negligible. This study showed that women workers were only passively involved in the trade unions. Men recognized women's talents. Irrespective of age and sex it was the ability of women that was given ample recognition. According to this study employees in the banks viewed that they were able to perform their role efficiently and without any difficulties mainly because of the co-operation they received from their superiors, colleagues and subordinates. Thus, employment on the whole had improved the economic and social status of women.

Mhatre (1997) in the study of "Women in the Banking Industry" took a sample of 165 persons from seven nationalized banks and found that very few women were in senior positions in the early sixties and they were unmarried.
Aleem (1996) in his study of “Women in Bureaucracy” presented a very disheartening picture in the survey of women bureaucrats, especially of the involvement of women at the higher level. It was only in the year 1951 that the first woman entered in the Indian Administrative Services (IAS). In the first decade (1951-1961) the progress of women into the IAS was very slow, as only 18 joined the service. Though, today more than 400 women have joined this service (Lata: 1993: 64). But even then the percentage of women, taking the total strength of IAS had not increased very rapidly. One of the reasons for women not joining the civil services in large number was the discrimination against women in the recruitment rules. Married women were not denied entry into the Civil Services as a matter of right. But if married they could be asked to resign if so desired by the government. This restriction was removed only in 1972. A survey of women IAS officers showed that once they were selected they were treated at par with their male counterparts. As the total strength of the Indian Foreign Service (IFS) was comparatively small, the percentage of women was comparatively higher than the other services. As far as Indian Police Service (IPS) was concerned the first woman joined it in 1972. Due to the hazardous nature of police work, strenuous physical activity, uncertain duty-hours, there was not much enthusiasm among women to opt for the Indian Police Services. From 1972 to 1992, only 53 women joined the IPS. The percentage of women to men IPS officers continued to be very low (0.86) as compared to the IAS and the IFS. Giving only second preference to the IPS, the first always being the IAS, was a common practice with both men and women candidates. Women had entered into the central services much before independence, as evident from the figure of 1961, which showed 31,302 women in the central services, though it presumed that their involvement was generally at the lower levels. It was after 1950 that women started competing in the civil services examinations and quite a few of them entered into the various central services. But even then the percentage remained as low as 4. There were 4 states where not a single woman was having central post, which went upto 33.33 per cent in 2 states. by the end of the decade.
Khanna (1998) in her study "Career Decision-Making: A Case of University Teachers" studied sources of awareness of teaching as a career, stage at which it was chosen as career and factors motivating to take it as a career. This study was conducted on both male and female Professor, Reader, and Lecturers in the University of Jodhpur, Jodhpur (Rajasthan) during 1976-1977. A sample of 385 teachers was taken. Khanna found out that the awareness of teaching as a career came through teachers, instincts, parents, and friends in this serial order. While according to this study equal number of respondents decided to take it as a career at college/university level or after completing their university education. Self-orientation, prestige, economic opportunity, humanitarian-orientation were the motivating factors for choosing it as career.

Gupta and Rani (1998) in their study of "Professional Commitment of School Teachers" conducted study on three higher secondary schools of a small town Samana in Punjab and six high schools from nearby villages. Sample of 183 teachers both male and female was taken. According to the study majority i.e. ninety per cent joined this profession after their professional training. Most of the respondents joined this profession, as their first job and wanted to continue it. These studies showed that the trained teachers were more committed and felt responsibility towards students even outside the school.

According to Gurnani and Sheth (1984), in "Women Scientists in India: Their Position and Role", found that women scientists felt that their male colleagues and superiors did not accept them professionally.

Chakravarthy (1986) in "Productivity of Indian Women Scientists" reported that very few women scientists held senior posts in Center for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) institutions. She found that women spent lesser time on administrative activities compared to men. They were less involved in actual activities of research, and that the research productivity of single women was not more than those with families. She also emphasized
the role of prejudice, lack of infrastructure support and the dual burden on women scientists.

