CHAPTER 2- LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This section attempts to briefly review the existing literature on Women in management and its related issues. Issues included in the literature review consist of three sub-themes:- key concepts such as sex and gender, feminism, gender gap and gender inequality; women’s current representation in management and factors acting as barriers and promoters of career success.

Interest in this subject is not current; rather, it goes back to 1950s when it came to the attention of some of the researchers like Hughes, Everett C (1958) where he discussed occupational and social segregation. Although there is abundant literature on gender and family, we cannot state that it covers all aspects and factors relating to women in management. From the study conducted by Hughes, Everett C (1958), Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) to the current study by Alicia Kaufmann (2008), many important studies have been reviewed and included in this chapter.

Before exploring the literature on research area of women in management, it is necessary to understand the concept of sex, gender, masculinity, femininity, patriarchy and feminism. Hence, these concepts are discussed in further sub-section.

2.2 Key Concepts
Concepts are terminology used by social scientist to study social behaviour and society. For example, gender studies include several terms that define the framework in the study of human behaviour namely the construction of femininity, gender, gender roles, stereotypes, patriarchy, etc. These concepts help to analyse and understand the social differences based on gender in the society. As mentioned by Judith Butler (1990), “gender helps to study the differences in behaviour between men and women and to explore the basis of these differences as basically biological or as social constructions by the society.” Key concepts are explored and presented in the following section.
2.2.1 **Sex and Gender**

The term ‘sex’ and ‘gender’ are concepts used by academicians, practitioners and researchers to express the biological differences between ‘male’ and ‘female’ and social differences between ‘man’ and ‘woman’. In general, the term ‘sex’ indicates the biological and physiological differences between male and female. Thus, a newborn is labeled as ‘boy’ or ‘girl’ depending on genital difference i.e. the biological difference between the sexes. Most people are born (expect for third gender people) with one specific sex. However, individuals born with a specific sex learns and responds according to the specific gender expectations and roles which they learn in due course of their life. Biological females are socialized to think, behave and play feminine roles whereas biological males socialized to think, behave and play masculine roles. As the feminist writer Simone de Behaviour (1989) puts very correctly “one is not born a man but becomes one’, ‘one is not born a woman but becomes one.”

According to Judith Butler (1990), sex is natural distinction and comes first whereas gender is a secondary concept imposed over and above the natural distinction. Butler further considers ‘sex’ as a social category itself. She argues that ‘male’ and ‘female’ is a social construction which highlights the differences between ‘male’ and ‘female’. Even if we accept that there are basic differences between the ‘sexes’, butler does not find any logical or rational reason for the same. She considers it as mere way of dividing individuals into two groups. Further she adds that ‘sex’ is a normative category which specifies what men and women are and also what men and women have to be. It develops regulations to control the behaviour of men and women. However, there are some feminist writers who do not agree with Butler and consider ‘sex’ as biological and ‘gender’ as social construct.

2.2.2 **Masculinity and Femininity**

Masculinity and femininity are concepts that indicate the social outcomes of being male or female. It associates different qualities and personalities of men and women and offers certain advantage to men over women. The male body assumes certain traits and that characterise maleness or masculinity in our culture. Similarly, the female body assumes
certain traits that characterize female or femininity is in our culture. For example, ‘strong’ and ‘tough’ is associated with masculine personality and ‘weak’ and ‘soft’ is associated with feminine personality. Similarly, pink colour is treated as ‘feminine’ and blue colour as masculine. There are numerous other qualities and traits that are grouped in similar fashion as masculine and feminine. A person socially enters into gendered categories of masculine and feminine right from birth. Some of the feminist writers consider these differences as biological while others treat this as social construct. In current literature, we can notice a constant shift in the conceptualization of human beings as controlled by wholly biological or social forces. Individual’s expectations and lives have changed and their roles have broadened.

2.2.3 Patriarchy
Patriarchy is a commonly used term in day to day conversation which denotes male prejudice against women or male domination over women. In simple term, it refers to the total control of the eldest male member or the father over his family. However, in contemporary literature, feminist writers have used this term to explain the social system of male authority over women. The term patriarchy is not only a descriptive term but also used as an analytical category by feminism writers. It explains how different societies construct male authority and power and also explain critically the main components of authority and power in any social system. Patriarchy automatically privileges men over women such that women have little or no claims on material, sexual and intellectual resources of the society. In patriarchal society, women have to struggle to be educated, to have property or to make choices regarding marriage and other aspects of life. Their life is controlled. Whereas, for men, these resources are a matter of right and can make choices that affect their lives. Thus, patriarchy is one of the most important causes of gender disparities in the society (Rosemarie Tong 1989)

2.2.4 Feminism
Before we explore different feminist theories or approaches, it is essential to know the terms- ‘feminism’ and ‘feminist’. Feminism means an approach or a philosophy to look at the theory while feminist is a person who behaves according to feminist theory or
theories. Feminist may be an activist, social worker, social scientist, academic writer or a poet who express feminism in different ways. Feminist is a person who believes in fairness, equal opportunities and justice for all. Feminism, on the other hand, is social movement primarily concerned with discrimination faced by women and their inferior position in a society because of their sex. It is not a single concept but a group of ideas and action undertaken for women empowerment. Hence, all feminists identify a need for change in social, cultural, political, legal and economic environment to overcome the problem of inequality (Judith Butler 1990).

2.2.5 Gender Inequalities
Noteworthy progress has been achieved in reducing gender inequality in the labour market over recent decades. Government, trade unions, businesses and women’s organisations are continuously working to defeat the institutional and attitudinal discrimination that restricts women from economic, social and psychological growth. Unfortunately, inequality still persists in almost all fields and spheres of life. Gender Gap still exists even after various initiatives at national and international levels.

According to ILO 2014 report, in some of the developing countries, women experience significant challenges while entering the human resources market. The general global female workforce participation rate is around 50 percent. The corresponding participation rate for men is around 77 percent. This represents a global gender participation gap of around 27 percent in 2014. However, a wide variation is evident between the advanced and developing countries. In the developed countries and European Union, the gap is around fourteen percent, which is roughly the same in East Asia. In sub-Saharan Africa, the gap is only eleven percent, as higher percentage of population remains poor and has no option but to accept any sort of job offered. At the other hand, in South Asia and North Africa, the gender participation gap is around 50 percent and expected to narrow down by hardly one percentage in the next decade. While in the Middle East, the gender participation gap is around 56 percent and is predicted to remain above 55 percent in 2024. These statistics urge a need to explore the concept of gender inequality and scope of gender inequality in depth.
2.2.6 Meaning and Scope of Inequality

Gender gap measures a gap between men and women employees in terms of their position, participation and status in the labour market. It measures and highlights the areas where women are disadvantaged as compared to men. It is positive where gap exists or negative where the gap does not exist or is reversed. Therefore, a 'positive gap' in unemployment indicates women’s disadvantage, with a higher female unemployment rate than among men. On the other side, ‘negative gaps’ in unemployment indicates men are disadvantaged at some point of time. In both the cases, closing the gap means moving towards zero.

ILO 2012 report analyses the women’s position in the labour market by measuring five key gaps between women and men. It includes unemployment, employment, labour force participation, vulnerability and sectoral and occupational segregation.

According to ILO (2012), the gender gap in unemployment was constant at around 0.5 percent during the period 2002 to 2007. The report states that female unemployment rate was higher as compared to male unemployment rate which was 5.8 percent for female and 5.3 percent for male. The global economic crisis increased this gender gap to 0.7 percent in 2012 and reduced around thirteen million jobs for women employees. The report also projects no significant improvement in the ratio even by 2017.

