REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

Brief Overview:

Effective research cannot be accomplished without studying critically what already exists in the form of general literature and specific studies. Therefore, it is considered as an important perquisite for actual planning and execution of research projects. The review of existing literature helps to formulate hypothesis, identify research gaps and formulate a framework for further investigation.

There are four major sections in the review of literature.

Section 1: Theoretical framework of Recruitment and Career Advancement.
Section 2: Studies related to Women Career Advancement.
Section 3: Studies related to the Self-efficacy.
Section 4: Studies related to the Gender Differences and Glass Ceiling.

2.1 Theoretical framework of Recruitment & Career Advancement

2.1.1: Concept of Recruitment

Barber (1998) defines Employee recruitment as “practices and activities carried on by an organization for the purpose of identifying and attracting potential employees”. Many large corporations have employee recruitment plans that are designed to attract potential employees that are not only capable of filling vacant positions but also add to the organization’s culture.

According to Costello (2006) recruitment is described as the set of activities and processes used to legally obtain a sufficient number of qualified people at the right place and time so that the people and the organization can select each other in their own best short and long term interests.
According to Montgomery (1996) is on matching the capabilities and inclinations of prospective candidates against the demands and rewards inherent in a given job.

Jovanovic (2004) said recruitment is a process of attracting a pool of high quality applicants so as to select the best among them. For this reason, top performing companies devoted considerable resources and energy to creating high quality selection systems. Due to the fact that organizations are always fortified by information technology to be more competitive, it is natural to also consider utilizing this technology to re-organize the traditional recruitment and selection process through proper decision techniques, with that both the effectiveness and the efficiency of the processes can be increased and the quality of the recruitment and selection decision improved.

2.1.2 Need of the Recruitment and Selection Process

Dessler, (2000) found in his study that the Recruitment and selection forms a core part of the central activities underlying human resource management: namely, the acquisition, development and reward of the workers. It frequently forms an important part of the work of human resource managers – or designated specialists within work organizations. However, and importantly, recruitment and selection decisions are often for good reason taken by non-specialists, by the line managers. Recruitment and selection also have an important role to play in ensuring worker performance and positive organizational outcomes. Recruitment and selection had the capacity to form a key part of the process of managing and leading people as a routine part of organizational life, it is suggested here that recruitment and selection has become ever more important as organizations increasingly regard their workforce as a source of competitive advantage. Of course, not all employers engage with this proposition even at the rhetorical level. However, there is evidence of increased interest in the utilization of employee selection methods which are valid, reliable and fair. Dessler listing the essence of these in the following; build a pool of candidates for the job, have the applicants fill out application forms, utilize various selection techniques to identify viable job candidates, send one or more viable job candidates to their supervisor, have
the candidate(s) go through selection interviews, and determine to which candidate(s) an offer should be made.

**Mullins (1999)** indicated that to be a high performing organization, human resource management must be able to assist the organization to place the right person in the right job. The human resource management practices include recruitment, selection, placement, evaluation, training and development, compensation and benefits, and retention of the employees of an organization. Businesses have developed human resource information systems that support: (i) recruitment, selection, and hiring, (ii) job placement, (iii) performance appraisals, (iv) employee benefits analysis, (v) training and development, and (vi) health, safety, and security.

### 2.1.3 Process of Recruitment

**Odiorne (1984)** indicated that the quality of new recruits depends upon an organization's recruitment practice, and that the relative effectiveness of the selection phase is inherently dependent upon the caliber of candidates attracted.

**Smith et al. (1989)** argue that the more effectively the recruitment stage is carried out, the less important the actual selection process becomes. When an organization makes the decision to fill an existing vacancy through recruitment, the first stage in the process involves conducting a comprehensive job analysis. This may already have been conducted through the human resource planning process, particularly where recruitment is a relatively frequent occurrence. Once a job analysis has been conducted, the organization has a clear indication of the particular requirements of the job, where that job fits into the overall organization structure, and can then begin the process of recruitment to attract suitable candidates for the particular vacancy.

**According to Odiorne, (1984)** one result of effective recruitment and selection is reduced labour turnover and good employee morale. Recruiting ineffectively is costly, since poor recruits may perform badly and/or leave their employment, thus requiring further recruitment. In a cross national study of recruitment practices, suggests that, in
reality, recruitment practices involve little or no attempt to validate practices. Personnel managers tend to rely on feedback from line managers and probationary periods and disciplinary procedures to weed out mistakes. Firms with high quit rates live with them and tend to build them into their recruitment practices and they do not analyze the constitution of their labor turnover. A number of recent studies have suggested that some recruitment methods are more effective than others in terms of the value of the employees recruited.

Miyake, (2002) indicated that while advertising is usual for job vacancies, applicants were sometimes recruited by word of mouth, through existing employees. Besides being cheaper, the “grapevine” finds employees who stay longer (low voluntary turnover) and who are less likely to be dismissed (low involuntary turnover). People recruited by word of mouth stay longer because they have a clearer idea of what the job really involves. The study reviewed five studies in which average labor turnover of those recruited by advertising was 51 percent. The labor turnover for spontaneous applicants was 37 per cent and turnover for applicants recommended by existing employees was 30 percent. One hypothesis proposed to account for this was the “best information” hypothesis. It was argued that people who were suggested by other employees were better and more realistically informed about the job than those who applied through newspapers and agencies. Thus, they were in a better position to assess their own suitability. Better informed candidates are likely to have a more realistic view of the job, culture of the organization and job prospects.

Burack, (1985) argues that recruitment sources are significantly linked to differences in employee performance, turnover, satisfaction and organizational commitment. In a survey of 201 large US companies, Burack asked respondents to rate the effectiveness of nine recruitment sources in yielding high-quality, high-performing employees. The three top ranked sources were employee referrals, college recruiting and executive search firms. However, cautions that, while these general results are useful, there is a need for greater internal analysis of the relative quality of recruits yielded by different sources.
Kersley et al (1997) reiterated the anticipatory socialization stage for students planning to enter professions, and in particular the effects of recruitment and selection experiences on career expectations and orientation. They agreed that the nature of students’ job search activity, the possession of relevant work experience, and exposure to employers through recruitment and selection activities may form part of the “evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences” which contributes to anticipatory socialization. It has been argued that exposure to employers through recruitment and selection is a social process where employers and potential employees gradually perceive a match. Through job search activities and awareness of employers’ recruitment literature and events, students gather information about the organization’s goals, values, climate and work practices to guide their ultimate decision. Exposure to selection procedures provides information about the culture and attributes of an organization, and candidates form judgments from their perceptions of the fairness of the selection methods used.

Delery and Doty (1996) argued that providing students with a greater awareness of employment opportunities, and equipping them with the ability to be proactive in approaching potential employers, will lead to more effective career self-management and selection processes.

2.1.4 The Selection Decision

Gould, (1984) argues that most mistakes are caused by the fact that managers generally give little thought to the critical nature of the decisions. Employers are surprised and disappointed when an appointment fails, and often the person appointed is blamed rather than recognizing the weaknesses in the process and methodology, even the soundest of techniques and best practice (in selection) contain scope for error. Some of this is due to the methods themselves, but the main source is the frailty of the human decision makers. Selection tools available to organizations can be characterized along a continuum that ranges from the more traditional methods of interviews, application forms and references, through to the more sophisticated techniques that encapsulate biographical data, aptitude tests, assessment centres, work samples, psychological
testing, and so forth. Each method of selection has its advantages and disadvantages and comparing their rival claims involves comparing each method's merit and psychometric properties. The degree to which a selection technique is perceived as effective and perhaps sophisticated is determined by its reliability and validity.

