CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The concept of glass ceiling, adjustment, organizational commitment, self-esteem, and well being have position in the empirical studies of the organizational behaviour. In the modern era where people are talking about the equality of the both sexes, women are suffering from many problems. Since they are facing same sort of gender biases and discrimination in their work set-up, is believed to have its impact upon their physical, psychological as well performance measures at their workplace.

In pursuance with this aim of the study, all these variables have been studied separately (as a construct) as well as in relation to other organizational variables through various sources, viz., American Psychological Abstracts (APA’s), Indian Abstracts, Management Digests, Journal of Industrial Relations, Newspapers & Magazines etc. from the period of 1979 to 2009. The search was done through National Informatics Center, New Delhi by taking the key variables, i.e. Glass Ceiling, Adjustment, Self-Esteem, Organizational Commitment & Well-Being. Approximately 180 studies were obtained in this context.
**Glass Ceiling**

Whether out of convenience, conviction or tradition the society over the centuries has been unfair to the fair sex. Women have not been allowed to develop self-confidence and it is so because before marriage the fair sex is under the thumb of patriarch and after marriage in awe of her husband in father-in-law. Position of women has undergone a lot of changes from Pre-Vedic to the modern times.

Women have carved a niche for themselves, in what is believed to be predominately a male domain. Talking of the corporate world, which was earlier, a nascent industry and women in this field were very few, but today are the first generation of team leaders, who have shattered the Glass Ceiling myth.

Before we talk about the shattering of glass ceiling, there have been number of empirical studies of various correlates, from time to time that talk about there relationship with ‘glass ceiling’ affect. The following review makes it vivid:

**Review on Glass Ceiling**

Perters, Joyce & Elizabeth (1979) studied the eyewitness account of female and males. The major results indicated that interest concerned sex differences: women were more accurate and more resistant to suggestive and resistant to suggestion about male-oriented details. This result is related to the general tendency for accuracy on a specific item. Additional analyses indicated that overall accuracy was neither related to intelligence nor to specific abilities, such as verbal or spatial ability.

Achamamba & Gopikumar (1990) studied locus of control & Job involvement among men & women bank employees. Result revealed that locus of control was significantly related to job involvement. There was no significant difference between the mean involvement scores of men and women.

Oelten & Holly (1992) studied discrimination against women still exist in the corporate world despite their qualifications. While women may compose close to half of the entire US workforce, less than 5% are occupying top management positions in US corporations. The inability of women to rise to the highest rung in the corporate ladder is
referred to as the glass ceiling. Attitudes of male managers, specifically those who determine promotions, have been cited as critical factors in establishing the glass ceiling. Women who have encountered this discrimination often turn to entrepreneurship as a way out.

Gibelman & Schervish (1993) examined that the existence of a “glass ceiling” in social work on the basis of gender. An analysis of the demographics of the National Association of Social Workers’ membership revealed that male social workers disproportionately hold managerial positions, assumed such positions earlier in their careers, and earn more money in those positions than do female social workers. Suggestions are offered about organizational strategies, advocacy, and policies that may be implemented to achieve equity and equality for women in the profession.

Norman Baldwin & Rothwell (1993) presented the outcome from every Air Force officer promotion board convening over a 13-year period. It included the evaluation of more than 160,000 Caucasian, Afro-American, Hispanic, female and “other” officers eligible for promotion to captain, major, lieutenant colonel and colonel. The data indicated minorities are not promoted at the same rate as majority officers, and few females serve as Air Force officers. On the brighter side, females have very competitive promotion rates to lieutenant colonel and colonel, minority promotion rates does not indicated adverse impacts, and majority-minority promotion rate differences decrease as rank increases in the Air Force.

Oeljen & Holly (1993) studied Many women find that clipping coupons are important to their personal budgets, and manufacturers benefit by creating a purchase of their product and receiving important purchasing information. Some consumers dislike being monitored by companies feeling it is an invasion of their privacy. Making coupon-clipping pay requires organization to dispose of expired coupons and clip new ones, matching to the shopping list and measuring results. Women and men in senior management – a “different needs” hypothesis (2001) Whilst agreed wholeheartedly that a “glass ceiling” exists and restricts entry of women into senior management positions, this article postulates that this factor only partly explains why there are fewer women in senior level management positions than there are men. Suggested that some women are
less interested than men in reaching senior management ranks. It is proposed that differences in the proportion of women and men who wish to be senior managers may be explained by differences in the way they choose to have their needs met. Postulates that the need for affiliation, achievement, power and self-actualization in men and women are, in general, met in different ways. One implication of the “different needs” hypothesis is that it is equality of opportunity rather than numerical equality for which we should be striving.

Judge & Bretz, Jr (1994) examined an important yet under-investigated topic, the effect of political influence behavior on career success. Drawing from past research on influence behavior and relevant theory from social psychology, the effect of political influence behavior on career success was hypothesized to depend on the type of influence tactic employed. Results from a sample of past graduates of two universities indicated that supervisor-focused tactics, manifesting a strategy of ingratiation, resulted in higher levels of career success while job-focused tactics, manifesting a strategy of self-promotion, resulted in lower levels of success. Implications of the results for the study of careers and career management processes are discussed.

Monks & Barker (1996) studied the glass ceiling. The finding of the second stage of research into the career progression of chartered accountants, which is focusing in particular on, the careers experienced by women. Study included a description of house of work, remuneration and perceived success factors in accountancy, before considering the impact of domestic responsibilities on the work/home interface. The study also concluded that women face several barriers which are not experienced by their male counterparts in their careers and that although the ‘glass ceiling’ has been broken by some women.

Avise-Netzley (1998) focused on women in corporate positions “above the glass ceiling” and explored their perceptions on corporate mobility and strategies for success in elite positions. Through interviews with 16 men and women corporate presidents and chief executive officers (CEOs) in Southern California, it is found that while white men promote the dominant ideology of individualism and patriarchal gender ideology as explanations of corporate mobility and success, white women emphasize alternative
perspectives by confirming the importance of social networks and peer similarities for succeeding in elite positions. Those women strategically attempt to increase their cultural capital to negotiate male-dominated networks and maintain their high-status positions through such measures as obtaining advanced educational degrees or modifying speech and behavior.

McDonal d & Hite (1998) suggested that an effective way to explain this concept is by examining gender differences in management development. The rationale for this perspective was provided. A review of the literature that indicated that gender differences in developmental activities create and perpetuate the glass-ceiling effect was also provided. Suggestions are included for ways to teach students about the glass ceiling.

Knutson & Schmidgall (1999) studied the glass ceiling, which describes the invisible barrier that as seems to restrict women and people of color from promotion to firms' top echelons, are primarily descriptive or anecdotal. Focusing specifically on women, the study surveyed 234 women executives in the hospitality industry. The study used factor analysis to discover the underlying dimensions that can support or hinder women's advancement to executive positions. Findings suggested that there are four dimensions comprising qualities essential to promotion, eight dimensions relating to women's personal strategies, and four dimensions relating to company strategies regarding advancing women's professional careers. The four essential qualities are: an appropriate personality, street smarts, political savvy, and intelligence (although the last factor has the weakest influence on promotions). Strategies that women have found effective for advancement include: being proactive in leadership and professional development, making sacrifices, developing support systems (including mentors), and being willing to make changes (including moving to new locations or employers). The corporate factors involved four aspects: formal policies, such as identifying talented people and preparing people for promotion; maintaining an appropriate corporate culture (that is, one that accepts women as leaders); rejecting negative stereotypes; and supporting and encouraging women in their quest for promotion. While the components relating to advancing women could be identified, the hospitality industry offers many promotional paths-and the factors are weighted differently for each individual. That is, there are many paths to the top.
Moshavi (1999) examined obstacles to women advancing in a corporation. Overview and examples. The “Glass Ceiling” referred to a hidden or unstated barrier to advancement within a corporation (Moshavi, 1998, ENT 2). In her article discussing that issue, Moshavi reported that women and minorities are the fastest-growing group of business owners, and that growth should be attributed to Corporate America.

Sparrowe & Iverson (1999) identified the extent to which the income gap was attributable to differences between men and women in educational preparation, part-time versus full-time employment, or occupation. Furthermore, previous research had relied on relatively small samples drawn from segments of the industry rather than on a true population sample of the industry as a whole from which to draw inferences. The authors examined whether there are gender differences in income when controlling for the effects of human capital (education), workforce participation, and occupational crowding among hospitality industry employees. Findings were drawn from a random sample comprising 1% of all of the employees of the hospitality industry in the United States. The authors found that gender-based income disparity persists, suggested that more pernicious forms of sex discrimination continue in the industry.

Baxter & Wright (2000) stated that it is not only more difficult for women than for men to be promoted up levels of authority hierarchies within workplaces but also that the obstacles women face relative to men become greater as they move up the hierarchy. Gender-based discrimination in promotions is not simply present across levels of hierarchy but is more intense at higher levels. Empirically, this implies that the relative rates of women being promoted to higher levels compared to men should decline with the level of the hierarchy. This article explores this hypothesis with data from three countries: the United States, Australia, and Sweden. The basic conclusion was that while there was strong evidence for a general gender gap in authority—the odds of women having authority are less than those of men—there is no evidence for systematic glass ceiling effects in the United States and only weak evidence for such effects in the other two countries.
Valentine & Godkin (2000) studied supervisor gender, leadership style and perceived job design. Results indicated that supervisor's gender did indeed influence subordinate's perceptions of their job and the differences were attributed to the different leadership styles men and women frequently use in the workplace. Subordinates who had female supervisors perceived great interpersonal aspect in their jobs while subordinate who had male supervisors perceived greater structure in their jobs.