The global gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio reduced marginally during 2002 to 2007, but remained high at around 25 percent. The reduction in the gap was observed particularly in Latin America, the Caribbean and the advanced economies of Africa and the Middle East. However, in South Asia the gender gap in the employment-to-population ratio increased from 45.9 to 48.1 percent during 2007 to 2012. Further, it was observed that South Asian countries consistently showed negative employment growth rates for women, although South Asian countries were not the majorly affected by the economic crisis (ILO, 2012). The reason for such gaps may be attributed to in the broadest sense to the disparities in the labour market pyramid and labour force participation rates in general.
In the 1990s, the global gender gap in the labour force participation rate decreased from around 28 to 26 percent. Men’s participation rates noted significant reduction than women’s, in all regions. However, during 2002 to 2012, this gap remained stable, with equal reduction in both men’s and women’s participation rates. Three major reasons for this reduction are preference of younger population for higher education, aging of labour force and de-motivated workers. Further, major change was noted in three regions namely South Asia, East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. The highest change was found in South Asia, where women’s participation is reduced by four percent which resulted in increased gender gap in participation by two percent in last decade. Similarly, in East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe, the participation gap increased by 0.6 and 1.6 percent respectively. The report further adds that young female participation ratios reduced in all regions but adult female participation ratios reduced only in South Asia and East Asia by around four percent to two percent.

In addition, the quality of employment offered to women and men also differs significantly. A higher percentage of women are employed as family workers and own account workers, whereas men are hired as wage and salaried workers. Family worker have less status and pay than that of the salaried workers. The year 2012 records global gender gap of 2.3 percent with a higher percentage of women employed in vulnerable services and positions.

Further, women have very limited options for employment across sectors. This sectoral segregation increased over time as women move from agricultural sector to industrial sector and from industrial sector to service sector. In 2012, one sixth of women were employed in industry, nearly half in services and one third in agriculture globally. Women’s participation in the industrial sector rose marginal during last two decades as majority of women have shifted from agricultural sector directly to the service sector. In advanced countries, women’s employment in manufacturing sector was sliced nearly to half leading to overcrowding into the service sector, particularly in health and education. Occupational segregation, though persistent over time, has reduced slightly in the last decade. Women were over-occupied in administrative positions like clerks, shop and
sales jobs and service workers whereas men were over-occupied in plants, machine operations, crafts, trades, legislative and managerial occupations.

Since women and men tend to work in different occupation, they differ in earnings too. The ratio of female-to–male earning for full time U.S.A workers across all occupations is 76 percent and although this ratio has risen since 1970’s, the gap between male and female earnings remains significant. The sex difference in earnings exists across occupations. The wages earned in female-intensive occupations are typically lower than those earned in male-intensive occupations. In fact, the reduction in the earning gaps has been mainly due to the increased hiring of women in the sectors previously dominated by men like management, engineering and law. Although qualification and education has a significant positive impact on income, it offers more financial payback for men as compared to women. Unfortunately, the pay gap is present at every level of qualification, whether be it for an employee with bachelor degree, Master degree, diploma or post graduate degree. According to Roos & Gatta (1999), statistics presents a discouraging fact for women that as the educational qualification increases, women/men ratio decreases.

In summary, even if all sorts of jobs and positions are hypothetically open to all persons- ‘specific jobs are more suitable for one sex than the other. The lower paid and low status jobs and positions are more suitable for women whereas the highly paid and high status jobs and positions are more suitable for men. Working in male- intensive fields is more worthy than working in female- intensive fields. Further, work done by men attracts more monitory benefits than the work performed by women. To conclude, there is a 'cost of being women' that prevails within all occupations as well as across occupation, at all educational levels and in all racial and ethnic groups and cultures. This gender pay gap is a long-standing characteristic of the global economy, and not likely to disappear very soon (ILO, 2012).

There is another major area, where gender inequality is visible that is management sector. This filed is explored in-depth in the following section.
2.3 Women In Management Worldwide

Recent global statistics show that women continue to increase their share of managerial positions but the rate of progress is slow, uneven and sometimes discouraging for women. According to the catalysts survey conducted in 2010, women who represent 46.4 percent of the fortune 500 workforce occupied only 25.9 percent of senior officers and managers, 15.2 percent of board positions, 13.5 percent executive officers. Only 13 CEO positions (2.6 percent) out of 500 were occupied by women.

In 1995, women held just 8.7 percent of Fortune 500 corporate officer positions while in 2002, the percentage had increased to nearly double at 15.7 percent (Catalyst, 2002). The number of women serving as Fortune 500 Directors has risen only marginally from 2001 to 2007. In 2001 the proportion of women serving on Fortune 500 board was 12 percent and in 2007, it was 15 percent (Dan R. Dalton and Catherine M. Dalton, 2009). Women’s educational level and work participation are increasing worldwide. However, majority of the women continue to face occupational segregation in the place of work and hardly successful to shatter the glass ceiling which restricts women from leading positions (World of Work, No. 23, February 1998). According to the study conducted to find best performing CEO’s in the world, only twenty nine women had successfully made their presence in the entire list of 1,999 and Meg Whitman was the only one woman who had been included in the top 50’s (Morten T Hansen, Herminia Ibarra and Urs Peyer, Feb. 2010).

According to the study conducted in Australia by Leigh Funston and Hwafer Quach (December, 2008), 64 percent of the respondent had never worked in organisation having women as their Chief Executive Officer (CEO).

According to the one of the longitudinal study conducted in Tennessee, there is marginal development in the diversity at the Corporate Board of 102 public held organisations during the period 1996 to 2002. Total number of directors increased from 461 to 891, where as the total number of women increased from 25 to 52, recording the percentage of women on the board was 5.4 percent in 1996 and 5.8 percent in 2002. 63 percent of the
companies surveyed have no women directors on the board (Deborah E., Arfken, Stephanie L. Bellar, Amrilyn M. Helms, 2004).

The research study in France revealed that even though women constitute half of the number of students in the French Business and Management schools, the same proportion was not found in the workplace. Women who have been successful have to make some scarifies in their personal lives. Almost 90 percent of the women surveyed acknowledged the existence of barriers, differential salaries and professional status (Christine Pie’dalu, 2003). Barriers include factors namely, difficulty faced by women in integrating into male dominated sectors, lesser availability, lesser mobility and male ‘buddy’ networks.

In Japan, though women participation in the labour force was approximately 48 percent, hardly women were in management jobs (approximately nine percent) (ILO, 2008). According to another study, out of a total of 1,198 Board of Directors positions of the top 100 Japanese companies, women occupy only seventeen positions which represent hardly 1.4 percent (Corporate Women Directors International, 2009).

In developed country like USA, around 47 percent women participated in workforce in 2010 and nearly 50 percent are involved in management, professional and related occupation. However, the percentage of women executive holding Board of Directors positions is very marginal as compared to men (97.4 percent) in fortune 500 companies (Catalysts, 2010). Another study in U.S.A aimed at finding women representation at the board and identifying gender pay gaps found that women managers continue to lag behind their male counterparts in both advancement and pay during the period 1995 to 2000. The study also noted the pay gap increased significant during 1995 to 2000. Further, women’s presence at the board level, at the most powerful and economically beneficial positions is not equal to their participation in the management jobs (John D. Dingell, Carolyn B Maloney, 2001).

According to one of the surveys conducted in Australia, women in the top three tiers of management continue to be under-represented even in the public sector. Women in the Senior Executive Service were roughly 24 percent in 2006 but reduced to around 23
percent in 2007. A marginal increase has been noted in junior level and middle level positions where hardly 0.1 percent increase was observed in top management positions during 2006 to 2007 (Office of EEO, Government of Western Australia, 2009).