Miyake, (2002) In a comparison of personnel selection practices in seven European countries explored the utilization of a range of established selection methods. They reported a general trend towards structured interviews in all countries and, while the general validity and acceptability of methods such as work samples, group exercises and assessment centres were widely recognized, reported usage of these methods was infrequent.

Burton (2001) in his study of recruitment and selection practices in the USA, found that approximately 25 percent of respondent organizations conducted validation studies on their selection methods. Furthermore, in a rating of various selection methods, those perceived to be above average in their ability to predict employees' job performance included work samples, references/recommendations, unstructured interviews, structured interviews and assessment centres.

Cran (1995) suggests that developments in the realm of selection lend some support to those who propound the HRM thesis, where a key feature has been the increase in testing designed explicitly to assess behavioral and attitudinal characteristics. He further indicates that the extent to which these more sophisticated and systematic approaches can be, and are, deployed, depends to a large degree, on sectoral circumstances and on the wider employment-management policies being pursued.

2.1.5 Recruiting Sources/Methods

Armstrong (1991) studied the issues to consider include the type of sample (random or convenience), cost, ease, participant time demands (e.g., total time, days of the week, and time of day), and efficiency (e.g., staff hours per recruited participant). Researchers
have a number of methods from which to choose, including advertising, direct mail, and telephone.

French (1982) found that there are two options of recruitment. First, Institutions or events (such as medical offices, schools, community sports organizations, health fairs, community events, and churches) often are used as a setting for recruitment. Schools present a promising avenue for the recruitment and assessment of youth. Recruitment at schools may not be appropriate in studies having a family or neighborhood context, requiring a greater dispersal of participants from a larger area, or focusing on data collection in the home. Door-to-door recruitment is another option. For large studies, this recruitment method can be costly in terms of staff time and travel expenses, and it is difficult to assure that recruiters randomly sample homes. Despite these concerns, door-to-door recruitment may be a necessary recruitment strategy for certain potential participants (e.g., those who do not have a residential phone.

Kaplan and Norton (2004) found that the number of people who refused to provide screening information tended to be higher by telephone than in person. However, refusals over the telephone tend to be less likely than with mailed surveys (Kelly, 2006). It should be noted that telephone methods can be used not only for recruitment, but also for data collection. Recent advances in telephone survey methodology have made telephone recruitment and surveying an increasingly attractive option in many research fields.

Drucker (1999) has studied that Recruitment procedures need not be limited to one method. It is possible and often desirable to combine methods to enhance the recruitment success of a particular project. For example, use of focus groups and pilot studies that involve the community and pre-recruitment, publicity can lead to higher rates of consent.

From the above review of literature, it is observed that the sources of recruitment and selection are through advertising, via the internet and so forth. However, recruitment and selection are faced with lots of challenges.
2.1.6 Challenges of Recruitment and Selection

According to Kaplan and Norton, (2004) a common problem in recruitment and selection is poor HR planning. Rigorous HR planning translates business strategies into specific HRM policies and practices. This is particularly so with recruitment and selection policies and practices. The key goal of HR planning is to get the right number of people with the right skills, experience and competencies in the right jobs at the right time at the right cost. Past research shows that the competency level of HR managers has a major influence on recruitment and selection and experienced HR experts within the HR department will not only shorten vacancy duration, but also improve the quality of the applicants. Moreover, effective recruitment and selection is possible only if there is a dedicated and competent HR team.

Whitmell Associates, (2004) observed that the extent of recruitment and selection strategy integration can be gauged through four distinctive indicators. These indicators are: the timely supply of an adequately qualified workforce, effective job analysis and descriptions, effective selection, and the involvement of line managers in the recruitment and selection practices. A key source of uncertainty in the business strategy implementation is whether there is a timely supply of adequately qualified people, and to a great extent this uncertainty involves the quality of employees. An organization can successfully eliminate this uncertainty if its recruitment and selection policies and practices are strategically integrated with the business.

Johnston, (1999) analyzed that for every job in the organization, a thorough job analysis, which includes the job description and job specification, is necessary and based on this, an appropriate selection criteria is vital. The job description provides indications of the duties to be undertaken, and the job specification usually prescribes relevant personal qualities and attitudes as well as skills and knowledge required for the job.

Dess and Jason, (2001) suggest that in business strategy implementation the involvement of line managers in the entire staffing process (i.e., drafting of job
descriptions, setting selection criteria and being on the panel of recruitment) is vital for ensuring recruitment and selection to meet business needs. In other words, the line managers are the owner of the recruitment and selection process along with HR playing a facilitator role.

Scholars have argued that other key issues and controversies run through analyses of human resource management and recruitment and selection: efficiency, control, and the difficulty of orienting practice towards social justice are often cited. The first two problematic, as Burton, (2001) notes, have been central to the management of people for as long as managers have been present in organizations. The latter is also common across all organizations, but is a particular academic and policy concern for smaller or growing organizations.

2.1.7 Concept of Career

Prasad (2005) found that an individual joins an organization not just for a job, but for a career, that is, where he/she will be at the far end of his work-life through a series of progression in responsibilities and reward for such a responsibility. It is common to find out that after the initial excitement in a job, executives/managers tend to lose interest and begin to feel that there is no career in a particular organization. This implies that career advancement has not taken place as expected of them after a certain period of time. This mismatch between a manager's expectations and his/her actual career advancement experience may prove very shocking to both managers and the organization. However, much of this problem can be overcome by proper career strategies by the individual and the organization.

Greenhouse et al., (2000) in his study defines the above phenomenon of stagnation and meaninglessness in the current job is often termed as 'burnout'. This study defines career as 'the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life. This definition includes both objective events, such as jobs, and Subjective views of work, such as the person's attitudes, values and expectations. Therefore, both a person's work-related activities and his/her reactions to those activities form part of the person's career.
Naidoo (2004) in his study definition of the career consistent with the notion that career develops over time, and that all persons have careers, regardless of their profession, their level of advancement or the stability of their work pattern.

Geber (1992) has identified four distinct explanations for a career, namely a career as advancement, a profession, a lifelong sequence of jobs, and a lifelong sequence of role related experiences. A career as an advancement: A career can imply a vertical movement; in other words, upward mobility in an organization. It means that a person moves onwards in this work life, by means of a promotion, a transfer or a new job in a higher position in another company. It may also involve a lateral move with more responsibilities. A career in this sense refers to basic advancement, for example, a sales representative who advances through the ranks of the sales department to become a sales manager. A career as a profession: This concept refers to those careers where a person has to follow a certain route during his/her career path; in other words, there is a clear pattern of advancement. The legal profession is an example of such a career. In such a profession a person starts his/her career as a law student, becomes a clerk in a law firm once he/she has completed his/her articles, an associate and then a partner, once a sufficient level of experience or expertise has been achieved. A career as a lifelong sequence of jobs: This refers to a series of positions held during a person's work life. There is no mention of a specific profession or any mobility, but it refers purely to any jobs held by the individual during his/her working life. A career as a lifelong sequence of role-related experiences: This refers to the way an individual personally rotates his/her job functions and gain experience. It is more of a personal experience (satisfaction, changing aspirations and attitude changes).

