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ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES TO ADVANCE THE STATUS
OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: AN ANALYSIS OF INFLUENCING
CHARACTERISTICS, FACTORS, AND ANTECEDENTS OF CHANGE IN THE
"BEST" COMPANIES FOR WOMEN

A Dissertation Presented

by

DIANE MIRANTE

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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Department of Education

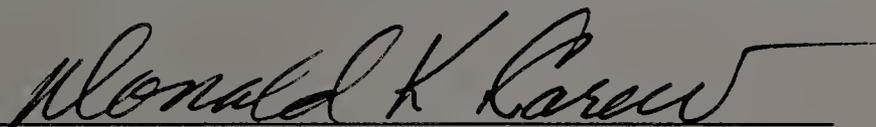ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES TO ADVANCE THE STATUS
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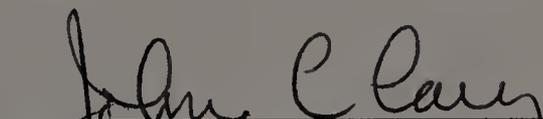
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Bailey W. Jackson
Dean, School of Education

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father-in-law, Edward A. Denehy (1924-1994), who is not here to see the completion of this project, but who always expressed an interest in my work and touched me with his inquiries about my progress even during his final struggle; and to my uncle, Theodore A. Meranti, a caring and nurturing man, who has been forced to face the demons of an aggressive cancer this year, and yet, despite the overwhelming emotional and physical challenges of his battle, has moved me with his consistent and heartfelt support of this undertaking.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

An endeavor of this magnitude and longevity requires contributions and support from many. I must first offer my heartfelt thanks to four people without whom I am quite certain I would not have had the tenacity to complete this program: my father who has encouraged me to challenge my intellectual potential ever since I can remember, and who taught me to respect the power of education; my mother who has always given freely of herself from quizzing me for junior high tests to staying with me during a recent period of total immobilization; Dr. Jane Giacobbe, one of my committee members, who gave so charitably of her time, guiding and prodding me along through periods of analysis paralysis, and sharing her keen intellectual capabilities, business sense, and nurturing, yet goal-oriented spirit; and Ed Denehy, my partner in life, who has supported and encouraged me beyond reason.

There are two additional individuals who have been equally invaluable to my progress and to whom I would like to express my deepest gratitude. Dr Donald Carew, my chair, guided me with patience, encouragement, and expertise from my first days in the program when he served as my advisor, to the final stages of the dissertation process. He stuck with me even when it was not necessarily in his best interest to do so after his retirement from the

thank my aunts and uncles (too numerous to mention individually), who always believed in me and must know how much I appreciate their never-ending, limitless support.

I thank my brothers, Tony and Peter, for their caring and ability to make me laugh; my niece, Theresa, whose beautiful smile proves her triumph over her physical and intellectual challenges, and who inspires me every day to do the best with what I've been given; my nephew, Michael, who has enriched my life in more ways than I could have imagined; and my young nieces, Stephanie and Ashley, whose unbounded spirit, determination, and thirst for knowledge continue to teach me new lessons, and move me to write about women. I hope they find success in a world where everyone is equally challenged and opportunity is blind to ascribed characteristics.

Lastly, I must thank my partner of twenty five years, Edward Denehy, for his love, patience, and incomparable, indefatigable support through every step of this process. Beyond the emotional support, he offered practical assistance: listened to my ideas, typed, computed, proofread, and copied. Most of all, he believed in my abilities and potential for achievement, always seeing the best in me. I will never forget his contributions; he renews my hope in the potential for healthy, productive, and synergistic relationships between men and women in all walks of life, including the workplace.

ABSTRACT

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES TO ADVANCE THE STATUS
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CHARACTERISTICS, FACTORS, AND ANTECEDENTS OF CHANGE IN THE
"BEST" COMPANIES FOR WOMEN

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Women are conspicuously absent from the top tiers of
Corporate America, representing less than five percent of
executive level positions. Despite changing family roles
and increases in education, workforce participation, and
career commitment, women are not assuming organizational
positions of leadership and power. Research suggests three
theoretical perspectives for causal explanation, each with
its own implications for organization development
strategies: the person-centered, organization-centered,
and gender-organization-centered views.

Recent demographic, economic, and social change has
altered the face of labor and consumer markets motivating
corporate leaders to initiate responses to attract and
retain women managers. This study provides a synopsis of
the corporate responses of 110 of "The Best Companies for
Women" (Zeitz and Dusky, 1988). The purpose of this

research is to define the extensiveness and developmental level of programming to promote women manager's upward mobility in these bellwether companies, and to determine organizational characteristics or antecedents that may be conducive to efforts supporting women managers.

The research is a quantitative analysis based on responses to a mailed survey consisting of 36 questions addressed to corporate executives. Data analyses include descriptive statistics summarizing and reporting the findings, and correlational statistics testing the hypotheses.

Results indicate that the sample organizations are addressing women's underrepresentation in upper-level management through the development of extensive, fairly highly evolved programs. The trend is shifting from exclusively individual-centered approaches toward organization-centered and combination strategies representing integrated, multi-pronged solutions. These organizations recognize the need to alter structural barriers limiting access based on gender, and are accepting their responsibility to change.

Findings suggest that programs promoting women's upward mobility are supported by companies tending to: be large and non-unionized, have higher proportions of female workers/leaders, have high levels of EEO accountability and CEO support for women's agendas, maintain a high degree of

formalization including EEO tracking systems, and exercise

innovative management practices within moderately

hierarchical or flattened organization structures.

Hypotheses testing indicates significant positive

associations between company size, level of EEO

accountability, CEO involvement, and formalization of EEO

record-keeping systems, and the level of corporate policy

development to advance women's status.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 <u>Background of the Problem</u>

Women are entering the labor market in unprecedented numbers. They have not only joined the workforce; they have changed it. (Rosen, 1989) Yet, women continue to experience limited opportunities to assume organizational positions of significant power.

Historically, issues of gender inequality in the workplace have instigated profuse debate in the research. Theoretical explanations of the phenomenon fall into categories ranging from gender inequality as a derivative of capitalist relations, a result of a system of patriarchy, or a result of both patriarchy and capitalism whether viewed as one system or two interacting systems. (Walby, 1986) Whatever the origin of gender inequality at work, its issues have plagued our society for centuries.

Women's work roles have changed dramatically over the past century. Early in America's history, women worked primarily within their homes or on their farms. By the turn of the twentieth century, approximately twenty percent of women were working outside of the domestic sphere. (Mathews & Rodin, 1989) During World War II, women were recruited into the workforce in record numbers and their representation has continued to increase ever since. It is

projected that by the year 2000 the number of women aged 20 to 64 participating in the labor force will soar to over 80%. (Foster, Siegel & Jacobs, 1988)

Economist Alice H. Amsden (1980) suggests that the change in the levels of married women's labor force participation during this century reflected profound transformations in the economic and social structures of the Western world. According to noted historian William Leuchtenburg, "employment outside the home is the direct cause of dramatically increased political, social, and economic freedom for women." (cited in Tentler, 1976, p. 140) However, many researchers in the field are quick to point out that despite widespread structural changes affecting women, the actual transformation for women was indeed limited. They challenge the theory of industrialization as emancipation for women. (Oakley, 1981)

Although women were able to experience new freedoms as a result of their participation in the workforce, they continued to experience a work world that was very different from that familiar to men; different in some extremely important ways. The status of the work, the opportunity for advancement, and the level of pay were all differences that impacted women's incentive to stay and make a career of a job. Women remained stuck in a sexual hierarchy that was inflexible, and for all of these reasons, we cannot assume that employment radically changed

the life of employed women as some theorize. (Tentler, 1976) Throughout all of the economic and social change of industrialism, one constant remained: the reproduction of sexual inequality. (Amsden, 1980)

Although there was great tolerance for working women right after World War II, the most significant revelation of the war time scenarios is the proof that the sexual division of labor is an artificial construct, not the result of natural gender differences in biological characteristics. (Bradley, 1989) The emergency of the wars may have extended the boundaries for women and "outside the home work", but it did not expand the boundaries of men's domestic responsibilities. Also, the changes that did occur in women's roles were short-lived and a relapse to the old gender roles was quick to follow.

The years 1945 to 1960 were in many ways full of contradictions regarding American women and their cultural environment. More and more women were working outside the home as society continued to endorse traditional feminine roles for women while simultaneously stressing the work ethic for men. (McGowan, 1976)

Although the number of women in the workforce increased by over 46% between 1975 and 1985 (Doyle, 1990), the upward movement of women into managerial positions has not kept up with this pace. The 1970s and the early 1980s marked a dramatic change in the composition of the

managerial ranks of American organizations. In 1970, over
19% of all managers and administrators were women (Baum,
1987) while in 1992, the figure had grown to just over 39%.
(U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1993)

Although companies have been promoting women into mid-
level jobs since the late 1970s as mandatory affirmative
action took root, very few women have climbed higher.
Female managers are facing a problem with upward mobility
in organizations and are much less likely to advance as far
as or as fast up the corporate ladder as male managers as
demonstrated by Blau and Ferber (1987), Diboye (1987), and
Reynolds (1987). (in Ragins, 1989)

According to Kanter (1977), women are still finding
themselves stuck between emerging corporate and traditional
roles and may remain so for quite some time. She suggests
in her proportional distribution theory that this is at
least in part due to the difficulty of those severely
underrepresented (women) in upper level policy-making
positions to effect change.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The demographics of the workforce in the United States
are changing dramatically. Between 1985 and the year 2000,
women are expected to comprise nearly 60% of new entrants
into the workforce while white males will make up only an
estimated 15%. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1987) White

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males became a minority in the labor force in 1984 (Sargent and Stupak, 1989), and women professionals outnumbered men for the first time in 1986. (Jacobs and Hardesty, (1987) Yet, women have not risen within the ranks of management to the extent expected based on their increase in sheer numbers.

Women are conspicuously scarce in top level management positions despite their increase in representation in the labor force in general, and in professional and managerial positions in particular. Regardless of the highly publicized gains, there is a glaring dearth of women in senior executive positions. (Trafford, Avery, Thorton, Galloway, and Sarnoff, 1984; Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) Less than 5% of senior managers in the Fortune 2000 industrial and service companies are women. (U.S. Department of Labor)

The absence of women from senior level management positions means that they are disproportionately underrepresented in one of our most powerful societal institutions; a fact that, according to Fryxell and Lerner (1989), should be troubling to a society that values equal participation and opportunity. For nearly two decades, the composition of top management in Corporate America has been the focus of a great deal of attention. The issue is clearly reflective of an economic interest, but is also a concern with corporate social performance as it relates to

responsiveness to changing social and political trends (Fryxell & Lerner, 1989).

Reports that women are dropping out of the executive race in record numbers are complicating the underrepresentation problem. (Barnett, 1987; Jacobs and Hardesty, 1987; Taylor, 1986) The two phenomena may be interconnected in a mutually shaping relationship, but there is widespread controversy regarding causality factors.

Why are women underrepresented in senior level managerial positions and how can women's limited access to organizational positions of significant power be explained and understood? What are the challenges for women and for organizations inherent in women's unequal representation in organizational positions of power?

There has been extensive research carried out in the field of Women in Management in an attempt to answer these questions. Examining how women's behavior in organizations can be explained and why there are so few women in organizations' top tiers are two of the most researched questions in the discipline. The research to date has been heavily influenced by particular theoretical frameworks: the person-centered view, the organization-structure perspective, and the gender-organization-system approach as outlined by Fagenson. (1990)

The person-centered view focuses on the women themselves and links problems of limited representation to factors that are internal to women stressing sex-linked socialization processes that result in the development of characteristics that are in conflict with managerial requisites. (Fagenson, 1986; Harragan, 1977; Horner, 1972; Putnam and Heinen, 1976; Riger and Galligan, 1980; Terborg, 1977; Hennig and Jardim, 1976). The organization-structure paradigm emphasizes the role of factors external to women, the organizational opportunity and power structures, as critical to women's organizational growth and development on the job. (Kanter, 1977; Riger and Galligan, 1980) The gender-organization-system approach expands upon the other two paradigms and suggests that women's limited corporate progression can be the result of gender, the organizational context, and/or the wider and more complex social and institutional system in which they function. (Fagenson, 1990)

The women's issue in organizations continues to be a significant one based on social change agendas such as social justice and quality of work life. Kanter (1977) argues that if to some extent "the job makes the person", then women in organizations can be helped if there is a better understanding of the relationships between organizational structures and processes, and individual attitudes, behaviors, and actions. She further infers that

the women's issue could serve as a catalyst to socially beneficial change in organizations; a spring-board for the development of organizational structures that instigate and support the exercising of individual rights to a quality of work life.

Beyond these social responsibility concerns, demographic pressures, the present economic crisis, and the coming of the age of international competition are facts of the 1990s adding to the salience of this issue for organizations. There is evidence that there is a dearth of management talent, yet a potential labor force that could ease this scarcity remains untapped - women. (Hay, 1980) This is a time when it is economically essential for corporations to make use of the total pool of talented individuals available within the limitations of a shrinking labor market. (Nesbitt, 1990) It would appear that it is in corporations' best economic interest to recruit, develop, and retain women in a time when able, educated individuals are at a premium.

The bottom-line cost of alienating a whole group of talented managers based on unequal opportunity or inflexibility is perhaps for the first time in history an unaffordable cost for most companies. According to Hardesty and Jacobs (1986) (in Grondin, 1990, p. 372), "a quiet revolution of women managers is taking place in the workplace", and the resulting drop-out is draining

management of the best educated women ever to enter the workforce in this country's history. This trend could have a lasting impact on the economy of a nation in economic crisis. Yet there is little research to date examining what organizations are doing to address the issue and what factors drive organizations to action.

It does not take much research to discover the data on the increasing importance and influence of working women in today's U.S. economy. Some would conclude that women's rise to positions of power and influence will go down in history as the nation's most important social development of the last quarter of the twentieth century. (Taylor, 1986)

Women accounted for 94% of the employment growth between 1981 and 1986 (Rowney and Cahoon, 1990), and will continue to feminize the workforce as predicted in Workforce 2000. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1987) It is anticipated that the projected increase in rates of female participation in the labor force will have a profound impact on society. Organization policies and industrial structures will change to adapt to the new realities of a radically altered pattern of employment. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1987)

But will such organizational structures change, and if so, will they change in a way that will afford women equal opportunity to the more powerful positions? Thus far,

history over the past 15 years raises some cause for questioning women's access to the paths of opportunity and power and the ability of organizations to adapt to changing family patterns.

Most of the research in the field of Women in Management had focused on individual-centered theoretical underpinnings until the organization-structure work of Kanter in the mid 1970s. There is some argument that individualist approaches, though valuable, may have reached their limits in explaining the behavior of women in organizations. (Cullen, 1990) The literature has for decades zeroed in on the characteristics that women need to succeed in the management world, and may now need to focus on the characteristics of the organizations in which women succeed. (Cullen, 1990; Kanter, 1986) It is in examining organizations that research may lead to identifying organizational factors or forms that are more responsive to women and more facilitating to strategies impacting women's career development.

Are organizations recognizing a problem with women's advancement and retention? What do they view as the cause of the problem? Is their theoretical view of the root of the problem impacting the kinds of programs, policies, and procedures they are implementing to address the issue? What are organizations' reasons for implementing strategies to catalyze women's advancement? What factors are

facilitating organizations' actions in this direction? If
organizations are not willing to address this issue, what
will be the result of organizational inaction?

1.3 <u>Purpose of the Study</u>

    The purpose of this study was to determine if
organizations are addressing the issue of women's
development, advancement, and retention, and, if so, why,
how, and to what extent. The focus was on identifying
specific variables that may be facilitators in an
organization's propensity to implement women in management
organizational initiatives.

    The intent was to profile the organizational
characteristics of a sample population of firms previously
acknowledged for their commitment to and support of
organizational policy development to advance the status of
women. The organizations participating in the study had
been identified as being predisposed to providing equal
opportunity for women. They were singled out for offering
the best advancement opportunities and nurturing work
environments for women. The motivating idea was to offer
the data from the study as a tool to describe and measure
relationships between the antecedents and consequences of
highly developed women in management policy and to define
any commonalities among the organizations studied.

The study investigated 110 companies identified by Zeitz and Dusky (1988) as either the "best" companies for women or companies with experience as "good" organizations for women. The 50 "best" companies for women were identified by Zeitz and Dusky's research (1988) based on their records of recruiting and hiring of women, opportunities for promotion, pay, commitment to equality, flexibility regarding parenting needs, and sexual harassment policy. The other 60 companies were judged "worth investigating" based on their support systems for women including benefits, and/or potential for upward mobility. These companies were not included in the "best" list because they did not fully participate in the determining survey process.

Specifically, for purposes of this study, research questions or hypotheses were presented. These speculative questions and propositions were based on overarching interdisciplinary theory, specific theoretical considerations relating to women in management, and constructs developed in the research on Women in Management and Organization Development. Data from survey research was the means used to test these hypotheses. The relevant research literature driving the development of the following research questions and hypotheses is provided in Chapter 2, Section 2.10:

Research Question #1: Are those organizations determined to be the best companies for women (Zeitz

and Dusky, 1988) addressing the issue of women's underrepresentation in upper-level management positions? If so, why and how? What kinds of policies, programs, and procedures are they implementing to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in managerial positions?

Research Question #2: Based on their perceptions of the obstacles women face in organizations and their assessment of program need, how do the organizations singled out in Zeitz and Dusky (1988) view the theoretical issue of women's lack of advancement; from primarily an individual-centered or organization-structure perspective, and are their organizational response initiatives consistent with this view?

Research Question #3: What organizational characteristics might be contributing factors motivating those organizations that are noted for their work in facilitating women's career development to initiate and support organizational development interventions to advance and retain women managers?

Hypothesis #1: Organization size is associated with the number of programs for women and the level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #2: The percentage of women in the workforce of an organization is associated with the number of women's development programs and the level of development of women's advancement initiatives.

Hypothesis #3: The proportion of women in senior level management positions is associated with the quantity of programs to advance the status of women and with the depth and breadth of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #4: The percentage of women board directors is associated with the extent and level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #5: The percentage of women reporting directly to the CEO is positively associated with the extensiveness and depth of women in management program development.

Hypothesis #6: An organization's perception of the importance of the goal of attracting/retaining female managers is positively associated with its number of programs to advance women and level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #7: Organizations experiencing difficulty
attracting and retaining female managers have more
extensive and highly developed women's development
initiatives.

Hypothesis #8: An organization's perception of the
difficulty of attracting and retaining female managers
as compared to male managers is positively associated
with the quantity and developmental level of women's
advancement initiatives.

Hypothesis #9: Organizations that perceive that women
encounter more obstacles to advancing their careers
than men will have more extensive and developed
policies, programs, and initiatives to enhance women's
upward mobility.

Hypothesis #10: The level of EEO accountability in
the organization structure is positively associated
with the number and developmental level of initiatives
to advance women.

Hypothesis #11: CEO involvement in efforts to recruit
and promote women managers is positively associated
with a higher number and developmental level of
organizational programs to advance women.

Hypothesis #12: The level of hierarchy of an
organization's formal structure is negatively
associated with the quantity of women's advancement
programs and the level of development of initiatives
to advance the status of women in management.

Hypothesis #13: The formalization of an organization
as represented by written rules, procedures, and
practices is positively associated with the number of
women's advancement programs and the degree of
development of women in management initiatives.

Hypothesis #14: The degree of formalization in
channels of communication in an organization is
negatively associated with the number and level of
development of women's advancement programs.

Hypothesis #15: The degree of innovation in the
managerial practices of an organization is positively
associated with the number of programs to advance
women's status and the level of women in management
policy development.

Hypothesis #16: The degree of formalization of AA/EEO
record-keeping in an organization is positively

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associated with the number of programs to advance the status of women and the level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #17: The presence of a union is negatively associated with the number of programs for women's advancement and the level of program development to advance the status of women.

1.4 Significance of the Study

In spite of legal sanctions, demographic concerns, and political pressure for organizations to develop programs, policies, and procedures to facilitate the advancement of women in management, there has been little exploration and evaluation of organizational initiatives designed to recruit, retain, support, or improve the performance of women in management positions. (Bolker, Blair, Van Loo, and Roberts, 1985) This study is significant because it will expand the empirical research base in determining what organizations with a predisposition toward supporting women in management are offering as initiatives to promote women's career development, and in examining what organizational factors drive companies that are recognized for their support of managerial women.

In the 1970s the corporation was accused of being non-responsive to the needs, values, and abilities of a changing workforce. One of the main determinants of the changing workforce was the increased participation of women in the labor force. Many research analysts suggested a lack of fit between the characteristics of the workforce

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and the ability of the workplace to adjust to changing worker needs and expectations. (Kanter, 1986)

There has been a lack of research documenting the extent of workplace change in form and organizational practices to address this purported mismatch. This study is significant because it examines what organizations are doing to respond to changing workforce values and needs. It investigates the factors that contribute to the nature and intensity of workplace response to the effects of increased female participation on the overall corporate environment.

There is little empirical evidence that indicates a high level of corporate action in the U.S. toward the goal of addressing the issue of women in management. In a capitalist society, the advancement of women into top-level corporate positions must benefit corporations and the economy in order to materialize. According to Blum and Smith (1988), there is strong evidence that it can, but do organizations recognize that potential? What are businesses' reasons for implementing policies to catalyze women's advancement? This study offers useful insights into the understanding of business executives' perceptions of the need for orchestrating change that will benefit women's status in organizations.

According to some structural researchers including Kanter, it is in investigating and understanding complex

organizations that we will unleash the potential to critically shape the work life of adults. It is the organization that should bear the burden of change of women's managerial status (Kanter, 1976), and in examining the organization's characteristics, we shed light on factors facilitating change. The significance of this study is in identifying those organizational factors that may promote change regarding women's advancement. Knowledge about the organizational determinants of workplace change could then be used to benefit women, benefit corporations, benefit men, catalyze national economic prosperity, and perhaps ultimately, further the equal partnership of men and women within every sphere of modern society as well as within the work world.