We can find the similar trends in the Indian corporate sector. Presently, Indian women have begun to attend Higher Education Universities and Business Schools for professional development. While female students have secured engineering and business degrees with honors from excellent institutes, still most top positions in India are held by men (Gupta A., Koshal M., & Koshal R. K., 2006). According to Saini D.S. (2006), the percentage of women in management is approximately three percent to six percent, while roughly three percent of Indian women function as manager in Indian business corporations.

Various researches have confirmed that women are usually placed at junior management levels which are 'non-strategic', like clerical, administration and human resources management rather than in core functions like line management jobs which involve core decision making and that ultimately lead to the top.

The literature review of various studies highlight the problem of the invisible artificial barriers created by attitudinal and organisational prejudices which block women from senior executive positions; which is popularly known as ‘glass ceiling’ and ‘glass walls’. These concepts are described in detail in the further sub-sections.

### 2.3.1 Glass Ceiling and Glass Walls

The term ‘Glass Ceiling’ depicts the unseen artificial barriers, created by personal attitudes and organisational preconceptions which restrict women executives from higher management positions (Linda Wirth, 2004). Capable and skilled women can view what they are capable of achieving, but these glass ceilings restrict them from achieving the desired top positions. Glass ceiling at the work place is basically an indication of economic and social gender inequalities. It describes the situation where there is no objective answer to logical question- why women not growing to the higher management
positions as men do. It points at the innate inequality in the processes and structures of both organisations and society in general. The glass ceiling generally represented by a pyramidal shape and may be present at different levels from junior to top levels depending on organisational hierarchy as shown in figure 2.1.

Even if, women enter the organisation at the same level as men, they have to perform better and work hard than men to reach to the top level jobs. Women are usually more educated and qualified than men; still they are placed at junior management positions. Similar finding were obtained by a survey conducted in Germany. According to the survey, around 25 percent men and 34 percent of women managers had Master’s degree, whereas 36 percent of men and 46 percent of women managers obtained PhD degree (Managerial Union of Employees in Germany, 1997). As per the study of bank employees in Canada, women equaled or sometimes surpassed men executives on all important human resources parameters such as qualification, tenure of service, motivation and job performance, still they face higher challenges than men in reaching to the top management jobs (M. C. Mattis, 1994).

Glass wall describes the effect of occupational and departmental segregation in the various industries which leads to concentration of women managers in certain sectors and industries. Most women managers are over-crowded in banking and finance, medicine and health services, retail distribution and hotel and catering sectors. Very few women are employed in research and development, manufacturing and production fields. Although, few women are successful in entering these male-intensive industries, often found in less vital or non-strategic roles. Thus, glass wall can be defined as an invisible barrier that prevents women to shift latterly into strategic areas which are pathways to key executive positions in the organisations (Linda Wirth, 2004; ILO 2012).

According to a survey conducted in United Kingdom in 1998, women held 50 percent of all personnel managers, 44 percent of administrative, insurance and pension managers and around 38 percent of marketing managers’ positions. On the other hand, they occupied three percent of research and development, three percent of manufacturing and
production managers’ position. Similarly, at the director level, women occupied eighteen percent of personnel directors and thirteen percent of marketing directors’ positions. Further, no women directors were found in production, marketing, purchasing and contracting departments.

Figure 2.1 - The glass ceiling and glass walls in the organisational hierarchy

Literature survey of glass ceiling and glass wall encourage identifying various barriers to women in management. These barriers are explored in depth and presented in further subsections.

2.4 Factors Impacting Career Growth of Women In Management

There are several factors which may act as barriers to women managers or may foster women’s career growth. These factors are discussed in detail in the following section.

2.4.1 Barrier to Women In management

In almost all countries, women occupy very few managerial positions and in most cases they are virtually invisible in senior management positions. Yet there is considerable variance in the ratio of women’s representation at management and prospectus for their
entry and promotion at such positions in different countries and regions. The factors causing these variations are cultural, traditional and social norms, stage of economic development, social policies, access to education and organisational processes. The factors that constraint women’s career growth include social and cultural factors, educational credentials, professional qualifications, family responsibilities, organisational policies and networking opportunities.

According to the study conducted in Australia by Leigh Funston and Hwafer Quach (2008), family responsibilities, work environment, childcare support policies, leave policies are the top five important factors for women’s career growth at the senior management positions. Lack of time, the women herself, prejudices, social roles assigned to women, sexism are the prominent barriers to the Brazilian women whereas traditional way of thinking, social roles of women, traditional male thinking, social gender awareness and prejudice are the most prominent barriers to the Chinese women (Erika Zoeller Veras, 2008).

During literature survey, the barriers identified are grouped under three heads- personal constraints, organisational constraints and social constraints and presented in the following section-

- **Personal Constraints**

  Personal factors are factors related to the individual. According to Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964), there are individual factors which may affect executive's career growth. According to Human Capital Theory, each individual invests in education and accumulates a skill and experiences required for career growth. Women’s investment in education is comparatively less than men, which may be due to anticipated career breaks for maternity (Mincer and Polacheck, 1974). As per accumulated educational credentials, job preferences and own limitations, individuals search for job and try to absorb the opportunities available to them. Organisations also consider education, skills and experiences before appointing any staff. Women, due to their limited investment in education may not be preferred by organisations seeking competitive advantage in the
market. It leads to women’s low salary and monetary benefits and limited career growth opportunities (Tharenou, Latimer and Conroy, 1994).

There is no second opinion that education is an important criterion for hiring women at the managerial position in most of the countries, particularly at the middle and top levels. Formal education plays a more important role where managers are recruited directly from universities and management colleges (Keller Brow, 1988). Where managers are recruited through in-firm training programs or through other channels, as is the case in England, a university degree is not much significant (Hammond, 1988). According to Keller Brown, absence of educational qualification may create a double hurdle for women executives. Firstly, they must be absorbed by the organisation and they must be selected for training programs specially designed for potential managers. Where higher education is extremely essential at the entry level, requirement may differ as the levels of the management changes (Antal, Kresbach-Gnath, 1988).

Lack of professional and technical qualification may restrict women from advancing in male dominated industries. For example, in India the choice of stream of higher secondary education is usually selected by the parents and elderly guardians of kids. Parents always give preference to the educational stream which is feminine for their daughter and masculine for their son. They usually put their daughter in commerce or arts and son in science and engineering. Similar preferences were observed in Japan, where very few female students opt for science, engineering and technical studies than other streams (Gender Equality Bureau, Japan, 2009). As a result when opportunities are available, usually there is a shortage of qualified and trained women candidates to absorb this opportunity.

In addition to educational qualification, the selection and placement decision of employees are also based on their adaptability and aptitude for learning and training. The Job competency model says that employers select most productive and retainable candidates which require less training cost. Women candidates are generally placed at the lower end of the waiting list, assuming that they require more training cost (Thurow, 1975).
Secondly, experience is weighted on higher scale while selecting or promoting a person for the higher level jobs. According to ILO, 2004, roughly 54 percent of the respondents were of the opinion that women land up into the job profiles which did not lead to the top management jobs. Lack of general management or line experience is the most prominent barrier for women in management (Sheila Wellington, et. al. 2003).