Selmer 1999 defined “Career is a sequence of related work experiences and activities, directed at personal and organizational goals, through which a person passes during his or her lifetime, that are partly under their control and partly under that of others.

National Career Development Association in his Guidelines of a federal project which combining the hard work of several government agencies and professional associations, stated that career basically defined as a road, or a course to be travelled, in
time it began to mean a course of achievement within a profession. Throughout the first seventy-five years of the twentieth century, career referred to a professional occupation generating both money and a respectful position & status in which one could advance, from this perspective, some people thought it as a “careers” while others merely thought it as “jobs”. However, in the last quarter of the twentieth century career has been viewed in the broadest sense, encompassing work, leisure and other lifespan dimensions.

**According to the Oxford English Dictionary**, career defined as “a person’s course or progress through life.” Career is a developmental and lifelong process, including a wide range of occupational, family, civic, and political roles which individuals will undertake throughout their adult lives. It includes paid employment, self employment, unpaid work, multiple jobbing, entrepreneurial enterprise, home based enterprise, study as an adult, and unemployment.

Naidoo (2004) said that it is clear that a career can be seen as a twofold process consisting of individual factors (such as the individual's likes, identity, self-image and interests) and job factors (being part of an organization, work relationships and work lifestyles)

### 2.1.8 Feminization of career

Fondas (1996) pointed out that there has been a feminization of paid work. A feminization is taking place not only in that more women participate in the labor force, but also in that those attributes ascribed to women are becoming more prevalent in contemporary working life. This can be witnessed (Ferguson, 1984), for example, in the rather recent spread of a management style that is characterized by caring and supportiveness. In his study an important point is stating that women’s career development has had significant implications for the changing nature of the career. The features associated with careers in the postindustrial society, indeed, and also apply well to the career situation of women.
Marshall (1989) has been discussed about how women’s experiences can inform and extend career theory and who posits that during the process of career development, action and inaction both are equally important. This career theory has often placed too much focus on mobility, specifically upward mobility, while non-mobility has tended to be viewed as a type of career stability that should be ignored. Marshall Focuses that the inaction time period in a career is important in that it allows for “inner deepening”. The inaction period is thereby a process of self-development, whereas the Mobility period is a process of career development. Secondly, Marshall Points out that communication and cooperation both have been ruined in male career development. She advocates that independence and interdependence both should be equally credited. Thirdly, Marshall holds that linear career paths characterized by sequential progression should be supplemented by cyclic career paths that cover peaks and valleys. Cyclic career patterns either require giving something up or starting over in order to learn something new. Finally, she advocates that taking into account the whole life instead of only a single work role, stressing that a balanced life should be a source of identity. A work clearly indicates how research on women’s careers can be beneficial for the understanding of the contemporary boundaryless career.

Woodd (2000) in his study emphasized that typical female career patterns are more suitable & reliable to the new economic era since they enable women to readily cope up with the new demands associated with the changing nature of careers. The existing career theories and models have been criticized as being biased toward men’s living conditions, thus suggesting that features of women’s career development, especially how they organize their working life and other aspects of life, still need additional research attention.

2.1.9 Career Planning

Rao and Rao (1990) in his study defined career path as ‘it is the sequential pattern of jobs that forms a career’. The career path is the logical possible sequence of positions that could be held by an individual based on how he performs in the organization.
Schein (1978) has defined career planning as

- A deliberate process of becoming aware of the self, opportunities, constraints, choices, and consequences;
- The identification of career-related goals;
- A programming of work, educational and related developmental experiences to provide the direction, timing and sequence of steps required to attain a specific career goal.

2.1.10 Career Path

Rao and Rao (1990) & Prasad (2005) have defined career path as ‘it is the sequential pattern of jobs that forms a career’. The career path is the logical possible sequence of positions that could be held by an individual based on how he performs in the organization. Career path consists of two elements: line and ladder. Line is the field of specialty in which an individual is placed like production, marketing, finance, HRM, etc. Within each line, there are various positions arranged in hierarchical order. Placing an individual on a career path indicates, how the individual will progress to those positions. This placing is essentially determined by the alignment of individual needs, his strengths and weaknesses, and organizational opportunities.

2.1.11 Career advancement

Judge et. al. (1995) defined Career success as extrinsic or objective and intrinsic or subjective accomplishments of individuals in their work lives. The link between intrinsic career success (satisfaction with one's career) and extrinsic career success (pay, promotions, job level) has been demonstrated in numerous studies (Judge et al., 2004).

Gattiker and Larwood (1988) & (Bozionelos, 2004) in his study said that in extrinsic terms, careers are evaluated with the use of external reference points or norms; while in intrinsic terms, careers are evaluated by individuals themselves using personal subjective definitions of success or failure. Unlike extrinsic career success, intrinsic
career success is primarily associated with personality; with no consistent effects of general mental ability and with very weak experiential effects.

Naidoo (2004) observed that “Career advancement is often defined in terms of promotion within managerial ranks, the level of management and ultimately reached the level of pay received.”

Seibert and Kraimer (2001) observed that “Career advancement is defined as the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experiences.”

Seibert et al. (1999) defined career success as "positive psychological or work related outcomes or achievements that the individual accumulates as a result of work experiences".

Gutteridge (1973) & (Judge et al., 1995) in their study operationalise the term career advancement in one of two ways. The first includes variables that measure objective or extrinsic career advancement. These include indicators of career advancement that can be seen and therefore evaluated objectively by others, such as salary attainment and the number of promotions in one's career. The second way that career advancement is operationalised is by variables that measure subjective or intrinsic career advancement.

Burke (2001) in his study said that individual variables capture individuals' subjective judgments about their career attainments, such as job and career satisfaction.

2.1.12 Career advancement barriers

Swanson and Woitke (1997) defined the term career barriers as "events or conditions, either within the person or in his or her environment, that make career progress difficult".
Smith (2004) found that elevated qualifications and economic fluctuations combined with internal (psychological) and external (environmental) interferences can make career advancement problematic. And Ethnic minorities perceived greater barriers to finding a job, job performance, and career balance than non-minorities.

MC Whirter (1997) define Career advancement barriers are explaining the continuing ability, attainment gap in the occupational choices of people.

Rao and Rao, (1990) The researcher found the four major barriers such as dual career families, Low ceiling career, Lack of career guidance, Flat organization structure. In the dual - career family, one of the members might face the problem of career advancement due to the transfer of the spouse, over-work load, etc. in his study observed that some careers do not have scope for much advancement in spite of a good career plan and development. Lack of career guidance, and minimal provision of training and education programs for junior managers may lead to gaps in some career development initiatives. Organizations creating a flat organizational structure may lead to lack of opportunity for promotion.

Bharat (1992) & Ramu (1989) said that Indian women continue to bear the burden of household responsibilities regardless of their employment status. Desai (1996) found that Indian women tend to impose restrictions on their career aspirations or personal achievements for family reasons.

Campbell (1999) Conflict with work and family responsibilities and a desire to spend more time with family were the most common barriers to career advancement of women.

Judge and Bretz (1994); Judge et al., (1995); Kirchmeyer (1998); Seibert et al., (1999); Wayne et al., (1999) in their studies have examined relatively comprehensive models of career advancement. Some specific findings are that human capital factor (education, years in the workforce, experience in multiple organizations, and career interruptions), demographic factor (gender, marital status, and spouse employment status), and organizational factor (organization size, metropolitan location, and industry
sector), have effects on salary, promotions, and/or career satisfaction and career advancement.