As a result of Equal Employment Opportunity legislation including legal mandates, Women in Management researchers have a unique advantage over researchers in other fields; their findings have a significantly high probability of being used toward the end of organizational change. (Sekaran, 1990) Thus this research has significance in its potential to offer recommendations to managerial practitioners interested in proposing agendas for women's career advancement. The findings this study developed have the potential to be of interest to the scientific as well as the business sphere. This research represents an opportunity to bridge the gap between the

universally assumed goals of the two spheres, knowledge

versus profit, through the data collected which identify

some possible causal factors in the successful development

of organizational initiatives to advance women.

Beyer and Trice (1982) offer some advice in this

regard advocating that research recommendations in the

corporate world need to make intuitive sense and fit in

with the scheme of understanding of the manager responsible

for organizational change. The investigator, according to

Beyer and Trice, must exhibit an understanding of the

managerial world and its practical dynamics in order to

have her findings deemed credible.

In summary, this research is significant because of

its potential to raise consciousness for scholarly

researchers as well as change agents and managerial

practitioners regarding the issues involved in women's

advancement prospects in organizations. It can provide

firms with valuable information about the newest

developments in organizational programs, policies, and

procedures regarding women's development agendas, and

provide them with evidence regarding their organizational

impact. It can catalyze action and serve as a guide for

organizational consultants and external change agents as

well as senior executives, AA/EEO officers, and others with

an interest in promoting women's status.

Finally, this research can stimulate further research which could broaden the scope and enrich the depth of Women in Management and Organizational Development theory. Research investigating the organizations singled out as positive forces in the advancement of women could be helpful in identifying influences that shape organizational policy and produce work environments that are potentially advantageous to women's career development and upward mobility in corporations.

1.5 Definition of Terms

Benchmarking: For purposes of this study, an external corporate research process designed to assess the progress of industry peers on certain human resources performance measures, and to examine their strategies to impact performance in particular human resource areas of concern (i.e. women's advancement).

Career: The sequence of behaviors and attitudes associated with past, present, and anticipated future work-related experiences and role activities. A career is work-related and lifelong.

Career development: Activities directed in helping people to attain career objectives. These could include counseling, performance feedback, coaching, skill training, mentoring, job rotation, challenging and visible job

assignments, etc. Also, for the purposes of this study, positive career growth.

CEO: Acronym for chief executive officer - the person accountable to the Board of Directors for the losses and profits of a firm.

Corporate culture: A system of symbols and meanings shared by the members of an organization. It represents shared assumptions individuals make about their work environment.

Corrective actions: For purposes of this study, organizational efforts to rectify a problem that has been identified; particularly with concern for equal employment opportunity issues.

Gender-organization-system view: The theoretical perspective that focuses on the individual and/or the organization and/or the more complex social and institutional system in which they function and their interactions in explaining women's limited representation in management. This framework stresses the inclusion of culture, history, and ideology into the formula, and advocates for a broader concept for addressing the cause of women's work behaviors.

Glass Ceiling: The invisible barrier women find between themselves and the executive suite; a barrier that allows them to see into the levels above, but at the same time stands in the way of their movement up; it applies to

women as a group who are kept from advancing higher because they are women (recently expanded to apply to all minority groups).

Individual-centered, gender-centered, or person-centered view: The theoretical perspective that focuses on women themselves and links problems of the limited representation of women in management to factors that are internal to women. This framework stresses sex-linked socialization processes as integral determinants of women's work behaviors.

Intervention: Any action on the part of a change agent with the implication that it is planned, deliberate, and presumably functional.

Organizational Development (OD): A system-wide effort applying behavioral science knowledge to the planned creation and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organization's effectiveness.

Organizational initiative: A program, policy, procedure, process, strategy, or set of such aimed a deliberate organizational change in a specific area of concern.

Organization-structure, organization-centered, or situation-centered view: The theoretical perspective that focuses on the organization and links problems of the limited representation of women in management to factors

that are external to women. This framework stresses
organizational structure issues including organizational
power and opportunity structures as integral determinants
of women's work behaviors.

Patriarchy: For purposes of this study, a system of
interrelated social structures through which men exploit
women. The key sets of patriarchal relations are evident
in domestic work, paid work, the state, and male violence
and sexuality.

Strategic change: An approach to bringing about an
alignment or congruence among an organization's strategy,
structure, and human resource systems, as well as a fit
between them and the larger environment.

Structure: The structure of a system is the
arrangement of its parts. Also, jargon for a change
strategy that focuses on the formal organization.

Women in Management: A field of research endeavor
examining the status and rate of progress of women in
managerial positions.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

> 1.) This study is limited to a survey of 110
> companies identified by Zeitz and Dusky (1988) in
> their book, The Best Companies for Women. The
> sample size is small and limited to organizations
> predetermined to be predisposed to facilitating

women's advancement. This limited sample may not prove to be generalizable to a larger population.

2.) The design of the study, questionnaire survey research, has its limits as a quantitative method lacking in the richness and depth of a more qualitative approach.

3.) Questionnaire surveys lack the verbal and direct human contact qualities of other survey instrumentation possibly allowing for less honest responses. The findings will be totally self-reported and, therefore, not verifiable. Self-reported data can lead to socially desirable answers that may not be true representations. Written responses tend to lack the depth of opinion and feeling expressed in verbal conversations/interviews. Respondents invested in their workplace may be hesitant to honestly answer questions that reflect negatively on their organizations.

4.) This study is limited in its scope, available resources, and the time restrictions of the researcher. It is limited in scope as a single research design intended to investigate a complex and dynamic web of organizational issues in the area of Women in Management. The variables selected for study are but a few in a myriad of

relevant variables interacting and relating in causal complexities.

5.) The research design of choice for this study is capable of examining and analyzing relationships between variables, but does not have the power to conclude causal associations. This survey research design has the potential to identify possible cause-and-effect relationships, but only a controlled experiment has the ability to determine a causal association between two variables with a significant degree of certainty.

1.7 <u>Outline of the Remainder of the Dissertation</u>

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature demonstrating a comprehensive knowledge of the important substantive and methodological developments in the field of Women in Management. Theory and research is thoroughly explored. An examination of the historical context of gender inequality and sexual differentiation in the workplace is linked to overarching theoretical frameworks for understanding the phenomenon from historical, sociological, psychological, economic, and cultural perspectives. Three theoretical paradigms specific to Women in Management are explored in an attempt to unravel the complexities involved in women's lack of advancement to upper level corporate positions. The three paradigmatic

viewpoints' implications for Organization Development strategies follow with an analysis of resulting research methodology considerations. Finally, the research issues are summarized and organizational response examined to provide a basis for the study to ensue. The chapter ends with the introduction of the research variables, questions, and hypotheses.

Chapter 3 presents the research method of this study. It outlines the research questions and the methodology used to test them. It reviews the pre-test process and developments and describes: the sample including the population of interest, sampling method, and sample size; the instrumentation, its selection and development; the research design procedures and rationale; data collection and editing; and data analyses including statistical tests of measure.

Chapter 4 presents the research findings and statistical analyses; first, the descriptive findings regarding the organizations' characteristics and program development, and second, the statistical representation of the strength of relationships between organizational variables under study. Chapter 5 offers a discussion of the results. Conclusions, limitations, and the significance of the investigation are addressed in this final chapter in addition to suggestions for future research possibilities.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 <u>Introduction</u>

The purpose of this literature review is to develop a frame of reference for the reader about women's inequality in the workplace in general and in management in particular. It provides a broad overview of the issue of gender inequality and examines and analyzes the underlying theories relating to the causes of women's underrepresentation in the more powerful managerial positions. It utilizes a taxonomy of causal explanations which includes three theoretical frameworks that are presently influencing the research on Women in Management. These are: the person-centered view, the organization-structure view, and the gender-organization-system approach. It culminates in a discussion of the implications for organizational development strategies, an examination of research methodology concerns, an investigation of public policy relating to women and work, and an analysis of organizational response and corporate involvement leading into the research questions and hypotheses driving this study.

Section 2.2 provides a historical perspective of the problem and probes the historical debates concerning the origin of the sexual division of labor. Section 2.3

examines the overarching theoretical perspectives underlying the issue of sexual inequality in employment. It sorts out the sociological constructs that address the philosophical dispute of whether capitalism or patriarchy is indeed at the root of gender-related occupational inequality. Section 2.4 proceeds to develop the three theoretical frameworks specific to analyzing gender inequalities in the field of Women in Management in particular. It investigates the development of the person-centered, organization-structure, and gender-organization-system approaches as paradigms instigating research on women's unequal representation in managerial positions of power and status in very differing manners.

Section 2.5 follows the theoretical frameworks and their implications for research methodologies into their ultimate impact on the development of Organization Development strategies and organizational actions to address issues of women's advancement and retention. Section 2.6 reviews the research issues involved in examining this topic from three significantly diverse paradigmatic spheres of thought. It includes methodological issues, advancements, and implications. Section 2.7 outlines recent public policy regarding women in work. Section 2.8 summarizes the chapter by providing a broad overview of the research literature and underscoring the implications for this research study. Section 2.9

analyzes organizational response to women's advancement

issues and Section 2.10 introduces the major research

questions and hypotheses motivating this study.

2.2 Historical Perspective

Anthropological and historical evidence points to

time-honored and varied forms of the sexual division of

work. According to Bradley (1989),

> "Moreover, in virtually every society of which we have
> knowledge, men and women normally perform different
> types of work. This 'sex-typing' of jobs, the
> allocation of specific tasks to men and women, has
> become so extensive and pervasive that the two sexes
> are rarely found doing the same type of work. . . . .
> Men are controlling and women are obeying." (p. 1)

The type of work that is defined as "men's" or "women's"

has varied historically and geographically, but the idea

that some work is suitable for women and some for men has

remained rather constant. (Bradley)

The last two decades have seen much research into the

history of women's work to analyze and interpret data

regarding the development of the sexual division of labor.

When did the sex-typing of work begin and why? And why has

the concept been so persistent and so widespread? The

research and interpretation has resulted in many historical

debates concerning the issue.

The origin of the sexual division of labor has to

remain speculative despite profuse research and analysis in

the area because of the dearth of any real evidence dating

back to work behavior in prehistoric societies. As Coontz
and Henderson (1986, p. 27) report, "the search for origins
will never be definitely settled." Despite the lack of
evidence, we continue to pursue the origin debate because
the question of male dominance as a natural state of
affairs is clearly at the root of any attempt to explain
the history of sexual inequality.

In this quest for origins and causes, one key question
is whether or not all societies throughout history have
been characterized by sexual differentiation. There has
been much scholarly disagreement on this issue. Ortner
(1974) argues that all societies throughout history have
been sexually differentiated and Levi-Strauss (1969) also
adheres to the tenet that men have dominated women since
the beginning of "society". According to Levi-Strauss,
that domination is mirrored in the lower status of female
activities.

In opposition to these accounts, Chevillard and
LeConte, (1986), Leibowitz (1986), and Zihlman, (1981), (in
Bradley, 1989), argue that there have been egalitarian
societies where the sexual division of tasks has not been
institutionalized. Based on fossil evidence, Leibowitz and
Zihlman deduce that group members of both sexes worked
jointly to locate food and maintain the species. Zihlman
(1981) (in Bradley, 1989), questions portrayals of men as
hunters and women as gatherers. She argues that hunting

was not as prevalent in supporting subsistence needs as gathering, and that both sexes must have participated in gathering, which was indeed the primal task.

Pursuing the sexual differentiation of labor issue further, the question of why it originated leads to more uncertainty. Some argue that the different physical characteristics of the two sexes predispose all human societies to a sexual division of labor. This genetic cause of the inequality is countered with feminists' and sociologists' cultural explanations of human behavior.

The biological tradition stresses women's reproductive functions and men's larger stature as the cause for gender lines in the division of labor in human societies. The cultural tradition espouses theories of cultural systems which impose sexual roles and activities. Rosaldo (1974) speaks of a cultural system that recognizes male activities as predominately important and authorizes and values them. Ardener (1975) uses a cultural system approach to claim that men impose their systems of social reality and therefore, sexual differentiations, upon women. This is a form of domination.

In another approach to the examination of the origins of the sexual division of labor, economics takes center stage. If male power is seen as economically rooted, in the Marxist tradition, rather than culturally rooted, then materialism explains the origins of gender and class. This

perspective, argued in Coontz and Henderson (1986), traces

male dominance and sexual differentiation back to economic

causes. They develop a theory that a sexual division of

labor eventually results in societies that are patrilocal

(children and wives reside with husband and his parents).

This is because the exchange of goods in a patrilocal

society leads to male control of female labor in order to

exchange goods. Therefore, the development of class

hierarchies is interconnected to the development of a

system of male dominance. (Bradley, 1989)

Although Coontz and Henderson's (1986) accounts

suggest the "gradual" development of unequal sexual

division of labor as patrilocal societies developed, other

Marxist versions espouse a "sudden break" notion. This

"sudden break" represents a particular time in history when

man actively seized power from women. (Bradley, 1989)

Bradley maintains that this view rests on the idea that the

earliest societies were matriarchal as suggested by

Bachofen and Engels.

Whether or not matriarchy ever existed is still in

question, but Chevillard and Leconte (1986) and Saliou

(1986), (in Bradley, 1989), make a case that in matrilocal

societies (where husbands live with the wife and her

family), sexual equality does seem greater. They see

patrilocality as the event that significantly strengthened

male power and led to male domination and sexual

oppression. This view dates sexual oppression prior to class oppression.

The question of the origin of sexual inequality and the sexual division of labor grows deeper, but no universal answers have surfaced. Is sexual inequality and sexual differentiation in labor universal? Are there societies where sexual roles are not segregated? Are there societies where tasks are sexually divided, but socially valued on an equal basis?

The research can only assure us that in studying various societies, the only universal is that the sexual division of labor varies tremendously from society to society throughout history. However, in looking at contemporary societies, economics, culture, and biology all continue to have a major impact on gender relations and the sexual division of labor, no matter what their part in the origination of the phenomenon. (Bradley, 1989)

The historical debates are just as copious as researchers analyze women's status from pre-industrial to industrial societies. Industrialization was instrumental in separating the work sphere from the home sphere as goods began being produced in a factory system as opposed to a cottage system. Industrial capitalism had a powerful effect in transforming men and women's public and private lives.

Factories and machinery organized and fragmented work into specialized jobs that required less strength, skills, and training. (Rosen, 1989) This led to a significant increase in the number of women working outside the home. Prior to industrialization, women had played a part in the paid labor force, but mainly as domestic workers. The growth of mills and factories was a strong impetus in changing women's work roles and the hierarchy of jobs women performed. Some historians argue that the advent of industrialization led to the deterioration of women's position and power, while others ascribe to the theory that industrial capitalism had a freeing effect on women as it opened opportunity and disconnected them from the chains of home and overpowering patriarchy.

Tilly and Scott (1978) examine the question of the impact of industrialization on women's work in their book Women, Work, and Family. They study the historical record of women and work and analyze the interconnections between the economy, women's work roles, and the structure of the family. Although their work focuses on the history of women in France and Britain from 1700, their analysis and conclusions have widespread implications and applicability. They assume that the productive and reproductive activities of women are influenced and shaped by the mode of production and the family. Tilly and Scott conclude that industrialization did not immediately, unilaterally, or

automatically change the nature of women's work or alter

family structures, but rather catalyzed a process of change

which had an impact on the economy, demography, and the

structure of the family, and their interrelationships.

(Tilly and Scott)

Historians have isolated four basic areas that have

been determined to be significant in the status of sexual

segregation. These are: the separation of the domestic and

work spheres, the family wage, the advent of protective

legislation, and the consequences of World War I and II.

(Bradley, 1989)

Although Clark (1910) and Hamilton (1978) stress the

separation of home and work as a main factor in the decline

of women's economic activity, Gittins (1985), Bradley

(1986), Rose (1980), Allen and Wolkowitz (1987), and Tilly

and Scott (1978), (in Bradley, 1989) continue to challenge

the extent of the actual separation. In many ways the

family continues to perform functions for the world of work

including training and recruitment. The connection between

the spheres of work and family seem to remain somewhat

intact, and many doubts have been voiced challenging the

notion that the domestic/work separation is a major cause

of women's movement into inferior work situations.

Bradley (1989) is quick to point out that if the

theory that the separation of home and work was the cause

of job segregation is indeed true, then the new trend of

work returning to the home should be a job segregation buster. However, Allen and Wolkowitz's study of homemaking (in Bradley, 1989) does not support this thesis, but rather concludes that homeworkers are at the bottom of the hierarchical structure in each occupation.

The family wage has also been determined to be a factor in women's inferior status. The family wage notion espoused by many trade unions beginning back in the mid 1800s has helped sustain the idea that men are the independent breadwinners while women are the dependent homemakers and child rearers. This view of the family economic breakdown has had a constraining effect on women and as Heidi Hartmann, Director of the Institute for Women's Research Policy, describes it, it is "the cornerstone of the present sexual division of labour". (1981, p. 25) The concept has been widely used to justify sex differences in wages, keep women dependent on men, and maintain women's lower earning potential inviting them to increase their domestic activity and responsibility.

The effect of legislation regulating the hours and conditions of women's work is also a controversial factor in the study of the history of sex segregation. Did the early legislation passed in the nineteenth century protect women from exploitation, or deprive them of their freedom and rights as they were relegated to the same status as children? Some argue that working women wanted and needed

to be protected, while others claim that men were using women to pass their own agendas as employers and the government would never have agreed to such legislation in terms of male protection.

Others such as Walby (1986) argue that strictly patriarchal motives led to the imposition of the Factory Acts of the nineteenth century. Fear of competition and a desire to fortify their authoritarian positions in the home are cited as the male motives for the reforming actions that led to the legislation. The state took on an official role in maintaining the structure of sex segregation in the workplace via the passage of this "protective" legislation. (Bradley, 1989)

The two world wars' effect on sex segregation is another controversial topic with many interpretive slants. One interpretation that is widely accepted stresses the idea that women proved their ability to accomplish a wide range of jobs during both wars. Different economic environments following each war led to different results, however. The depression that followed World War I caused women to return to lower paying jobs or the home, but they did achieve the right to vote. World War II, on the other hand, was followed by economic growth which resulted in some demand for women to stay in the labor market and created increased job opportunity.

Some less optimistic views stress that the World War II women were channelled into new types of "women's work" in the service sector and the structure of segregation remained very much intact. Some recent studies by Thom (1978), Braybon, (1981), and Summerfield, (1984), (in Bradley, 1989), even suggest that the female accomplishments of men's tasks was in reality not as widespread as thought. Organization restructuring often left women responsible for the least skilled labor reporting to a male supervisor or coordinator. The authority of men in the workplace remained quite intact in most cases.

2.3 Overarching Theoretical Perspectives

The historical debates underlying varying explanations of the existence of the sexual segregation of labor are even more complicated by the divergent sociological concepts used to account for the phenomenon. The wider sociological controversy surrounding the narrower issue of sexual divisions in employment is the philosophical dispute as to whether capitalism or patriarchy is indeed at the root of sexual inequality in general. Walby, (1986) defines patriarchy as a set of interlinking institutions that cut across all sectors of society:

> "... a system of interrelated social structures
> through which men exploit women... The key sets of
> patriarchal relations are to be found in domestic
> work, paid work, the state and male violence and

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sexuality, while other practices in civil society have a limited significance." (pp. 51-52)

In <u>Theorizing Patriarchy</u>, Sylvia Walby (1990) suggests that the ways of explaining women's subordination in contemporary society fall into four distinctive perspectives or frameworks including: Marxist feminism, radical feminism, liberalism, and dual-systems theory. These are all feminist perspectives on gender inequality.

Marxist feminism considers gender inequality a derivative of capitalism; a by-product of capital's domination over labor. Within this theoretical framework, social structure is based on the economic exploitation of one class by another and it is class relations that determine gender relations. An example would be Engel's theory that it was the institution of private property that marked the emergence of the social subordination of women. The explanation supporting the belief is that men began to control women as an attempt to secure their control of the surplus and pass it on to their heirs. (Bradley, 1989) As Ehrlich (1981) describes, male dominance is seen as "a disfiguring but localized excrescence on the skin of capitalism to be cured by the strong medicine of state socialism". (p. 110)

Some believed you could add gender to the basic framework of class theory and began to analyze women's position within capitalism. The "domestic labor debate" series of research writings are a strong example of this

stream of thought. The work of Dalla Costa and James

(1972), Seccombe (1974), and Gardiner (1976), address the

issue of women's subordination by explaining it in terms of

what capital gained from the domestic work of women.

Radical feminism recognizes a more economically

independent gender dynamic and attributes women's

subordination to a system of domination by men as a group.

This perspective is only interested in analyzing patriarchy

and gives gender the central role in sexual inequality

while rejecting the Marxist concentration on production.

Radical feminism recognizes that men as a social group

profit from the inferior position of women in employment

and by women's assignment to domestic duties.

In this view, male dominance is characteristic of all

societies and has it roots in the family system and in

women's reproductive role. (Bradley, 1989) Within this

framework the basis of this male supremacy is evinced in

various ways including the sexual domination of men over

women, the controlling result of male violence against

women, and the role of socially institutionalized

heterosexuality and its organizing role in gender

relations. This inequality is perpetuated by the

institution of monogamous marriage, ideologies of sex

differences and male superiority, and by sex-role

stereotyping and the psychological result of child rearing

practices within the nuclear family. Freudian theory is

key in the conceptualization of many radical feminists.
Psychoanalysis is used to serve as an alternative
theoretical framework for Marxism. Chodorow's work (1978)
involving mother and child relationships is influential to
this view of feminist research.