Jaiswal's (1993) in "Professional Status of Women: A Comparative Study of Women in Science and Technology" studied the professional status of women scientists and engineers vis-à-vis men scientists and engineers. He found that women scientists came from a better socio-economic background than men; the majority of women were at the lower levels of the professional hierarchy. Women had a lower level of job satisfaction and a lower level of job commitment than men; and there was latent discrimination against women, both at the organisational level and in relationships.

"Gender and Stratification in Science: An Empirical study in the Indian Setting" by Kumar (2001) offered empirical evidence of gender inequalities in the academic hierarchy as an important aspect of the social organization of Indian science. The present study, by comparing samples of men and women at the lecturer level or above, explored whether there was any role that gender played as a variable in the stratification system with in Indian scientific institutions. The sample comprised of physical scientists of both sexes in four different Indian cities. The sample was collected from the universities and national laboratories. It was found that out of 490 physical scientists only 56 were women. For this study sample of 117 scientists (61 male and 56 women) from eight scientific institutions were selected and questionnaire method was used to collect the information. According to this study differences in the distribution of women and men in term of academic rank was to be observed higher the rank the lower the percentage of women scientists. Comparison of men and women scientists (within each particular rank) in terms of age and number of years spent within the organization also revealed that the two groups differed significantly only at the top most level of the hierarchical ladder. The results of this study were consistent with the universal findings that women scientists were less likely to be promoted than men were and few female scientists reached the rank of full professor. Though, at the middle level of the rank hierarchy, the mean performance of women scientists was
higher than that of men. Finding of this study also revealed that women's choice of a career in science was influenced by cultural and economic factors. It also found that the socio-economic background and educational levels of the parents of women scientists were significantly higher than those of their male peers than in the case of boys. This study distinctly revealed a lower percentage of women in higher academic position within Indian scientific institutions. These findings also made it clear that rank disparities between men and women scientists were not attributable to disparities in research performance but showed discrimination. Academic rank and gender showed a significant relation. Evidently, the differences in academic rank held by men and women scientists were not a result of differential role performance. Another important finding of this research was that in the case of women there was no significant correlation between time spent on research and research performance. Thus, this study confirmed the glass ceiling affect for women in Indian science. There were inequities in promotion within the organizational work place, and gender does play a role within the stratified world of science.

Rao (1983) in "Employment Pattern of Woman Workers in Developing society" tried to see the employment pattern of women workers in Karnataka states from 1911 to 1981 on the bases of data from census of India 1981 and Directorate of Employment and Training Bangalore. According to this study the participation rates at the 1951 Census was much lower than those at the 1931 Census in the case of India, while in Karnataka, the work participation rate declined only in the case of women. The ratio was severely disturbed in 1971 with female participation rate touching as low as 12.12 per cent as compared to 52.51 per cent among the males. Even in 1981 in spite of a slight increase, the female participation rate (14.44 per cent) continued to be less than half of the male participation rate (51.22 per cent) which showed a marginal decrease as compared to 1971. This study indicated that work participation rates were generally higher among single, divorced or widowed women, as they had to fend for themselves. It found that 94 per cent of the women workers in India were engaged in an unorganized sector of the
economy, 81.4 per cent in agriculture and the rest in non-agricultural occupations. The work participation rates in Karnataka showed that the changes in the concept of worker affected the women much more than the men. Rural-urban differentials in female worker participation rates were always there in the past but has been accentuated in recent years. The increasing number of women applicants mainly matriculates and an undergraduate registered in employment exchange in Karnataka gave some clue to the changing attitude of females towards employment.

Acharya (1992) in “Female Workforce: Its contribution to Metropolitan economy” presented a trend in female work participation in four metropolitan cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Delhi and Madras during 1961-1981 and attempted to relate these trends to changes in the functional character of these cities. The sources of the data were the General Population Tables and the General’s Economic Tables of the Census of India for the years 1961, 1971 and 1981. A comparison between the cities showed that Delhi experienced the maximum positive change, while Calcutta the least, recording a negative change in male population. According to this study Delhi was the only city which showed increase in the inter-censal change. While Madras, Calcutta and Bombay, showed a decline in male population, while regarding to females, it showed a sharp increase. As far as work participation rate was concerned Calcutta, Bombay and Madras showed decline in the male participation while female participation showed slight increase. Though in Delhi, male work participation rate remained more or less same but female work participation contrary to the male pattern showed a rise. Thus, while Calcutta and Madras emerged as trade and transport cities, Bombay reflected industrial characteristics and Delhi remained as a service city. All the four cities showed a higher proportion of women engaged in service sector and higher proportion of men in industry trade and transport sectors.