Further, it is observed that there are only limited ranges of variables were examined as predictors of career advancement in the past researches. Thus, there is a need to identify a larger and more diverse set of predictors. To develop a useful theoretical perspective on career advancement, the identification of further predictors is warranted. Some personal and other key variables may facilitate the career success. A lot of research findings are available on personal and other variables' influence on the career success of managers in general.

2.1.13 Career advancement strategies

The researcher has analyzed that both Individual and organization have to respond strategically to the perceived barriers to career advancement. The following are the potential strategies to overcome the career advancement barriers:

Rao and Rao (1990) have analyzed that Educate the people to discover their own talents, needs and motives, imparting necessary educational facilities, initiating career counseling, introducing more flexible reward and promotional systems are the major strategies which can be adopted to overcome the barriers.

Craig (1998) has observed and provides some suggestions that taking more personal responsibility for developing career seems to be a common theme among professionals. Moving employees laterally and helping employees find new challenges in their current jobs are becoming more accepted career development alternatives. Volunteering one's skills for any assignments that might lead to the position he/she wishes. The value of a network of professional colleagues cannot be overlooked. Recruiters and placement professionals agree that developing a professional contact network should be part of any strategic career plan. It is important to have visibility with people outside the current institutions (Craig, 1998).
Campbell (1999) has found that facilitating the people for career switching. Facilitators to career advancement included accepting an increase in job responsibilities or taking on new assignments, moving to a different department or service, and changing job which required learning new skills, providing supportive measures. Positive correlations were found between the number of career facilitators and social support.

2.2 Studies Related to Career Advancement of Women

According to Indian department of labor the female WPR (worker population Ratio) is estimated to be 23.6 per cent at all India level as compared to the male WPR of 75.1 per cent. The unemployment rate is estimated to be 3.8 per cent at All India level. In rural areas, the unemployment rate is 3.4 per cent, whereas in urban areas, the same is 5.0 per cent. Despite relatively low LFPR (Labor Force Participation Rate), the unemployment rate is significantly higher among females as compared to males. At all India level, the female unemployment rate is estimated to be 6.9 per cent, whereas for males, the unemployment rate is 2.9 per cent. The female unemployment rate is estimated to be 12.5 per cent in urban areas and 5.6 per cent in rural areas at All India level. Similar rates of unemployment for males work out to be 3.4 per cent in urban areas and 2.7 per cent in rural areas.

Despite the fact that there has been a remarkable increase in the number of women who have worked both developed and developing countries (Davidson & Burke, 2004). The major contributing factor is the increasing amount of educating women have pursued, tied with increasing number of women undertaking professional studies. The hospitality industry overall faces a worldwide shortage of trained hospitality staff (Robinson, 2007) and it appears that employment in this sector is advantageous for talented and career oriented women.

Diaz & Umbreit (1995) the number of women who choose a career in the hospitality industry has been increasing, women’s status is of more concern than ever. It was reported that some 41 percent of hospitality managers were women.
Fagenson & Jackson (1993) found that the number of women managers has increased; however, they have not reached equity with their male counterparts in salaries. The gap in salaries has reduced in some fields, but still remains large in other fields.

Patwardhan, Vidya and Venkatachalam, Balaji V (2011) said that even if women managers are able to enter into a management cadre and move upwards, the difficulties faced in attaining high level positions are many. The different factors affected are gender issues, job characteristics, work life balance, family concerns, relationships at work, long work hours, mentoring and work environment and glass ceiling in general. Information provided by the respondents confirms that women in hospitality industry continue facing challenges in their career.

2.2.1 Factor Affecting Career Advancement of Women

Both the men and women in hospitality education seemed remarkably similar. Both men and women frequently want 'to improve job opportunities'. Similarly, the most popular motive for men and women is 'to obtain a higher qualification' to get higher leadership position. (Heaton et al, 2000). In terms of career benefits, popular choices are greater marketability, enhanced job prospects, enhanced salary or status, and enhanced credibility and confidence. But still researcher found that a number of factors affect the career advancement of male and female. The researcher said that the women have to face lots of challenges in achieving their target as compared to male.

2.2.1 Factors Constraint for Women Career Advancement

Researchers have identified a number of factors that function as barriers to women’s career advancement.

Gregg and Johnson (1990) noted that the women in their survey felt that they had to work twice as hard and do twice as good a job as their male colleagues in order to prove they deserved a promotion.

Knuston, B.J. & Schmidgall, R.S. (1991) founds that the Glass ceiling refers to invisible, generally artificial, barriers that prevent individuals, e.g. women, from advancing within their organizations and reaching their full potential.
Brownell (1992) described the hospitality managers who emerge as leaders in the 21st century as men and women who deal effectively with a multi-cultural workforce, present their ideas clearly, and are able to mobilize others around a common goal.

Brownell (1992) described the hospitality managers who emerge as leaders in the 21st century as men and women who deal effectively with a multi-cultural workforce, present their ideas clearly, and are able to mobilize others around a common goal.

Fagenson and Jackson (1993) stated that Networking and mentoring have been identified as two methods to help women. Some women in high level have benefited from networks. Furthermore, women need to set up their networks and participate in men’s networks. Many women have acknowledged the help of mentors who helped them to enter the old boy networks.

Brownell (1994), in another study on personality and career development, found the following traits of hospitality managers: hard work, fairness, the ability to motivate others, determination, calmness, assertiveness or competitiveness, enthusiasm, deliberateness and detail-orientation. Skills and intelligence also are important, such as communication skills, leadership skills and interpersonal skills.

Brownell (1994) reported that the predominant constraints in women’s career advancement were the old-boy network, conflicts between family and work, and lack of equity in pay and promotions.

Woods and Kavanaugh (1994) found that more than 80 percent of men and women perceive gender discrimination and sexual harassment in the workplace as an ongoing problem. They mailed the 49 - question survey to 1,550 hospitality managers, all of whom had earned a baccalaureate or master’s degree from hospitality management programs within the preceding seven years. Fifty eight percent of the respondents were women. Results showed that in many cases the reasons why most women graduates left the hospitality industry was due to gender discrimination or sexual harassment.
Farrar (1996) suggested that the important contribution of Kanter was “to shift the focus from individual approaches, which focused on the question of what characteristics serve as barriers to women’s entry into managerial careers to a broader question of what organizational structure characteristics serve as barriers to entry into managerial and executive careers”. Studies also have identified the difficulties women face in climbing to the top management positions, including the old boy network, working family conflict, and poor childcare support.

Kanter (1997) proposed that individual’s behavior in an organization is the result of the following three organizational factors: opportunities, power, and proportions.

Weber (1998) found that the perceived importance of career constraints is: old boy network, lack of assertiveness, male bias and stereotyping, family and work conflict, insufficient career planning, and unhelpful boss.

Govender (1997) conducted studies on “Career Advancement Obstacles Encountered by Women in the Workplace” in which investigated obstacles to career advancement encountered by women in the road transport division. The greatest obstacles being lack of mentors, lack of role models, role conflicts, lack of part-time employment, insufficient maternity benefits and re-entry into marketplace.

Knutson and Schmidgall (1999) noted that having a charismatic personality also is an effective advanced strategy and that women executives believe that to advance they must develop a style with which men are comfortable.

Campbell, (1999) Facilitators to career advancement included accepting an increase in job responsibilities or taking on new assignments, moving to a different department or service, and changing jobs that required learning new skills. Positive correlations were found between the number of career facilitators and social support.