Another factor important for women executives is the level of confidence. It is observed during many studies that lack of confidence may act as one of the barriers to women in management. Women may have high confidence in their own abilities and talents, but at the same time may find it difficult to compete with men. They tend to believe that hard work will help them to draw attention of their superiors and thus may lead to their promotion. Whereas, in practice, they tend to be left out to continue with the same job, in contrast, man who puts more efforts into preparing him for the next job will be the one who gets it.

This is of course, partly a question of ‘politics’ and of masculine organisational game. If women are less skilled or feel a strong distaste for this sort of competitiveness, they may lose out despite high ability and motivation. Recent surveys on attitude of men and women managers in United States have tended to show little difference between them on many indicators of experience and potential, other than in certain types of power, where more men seek and obtain power over information and budgets (Harlan and Weiss, 1981).

In any society the centrality of family life is a major variable in determining the cost for women of selecting a managerial career and subsequently, the likelihood of achieving that position. In societies where marriage and birth rates are high and the divorce rate is low, the family is given more priority over the career of women and thus center of all other social events. The parenting role is gender specific and the ideology of motherhood requires that the mother is eminently available to her children. In such societies, women are less likely to be able to ‘afford’ the social and psychological costs of entering a ‘time-greedy’ occupation such as management.
Further, a person looking for a big corporate job has to take big challenges and shoulder larger responsibilities. The career progression phase such as promotion and job enrichment opportunity generally comes at a certain age when an individual is between thirties to forties. During this period, when men are full set to take charge of new jobs and challenges, women are already full with family responsibilities (ILO, 2000). Higher household responsibilities, pre-adolescent and teenage children, hormonal changes leading up to menopause may restrict women to accept more responsible jobs which may lead to further increase in their stress levels (Louann Brizendine, 2008). In Japan, when the perceptions about ‘why women are not advancing?’ were identified, 4.5 percent of 6,700 companies were of the opinion that an employee having high family responsibilities is not appropriate for management jobs (ILO, 2004). Women are still seen as the primary caretakers in Australian households which again have a negative impact on the career development of the women at management levels (Leigh Funston and Hwafern Quach, December 2008). Further, it is also observed that proportion of non-married women managers is significantly higher as compared to non-married men mangers (Adler N. J., Izraeli D N., 1988).

However, it is also important to mention here that present generation of the young and highly qualified women managers experiences greater compatibility between family and work responsibilities. These young women managers are more likely to be married and receive more support from their husband and family members than earlier generations; therefore, more likely to achieve higher managerial positions (Andrew C., Coderre C., and Denis A., 1988).

Management is typically seen as a male role, and women are primarily stereotyped into family/ domestic role, even if their interest in domestic/family affairs is considerably less than that of their male counterparts. Greenhalgh (1980) has shown that career patterns of single women are still more akin to those of other women than of single or married man. Those who seek covertly or overtly, to achieve an appropriate balance of responsibilities are criticized for ‘wanting it both ways’, and ‘lacking commitment’.
Women’s family roles as daughters, wives or mothers create very real stresses and pressures, both psychological and physical for women executives. Psychological stress is generated by the need to be the perfect wife, mother and homemaker and conform to social images of femininity. This generates many problems, conflicts and burdens of responsibility which reduce career ambition and performance of women executives. Physical stress and exhaustion resulting from both demanding roles often limit women career whether she is single or married, with or without children (Cooper and Davidson, 1982).

- **Organisational Constraints**

When barrier to women managers were explored further, organisational constraints appears to be the significant factor. According to Institutional Theories, the characteristics of an organisation such as its size, prestige and relation with public authorities and working environment also affect women's presence in the organisation (Cotter, 1995).

The first study was conducted by Rosebeth Moss Kanter (1977) in her classic book ‘*Men and Women of the Corporation*’, where she has analyzed gender difference in higher positions. The originality of her formula lies in the fact that she takes organisational approach to the role of occupational structure and all its labour-related factors. She came up with the famous line that "*Power wears you out, but not having it wears you out even more.*" Following this line of thought, Kanter analyzed the segregated role of women inside the corporations and why there are so few women in upper management positions that they effectively become the 'tokens' who represent the rest of their social group. This is the reason why the women who make it to the top are viewed as representative symbol of the entire female community rather than as individuals. Being the minority group member each one of their steps are carefully monitored and later extrapolated to the entire group. This is partly the reason why female managers experience loneliness, undue pressure, isolation, lack of other female reference and exclusion from male networks. This constant pressure erodes their self-assurance and self-esteem and in some cases creates a strong feeling of guilt because their potential mistakes could compromise the
professional career of the other women. However, the same does not apply to their male counterpart because, being in the majority, the entire group is not held responsible for mistakes made by one of its members (ibid)

There is also the 'queen bee' phenomenon, consisting of women who have risen to the top on their own and have little sense of gender camaraderie. They adopt male patterns that lead them to ‘not favour’ the career of other women in order to avoid being accused of favoritism towards their peers, which would make them lose the respect of their male colleagues and also female colleagues.

Few organisations adopt ‘showcase women’ strategy, a position created to make the company look more modern. The feelings produced by this type of job are very negative and in the long run, the position itself tends to be devaluated which would again make women to lose the respect of their male colleagues.

Lack of role model and absence of involvement in decision making is one of the important factors which affect women on the board. Women, during their career are not involved in strategic decision making processes. As a result, their growth in this direction is limited which further restrict them from taking more challenging and difficult tasks. Lack of role model to guide them further curtails their chances of career development within an organisation (ILO, 2000).

Absence of involvement in decision making is one of the important factor which affect women on the board. Women, during their career are not involved in strategic decision making processes. As a result, their growth in this direction is limited which further restrict them from taking more challenging and difficult tasks. A noticeable difference does exist in the planning and organising functions, suggesting that women managers are probably less involved in organisational policy formulation and goal setting as well as in determining how organisational goals will be carried out (John F, Veiga & John N. Yanouzas, 1976).
When the factors acting as a force behind career change are analysed, interestingly ‘difficult manager’ was the prominent factor forcing women to change their job; however it is not in the case of males. Further, it is also found out that men at all managerial levels are more satisfied with their career growth than women. It suggests that different treatment might be given to men and women executives by their managers (Nancy M. Carter & Christine Silva, 2010).

Supportive and co-operative environment is also an important element to help women to climb up the hierarchy. However, in Australia around 64 percent of the respondents believe that the Australian organisations lack supportive and co-operative environment which is essential for achieving seniority at par with their male counter parts (Leigh Funston and Hwafern Quach, December 2008).

Similarly lack of social capital also can pose a problem to women in management. Usually, individuals form a group within an organisational structure based on similar characteristics, demographic profile, values and interests. These groups develop social identity based on their gender, race, class, occupation and interests, which is later reinforced into inter-group and intra-group communications. This group formation may result in biasness in decision making and evaluation process. The Social Network and Social Cohesion Theory found that such groups restrict the access to the valuable information and resources to non-members. For example, the board members have valuable resources and information which they share only to members of their network (Westphal J. D. and Zajac, 1995). Executives who are unsuccessful in building networks and socializing may lack behind from those who have successfully developed strong network, within and outside the organisation (Fred Luthans, 1988). Lack of social capital can partially answer the issue of limited women at the board.

Presence of mentor also impact career growth of executives. In some organisations, mentors are appointed to help women and men to develop themselves for the future opportunities; however women are not strongly promoted and sponsored the way men are. Women receive guidance to improve their skills and leadership qualities but the
promotions are usually given to men (Herminia Ibarra, Nancy M, Carter and Christine Silva, Sept. 2010). According to a survey conducted in 6,700 Japanese companies, it has been observed that in nearly 31 percent of these companies, men executives were promoted faster than women executives with the same educational level (ILO, 2004).