Corsun & Costen (2001) examined the phenomenon of the glass ceiling through the lenses of macro-organizational and sociological theory. Presented are several theoretical bases for viewing the glass ceiling and its perpetuation as the consequences of U.S. history, the distribution of capital among its people, the actions of the powerful that help them retain power, and the reality that the majority of the powerful in America have White maleness in common.

Schein's (2001) examined empirical demonstrations of the masculine construal of leadership; respondents gave their impression of either women, men, or successful middle managers. Successful middle managers were perceived as considerably more similar to men than women on a group of primarily genetic characteristics such as competitive, self-confident, objective, aggressive, ambitious, and able to lead.

Carli (2002) Examined the Glass Ceiling: True Barrier to Women or Old Wives' Tale? The paper discussed the mythical "glass ceiling." Many people, especially feminists, believe it was an ever-present barrier; holding women back from the upper levels of corporate America. Others believed there was no glass ceiling, and that the lack of women in top corporate positions simply indicated that women had other priorities. Which side is right is the focus of this paper.

Fiske & Stevens (2002) addressed the glass ceiling in corporate America in the 21st century. It discussed communication issues, the roots of gender bias, male/female thought patterns, and offers two success stories from the tech economy: CEOs Carly Fiorina (Hewlett-Packard) and Donna Dubinsky (Handspring).
Heilman (2002) discussed the issue of female discrimination in the workplace. The author examined the glass ceiling, a concept used to describe an imaginary barrier that prevents women from climbing the corporate ladder because a glass ceiling prevents them from climbing higher.

Jones & Oppenheim (2002) found that glass-ceiling issues in libraries are still concerns for many women in the profession. The lack of qualifications does not seem to pose a barrier to promotion and the main barrier appears to be due to domestic responsibilities, particularly taking a career break to bring up children. Concludes that, for many women, themselves imposed the glass ceiling. It was often their choice to take a career break or to move to a new location for the sake of their husband's or partner's job, and it was their choice to put the needs of their family first before their own career ambitions. For many of the older women in the sample, the choice they had to make was between having children and having a career.

Lee (2002) found that the term glass ceiling referred to artificial barriers to achievement. Previous research on the subject suggests that, as racial minorities, Asian American faculty in higher education would encounter a glass ceiling. In this article, the glass-ceiling hypotheses were evaluated on the basis of data from the 1993 National Study of Post-Secondary Faculty (NSOPF-93). The sample consisted of full-time instructional faculty and includes 1,019 Asian Americans and a comparison group of 14,381 non-Hispanic Whites. Faculty salary is the dependent variable. Six models of an earnings function are estimated. Controls are included for the following kinds of differences: demographic, life cycle, human capital, productivity, field of specialization, institutional, and regional. Contrary to expectations, no consistent evidence for a glass ceiling emerged. However, additional evaluation of the effects of independent variables produces a more complex picture. Asian Americans do not derive comparable benefits from several characteristics associated with higher salaries for Whites and appear to have more limited pathways to higher salaries. Data limitations caution against concluding that Asian American faculty either face or do not face a glass ceiling. However, given the lack of research on Asian Americans in academe, this article provides new and important baseline findings to guide future research on the glass ceiling in higher education.
Zane (2002) analyzed layers of meaning that are embedded in the concept of diversity in a financial institution. It examined the discourses about diversity that emerged over 21/2 years, during which a CEO was intentionally trying to change his organization's cultural norms and to become more sensitive to "valuing people." By tracking the conversational patterns between the CEO and the organizational "discourse communities," this research highlights the processes by which meaning gets ascribed to the concept of organizational diversity and its impact on organizational structures and culture across time.

Bartol, Martin & Kramkowski (2003) investigated influences of gender and ethnic group through the perspective of four leader behaviors deemed important by top managers and exhibited by 658 middle managers and executives in a large professional services business organization. As rated by subordinates, female and male executives were similar in that they generally engaged in greater amounts of the leader behaviors valued by top management than did male and female middle manager. However, both female middle managers and female executives were rated higher than males' counterparts not only interpersonal, but also goals and task leader behaviors. Results supported socialization and gender norms explanations. Few ethnic group differences were found, but areas for future research are identified.

Dreher (2003) founded that the percentage of lower-level managerial positions hold by women in the 1980s and early 1990s was positively associated with the number of work-life human resource practices provided in 1994 and with the percentage of senior management positions hold by women in 1999. In turn, the number of work-life human resource practices provided in 1994 was positively associated with the percentage of senior management positions held by women in 1999 and partially mediated the effect of lower-level female representation on senior level female representation. Those results supported the blending of a social contact theory perspective and a strategic human resource management perspective when explaining the glass-ceiling phenomenon, and have important implications for managing human resources and individual careers.
Goodman, Fields & Blum (2003) investigated variables that differentiate work establishments that have women in top management positions from those that do not. Women occupied top management positions in slightly more than half of the 228 medium- to large-sized private sector establishments the authors studied. The authors found that women are more likely to occupy top management ranks in establishments that have more lower level management positions filled by women, have higher management turnover, have lower average management salary levels, place greater emphasis on development and promotion of employees, and operate in non-manufacturing industries.

Hultin (2003) suggested that men who worked in typically female occupations had substantially better internal promotion chances than had equally qualified women in such occupations. Those findings are compatible with the idea that a so-called glass escalator took underrepresented men on an upwardly mobile internal career path at a speed that their female colleagues can hardly enjoy. Furthermore, the results indicated that men and women have equal internal career chances in male-dominated occupations. Hence, the common assumption that obstacles to women’s internal career growth are especially severe in male-dominated fields of work obtains no support.

Anderson (2004) examined women managers thus positive action training made a difference? A case study. Researchers described a case study of a positive action training initiative for women managers in local government and access its potential effectiveness as a means of breaking through the “glass ceiling”.

Driscoll (2004) suggested that women find less interest in technical areas and in science, and it is therefore assumed that this was the reason why we tend to find few women in top positions in such companies. This paper dispels this myth. It showed that women have better qualities than men to run IT companies and that the problem seems to be an inability to change the industry’s chauvinistic mentality. The paper examines how some women managed to break the glass ceiling, despite the many obstacles.

Egloff & Schmukle (2004) suggested the gender differences in implicit and explicit anxiety measures. Explicit measures assess introspectively accessible self-descriptions and evaluations. In contrast, implicit measures assess introspectively inaccessible processes that operate outside of awareness. While women consistently yield
higher scores on explicit anxiety measures, there were to date no studies available that examined gender differences in implicit anxiety measures. To analyse the topic, they used the Implicit Association Test (Study 1, N= 248) and the Emotional Stroop task (Study 2, N= 121) as implicit anxiety measures and a standard trait questionnaire as explicit anxiety measure. As expected, women scored higher on the explicit anxiety test. Women also yielded higher anxiety scores on both implicit tests. The effect sized of the gender differences in the implicit measures was approximately half as large as those in the explicit measures. Furthermore, correlations between implicit and explicit measures were higher for women. Implications of those findings for personality assessment were discussed.

Hite & McDonald (2004) studied career aspiration of Non-Managerial Women: Adjustment and Adaptation. Results indicated that career goals often well adapted to meet other life circumstances and that family responsibilities job security and organizational support system influence career success and satisfaction.

Maume, Jr. (2004) explained the four criteria for distinguishing the glass ceiling as a unique form of inequality. First, a glass ceiling exists when artificial barriers impede the advancement of women and minorities, and second, these barriers are more severe at higher occupational levels. Third, the glass ceiling must be investigated with longitudinal data, and fourth, a glass ceiling is manifested in increasing inequality over the life course. This paper extended these criteria by conducting a longitudinal analysis of managerial attainment (satisfying the second and third criteria). The presence of artificial barriers was assessed by estimating the salience of race and gender to the process of managerial attainment. Additional estimations showed that the gap in managerial attainment between White men and other groups grew over the life course. Thus, findings from this study do satisfy the Cotter et al. criteria regarding the existence and uniqueness of the glass ceiling. The paper concludes with a call for additional research.

Nelson et al (2004) examined politics, lack of career progress and work/home conflict: Stress and Strain for working women. Stress experienced by working women in terms of politics. Lack of career progress and work/home conflicts the symptoms of
distress and satisfaction associated with these stressors and the organizational resources available for managing these demands.

Regina & Stacy (2004) explored gender barriers to the formation of the female mentor- male protégé relationship. The author considered both physiological as well as social gender as a way to help understand the scarcity of these relationships. A number of gender-related factors are considered, including organizational demographics, relational demography, sexual liaisons, gender stereotypes, gender behaviors, and power dynamics. Study concluded with directions for future research that would help provide further insights into the development and success of the female mentor- male protégé relationship.