Liberalism explains women's disadvantage in terms of
the accumulation of small-scale deprivations as opposed to
analyzing female subordination through the use of
overarching social structures. Walby (1990) describes this
perspective as utilizing two major foci of analysis to
explain women's subordination: the denial of equal rights
to women in terms of education and employment (Kanter,
1977), and the existence of sexist attitudes which sustain
women in a disadvantaged position related to prejudice.

Finally, the dual-systems theory synthesizes Marxist
and radical feminist theory. Most feminist scholars today
recognize the contribution of both original perspectives,
but realize that neither capitalism nor patriarchy alone
can explain social inequity in total. This framework
argues that both capitalism and patriarchy affect the
structuring of gender relations and an analysis of both
gender and class is necessary to a comprehensive approach
to the issue of sexual divisions.

There is significant variation in the
conceptualization of this theory, however. Some scholars
such as McDonough and Harrison (1978), Eisenstein (1981),

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and Young (1981), (in Bradley, 1989), view capitalism and patriarchy as fused in one system, where the two are integrated into a totalistic theory of capitalist patriarchy or patriarchal capitalism. Others such as Mitchell (1975), Hamilton (1978), Hartmann (1979), and Cockburn (1986), (in Bradley, 1989), see them as two analytically distinct systems that interact. They believe the two theoretical frameworks must be analyzed separately; viewing patriarchy and capitalism as two separate but interrelated systems.

Each of these theoretical frameworks employed to elucidate the disadvantaged position of women in our society has its limitations and weaknesses. The Marxist feminist analysis garners criticism for being too focused on capitalism without recognizing the independent nature of the gender inequality dynamic. The traditional Marxist categories are "sex blind" as Hartmann (1981) argues, and adding gender into the traditional class analysis is necessary for accurate interpretation.

Radical feminism is criticized for being reductionist in explaining the gender dynamic only in terms of biology without considering historical data and without analyzing the divisions between women based on ethnicity and class. This type of universalistic, ahistorical approach is exemplified in the work of Firestone (1979) which ultimately perceives women's biology as their destiny.

This approach neglects other sources of inequality such as class, race, and age which need to be considered because they intersect with gender, and gender alone cannot explain differences in the work or family experience. Bradley (1989) notes that the tendency to view patriarchy as an ideology or set of psychic structures while totally ignoring materialistic accounts does not address the way gender stratifications are created in the economic sphere.

Liberalism is cited for its failure to consider the deep rootedness of gender inequality and the origins of the development and maintenance of patriarchal attitudes. Lastly, dual-systems theory has been critiqued as having problems with sustaining the duality of capitalism and patriarchy. Most existing work within dual-systems theory is lacking in covering the full range of patriarchal structures within the material and cultural levels of analysis. (Walby, 1990)

Mies (1986) is critical of the dual-systems theory's exaggerated account of duality. He argues that the danger of this position is in the identification of reproduction/the family/the private domain/ patriarchy at one end and production/work/the public domain/capitalism on the other. He points out that they are not mutually exclusive spheres, but rather gender and class relations not only spill over between them, but are actually developed and sustained within both. Bradley (1989)

concludes that since gender is not a product of class then it must be theorized separately. But if gender relations are to be viewed as a system, then they are not a system that is of the same type as that modelled by Marxism.

So, where do we go from here in the theory development toward explanation? In Bradley's (1989) opinion as well as many others in the field, there is not at present a completely satisfactory sociological theory of gender inequality. Many feminist sociologists such as Michele Barrett and Sylvia Walby (in Bradley) imply that this can be attributed to the relative youth of feminist social analysis. It was not until the late 1960s that the sexual division of labor became a serious topic for research within the discipline of sociology.

The evolution and development of the research on the sexual division of labor continues with attempts at developing sociological frameworks that can be instrumental in analyzing divisions between the sexes. Many researchers believe that it is only in utilizing the insights developed within each framework or orientation of sociological thought that our basic understanding of the processes of sexual differentiation in general and the sexual division of labor in particular will be enlightened.

How are these overarching theoretical frameworks for understanding gender inequalities in general used to analyze sex differentiation in the more narrowly defined

employment sphere? Many explanations addressing the more specific issue of workplace sex-typing are derivatives of broad economic and sociological theory.

One such concept is the human capital approach within the framework of supply and demand. This is a neoclassical economic theory in that the primary analytical category is the individual. (Amsden, 1980) It is a school of economic thought that assumes individuals exercise freedom of choice and implies that women chose to invest less in formal education and training and thus their condition is self-imposed. This theory has strong parallels with the functionalist school of thought in sociology. (Walby, 1990) Parsonian functionalism (Parsons and Bales, 1956) also describes women's lesser involvement in paid work as a function of their position within the domestic sphere.

Within this explanation, employers chose workers on the basis of their human capital (i.e. education, experience, skills, etc.) and those with the least human capital are the last to be hired at the lowest wage. Women and their potential career interruptions due to childbirth are _seen_ as typically possessing less human capital. Human capital theorists pose the idea that women have less human capital than men because of their position within the family. But, do women acquire less experience and training than men and do their wages merely reflect this, or are individual women discriminated against because employers

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make rational judgements based on statistical

discrimination and the assumption that women as a group are

less attached to the labor market? An unresolved issue in

the human capital argument is this relationship between

women and their human capital investment. In fact, is the

cycle actually reversed; do low wages due to

discrimination lead to a lower investment in human capital

which then leads to lower wages? (Amsden, 1980)

According to Amsden (1980), the human capital theory

has been disputed by many studies that find women whose

careers are not interrupted by childbirth still remain in

low-paying jobs despite their education, skills, and

qualifications. Also, in professional fields where men and

women start with equal human capital, women quickly fall

behind even before interruptions due to family development.

This theory provides no explanation why whole occupations

are staffed by women (i.e. nursing) or why the sex-typing

of jobs originated and prevails.

Another major theoretical problem with the human

capital theory is that it assumes a perfect labor market in

which employees are paid according to their worth. This

assumption has been challenged time and again as the

"worth" of a job seems to be as much as a social issue as a

technical one. Through unions, etc., more powerful workers

are able to get higher designations for their jobs. This

ability to status-type a job also has a gender aspect to it

as Phillips and Taylor (1980) have shown. There is not a direct relationship between human capital and pay because of the power differences that exist between men and women workers. (Walby, 1990)

Another approach addresses the idea that male and female workers may be treated differently from the start. This theory maintains that employers exercise discrimination in hiring and may prefer to sacrifice economic profits in an effort to minimize their contact with certain groups such as women and minorities (Becker, 1957). As Amsden (1980) notes, if it is not a profit motive that leads to employer discrimination, then in a capitalist economy, the mechanism for the perpetuation of such discrimination must be sought outside of economic theory.

Liberal approaches which concentrate on small-scale processes that differentiate male and female work experiences draw upon broad notions of cultural differentiation between the sexes. This approach analyzes the dual roles that women play as mothers and paid workers and focuses on the conflicting demands women face with regard to time and labor. Kanter (1977) utilizes this approach in documenting the disadvantages women face in corporations by emphasizing the cultural pressures and organizational structures that result in less success in women than men in reaching the upper rungs of the corporate

ladder. However, the criticism of this analysis is that it does not confront the basic causes of the unequal division of labor, but rather presumes a structure of gender inequality in society as a whole. (Walby, 1990)

More radical economists have forwarded the concept of segmented labor markets to address these questions of occupational segregation by sex; the primary labor market consisting of well-paid, high level, high mobility positions and the secondary market consisting of low-paying, dead end jobs. This is a theory in the "institutional" realm of economics, a realm that focuses on family and work structures as opposed to concentrating on the individual first and foremost. (Amsden, 1980) It further assumes that requisites exist in society and takes some of the onus off the individual in explaining sexual inequality.

This theory suggests that groups may be confined to secondary markets and movement between the two is difficult or impossible. Barron and Norris (1976) propose that women fit into the secondary market social category of labor because of their lack of training, low level of economism, and union organization, etc. Many argue that the need for this labor segmentation developed out of employers' need to have two types of labor: that stable core of committed skilled workers, and a more marginal group of less skilled,

uncommitted workers that could be hired and fired as the economy warrants. (Amsden, 1980)

Some argue that labor market segmentation came into being and is maintained because it is functional; it aids in the operation of capitalist institutions via the divide-and-rule strategy, discriminating against definable groups including women and minorities. But how does this concept account for the skilled jobs that have developed as characteristically women's jobs and are not of a secondary nature (i.e. teaching, nursing, etc.)? Also, there are jobs in the secondary labor market as defined that are predominantly filled by men (i.e. construction, agriculture, etc.).

Marxists and Marxist feminists explain the differences in men's and women's employment patterns in terms of capitalist relations. This reflects the Marxist conception of a reality based on production and capital accumulation. In this view women's lower wages and lesser labor force participation are a function of the capital-labor relation. Where the individual is the primary unit of analysis in neoclassical theory, class is the primary unit of analysis in Marxist theory. Class relations are a function of the mode of production and the individual's behavior is a function of class. (Amsden, 1980)

This leads us full circle back to gender differences as an explanation for gender-typed jobs and differential

earnings based on sex. How different are men and women, and is it biology or society that shapes the behavior of women and men? Is it social custom based on sex role stereotyping that shapes the division of labor?

Macoby and Jacklin (1974) did a review and critique of the literature on sex role differences in the workplace and concluded that actual sex differences have been greatly exaggerated. Their work became the seed for further analysis. According to Harriman (1985), Macoby and Jacklin also clarify the fact that the differences between the sexes are statistical differences and not individual differences. This is extremely significant in that it means that the differences for each group are basically spread over a normal curve and the curves for each group have substantial overlap. Thus the differences within groups are much greater than the differences between groups.

However, perception is key to reality and thus society's perception of the differences between men and women is key to the resulting sex roles and stereotypes that shape behavior. To some extent, each of us are in some ways shaped by the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of the larger society based on our biological sex. When sex role theories are used to explain the differential experiences of men and women at work, socialization and not discrimination becomes the major focus of attention. But

when organization structure theories are credited with the explanation for the differences, organization policies and practices and the underlying discriminatory attitudes become the main focus of attention.

2.4 Women in Management - Three Theoretical Frameworks

This research review has thus far examined some of the economic, political, sociological, psychological, and cultural theories developed to explain the inequities between men and women in society in general and men and women at work in particular. Now these concepts will be employed in analyzing the more focused issue of gender differences in the field of management.

Why is there such an underrepresentation of women in today's organizations' top management? This is at present one of the most researched questions in the field of Women in Management. The research done in analyzing this question is bound by the theoretical perspective of the researcher. The researcher's theoretical rationale influences the methodology, analytical framework, and eventually, conclusions of the study. As described in the introduction to this paper, the theoretical frameworks that are influencing the ideas of researchers involved in the effort to understand women's underrepresentation in top level organizational roles today include: the person-

centered view, the organization-structure perspective, and the gender-organization-system approach. (Fagenson, 1990)

Each of these theoretical paradigms for examining the specific issue of women's unequal representation in managerial positions of power and status has connections to the overarching theoretical bents I have already examined in analyzing the more general gender inequalities: in society and in the working environment.

2.4.1 <u>The Person-Centered View (Also referred to as the gender- or individual-centered view)</u>

The person-centered view, also known as the gender-or individual-centered view, attributes the discrepancies between men's and women's numerical representation in upper level management positions to factors internal to women. Individual theories examining the problem of women's underrepresentation in management look to women themselves as key to understanding the issue. Variables such as levels of education and training, degree of career commitment versus family commitment, career expectations, levels of confidence, attitude, drive, and managerial style, all surface as possible ingredients in the resulting disparities in managerial success.

This paradigm may be utilized in conjunction with economic, psychoanalytic, sociological, cultural, or biological theoretical conceptualizations, but always focuses on the <u>differences</u> between men and women and how

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these differences, whether the result of biology, socialization, or a combination, hinder women's promotion to the upper ranks of organizations. This perspective provides one lens for viewing and analyzing women's position in the corporate managerial scene.

As Fagenson (1986) points out in citing Harrigan, (1977); Horner, (1972); Putnam and Heinen, (1976); Riger and Galligan, (1980); and Terborg, (1977); the person-centered approach to the field of Women in Management attributes women's behavior and resulting lack of positions of power and status to internal factors and characteristics that women are socialized to possess. It is these intrinsic features, which in this view are thought to be inconsistent with the requirements of the management role, that hold women back from promotions to the upper managerial levels.

This person-centered or gender-centered perspective adheres to the hypothesis that sex is a major determinant of the attributes individuals feel they possess. (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Hennig and Jardim, 1976; Horner, 1972; Lodan, 1985; Riger and Galligan, 1980; Smircich, 1985) According to Fagensen (1990), men are hypothesized to see themselves as having masculine characteristics, while women are hypothesized to view themselves as having feminine characteristics.

More to the point, our society has consistently portrayed the successful manager in terms of "the male model". The role has been promoted as one that requires aggression, forcefulness, decisiveness, rationality, strength, self-confidence, independence, etc. Each of these traits has been traditionally considered a "masculine" trait. Women have been characterized as possessing so-called "feminine" traits including such qualities as kindness, selflessness, interdependence, warmth, nurturance, etc. Those who subscribe to these differences suggest that women's personalities are in conflict with what is necessary to manage successfully in the upper echelons of organizational environs.

In the early 1970s, Schein did some landmark research demonstrating the relationship between sex-role stereotyping and characteristics perceived as requisite for managerial success. Schein's 1973 study showed that men in middle management perceived successful managers as having characteristics traditionally considered "masculine". Another study (Schein, 1975) discovered the same to be true for women managers. Schein (1978) concluded that this widespread sex-role stereotyping of managerial work could result in discriminatory attitudes and actions toward women seeking to enter managerial positions.

The person-centered approach also includes a perspective on women's socialized orientations toward work

and family. As Fagenson (1986) points out, high level corporate managers evince a high commitment to their careers and organizations while women are conditioned to commit more strongly to family than to career or organization.

The issue of power is also viewed from an internal vantage point in this gender-centered domain. Upper level organization managers have been rewarded for securing power, while Fagenson, (1986) and Kanter, (1977) suggest that women have been conditioned to avoid power and attach. less value to it.

Also, Fagenson, (1986) notes that successful managers tend to attribute their success to "internal factors" such as their skills, abilities, and efforts. This seems to be in conflict with women's propensity toward explaining their achievements in terms of "external factors" including the nature of the task, luck, others, etc.

Gender-linked orientations toward risk have also been linked to women's difficulty in achieving upward mobility. Many researchers have data to support the conclusion that women tend to see risk as potential loss while men see the risk more in terms of opportunity for success. Men tend to view their working experience in terms of how it can lead to future career goals, while women are more apt to seek fulfillment in their current employment situation without looking to the future. (Hennig and Jardim, 1976; Riger and

Galligan, 1980) Also, Horner, (1972) links the notion of women's tendency to fear success to their ability to achieve which has been cited as a factor inhibiting women's progress up the corporate ladder by those adhering to the person-centered view of the issue.

Fagenson, (1986) points out that the key element of the gender or person-centered view is the belief in the differences between the sexes. If indeed these perceptual differences exist in the aggregate, they are attributed to various causes including Hennig and Jardim's, (1976) theory of differential sex-role socialization, Chodorow's, (1978) theory of differential gender identity formation, and Gilligan's, (1982) theory of the gender-specific construction of reality.

The tacit assumption that males and females differ in their management capabilities and thus in their administration of the management process has been widely challenged. In subsequent research to Schein's work on the association between sex-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, Brenner and Greenhaus (1979) studied both male and female managers and nonmanagers and found that traits that are traditionally associated with "masculine" behaviors (i.e aggression, dominance, achievement orientation, etc.), are actually more congruous to men _and women_ in managerial positions. A case for _position_ correlating with "masculine" characteristics, not

necessarily <u>sex</u>. Donnell and Hall (1980) studied 2,000

managers over a two-year time period comparing the

practices of male managers and female managers. They found

that: "Women, in general, do not differ from men, in

general, in the ways in which they administer the

management process." (Donnell and Hall, 1980, p. 76)

Because both men and women in our society tend to

ascribe to a "male model" of the ideal manager, and women

are seen as lacking in the characteristics required for

effective management, women are often perceived by both

sexes as unsuitable for leadership positions. (Korabik,

1990) Thus, they are both less likely than their male

counterparts to be chosen as leaders or to seek leadership

roles. (Eskilson and Wiley, 1976)

However, there is some recent research that suggests

that the relationship between sex-role stereotypes and

requisite management characteristics Schein discovered in

the early 1970s may be changing, particularly for women.

In a study published in 1989, (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and

Schein) men and women managers were examined and the

results were compared with the findings of fifteen years

previous. In this follow-up study, results supported the

original finding that male middle managers adhere to a male

managerial stereotype, but female middle managers were

found to have broken away from the sex-typing of managerial

characteristics. (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and Schein, 1989)

As Korabik (1990) notes in her research, unfavorable stereotypes are applied to women despite their lack of validity. Butterfield and Powell (1987) and Strache (1976), (in Korabik), report that, in reality, numerous women leaders are closer to the ideal manager than are their male counterparts. This finding is also supported by Chusmir (1985) whose research indicates that the motive profile developed to fit the ideal manager actually better fits the executive women participants in his study. This profile included high need for power, low need for affiliation, and moderately high need for achievement. Chusmir states that the women managers in his study bear no resemblance to the "feminine" stereotypical motivational mold traditionally assumed by many organizations.

As Korabik (1990) adeptly points out, one major problem with the sex-differences perspective is that it often rests on the mistaken assumption that biological sex is equivalent to psychological sex-role. Riger and Galligan (1980) propose the idea that the sex differences framework is built upon the premise that socialization processes have determined behavior patterns of women that are antithetic to the managerial role ascribed to by our society at present. However, many researchers have failed to differentiate between biological sex and sex-role socialization in their research designs. This has led to

many inaccurate results and a perpetuation of the female stereotype.

Assumed differences between the sexes may of course be very dangerous in that they can lead to the creation of such differences through a self-fulfilling prophecy or may lead to the magnification of differences that may otherwise be inconsequential. Sex-role socialization leads to the development of a sex-role identity which is defined as an individual's self-concept of being masculine and/or feminine. (Storms, 1979)

Because a major obstacle to the career advancement of women may be a stereotype depicting women's lack of dedication and commitment to professional careers, Rynes and Rosen (1983) pursued a study comparing male and female reactions to career advancement. Although Horner (1969) speculated that women have a tendency to avoid success, and Manhardt (1972) found males had a tendency to place greater emphasis on long-range career objectives, Rynes and Rosen's results showed no differences in male and female attitudes toward career advancement.

This major investigation revealed male and female participants to have almost identical attitudes toward the importance of changes necessary to further their professional careers. As cited in Rynes and Rosen (1983), this result added validity to similar findings by Niece and Bradley (1979), Hecklinger (1972), Harren and Kas (1977),

Rosen, Templeton, and Kichline (1981). In turn, these results represent a pattern that challenges sex-difference assumptions regarding organizational commitment, dedication, and willingness to invest in the costs associated with career advancement.

Assumptions regarding potential sex differences and organizational commitment were also challenged in Bruning and Snyder's (1981) study which empirically examined the extent of sex differences and position differences in organization commitment for a large, heterogeneous sample of public sector employed men and women. They too concluded that sex differences may not be as pervasive as much of the organizational literature suggests. The results of their study did not support the hypothesis that sex differences in organizational commitment or related factors are universal. Bruning and Snyder (1983) argue that sex differences in commitment may not occur in every organization and therefore, managers should not make assumptions regarding their existence. Consequently, the existence of any such sex differences should indeed be verified before the initiation of any programs based on differential treatment of the sexes (i.e. management training).

In a convincing American Management Association (AMA) study (1985) conducted to discover further information on the relative degrees of career commitment of female and

male managers, indices of career importance were measured against the degree of commitment to family/home life. Controlling for the effects of demographic variables including age, salary, education, and level of managerial position, the study sought to determine whether the similarities in the values of male and female managers regarding career commitment are greater than the differences, and whether any differences that do exist reflect sex role stereotypes.

The study included an extensive survey mailed to a random sample of approximately six thousand AMA members (about ten percent were female). Using matched pairs for analysis, results showed significant differences between males and females; and insinuated greater career commitment in _females_. Women were surprisingly more likely than men to report that they gain more satisfaction in life from careers than from their home life or other interests, and tended to place more emphasis on success in their jobs even at the expense of personal sacrifice than men. Also, men reported less willingness than women to work long hours, and the sexes did not differ significantly in their assessment of the extent of the need to compromise their personal values in conformance to organizational expectations. The study found that women's work habits and personal work values were actually more congruent with

organizational preference. (Powell, Posner, and Schmidt, 1985)

Chusmir (1986) further researched the issue of gender differences in variables affecting the commitment among working men and women, and concluded that "an individual's sex does not appear to have any effect on job commitment (Hall and Rabinowitz, 1977) or on any of the other variables studied in the research. (Chusmir, 1982) On the other hand, being female does subject working women to environmental pressures not often placed on men. Most differences are probably attributable to a person's occupational level or other situational variables and, therefore, have nothing to do with his or her sex." (Chusmir, 1986, p. 92)

The individual or person-centered approach points to "differences" of women workers as a cause of their concentration in the lower rungs of the hierarchical corporate ladder. Many of the analyses within this paradigm are criticized as having a "blame-the-victim" mentality suggesting that women's plight in higher level managerial positions is due to their failings or shortcomings resulting from biological sex, upbringing, socialization, or personal qualities, styles, and traits. Many research studies cited have challenged this reductionist, often misleading approach. A preponderance of the research evidence indicates that any significant

differences between male and female managers regarding
leadership, performance, efficiency, etc. are not gender-
based, but rather related to job status and employment
factors, demographic profiles, and attitudes toward female
managers as compared to males. (Davidson and Cooper in
Barnett, 1987)

2.4.2 The Organization-Structure View (Also referred to as the organization-centered or situation-centered view)

The organization-structure or organization-centered
view is a systems theory or structural perspective
regarding the issue of women and management. This paradigm
explains women's limited progression up the corporate
ladder through an emphasis on the organizational structure
within which women work. (Kanter, 1977; Riger and Galligan,
1980) This approach focuses on the effect of
organizational hierarchies on the attitudes and behaviors
of women in management. Fagensen (1986) cites Argyris
(1957), Merton (1968), Smith (1901), and Tannebaum et al
(1974), in explaining the organization-centered view as one
that advocates that individuals' places in the
organizational structure shape and define their behaviors
and consequently, destinies. Fagensen (1986, p. 75)
further substantiates the viewpoint by quoting Karl Marx,
"It is not the consciousness of men that determines their
existence, but on the contrary, their social existence
determines their consciousness."