In addition, when existing literature is explored to discover the causes behind glass ceiling and glass walls, old boys’ network which is also known as “Homophile Principal” is identified as one of the important cause. People interact primarily to those who share similar characteristics and develop gender-homogeneous groups and networks within and outside organisation. These interactions also affect decisions about promotion, transfers and recommendations. A person prefers another person with similar characteristics and gender. As a result, the top decision makers who are generally male prefer men for management jobs (Ridgeway, 1997).

Despite all these barriers, if women are successful in achieving top position in the management, they have to prove themselves and undergo rigorous performance evaluation as they are visible ‘token’ at the management (Kanter, 1977). This increases their chances of demotion from the present position retaining the monopoly of few individuals at the management level. This is also supported by ‘pollution theory’. According to Goldin’s Pollution Theory (2002), when an organisation recruits female candidates in a male dominated occupation, the level of male’s prestige and pride comes down. Men strongly believe that any person who wants to enter into these professions needs special characteristics and qualities which give them pride and self esteem. Therefore, for a general desire to protect their occupational prestige or status, whenever a woman enters into male dominated fields, she may be treated differently by other males on the ground that she is a member of an average characteristics group without considering her qualification and credentials. These males may create barriers and problems to these women who have successfully broke the glass ceiling.

A very interesting fact has been brought into notice by the study conducted by Andrew O’Connell. According to the study, as the number of women board members increases,
the price of equity shares reduces slightly. This effect is not associated with any short fall in the organisation’s performance but is the result of the investors’ biasness, specifically institutional investors (HBR, 2010).

Similarly, the American Association of University Women (AAUW), 1991, conducted a survey on self-esteem among young executives and concluded that young women believes that the prevailing organisational cultural values offer less opportunities to women than men to access non-traditional careers. Recent studies in the United States concluded that even if the country has achieved equal pay at highest levels, women managers faced another type of hurdle. They find it difficult to adjust into the prevailing male culture, which treat women executives as a minority group. Further, the ethical values of the organisation and specifically the personality and management style of top managers are likely to influence the pattern and scope of career growth of women executives. A positive attitude can ensure the career development of women and a negative attitude will restrict women advancement beyond a certain limit, except in some profiles considered ‘suitable’ for women.

It is most frequently observed that support for women’s career development is more just a lip-service of the top management, without taking any major steps to improve the scenario, specifically anything that may seems to be treating women differently from men, and may be termed as discrimination. Nevertheless, where the organisational culture is employee oriented and actually interested in participatory management, open relationships and willingness to change, there is wider scope for women’s career growth.

Further it is also observed that women experiences different barriers in accordance with their position in the organisational hierarchy, while generally women executives face greater barriers than men executives. Other analyses indicate that women are usually excluded from informal networks and denied access to valuable resources and information that may assist women executives to enhance their performance.
Further organisational management policies and practices also have significant effect on women’s management career. The recruitment policy of the organisation will have significant effect on the women’s representation at the management. Many jobs are still treated as ‘suitable for men’ or ‘suitable for women’. These patterns of job segregation, both horizontal and vertical, have significant impact on recruitment policies. Moreover, young women are more likely to be taken on the jobs demanding lower educational requirement while young men are appointed to career positions demanding high level or graduate level qualification. If initial hiring to the organisation for particular positions is unbalanced, it is of course unlikely that the pattern will improve later, specifically in the organisation with strong internal labour markets and a policy of ‘promotion from within’ where possible. Research shows that many interviewers still define supervisory traits for managerial jobs which men will posses rather than women. Further they assume that the ‘relevant experience’ that they are looking for are more likely to be found in a man than a woman executive (Cooper C. L. & Davidson M. J, 1984; Hunt, 1975).

Difference in training and development programmes offered to men and women also affects women representation on the board. In 1980’s requirement of ‘generalist’ rather than narrow specialist managers were felt by the organisations. This was usually acquired through a complementary mix of cross-functional experience and training courses. Able women were frequently kept in one specialist area—often personnel, training or planning rather than given wider experience, as bright young men would be (Savage, 1981). It is very important to understand how people are selected for training courses, whether women request for some training or they are nominated for the programmes. In one of the surveys it was found that very few women managers are nominated to General Managers Training programmes by the private sector organisations as compared to men mangers. In the current scenario, greater emphasis is given to self-development or on coaching. This still puts more responsibility on the personnel manager or the boss to discuss with the executives and to take this through, so that self-development takes place genuinely and appropriately (Mumford, 1980).
Another major developmental experience for younger managers may be work in special projects teams or seconded short-term assignments, which give them greater visibility and contacts. These exposures widen their experience and expertise. Women may lose out involuntarily in this process. Similarly, women executives who had got an opportunity to work under female leadership in the initial phase of their career are more likely to grow faster than women who worked under male-dominated hierarchies; however this relation is not found in case of males (Tharenou P, 2001).

Training and promotion tend to be closely linked to a formal appraisal process in most of the organisations. Many executives are aware of the shortcomings of their system and the need for more training of their managers in operating it. However, there is little discussion or monitoring of sex-role issues (Stewart and Stewart, 1977). Some (or most) men find it even more difficult to appraise women honestly than they do men. There is a greater tendency to avoid discussion of women’s weaknesses and give an impression that everything is very satisfactory, or even very good, but then they rate them as ‘not fitted for promotion’ (Corby, 1983). The traits and characteristics rated positively for men are most likely to be rated negatively for women. A woman may be marked down as ‘passive’ or ‘lack of initiative’ and therefore rejected promotion opportunity. On the one hand, another woman may be marked down as ‘too aggressive’ and therefore rated as not suitable to become managers. Coaching is needed if her ‘passivity’ or ‘aggressiveness’ is really an obstacle to her in becoming an effective manager or it is the stereotypes in the interviewers mind that are affecting her promotion possibilities. If appraisal systems really measure the traits objectively focusing on the performance and achievements, it is likely that women are rated high as they often seem to put much more effort into doing a good job rather than into being seen to do it.

According to the status characteristics theory (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997), the expectation of standards of ability from minority individuals including women is higher than the high standard group. Potential women candidates more likely need to prove themselves for corporate level jobs than other men candidates. This may be one reason
which limits women from advancing further in the management (Hillman, Cannella and Harris, 2002).

Another important organisational policy which may affect women’s career growth is the promotion policy of the organisation. Even with internal advertising and formalized interviewing, promotion still tends to be a highly subjective process which needs constant monitoring to avoid any sort of discrimination in the system. Absence of monitoring, personal nomination by senior men managers and reliance on word-of-mouth increases the subjective nature of the process, which may affect women’s promotion possibilities (Savage, 1982). There are certain posts in the organisation which surely leads to the top management positions. If no women executives are hired for these posts, equal opportunity policy in practice is questionable. Sometimes promotions are linked with geographical mobility, which may be barrier in some cases. Although many organisations are already modifying these requirements, women may be deliberately discouraged from seeking promotion by exaggerating potential travelling or requirement to shift to another location, which are likely to be infrequent or flexible in practice. The next major obstacle to promotion is always the fact that a woman is likely to have a baby and leave. If they are not promoted, then they may well leave for a more creative alternative. The timing of both the decision to leave and whether or not to return may be affected by the management policy, but this is often ignored as an area of management responsibility.

According to Kanter (1977), there are two types of groups in every organisation—‘the moving’ and ‘stuck’. Behaviour characteristic of ‘stuckness’ has been usually attributed to women in the work place, whereas characteristic of ‘moving’ has been attributed to men. In Japan, mobility is considered as essential requirement for senior jobs. About two-third of the surveyed Japanese firms exclude women from the transfer system, thus depriving them of the opportunities to gain sufficient experience to advance in their careers (Steinhoff & Tanaka, 1988).