Reid, Miller, Arkansas & Kerr (2004) employed a national data set obtained from the U. S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to answer two questions. Are women adequately represented in the top-level positions in state bureaucracies and are impediments that women might encounter in reaching the highest level administrative posts related to the policy missions and/or organizational characteristics of these agencies? The authors found that (a) women are underrepresented in top-level administrative and professional positions in distributive and regulatory agencies, suggesting the continued presence of glass ceilings in such agencies; (b) women are better represented among administrative and especially professional cadres in redistribute agencies, however their full representation at the uppermost administrative levels remains an unrealized goal; and (c) women are less well represented in higher paying positions (in proportion to their numbers in the agency) in agencies with higher salaries.

Wells (2004) studied that the glass ceiling was a level above which it was difficult for women to move in an organization. It could refer to a management level, salary level or level of responsibility or authority, but the glass ceiling is of concern to women who choose to move in the business world. Research examined that the characteristics of the glass ceiling, the factors that had led to its creation, what organizations are doing to combat the glass ceiling.
Arulampalam et al (2005) studied gender pay gap. Results indicated those gender pay gaps are larger at the top of the wage distribution in four countries (Denmark, Finland, Italy and the Netherlands). It is found that gender pay gap was wider at the bottom on the wage distribution in Austria, Belgium, France and Spain.

Coreis, & Cassar (2005) found the perception of and about women as managers: investigating job involvement, self-esteem and attitudes. Results indicated no differences between job involvement and work-based self-esteem of male and female managers. On the other hand, both male employees and students seem to hold more stereotypical attitudes towards women in management than their female counterparts.

Dominguez (2005) examined the Glass Ceiling: Does It Still Exist? That was a position paper argued that there had been no real progress made regarding the ‘glass ceiling’ in corporate America. The paper argued that women and people of color were still discriminated against in terms of equal opportunity and equal pay and that anachronistic notions of women’s capabilities and characteristics place them at a disadvantage when it comes to workplace evaluations and promotions.

Eckes (2005) Explained that major signs of the existence of glass ceilings are that (1) virtually all women had lower mean incomes when compared to their male counterparts and (2) most minority men earn less than non-Hispanic, white men with the same education at the same occupational level. The author pointed out that specific company actions to avoid being the target of a potential lawsuit were using the neutral systems of merit or seniority based pay and focusing their strategic business plans on achieving workforce diversity. The paper stressed that, to break down the glass ceiling, employers should realize that they need the input of women and minorities in their businesses to better address the changing consumer markets, workplace demographics and competition in today’s economy.

Kephart & Schumacher (2005) explored some of the reasons why women in today’s workforce change from the rise on the corporate ladder path to the world of entrepreneurship. Issues such as job stress and one of its most notable offshoots - the ‘glass ceiling’ are presented. Ultimately, women initiated organizations define the women’s movement of the 21st century.
Schwartz (2005) studied the past and the future of violence against women. The most important thing we had learned about violence against women over the past 20 years was that violence is gendered and learned and can only be understood in the context of gender inequality. Most violence was male, and although females did some violence, it was far from equal and often done for very different reasons. Among other major findings was that children from violent households tend to grow up to be problematic, which means that a major method of curbing juvenile delinquency in 10 years was to stop violence against women today.

Veizat & Wolff (2005) studied Gender wage gap & the glass ceiling effect: A firm level investigation. They found that there were differences in rewards men and women received from their organization.

Hsu, P., (2006) study aimed to understand women’s experience in the male-dominated profession. Female doctors in this profession suffer from direct or indirect discrimination in Taiwan. In-depth interviews indicated that female doctors had encountered discrimination and prejudice at various stages of their careers. These interviews also indicated that male and female doctors are in different social positions in the medical profession. Many subtle mechanisms, such as gendered selection of specialty at early stages of their careers, seem to enhance male doctors’ position in this profession. In addition, gendered organizational structure and social processes are constructed to maintain submission of female doctors. Female doctors made every effort to strike a balance between works and family, which constitutes long-term pressure that was detrimental to their professional status. Female doctors were consequently unable to shatter the “glass ceiling” of the profession dominated by men.

Burke, Koyuncu & Fiksenbaum (2006) explored the organizational practices supporting women’s career advancement and their satisfaction and well-being in Turkey. Results showed that more supportive organizational experiences and practice were more engaged in their work, more job and career satisfied, and indicated greater levels of psychological well-being.
Duffy, Fox, Punnett, Gregory, Lituchy, Monserrat, Olivas-Lujan, Santos & Miller. (2006) examined successful women of the Americas: the same or different? There were significant differences in the personal characteristic between successful women and the comparison samples, with successful women consistently higher on self-efficacy and need for achievement, and more internal on locus of control. There were some significant but smaller than expected differences in cultural characteristics between national samples.

Fondas (2006) described the “Glass Ceiling” that women experienced in the workplace. Although strides had been made to eradicate discrimination, the author argued that statistics still showed that women occupy less managerial positions than men. The “Glass Ceiling” syndrome is examined in Canada, despite it being a progressive nation.

Lewis (2006) studied the gender-specific misperceptions of descriptive drinking norms. The dissertation reviews personalized normative feedback interventions and provided suggestions for increasing the efficacy of those inventions by making better use of salient referent group data. In addition, the efficacies of a personalized normative feedback intervention employing gender-specific referents were evaluated. Participants included 185 (54.8% men and 45.2% women) students who were randomly assigned to receive gender-specific feedback, gender-neutral feedback, or no normative feedback following a baseline assessment. Directly after completing measures of perceived norms, drinking behavior, and collective self-esteem based on gender and college student identity, participants in the gender-neutral and gender-specific intervention conditions were provided computerized information detailing their own drinking behavior, their perception of student drinking, and actual student drinking. Results indicated that normative feedback was effective in changing perceived norms and alcohol consumption for both intervention groups for women and men. However, gender-specific feedback was found to be less effective at changing perceived norms for men. Implications for personalized normative feedback interventions were discussed.

Mathur-Helm (2006) Women and the glass ceiling in South African banks: an illusion or reality? Most decentralized organizations characterized by a culture that support women’s Results indicated that the glass ceiling considered a myth by many, was
real and was nurtured by the organizational culture, policies and strategies besides women’s on inadequacies. Only the top positions, would help in breaking down the glass ceiling, along with women’s own efforts to group, develop and empower themselves through academic and career development.

Ryan, & Haslam (2006) found what lies beyond the glass ceiling: The glass cliff & the potential, precariousness of women’s leadership positions. The research conducted at the university of Exeter had identified a further barrier that women must conquer in order to succeed.

Wilson-Kovacs, Ryan & Haslam (2006) studied the glass-cliff: women’s career paths in the UK private IT sector. The paper examined that the concept of the glass cliff, which seeks to explained what happens to women as they advance to senior positions. The analysis is based on qualitative research on women managers in the SET domain in the UK. Using career mapping and in-depth ethnographic interviews, it discussed two case studies of senior women based at a leading multinational IT company with a range of supportive diversity schemes.

Adams (2007) examined the situations that lead to this “stained glass ceiling” effect, prohibiting women from attaining top congregational leadership positions. The author also investigated similar barriers that exist at other levels of congregational leadership. The results suggested that while a queue-like process appears, the specifically religious nature of these organizations produces barriers that are quite different from the traditional glass ceiling conceptualization.

Byrnes, Miller & Schfer (2007) Studied the women and the Glass Ceiling. The paper examined the ability of women to reach certain echelons in corporate America. The author also discussed the factors that contribute to women’s promotions to chief executive offices in Fortune 500 firms. The term glass ceiling was defined. The paper then described how affirmative action programs were implemented into many business strategies in order to eliminate glass-ceiling situations in the workplace. The author concluded that by stating that although affirmative action had diversified educational institutions, such diversification is yet to be seen in corporate America. It was not clear why all the barriers exist or why women are not in more senior executive positions.
Jacobsen (2007) defined the term 'glass ceiling' as a metaphor used to express the various problems and hindrances to advancement that many women in the business and corporate world face. The paper revealed that the glass ceiling phenomenon does not in essence have an economic rationale; the prevention of female advancement is related to ideological and social facets, which stem from the structure of class and gender in society as a whole. The paper explored the phenomenon of the glass ceiling in terms of its sociological causes and ramifications.

Madeline & Blinders (2007) tested the idea that penalties women incur for success in traditionally male areas arise from a perceived deficit in nurturing and socially sensitive communal attributes that was implied by their success. The author therefore expected that providing information of communal will prevent these penalties. Results indicated that the negatively directed at successful female managers - in ratings of likeability, interpersonal hostility, and boss desirability - was integrated when there was indication that they were communal. This ameliorative effect occurred only when the information was clearly indicative of communal attributes (study 1) and when it could be unambiguously attributed to the female manager (Study 2); Furthermore, these penalties were averted when communality was conveyed by role information (motherhood status) or by behavior (Study 3). These findings support the idea that penalties for women's success in male domains result from the perceived violation of gender-stereotypic perceptions.