The article “Treading the Hallowed Halls: Women in Higher Education in India” by Chanana (2000) presented a descriptive analysis of women’s representation in higher education system in India. It demonstrated the latest
trends in the enrolment of women in different faculties and disciplines. The period covered was 1950-51 to 1996-97. The enrolment statistics for the 1990’s were the focus of discussion while the data for the preceding four decades was used to indicate trends and shifts. There was increase in enrolment of women but the increase in number of women was proportionately less than that of men. The shift in discipline choices from teacher-training departments and sizeable presence in arts, science and medicine to professional education was visible. Commerce, law, engineering, agriculture and veterinary science were disciplines where more women were entering during the last few decades. The report of the committee on women’s education 1959 mentioned regional imbalance as the major problem in women’s education. It noted that the four southern states had a better profile in terms of female literacy and education than the northern Hindi speaking states. Even though women formed 52 per cent of enrolment in departments of teacher education, which prepared secondary school teachers, their proportion was about 35 per cent in the teaching profession at the secondary level, i.e. those who teach classes IX-XII in the schools. At the university level, their representation further went down. In fact there were several factors that inhibit access and disciplinary orientations of women in higher education. Factors that inhibit female access to higher education were quantitative, viz. non-availability of colleges and unsuitable infrastructure and absence of basic physical facilities; lack of economic resources in the family, choice between dowry and educational expenses, future career options of the young women. Firstly parents didn’t want them to take jobs and even if taken it was viewed as short term goal, gender-stereotyping in course content and subject choices, discriminatory attitudes of teachers and administrators, absence of role models etc created barriers to access to higher education.

Arora (2001) in her study on “Professional Women: Dual Role and Conflict” took the sample of 200 working women, 50 each from doctors, engineers, lawyers and executives. She found that education and employment contributed immensely in shaping women’s perceptions and
expectations. The findings also supported the assumption that employment enhanced the self-esteem and provided satisfaction of various needs of professional women but being with it resulted in role-conflict and stresses surrounding the work and family roles.

Srivastava and Srivastava (1985) in “Job Stress, Marital Adjustment, Social Relations and Mental Health of a Dual Career and Traditional Couples; A Comparative Study” observed that participation of women in higher education increased, the chances of joining the work force. Accordingly, Indian men showed a preference for working partners.

Sharma (1988) in his study of civil servants of government executives found that females had higher degree of endurance or tolerance against frustration.

Ahmad’s (1979) study on women teachers (unpublished) assessed teachers as the largest segment of the professional workforce.

(ii) Affect of Technology on Women and their Work:

The introduction of electronic data processing jobs in Indian banking led to reskilling and extended opportunities to male workers rather than their female counterparts. When jobs were replaced or lost it were the women who lost out disproportionately (Chopra: 1991).

Banerjee’s (1983) “Women’s Work” which studied a number of small industries showed that women’s tasks were generally associated with crude tools and less energy intensive and were very often classified as unskilled. Technological upgradation in industry never reached women though high-tech electronics industry became women-prone in the assembly sections.

In a report by UNI (2002) on “IT Opening New Vistas for Women” discussed that E-Commerce was a potential gold mine for women in the developing countries but to seize these opportunities they will have to overcome lack of education, infrastructure and finance, said a new UNCCTAD Report. The growing business-to-consumer or retail sector in the developing countries offered many possibilities for small businesses with access to information technology and women could cash on it. In India, ‘India shop’ an
e-marketplace, eliminated middlemen in the selling of saris, further, freelance women journalists in India and Malaysia were also delivering their services online. At *Grameen* phone in Bangladesh, women bought cell-phones and provided mobile, pay-phone services in their shops or local markets, making the most of the Information Technology revolution, according to the (UNCCTAD E-Commerce and Development Report: 2002). Similarly a housewives network in Peru, Tortasperu, which baked confectioneries and sold them via the Internet generated lucrative work for women taking care of children at home, while also provided the country with much-needed foreign exchange. Such opportunities were particularly significant for the women in Asia, where IT-enabled or business processes outsourcing of back-office operations had grown exponentially. The ability to transfer data online to leading companies, outsource business operations to distant and cheaper locations. Developing countries that could offer cheap and English-literate workforce were the most targeted sites and that work force was predominantly female.