Zafararullah, H. (2000) “Through the brick wall and Glass ceiling; women in the Civil service in Bangladesh” said that women continue to be underrepresented in managerial positions compared to their overall employment. In India, the stereotypical perception results in differing attitude in both genders regarding women’s participation
In different industries and service sectors, women are portrayed as weak, unassuming, passive, feminine, submissive, and dependent. In the workplace, discriminating attitudes include women are less capable physically, mentally, and emotionally in certain challenges; they do in traditional roles as school teachers, health and welfare officers rather than in administrative and managerial positions; their efficiency and commitment last for only a limited time. They have health problems and are sick-prone and therefore frequently remain absent. Pregnancies interrupt their regular work and their careers are disrupted by family interest.

Hawlett (2002) conducted a nationwide survey in the US on “Executive Women & the Myth of Having it All”, which was targeted at the top 10% of women measured in terms of earning power. She summarized her findings in two points:

1. Even in organizations whose policies support women, prevailing attitudes and unrelenting job pressure undermine them; and
2. Women’s lives have been expanded, but the grudging attitude of most corporate cultures weighs down and constrain what individual women feel is possible.

Poulter, (2002) published an article in “Career Women Opt For Home Alone” in which the author highlighted how many women are sacrificing marriage and a family for financial independence. Another article, also published in the ‘Star’ (Halliwal, 2002), focuses on how women are giving up their careers to raise their families. The article includes a recent survey that found that 94% of women are sick of those who ‘do it all’ and more than 75% would leave their jobs if they could.

Bierema & opengart (2002) “Emotions in Women’s Career Development,” said that women have been devalued both in theory and in social context. The Bierema & opengart (2002) identified some factors that impact women’s career development:

- Gender role and social expectations.
- Women’s primary care-giving and homemaking responsibilities.
- Increasing availability of alternative work arrangements.
- Current models that lack diversity.
- Career patterns that differ from men.
- Hidden curriculum necessary for success in a male-dominated environment.
Landkin (2002), Ladkin and Juwaheer (2000), and ladkin and Riley (1996) in his study examined the career paths of hotel managers and investigated career profiles and labor mobility in the convention exhibition industry in Australia. In this study, we shift the attention from the members of the tourism and hospitality academics, examining their perceptions of important career strategies, career satisfaction, and barriers to career advancement.

Vianen and Fischer (2002) suggested that compared to men, women would feel less attracted to management positions, especially top management positions, because of their organizational cultural preferences. According to their studies, women are confronted with two barriers on the way to the top, which are more restrained for them than for men. One is the women’s first step into management. Few women will take this step partly because they have weaker masculine culture preferences. The other barrier concerns the step from middle management to top management. Women seem less ambitious than men in pursuing a top management career. It is suggested that if an organization truly wanted to assign more women in top management positions, they should put effort into changing the top management culture as well as trying to attract women with higher salaries and status. Vianen and Fischer concluded that both processes of selection and self-selection are responsible for the slow advancement of women to top management careers.

Ng & Pine, 2003 found that other traits also included communication, trust, and perseverance. He said that lack of support at work, lack of equity in promotions, inadequate job knowledge, and lack of mentor to be the first four major constraints.

Bennett, C., et al. (2006) in his study of “Womens career development in the Local Authority” Found that organizational cultures hinder rather than support women’s career progression.

Zhong Yan (2006) identified several factors that influence women’s career advancement. Conflict with family responsibilities, job characteristics, childcare responsibilities, and lack of work support were considered as the strongest constraints.
Zeynep Aycan (2006) examined in his study of “Career development of professional women in turkey” that women’s career influenced by both individual and situational factors. He said that individual factors were more important for women managers to overcome the situational barriers. The effect of social-cultural context was also discussed in his study.

Afza & Nawaj (2008) conducted a study on “factors determining the presence of glass ceiling and influencing women's career advancement in Bangladesh”. In this study, the researcher identified some factors which are responsible for creating glass ceiling effects. It also revealed some factors which help women advance their career growth.

Caroline Straub (2008) in his study of work-family issues, finds that Organisational contexts can influence female’s behavior. Besides organizational contexts, group related factors were found to be critical as well. As a consequence, organizations should create more inclusive female managers do not feel as tokens.

R. Sujatha (2011) founds that structural barriers and family issues affects the career advancement of women. And efforts from both organization and individual can help in removing these barriers.

Cecilia Titiek Murniati (2012) given that balancing personal and professional duties is the most challenging factor in these women’s career advancement. It suggests that there is a need of improving the existing child care centers and disseminating information to women who need the service is preferable.

2.2.2 Factors facilitate Career Advancement of Women
The review of literature revealed that energy and hard work are presented as being the most important traits that facilitate to women’s career advancement.

Brownell (1994), in another study on personality and career development, found the following traits of hospitality managers: hard work, fairness, the ability to motivate others, determination, calmness, assertiveness or competitiveness, enthusiasm,
deliberateness and detail-orientation. Skills and intelligence also are important, such as communication skills, leadership skills and interpersonal skills.

**Fagerson and Jackson (1993)** stated that Networking and mentoring have been identified as two methods to help women. Some women in high level have benefited from networks. Furthermore, women need to set up their networks and participate in men’s networks. Many women have acknowledged the help of mentors who helped them to enter the old boy networks.

**Knutson and Schmidgall (1999)** noted that having a charismatic personality also is an effective advanced strategy and that women executives believe that to advance they must develop a style with which men are comfortable.

**Campbell, (1999)** Facilitators to career advancement included accepting an increase in job responsibilities or taking on new assignments, moving to a different department or service, and changing jobs that required learning new skills. Positive correlations were found between the number of career facilitators and social support.

**Ng & Pine, 2003** provides some suggestions to women managers to stand out by hard work, being good at what they do, networking, relocating, or changing companies which will helpful in their career advancement.

**Yan Zhong (2006),** conduct a study on “factors affecting women’s career advancement in the hospitality industry: perceptions of students, educators, and industry recruiters”. The study identified several factors that influence women’s career advancement. Hard work, attitude towards work, communication skills, and problem solving skills were considered by all groups as the most important facilitators to women’s career advancement.

**Cecilia Titiek Murniati (2012)** found that improving the existing child care centers and disseminating information to women who need the service is preferable. In addition, it is necessary for a formal mentoring program to help women build networks and support. For women to work more productively and effectively, need to create
sustainable trainings for administrative staff, decrease bureaucracy, and conduct performance-based review for staff.

2.3 Studies Related to Glass Ceiling & Gender Differences

Despite the fact that there has been a remarkable increase in the number of women who have worked both developed and developing countries (Davidson & Burke, 2004). The major contributing factor is the increasing amount of educating women have pursued, tied with increasing number of women undertaking professional studies. The hospitality industry overall faces a worldwide shortage of trained hospitality staff (Robinson, 2007) and it appears that employment in this sector is advantageous for talented and career oriented women.

Brownell, (1994) conducted a survey of 97 female and 318 male general managers. Of the ten items that relate to the importance of career-related activities, only mentoring was found to be significantly different by gender, with males viewing it more important to women’s career development than females. Of the eight obstacles to women’s career advancement, gender differences were found between female and male general managers on the items: old boy network, family and work conflict, pay and promotions, job characteristics, lack of mentors, lack of credibility, and sexual harassment. For example, more than half of males (54%) viewed pay and promotions as no obstacle or a minor one, while only 11% of females agreed. Nearly half of males perceived old boy networks as only minor obstacles while over half of females viewed this as a major obstacle.