Ryan, Haslam, & Postmes (2007) examined the reactions to the glass cliff: gender differences in the explanation for the precariousness of women leadership position. This paper investigated the phenomenon of the glass cliff, whereby women were more likely than men to be placed in precarious leadership positions. Men's and women's reacted to this subtle form of gender discrimination were examined, the identity processes involved, and the implications for organizations who must managed that change in the gender makeup of their work force.

Vurgess & Vorgida (2007) Women and the Glass Ceiling Researchers examined that the ability of women to reach certain echelons in corporate America. The author also discussed the factors that contribute to women's promotions to Chief executive offices in
Fortune 500 firm. The term Glass Ceiling is defined. Researcher described law affirmative action programs were implemented into many business strategies in order to eliminate glass-ceiling situations in the work place.

Weyer (2007) twenty years later: explained the persistence of the glass ceiling for women leaders Results indicated that evaluation was biased against women, the glass ceiling phenomenon kept women from assuming top leadership positions continuous to occur.

Heilman (2008) studied self-Ascribed fit of women and men to a leadership position. Study examined whether this gender difference would diminish when agency was accounted for and whether a stimulus person’s gender would alter women’s self-ascribed fit. German management students (91 Female, 95 Male) received a fictitious recruitment advertisement for a leadership position that portrayed a man, a woman, or both. Participants indicated their perception of agency and their suitability to the advertised position. As predicted, women judge themselves as less suitable for the leadership position than men and participants self-reported agency mediated this effect. Furthermore, all participants felt most suitable if a male and a female stimulus person were portrayed.

Krgwell (2008) explored that the glass ceiling kept in place in Sudan? Results indicated that female managers interviewed gave first priority to their families and secondary importance to their job. The priority of married female managers gave to their families play a negative role in their career progression and contributes to their under-representation at top management level.

Wolff (2008) found gender wage gap and glass ceiling effect: A firm level investigation. The gender gap was mainly due to differences in labour market characteristics between man or woman and one due to differences in rewards to these individual characteristics especially among executives. Finally women faced a lower probability of reaching higher hierarchical positions within the firm.

Gentile (2009) examined the Glass Ceiling The paper discussed the ‘glass ceiling’ that existed in America’s history that prevented women from advancement to posts and
opportunities visible above them. The paper goes on to explain how gender discrimination in the workplace is, in relative terms, a newer legal concept and therefore as yet unexplored to a great extent.

Ismail & Ibrahim examined barriers to career progression faced by women: Evidence from a Malaysian multinational oil company. Results indicated that family structure and women's commitment to the family are the most significant barriers perceived by the executive women. Research revealed that women in various job positions does not differ in their perceptions with regard to barriers they face for career progression.

**Organizational Commitment**

The term 'Commitment' enjoys an increasing vogue in the concept of organizational commitment (OC) has grown popularly in the literatures of industrial/Organizational psychology and micro-organizational behavior. Mowday, Smers and porter (1979), proposed the two broad perspective approach to study the organizational commitment, namely behavioral, attitudinal and affective commitment.

Commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Before we talk about the shattering of glass ceiling, there have been number of empirical studies of various correlates, from time to time that talk about there relationship with 'glass ceiling' affect. The following review makes it vivid: -

**Review on Organizational Commitment in relation to relevant variables**

Grusky (1966) examined the relationship between sex and organizational commitment. He proposed that women would become more committed to an organization because they had to overcome more barriers than men to gain membership.
Steers (1997) found antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. Author suggested that commitment and involvement are both enhanced by personal factors such as age and years of tenure in the organizational characteristics such as degree of participation allowed in decision-making and the level of security employees feel.

Boulding (1980) studied of 27 farmwomen from Oklahoma, Vermont, and Colorado indicated substantial involvement in farm work, as well as in auxiliary economic enterprises. There was no clear relationship between involvement in farm work and farm decision-making; high enjoyment of the farm way of life and a suggestion that rural and urban values differ sufficiently to make interpretation of the farm-based division of labor between spouses difficult.

Burning and Synder (1983) studied Sex and position as predictors of organizational commitment. The study reported that older individuals with seniority in their positions tended to evidence to higher organizational commitment.

Mayer and Allen (1984) examined Relationship between age and organizational commitment. Authors suggested that older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organization for a variety of reasons including greatest satisfaction with their jobs; having received better positions and having cognitive justifies their remains in an organization.

Singh & Singh (1986) studied the perception of time, urgency and challenge in work in relation to locus of control, interpersonal relationship, job person fit and organizational commitment. The results showed that high perception of time urgency and challenge in work were associated with high internal locus of control and with low interpersonal relationship, job – person fit and organizational commitment.

Verma (1986) studied organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction. Author investigated the relationship of organizational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction of 100 non – executive employees of a steel plant. All the three variables were found to be interested.
Luthans & Black (1987) examined antecedents (Personal demographic, organizational relationship & person-organization fit) of organizational commitment. The study revealed the results to show that locus of control has a direct relationship with organizational commitment. Though the nature of relationship has not been discussed.

Martelli & Martelli (1989) examined the public stress survey: Reliability & Relation to job satisfaction & Organizational Commitment. The administrative/organizational subscale was significantly related to measures of job satisfaction & organizational commitment.

Romzek (1989) found the impact of organizational involvement on career satisfaction. Findings revealed that the higher level of organizational involvement resulted in higher non-work & career satisfaction.

Allen & Meyer (1990) found the measurement & antecedents of affective, commitment to the organization. Results suggested that the affective & continuance components of organizational commitment are empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates. The affective & normative components appear to be somewhat related.

Ladewig (1990) found the large influx of married women into the paid labor market has focused increasing attention on work-family linkages, but little is known about how personal and family variables combine to differentiate men and women manifesting varying levels of commitment to work. The sample for that study consisted of men and women who were members of dual-earner marriages and had at least one child under the age of 18. Using discriminate analysis, certain combinations of variables were highly significant in discriminating between groups of women reporting high and low levels of occupational commitment and between groups of men reporting high and low levels of occupational commitment. Of the two sets of significant discriminating variables, marital adjustment made the largest relative contribution in differentiating the two groups of women, whereas emphasis on organization in the family environment was the strongest discriminator for men. The results supported the contention that personal and family variables might have important implications for understanding the work commitment of both genders.
Randall et al (1990) studied behavioral expression of organizational commitment. The findings indicated that the three dimensions of organizational commitment relate differently to the behavioral sets.

Witt (1990) examined the relationship of two personality measures, locus of control (LOC) & delay of gratification (DG), with organizational satisfaction (SAT) & commitment (CM). Results indicated that organization to delay reinforcement was positively related to CM & SAT. Internality in LOC was also positively related to the organizational constructs.


Cheng (1994) studied Locus of control as independents variable and job attitudes and perceptions of organizational characteristics as dependent. Teachers with a belief in internal locus of control has a more positive job attitude in terms of organizational commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and social satisfaction.

Kinicki et al (1994) Influences on the quality of supervisor subordinate regions: The role of time- pressure, organizational commitment and locus of control. The study impact of time based stress on leader- member exchange. The results revealed that leader-member exchange acted as a mediator of the relationship between employee locus of control and organizational commitment, while employee locus of control member exchange and leader-member exchange correlated with employee organizational commitment.

Werbel (1996) found the relationship of presently variables to early employment organizational commitment. The results suggested that job search practices had a significant impact on early employment organizational attachment.
Ahmed & Ansari (1998) found job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment – A Co relational Study. They found the job satisfaction linked more strongly with affective commitment than other loci of commitment.

Coleman et al (1999) examined the locus of control – organizational commitment relationship. It depends on the form of commitment. The authors examined the internal locus of control was associated with affective commitment and external locus of control was associated with continuance commitment.

Patel (1999) gave a study of impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and co-operative bank employees. Results showed that younger subjects of both nationalized and co-operative banks exhibited less job involvement and organizational commitment than did middle-aged and older subjects. The only significant difference between employees of two kinds of banks was the middle-aged nationalized bank employees showed more commitment than did middle aged employees of co-operative banks.

Vashishtha et al (1999) examined social support as related to organizational commitment. Analysis revealed that organizational commitment was positively related with self-actualization, self – regard and aggression and negatively associated with time competence and inner directness. Work values such as social status, activity preference, upward striving and pride in work were positively associated with organizational climate.

Wiley (1999) studied the impact of locus of control and empowerment on organizational commitment. The result showed the significant relationship among all three predictors i.e. locus of control, psychological empowerment and organizational empowerment with the criterion variable, organizational commitment.

Ahmad (2000) studied organizational commitment versus organizational change: A Comparative Study of blue-collar employees of saree manufacturing companies. Results revealed that organizational commitment was not a function of organizational change. Though both groups expressed high levels of acceptance of organizational change. White-collar subjects tended to exhibit a higher degree of organizational commitment.
Boswelland & Boudreau (2000) examined Influences of feedback on organizational commitment. Authors reported that feedback show employees, how they could improve in the organizational, which results in a higher level of commitment to the organizations.

Khan and Mishra (2002) studied need satisfaction and organizational commitment: Correlational Study. Authors found that the overall job/need satisfaction of drivers was positively related with affective commitment.