Umrani and Ghadially (2003) in their study on “Empowering Women through ICT (Information and Communication Technology) Education” examined the adoption of computer technology by novice urban women. This study studied how training women in the use of technology could empower them to maximize the use and benefits of technology, and harness its potential in ways that lead to gender equity, social justice, and sustainable development. For this study data was collected from the sample of 100 women trainees at a premier private computer-training institute in Mumbai, India who were enrolled for a basic computer skills course of 18 hours duration. Standardized tests were used to assess the psychology variables on 5-point Likert-type scale and the questionnaire-elicited information on support related variable. The questionnaire elicited information on aspect (i) demographic data, (ii) familial support, and (iii) institutional support. According to this study, it can be concluded that the mean score on the behavioral intention scale was high, implying that women strongly intended to use
information and communication technology. The order of importance of the magnitude of usefulness was information and communication, personal/family gain, entertainment, and jobs/career. According to this study the subjects perceived themselves to be highly self-efficacious, revealing a positive view of their cognitive capacities in cleaning with expectations of significant others to learn computers. Significant positive relationship was found between perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness to behavioral intention. According to this study a computer literate family member and a family with computer can go a long way in encouraging women to acquire basic skills. Proximity of training center to home/school/office, subsidized fees, and patient and adjusting trainer emerged as key facilitators of computer learning.

Patel (1979) in "Women, Technology and Development Process" quoted an Indian Labour Organisation Report which pointed out that in most developing countries few girls were enrolled in technical and vocational education (those who were enrolled learned sewing, dressmaking, housecrafts, child-care and embroidery) and few girls were found in vocational training outside the school system. The principle was generally conceded that women and men should have the right on the same terms to receive education and training for highly qualified jobs and should enjoy equality of opportunity and treatment for career advancement. On the whole women were employed in research rather than in production and management, in specialist and advisory posts rather than in position of authority and in public rather than the private sector. While the relationships of women to production and distribution in the traditional sectors remained significant and relevant, they seemed to have no or limited access to technological inputs at all levels. Thus, the output of their productive labour either remained constant or decreased in contrast to that of men who had access to factors of production. The direct result of this unequal access between men and women was that work input of women proportionately increased in various agricultural tasks without giving them any control on their output, what emerged from this
situation in many countries was muscle power. According to this study the technological progress had the dual effect of widening women's employment opportunities and at the same time pushed them into less skilled and less mechanized occupations.

Ahmed (1994) in "Technology and Feminization of Work" viewed the role of technology in the empowerment of women in the context of rapid feminization of work. Overall, women accounted for 50 to 60 per cent of total employment in the financial services of advanced countries, yet they occupied only 5 per cent of the higher occupations. In developing countries like India and Tunisia women accounted for one-quarter to one-third of total employment in this sector. It observed that despite the inherent labour displacing effect of microelectronics application, women's share in overall financial service employment was over the years, on the increase. Clerical work, accounted for 70 per cent of the financial service jobs where the bulk of the women workers were concentrated, as high as 90 per cent in the U.K. As this was precisely the single most significant occupational group vulnerable to automation. Though, the increased share of employment of executive and managerial staff and technicians (computer programmers and systems analysts) led to a higher growth in employment of males than females despite the availability of a higher proportion of fresh better qualified women graduates in computer science and business administration. It observed that women workers responded enthusiastically to opportunities for reskilling obviously recognizing that it was vital for saving their jobs. Despite women accounting for a quarter of the financial service workforce in India, a very low proportion of them were engaged in electronic data processing.