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Kanter (1977) is the most notable proponent of this particular analytical lens. In her attempts to discover the overarching dimensions of the person-organization fit, Kanter develops a comprehensive and integrated theory that builds upon an understanding of how organizational structures impact upon the people in them, and how those individuals, in turn, come to reflect their situation in their behavior. She believes that a piecemeal analysis of the web of connections among persons and organizations is inadequate in analyzing the behaviors of individuals in an organizational setting; she favors a structural theory that takes the whole system into consideration because, in her view, it is the larger work setting that determines an individual's course of action in a work environment. (Kanter, 1977; Kohn and Schooler, 1973)

Kanter's attention to organizational structures and how they relate to cycles of opportunity and power is antithetical to the individual model of analysis. Her contention is that the individual perspective, whether one tends toward a biological or social underpinning, leads to the assumption that inequities at work are the result of individual shortcomings. This allows organizations an out in explaining the slow pace of change. Whereas, the structural model proposes that gender differences in work behavior are often functions of structural conditions and

thus the organization has a major share of responsibility

in explaining women managers' lack of progress.

Kanter, cited in Barnett (1987, p. 257), concludes:

> "observed differences in the behavior and the
> success- of women and men had more to do with
> what they were handed by the organization than
> with inherent differences in ability or drive.
> When men and women were dealt similar cards and
> similar places in the corporate game, they
> behaved in similar ways. The problem was that
> men and women rarely were dealt similar cards."

Kanter (1977), purports that it is women's place in

organizational structures, women's access to power, and

women's numerical distribution within organizations that

are the critical variables necessary to the analysis of

women's lack of representation at the top of the corporate

ladder. According to Kanter, it is more likely that an

individual's job position, not an individual's sex,

determines the individual's characteristics within an

organizational setting. She states (1975, p. 422) "there

is no research evidence that yet proves a case for sex

differences in either leadership aptitude or style."

In a 1978 study, Bartol examined the sex structuring

of organizations and concluded that "it seems unlikely that

differential behaviors or job outcomes associated with

female leaders can account for significant amounts of the

sex structuring of organizations." (p. 808) She cites

additional comparative data from studies of leaders

analyzing an array of variables (importance attached to job

outcomes, motive to avoid success, motivation to manage

relationship between life and job satisfaction, and role conflict and role ambiguity of subordinates) and reports a collaboration of the no difference trend. In her opinion, it is necessary to transcend the notion of sex differences in leadership and begin to look at the sex structuring phenomenon in more structural terms.

More specifically, Kanter (1977), proposes two types of job positions within an organizational structure: advantageous and disadvantageous. Advantageous positions offer opportunity and power and are mostly held by individuals who comprise a social majority (men). This position in the organizational structure sets one up for a cycle of opportunity and power that catalyzes rapid advancement. For example, individuals selected as "stars" in an organization will, according to Kanter, be more likely to develop a stronger sense of organizational commitment, a stronger responsibility/ownership for their own performance, an increased desire to take risks, and a heightened willingness to share leadership functions. In this view, advantaged positions lead to behaviors reflective of the increase of opportunity and power.

Since women are not generally afforded this type of position within the hierarchy, they are over-represented in limited advancement slots which also affect an individual's attitudes and behaviors, but in a less positive manner. Kanter explains that conversely, individuals placed in

lower level, disadvantageous positions tend to develop attitudes and behaviors that reflect and justify their placement in these limited advancement slots. Lower levels of power and influence, and less satisfying jobs tend to result in lower levels of commitment, more territorial instincts regarding the limited leadership possessed, less responsibility/ownership of performance, less willingness to take risk, etc.

Therefore, according to Kanter (1977), the stereotype of women as being higher in possession of "feminine" traits, lower in levels of organizational commitment, lower in power aspirations, lower in concern for their careers versus family life, lower in risk-taking, lower in willingness to share leadership, etc. is more a result of women's disadvantaged positions in organizational structure than of their gender.

A closer structural analysis of women and organizational commitment reveals that sex-role stereotypes cannot be relied on as valid assumptions. As Powell, Posner, and Schmidt (1985) remark: "Women managers already are acting contrary to their early socialization experiences by holding full-time jobs of high responsibility. Their values regarding their managerial careers may be in similar disagreement with sex-role stereotypes." (p.44)

Another variable, career expectations, is often cited as a sex-differentiated one within the individual-perspective realm. An examination of this variable also concludes in some cloudy results. Is it different career expectations or different reward systems and structural issues that are leading to women's lack of advancement up the corporate ladder? Cause and effect are far from easily determined. The web of connections Kanter (1977) views as more important to analysis of the situation becomes more salient as a venue for study.

Kanter's structuralist perspective is an indication that gender differences in the work place could in reality be power differences; power differences that are embedded in the structure of an organization which constrain the selection of influence strategies available to women by segregating them in low power positions. Structuralists contend that position in the organizational hierarchy is the most important source of power for organizational members. If organizational structure is the root of power inequities between men and women, then many of the individual sex-related traits that bear upon the career success and productivity of women could stem from women's most likely place in the organizational hierarchy: a low-level position. Does gender in fact mask the more salient variable, position power?

Kanter purports that power overshadows sex as a variable in analyzing organizational behavior, and thus males put in the same organizational positions as those traditionally held by women, will tend to exhibit the same "feminine" traits and power/influence strategies and vice versa. Advocates of this perspective argue that possible differences in the exercise of power/influence strategies of men and women should be viewed as a result of structural inequities and not a cause.

Even though women have made some progress, as a group they continue to be ghettoized in positions with little power and authority as compared to men. (Wolf and Fligstein, 1979) Even in the sectors of the labor force where women have historically predominated (teaching, nursing, social work), they are not represented as well as expected in the managerial positions. Matching for educational level and occupational status still leaves women behind in their representation in authority positions. (Wolf and Fligstein)

Kanter's 1977 study brought forth field evidence supporting the hypothesis that women tend to hold jobs with relatively less access to communication/information channels, fewer resources, and a lower level of support. These lower-status jobs have less opportunity for advancement and less chance to influence. Many such as Smith and Grenier (1982) argue that women have been unable

to penetrate the boundaries that maintain control over resources which is an essential feature of power in organizations. Women have not acquired status and influence comparable to that of their male counterparts in organizational management. (Stewart and Gudykunst, 1982) It is not merely this inability to gain access and resulting position in the cycle of powerlessness that leads structuralist theorists to their conclusions regarding women's lack of progress; many suggest that it is this lack of access coupled with women's treatment in organizations that has led to the perpetuation of female structural segregation. (Terborg, 1977; Bartol, 1978)

Is it the behaviors and policies of employers that restrict females from attaining positions of authority? Employers' hiring and promotional policies and practices are indeed influenced by their attitudes concerning women's ability to perform in positions of authority. These employer attitudes are shaped by women's societal roles as well as by women's actual behaviors. (Wolf and Fligstein, 1979)

Even though the traditional views of women's roles have changed dramatically over the past twenty years, employer attitudes often lag behind. Wolf and Fligstein (1979) in their study of the causes of sexual inequality in the workplace, conclude that the behaviors and policies of employers are much more important in the restriction of

females from positions of power/authority than women's individual qualifications or women's own attitudes and behaviors.

The differential allocation of organizational rewards including salary, benefits, and promotion on the basis of gender is at the heart of employment practices that discriminate. (Riger and Galligan, 1980) Several studies lend validity to the existence of sex discrimination in organizational settings. Hiring decisions are made with women at a disadvantage according to Cohen and Bunker (1975) and Diboye, Arvey, and Terpstra (1977), (in Heilman, 1980), promotions are implemented with a sex bias in operation (Rosen and Jerdee, 1971), and salaries are determined with women in the same disadvantaged place. (Terborg and Ilgen, 1979) Cultural stereotypes act to limit career opportunities by defining women's roles in terms that are incongruent with the skills and attributes considered necessary for managerial jobs. (Heilman, 1980)

There is significant evidence that a cultural attitude exists that views men as better leaders. This attitude has not changed in proportion with women's progress over the past several decades as evinced in a 1985 Harvard Business Review study reported in Sutton and Moore (1985). The study repeated a survey originally done in 1965 to compare attitudes about women and business for the two eras. The questionnaire was distributed to 1900 male and 1985 female

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executives and remains one of the most extensive studies on attitudes toward female executives to be published. The survey concluded that although male executives' attitudes have changed significantly in twenty years, women still report a male-resistance to their progress in business.

One significant finding of the study was that some attitudes are changing, and the biggest change in perception is in men's view of women's desire to move up the corporate ladder. In 1965, half of the men and women surveyed agreed that women rarely expect or want positions of authority as compared to only nine percent of the men and four percent of the women surveyed 20 years later. But, although statistics suggest that in 1985 men are far more willing to accept women as colleagues and competent equals, the study disturbingly revealed that more than 50% still do not think women will ever be totally accepted in the business world.

The study also concluded that the majority of men and well over 75% of women continue to think that a woman must be "exceptional" to make it in the business world. This implies that those deciding who gets promoted feel that a woman must be "exceptional" to succeed. (Sutton and Moore, 1985) When asked if the successful female manager has to be "like a man", 78% of the men disagreed in 1985 as compared to 52% in 1965; 77% of the women disagreed in 1985 as compared to 75% in 1965. (Sutton and Moore, 1985)

Most importantly, the study further revealed that four out of five respondents still think that men would not feel comfortable working for a woman, and 50% of the men surveyed reported that they themselves would not feel comfortable working for a woman.

> "These are the opinions of today's corporate decision-makers who will decide who moves up the corporate ladder and who stays on the bottom rungs. Fearing the unknown, they may be unwilling to try a woman in a supervisory position. They may be even less willing to promote a woman into less than traditional roles where resistance is likely to be great." (Sutton and Moore, 1985, p. 66)

These findings could be explained through abstract notions of sex discrimination, but according to Kanter (1976) that is too easy. She again invokes a structural explanation to account for a preference for male leaders; a structural analysis that focuses on the current distribution of men and women in the power structure of organizations.

Kanter (1976) claims that there are structurally-rooted reasons why male leaders are often preferred in work situations by both men and women. She makes the case that advantageous positioning in the organization results in leaders with favorable mobility prospects. Consequently, leaders with resources, power and influence, and favorable mobility prospects are more likely to work to please subordinates than leaders who are in disadvantageous positions.

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This structure, specifically hierarchy, sets up a complex interaction between leader power, leader behavior, and subordinate perception. (Kanter, 1976) Individuals with an advantageous position in the organizational structure (mostly men) are likely to be more interested in pleasing subordinates, in paying more attention to those with upward mobility potential, and in networking to increase organizational power. Such leaders tend to be less rigid, directive, and authoritarian than those who themselves feel stuck in positions of powerlessness. (Hetzler, 1955) Subordinates generally tend to view these supervisors/managers, again predominantly male, as helping, supportive, and interested in opening opportunities for all. This structural viewpoint can thus explain men and women's seeming preference for male supervisors.

Levenson (1961) suggests that promotability itself influences leadership style and subordinate attitudes and perceptions. Those supervisors who are more promotable tend to be more likely to use a participatory style with more sharing of information, delegating, training, and freedom or autonomy for subordinates. This makes sense as a rationale for style choices if the leader wants to create the impression that his promotion will not leave a problem vacancy. Conversely, unpromotable leaders tend to be more territorial, controlling, and restricting of opportunities for their subordinates. This seems a sensible strategy if

one feels limited in one's chances for mobility and views subordinates as a threat.

A less favorable position in the power structure therefore can to leadership styles that are offensive to subordinates; styles that are controlling, restricting, and in actuality, punitive. According to Kanter (1976, 1977), under these circumstances, men as well as women will begin to use supervisory styles that are characteristic of the negatively stereotyped "woman boss".

Hetzler (1955) substantiates this viewpoint. In his attitude survey of male Air Force officers, he found that leaders of lower status and mobility used more directive, rigid, authoritarian techniques. Goodstadt and Kipnis (1970) also reported that individuals who feel relatively powerless tend to favor coercive versus persuasive power.

Again, those in advantageous positions within the organization's power structure are more likely to use more effective leadership styles, be perceived by their subordinates in a more positive light, and as a result, increase their own power and advantage. Therefore, the perception of women leaders who are most likely to have unfavorable positions in the power structure despite their authority is more than a case of sex discrimination. It is clearly also an example of how a general organizational structure and process can affect men and women in a corporate environment. (Kanter, 1976)

In an examination of organizational structural issues regarding women's advancement in hierarchical organizations, Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) cite Offe's (1976) thesis of the criterion of performance. He challenges the notion of the criterion of job performance that dominates in the industrialized western world. This criterion is based on the achievement principle which infers an objective, neutral, unbiased method of evaluation. Offe questions the possibility of such an evaluation of job performance in the complex, hierarchical structures of our organizations today. He claims that since performance is incapable of a totally objective evaluation, it is often evaluated on the basis of normative criteria. Such criteria include considerations that are irrelevant to job performance such as gender, age, marital status, social class, physical appearance, ethnicity, etc. These normative criteria seem to stack up against women in terms of advancement opportunity because female managers appear to violate the normative model of the "good executive" which is a "white male model". (Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto, 1983)

Objective qualifications are not sufficient grounds for women to advance in hierarchical organizations. The reliance on additional normative standards suggests that advancement in organizational hierarchies is subjective and political in nature. Mintzberg (1983) concluded that the

work of managers is full of uncertainty and difficult to define because the consequences of actions at that level are hard to track. As a result of this indeterminate nature of the job, it is difficult to establish cause and effect relationships between objective job requirements and successful performance.

This uncertainty is often dealt with through promotional practices that are based on managers' propensity to select successors most like themselves. Choosing managers that share similar backgrounds, lifestyles, and policies helps those in power to cope with the uncertainty of high level managerial positions by gaining trust in the most expedient manner, through social similarity. (Kanter, 1977; Hennig and Jardim, 1976; Jackall, 1988) This system of "homosexual reproduction" (Kanter, 1977) in which men hire in their own image, is surely of great consequence to women. This structural system of "mirroring" (Hennig and Jardim, 1976) dominates as a factor in the selection of trusted managers and leads to the evolution of socially closed managerial circles which are often almost impossible for women to permeate. (Kanter, 1977)

In addition to opportunity and power issues as they relate to organizational structures, Kanter (1977) stresses a third variable as crucial to the analysis of women's lack of representation in the highest managerial positions:

women's numerical distribution. She proposes that this numerical distribution of men and women at the upper reaches creates a significantly different interaction context for women than for men.

Kanter (1977, p. 248-249) hypothesizes that individuals who are represented in very small proportion tend to: be more visible, feel more pressure to conform, make fewer mistakes, try to become "socially invisible", find it more difficult to gain credibility, be more isolated and peripheral, be more likely to be excluded from informal networks, have fewer opportunities for sponsorship/mentorship, face misperceptions of their identity/role in the organization, be stereotyped, and finally face more personal stress.

Contrarily, people who are represented in high proportions tend to: fit in easily, be preferred for high-communication managerial jobs, find gaining credibility easier, be more likely to join the informal network, be more likely to be sponsored/mentored, be accurately perceived and have a congruent identity, and consequently, face less personal stress. (Kanter, 1977, p. 249)

The proportional rarity of women in higher level managerial positions transforms their social interaction patterns in organizations and results in 1.) higher visibility, 2.) exaggeration of differences, and 3.) a tendency to use stereotypes. (Kanter, 1977) Tokens,

defined as the few in a skewed group, become symbols of a

wider category and perform their jobs under symbolic

conditions that differ from those of the dominants.

Kanter (1977) goes on to explain the response patterns

of tokens to these three phenomena:

> 1.) Higher visibility can clearly cause negative
> implications for women in managerial positions. Upper
> level females often become public creatures; their
> mistakes are readily known and the pressure they feel
> as a representative of a category can be extremely
> unfair. Performance pressure, fear of retaliation
> based on high visibility and a focus on non-ability
> traits are all resulting social situations that women
> must face in "token situations". These environmental
> characteristics can lead to "token responses"
> including over-achievement or social invisibility.

> 2.) The exaggeration of the token's differences
> from the dominants can lead to an over-emphasizing of
> the cultural elements shared by the majority, an
> uncomfortable setting for the subordinate and a
> heightened expectation of the dominant of loyalty from
> the subordinate group member. These elements of a
> setting can lead to "token responses" including an
> acceptance of isolation as the "different member", or
> an overt effort to become an insider by proving
> loyalty, defining oneself as an exception, and in fact
> turning against one's social category.

> 3.) Lastly, stereotyping also sets up a unique
> dynamic for women. As a result, they become
> encapsulated in limited roles based on stereotypical
> assumptions, and are treated as a function of
> "statistical discrimination", as though each
> individual resembles women on the average. Women
> become the victims of "status leveling" or making
> adjustments in a token's professional role so it will
> fit with the expectant position of the token's
> category. These dynamics lead tokens to a variety of
> responses that may tend to be conservative and low-
> risk because it is easier to minimize change by opting
> for already established relationships than to try to
> correct mistaken impressions through stranger-contact.
> It is often easier for a token to accept stereotyped
> roles than to fight them which can be self-
> perpetuating. (p. 206-242)

Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1986) pick up on Kanter's theme of relative numbers in the organization and their structural effect on individual women's behavior in their major study, The Executive Woman Project. They found that high-level women are often motivated by an imperative to avoid failure at all costs and in turn miss out in the importance of risk-taking to managerial success. Their theory is that the exceeding visibility of women in top level positions due to their low numbers (the "glass house effect") allows them little room for error without jeopardizing their own future or the opportunities afforded other females in the corporation whom they tend to affect as representatives of the female gender in general.

Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1986) reported that although 75% of the 26 prominent and successful females interviewed from 25 of the nation's largest corporations reported at least one significant setback in their career as a result of a failure they were able to live down, they still reported high levels of fear of failure and felt they could have taken more chances and made more mistakes had they been men.

Fearing risk clearly affected the managerial potential of these women as they describe it, and the "glass house dilemma" exerted tremendous pressures on them as they reported over and over in their in-depth interviews. As Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1986) concluded, the

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visibility burden can indeed lead to low-risk behaviors in women because they are so often structurally placed in this position. This ultra-conservatism often, in turn, results in the loss of opportunities for success and increased professional growth; another vicious cycle of self-fulfilling prophecy.

The relative numbers of women is also relevant when examining the applicant pool as it relates to hiring discrimination. It is clear that stereotypes limit the career opportunities of women, but changing stereotypes is no simple task. However, it is possible to alter the situational factors that have an impact on whether a woman candidate is viewed in terms of the subgroup women with all the attached stereotypes, or as an individual in her own right. One such situational factor capable of alteration is the proportional representation of women in the applicant pool.

Heilman (1980) hypothesized that the increased number of women compared to men in the applicant pool could minimize the detrimental use of sex stereotypes and thus reduce discrimination in personnel hiring decisions. The findings of her study did support this hypothesis, and therefore fortify the notion that sex discrimination in hiring can be influenced by organization structure factors. As Heilman emphasizes, these findings lend credence to the idea that work environments can be structured in a way that

limits the discriminatory consequences of sex stereotypes. The study showed that women in token positions within the applicant pool were seen as more stereotypically feminine than those who were not. Therefore, increasing the proportion of women decreased the saliency of sex as a characteristic and ameliorated the degree to which sex stereotypes were brought into play in hiring decisions.

Heilman (1980) is careful to point out that this does not suggest the artificial manipulating of applicant pools, but rather points to other means of making a women's sex a nonsalient attribute in the selection process; for instance, by making information other than sex more specific and available in the case of a female job applicant.

In a study published in 1986, Fagenson conducted research to test the competing predictions of the individual- and organization-centered theories. She compared the work orientations of women in high, moderate, and low-powered positions in many industries. The variables studied included organization commitment, importance of extrinsic versus intrinsic job components, importance of personal life/family over career, internal and external attributes for managerial performance, power aspiration level, job satisfaction, and leadership style.

Overall, the results of the study significantly supported the organization-centered perspective and lent no

support to the individual-centered view. Women in upper level corporate positions for the most part possessed the traditionally male-linked orientations, while the opposite was true for the lower-management women.

This particular study's findings led to the question of whether the attitudes of the high-level women were acquired early on in their lives, or whether they were shaped by their organizational position. Fagenson (1986) suggests that a "position shaping" process was evidenced by the nature of the middle-level managers' orientations. Their attitudes and orientations were sometimes more congruous with the high-level managers' than the low-level women's. This suggests, according to Fagenson, that their attitudes were in transition; hypothetically moving away from the orientations of the lower-level women toward those of the higher-level women.

This study was significant in that it found that high-level women possessed the same attitudes and orientations that in the past have been exclusively ascribed to men. The women with the more stereotypically classified "feminine" work orientations were generally located at the lower-level corporate rungs.

The organization-centered approach is convincingly supported by some research, but many studies in this realm are subject to methodological problems or have failed to separate job-related, gender-related, and joint

explanations for the differences in work-related responses and behaviors. The findings of the research within this purview have, however, seriously challenged most of the tenets of the individual-centered perspective.