Sinha et al (2002) found Correlational study of organizational commitment, self-efficiency and psychological barriers to technological change. It was found that organizational commitment was positively related to age, length of service in present Cadre and self- efficacy; it was negatively related to psychological barriers to technological change.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING**

The General well being as a construct refers to the harmonious functioning of the physical as well as psychological aspects of the personality giving satisfaction to the self and benefit to the society. Operationally, psychological well being (PWB) deals with the various components of adjustment like freedom from health concern, worry, distress, energy level, cheerful relaxed emotional behavior control etc. Although there are many factors, which influence well being of a person e.g. person related variables, family related variables, work related variables etc. But above all, the workplace is an important setting, affecting the physical, mental, social and economic well being of workers, and, in turn, their families. Health of workers has many determinants and a multidisciplinary integrated approach is important. An overview of trends in workplace health promotion shows that current thinking has changed from a narrowly based risk factors approach aimed at individual behavior changes to an integrated approach aimed at creating health promoting workplaces. The health promoting workplace has an all encompassing approach that that empowers workers and employees to improve all facts of their health. To identify these gaps, number of research studies either focusing well being as an
individual variable or moderating variable, or dependent variable have been listed in the following table chronologically. The following review makes it vivid: -

**Review on Psychological Well Being in relation to relevant variables**

Siddique D' Asey (1984) found well-being and stress. They studied the psychological well-being and stress they may contribute to a higher and lower level of psychological well-being in adolescents are stress. He combined the measure of popularity and intimacy in an orthogonal factorial design to determine their relation in early adolescence. The result showed that intimacy to be stronger predictor of psychological adjustment than popularity.

Zika (1987) studied that meaning in life had been found to be strong and consistent predictor of psychological well-being.

Pugliesi (1989) Relationship between social roles and women's well-being. Finding suggested that parenthood had a weak positive effect on support and marriage reduced levels of distress. Employment did not enhance well-being via social support but did have a positive effect on self-esteem.

Blascovich & Tomaka (1991) studied self-esteem and psychological well-being. They studied the relationship between (e.g. depression, social anxiety, loneliness, alienation) found that the relationship was well-established and significant.

Ellison (1991) indicated that a correlation between religiosity and Psychological well-being and found that participants with strong religious faith reported higher levels of Psychological well-being and fewer negative consequences of traumatic life events.

Oeltjen, & Holly (1992) depression not only affects a woman but also her associates as well as her work. Depressed women usually experience lethargic feelings, low self-esteem and anti-social behavior. Companies may counteract the negative effects of depression in the work place by providing employee education, assistance services and health programs. These preventive measures would prove cost-effective in the long run. People should recognize depression as an ailment that requires medical attention and treat it as such.
Shek (1992) conducted a study on Chinese secondary students and found that students who scored highest in terms of quality of existence as well as purpose of existence also scored highest in psychological well-being.

Marshall & Barnett (1993) examined the nature of occupation Psychological Well Being is influenced by the nature of occupation the employee is having. Because the occupational specialties vary in their level of over bad decision, authority, challenge and helping others etc. dimensions.

Marshall (1993) found that Psychological well-being is influenced in their level of overload, decision, authority, and challenge and helping others etc. dimensions.

Colbry (1995) examined correlation of Psychological Well Being (PWB). Social Support Systems, Self-family environment bear a significant relationship with the general well being of an employee (especially in the females).

Lightsey (1996) found psychological resources and personality traits as correlates and found that personality trait and four psychological resources i.e. positive thoughts, hardiness, generalized self-efficacy and optimism play a vital role in the determination of subjective well-being of an individual.

Lykken & Tellegen (1996) studied the well-being and heritability in which twins separated at birth are studied as adults found that both pleasant and unpleasant affect have a strong genetic basis.

McCake (1996) perceived the impact of relationship quality on mental health. The relationship quality had been found a most critical factor in mediating personal well-being.

Sullivan (1996) found co-worker's well being as IV. Psychological well being of an individual is highly influenced by one's colleague's well-being and type of couple relationship one is having in the family.
Sultana (1996) examined the PWB as a moderating variable. Psychological well-being has a moderating effect on the job performance and the employees' moral relationship.

Taylor & Armor (1996) studied that positive illusions (i.e., self-aggrandizement, unrealistic optimism and exaggerated perception of control) are common among North Americans and function as coping mechanism to restore and maintain positive psychological and physical health of Americans.

Wann (1996) examined Interaction oriented Personality as a Correlate. Individuals with interaction oriented personality disposition have been found reporting psychologically healthy (i.e. in terms of self-esteem, loneliness and positive affect).

Feldt (1997) studied the role of sense of coherence (SOC) as a dimension of organizational climate (as IV). Employee having high SOC reports low level of psychosomatic symptoms and low mental exhaustion. Moreover, employees positive perception to work characteristics, good social relationship at work lead to higher well-being.

Lu (1997) found the social support and reciprocity as a dimension of organizational climate (as IV). The more the social support given and received and positively perceived reciprocity in support of friends and colleagues leads to higher Psychological well-being.

Rispiner (1997) studied job involvement based on need congruence (as IV) and well-being (DV) and need congruence (Moderate Variables). Job involvement based on need congruence was related to high level of well-being. Job Involvement not based on need congruence was negatively related to well-being. The mean levels of two kinds of involvement were equal. Job involvement was related to well-being only if constructs are based on equal processes.
Wizesnieoski & Mccanilly (1997) studied career calling to be in a job which has been aspired as IV. People who see their work as “career calling” has highest life satisfaction and Psychological well-being.

Mirrashidi (1999) Stress and Social support as related to well-being. Study found social support as a set of variables (including family support, co-worker support and organizational support) and stress as a set of variables (work-stress, negative life stress and work-family conflict) well significant predictors of positive well-being.

Shmokem, Lomranj, Eyal & Zemach (1999) studied the contribution of personal resources to physical and mental health. They found the personal socio-economic resources effect physical and mental health more strongly in older age than the younger ones.

Brough & Kelling (2002) studied the effect of both work and family roles on individual well-being. Partners had a positive effect and dependents had a negative effect upon respondent’s levels of psychological well-being.

Elias (2002) Implication for well-being. There had been studied that helping others (i.e. giving help) and receiving help from others have implication for adjustment and well-being.

Noor (2002) worked on the relationship between work-family conflict and well-being. It was predicted that work-family conflict would be negatively correlated with well-being. Work-family conflict was a significant predictor of both job satisfaction and distress. Negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to symptoms of distress.

Sharma (2002) found correlates of well-being. Perceived number of persons available for social support, degree of satisfaction from available social support correlate positively with well-being.
Geurts (2003) found the relationship between workload and well-being. Work-home interference played a significant role in mediating the impact of workload in two indicators of worker's well being: affective and subjective health.

Sallinen, Kinnunen & Romka (2004) studied the Adolescents' experiences of parental employment and parenting. Study examined whether the relationship between parental work and adolescents' well-being would be mediated through parenting behavior. The primary focus was on the experiences of adolescents. Questionnaire based data from families (both parents and one child, n = 77) and adolescents (n = 126) were collected in Finland in 2000 and 2001, respectively. The adolescents were on average 14 years old. Results showed that the relationships between parents' negative work experiences and adolescents' depression (all perceived by adolescents) were partially mediated by adolescents' experience of lessened autonomy granting in parenting and increased conflicts between parents and adolescents. In addition, the relations between fathers' negative work experiences and adolescents' negative attitude regarding school (all reported by adolescents) were mediated by adolescents' perceptions of increased conflicts between fathers and adolescents.

Sprujit, de Goede & Vandervalk (2004) studied the Frequency of Contact with Nonresident Fathers and Adolescent Well-Being. The study examined the reciprocal relations between nonresident father visitation and the adjustment of adolescent and young adults. Youngsters' and mall adjustment is measured both by internalizing problems: stress and depressive feelings, suicidal thoughts and bad mental health and by externalizing problems: delinquency, risk taking behavior and unemployment. They made use of the three waves of the Utrecht Study of Adolescent Development, A longitudinal panel study, based on a sample of young people in the Netherlands. The sample in this article consists of 164 young people with divorced parents. Results showed no significant correlations between frequency of contact with the nonresident father and internalizing and externalizing problems of youngsters. There was some indication that little contact is negatively correlated to externalizing problems. Probably little contact was connected with parental conflict and uncertainty about time and place of visitation. Increasing frequency of contact with the nonresident father over time seems to correlate slightly to diminishing internalizing problems.

Benavidez (2006) studied the well-being of African American adolescent females in affluent, predominantly Caucasian communities. The study concerned indicators of the well-being of African American adolescent females who were living in and attending schools in predominantly Caucasian communities. It examined whether academic achievement, peer and parental support, and perceived racial discrimination were moderators of the effects of the protective aspects of affluence of the well-being of the population. A comparable group of Caucasian adolescent females were studied on all variables, except for perceived racial discrimination in an influential variable. Study builds on the preliminary findings of Luther and Becker’s (2002) study of populations of affluent suburban youth that examined potential causes of stress related to achievement pressures (excessive perfectionist strivings) and parental isolation (low perceived closeness to mothers) The Luther and Becker Study does not included African American youth or perceived racial discrimination and, as such, the current study added to the literature of affluent suburban youth.