A survey of the impact of technology change on rural women revealed that technological change, particularly in rural areas, for the most part, led to the concentration of women in domestic and non-market roles and labor intensive activities. It also observed that technological innovations, introduced in women's activities resulted in the men taking over women's jobs simply because the corresponding skills development, training knowledge and
working capital aimed at women were excluded from the new opportunities created often owing to institutionalized gender biases (Ahmed 1985)

(iii) **The Feminisation of the Work (Socialisation and Dual Work):**

Singh (2001) in "Women in the Corporate World in India – Balancing Work and Family Life" tried to have an insight into the role of educated working women in developing economy. India is in a transition phase of transforming itself from a traditional to a modern economy through a planned development phase. For this study sample of 100 women in the Corporate World from private and public sector was taken it observed that social change and the modernization processes in India brought change in values and behavior of middle and upper class strata of the society. There were a large number of women in clerical positions but very few working at managerial positions. India's passing through developing phase and socio-economic changes. Women were increasing in professionally trained educational institutes and found work in corporate non-traditional jobs. This study explored some of the issues at work and home and how women had combined their careers with family life, which showed that there was a distinct new trend in work orientation. Women who joined the corporate world as women executives and managers were from financially sound families. They were committed to their jobs and enjoyed positions of responsibility, but they were faced with problems of mobility and slow promotions due to time constraints and family responsibilities. They also faced problems in relationships with male subordinates. The study showed that there was some change leading to emancipation of women as they were increasingly getting married by choice of partners than through arranged marriages and entering into inter-caste, inter-religious choices. However, married women were conditioned by parents and society to accept their roles as subordinates to 'husband' and the 'home' and 'children' as their share of responsibility. Unmarried women had problems but they had constraints on socializing with friends and family. Change in Indian society is slow, but women had definitely started working towards
social change by courageously shifting from traditional rules of marriage to modernity.

Globalization in education meant cuts in public expenditure on education resulting in increase in privatization, top down reforms that laid more emphasis on performance indicators, a quantitative definition of success and focused on market based subjects and disciplines which undermined the social sciences and humanities content of education. The impact of globalization was largely dependent on a country's governmental policy and social safety nets. Because of that, not all developing countries suffered or benefited equally from globalization. The impact was also differential within the countries. In India, the policies of liberalization and privatization affected different groups, such as men and women differently, and not all men and all women in the same way. While middle class urban women had seen an increase in educational and training options, for the vast majority of rural and urban poor women conditions had deteriorated. One reason was that cuts in public education and health services affected women, especially poor women the most. In general, emphasis on privatization, self-financing, vocationalization and job-oriented courses increased the gender inequalities in Indian society and catered to the needs of the market rather than society (Ghosh: 2002).

The main objective of Vanamala's (2001) study on "Informalisation and Feminization of a Formal Sector industry: A Case Study" was to examine the impact of reforms on female workers in the informal segments of a formal sector industry. It analysed (i) the impact of the processes like informalisation, casualisation and flexibilisation on female labour (ii) the impact of managerial, organisational, operational and technological changes. (iii) the nature of work and its promotional prospects. (iv) the working conditions and social security measures provided by the industry and the impact on health conditions of workers. The study was done in multinational large-scale engineering industry that produced compressors and motors for refrigerators and washing machines. The data was collected from 174 operators on the production side,
which included 117 trainees and 57 casual workers. It was very striking to note that on the management side there were no female workers up to supervisory level in spite of availability of qualified persons. However, under these supervisors, several (female) trainees and casual operators worked. Thus there was a gender-biased hierarchy of these workers. This study also showed discrimination as management decided to recruit unmarried girls in the age group of 16-17 years with the educational qualification of secondary school certificate or equivalent qualifications for the training course of operators. Because the female workers were less prone to unionization, did not demand higher wages, absenteeism was less and had patience to work with delicate machines. As a result management preferred female workers. These industries to become 'world class companies', introduced changes in their organizational, managerial, technological and operational set up. These changes were so designed that they preferred low skills, female workers and opted for informalisation and segmented employment. As 94 per cent of female workers were engaged in work in the informal jobs, female workers were hit more hard by these market changes. This was in addition to the fact that traditionally the wage of female workers was fixed lower than the male workers in male dominated informal industries.