2.4.3 <u>The Gender-Organization-System and Gender-Organization Views</u>

The gender-organization-system view is an approach that stresses the interaction of organization structure variables and gender variables in the formula leading to work behavior. This paradigm suggests that women's behavior and limited progression up the corporate ladder could be due to gender <u>and/or</u> the structure of the organization <u>and/or</u> the wider social/institutional system within which the individual and the organization function. (Fagenson, 1990)

This framework is not a totally new concept, but rather a concept that expands upon the two views previously outlined by suggesting the interaction of variables and joint affects on outcomes. It argues that women's organizational behavior is not an either-or result; it is not caused by gender or organizational structure. But rather, contends that both the structure of the organization <u>and</u> the gender of the individual can be causal factors shaping and defining women's behavior in the work environment. (Fagenson, 1990; Fagenson and Horowitz, 1985)

This framework broadens the structural viewpoint by suggesting the organizational concept, an expanded notion of structure, is relevant to the cycles of power and opportunity that shape women's corporate behaviors. (Fagenson, 1990) This larger, more encompassing organizational context includes such variables as corporate culture, history, ideology, policies, etc, (Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto, 1983) as well as the traditional notion of structure.

Lastly, according to Fagenson (1990), there is a third factor that influences women's behavior and their ability to attain the upper level jobs in organizations: the social and institutional systems that surround the organizations. Fagenson (1990, p. 211) cites Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) in proposing that it is societies' cultural values, histories, societal and institutional practices, ideologies, expectations and stereotypes regarding appropriate roles and behaviors for men and women that affect the internal structures and processes of organizations.

More specifically, Fagenson points to affirmative action and maternity laws and how they can affect women's treatment in an organization. She also notes that women's lower ascribed status in society and their tendency to receive less compensation than men due to their over-representation in the service sector as compared to

manufacturing, can affect women's treatment in organizations and in turn the attitudes, behaviors, and cognitions women develop as they experience organizational life.

This explanation for women's limited advancement in the corporate game is an interactionist approach because it proposes that there is a continuous feedback between individual characteristics, work structure, and the social-institutional setting in general that affects behavior in organizations. (Terborg, 1981; Martin et al, 1983) In this type of interactive process, the individual is being affected by situations/structures and social systems, and at the same time affecting them. (Terborg, 1981)

As reported by Yammarino and Dubinsky (1988), some recent research has concluded that labeling this approach "interactionist" is inappropriate because this perspective is not developed to the point where continuous and reciprocal influences between persons and structures over time have been defined. A connection between processes that link particular personal attributes and structural attributes to particular empirical behaviors and attitudes has not been specified to date. (Schneider, 1983)

Therefore, some academicians in the field are opting for a less ambitious, non-additive joint effects model which suggests that the differences in employers' organizational behaviors and attitudes can be understood by

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jointly taking into account the individuals' gender and structural setting in an non-additive fashion. In theoretical framework terms, it has been tagged the gender-organization perspective. This model suggests independent linear contributions of sex and position to individuals' organizational behaviors which is quite different from the non-independent, nonlinear, multiplicative relationships that the interactionist view purports.

In their recent study, Yammarino and Dubinsky (1988) tested the joint, non-additive approach in an attempt to determine which variables influence whether employee responses are gender-related, situation-related, or jointly gender- and job-related. After controlling for age, education, job tenure effects, etc., Yammarino and Dubinsky (1988) found that differences in employee responses regarding job attributes and commitment were better explained by the organization-structure or situation-centered perspective. The effect of the situation seemed stronger than the effect of gender in their multivariate analysis of variables. All three of the perspectives got some support from the findings, but the results showed the strongest support for the organization-structure theoretical view.

Fagenson (1990) used all of the theoretical perspectives (person-centered, organization-centered, gender-organization, and gender-organization-system) in her

study examining perceived masculine and feminine attributes as a function of individual's sex and level in the organizational power hierarchy. The purpose of the investigation was to determine which variables have an impact on an individuals' perception of what they possess in terms of "masculine" and "feminine" characteristics. The variables included sex, level in the organizational power hierarchy, and a combination of both, and were examined within each of the theoretical perspectives.

As Fagenson (1990) points out, the study examined the predictions of each of the theoretical frameworks concurrently, and thus provided a rigorous test of the explanatory power of each. Testing the views simultaneously as compared to "in isolation" allowed for stronger inferences as noted by Yammarino and Dubinsky (1988) in their study of competing explanations of attitudes related to work issues.

Four hypotheses (she separated gender-organization and gender-organization-system) were tested by Fagenson representing each of the theoretical perspectives. Men and women located in upper and lower level organizational positions were surveyed regarding their possession of attributes considered typical of men and women. Spence and Helmreich's (1978) Personal Attributes Questionnaire was utilized to collect the relevant data. Then, Fagenson analyzed the extent to which an individual's sex,

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organizational level, and the interaction of both were influential in their perception of their possession of these male/female attributes.

Fagenson's study concluded that perceived power did vary as a function of an individual's position in the organizational power hierarchy. This finding supported the organization-structure view. Also, women were found to report possessing significantly more feminine attributes than their male counterparts. This finding supported the individual-centered perspective. There was no support found for the gender-organization or gender-organization-system views, suggesting that their explanatory power may be more limited than suspected. There has, however, been support for the gender-organization and gender-organization-systems theories in other investigations including the work of Yammarino and Dubinsky (1988) and Brenner and Greenhaus (1979).

Fagenson (1990) suggests that it is intriguing that her study found that men and women within the organization's upper echelons appear to perceive themselves similarly when measuring their own level of masculine attributes. This supports the notion that women at the top levels view themselves as possessing the masculine profile traditionally accepted as successful in managerial ideology. (Brenner et al, 1989; Massengill and DiMarco, 1979; Schein, 1973, 1975; Steinberg and Shapiro, 1982)

This finding could lead one to conclude that these so-called "masculine" qualities could indeed be renamed "upper-level" attributes. (Fagenson, 1990)

Fagenson's (1990) recent work leads us to two pressing questions in the field of Women in Management:

1.) "Why is the perception of masculine characteristics related to individuals' positions in organizational power hierarchies, and

2.) why is the perception of femininity gender-related?" (Fagenson, 1990, p. 209)

Also, when women are found who have reached senior management positions in organizations, we must ask why? Is it due to their personal characteristics or to the characteristics of the organization in which they work? And how do we separate the two variables? (Cullen, 1990)

Both Yammarino and Dubinsky's (1988) and Fagenson's (1990) studies forged new ground in the field of Women in Management research. They analyzed data by examining the effects of competing theoretical frameworks using multivariate procedures. They controlled for the effects of other variables and assessed the magnitudes of effects which allowed for the drawing of stronger inferences and conclusions. Both studies interestingly note that the work-related similarities of men and women may be more substantial and frequent than any assumed and often exaggerated differences. They both used research strategies that emanated from epistemologies that stress

complex realities with complicated webs of mutual causality.

2.5 Implications for Organization Development

Given the feminist movement roots of Women in Management as a research field, Sekaran (1990) concludes that it is appropriate to consider the desire to bring about changes in organizations as the ultimate overarching goal of the research findings. According to Thomas and Tymon (1982), there are specific areas in which research efforts can result in the development of useful practical information for practitioner use. These include: studying variables that are relevant to catalyzing change in organizations, choosing topics that are priority concerns of practitioners, researching variables that have the potential for change by practitioners, and conducting research in a timely manner conducive to well-timed application. The probability of Women in Management research being applied to organizational change was greatly enhanced by the EEO legislation of 1972 which advanced the recruitment and promotion of women in organizations by law.

Whether one adheres to the individual-centered, organization-centered, or gender-organization-system approach, the implications for organization development and/or personal action varies accordingly. The research

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findings within each of these purviews call for widely divergent strategies.

The person-centered based research tends to call for personal growth strategies including training and skill development for women, while the organization-centered based research suggests changes in the structures of organizations, including practices, policies, social composition, etc. The gender-organization-system based research is still in the infancy stage, but clearly would tend to suggest strategies that overlap both of the other spheres and include additional broad-based social action plans at the societal and institutional levels.

The personal growth strategies resulting from gender-centered research tend to concentrate on the development of skills that will enhance women's ability to handle managerial work. Therefore, in recent history, they have concentrated on helping women to develop "masculine" behavior patterns that will make her more adaptable to the "male model" of organizational behavior; the model that tends to continue to prevail in today's corporate environment. Even though the efficacy of the traditional "male model" in organizational functioning has been questioned in this ever-changing global economy and information age, women are still being trained to develop those "masculine" characteristics as a strategy toward increased participation in managerial roles.

Obviously, these individual-centered strategies come into question if one espouses an organization-centered philosophy and/or if one questions the "male model" of manager as the ultimate in every corporate environment. Women can acquire all the education, technical skills, and management skills conceivable, and still be stymied by organization practices, policies, and disadvantageous positioning. Skill attainment cannot necessarily change the male attitudes women continue to face in token situations or help women break through structural barriers. This is not to say that individual-centered strategies are not effective, but rather to warn against using such a theory-based strategy without considering the others: organization structure and gender-organization-system. Clearly, individual-centered strategies have their limits.

Organization structure research suggests more structural approaches to increasing the representation of females in upper level management positions. These strategies center on decision-making practices and policies regarding hiring, promotion, changing the distribution of opportunities and power, eliminating the token status of women, and reducing the prevalence and influence of stereotyped thinking as it relates to organizational practices. Building reward and punishment systems that promote women's entry into management pipelines is a

strongly supported organizational development strategy within this realm.

However, as Riger and Galligan stated in 1980, even organizational structure based strategies do not address the deeper-seated fundamental issues of Women in Management; they do not address fundamental questions regarding the interaction between the work setting and the individuals within them. As Kanter (1977) describes it:

> "Organizational reform is not enough. It is also important to move beyond the issues of whether or not certain individuals get their share to questions of how shares are determined in the first place - how labor is divided and how power is concentrated." (p. 285)

Holistic strategies for improving women's upward movement in organizations cannot be developed until all of the interacting pieces are examined and all of the contingencies are represented in the theoretical research base determining practices for improvement. Back in 1980, Riger and Galligan called for further research considering the interaction of individual-centered and organization-centered variables. They saw the need for an examination of personal characteristics, job characteristics, organizational structure, and outside societal and institutional variables in uncovering a complete explanation of women's underrepresentation in powerful managerial positions. Fifteen years later, this research is still very limited. Furthermore, strategies developed toward the goal of women getting their share of

organizational positions of power may mean little in terms of progress if the negative aspects of a masculine organizational system remain intact. (Kanter, 1977; Riger and Galligan, 1980)

Baron and Bielby (1980) examine interoccupational sex segregation and conclude that prescriptions for organizational change will not have significant effects unless they attend to systems of stratification within and between firms. Again a wider systems approach is advocated for with consideration of the effects of the market environment. According to Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) citing Gould (1979), organizational change efforts relative to women in leadership roles will result in erroneous analyses of the problem and minimally effective "solutions" unless the "whole" environment is considered in the examination of the issue.

Baron and Bielby (1980) challenge the notion of an answer for inequities in organizations based solely on individual initiative whether on the part of managerial women or organization development consultants. They, too, stress the need for delving to the root of the problem by considering systemic societal and institutional processes that reproduce occupational sex segregation and are perpetuated and supported by the resulting structural constraints. They along with Clegg and Dunkerly (1979) and Miller, Lincoln, and Olson (1981), (in Martin, Harrison,

and Dinitto (1983), espouse the theory that work organizations are social contexts, microcosms, within which societal views, attitudes, and inequities are enacted, re-enacted, constituted, and reconstituted.

The influences of societal level factors (cultural values, expectations, and stereotypes) on the internal processes and structures of organizations are significant and extensive according to Salaman (1979). (in Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto, 1983) Internal organizational changes that contradict the prevailing values, processes, and structures of the external environment tend to be short-lived as evidenced in the research of Fox (1974), Gould (1979), and Rothschild-Whitt (1979). (in Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto, 1983)

Kanter (1977) does acknowledge the external environment variables impacting organizations (i.e. market environment, unemployment rate, etc.), but argues that empowering women through organization structure changes can occur despite these limitations. According to Blum and Smith (1988, p. 543), such a strategy for change "...assumes capitalist relations of the firm's environment rather than examining the connection between capitalism and corporate structures." How can true empowerment occur in a capitalist corporate system where ownership and control are monopolized by the privileged few?

Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) emphasize that women's improved status in hierarchical organizations requires efforts at every level of the social organization: from the individual level to the role level to the organizational, institutional, and societal levels. They argue that strategies aimed at all levels simultaneously are necessary to impact the diverse, highly-interrelated, complex phenomena and problems that face women workers today. They warn against isolated efforts that can be undone by influences exerted at other levels if attention is not paid to all levels at once.

In their analysis of the issue, Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) also conclude that political action against historical and institutionally embedded barriers must take place for change within any realm or level to occur. Elaborate ideological claims supporting women's exclusion and the status quo must be in the forefront of any attempt at organizational change.

And lastly, Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto (1983) stress the need for a change in the sexual division of labor in the domestic sphere before there can be great strides for women in the upper levels of corporate hierarchy. This requires a change in organizational structures to incorporate family as well as a redefinition of occupational roles and responsibilities at home.

Kanter (1986) addresses these same issues of potential organizational change in her examination of the "new workforce", the "new workplace", and the resulting strains and tensions. (The "new workforce" she refers to is the changing workforce which is mostly non-white and/or female, and the "new workplace" which is more participative and entrepreneurial and less bureaucratic to meet the needs of a global economy and fast-paced, information age.) One of the three strains she stresses is the tension between the "new workforce" goal of equal opportunity for women and the time demands of desirable positions within the new workplace. She explains the fear that unless organizations and societal institutions change in profound and fundamental ways, the "new workplace" may actually deter organizations from advancing the opportunities of women in the workplace. This is due to the fact that although the "new workforce" contains more women who are better educated, more skilled, and more career minded, it is these same high-level-position oriented women that are burdened with heavier domestic responsibilities while pushing for career success.

Findings accumulating throughout the research continue to indicate that women still do the bulk of family work. This fact is not congruous with the "new workplace"; a working environment based on greater employee participation, earnings dependent on initiative, and

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increasing work time demands. (Kanter, 1986) "Therefore, we see a conflict between two kinds of change. Equal opportunity opens up hopes of higher positions of women, but new work systems (designed with many of the same liberal goals in mind) may increase the barriers to getting them." (Kanter, 1986, p. 534)

A few years ago there was hope that a possible shift away from old bureaucratic, steeply hierarchical systems of organization would lead to high participation/high involvement that could indeed create more opportunities for women traditionally stuck in the low mobility positions of the former. But, as Kanter (1986) points out citing Rogers and Larson (1984), even in recent data from the progressive Silicon Valley, the representation of women in upper-level managerial positions is scarce. The tension between organizations' increased worker demands and women's high level domestic responsibilities, will only result in more opportunities for women if organizations begin to address work/family issues. Thus, Kanter's suggestions for organizational development strategies center on the reshaping of the time-honored hierarchical organization and the redefining of the work/family connection to organizational life. (Kanter, 1986, p. 535)

Bardwick (1976), along with many other feminist scholars, challenges the real progress of women's attempt to enter the corporate system as it stands and to compete

in a hierarchy by adapting to an organizational model by, of, and for men. She advocates for a more lofty goal: to alter the goals and styles of today's institutions so that they foster the growth and development of individuals, of relationships among people, and of relationships of people and institutions.

These goals do not emulate the traditionally "masculine" notions of rational, scientific, competitive, bureaucratic organizations, but rather forge new paths into traditionally "feminine" notions of empathetic, nurturing, community-oriented, relationship-building, network-organized organizations. Organization development efforts in this realm of thought would again work toward altering organizations altogether not just strategizing to force women to compete in existing structures developed and perpetuated by men.

Blum and Smith (1988) are strong in their questioning of the premise that women's movement into upper level management jobs represents real progress. They feel a concentration on the issue of women's representation in powerful managerial positions tends to undermine the issue of forms of stratification among employed women. Are organizational strategies aimed at moving women up the corporate ladder really only benefiting a small elite segment of working women?

The definition of "progress" in the field of Women in Management is far from universally agreed upon. Wide-ranging goals and philosophies based on divergent theories leads to multi-faceted, conflicting organizational development strategies and thoughts on action toward improving women's status in the organizational environment. Still, many scholars, activists, working women, and organization development practitioners agree that the developmental cycle toward parity in the workplace must begin with sheer numbers of women in powerful positions.

2.6 Research Methodology Issues

According to Sekaran (1990, p. 247), "Every field of research has the potential to go through predictable stages....." As a research endeavor, the field of Women in Management is relatively new compared to other management areas of specialty.

Feminist scholarship and its place in the sociology of knowledge has done much to advance this field over the past couple of decades. As Joyce (1990, p. 411) states, "feminism is about critique, revision, and transformation of the world as we know it. Different questions are being asked, new methods are being developed to create knowledge, new theories are evolving." Feminism has informed much of the work in Women in Management research which has the potential to make a real difference for women in society.

Douvan (1976, p. 385) notes that:

"Other recent analyses have revealed sex to be a variable equivalent to social class in its power to refine our understanding of human experience. By looking at women's experience in detail, revaluing it, and looking at it in relation to male experience, the new research is enlarging our view of reality and creating paradoxes that stretch general theories - - in history, psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and politics."

The sociology of knowledge has been changed dramatically by feminist scholarship which tends to burrow down to the root of the issue of women in management, in work, in society. Feminist scholarship has exposed this truth or reality that society is organized in a manner that leaves women out of the production of knowledge and ideology that is representative of male perspectives, interests, and reality. (Joyce, 1990) Many feminist scholars claim that what is now considered authoritative knowledge has been patriarchically constructed.

One group of feminist scholars referred to by Harding (1986) as the feminist standpoint epistemologists suggest that women's direct experience is the only basis of unbiased knowledge. (Walby, 1990) This viewpoint was originally promulgated via the slogan "the personal is political". (Millett (1977), in Walby (1990))

Feminist standpoint epistemologists argue for the need of a feminist methodology of research that is more in touch with women's experience than the objective, authoritarian "male model" of scientific ways of knowing. Qualitative or

natural inquiry techniques are often considered to be more congruous with the feminist approach to research methodology. This methodology stresses qualitative methods including interviews and case studies introducing women's own stories and experiences into social science research.

However, as Walby (1990) notes, Harding is in the forefront of feminist research and the role of science, and is ambivalent as to the preference of some methods of defining reality and seeking knowledge over others. Harding stresses the significance of the construction of the questions to be asked in research and puts aside some of the methodological issues debated in feminist research study. Research in the study of Women in Management has been as varied as different epistemologies warrant; the preponderance, to date, however, has been in the quantitative realm.

Thus far, causal explanations of women's failure to progress up the corporate ladder have focused mainly on individual-centered and organization-centered factors. Historically, individual-or gender-centered studies preceded organization-or situation-centered research. There is some argument that individualistic approaches, though valuable to a certain extent, have reached their limits (Cullen, 1990) and must be augmented and developed into wider-based perspectives through organization structure and gender-organization-systems research. All of

these approaches have significant implications for the research being implemented and for resulting management education or organization development strategies.

Researchers working from the basic theoretical bent of each one of these frameworks find very different explanations for the same types of worker behaviors. Research with findings pointing to individual-related explanations for managerial success/failure suggest training programs focusing on personal skill development while research with findings supporting structural explanations for managerial success/failure suggest organization development programs that focus on organization structure changes such as affirmative action programs, work/family policy, less hierarchical, more flexible physical structures, etc.

When researchers have difficulty identifying and separating out the individual characteristics and structural factors that serve as barriers to women's promotion, there are serious repercussions in the organization development strategies aimed at increasing women's movement up the corporate ladder. (Grondin, 1990) Misdirected education/training strategies can result in more harm than progress.

As in research in general, the theoretical bent of the researcher affects the nature of the research she engages in. From the choice of the topic to be pursued to the

methodology used to the conclusions drawn, the researcher influences the process. The factors chosen to examine, the methodology used to observe and analyze, and the results and conclusions reached, are all in turn affected by the theoretical rationale of the researcher from the beginning.

Therefore, each of the theoretical frameworks examined in the previous section of this paper carries certain biases in terms of research methodology, results, and conclusions. (Fagenson, 1990) Because the basic underlying tenet of the individual-centered perspective is that males and females are different in work environments, much of the research that has been conducted in the field of Women in Management has revolved around this notion. As Fagenson (1990) points out, the research methodology common to this viewpoint includes sex as the independent variable and measure of behavior, cognition personality, and attitude as the dependent variables. T-tests are typically used to determine whether an individual's gender has an effect on whatever dependent variable is chosen for testing. A significant t-value for the gender variable is interpreted as supportive of the individual-centered view.

Fagenson (1990) discusses the differences in findings within this realm depending on the location of the study. Laboratory studies testing for sex differences have generally yielded gender differences while those in the field have not. (Heilman, 1983; Macoby and Jacklin, 1974;

Riger and Galligan, 1980; Terborg, 1977; and Powell, 1988)

Osborn and Vicars (1976) warn that the lab studies finding

significant differences based on sex under hypothetical,

controlled conditions, need to be interpreted with caution

since the resulting findings and conclusions could be based

on methodological artifacts. However, Schneider (1983)

suggests that field settings are also in danger of being

problematic since extremes are difficult to observe in this

type of setting. He theorizes that the absence of extremes

in the field might actually work against the emergence of

significant sex differences.

   As in all research, caution must be exercised when

concluding cause and effect. The uncovering of gender

differences needs to be interpreted with care because

although a disparity could represent real gender

differences, it could also reflect differences resulting

form other variables that covary with gender and have not

been controlled for in the research design. (Riger and

Galligan, 1980) Fagenson (1990) also cautions that

concluding that sex role socialization is the cause of

gender differences is tempting but dangerous since there is

no empirical evidence as yet to support this causal

sequence.