The numbers in the middle of the pyramid represent the percentage of managers in each category. The numbers on the right represent the women at each level. For example, 50% of entry-level managers are women, while women accounts for only 3% senior management positions. In spite of the similarities in the backgrounds and experiences of men and women, the above figure showed women remain poorly represented at the senior level.

Brownell (1994) & Diaz & Umbreit (1995) have identified the difficulties women face in climbing to the top management positions, including the old boy network, working family conflict, and poor childcare support. Of the ten items that relate to the
importance of career-related activities, only mentoring was found to be significantly different by gender, with males viewing it more important to women’s career development than females. Of the eight obstacles to women’s career advancement, gender differences were found between female and male general managers on the items: old boy network, family and work conflict, pay and promotions, job characteristics, lack of mentors, lack of credibility, and sexual harassment. For example, more than half of males (54%) viewed pay and promotions as no obstacle or a minor one, while only 11% of females agreed. Nearly half of males perceived old boy networks as only minor obstacles while over half of females viewed this as a major obstacle.

**Bily and Manoochehri (1995)** described the development of women’s role in history: traditionally, a woman’s role has been in the home, taking care of children and husband. During World War II, women went to work because men were at war. After World War II, women were sent back home again to be wives and mothers. Their shorter work experience has impacted women in history. Since the 1960s, more and more women have entered the workplace and 30-40 years later they have stayed in the workforce so that the number of working women has been continuously increasing. While women comprise almost half of the workplace, the number of women in mid-management and especially senior management is still low. That is where the term “glass ceiling” comes from as cited in Bily and Manoochehri (1995). Schwartz (cited in Bily & Manoochehri, 1995) illustrated the glass ceiling as part of the management pyramid (Figure 2.1),

**Figure 2.1: The Management Pyramid**

- **Sr. (1.6%) Management, 3% Women**
- **Upper (10.9%) Management, 11% Women**
- **Middle (29.7%) Management, 26% Women**
- **Entry-level (57.8%) Management 50% Women**

Knutson & Schmidgall (1999) defined the glass ceiling as invisible, generally artificial, barriers that prevent qualified individuals, e.g. women, from advancing within their organizations and reaching their full potential. It describes a tendency for women and minorities to be over represented in the lower levels of an industry, but underrepresented at senior levels. Even though great strides have taken place in recent years, there remains grounded for improvement.

Sparrowe and Iverson (1999) conducted a study to examine the disparity of income in the hospitality industry. According to their findings, the presence of more covert forms of gender discrimination within the hospitality industry, consistent with previous research, women may experience equity of representation at the management level in the industry but the income is still lower than that of men. Sparrowe and Iverson (1999) suggested that this disparity has existed for many years and cannot disappear overnight. Comparisons should be made to determine if income disparities are being reduced in the industry today.

Ng and Pine (2003) found significant gender differences on the importance of effective communication skills, which indicated that female managers viewed a strong positive relationship between communication skills and career development than males. Three obstacles were found to be significantly different between female and male managers; they were inadequate job knowledge, difficulty in establishing credibility, and lack of equity in training. In all these items, males viewed them as bigger obstacles than females.

2.4 Studies Related to Self- Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief in one’s effectiveness in performing specific tasks. According to Bandura (1997) a well- established predictor of peoples’ behavior and performance is their self efficacy expectation, defined as beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute courses of action. Bandura, 1997; gist, (1992) Self efficacy has been identified as a key predictor of many aspects of behavioral choices, including level of aspiration, task persistence, positive or negative ways of thinking and feeling.
and actual task performance. **Gist, (1992)** said that many training programs and organizational change efforts are aimed at changing one's efficacy beliefs since’ self-efficacy represents a dynamic (changeable) and comprehensive judgement reflecting a variety of personal and task related performance determinants.

According to **brown and Dugid, (1991)** changes in individual skills and attitudes occur through social processes such as informal discussions and feedback from social interactions. The groups represent an immediate social context that shapes how individual members think and feel (**Hackman, 1992**). In fact, studies have shown that group settings can change individual’s motivation, attitudes and behavior (**Brown, 1993**).

**Bandura (1997)** defined self efficacy as beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute courses of action. Self efficacy has been identified as a key predictor of many aspects of behavioral choices, including level of aspiration, task persistence, positive or negative ways of thinking and feeling, and actual task performance.

**Bandura (1986)** identifies four ways in which self-efficacy and self-efficacy expectations are acquired ‘performance accomplishments’, vicarious learning, verbal persuasion and physical/affective status. Performance accomplishments are beliefs that stem from the reactions with which individual accomplishments are greeted. Vicarious learning results in beliefs that are acquired by observing modelling behaviors. ‘Verbal persuasion’ and ‘affective status’ encourages self-efficacy. Persuading women to attempt positive behavior change and providing a supportive environment in which women can attempt change, further enhances self-efficacy.

### 2.4.1 Theories of Self-Efficacy

**Raudenbushet. al. (1992)** conducted a study of contextual effects on the self-perceived efficacy of high school teachers. The study offered survey results suggesting that teachers tend to feel most efficacious when teaching high track students, particularly in the areas of mathematics and science. It also explored the
relevance of teacher preparation, grade level, teacher influence upon working conditions, and degree of collaboration.

Bandura (1993) conducted study of perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. He reviewed the diverse ways in which perceived self-efficacy contributed to cognitive development and functioning. Perceived self-efficacy exerted its influence through four major processes. They included cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. There were three different levels at which perceived self-efficacy operated as an important contributor to development.

Caprara et al. (2003) conducted a study of 726 teachers, 387 staff members, and 1994 parents’ efficacy beliefs as determinants of attitudes toward school from 18 junior high schools. Self and collective efficacy beliefs were examined as correlates of attitudes toward school of teachers, school staff, and parents. They were administered questionnaires assessing self-efficacy beliefs, perceptions about colleagues' behavior, collective efficacy beliefs, affective commitment and job satisfaction of teachers and school staff and parent’s satisfaction with school. Path analyses corroborated a conceptual model in which self and collective efficacy beliefs represented, respectively, the distal and proximal determinants of affective commitment and job satisfaction for teachers and staff and of satisfaction with school for parents. Perceptions that teachers, staff and parents held about the behavior of their colleagues largely mediated the links between self and collective efficacy beliefs. Collective efficacy beliefs, in turn, largely mediated the influence that self-efficacy beliefs and perceptions of school constituencies' behaviors exerted on attitudes toward school of teachers, staff and parents.

Sandu and Anand (2003) carried out a study of role diversity and burnout moderating effects of self-efficacy of 50 married women teachers of the age group of 30-40 years from universities and colleges and all had the similar educational status (Ph.D. Level of education). The objective of the study was to explore how self-efficacy beliefs of women teachers with high role diversity moderates their burnout experience. The findings of the study were: (i) there was no significant difference in the experience of
role diversity in the high-low teacher self-efficacy groups. Beliefs played a role in the experience of the basic and central dimensions of burnout- emotional exhaustion; (ii) there was also a significant difference between the two groups in the feeling of personal accomplishments.