Radheyshyam, & Singh (2006) results revealed that one’s occupation had significant influence over well-being. Those in regular government jobs displayed better well-being. Males scored higher than females in well-being & urban respondents reported higher level of happiness than rural subjects.

Ruchi Kakkar & Aradhava Shukla (2007) Studied that level of employment showed its impact & it was found that the magnitude of well being varied with variation in the level of employment.

Kakkar and Shukla (2007) studied well-being affected by employment level, Sex and Age: A developmental Analysis. Findings indicated that development showed its impact and it was found that the magnitude of well-being varied with variation in the level of employment.
Karadia, & Mehra (2007) studied personality type & Psychological well-being of working women. Findings revealed that majority of the subjects possess type A personality pattern. Further, Psychological well being found to be sound enough in those who have Type-A personality pattern as compared to Type-B personality people.

Srivastava & Mishra (2007) examined Social support and psychological well-being among teachers. The result suggested that social support has positive relationship with psychological well-being.

**Self-Esteem**

Self-esteem is an attitude the degree of correspondence between ideals and actual concept of himself- "a discrepancy between ideals and actual attainment" (Cohen, 1959). Self-esteem is simply described as one's internal sense of worth or how one regard oneself. Self-esteem requires a delicate balance between accurately accessing strengths and limitations, while accepting and valuing one without conditions. Working women have been found to have low sense of self worth due to the perceived glass ceiling effect.

Before we talk about the self esteem, there have been number of empirical studies that makes it vivid: -

**Review on Psychological Self-Esteem in relation to relevant variables**

Backman (1978) studied self-esteem, were more likely to attribute success (positive outcomes) to ability (stable, internal attribution) and failure (negative outcomes) to lack of effort or bad luck (unstable or external attributions), whereas people with low self-esteem make external, unstable attributions to success, and stable, internal attributions to failure (Feather, 1985). Those attributions might be the major determinants of the affective response to success and failure (McFarland & Ross, 1982).

Feather (1983) painted out that more depressed subjects tended to have lower self-esteem and that depression and self-esteem were linked to attribution behavior in generally opposite ways.
Zautra (1985) they studied the association between attributional style, self-esteem, depressive symptoms and general distress with a purpose to explore the evidence for a single attributional style linked to depression and self esteem.

Koberg, Christine & Carlin (1992) found that gender & hierarchical level co alignment with manager self-confidence. They examined gender differences in self-confidence among working managers in work and social/family situations and by hierarchical level. Hierarchical differences were found among males but not among females. Both were higher in self-confidence at work than the same gender was in social/family environment, but within gender differences were found at different managerial levels.

Fernandez & Maceira (1995) examined the relationship among self-esteem, health values, and health behaviors among adolescents. They found a significant relationship between self-esteem and general health behavior for both younger and older adolescents, and that self-esteem accounted for a significant percent of the variance in mental health behavior, social health behavior and total health behavior.

Hill, & Pallim. (1998) purposed a dieting awareness and low self worth. Result shows that children were more likely to advise a fictitious character, “Mary – Jane” to diet than they were to report dieting themselves. However, self-endorsed dieting was more strongly correlated with negative self-perception, especially in girls. Significant predictors of dieting awareness in girls including global self worth (negatively), body mass index and frequency of mother dieting (positively). Findings supported the view that young girls are drawn to weight control to improve their self worth and that mothers are influential in this regard.

Knox, Fink, Elliott & Bush (1998) found adolescents possible Selves and their relationship to global self-esteem. Results indicated that female self-esteem is related to perceive likelihood of hoped for and esteem is related only to the likelihood of one domain of hope for possible selves.
Ohannessian, Lerner & Von (1998) perceived parental acceptance and early adolescence self-competence. Results indicate that for boys paternal but not maternal acceptance significantly predicted self-competence, while the opposed pattern was found for girls. In addition, self worth significantly predicted maternal and paternal acceptance for both boys and girls. The consistency of those findings with current models of human development is discussed.

Polcemyers, Kilmarlin, Forssmann & Renate (1998) studied gender and age pattern in emotional expression, body image and self-esteem. A major finding indicated that boys restrict emotional expressions from early adolescence through late adolescence while girl increase emotional expression during the same age period. Another major finding suggested that girl in late childhood and adolescence are both more negatively and more positively influenced than boys by body image. Both boys and girls feeling about themselves are primarily influenced in gender stereo typed ways.

Chapman & Mullis (1999) studied adolescent coping strategies and self-esteem. Study revealed that adolescents with lower self-esteem utilized more avoidance coping strategies than adolescents with lower self esteem utilized more avoidance coping strategies more frequently than females; females were found to utilized social and spiritual support more frequently than males.

Henliques, & Calhoun (1999) studied gender and ethnic differences in the relationship between body esteem & self esteem. The result indicated that the correlation of positive differences sources was stronger for the group of white women than for the other 3 groups, suggested that changes in Self-Esteem parallel changes in body esteem more for women than for white men & Black men & black women.

Aidman and Carroll (2003) implicit individual differences: relationship between implicit self-esteem, gender identity and gender attitudes. The implicit association test (IAT) revealed a strong automatic preference for female words in 34 female under graduates but surprisingly no significant gender biased in 32 males. Individual level of this gender bias was predicted in both sexes.
Goldenberg, Landau, Pyszczynski, Cox, Greenberg, Solomon & Dunnam (2003) proposed that gender-differentiated patterns of jealousy in response to sexual and emotional infidelity are engendered by the differential impact of each event on self-esteem for men and women. Study 1 demonstrated that men derive relatively more self-esteem from their sexlives, whereas women's self-esteem was more contingent on romantic commitment. Based on terror management theory, it was predicted that if gender-differentiated responses to infidelity are motivated by gender-specific contingencies for self-esteem, they should be intensified following reminders of mortality. In Study 2, mortality salience (MS) increased distress in response to sexual infidelity for men and emotional infidelity for women. Study 3 demonstrated that following MS, men who place high value on sex in romantic relationships exhibited greater distress in response to sexual infidelity, but low-ex-value men's distress was attenuated. The authors discuss the implications for evolutionary and self-esteem-based accounts of jealousy as well as possible integration of these perspectives.

Vohs & Heatherton (2003) examined the effects of self-esteem and threats to the self on interpersonal appraisals. Self-esteem scores, ego threat (operationalized as a substantial decrease in self-esteem across an average of 9 months), and their interaction were used to predict likeability and personality perceptions of college men and women. The results revealed a curvilinear function explaining likeability: Moderate to low self-esteem men and women were higher in likeability when threatened, whereas high self-esteem men were seen as less likable when threatened. Personality ratings indicated that high self-esteem men and women who were threatened were rated highest on Antagonism (i.e., fake, arrogant, unfriendly, rude, and uncooperative). Mediation analyses revealed that differences in Antagonism statistically accounted for differences in likeability. Those patterns are interpreted with respect to gender and time in interpersonal perceptions as well as naturalistic versus laboratory investigations.

Mahaffy (2004) examined the relation between gender, adolescent self-esteem, and three outcomes: Educational status, occupational status, and income attainment. She found a positive association between gender, self-esteem, and the socio-economic outcomes initially. Taking into account social context and individual-level factors, self-esteem in adolescence is not related to women's socioeconomic achievements, but it
continues to have a positive estimated effect on men's occupational status and income attainment. However, the influence of self-esteem on men's achievements is small in practical terms. The author suggested that adolescent girls and boys would be better served by social programs that explain how social structural arrangements contribute to gender inequality and encourage them to take part in social change.

Patterson (2004) examined the self-esteem of African American women (N = 428) over a 14-year period using the National Survey of Black Americans: A Panel Study of Black American Life 1979-1992 (NSBA; Jackson& Gurin, 1996). Difference-of-means tests were used to examine self-esteem in four time periods (1979 to 1980, 1986 to 1987, 1988 to 1989, and 1992), and OLS regression was used to determine the effect of three variable categories (support networks, achievement outcomes, and racial esteem) on self-esteem in 1979 and 1992. Although historical analyses of self-esteem predicted low self-esteem for Blacks in general and Black women in particular, African American women maintain a very high self-esteem in three decades. Support networks and achievement outcomes significantly affected self-esteem in both years, and racial esteem was significantly related to self-esteem in 1979. The findings are discussed in relation to historical and current analyses of self-esteem and within a feminist paradigm that supports the maintenance of a healthy self-esteem despite membership in a marginalized group.

Spencer-Rodgers, Peng, Wang & Hou (2004) examined cultural differences in reasoning about psychological contradiction and the effects of naive dialecticism on self-evaluations and psychological adjustment. Mainland Chinese and Asian Americans exhibited greater "ambivalence" or evaluative contradiction in their self-attitudes than did Western synthesis-oriented cultures on a traditional self-report measure of self-esteem (Study 1) and in their spontaneous self-descriptions (Study 2). Naive dialecticism, as assessed with the Dialectical Self Scale, mediated the observed cultural differences in self-esteem and well-being (Study 3). In Study 4, the authors primed naive dialecticism and found that increased dialecticism was related to decreased psychological adjustment. Implications for the conceptualization and measurement of self-esteem and psychological well-being across cultures are discussed.
Forney & Crutsinger (2005) examined the combinations of gender, delinquent status, and social acceptance was examined as predictors of the global self-esteem of teens. Participants (N = 225) were aged 13 to 17 and included juvenile delinquents (n = 60) and high school students (n = 165) in one county in a southwest state. Factor analyses identified two dimensions of social acceptance (social verification, social interaction) and global self-esteem (self-respect, self-acceptance). Multiple regression analyses revealed the combination of gender (males) as a weak predictor and social verification as a strong predictor for self-acceptance and social interaction as a strong predictor for self-respect. Delinquent status did not predict global self-esteem. For these teens, the findings support the role of self-confirming feedback in the development of self-acceptance and the importance of socialization in forming self-respect. Implications for building self-esteem among teens are drawn for parents, high school teachers, and secondary schools.