   The organization-structure paradigm has it own issues

as an underlying theoretical base for explaining women's

limited progress in corporations. Within this realm, the

sex of the subject as well as structural variables generally serve as independent variables, and behavior, cognition, personality, and attitude are measured as dependent variables. Subjects are observed or asked to respond in order to measure the dependent variables. Typically, analyses of variance or regression models are used to examine which independent variable is significant: the individual variable or the structural variable. If the organization structure variable is found to have the "main effect", then the finding is interpreted as being supportive of the organization-structure view. (Fagenson, 1990)

Studies in this realm also have problems. According to Fagenson (1990), they often fail to control for other factors within the organization besides the organization structure variable (i.e. culture, history, etc.). Also, outside factors are typically not considered or controlled for in the studies that fall within this framework (i.e. societal, institutional, etc.).

The most important drawback of the organization-structure approach, according to Fagenson (1990), is that it presupposes the independence of the individual and structural factors. But is it not more likely that people and situations (structures) tend to interact and also affect each other? (Schneider, 1983)

Considering the shortcomings of the research stemming from each of these two perspectives, the gender-organization-system perspective has emerged as a new framework to research the issue of women's advancement in management in a more inclusive, and broad-based manner. Little research has been done within this realm to date, however, in a gender-organization-system based research study, the independent variables should include sex or gender, organizational structure factors, and unknowns related to the social/institutional system as a whole. (Fagenson, 1990) As in the other approaches, the dependent variables should be measures of behavior, cognition, personality, and attitude.

Within this realm of inquiry, the dependent variables should be elicited from respondents or from observers both inside and outside the organization. An important addition here would be the inclusion of analyses of the societal system within which the organization functions.

The data analysis in the gender-organization-system approach is extremely critical to the understanding of women's behavior in organizations according to Fagenson (1990). Analyses of variance and regression methods are appropriate with this framework of study, but the interaction of the variables must be tested for in addition to testing for the main effect of the gender variable versus the organization structure variable versus the

social system variable. If the interaction terms were significant or there was a main effect for each variable, then the gender-organization-system view would gain support from the study. More than one main effect would suggest a joint function and significant interaction terms would suggest non-additivity. (Fagenson, 1990)

This last system-wide viewpoint offers a methodology and statistical approach significantly different from the other two frameworks. Fagenson (1990) purports that because this newer perspective examines variables within three different realms (individual, organizational, societal), and manipulates and measures variables within each realm to determine their impact on work-related behaviors, cognitions, attitudes, and personalities, this broader approach leads to more solid, less limited conclusions.

Sekaran (1990) outlines some research design issues that are critical in the study of Women in Management in general. These include: type of investigation (causal versus correlational), study setting (field versus lab), time horizon (cross-sectional versus longitudinal), sampling design, data collection methods, and data analysis (qualitative versus quantitative).

Again, gender differences have been the main focus of much of the research in Women in Management. Sekaran (1990) warns that very often such differences found in a

controlled lab setting have not been replicated in the field and should not warrant instant credibility. At this stage of the research in the field, it may be more important to establish correlational links among the factors being examined in a broad field study than to develop causal connections in limited, contrived settings. Gregory (1990) criticizes lab settings as prone to bias, and conducive to stereotypical thinking and a tendency toward socially correct answers.

Few studies in the Women in Management field to date have a longitudinal design. According to Sekaran (1990) and other contemporary researchers in the arena, exploring the phenomena of women in management over an extended period of time would be useful since many of the issues that require examination are developmental in nature and need time for thorough analysis and comparison. (i.e. the dynamics of mentoring relationships, professional growth and advancement, establishing credibility and power within an organization, etc.)

Good research in the field also depends on probability sampling designs as opposed to conventional sampling, and matched pair sampling whenever possible in investigating gender differences. Obviously, more sophisticated probability sampling designs lead to more generalizable results. In this field, it is very important to use up-to-date national sample data since the demographics of the

working population has changed so dramatically over the past decade.

The relatively young nature of the field of Women in Management leads Sekaran (1990) to stress the importance of theory development data collection and analysis techniques and methods. The methodology of data collection can be instrumental in theory building; both empirical observations and interviews can help in developing theoretical concepts based on grounded theory (inductive method using anecdotes and observations) and cluster case management (observation methodology where each observation viewed a sample within a case setting and replication lends validity eventually leading to theory development methodologies). (Mc Anlock, Brannon, and Maynard-Moody, (1979) in Sekaran (1990))

Thus far, both parametric and non-parametric statistical analyses have been utilized to develop answers to research questions regarding Women in Management. Again, Sekaran (1990) points to the richness of qualitative data in a field in need of grounded theory. Theory-building can benefit from multi-data collection methods and the use of various data analytical techniques.

In a different vein, Larwood and Lockheed (1979) called for more action-oriented research in this field. In 1990, Gregory still echoes this plea for action-oriented research based on theoretical perspectives that will focus

on the needs of women managers as they relate to a formula

for success. The emphasis is on immediate and pragmatic

contributions to the practical concerns of women in

management.

Gregory (1990) also stresses the need for the cultural

approach to new research in Women in Management. This

method is described as one of studying organizations as

cultures (Smircich, 1983), but focusing in on the women in

the organization and particularly on the meanings of

underlying social action in organizational situations.

Within this methodology attention is paid to symbolic

relationships and the gender context of the organization

and the wider system. It focuses on stereotyping, the

ascribed social status of females, and tokenism.

Other approaches to Women in Management research

suggested by Gregory (1990) include synthesist and

configuration approaches. Synthesist research (Glennon,

1979) combines instrumental and emotional tactics.

> "The cry within the sciences to open up what one can
> see by admitting as data that which one feels, to
> place emphasis on the whole of the experience instead
> of the measurable parts is a rejection of the
> limitations of a scientific, masculine reality, and an
> acceptance of the need for the addition of the
> holistic feminine." (Bardwick, 1974, in Glennon (1983)
> p. 263)

The configuration approach (Miller and Mintzberg,

1983) is also a synthesist-type view that requires the

study of a large number of attributes/variables

simultaneously in a way that fosters a holistic view and

searches for connections and networks of causation in such a way that illuminates cause and effect in the broadest possible light.

Gregory (1990) points out the need for cross-cultural studies of women in management and suggests that the position of women managers across geographic lines is more similar than dissimilar in terms of demographic and personal characteristics, sex segregation, and discrimination. She also suggests that the subject of ethnic, racial, and lesbian minority groups within management needs more exploration along with comparisons between the experiences of other minority groups and women.

The present research needs in the field of Women in Management are monumental since it is still young with regard to theory building and yet under significant social pressure to find practical solutions to organizational problems. The most recent research in this realm seems to be indicative of a paradigm shift toward holistic, non-reductionist, integrated viewpoints and methodologies.

2.7 Public Policy

According to Barnett (1987), it is evident that women's increasing involvement in the workforce has catalyzed an economic revolution, but women have yet to experience the social revolution that would allow them equality in every sphere. Barnett pinpoints what has been

lacking: an ideological change in viewpoints on women's work, family, and social roles. Major impetus for workplace change has the potential to emanate from public policy legislation.

However, the barriers to women's advancement in the corporate environment will never be crumbled by legal action alone. Men in the majority of the organizational power positions must be willing to promote and support the change that will make women equal partners. (Barnett, 1987)

It is the work of corporate presidents, administrators and professionals to communicate the value of women in the workplace and stress their equal-assets status to those of equal or lower rank. This power behind the issue together with individual, organizational, and legislative action regarding work/family is the recipe for change promulgated by Burns (1987).

Bose and Spitze (1987) address the need for new strategies aimed at improving women's collective economic position through a highly developed, coherent package of specific employment policies. They make a plea for work/family policies that validate the interconnectedness between women's paid and unpaid work the way many other countries have.

Bose and Spitze (1987) suggest that there are five major ingredients essential to the development of a comprehensive women's employment policy in the United

States. These include: 1.) a knowledge of historical
trends to explain the present economic and social
situation, 2.) a multi-level analysis examining structure,
market environment, and the individual, 3.) an
understanding of the interrelationship between women's
market work and domestic sphere work, 4.) an evaluation of
previous public policies and strategies (i.e. unionization,
affirmative action, comparable worth, etc.), and
5.) political action toward the implementation of policies
that will impact upon women's employment status.

At present, working women are legally protected by
several types of public policy legislation. However,
enforcement is difficult and for many the process is
prohibitive. The major legal defenses against sex
discrimination in the workplace are the Equal Employment
Opportunity Act of 1972 and Title VII of the Civil Rights
Act of 1974. There are also Executive Orders on the books
that prohibit discrimination by any Federal contractor or
subcontractor with contracts over $10,000 in a year period,
as well as prohibit discrimination by any federal office or
agency. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 is also a piece of major
legislation protecting a woman's right to equal pay for
equal work. Lastly, state Fair Employment Laws forbidding
sex discrimination are on the books in most states. The
Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is the

federal enforcement agency for workplace discrimination claims.

Taking legal action poses unique problems to women in managerial and professional positions. Opportunities are scarce at the corporate peak, and the increased visibility and importance of top-level personnel can lead to "whistle-blowing" reputations that have the potential to end in job dismissal, dead-end jobs, ostracism from the inner sanctums of management, and blockage from comparable jobs in other organizations. Unlike positive legal results for lower level positions (i.e. compensation, position in another organization, etc.), it is much more difficult to gain a positive result from legal action when the individual is coming from a higher level position. Promotion to higher level management positions is seldom gained through legal pressure. (Larwood and Wood, 1977)

Supportive legislation has opened up many new opportunities for women to enter managerial positions, but at the executive level, women in management are still dependent on societal and individual male managers' attitudes for their advancement up the corporate ladder. The subjective nature of managerial work aids in making bias difficult to pinpoint and prove at the upper organizational levels, and in many instances, by the time they persist all the way to managerial ranks, women often

feel the scale is tipped in the "loss" direction as opposed to the "gain" if they pursue legal redress.

Congresswoman Pat Schroeder (1989) encapsulates the public policy issues surrounding women's progress in the workplace and family policy in the 1980s and 1990s in an American Psychologist article. She criticizes the government and employers for not keeping pace with the changing face of American families; instead of supporting the diverse range of family structures that challenge modern society, they are being penalized in a work environment that is structured so that only employees of an archaic nuclear family can thrive within it. In 1984, 10.7% of families in the U.S. had a single male wage earner and a female at home. (Catalyst, 1985 in Raynolds, 1987) A few years ago, then Secretary of Labor William Brock made the acute observation that:

> "It's just incredible that we have seen the feminization of the workforce with no more adaptation than we have....It is a problem of sufficient magnitude that everybody is going to have to play a role: families, individuals, businesses, [and] government." (in Foster, Siegel, and Jacobs, 1988, p. 80)

Schroeder suggests that dramatic changes in the economic and social life of the United States call for federal action for families. The government has been slow to respond to this need, and the United States was one of only a few industrialized nations in the world that had not passed a national maternity leave program until 1993, when

the Family and Medical Leave Act was enacted under the Clinton Administration. In addition to family and medical leave, child care, and child support enforcement, Schroeder outlines significant other family-related policies that relate to the economic well-being of women and their opportunities in the workplace that need to be addressed by Congress. These include: pay equity, flexible work scheduling, social security reform, etc.

Changes in demographics, family structures, and the economy, make changes in family policy necessary to the advancement of any sex-related equity issues in the workplace. Does the federal government have an obligation to provide leadership on family policy issues? When and if it does, how much of an effect will it have?

Legislation that has the potential to change workplace policies as they relate to family issues can begin the long process of structural changes in bureaucratically-designed organizations created to suit the lifestyles of men in basically now extinct nuclear family situations. These structural changes could catalyze behavioral and attitudinal changes eventually impacting upon women's movement into upper-level positions.

Issues of workplace discrimination are still at the forefront of legislative action that needs addressing. In her presentation to the House of Representatives Hearings on the Civil Rights Act of 1991, Dr. Heidi Hartmann,

Director of the Institute for Women's Policy Research,
concludes in her testimony "... the United States economy
cannot afford to deal with discrimination, we must assure
equal employment opportunity if we want to compete
economically in today's world." (p. 35)

In citing full-time working women's earnings to be 68%
of what men earned in 1989, Hartmann emphasizes the
persistent wage gap between men and women in her House
testimony (1991). In an examination of the long-term wage
earnings profiles of males and females, she concludes: "the
glass ceiling is lower than you think." (p. 34) Women at
their mature peak are earning about the same as men just
starting out.

How much of this differential is the result of
discrimination? In a 1981 report of the National Academy
of Sciences, after reviewing all of the social science
evidence, they felt it safe to assign about one half of the
gap to employment discrimination. (U.S. House Hearings,
1991, p.35) Hartmann's U.S. House Hearings testimony
(1991) stressed that minority men and women along with
white women are not only underrepresented in the very top
levels of management, but are not even in a position from
which they can be selected because they have not even made
it to the upper levels of the managerial ranks. Why isn't
the pipeline flowing?

The case for structural barriers resulting from discriminatory behaviors is strong throughout the House proceedings. Hartmann concluded the congressional hearing testimony by outlining the costs of discrimination and stressing that the United States economy really cannot reach its growth potential if all individuals are not allowed to contribute to their fullest. This concern only intensifies as the United States economy and workforce diversifies by sex, race, and ethnicity. Without legislation, will employers invest in, train, and develop female and minority workers as they do white males? Will businesses do what is "right" without laws? Won't what is "right" actually be best economically for business in the long run anyway?

The final recommendation of Hartmann's House testimony (1991) was to amend the Civil Rights Act through the enactment of a House of Representatives bill that would strengthen the enforcement of discrimination violations. The bill was viewed by Hartmann and other advocates as progress not only for individuals aggrieved by discrimination but for the economic growth of this country. NO SUCH LEGISLATION TO AMEND THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964 HAS PASSED TO DATE.

In 1989, during the Bush Administration, a "Glass Ceiling Initiative" was begun under Labor Secretary, Elizabeth Dole with the mission of raising the visibility

of women's underrepresentation in top level management. The program focused much needed attention onto the discrimination and artificial barriers to advancement women and minorities face in seeking out executive management positions in business. In fortification of this initiative, as a result of Dr. Hartmann's testimony regarding the scope of the glass ceiling phenomena and the difficulties women and minorities face in their quest for executive management positions in business, the Committee on Education and Labor hearing the testimony concluded that the importance of the issue mandated the creation of an additional independent commission.

Thus, the Glass Ceiling Commission was established through Section 101 of the House of Representatives hearings on the Civil Rights and Women's Equity in Employment Act of 1991. The four-year commission was charged with conducting a thorough study of the underrepresentation of women and minorities in upper-level managerial and senior decision-making positions in business. It was composed of nineteen members: the Secretary of Labor, the Chairperson of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, four members of Congress, and thirteen members appointed by the President or by Congressional leaders. (U.S. House Report 102-40, 1991, p. 20)

In August, 1991, the then new Republican Secretary of Labor, Lynn Martin, announced yet another new public policy program to dismantle the glass ceiling serving as an invisible barrier blocking qualified women and minorities from ascending to the top managerial positions. She reported:

> "The glass ceiling, where it exists, hinders not only individuals, but society as a whole. It effectively cuts our pool of potential corporate leaders by eliminating over one-half of our population. It deprives our economy of new leaders, new sources of creativity .... the 'would be' pioneers of the business world. If our end game is to compete successfully in today's global market, then we have to unleash the full potential of the American Workforce. The time has come to tear down, to dismantle, to remove and to shatter .... the 'Glass Ceiling'."
> (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991, Aug. p. 1)

The program, initiated to promote a quality and diverse workforce capable of meeting the challenges of the new marketplace, outlined four major objectives:

1.) To educate the internal Department officials on the issues

2.) To encourage voluntary efforts within the corporate community to break down barriers

3.) To conduct pilot compliance reviews of federal contracts to insure against discrimination and for equal opportunity

4.) To recognize and reward those companies with creative and effective programs toward equal opportunity (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991, Aug. p. 2)

The pilot compliance reviews were a major piece of the Initiative. The Department conducted the studies on nine Fortune 500 companies ranging in size from fewer than eight thousand employees to more than three hundred thousand

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employees. The targeted businesses covered seven broad industry groups and were representative of the five geographic regions of the country.

In the study, it immediately became apparent that each company under scrutiny was very different with regard to corporate culture and practices. Despite the differences, however, there were five common findings:

1.) The glass ceiling existed at a much lower level than was expected. Each of the companies reviewed exhibited a level beyond which very few women and minorities had advanced or been recruited. Minorities were plateauing out at even lower levels of management than women.

2.) Almost all of the businesses studied showed the same lack of corporate ownership regarding the principles of equal opportunity employment and access. There were no formal systems of tracking or monitoring training and development opportunity and credential building experiences so as to insure equal consideration of all qualified employees.

3.) There was a general lack of monitoring of appraisal and compensation systems by corporate management. These were the systems that determined salary, bonuses, incentives, prerequisites for advancement, etc.

4.) There was a tendency toward placement patterns consistent with the research. Women and minorities were consistently in staff positions and not line functions.

5.) All of the companies showed an inadequate assembly of records regarding Equal Employment Opportunity/Affirmative Action responsibilities including recruitment, employment and development activities for managerial positions, etc. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991, pp. 13-17)

The pilot studies also identified key artificial barriers affecting women's and minorities' advancement in corporate America. They included: recruitment practices,

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lack of opportunity to contribute and participate in corporate developmental experiences, and a general lack of understanding that Equal Employment Opportunity is not one and only one person's responsibility in a corporation. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991)

This initial pilot study was followed up by a comprehensive fact-finding research effort culminating in two major publications: Part I, <u>Good for Business: Making Full Use of the Nation's Human Capital, The Environmental Scan</u> (March, 1995) (fact- finding report), and Part II, <u>A Solid Investment: Making Full Use of the Nation's Human Capital, Recommendations of the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission</u> (November, 1995) (a strategic plan). Both of these will be referred to throughout the following sections of this dissertation.

It is unclear at present how these findings will be utilized in terms of public policy follow-up strategies and eventual legislation. However, the findings clearly evidence major structural issues limiting women and minorities upward movement in today's organizations.

Government also has the capacity to influence women's advancement in corporations through the implementation of initiatives that instigate studies resulting in recommendations for action that are not necessarily legally mandated. These initiatives have the ability to originate

new ideas and methods of approaching a social issue without specific legislation as a targeted end result.

For example, the national interest in the stymied mobility of women in management has led to the realization that concern for the problem is shared by the federal government, some corporations, and most educational institutions. In the middle eighties, this common interest in the issue led to the government's launching of a partnership initiative aimed at aligning government, business, and education in an effort to develop strategies toward solving the problem. As a result, the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor funded the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst to develop a partnership model for designing programs to improve women's upward mobility in American corporations.

In 1986-87, the Corporate Linkage Model Development Program (CLMDP) was initiated through this grant to the University of Massachusetts and a dynamic partnership between private business, government, and academia was forged to address women's upward mobility. As reported in the project summary (Anderson et al., 1987), the resulting model developed specific organization development strategies appropriate to the enhanced recruitment and movement of women into upper managerial positions in corporations. The organization development plans put forth included strategies to: improve the quality of work life

for women, develop support systems, modify organization structures, increase the resource pool of managerial women, affect values, beliefs, attitudes, and norms, communicate CEO commitment, etc. Strategies and systems for implementing the program model within corporate structures were outlined.

The final recommendations of the Corporate Linkage Model Development Program Report (Anderson et al., 1987) stressed the need for the three domains (government, academia, and business) to form partnerships to continue the initiative to advance women's mobility in corporations. Long-range programs including corporate culture and career counseling/life planning workshops, action research projects, motivation analysis, organization re-design, etc. were suggested as worthwhile collaborative efforts toward affecting the necessary changes in women's pace of career advancement.

This project was an intriguing one within the Women in Management area of research because it represented a holistic strategy for intervention. The specific organization development steps outlined addressed every level of the issue from the individual to the organization-structure to the gender-organization-system. The phases of the program followed an inclusive process from the development of an advisory committee, to round table discussions, to the building of a demonstration model with

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final recommendations for implementation. Each milestone along the way to defining and seeking solutions to the problem was indicative of an open exchange of ideas between business, education, and government.

The scope and interactive nature of the project were impressive. The multi-level analysis efforts and suggested interventions which considered the external environment as well as institutional and societal variables were appropriate to the complex nature of the phenomenon.

This type of government initiative that reaches out to connect domains and catalyze collaboration could be instrumental to the development of solutions to this far-reaching issue. Such efforts by government to assist in improving women's career advancement in organizations by instigating linkages with the private sector and academia can result in comprehensive models such as the above-mentioned which have the potential to catalyze real change for women in management. There is a need for government to be more committed to comparable initiatives by increasing their frequency, resource allocation, and overall level of priority.

2.8 Summary of Issues

As Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1990) summarize the issue, it is a critical time for female managers in corporate America. Women have struggled and sacrificed to

achieve management status and some companies have worked hard to get them there. However, despite their advancement in the managerial ranks, they are still extremely underrepresented at the very top. Eleanor Smeal, former president of the National Organization for Women, poignantly summarizes progress thusly: "At the current rate of increase in executive women, it will take until the year 2466 - or more than 450 years - to reach equality with executive men." (Berkshire Eagle, 1991, p. A3)

Women in management have been shouldering a very heavy load. They have paid their dues and in many cases have had to work harder and sacrifice more than their male counterparts for a chance at the top. Then, after often having accumulated more education and credentials, taking more time to attain advancement, making less money, sacrificing more in terms of family, and enduring sexual harassment, what do they encounter? The glass ceiling is what they encounter; that window between them and their goal; one that allows them to see what's at the top but forms a solid blockade to getting there.