Garcia (2004) conducted a study of construct of teacher efficacy and family involvement practices exhibited by 110 elementary school teachers from a large urban school district. The study explored the relationship between perceived teacher efficacy and specific practices of family involvement Bandura's construct of self-efficacy provided the theoretical framework for examining teacher efficacy. The study investigated the predictive value of self-efficacy beliefs for determining specific family involvement practices exhibited by teachers. Results from this investigation revealed that teacher efficacy was significantly correlated to and was a predictor of five different types of family involvement practices, as reflected in Epstein typology of home-school and community partnerships. The study raised questions related to the effective preparation of teachers in this area and the types of experiences that facilitate the development of teacher efficacy beliefs in the area of home-school and community partnerships.

Mottet et al. (2004) conducted a study to examine the effects of student verbal and nonverbal responsiveness on teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Over a quarter (26%) of the total variance in teacher self-efficacy and over half (53%) of the total variance in teacher job satisfaction were attributable to student verbal and nonverbal responsiveness. Rather than student verbal and nonverbal responsiveness interacting, the analyses of variance yielded significant main effects of both the verbal responsiveness and nonverbal responsiveness independent variables for each of the teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction dependent variables. Overall, student nonverbal responsiveness had a greater effect on teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction than verbal responsiveness. Also, teacher job satisfaction was more susceptible to student verbal and nonverbal responsiveness than teacher self-efficacy.
Moseley and Utley (2006) examined the effect of an integrated science and mathematics content-based course on science and mathematics teaching efficacy of pre-service elementary teachers. The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of an earth systems science course (integrated mathematics and science content) on preservice elementary teachers' mathematics and science teaching efficacy. Paired t-tests revealed that the personal mathematics and science teaching efficacy and science teaching outcome expectancy significantly increased over the course of the semester for the experimental group (those students enrolled in the earth systems science course). For the control group (those students not enrolled in the course), however, there was no significant increase.

Anderson and Maninger (2007) conducted a study to examine 76 pre-service teachers' abilities, beliefs, and intentions regarding technology integration. This study investigated changes in and factors related to teachers' technology-related abilities, beliefs, and intentions. Statistically significant changes were found in teachers' perceived abilities, self-efficacy beliefs, value beliefs, and intentions to use software in their future classrooms. Teachers' self-efficacy, value beliefs, and intentions were moderately correlated with each other. Abilities were correlated with self-efficacy and computer access. The best predictors of intentions were self-efficacy beliefs, gender, and value beliefs. These results strongly supported the effectiveness of educational technology course work in improving not just abilities, but also beliefs and intentions. They highlighted the importance of relationships between pre-service teachers' beliefs about technology integration and their potential use of technology in their future classrooms.

Gabriele and Joram (2007) conducted a study of teachers' reflections on their reform-based teaching in mathematics. The purpose of this study was to examine the sources of efficacy of experienced teachers, who were making the transition to reform-based mathematics teaching, by examining the criteria that they used to evaluate their teaching effectiveness. The quantity and quality of 10 elementary teachers' verbal reflections on the success of their lessons were compared as a function of the length of time that they had participated in a professional development project. Results
suggested that the sources of information upon which teachers based evaluations of their teaching changed in important ways as teachers shifted from traditional to reform-based mathematics teaching.

**Bruce and Ross (2008)** prepared a Model for Increasing Reform Implementation and Teacher Efficacy. This study examined the effects of peer coaching on mathematics teaching practices and teacher beliefs about their capacity to have an impact on student learning. Twelve teachers in grades 3 and 6 participated in a brief but intensive professional development program over six months. The program focused on effective mathematics teaching strategies and peer coaching opportunities. Data sources included classroom observations, teacher self-assessments, interviews, and field notes. Data were analyzed using a two-level qualitative coding strategy with multiple interpreters. Findings showed that teachers implemented key strategies for effective mathematics teaching, especially in facilitating student interaction and improving the quality of tasks assigned.

**Bakar et al. (2008)** carried out a study to access teaching efficacy of University Putra Malaysia Science student teachers. The specific objectives were to determine teaching efficacy of Science student teachers in terms of student engagement; instructional strategies; classroom management and teaching with computers in classroom; their satisfaction with teacher education program and lastly to determine their attitudes towards teaching profession. Findings indicated that a majority of the respondents had a high level of confidence with their efficacy in term of student engagement, instructional strategies, classroom management and teaching with computers in classroom. Pearson correlation showed that teaching efficacy and perception toward teacher’s education program were significantly correlated with each other. The relationship between these two variables was positive and of moderate strength. In contrast teaching efficacy was weak and negatively correlated with attitude toward teaching profession.

**Chan (2008)** conducted a study of general, collective, and domains specific teacher self-efficacy among 273 Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong.
This study assessed two global (general and collective) and seven domain-specific sets of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. While teachers generally reported the highest confidence in teaching highly able learners and the least confidence in classroom management, there were significant teacher group differences. Among four groups of teachers, the experienced teachers reported the highest level of global and domain-specific teacher self-efficacy, suggesting that there could be a better end of rising teacher self-efficacy as a teacher went through preparation and teaching practice to becoming a novice and then a more experienced teacher.

Cheung (2008) conducted a comparative study of teacher efficacy between 725 Hong Kong and 575 Shanghai primary in-service teachers on their teacher efficacy. Two Chinese versions of the 12-item Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale were used in this study since some wordings of the Hong Kong version of the Scale (HK-TSE) were different from the Shanghai version (S-TSE) as a result of cultural differences. The Shanghai teachers reported significantly higher efficacy than did the Hong Kong teachers. As the age and experience will increase the respect and confidence placed in them by students and their parents will also increase. Results showed that the three most commonly cited factors for the contribution of teacher efficacy were: respect and confidence placed in them by students and parents, the training they received from universities and the experience they gained from daily teaching practice. Though, Hong Kong in-service teachers had lower efficacy scores than the Shanghai counterparts.

Sridhar and Razavi (2008) examined teachers’ efficacy of 256 teachers of 61 secondary schools of different management types in Mysore city. The study concluded significant relationship between personal efficacy and type of school. Navodaya teachers’ scores on personal efficacy were found higher than teachers of other schools. However, there was no significant difference between general teaching efficacy (GTE) and types of schools. This indicated that GTE was independent of type of secondary schools. Teachers below 30 years and above 51 years of age, teachers with Masters’ degree and teachers with experience more than 21 years, teachers teaching science and
female teachers were found to have higher personal efficacy and also higher general teaching efficacy than their counterparts in respective groups.

**Rathi and Rastogi (2008)** studied the effect of emotional intelligence on occupational self-efficacy of 112 scientists in a number of research organizations. The study revealed that emotional intelligence had a positive relationship with occupational self-efficacy and was found to be one of its significant predictors. This study also implied that people with higher emotional intelligence were more effective employees as compared to those with lower emotional intelligence.

**Nilgun (2009)** examined the self-efficacy levels of science teachers relating to science teaching for some variables. This study was verified with the aim of determining how the teacher efficacy and the level of self-efficacy belief of science teachers changed. According to the findings of the study, teacher efficacy of science teachers was not changing according to gender, age, seniority, weekly lesson load, receiving in-service training and job satisfaction. While self-efficacy beliefs of teachers were not being different, it showed sufficient change according to seniority and weekly lesson load.