Salazar, Crosby, DiClemente, Wingood, Lescano, Brown, Harrington, Susan & Davies (2005) determined whether self-esteem was associated with sexually transmitted disease (STD), pregnancy, and the set of theoretical mediators controlling for covariates. Bivariate analyses showed no relationship between self-esteem and STD or pregnancy; multivariate regression analysis revealed a significant relation between self-esteem and the set of mediators. Girls higher in self-esteem were more likely to hold positive condom attitudes, felt more efficacious in negotiating condom use, had more frequent communication with sex partners and parents, perceived fewer barriers to using condoms, and were less fearful of negotiating condom use. Self-esteem should be considered when designing and evaluating sexual risk reduction programs for this population.

Shaw-Zirt, Popali-Lehane, Chaplin & Bergman (2005) studied that the problems associated with the disorder continue into adolescence and beyond for 10% to 60% of patients. The present study assesses several aspects of college adjustment, social skills, and self-esteem in a no referred sample of college students meeting criteria for a Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (4th ed.) diagnosis of ADHD. Twenty-one undergraduate students with symptoms of ADHD are compared to 20 students without significant ADHD symptoms, who match the ADHD students on age, gender, and grade point average. Students with ADHD symptoms showed decreased functioning in several areas of college adjustment as well as lower levels of self-reported
social skills and self-esteem. The results also suggested that the relation between ADHD and college adjustment is partially mediated by self-reported levels of self-esteem.

Srivastva & Sinha (2005) found the relationship of resilience, happiness and self-esteem. With well-being were explored, using a sample of undergraduate students (N=30) from a premier technological institute located in north India. Results showed that resilience and happiness were positively related to well-being. Happiness had positive association with resilience, but negative association with self-esteem. Self-esteem was negatively associated with resilience, and well-being.

Eccleston & Major (2006) tested the hypothesis that appraisals of discrimination (i.e. its perceived severity, global aspects, stability, and uncontrollability) mediate the relationship between attributions to discrimination and personal self-esteem. It also tested three models of how ethnic group identification is related to discrimination attributions, discrimination appraisals, and personal self-esteem. In a cross-sectional study of 160 Latino-American students, group identification was positively related to attributing ambiguous negative events to discrimination. Discrimination attributions were related to appraising discrimination as more global and severe. These latter appraisals, in turn, were related to lower self-esteem. No direct relationships were observed between self-esteem and either group identification or discrimination attributions. Results illustrated the importance of appraisals in understanding the relationship between perceived discrimination and self-esteem.

Smurda, Wittig & Gokalp (2006) measured both social self-esteem and intergroup discrimination. The role of group identification and social self-esteem as determinants of intergroup bias was examined under high and low identity-threatening conditions utilizing an implicit measure of social self-esteem. Participants read a fictitious statement indicating whether their university received a good or bad evaluation relative to a rival university and then made attributions for this situation. High group identifiers had a greater decrease in implicit social self-esteem after a threat than low group identifiers did and they displayed the greatest intergroup favoritism. Greater intergroup-serving bias was associated with a subsequent increase in implicit social self-esteem.
Hatcher (2007) found the state of measurement of self-esteem in African American women. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory are three commonly used measures. However, their validity for African American women has not been adequately tested. Given the unique nature of the self-esteem of this group, related to experiences of racism and sexism, the accurate measurement of this construct is important. This review provided support for the internal consistency of each measure with alpha coefficients ranging from .74 to .87. However, the validity of the measures was not fully supported. Suggestions for further research specific to the unique needs of this population are discussed.

Umaña-Taylor, Vargas-Chanes, Garcia & Gonzales-Backen (2008) tested the premise that Latino adolescents’ (N = 323) proactive coping with discrimination would mediate the relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem. Each component of ethnic identity (i.e., exploration, resolution, and affirmation) was positively associated with concurrent assessments of adolescents’ self-esteem. However, in the longitudinal analyses, none of the ethnic identity components predicted future levels of self-esteem. Ethnic identity resolution was the only ethnic identity component to predict proactive coping over time. Furthermore, proactive coping did not mediate the relationship between ethnic identity and self-esteem. However, there was evidence to suggest that the association between proactive coping and self-esteem was bidirectional. These findings underscore the importance of examining the unique components of ethnic identity as well as using longitudinal designs to examine the associations between ethnic identity and adolescents’ psychological well-being.

Meier, Semmer & Hupfeld (2009) examined the moderating roles of self-esteem level and self-esteem instability in the relationship between perceived unfair treatment and depressive mood. Based on the assumption that unfairness is a threat to one’s social standing and self-esteem, the authors proposed that individuals with highly fragile self-esteem (i.e., the combination of unstable and high self-esteem) react more strongly when experiencing unfair treatment. This hypothesis was tested in a real-world setting using cross-sectional and diary data of 101 employees. As expected, unfair treatment was related to depressive mood among individuals with unstable high self-esteem but not
among individuals with stable high self-esteem. That pattern of results hold for both cross-sectional and diary data. In contrast, unfairness was not related to depressive mood among individuals with unstable low self-esteem.

Scheepers Spears, Manstead & Doosje (2009) examined the influence of discrimination and fairness on collective self-esteem. Whereas social identity theory’s self-esteem hypothesis emphasizes that discrimination can enhance self-esteem, the authors contended that this self-esteem advantage would actually reverse when groups are primed with the idea of engaging in a fair inter-group competition. They measured (Study 1) and manipulated (Study 2) discrimination and fairness in real (Study 1) and minimal (Study 2) groups, after which they manipulated the presence of an inter-group competition in both studies. Collective self-esteem served as the main dependent measure. Results indicated that when an inter-group competition was present or impending, previously expressed fairness (or less discrimination) was positively related to self-esteem, whereas discrimination was positively related to collective self-esteem in the absence of an inter-group competition. Results are discussed in terms of social identity theory and the importance of the broader social context for examining the relationship between discrimination and self-esteem.

Adjustment:-

The term adjustment usually implies a smooth relationship between the individual and the environment. In this sense, the adjusted individual interacts in a harmonious way with the world in which he or she lives.

Adjustment is a life long process that involves stimulus response behavior. First of all, individual proceeds towards the dissection of goal and while proceedings towards the direction of goal, there is every possibility that obstacles may block him. He may face circumstances, which may lead him to thwarting. In this thwarting condition, the individual makes varied responses to attain the goal and he goes on until he discovers some appropriate response, reaches the goal and develops adjustment. If individual is able to accept himself and the ways of the life he has to follow without any hazard, he become well adjusted in life. The following review makes it vivid:
Review on Psychological Adjustment in relation to relevant variables

Piotrkowski & Crits-Christoph (1981) investigated the relationship between multiple characteristics of women's jobs and their family adjustment in a sample of 99 women in dual-earner families. Six work-related variables were considered simultaneously as predictors of family adjustment: intrinsic job gratification, satisfaction with job security, job-related mood, time spent at work, occupational prestige, and salary. The results were consistent with the hypothesis that women's paid work lives influence their family adjustment. Women's experiences of their work were significantly related to two of three measures of family adjustment. Salary was negatively associated with satisfaction with family relations for women in low-status occupations only. Time spent at work and occupational prestige showed no significant associations with reported adjustment. Of the three indicators of family adjustment, marital satisfaction appeared to be relatively immune from work influences. We hypothesized that the marital relationship may be less sensitive to women's paid work than are other aspects of their family relations.

Bolles (1991) examined how female economic activity is differentially affected by structural adjustment policies over a five-year period (1980-85). The Jamaican working-class familial organization centers on women as mothers and as providers. Under conditions framed by structural adjustment policies, the macro constraints of the national economy come face to face with the micro-level activities of working-class and poor women, children and men

Lovelace & Rosen (1996) studied comparison of the perceptions about organizational fit of white female, African-American, and Hispanic managers to those of white male managers revealed that African-American managers reported achieving significantly poorer organizational fit compared to other subgroups. However, race and sex explained a relatively small amount of the variance in perceived fit. Poor organizational fit was associated with job dissatisfaction, intentions to leave, and greater levels of stress. The results suggested that more research is needed to explicate the differences in organizational experiences faced by female and minority managers (e.g., African-Americans and Hispanics) and those faced by white male managers.
Bowman (1998) found that minority women had experienced challenges similar to those of minority men and White women, but their membership in two (or more) minority groups can be the source of unique challenges and stressors in the workforce. This article examined theory and research on minority women’s issues with career adjustment, and uses the Theory of Work Adjustment (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991) to discuss a case of a client experiencing racism in her job.