Further, the extent to which organisational formal polices make provision for maternity leave adjustment, flexible working time or re-entry facilities may critically influence the retainment and development of its women employees. If there are no such polices, then
even a discussion of career and career growth is unlikely to take place. Inadequacy or absence of childcare facilities and schemes in recent years is identified as significant barrier for women’s career growth.

Apart from individual and organisational barriers, socio-cultural constraints also limit women’s progress at the management levels. These are discussed in following section.

- **Socio-Cultural Constraints**

Socio-cultural constraints include gender stereotype, gender norms, gender role, discrimination and harassment issues. The socio-cultural traditions in each region define the ground rules for men and women. Customs and religious laws vary in the rights they grant women to enter the public domain and in their recognition of women’s independent status. Traditions require women to withdraw from the labour force upon marriage, a social norm that impacts management assignment policies (Powell, G. N., Butterfield, D A., & Parent J D., 2002). Further, gender stereotype, gender norms, gender role, discrimination and harassment have strong negative impact on women in management.

Gender stereotyping in management may strongly affect the women executive’s career growth. Women are either seen as too ‘feminine’ thus not really ‘managers’ or ‘non-conformist’ and thus not really a ‘woman’ or ‘not our sort’. According to Cooper, C. L. & Davidson, M. J., 1984, these stereotypes are most likely held at the higher level of organisation both in public and private sector industries. However, public organisations are hiring more women executives than private sector organisations. Everywhere management and leadership positions are considered as a male domain. Accepted view about managerial traits is socially constructed from stereotypically masculine traits and social norms. Managerial positions are usually offered to men. Women, comparatively new entrant, seem to be operating on a different track without much knowledge of the set of the rules, norms and lack of support from male colleagues. They have neither served as ‘role models’ for younger women nor could help them to climb the ladder in turn (Gary Powell, 2009). More recent studies of gender stereotypes in 30 different nations found evidence for common male and female stereotypes. Across cultures, the male stereotypes
were seen as strong and active than the female stereotypes. The male stereotypes were characterized by high need for dominance, autonomy, aggression, and achievement; whereas the female stereotypes were characterized by high need for deference, nurturance and affiliation (Deaux, K., & Kite, M., 1993; William J E & Best D. L., 1990; Ruble, D. N. & Ruble T.L., 1982).

Gender stereotypes may results into several problems. Over reliance on gender stereotypes may result into high prejudice and discrimination towards each other (Fiske, S.T., 1998). Secondly, gender stereotypes does hold true all the time that all men are masculine and all female are feminine (Powell, G. N., Butterfield, D A., & Parent J D., 2002). When people are stereotyped on any dimension of diversity, we may overlook who they really are as individuals. People need to be very cautious when they differentiate individuals. They need to understand whether these differences are based on the abilities, attitudes and behavior or merely based on biological differences between the sexes.

The outcome of the gender stereotype is Gender Discrimination. Gender Discrimination can also curb the possibilities of equal employment opportunities at the management levels. Discrimination refers to a situation where an individual or a group is preferred over other based on certain characteristics shared by a certain section of the population, irrespective of their productive capabilities. There are two types of discriminations which affect women- intentional and unintentional. Under intentional discrimination, biased personal preferences may exclude certain persons from sharing resource and information valuable for career growth (Becker, 1971). Unintentional discrimination is also referred as ‘statistical discrimination’ which means when an employer do not have perfect information about candidate's credentials and productive characteristics, he takes decision based on other signals like color of skin, gender, culture which do not have any statistical justification. The employer who has limited information and is unable to distinguish between women who will stay and who will quit the labour market will try to refrain from hiring women and prefer men to women (Phelps, 1972).
The devaluation of female work ultimately affects pay structure of women’s job. Under *evaluative discrimination*, women are paid less salary in female-intensive jobs irrespective of their qualification and skills. Further, greater the representation of women in a particular job, lower the pay for both men and women (Peterson, Saporta, 2004). Even within a specific job, whether it is male dominated or female dominated or gender integrated, women’s work is devalued and they are paid less than the male employees. This is known as *allocative discrimination* (ibid). All such types of discrimination ultimately result in gender inequality at the labour market and thus adversely affect women in Management.

General tendencies within management and leadership sometimes have a greater and more directly oppressive impact on women in form of sexual harassment, including that by men managers of subordinate women, and even of women managers and professionals (McIntosh, J, 1982). Surveys in both Britain and United States have recorded very high rates of sexual harassment of women entering work in jobs not 'traditionally' defined as 'work of women' and therefore in relative isolation from other women (Gutek B. A., and Morasch B., 1982). Such conditions apply to many women in management and other leadership roles, and this raises the question of how men in positions of power may collude with other, less-powerful men in the process of harassment of women. The significance of sexuality and indeed of sexual harassment in leadership is that it is spread into both the private and public domain.

Another social factor may affect women in management is Self Schema, an individual’s own understanding of self based on many factors including sex, gender roles, gender, norms, values, and attitude appropriate for male and female. Gender self-schema is developed since our childhood. In general, male gender schemas judge male as bread earner, aggressive, dominating, courageous, achievement and autonomy oriented. Female gender schemas consider women as homemaker, affiliation and nurturing oriented, respectful and abasement (Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb and Corrigall, 2000). These gender self-schemas are present in every individual and may affect the potential candidate as well as the decision of selection executives (Oakley, 2000). Further, gender
schemas develop ‘Gender Status Belief’ (Ridgeway, 1997), which treats one gender as superior and competent than other and thus justifies men higher status than women. Effective leadership is normally portrayed as masculine function and women are assumed to be not suitable for those functions which demands masculine attributes. This stereotype limits opportunities of advancement for women (Catalysts, 2004). Another consequence of self-schemas is ‘Devaluation’ of female jobs (England, 1989). Concurrent with the historical model, where males are responsible for paid work and women for unpaid household work, males are characterized as ‘rational’ whereas women are characterized as ‘emotional’. Rational men are always valued more than the emotional females. This ultimately results in different performance standards and rewards for women and a general devaluation of female work.