It is no wonder women are leaving the managerial ranks at an alarming rate. (Morrison, White, and Van Velsor, 1990; Taylor, 1986; Brophy and Linnon, 1986) A study reported in a 1986 Fortune cover story noted that one out of every four women managers is leaving the managerial workforce. (Taylor) Many are finding the sacrifices are

outweighing the rewards; especially the personal sacrifices required that many report as necessary for advancement. These are personal sacrifices unique to women in management. For example, a Heidrick and Struggles survey (in Brophy and Linnon, 1986) noted that most of the women officers surveyed were childless, compared to only five percent of males, and twenty per cent had never married compared to less than one per cent of their male counterparts. The same study also reported that the male executives were paid an average salary of $215,000 plus 85% more in bonus, while the female executives average salary was only $116,810 including bonus. In a 1985 Office Administration and Automation article, Stead notes that only 15 of 2500 corporate executives earning $100,000 or more annually were women.

As consistently reported by managerial women, this type of personal sacrifice coupled with the wage gap between men and women and other structural barriers to advancement are clearly factors affecting women's decisions to drop out of corporate America. (Brophy and Linnon, 1986; Jacobs and Hardesty, 1987; Taylor, 1986) According to Taylor, a disturbing number of the dropouts are some of the best educated and highly motivated women ever to enter the managerial workforce; many are the pioneers who struggled in the face of prejudice to gain executive rank.

According to Brophy and Linnon (1986), more and more women seem to be bailing out of the corporate executive ranks to start their own businesses; a more flexible option in comparison to the organizational bureaucracy they are facing at present. Women are starting new enterprises in record numbers; more than three times the rate of men. (Jacobs and Hardesty, 1987; Wojahn, 1986) Perhaps this entrepreneurial action will prove an alternative route to power for women in business, one that has the potential to circumvent the glass ceiling.

Why are women "throwing in the towel"? As Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1990) query:

> "Have they decided not to want what is not available? Are they afraid to admit they have been stumped? Are they tired of waging war against the corporate system?" (p. 149)

Will the corporate system change making it less difficult for women to succeed and thrive? As companies are restructuring to compete in a worldwide market, management talent is in demand. Even in the face of the slowed down present economy, any underutilization of the talent pool resulting from an underinvestment in women and other minorities seems ill-advised.

As cited in Jacobs and Hardesty (1987), Steve Solomon, author of Small Business USA states:

> "In an era of increased international competition where success depends more and more on the productive use of knowledge, it's going to be more critical than ever not to lose women from key positions in the workforce. A country can't afford to exclude a large

segment of talented individuals - in this case women -
from exerting business influence and still hope to
maximize international competitiveness." (p. 63)

All of the CEO's interviewed by Jacobs and Hardesty
(1987) reported the issue of women's departure was one
corporations could not afford to ignore. Many were aware
of the dangers of the "female dropout" issue having a
lasting negative impact. The problem is more than one of
the replacement of those who leave. As Marks, a CEO
interviewed by Jacobs and Hardesty (1987) warns:

> "There will always be women to fill the ranks of those
> who depart. However, there's a but - and that's the
> degree to which frustration grows. You risk creating
> a reservoir of ill will, resentment, and destructive
> energies." (p. 63)

Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1990) describe the
situation as a crossroads in corporate America. Women are
stuck at a level that does not challenge them to the
fullest, and are not in positions that allow them to be the
full resources they could be to the companies employing
them. Many researchers, practicioners, working women,
human resource executives, and CEO's want to solve the
problem, but the issue and consequently the solution is
extremely complicated and ripe with interrelated factors.
Strategies for change are difficult to develop considering
the economic, psychological, sociological, and cultural
underpinnings of the issue.

Many pondering the issue adhere to the "critical mass
theory"; it's "only a matter of time" before a new

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generation of women is able to crash through to the top once the numbers are there in the middle managerial levels. This theory contends that "as more women enter a corporation, sexism and job discrimination will decline markedly". (Collins, 1982, p. 3) Supporting this point of view is the idea that as the older, more traditional males in power now begin to retire, the younger men replacing them will be more supportive of female managers having had more experience working with them in academic and corporate settings. Also, it is widely suggested that the new generation of women will have more role models in management to inspire them and spur them on to success.

In fact, this "they're in the pipeline and it's only a matter of time viewpoint" has been challenged by many recent studies. Weiss and Harlan (1982) found quite a different pattern in their research. Their findings suggest that as women increase in corporate representation, the overt resistance desists, but as they reach "critical mass" numbers, there is a backlash and women's efforts to reach top jobs are blocked and sabotaged by men who feel threatened by women's success in the workplace.

In a 1984 study published by the Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, Harlan and Weiss (in Maynard, 1985) suggest that as women's representation in management rises, male hostility mounts. In a comparison of two companies, one with six percent women in the management

group and another with 19%, they found a significant difference in male managers' attitudes. The company with a lower representation of women had a more positive attitude, while the one with the greater percentage of women exuded resentment. The women in the second company reported that their employer had been much more supportive when their group was smaller in relative number.

There also is not a lot of support for the hypothesis that younger men will be more supportive (Morrison, White, and Van Velsor, 1990, citing a 1985 Harvard Business Review Survey), or that role models are easier to find. Sixty-one percent of the women managers interviewed in Morrison, White, and Van Velsor's (1990) study reported that they do not try to be role models because they are protecting themselves from charges of sexism and separatism.

Although statistics show that presently women have an easier time starting out in the corporate world, Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1990) explain that the problem is not getting women into corporations, but rather moving them up. It is often referred to as the second generation Affirmative Action issue for women and other minorities. (Sargent in Brophy and Linnon, 1987) There seems to be less resistance to women garnering middle management positions (Gregory, 1990; Morrison, White, and Van Velsor, 1990), but they are not located at the strategic level of the firm. As the managerial peak narrows, competition

heightens and selection and promotion criteria become more
subjective and attitude-susceptible.

After their Executive Women Project, reported in their
book <u>Breaking the Glass Ceiling</u>, Morrison, White, and Van
Velsor (1990) conclude that:

> "The top management ranks of corporations still seem
> to be nearly as forbidden to women as ever. In fact,
> we conclude that senior management will be off limits
> to women now in the management pipeline - women in
> their twenties - to about the same extent as it is to
> executive women today. We expect to see no more than
> a handful of women reach the senior management level
> of Fortune 100 sized corporations within the next two
> decades because the barriers that keep women out of
> senior management today will remain." (p. 157)

What does change with respect to this issue involve?
It will require change that takes a great deal of time;
changes in attitudes, behaviors, organizational structures,
institutions, and societal views. Cullen (1990) suggests
that we need to finally recognize that our family
structures are intertwined with our organizational
structures and our organizations are built on certain
assumptions regarding the relationships between
organizational and family life. (p. 356) More
specifically, she advocates for an examination of the
assumptions underlying our organizations, and espouses
Balsamo's (1985) (in Cullen, 1990) approach which reflects
a radical feminist perspective on women and organizations.
The radical feminist perspective analyzes gender
relationships in terms of social, political, and historical
contexts and "seeks to understand how these arrangements

support patriarchal systems of domination and how these arrangements are maintained by the very women oppressed by them." (Balsamo, 1985, in Cullen, 1990, p. 356)

Such an approach challenges the very fiber of today's organizations and asks some pointed and controversial questions: "What are the purposes of our organizational structures? What ends do they serve? To what extent are these ends and purposes related to gender?" (Cullen, 1990, p. 356) Also, where have the gender-related barriers in our organizations come from? Who is responsible? Are they the result of centuries of socialization rooted in various cultures, societies, and traditions? Are these gender-related, acculturated myths and stereotypes appropriate today?

As for the individual-centered approach, Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1990) cite the growing realization that women cannot be men. Despite the research evidence that the differences between men and women as they pertain to managerial capabilities have been highly exaggerated, there are some differences that exist and create barriers for women: being a woman in a man's world, and being the one who must carry and deliver children. These factors may need to be dealt with as emerging issues affecting companies rather than "women's issues". Family issues are everyone's issues. In a 1986 article, Kanter stated "I wonder whether there has been too much emphasis on teaching

women to conform to fit into the system. Certainly that suits conservative organizations in conservative times. But now ... innovation and creativity are necessary." (p. 185)

An updated survey released by Korn/Ferry and the Anderson Graduate School in July, 1993, suggests that top female executives have made "great professional strides" in the last decade. However, the study does further state that the "glass ceiling" is still encountered by women at the highest executive levels. (Littlejohn, 1993)

This survey conducted in 1992 is a replication of a 1982 study, and compared the answers of 439 top female executives. The major findings indicated that women are moving up in the ranks of senior management, are earning double the salary, and are significantly less likely to forego husbands and children. On the less optimistic side, respondents of the study reported frustration with the long hours worked in consideration of their continued primary responsibility for household and childcare tasks. They were also frustrated with the fact that men still outnumber women by three to one in the top vice presidential positions, and by the disappointing numbers of women reaching the corporate pinnacle as president or CEO (only one and four tenths percent). Also, men still reportedly averaged 50% more compensation for similar positions. And lastly, the study found that 60% of those surveyed said

they had been sexually harassed and 25% cited sexism as the greatest obstacle to their success. (Littlejohn, 1993) Does this sound like "great professional strides"?

The director of the study and acting dean of the UCLA Graduate School of Management, used the results of the study to stress the imperative for corporations to take family responsibilities into consideration. She suggested that companies look at employees as whole people with family demands and respond with more work options and flexibility. Korn/Ferry and the Anderson Graduate School recommended organizational development steps for companies interested in integrating women into upper level managerial ranks. The strategies stressed work/family issues and included: flextime, childcare programs, and increased placement of women on corporate boards. (Littlejohn, 1993)

Perhaps more flexible work environments with organizational structures developed to meet the needs of the global, information-age economy will begin to affect change that is more positive toward women's advancement in management. As negotiation, mediation, communication, and bargaining become as valued as directing, demanding, and controlling based on the more complex issues inherent in the reality of corporate tasks of the 1990s, traditionally "feminine" characteristics might be more valued. The acceptance of androgynous leadership styles that incorporate the advantages of both "masculine and feminine"

managerial qualities could become an operational benefit to women in the highest levels of organizations. Maybe it is finally time to concentrate on the similarities of men and women in organizations, and the idea that both sexes can have and use a balanced combination of what has traditionally been described as "masculine" and "feminine" managerial styles.

When family issues become organizational issues and inflexible, hierarchical, bureaucratic structures relax, both men and women may be able to excel in the corporate environment. As Grondin (1990) points out: "It is difficult to say whether the upward mobility of women in management will result from person-centered or organization-centered strategies." (p. 372) However, many researchers are reporting that, although the individual-centered strategies (for both men and women), are necessary to the formula, they cannot remediate the problem in isolation of widespread organization-centered and organization-system-centered strategies. (Catalyst, 1994; Fagenson, 1990; Kanter, 1976; Martin, Harrison, and Dinitto, 1983; Cullen, 1990; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) Women cannot change enough individually to perforate the walls of male domination in organizations. And why would they want to? The change must be multi-level and must include men, women, organizations, and society.

But, the advancement of women into top level corporate positions must benefit corporations and the economy in order to materialize in a capitalistic society, and there is strong evidence that it can. What are business's reasons for implementing policies to catalyze women's advancement? Higher managerial productivity is certainly one reason. Underutilizing any source of productivity in this economic environment is a luxury most organizations can no longer afford. However, the possibilities for internal organizational development and change are surely limited by the parameters of a profit-based economy. (Blum and Smith, 1988)

The result of organizational inaction is perhaps easier to see. Hardesty and Jacobs (1986) (in Grondin, 1990, p. 372) encapsulate the issue in this way "... a quiet revolution of women managers is taking place in the workplace..."; an event that is slowly draining upper management of "the best trained and best educated women ever to enter the workplace." Reversal of this "brain-drain" is a major challenge facing organization development professionals and management educators. (Grondin, 1990) This could be a goal that has the potential to advance women, benefit corporations, catalyze national economic prosperity, and perhaps further the equal partnership of men and women within every sphere of modern society.

2.9 Organizational Response

Women's increased representation in the managerial ranks in organizations in the United States could be the most dramatic shift in the sex composition of an occupation since the late 1800s when clerical work became a female-dominated field. Despite the fact that the surge in the number of women managers accounts for 25% of the decline in sex segregation since 1970, recent data continues to highlight the paucity of women at the top echelons of management. (Jacobs, 1992)

Most researchers agree that the barriers to women's advancement continue to be systemic; firmly entrenched in the culture and work environments of our business organizations. The Civil Rights Act of 1991, the confirmation hearings for Supreme Court Justice Clarence Thomas, and the 1993 passage of the federal Family and Medical Leave Act have certainly brought the issue of the glass ceiling to the forefront and heightened the public's and corporate's awareness of the problem. (Catalyst, 1994) However, significant improvements in women's representation in executive leadership positions has not yet followed the problem recognition stage.

Are businesses acknowledging the problem of women's lack of upward mobility and coming to the realization that they only stand to gain if they implement organization development strategies aimed at eliminating the barriers

that indeed hold women back? To date, there is a definite

lack of research upon which to begin to build an answer to

this question. How organizations view the problem and

exactly what organization development initiatives they are

implementing to address the issue are only vaguely

definable based on minimal research. Further research is

necessary to identify model programs aimed at dismantling

the glass ceiling and organizational characteristics

conducive to the development of such progressive programs.

This kind of identification can help to motivate corporate

action throughout the business community. Modeling

behavior will hopefully occur as corporations are

stimulated by the successful business outcomes of industry

leaders in the advancement of women's development programs.

     According to Catalyst, a research organization that

works with business and the professions to effect change

for women in management, there are some indications that

there is a growing awareness and concern about the turnover

of valued female talent within corporations today. In

their 1990 study <u>Women in Corporate Management: Results of

a Catalyst Study</u>, the majority of Chief Executive Officers

(CEO's) surveyed <u>do</u> recognize the existence of barriers to

women's upward mobility. The study reported that 79% of

the CEO's responding affirmed that there are identifiable

barriers to women's advancement to the highest levels of

corporate management in the United States. Even more to

the point, 91% of the corporate chiefs surveyed agreed or
strongly agreed that the company has a responsibility to
change to alleviate the problems women are encountering in
advancing, and to aid in meeting the needs of management
women.

The importance of the issue may have been put into
perspective, however, when the Catalyst (1990) survey
queried company representatives regarding the three most
important human resources issues for their businesses.
Although a significant number of them reported that they
offered specific strategies toward the advancement and
retention of women, less than one percent of the
respondents cited the development of high-potential women
as a company priority. Not surprisingly, cost containment
was the most frequently cited priority for companies in the
Catalyst survey, which led to the research group's
observation that corporations are not addressing barriers
to women's development as a high priority perhaps because
they have not yet made the critical connection between cost
containment and the advancement and retention of women
managers. (Catalyst, 1990)

Recent Catalyst research has revealed that companies
are at very diverse developmental stages in their
programming response to glass ceiling issues. The survey
data from the Fortune 500 and Service 500 companies
participating in the 1990 Catalyst study revealed that

although programs aimed toward enabling employees to more successfully manage work and family are being implemented, initiatives providing more options for increased flexibility in work arrangements are often lacking in the functional areas most likely to lead to top management, and are frequently not accessible to professional and managerial employees. Catalyst (1990) stresses the importance of this finding due to a body of research that suggests that work and family programs most successfully impact women's retention when they are developed in combination with options for more flexible working arrangements.

Work and family programs are often implemented as a company's first step in the development of strategies to recruit, develop, advance, and retain women. These initiatives have been shown to have a measurable impact on absenteeism, tardiness, and retention, and have been suggested to have an influence on less measurable behaviors such as productivity, morale, and loyalty. (Catalyst, 1994) However, despite their critical link to women's upward mobility, work/family programs are not sufficient in themselves nor are they universally appropriate.

When human resource professionals in the 1990 Catalyst study were asked an open-ended question as to what single effort companies could make to facilitate women's advancement into senior level executive leadership

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positions, most cited strategies that applied to pervasive barriers relating to women's career development <u>other than</u> work/family issues. These initiatives go beyond balancing work and family concerns and begin to address other factors affecting women's advancement potential including structural barriers that often pervade corporate cultures and work environments.

In this developmental stage of the corporate response to women's advancement and retention issues, Catalyst researchers have suggested a number of organizational development strategies to promote women's upward mobility. These involve leadership development programs (identifying high potential women, systematically tracking women's progression, planning developmental assignments in specific functional areas, etc.) as well as structural change strategies (increased organizational flexibility, reward and punishment systems/accountability programs, succession planning, job rotation, etc.).

These developmental stages suggested by organizational response to women in management issues are somewhat analogous to the model of the multicultural development process developed by Jackson and Hardiman (1981). In their model the stages are sequential and by experiencing the learnings and limitations of each stage, the organization is able to move on to the next level of development toward gender/multicultural equity. The strategies for

intervention are very different at each stage and must be compatible with the organization's present level of development and readiness for change.

The recurring theme in Catalyst research regarding strategies for success in the breaking or dismantling of the glass ceiling revolves around the premise that successful organizational plans must be multidimensional. Exemplary models examined for the Catalyst 1994 study, <u>Cracking the Glass Ceiling: Strategies for Success</u>, included a combination of policies, programs, practices, and procedures that encompassed work/family strategies, flexible work arrangements, and upward mobility initiatives.

These comprehensive approaches also reflect a multidimensionality on another plane: the individual versus the organization-structure and gender-organization-system realms. Pursuing a singular focus on training programs for women (individual-centered realm) again implies that the barriers to women's advancement are internal. Organizational response to the glass ceiling cannot ignore the need to identify and address the structural/ organizational/system barriers to the advancement of women. Based on all of the research in the literature review of this study, practical solutions should seemingly emanate from the Women in Management theoretical frameworks (Fagenson, 1990) discussed at length in Section 2.4 of this

dissertation and, therefore, include strategies and initiatives to address individual training and development as well as organization structural and cultural change.

Solomon (1990) uses an apt analogy to highlight the complicated nature of the problem. She compares the upward movement of women through corporate ranks to light working its way up a prism with many sides and angles. Breaking these barriers women face is a complex and multi-faceted voyage much more in tune with making one's way through the facets of a prism than the smooth one-dimensional surface of a ceiling made of glass.

In fact, Catalyst (1990) is critical of the term "glass ceiling" which was coined in a Wall Street Journal article in 1986 when Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt used the phrase to describe the invisible barrier blocking women from the highest levels in Corporate America. Catalyst researchers feel the metaphor communicates a defeatist message and in fact may not be useful in helping companies to act to bring about change for women. Mattis (1990) suggests that the glass ceiling metaphor implies a sudden disjuncture in a woman's career; one that takes place only after years of steady unimpeded mobility. This view tends to lead companies to view the glass ceiling as inevitable.

More typically, however, women in corporate settings encounter barriers at various points throughout their

careers. These roadblocks include socialization, tradition, maternity, and a corporate culture often pervaded by preconceptions and stereotypes. In Mattis's (1990) view, this way of looking at the issue allows for steps that companies can take to bring about change in many milieus. It is not a question of women breaking through the glass ceiling, but rather of companies dismantling it pane by pane by eliminating the behaviors and policies that collectively form the glass ceiling. (Mattis)

Although Catalyst's 1994 study reports the need for an integrated multi-program, systemic organization development approach to address the glass ceiling, it concludes that the actual presence of such comprehensive corporate initiatives is limited. According to their survey, business initiatives to promote the upward mobility of women are relatively few compared to corporate work/family programs.

In summary, the research seems to suggest a multidimensional and developmental nature to organizational response to women's advancement and retention issues. Individual-centered organizational strategies and work/family initiatives tend to be prevalent in the first stages of development. Organization-structure and comprehensive gender-organization-system approaches may be the next levels of development for corporations seriously

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interested in affecting a lasting, positive impact on women's upward mobility.

Much more research is essential to understanding the linkage of women's issues with social and organizational contexts. (Bhatnagar, 1988) Identifying what change strategies organizations are developing and implementing and in what contexts, will help to integrate women's issues into a broader organizational perspective which will eventually catalyze the bridge building between theory and practice. Thus the rationale for this study.

2.10 Organization Development to Advance Women's Status: Research Application

Despite a proliferation of research on Women in Management over the past three decades, the field is still relatively young with regard to theory building. Yet, there is significant political, social, and demographic pressure to develop practical solutions to organizational issues of women's upward mobility in corporate America.

Women in Management studies draw heavily on numerous psychological, sociological, economic, political, and cultural theories and constructs. Applications are often offshoots of the three major Women in Management frameworks (individual-centered, organization-structure, and gender-organization-system) categorized by Fagenson (1990).

Numerous studies have surveyed and interviewed women in executive positions to try to discover what is needed

and expected by women in management, and a significant number have surveyed and interviewed executive men regarding their attitudes toward women in the workplace. However, there has been a paucity of research examining actual organizational development programming response to glass ceiling issues.

For purposes of this study, an emphasis is placed on exploring the application of organization development strategies designed to impact the upward mobility of women and on examining how organizational response relates to the major theoretical frameworks promulgated thus far in the field of Women in Management. The researcher will be investigating the antecedents and consequences of organizational change and the connection between an organization's view of women in management issues and the nature, depth, breadth, and developmental level of its response.

Three hallmark studies of organizational programs, policies, and practices have been completed very recently: two by Catalyst (1990 and 1991) and one by the U.S. Department of Labor Glass Ceiling Commission which presented a final findings report in March, 1995.

These studies did examine organizational response to women's advancement issues, but within limits, leaving significant room for additional contributions. In Women in Corporate Management: Model Programs for Development and

Mobility (1991), Catalyst performed an in-depth examination
of seventeen companies with exemplary programs for
developing and advancing women. In a more widespread
study, Women in Corporate Management: Results of a Catalyst
Survey (1990), Catalyst surveyed CEO's and human resources
professionals in the Fortune 500 and Service 500 companies
in the United States delving into women's standing in the
corporate world and the reported critical competencies
women need to achieve top corporate positions. Both of
these studies were then fodder for a more definitive report
on the glass ceiling published by Catalyst in 1994:
Cracking the Glass Ceiling: Strategies for Success. The
Federal Glass Ceiling Commission study (1995) used existing
research, U.S. Department of Labor surveys, focus groups,
and commission research conducted by Catalyst to describe
and analyze glass ceiling barriers and identify and outline
some successful organization development strategies to
promote the advancement of women and minorities.