McWhirter, Torres & Rasheed (1998) overviewed the literature on women’s career barriers and identify potential external, environmental barriers and individual, socialized barriers to women’s career adjustment. We described a variety of assessment strategies and instruments that may be utilized to assess barriers to women’s career adjustment. A case example was provided to illustrate the assessment process.

Russell & Burgess (1998) suggested a number of personal and organizational strategies to help women overcome these barriers and achieve greater levels of success in organizations. Nevertheless, in recent years increasingly more women have left organizations to find career success by starting their own businesses. The present paper examined some of the barriers still facing women, proposed assistance strategies, and issues relevant to entrepreneurial women. Suggestions for future research to enhance the career success of women are offered.

Subich (1998) studied women’s satisfaction and career adjustment encompasses a broad range of women’s career experiences subsequent to entry into an occupation. The experiences most commonly investigated in relation to satisfaction include satisfaction in relation to work experiences and characteristics, satisfaction in relation to managing multiple roles, and satisfaction in relation to occupational transitions. Conclusions from this review included the need to use multidimensional assessments of satisfaction and to use more qualitative assessment strategies as they may be more sensitive to non-normative events than are standard quantitative approaches.

Sullivan (1999) analyzed how the changing nature of careers can be conceptualized by examining two major categories of careers research. Specifically, the developmental stage theories of Super (1957) and Levinson (1978, 1986, 1996) and the boundary less career concept (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) are used to assess our
understanding of careers in today’s dynamic work environment. Directions for future research on existing topics, as well as five major recommendations for a new research agenda, are offered.

Moctezuma (2001) found the experiences of community-based organizations in settlements and municipalities in southeast Mexico City in participatory planning and in the development of local projects and new employment opportunities. In order to do so, popular groups joined forces with students and professionals. They sought to demonstrate new models of urban and peri-urban development that met their inhabitants’ needs while avoiding the chaotic informal processes by which most low-income settlements develop. They also sought to ensure good natural resource management and the protection of their rich and diverse cultural heritage. Last but not least, they searched for new approaches to community-based organizational replication in harmony with the environment. This paper described the many projects implemented in San Miguel Teotongo, Cananea and Sierra Nevada which included new schools, health centers and community museums, settlement lay-outs with planned and installed infrastructure, markets, the protection of green areas and historic sites and the development of new agricultural products and ecotourism. It also included community-based mapping of municipalities to allow better management of natural resources. The paper also described how those initiatives had developed over the last 20 years and their role within Mexico’s complex political changes, including their relations with different political parties.

Peleg-Oren, Sherer (2001) examined the effects of gender on the social adjustment and psychological distress experienced by cancer patients and their spouses. A total of 87 patients and spouses participated in the study, with the patients undergoing active medical treatment (chemotherapy, radiation or both) and three months post-diagnosis. Three questionnaires were used to collect data: a personal information one; the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), in which stress was examined; and the PAIS-SR, in which psychosocial adjustment to physical illness was examined. Both cancer patients and their spouses reported the same level of psychological distress and difficulties in social adjustment in most areas studied. Patients reported more difficulties in relationships with extended family and in sexual relations than their spouses did. In the area of social environment, spouses reported higher levels of difficulties than patients.
Both men and women reported difficulties with social adjustment in most areas studied. Women reported more difficulties with social environment. As for psychological stress, generally men as patients and as spouses reported higher levels of anxiety. As patients, men reported higher levels of paranoia.

Agadjanian (2002) studied of women street vendors in La Paz-El Alto, Bolivia, examines the dynamics of competition and cooperation among this group of poor working women in the context of economic structural adjustment and political pluralization. It was argued that the economic and political reforms not only increase street vendors’ insecurities, but may also undermine the potential for their broad-based solidarity and collective actions. Extreme competition in the overcrowded street commerce, diminishing returns, and disillusionment with traditional forms of workers’ organization hinder cooperation among street vendors and fragment the social body of the street marketplace, often by further reinforcing its gender, class, ethno racial, and religious fault lines.

Markowitz & Tice (2002) examined the opportunities for women’s social movement organizations to expand their scope of engagement had often been accompanied by greater vulnerability to donor discipline and scrutiny. Efforts by activists to accommodate the demands for accountability and institutional sustainability by professionalizing their organizations have been instrumental in moving feminist concerns into the political mainstream. However, such institutionalization has frequently contributed to the persistence or creation of social hierarchies within and between women’s organizations, as well as to shifts in their social change agendas and action strategies. This article examined the common dilemmas of activists in Latin America and the United States; bringing together two usually separate domains of scholarship to analyze the course, costs, and possibilities of organizational transformation.

Combs (2003) suggested that women have progressed in equalizing their representation, status, and earning power as managers in organizations. Those improvements may not reflect the career advancement of managerial African American women. African American women contend with the convergence of race and gender in improving their organizational standing and career advancement opportunities. The
literature on workplace social networks indicated that informal more than formal socialization systems are salient in advancing careers. Due to the duality of race and gender, African American women in managerial and executive positions may be forced into out-group status in terms of informal social networks. Informal social networks for managerial African American women may be less accessible and may operate under different dimensions than for their African American male and White female and male counterparts. Critical examination of the effect of the interaction of race and gender on informal networks of managerial African American women in organizations is needed.

Denis (2003) found the gendered phenomenon and its impact on the (in) equity women experience is examined for Barbados, a small island nation, which has been experiencing shifts in economic and social policies which are informed by the neoliberal orthodoxy of globalization. After considering how recent globalization has affected the Barbados political economy, the article examines how these changes affect the productive and reproductive activities of women in different social locations. The resulting benefits and disadvantages for women are considered, together with the latter’s strategies of resistance.

Garcia (2003) examined the concept of gender “difference” in relation to the criminal justice system. The author argued that the acceptance of women as different and the practice of doing gender, although initially allowing women entrance into the police organization, has continued to keep women police in subordinate positions and, thus, creates conflict. To illustrate, the author analyzed research on the history of the entrance of women into the police organization as well as their experiences and conflicts. The research revealed that without the acceptance of the doctrine that women are different and more humanistic than men, the police organization might not have accepted the issues of women and children (issues of social service) as police responsibility. However, the continual practice of women police as different has created conflict within the police organization and worked to keep women police within the lower ranks of the organization.

Hite, Kimberly & McDonald (2003) studied career aspirations and planning among non-managerial women. Results indicate career goals often are adapted to meet
other life circumstances; and that family responsibilities, job security, and organizational support systems influence career success and satisfaction. Recommendations for organizationally based career initiatives focused on women in non-managerial positions are provided.

Dekel, Solomon, Ginzburg & Neria (2004) studied the long-term adjustment among Israeli war veterans. The findings revealed different relationship between the avoidant style of attachment and emotional distress measures across the research groups. The implications of these findings are discussed according to two theoretical models of attachment. The main findings from that study indicated: (1) patterns of cultural adjustment differ for children and adolescents according to cultural background, gender, age, and length of stay in the host culture; (2) former-Yugoslavian migrants generally report greater identification and involvement with Australian culture norms than Chinese migrant youth; and (3) the divergent variables social support and bicultural adjustment are not universally paired with acculturative stress, as previously indicated in other adult migrant and acculturation studies.

Park & Fenster (2004) studied the stress related growth: predictors of occurrence and correlates with psychological adjustment Results suggested that specific coping processes and to a lesser extent, cognitive processing were related to growth. Stress related to predicted increases in personal resources and positive state of mind, but was unrelated to depressive symptom.

Rogers (2004) examined parental divorce can be a stressful experience for children at any age, but children whose parents divorce prior to the age of 6 may be particularly at risk for development disruptions and maladaptive behaviors. Because of child's age is an essential variable both to research and intervention development, the present article reviews theory (attachment theory, cognitive theory and cumulative stress theory) as well as risk and protective factors that are commonly associated with post-divorce adjustment in young children.

Sonderegger, Barrett & Creed (2004) suggested that model of cultural adjustment for child and adolescent migrants to Australia: Internal process and situational factors. Building on previous cultural adjustment profile work by Sonderegger and Barrett
agricultural producers into the market or opening rural markets but rather improving the conditions under which small producers and subsistence farmers become integrated into the market, which would require a deep understanding of how the production system of the rural poor functions.

Shrout, Herman & Volger (2006) found the cost and benefit of Practical and emotional support on adjustment. Results highlighted the distinction between emotional and practical support and are consistent with finding that suggested that invisible support leads to the best outcome.

Hamel (2009) studied the career development research is grounded in studies of men’s careers in professional positions. In addition to largely ignoring the career experiences of women, the career literature pays little attention to overcoming barriers to career advancement in organizations—a challenge many women and men both face over the course of their career development. Using survey data, analyses of in-depth interviews, and a focus group discussion with female executives in the high-tech industry, this study finds variations of three responses: exit, voice, and rationalizing to remain are used by women in response to career barriers. Those responses form the foundation of a career barrier sense making and response framework presented in the study. Findings indicated that perceived organizational sanctioning of career barriers and the organization’s commitment to the career advancement of other women also influence participants’ responses to barriers and their strategies for sense making, respectively.