"Working Women and Modernisation" by Jena (1993) referred to the women working in Central and State government offices, colleges, schools, hospital, and various private undertakings in Cuttak City. The study was done to see the modernity level of women. Data for the study was collected with the help of schedule and participation observation from the 420 women from these organizations. This study showed that the respondents took jobs to have economic independence, raising family income or for enhancement of status. This study also showed that education was imparted to girls not for employment outside the family but to enable them to perform their traditional roles skillfully. But the situations changed and they were supposed to get employment and continue in jobs even after their marriage though there was role contradiction in such a situation. However, the general trend was to
continue in jobs after marriage. This study indicated that at all levels of modernity status of employed women was superior to the unemployed women. This study showed that large percentage of respondents did not prefer to live in joint families, but was in favor of choice of husband by parents. Majority of the respondents was against the systems like dowry, caste, divorce etc. This study depicted bend towards higher education among girls and favored the legislation’s relating to equal right of women in husbands/parents property. At all the levels of modernity friends from opposite sex were not liked. Significant differences were observed between different levels of modernity. So far as the level of modernity was concerned, it was found that 94.7 per cent of the respondents were at high level of modernity. 87 per cent of the respondents were at medium level of modernity and 74.6 per cent of the respondents were at low level of modernity but every one expressed that men and women should be treated at par in every respect.

Vardhan (1992) in “Women as Managers: Facts and Myths”, found the structure of Indian society was such that boys were brought up to expect that they should be able to support themselves and their families in an equitable manner. On the other hand, a girl was brought up to expect that in the ultimate analysis, someone else would have the prime responsibility for supporting her and looking after her. While the boy’s education was aimed at equipping him to be competitive and be able to land in a good job and a career, a girl’s education still centered around the fact that she might be spending time in a job till she got married and left it open ended.

The research conducted by Mehta, Chandwani and Mehta (1988) in “A Study on Problems and Role Conflict of Working Women” found that women were sensitive due to the nature of their upbringing and from their childhood they developed great power of endurance. A woman developed adjusting mechanism and thus faced crisis with confidence.

Joshi (1990) in “Women in Management: Perceptions and Attitudes of Managers” revealed that the majority of employed women were still expected to carry out all the household works. Husbands in general did not participated
in any of the household duties. The outcome of this situation was that a woman’s paid work got affected and put her at a disadvantage as compared to men. Thus, the woman does not want to be transferred to another part of the country because her husband might not be able to move with her. Yet she might move when her husband got transferred.

Krishanaraj (1986) through an empirical investigation of women scientists in her study gave an explanation for sexist bias in a changing society.

(iv) Gender Differences in Profession:

Though there are lots of studies about gender differences in profession abroad but in India only few studies have been conducted.

Das (1988) in ‘Sex discrimination against women at work’ revealed that, while equal pay for equal work was the law. Nevertheless, in all the 52 employment categories (from different industries, 32 employers, 52 managers, and 139 pairs of male and female employees doing work of similar nature. Females were paid lower wages than males for doing the same or similar work. Wages of the female employees ranged from 40 per cent to 70 per cent of the income of the male employees. The median annual wages of female workers in all the 52 employment categories was only 58 per cent of that of male workers. Because they possessed feminine attributes, they were paid lesser emoluments compared to the benefits usually given to the male workers in the male dominated informal sectors (Deshpande and Deshpande: 1998).

(v) Women in Management:

Naik (1992) in her study of “Development Programme for Women in Management” took sample of 430 respondents from 22 organizations, which included private sector, public sector and the government. This study included the respondents from all the age groups i.e. between 25-54 years. Women managers were in this profession because of challenge, security and career opportunities. Most of the respondents in this study were married and their husbands were from executive cadre. The results showed that they were torn
between different demands of job and family, job certainly took precedence in the lives of women executives. The entire area of multiple roles demands particularly in the case of women, the high pressure exerted by the need to meet these demands simultaneously and sequentially, an area of potential stress. The departments where mainly women were assigned were administration, personnel department and research and development, followed by finance departments with a weak representation of women in production, marketing and maintenance. Considering the fact that in most organizations the way to the top was through the line functions. According to this study women lacked in challenging opportunities. Poor opportunities for training and lack of career growth opportunities were areas where respondents feel side tracked and therefore stressed and thus perceived discrimination. This study also showed that women were as much interested in promotions as men were and had adequate leadership skills.