**Rao and Haseena (2009)** conducted a study of self-efficacy among primary school teachers among 120 primary school teachers from rural and urban schools located in Tirupati rural and urban mandal of Chittor district of Andhra Pradesh. An attempt was made to assess the effect of gender and locality of residence of primary school teachers on their self-efficacy. The major findings of the study were: (i) Locality of residence had significant impact on the self-efficacy of primary school teachers; (ii) Gender had no significant impact on self-efficacy of the primary school teachers; (iii) There was significant interaction between gender and locality of residence with regard to the self-efficacy of primary school teachers.

**Williams (2009)** examined the effect of gaining a degree on teacher self-efficacy and emotions. This research project examined the impact on the self-efficacy of 202 practicing primary teachers of completing a degree qualification some years after gaining their initial teaching qualification. Rather than the teachers’ emotions and
sense of self efficacy being shaped by their practice, mastery of a degree was an emotional experience that shaped the teachers' personal self- efficacy and ultimately their sense of professional self- efficacy.

**Hameed and Manjusha (2010)** explored teacher efficacy of secondary school teachers in relation to teaching styles and organizational culture. The sample of the study consisted of 370 secondary school teachers belonging to Malappuram, Kozhikode and Thrissur districts of Kerala. Major findings were: (i) There was a significant difference in mean teacher efficacy scores between male and female teachers, but in case of mean teacher efficacy scores based on locale and type of management, no significant difference was found; (ii)The main effect of teaching styles on teacher efficacy was found to be significant for total sample, female, rural, government and unaided secondary school teachers; (iii)The main effect of organizational culture on teacher efficacy was found significant for total sample, female, urban, rural and government secondary school teachers; (iv)No significant interaction effect of teaching styles and organizational culture on teacher efficacy of secondary school teachers based on total sample and sub samples based on gender, locale and type of management was found.

**Robert and Ming (2010)** studied the effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction related to gender, years of experience, and job stress. The authors of this study sought to examine the relationships among teachers' years of experience, teachers’ characteristics (gender and teaching level), three domains of self-efficacy (instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement), two types of job stress (work load and classroom stress), and job satisfaction with a sample of 1,430 practicing teachers using factor analysis, item response modeling, systems of equations, and a structural equation model. Teachers’ years of experience showed nonlinear relationships with all three self-efficacy factors, increasing from early career to mid-career and then falling afterwards. Female teachers had greater workload stress, greater classroom stress from student behaviors, and lower classroom management self-efficacy. Those teaching young children (in elementary grades and kindergarten) had higher levels of self-efficacy for classroom management and student
engagement. Lastly, teachers with greater classroom management self-efficacy or greater instructional strategies self-efficacy had greater job satisfaction.

**Viel-Ruma et. al. (2010)** studied self-efficacy beliefs of special educators. In order to examine the relationship between reported levels of teacher self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and job satisfaction in special educators, teachers in one school district completed three surveys measuring these constructs. The results indicated that teacher self-efficacy had a direct effect on job satisfaction. It was further found that collective efficacy directly affected teacher self-efficacy but that it did not have a direct effect on job satisfaction. No significant differences were found in reported levels of these are a cross subgroups of teachers categorized by teaching level (elementary, middle, and high), teaching setting (self-contained, resource, or inclusion), and certification type (highly qualified, not highly qualified, or emergency).

**Corkett, Hattand Benevides (2011)** conducted a study of student and teacher self-efficacy and the connection to reading and writing. They observed that self-efficacy or the belief in one's ability (Bandura, 1977) on the part of both teachers and students is thought to be directly related to teacher and student success. This study examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, student self-efficacy, and student ability. Teachers' perceptions of the students' self-efficacy was significantly correlated with students' abilities; however, student literacy self-efficacy was not correlated with their literacy ability. Additionally, there was no correlation between the teachers' perception of the students' literacy self-efficacy and the students' literacy self-efficacy. Finally, the teachers' self-efficacy was significantly correlated with their perception of the students' self-efficacy.

**Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2011)** conducted a study on teachers self-efficacy, achievement goals, attitude and intentions to implement the New greek physical education curriculum. The network of relations between physical education (PE) teachers' self-efficacy, goal orientations, attitudes, intentions and behaviors concerning the implementation of a new PE curriculum was examined. Participants were 290 Greek junior high school PE teachers. Two years after the introduction of the new curriculum, participants responded to de-identified questionnaires with
acceptable psychometric properties. Mastery-oriented and high self-efficacious teachers had positive attitudes towards the new curriculum, implemented the biggest number of teaching plans and they intended to do the same in the future. Performance approach goal orientation had low positive relationship with the implementation of teaching plans and no relationship with intention to do the same in the future, while performance avoidance goal was not related to any determinant of curriculum implementation and intention. The effects of mastery goal orientation on intention and behavior were mediated by self-efficacy to achieve an educational aim which is an end in itself, that is, the promotion of students' self-regulation in exercise settings. The effects of performance approach goal orientation on behavior were mediated by self-efficacy to achieve a curricular goal which was a means to promote other educational aims, i.e., the adoption of student-centered teaching styles. Teaching experience was negatively related to implementation of the new curriculum and with most of its determinants.

Hechter (2011) examined the changes in pre service elementary teachers’ personal science teaching efficacy and science teaching outcome expectancies. Findings revealed that the number of post secondary science courses completed, and prior school science experiences had a significant main effect on personal science teaching efficacy (PSTE) but not science teaching outcome expectancy (STOE). There was no evidence for significant interaction effects between variables on both efficacy subscales.

Tuchman and Isaacs (2011) examined the influence of formal and informal formative pre-service experiences on teacher self-efficacy of three hundred fifteen teachers of general and Judaic studies in Jewish day schools in the USA. This study examined the associations between both formal and informal formative pre-service experiences and teacher self-efficacy. In addition, the effect of years of teaching experience on these associations was investigated. Formal pre-service training and positive student-teaching experiences, as well as each of the three informal experiences, were found to be associated with positive teacher self-efficacy. Formal and informal pre-service experiences appeared to be associated with different aspects of teacher self-efficacy.
Formal teacher training was most strongly associated with efficacy for instructional practices, while the positive informal experiences were most strongly associated with efficacy for student engagement. The potential impact of both formal and informal experiences did not appear to fade over time. On the contrary, for those variables where an interaction with years of teaching was detected, it was the efficacy beliefs of the most senior teachers that were mostly related to their pre-service experiences.

Devos et al. (2012) investigated how the social working environment predicted beginning teachers’ self-efficacy and feelings of depression. The results showed that the goal structure of the school culture (mastery or performance orientation) predicted both outcomes. Frequent collaborative interactions with colleagues were related to higher self-efficacy only when the novices were experiencing a few difficulties or work in an environment oriented towards mastery goals. The mere occurrence of mentoring and meetings with the principal was not related to the outcomes, but the quality of these activities predicted them significantly.

DISCUSSION

Gaps in the existing studies show that there is a need to make a fresh attempt to understand the career advancement of women in the hospitality industry. Number of improvements could be incorporated on account of gaps in the existing literature.

Over the several decades, women have become a larger percentage of the workforce. There has been an improvement in the numbers of women in the hospitality industry. Over the past few years, it has been observed that women's participation in both public and private employment sectors in India has noticeably improved. Although women's participation in the workforce has increased but, a very few number of managerial positions are being filled by women. Several challenges are faced by the women’s such as irregular work hours, conflict with family responsibilities, inadequate knowledge, lack of mentoring, male domination, lack of equity in pay, lack of equity in promotion decisions. To meet out the present challenges and to be ready for future threats of career the industry recruiters must be capable to deal with these challenges.