Based on the gender stereotypes, gender roles are assigned for each sex. The female gender role is usually valued less that male gender role. Thus, accepting female role means accepting others’ control and being dependent on others for various aspects and decisions of one’s life. Lack of control may result in depression and other forms of illness. Further, the female gender role gives more weightage to self-awareness and encourages expression of feelings. Admission of difficulties could lead women to be greater aware of ill health and search for help from others as compared to men (Travis, C. B., 1993). In contrast, the male gender role is linked with inexpressiveness, aggressiveness and competitiveness which may put men in risky situations and health problems. Adherence to male gender role means lack of self-awareness to signals of illness, suppressing one’s feeling and always striving for to be in control of the situation. This creates unnecessary burden on male to pretend that everything is under-control (Sabo, D., & Gordon D. F., 1995). Masculinity and femininity were usually understood to be opposite until the beginning of the feminists movements. If an individual was ranked high in masculinity, he or she was ranked low in femininity, and vice versa. Males were assumed to be masculine, females were assumed to be feminine and if any person did not fit into this scale were considered to be different and call for rigorous treatment (Constantinople, A., 1973).
Another important social factor which may affect women’s managerial career is Sexism. The term sexism refers to discrimination displayed towards members of one sex, particularly women. Sexism, like prejudice in general, is usually assumed to represent a negative attitude. However, some researchers have distinguished between *hostile sexism* and *benevolent sexism* (also known as ‘subtle sexism’). Hostile sexists, as the label suggest, display blatantly negative attitude toward women as a group. In contrast, benevolent sexists display more positive attitude of glorification of women as pure and amazing human beings, caring and parenting and tenderness towards women for making men’s lives complete. Benevolent sexists may seem less offensive than hostile sexists because they essentially put women on pedestals. They do so, however, to justify women’s subordination to men. Thus, both hostile and benevolent sexism may be used as justification for sex inequalities in the workplace (Benokraitis, N. V., 1997; Unger R. & Saundra, 1993; Glick P., & Fiske, S. T., 1996; Glick, P., & Fiske S. T., 2001). Another categorisation may also be made between old-fashioned sexism and modern sexism. The old-fashioned sexist is biased and discriminates against women who search non-traditional roles in the organisation whereas the modern sexist discriminates against women who express the presence of such barriers which limit their performance. Despite full evidences of barriers and disparities in the organisational status and pay, the modern sexist continue to deny the existence of such barriers to women’s career growth and equal opportunities at the organisation (Swim, J.K., Aikin, K. J., Hall W. S., & Hunter B. A., 1995). Such open display of negative sexist attitude has diminished over the years at least in public domain. It is now less fashionable to be a hostile or old-fashioned sexist (i.e. to be blatantly prejudiced against women as group) than it is to be benevolent or modern sexist. Men’s domination of leadership in formal, public terms at least, means that many models of masculinity are based on some form of power. Those in formal positions of leadership may also have either the responsibility for, or an interest in, controlling the sexual behaviour and attitudes of subordinates (Burrell, G., 1984). Such interest in others’ sexual behaviour on the part of leaders may be particularly acute in 'total institutions', where responsibility extends over both staff and intimates. In most organisations management of sexuality usually involves assumptions of 'normality' and generally,
heterosexuality (Rich, A., 1980). This can have a wide range of subtle effects on the selection and promotion of leaders and managers.

According to ‘segmented labour market theory’ (Conduto de Sousa S., 2005), labour market can be divided into two main sectors namely primary and secondary sector. The primary sector has formal hierarchy, well defined goals and rules, good salary structure, secured employment and growth opportunities; whereas the secondary sector has low wages, job insecurity, lower career prospectus and less favorable job conditions. Companies from the primary sector are more likely to absorb male than the secondary sector companies, limiting the growth of women employees only to secondary sector. If this theory holds true then we need to explore the reasons behind this preferences, which may help women to enter the primary sector organisations.

Further, occupational segregation is present when employment opportunities are not evenly spread between female and males. It shows the preference of women and men to work in different fields and occupations thereby one gender dominates a given professional category in the labour market. Such overcrowding of females into a small number of occupations is an important cause behind wage disparities. To safeguard the privileged positions, males placed at the dominating positions create various barriers for women seeking high level jobs which affect women’s representation at the board level (Bergmann 1974). Although there have been increase in the work participation of women worldwide, the sex segregation of occupations is one of the most enduring features of the global economy (Jacobs J. A.,1999; Anker R 1998).

2.4.2 Factors Fostering Women’s Career at the Management Levels

Despite these various barriers, there are few women who have successfully broken the glass ceiling. However, very limited information is available about them in public domain. Apart from their personal characteristics and skills, there are many factors which contribute to their successful managerial career of women.

Economic Development affects women’s opportunity structure in general and their access to managerial positions in particular. The demand for labour that occurred in many
countries during industrialization in 1960s and 1970s resulted in an increase in the female labour force. In industrialized countries opportunities for women were larger where expansion took place in financial, business or community and public services. Where growth was largely in industrial sector, foreign male labour more often was used to meet the need for human resource. Similarly, economic expansions and technological innovations increased the demand for managers in certain sectors of the economy more than in others. The growth in the proportion of women managers was most notable in economic branches in which an increase in the proportion of women in the labour force and an expansion of managerial roles were significant (ILO, 2009; Powell 2009).

The technological changes have positively affected the service sector and created many job opportunities which are easily accessed by women/accessible to women (choose any phrase that suits you). Such technological changes reduced blue color jobs in the industry, thereby contracting the requirement of skilled labour. Such a change has created favourable environment for employment of women and increased their absorption in the traditionally male dominated careers (Black and Juhn, 2000).

According to the Resource Dependency Theory, the ultimate absorption of the human resource depends upon the demand of the resources which fluctuates according to the situation and external environment. The company will hire those candidates at the board level who are capable to offer advice/ counsel on legitimacy, financing, industrial, operational and geographical knowledge, communication channels and share scholarly views on the critical issues. Such organisations will prefer to hire qualified women employees to enjoy full breadth of resources and optimize benefit from diverse talent pool (Pfeffer J. and Salancik G., 1978).

Social policy, reflected in either specific legislations or allocation of resources in general has an indirect but significant impact on women’s careers in management. The countries vary greatly in the extent to which social policy promotes or hinders women’s careers. For example in Unites States, affirmative action legislation proactively seeks to alter the structure of women’s opportunities (Keller Brown, 1988).
Legislations in some countries aim to free women from lingering traces of patriarchal control over women’s economic activities. Government's development policies encourage women’s participation in the labour force. In Federal Republic of Germany, for example, a law of giving husbands the right to prohibit their wives from working outside the home was changed in 1977 (Antal and Kresbach-Gnath, 1988).

The length of the school day and year, the availability of child care and other services and maternity or parental leaves, rights and benefits are other social-policy variables that affect a family’s cost-benefit calculations relative to a women’s employment in general and her entry into highly demanding jobs in particular.

Another important factor impacting women’s managerial career is the gender diversity policies of the organisation. According to Kreither (2001), diversity can be defined as the collection of many individual differences and similarities that exists among individuals. Diversity exhibits the primary differences in the individual namely social background, physical abilities, gender, age, sexual orientation as well as the secondary dimensions namely education, experience, income, location and religion. Many people live in relatively homogeneous groups and the first place where their experience diversity is their organisation (Loden, 1996).

Managing Diversity refers to a planned, systematic and comprehensive managerial process for developing an organisational environment in which all employees with their similarities and differences get an equal opportunity to contribute to the strategic competitive advantages of the organisation, and where no one is excluded on account of factors unrelated to productivity (Thomas, 1996; Grober 2002). Diversity Management emphasizes on an inclusion of capabilities within the organisation. Diversity management includes planned intervention of the management to have inclusion of diverse workforce in the organisation based on gender, background, age and physical capabilities. It gives equal opportunities to employees, facilitates fair evaluation and contribution of talents to
the organisational results. It attempts to identify the expectations of their workforce and tries to reduce biasness and stereotypes within the organisation (Daniel, 1994).

According to Agency Theory (Carter, Simkins and Simpson, 2003), a principal (shareholders) and the agents of the principal (the directors and managers), both play an important role in achieving gender diversity. A principal acts as the monitor and controller, working independently from their inside directors and always tries to resolve any conflict in the interest of company and shareholders. The principal’s preference for the diversity on the board will be positively related to women on board.

One more organisational reason behind appointing women members on the board is legal requirement which is described in Institutional Legitimacy Theory (Bilimoria, 2006). The organisations which want to portray their image as fair and unbiased employers appoint women on strategic positions to convey message that they do care for their female employees.

And of course, women manager’s competencies also contribute to their success at the managerial jobs. Their skills, education, knowledge and leadership qualities do help them to achieve the career growth at the management levels.

In addition to these factors, National Affirmative Polices also contributes for women’s growth at the managerial positions. These National Affirmative Actions are discussed in detail in the following section.