The real entry of women in the managerial field began only in the eighties when women entered the upper echelons in the fields of marketing, finance, research and development activities and entrepreneurship. In the nineties, women started taking up the jobs in the areas of industrial relations, production, other shopfloor activities and general management. As far as civil services were concerned women were in administration as far as 1955 (Karvat: 1998).

Parthasarthy (1991) in “Feminising the Workplace” conducted a survey on more than 250 females and about 80 male executives from different levels of the administrative colleges of India. They found a large concentration of married women managers in industry and business, academically well qualified (50 per cent of the sample had a degree in management, law or engineering). According to this survey majority of women were in middle management, in service and personnel functions, with only a few in industry, which indicated that the corporate sectors were experiencing the entry of young and highly educated women managers.
Deepti Bhatnagar (1987) in "A Study of Attitudes towards Women Managers in Banks" tried to explore respondents' attitude towards women in management. Data was collected from 201 (65 female and 136 male) employees from two banks (both at managerial and clerical level). Questionnaire was administered to all the respondents. This study presented a somewhat mixed picture, as men and women differ significantly in attitudes towards women managers. Women, naturally, had much more favorable attitudes than men did. In fact there was an undercurrent of resistance to women manager by males. At a general plane men tend to concede that women possess managerial capabilities, yet when it came to specific attributes like objectivity, confidence, need for challenging work, women's contribution to organizational goals etc. males had reservations about female managers possessing these attributes become pronounced. Though, men appeared to be comfortable with women subordinates, but not so comfortable with women bosses. In spite of women's overall managerial competence that they acknowledged, letting women reach senior management positions in banks.

Buddhapria (1999) in her study "Women in Management" studied 160 women executives from public sector and found that still the majority of managers were concentrated at lower level.

There was a tendency to regard women managers first as a woman and then as a manager. Men managers do not want women either to work under them or they do not like to work under women. They think that the managerial capacity of women was lower than that of men (Singh: 1980).

In one of the surveys conducted by the Foundation for Organizational Research and Education in a small sample of women managers, it was found that women themselves felt that there was no discrimination in the matter of employment. At the same time women felt that there was some degree of sexism and malpractice in career growth (Singh and Paul: 1991)

Sahgal (1992) in her article "Women Managers: Coping with Challenges", pointed out certain factors that concentrated primarily on the
cultural milieu which over the years, patterned largely due to contrived norms and value system. The values, myths and beliefs and a variety of factors shape attitude of society towards the role and status of women. Attributes valued highly in men reflect ‘a competent cluster’ included traits such as decisive decision making, ability strength business skills etc. while female valued traits include ‘warmth expressiveness cluster’. It was also perceived by both genders, that, male traits were socially more desirable in the work setting than female valued traits. It also appeared that girls as they grew up, learnt to value male traits as being more superior and consequently begin to value themselves less. In addition to this, girls were brought up to be submissive as a result of which they also developed the tendency to be self-depreciating and approval seeking.

The above-mentioned studies on women and her profession have shown the five related areas of categorization i.e. recruitment of women in different occupation and profession, effect of technology on gender, feminization of the work and gender studies in profession and women in management. We found that by and large women managers as a category remained unexplored and untouched so far by researchers. Women as managers received attention of scholars in other countries but in India only a few articles related to women managers have been published so far. The studies give only sketchy picture of women managers. Furthermore, studies on other profession are there but only one or two studies have been conducted on women in management. But we would like to go further and peep into the life Indian women managers who despite all odds have tried to enter in the male dominated and prestigious managerial profession but also made a place for themselves with great efforts, and left a mark behind. Therefore, the present study is an effort to look into the working pattern of women managers, their present status, gender inequality and discrimination faced by them.