2.4.3 National Affirmative Policies and Programmes

Women as an independent group constitute around 48 percent of the country’s total population as per Census 2011 (GOI, 2011). The importance of women has been recognised by the Constitution of India which not only accords equality to women but also empowers that State to adopt measures for positive discrimination in women’s favour. Importance and contribution of women to economy, society and nation is strongly recognised by the Government of India which not only propagates equality but also makes provisions for women empowerment and development with the objectives of
creating an environment through positive economic and social policies for full development of women to enable them to realize their full potential and secondly to ensure enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedom by women on equal basis with men in all spheres- political, economic, social, cultural and civil.

The Constitution of India guarantees equal opportunity, status, rights and privileges to men and women. It also directs that women shall not only have equal right and privileges with men but also directs the State to make provisions- both general and special for the welfare of women. There are several articles in our Constitution of India which reiterate the commitment of the nation towards the socio-economic development of women and upholding their political, social and economic rights. For example, Article 14 ensures ‘equality before law’ it is mentioned that the State shall not deny to any person equality before the law or equal protection of the laws within the territory of India and men and women to have equal rights and opportunities in the political, economic and social sphere. Article 15 under clause 15(1) and 15(2) prohibits discrimination against any citizen on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. Further Article 15(3) empowers the state to make ‘any special provision for women and children’, even in violation of the fundamental obligation of non-discrimination among citizens, inter alia on the grounds of sex. Article 16 under clause 16(1) states there shall be equality of opportunity for all citizens in matter of public employment or appointment in any office under the State. Clause 16(2) states that no citizen shall on grounds only of religion, race, caste, sex, descent, place of birth, residence or any of them, ‘be ineligible for’ or ‘discriminated against in respect of’, any employment or office under the State.

Drawing the strength from the Constitutional commitment, the Government of India has been continuously engaged in concretely translating all the rights and commitments in the form of various laws and policies to protect working women. There are various laws relating to protection of working women namely Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970; Equal Remuneration Act, 1976; Minimum Wages Act, 1948; Factories Act, 1948; Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 and also the Workmen Compensation Act, 1923.
In addition, there are also laws relating to crime against women namely Rape (Sec 376 IPC), Kidnapping & abduction for different purposes (Sec. 363-373 IPC), Homicide for Dowry, Dowry Deaths or their attempts (Sec. 302/ 304-B of IPC), Torture both mental and physical (Sec. 498-A of IPC), Molestation (Sec. 354 of IPC), Sexual Harassment (Sec. 509 of IPC) and Importation of Girls (up to 21 years of age) (Sec. 366-B of IPC).

Further, Indian Government has included several initiatives in different five year plans for women empowerment. In the 1970s, the policy makers have adopted 'welfare' approach, whereas in the 1980s, they shifted their focus more to 'development' approach and now to 'empowerment' in the 1990s. Under every plan, there were special provisions for women empowerment and development. This is reflected in the various Five Year Plans where women were recognized not just as equal citizens but as agents of economic and social growth. For example, during the First Plan (1951-1956), Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB), 1953 was established to solve the problems of women and to implement welfare measures for their benefit. During this plan women are recognized as workers and their welfare issues were determined. To protect working women against injuries at work, Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956, the Hindu Succession Act, 1956, the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961 and Maternity Benefit Act, 1961, were passed to immediate implementation of the principal of equal pay for equal work. And the Twelfth Plan (2012–2017) Approach Paper aimed to achieve women empowerment in all fields- education, economic and social.

The National Policy for Women Empowerment was adopted by the Indian Government in 2001 with the objective of the empowerment, advancement and development empowerment of women. Further, the National Commission for women, set up in 1993, aimed to safeguard the interest and rights of women. The Commission continuously works to review of law and amend it to safeguard the interests of women and to secure speedy justice to women.
In addition, Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD) has undertaken numerous initiatives to achieve gender equity. In 2004-05, MWCD has put efforts to implement Budgeting for Gender Equity. Further, it developed the framework for review of public expenditure and policies, both for mainstream sectors like power, defense, telecom and transport and for recipient sectors like rural development, health, labour, human resource development, agriculture and textiles, etc.

Women’s Component Plan (WCP) was the first major initiative of the Indian Government to address women related requirements and issues in an organized and systematic manner. It involved major Ministries and Departments to get inputs for women related issues. It also ensured that not less than 30 percent of funds or benefits were reserved for women under the various schemes.

Despite the several initiatives, the ground reality is that equality of opportunity or of status for women is found more in books, file and papers than in reality. Though she deserves equal status and employment, she continues to be an unequal status partner in family, group, organisation and society. There are number of gender-specific barriers which prevent women from gaining access to their rightful share in the flow of public good and service. We need to understand and accept that women’s equality cannot be achieved through equal opportunities due to unequal status of women which exists in society. This calls for a focused priority setting towards strengthening and expansion of gender equity initiatives.

The literature review of the various studies helps us to identify the research gaps. These research gaps have suggested further scope of research in the subject. These gaps are discussed in below sub-section.
2.5 Gaps Found in Literature Review

Within last two to three decades, ‘Women in Management’ has become an important area of study. The first question rose in earlier research was- ‘can women be managers?’ focusing at the basic issue of women’s entry into management positions. During late seventies, a second question emerged was- ‘Does there is any difference in the management styles adopted by male and female managers?’ Difference in their management styles, attitudes and behaviors of executives in managerial positions were most important concern in these studies. The third question which dominates today’s research focuses on upward mobility of women in management. Currently, the researcher's focus is on finding the factors influencing women manager’s career growth. During the literature review done so far, following gaps were noted which necessitates further study in the topic in India -

i. Compared to the research in management fields, ‘women in management’ as a research field is relatively new. Limited research is available on women as executives, managers and administrators of corporate world. Across the globe, specifically in western countries many studies are available which discusses this phenomenon. For example, in U.S.A, Japan and France many studies and surveys were conducted and based on the available statistics, steps were taken to have gender equity at the board level. However, in India very few studies are available and from Mumbai are very limited. Thus, there is a need to understand the problem and the consequences of having fewer women at the Indian corporate boards so as to have a balanced society.

ii. Few studies have confirmed that there are individual barriers which limits women’s career growth named as internal variable or personal variable such as poor career planning, difficulty in balancing work-family responsibilities, family-work balance issues, lack of training and skill development, lack of experience; however, it fails to identify the impact of organisational policies on the career growth of women executives.

iii. The research work done earlier has identified organisational determinants like history, age of the organisation, structure and nature of the organisation on the career of women. However, these studies do not take into account the role of
mentoring, management practices, presence of role model and earlier presence of women at the management and non-management positions. It does not include management practices in their research. More research is needed in this direction because it adds a missing link to our understanding of the barriers to women in management.

iv. There are some studies which have highlighted the social aspect of the problem like gender occupational segregation, patriarchy, biasness and prejudices. However, there are no studies available in India which had identified an impact of social factors on women in management functioning in Mumbai.

v. Instead of looking at a problem from different angles separately, a better approach will be to study the phenomenon from four angles i.e. personal, work, organisation and social simultaneously. This will lead us to analyze and understand its comprehensive impact on women in management in Mumbai.

vi. The varied literature available on women in management including published articles, working papers and book chapters does not implicitly develop a theoretical framework and indeed adopt just descriptive research design (Siri Terjesen, Ruth Sealy and Val Singh, 2009). The current study attempt to develop theoretical framework on the basis of the extensive literature review of gender and feminists theories.

vii. Very limited studies have used the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis to identify the factors associated with women in management.