The research that has been conducted on the practical
side of the theory/application process has indeed been
minimal and even these studies have overlapped as Catalyst
served as a consultant for the Glass Ceiling Commission.
Thus, it is this dearth of organizational practice research
and consequently lack of depth of understanding of the
corporate response to women's advancement and retention
issues that motivates this study.

2.10.1 <u>Corporate Involvement</u>

By the year 2005, women and minority men will make up 62% of the workforce. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) Women are dropping out of managerial positions in record numbers (Taylor,1986; Brophy and Linnon, 1986; Jacobs and Hardesty, 1987), and organizations are struggling in a fast-paced, competitive, global economy. It would seem a business imperative to implement programs targeted toward shattering the glass ceiling.

Organizations that excel in leveraging diversity have the potential to experience better financial performance. (U.S. Department of Labor) In a Covenant Investment Management Study, companies which rated in the bottom 100 on glass ceiling measures earned an average of 7.9% return on investment as compared to an 18.3% return on investment for the top 100. (U.S. Department of Labor) Competition for market share and turnover costs are also factors with the potential to motivate companies to address women's upward mobility issues.

Based on these elements, the following research question will be examined:

> Research Question #1: Are those organizations determined to be the best companies for women (Zeitz and Dusky, 1988) addressing the issue of women's underrepresentation in upper-level management positions? If so, why and how? What kinds of policies, programs, and procedures are they implementing to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in managerial positions?

2.10.2 <u>Organizational Theoretical Perspective of Women Managers' Lack of Corporate Advancement</u>

Women's lack of corporate climbing has been attributed to factors that are internal to women as expressed in the "individual-centered" perspective (Hennig and Jardin, 1976; Horner, 1972; Putnam and Heinen, 1976; Riger and Galligan, 1980; Schein, 1973 and 1975; Smircich, 1985), to factors that are external to women as expressed in the organization-structure perspective (Fagenson, 1986; Kanter, 1977; Mainiero, 1986), or to an interaction of factors that are internal and external to women as expressed in the "gender-organization" perspective. (Fagenson, 1990) All of these theoretical frameworks are described in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.

These frameworks, each with their own unique theoretical underpinnings, influence organizational strategies designed to respond to women's advancement issues. The way organizations view the obstacles women encounter in corporations, and organizations' perspective of the need for particular types of corporate programs for women's development, can reflect how organizations perceive the issue of women's advancement in work settings. These viewpoints might be a window reflecting which of the aforementioned theoretical frameworks is providing the backdrop for action and determining whether organizations place the burden for change on the individual or on themselves.

Drawing from these theoretical considerations, the following research question is proposed:

Research Question #2: Based on their perceptions of the obstacles women face in organizations and their assessment of program need, how do the organizations singled out in Zeitz and Dusky (1988) view the theoretical issue of women's lack of advancement; from primarily an individual-centered or organization-structure perspective, and are their organizational response initiatives consistent with this view?

An organization's perspective on the issue of women's underrepresentation in upper level managerial positions has implications for the development of organizational policy and programs to target the matter of women's advancement. The research findings within each of these purviews call for widely divergent strategies. An individual-centered perspective of the problem would have a propensity toward the development of organizational initiatives aimed at personal growth strategies including training and skill development for women. While an organization-structure perspective on the issue would instigate organizational development efforts aimed at structural change including opportunity and power distribution, numbers representation, hiring and promotion practices, reward and punishment systems, etc.

This matching of the theoretical perspective of the problem and practical strategies toward solution is critical to organizational effectiveness. An organization perceiving the problem to be basically individual-centered could be misguided in developing organization-structure

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responses and vice-versa. Efforts to train women to fit

the "male model" of manager can be stymied if

organizational practices, policies, and disadvantageous

positioning block opportunity paths. Resources allocated

to train women in management skills may not be effective if

these highly skilled women still face structural barriers

and stereotypical preconceptions. (Martin, Harrison, and

Dinitto, 1983)

The process of assessing strategies aimed at

integrating and advancing women is critical if one realizes

the organizational resources wasted if an organization

responds in a haphazard, reactive approach. (Bolker, Blair,

Van Loo and Roberts, 1985) Organizations need to use their

resources wisely and develop programs that meet the needs

of women, fit the characteristics and multi-dimensionality

of the problem, and are connected to the organization's

perception of the causal underpinnings of the problem.

Obviously, an organization's misdiagnosis of the nature of

the problem is still dangerous even if there is a

reasonable fit between type of diagnosis and solution.

2.10.3 Organizational Characteristics

Organizational characteristics can be linked to

patterns of female and minority participation in

organizational workforces. (Szafran, 1982) In an effort to

determine what kinds of firms hire and promote women and

African-Americans, Szafran studies particular distinguishing features of organizations including, for example, formalization, centralization, unionization, etc.

Based on this idea of linking organizational characteristics to organizational behavior patterns, the following research question will be examined:

> Research Question #3: What organizational characteristics might be contributing factors motivating those organizations that are noted for their work in facilitating women's career development to initiate and support organizational development interventions to advance and retain women managers?

This last research question actually precipitated the investigation of the following variables and hypotheses. These organizational variables are all examined and analyzed in this study to determine their strength as factors of organizational support for women's advancement issues. The following section introduces each variable under consideration, most with resulting hypotheses, via an individual synopsis of the relevant research to date. Most of the hypotheses are well supported, but some may seem lacking in a theoretical base. However, the researcher found some leeway in this quotation: "Generating hypotheses requires evidence enough only to establish a suggestion - not an excessive piling up of evidence to establish a proof." (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, pp. 39-40)

The variables investigated include: 1.) the type of industry the organization represents; 2.) internal organizational demographics such as organizational size,

the percentage of women in the workforce, the percentage of
women senior managers, the percentage of women board
directors, and the percentage of women reporting directly
to the CEO; 3.) organizational understanding of women's
advancement issues such as perception of women's
recruitment as an important goal, perception of difficulty
attracting/retaining female managers as compared to male,
and perception of obstacles facing women versus men, and
perception of characteristics of successful initiatives;
4.) organizational commitment to women's agenda such as
level of accountability for EEO results, CEO involvement,
accessibility of programs, and level and integration of
organization development planning processes;
5.) organization structure, practice, technology,
environment, and other characteristics such as basic
structure, formalization of organization, formalization of
communication, organizational innovation in management
practices, formalization of EEO record-keeping,
unionization, industry classification, company size, and
organizational environment for change.

2.10.4 Industry Classification

Research indicates that women's organizational
progress varies by industry. According to current data,
the largest percentage of management women (including
senior managers) is found in the financial services

industry. (Catalyst, 1991; U.S. Department of Labor, 1991)
Even within the financial services industry, Catalyst
research has discovered variation by sub-sectors. For
instance, more women are found in senior management in
insurance companies than in the banking sector.

The Glass Ceiling Commission report (1995) found the
industries with the highest percentage of women managers
were: finance, insurance, and real estate (41.4%);
services (38.9%); retail trade (38.5%); transportation,
communication, and public utilities (25.6%); and wholesale
trade (20.9%). The industries with the lowest percentages
of women in management were: manufacturing (15.9%),
agriculture (14.5%), construction (10.4%), and mining
(9.8%).

In examining the proportion of women employees who are
managers as compared to the proportion of men who are
managers, the Glass Ceiling Commission (1995) found that
the proportions by gender were the most similar in the
following industries: transportation, communications, and
public utilities (10.1%; 15.2%) with the construction
industry second (6.4%; 9.9%). The manufacturing and
financial, insurance, and real estate industries showed the
biggest discrepancies in the proportional representations.

Industry classification was examined as a variable in
this study. It was measured for frequency distribution but
was not hypothesis tested due to the small sample size.

2.10.5 Company Size

Research suggests that organizational size influences organizational reward systems by setting limits, and ultimately affects the employer's equitable treatment of men and women. (Baron, 1984 in Reskin and Ross, 1992) Studies conducted by Bielby and Baron (1984) discovered more sex segregation in very large and very small firms.

Larger organizations may possess the resources to affect large-scale change in promoting the status of women. It is thought that larger companies tend to be more visible and consequently are more responsive to social pressures. (Elgart, 1982 in Fryxell and Lerner, 1989). However, bigger companies could also tend to be more bureaucratic and cumbersome and less able to respond with speed and effectiveness to organizational needs concerning issues of women's advancement. Baron, Mittman, and Neuman (1991) in Reskin and Ross (1992) found that sex segregation declined more rapidly in smaller public organizations than in large.

According to the research of Zeitz and Dusky (1988), women who leave large companies because they have plateaued often pursue the same avenues as do men: they move to smaller, younger, riskier companies which could indicate that smaller size organizations offer more opportunity to women in management.

In consideration of this conflicting and limited information, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis #1: Organization size is associated with the number of programs for women and the level of women in management policy development.

2.10.6 Percentage of Women in the Workforce

The measure of the social composition of an organization's entire workforce or a category of an organization's workforce (i.e. management) are organizational characteristics worthy of investigation in a study with an organizational level of analysis focus. (Szafran, 1982) The rise of the women's movement, EEO legislation, and women's increased educational levels are all societal developments external to the organization that have impacted the entry of women into management. (Jacobs, 1992) The salient question is, how have organizations responded to this development? Jacobs reports that to date there have been relatively few theories put forward to provide a basis for understanding organizational resistance against women or characteristics of organizational environments that may be conducive to stemming such resistance.

One theory that predicts the direction of organizational response to the influx of women into management positions is Kanter's (1977) theory of proportional numbers. She argues that as women gain representation within organizations, they will increase their political strength, social support networks, and

overall opportunity. As the proportion of women grows and they move beyond token status, and consequently beyond increased chances of being viewed stereotypically, they will become more powerful and more likely to advance. This could then raise the visibility and importance of the issue of the glass ceiling and influence the organization's involvement in programs to advance the status of women.

Kanter's strength-in-numbers hypothesis (Jacobs, 1992) is contradicted by Blalock's (1967) prediction which has a different view of the impact of proportions on discrimination. He maintains that as minority groups increase in numbers, the resistance to them also tends to increase. This could mean that an increase in women's representation might, according to the Blalockian prediction, result in an increase in resistance from the majority group which would negatively impact the development and implementation of women's advancement initiatives.

In Jacobs (1992) study of gender differences in earnings, authority, and values among salaried managers, he found there to be a narrowing sex gap in wages of managers coinciding with a substantial rise in the number of women managers and therefore consistent with Kanter's strength-in-numbers view. However, Jacobs reports his results to be inconsistent with the findings of Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1987 in Jacobs, 1992) who found results more consistent

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with Blalock's resistance-to-threats theory. They found increases in the proportion of women in the workforce resulted in lower wages.

Also, Reskin and Ross (1992) found that women's progress toward representational parity with men in managerial occupations (as determined by the U.S. Bureau of the Census) has not eliminated the significance of gender in access to organizational authority and the traditionally resulting monetary rewards. This finding does not support Kanter's theory. Finally, Catalyst (1994) found there to be no relationship between the percentage of women in a company's overall workforce and the motivations reported by CEO's for advancing women.

Based on this contradictory research, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> Hypothesis #2: The percentage of women in the workforce of an organization is associated with the number of women's development programs and the level of development of women's advancement initiatives.

2.10.7 Percentage of Women Senior Managers

The whole premise of this research is that although women's progress in Corporate America is constantly cited in the media, women are still consistently and dramatically underrepresented in top management positions. (Frixell and Lerner, 1989; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; Catalyst, 1994; Fagenson, 1990)

Although women have been entering the management ranks in growing numbers since the late 1970s when affirmative action legislation took root, they have not been climbing up the corporate ladder to the senior management level positions at a pace compatible with their increased numbers in lower/middle management or consistent with the progress of men. (Blaw and Ferber, (1987); Dibaye, (1987); and Reynolds, (1987); in Ragins, (1989))

In 1992 women held 39.3% of the 14.2 million executive, administrative, and managerial jobs in the United States (U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1993), up from 35.6% in 1985 and 22% in 1975. (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986) According to recent research conducted by Korn/Ferry International and Catalyst, 95 to 97% of senior managers are men. (U.S. Department of Labor)

Again based on Kanter's theory of representative numbers and the Blalockian prediction of resistance to growing numbers of minority members, the impact of an increase in the number of women senior managers in an organization could positively or negatively impact the level of women in management policy development. Studies of small organizations with female or minority chief executives tend to employ greater number of minorities and women throughout the organization. (Schemeni, 1979 and Mennerick, 1975 in Szafran, 1982) This finding has not been replicated in larger organizations. (Mennerick, 1975

in Szafran, 1982) According to Szafran this could be due

to the relative newness of women's arrival in top-level

positions, to the stronger inertia of large organizations

to the influences of top-level individuals, or to

differences in the social attitudes of female executives in

large as compared to small firms.

As women's representation as senior managers increases

in an organization, there could be a relationship between

their status as organizational decision-makers/policy

developers and the promotion and implementation of

initiatives that support women in management.

Contradictorily, as women's proportional numbers increase

in top level positions, a backlash of resistance from the

dominant culture could result in the catalyzation of fewer

interventions to advance the upward mobility of women.

Thus, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis #3: The proportion of women in senior
level management positions is associated with the
quantity of programs to advance the status of women
and with the depth and breadth of women in management
policy development.

2.10.8 Percentage of Women Board Directors

According to Catalyst's (1994) fact sheet census of

female board directors of Fortune 500 and Service 500

companies, for the first time in history over half of these

businesses have at least one woman on their boards of

directors. From 1993 to 1994, the number of companies with

female representation on their board of directors increased by 11%. There has been more than a 1000% increase in the number of female directors since 1977. Despite all of these dramatic increases, women still hold only 6.9% of all board seats on the Fortune 500 and Service 500 companies; merely 814 of a total 11,790 seats.

How does the inclusion of women on a company's board of directors affect organizational policy concerning issues of women's development? The same theoretical considerations (Kanter and Blalockian) posited in the previous two hypotheses apply here.

The following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis #4: The percentage of women board directors is associated with the extent and level of women in management policy development.

2.10.9 Percentage of Women Managers Reporting Directly to CEO

Reporting directly to the CEO in an organization structure is a characteristic of a position of organizational decision-making power and influence. Based on the previous considerations of issues of workforce composition, it would seem plausible that women's increased representation in a high status, elite category of an organization's workforce such as those individuals reporting directly to the CEO, could be linked to an organization's policy development regarding women in management issues.

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Without a strong foundation of research upon which to build a rationale for this specific hypothesis, the researcher still finds the following to be a reasonable postulate based on the previous research in hypotheses #2 to #4:

> Hypothesis #5: The percentage of women reporting directly to the CEO is positively associated with the extensiveness and depth of women in management program development.

2.10.10 Women Managers' Attraction/Retention as an Important Organizational Goal

As reported in the Glass Ceiling Commission research (1995), those businesses that have made progress in advancing women's upward mobility and removing structural barriers are those that use comprehensive approaches to both attract and promote women. Since corporations still prefer to promote from within, or "grow their own leaders", outreach and recruitment are critical to any long-range plans to eliminate the glass ceiling. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) A business that does not emphasize strategies to attract women early in their careers, will be unlikely to have them in leadership positions. Active plans to recruit/attract women are essential to any mix of women's development initiatives.

One of the five major assumptions of the Corporate Linkage Model Development Program (Anderson, Fantini, Habana-Hafner, and Zaimaran, 1987), is that equity is a

desired goal of successful corporations. Corporations that are committed to advancing women report equity as one of their primary goals. As suggested by Jackson and Holvino (1988), a direct relationship exists between the quantity and quality of the product/service of an organization and their ability to provide justice in the work setting.

According to Lippitt (1982), goal setting and planning at more levels of the hierarchy are used more consistently in organizations that report organization development efforts than in those that do not. The development and articulation of goals in organizations is as important a component of performance as it has been suggested to be in behavioral science research in any other pursuit be it individual, group, community, societal, or whatever. French and Bell (1973) stress that both organizations and individuals need to utilize goals in an effort to manage their activities; goals that are explicit, measurable, and obtainable.

There is widespread evidence in Organization Development and Organization Theory literature that the articulation of a specific organizational goal and the conveyance of its importance has been shown to be critical to the success of corporate initiatives. When top management outlines and demonstrates the importance of the inclusion of women and minorities as a top business priority, organization development strategies' potential

for success is greatly increased. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)

In light of this research on the importance of attracting female managers in terms of the overall organization equity agenda, and the importance of goal setting in developing and implementing change strategies, the following hypothesis is posed:

> Hypothesis #6: An organization's perception of the importance of the goal of attracting/retaining female managers is positively associated with its number of programs to advance women and level of women in management policy development.

2.10.11 Organizational Perception of Difficulty in Attracting/Retaining Female Managers

One factor that may influence an organization's level of program development for women in management issues is its perception of the level of difficulty the company is experiencing in attracting and retaining female managers. Women are dropping out of Corporate America in alarming numbers. (Brophy and Linnon, 1986; Jacobs and Hardesty, 1987; Taylor, 1986) Adding to the disturbing nature of this formula, is the observation that a significant number of these dropouts are among the best educated and most highly motivated women ever to enter the managerial workforce. Many are the pioneers who took the first steps in the struggle to achieve executive rank. (Taylor, 1986)

The turnover rate of female employees is of growing concern in the 1990s considering the demographics:

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increased female labor force participation and a shrinking labor market. (Johnston and Packer, 1987) As organizations' needs to retain their existing employees heightens, the issue is complicated by the finding that women's turnover rates seem to exceed men's. (Chusmir, 1982, Cotton and Tuttle, 1986, and Schwartz, 1989 in Miller and Wheeler, 1992) More to the point, Miller and Wheeler note that gender differences in intention to leave and/or actual turnover exist when work-related factors are not controlled. When Miller and Wheeler controlled for job satisfaction, gender differences in the intention to leave disappeared suggesting that a perceived lack of advancement opportunities and frustration with job content are influencing women's decisions to exit their organizations.

Retaining women managers is often referred to as the second generation Affirmative Action issue. (Sargent, in Brophy and Linnon, 1987) In a study conducted internally at Deloitte and Touche, the data showed that men's and women's turnover rates were equal at entry level, but as the more senior levels of management were studied, women began leaving at a faster rate than their male counterparts. Further enlightening the issue, the data showed that women were more likely to leave the company at critical junctures (after three years, six years, and nine years) which represented points of promotional expectation. (Lawler, 1995)

Studies by Catalyst (1990) and Jacobs and Hardesty (1987) found that the issue of female turnover is recognized as a serious corporate concern. While a significant number of companies reported having strategies for developing women in the Catalyst survey (1990), the research data from that study also found that many companies are not addressing the barriers to women's progress because they are failing to connect cost containment (the most frequently cited human resource priority reported) with the advancement and retention of valued employees.

Turnover costs can be staggering. Mary Mattis, Vice President of Catalyst, reports findings that replacement costs of an employee that departs totals 93% of her salary. Furthermore, it is more than likely that the replacement will be a woman and the cycle of responding to the loss of female talent could in all probability continue. (Stuart, 1992) The Glass Ceiling Commission (1995) cites turnover costs to range between 150 and 193% of a manager's or professional's annual salary.

Thus it would seem reasonable to hypothesize that if organizations begin to connect organizational costs to the advancement and retention of female managers, one might further hypothesize:

> Hypothesis #7: Organizations experiencing difficulty attracting and retaining female managers have more extensive and highly developed women's development initiatives.

Hypothesis #8: An organization's perception of the difficulty of attracting and retaining female managers as compared to male managers is positively associated with the quantity and developmental level of women's advancement initiatives.

2.10.12 Organizational Perception of Women's Career Obstacles

According to the Glass Ceiling Commission Report (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) there are two major Societal Barriers that negatively impact women's mobility potential and reinforce the glass ceiling: the Supply Barrier and the Difference Barrier. The Supply Barrier refers to opportunity and achievement concerns while the Difference Barrier alludes to stereotypes, prejudices, and bias.

In reference to opportunity, attainment, and achievement, it is not until one has actually entered the front door and walked into the building that one has the chance to look up and view the glass ceiling. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) In fact, significant numbers of women and minorities of all races and ethnicities are far from the front door of Corporate America. (Harlan and Berheide, 1994) As much as 70% of the full-time female labor force work in low-paying occupational categories. Most are not connected to any advancement pipelines within the organization. Inflexibility and family insensitive benefits restrict their promotional responsibilities. (Harlan and Bertheide)

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While even in the higher level positions, women are at a disadvantage due to their overrepresentation in staff (human resource, research, administration, etc.) versus line (sales and production) positions which are more directly connected to the bottom line and consequently much more likely to present a fast track to the executive suite. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991; Catalyst, 1990)

In reference to stereotypes, prejudice, and bias, these are systemic, entrenched, private and public ways of thinking that cannot be eradicated through corporate leadership alone. Of all the barriers to corporate advancement, prejudice, stereotyping, and preconceptions top the list. (Morrison, 1992; Catalyst, 1990) It is incumbent upon businesses to at least catalyze an effort, which must be more widespread and societal to be effective, by demanding internal norms of practice and behavior that can eliminate the effects of bias and prejudice in the advancement of women. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)

Organizations must recognize the problems before realizing organizational activity toward rectification is possible. In the 1990 Catalyst study, the majority of CEO's surveyed (79%) did recognize the barriers to women's advancement within their companies, and 65% reported that organizational development strategies targeting the

advancement of women will take priority during the next five years.

Based on the Glass Ceiling Commission Report (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995), corporate leaders are relating that they want to remove the barriers that obstruct access to the upper levels of management, yet women and minorities are describing what they perceive to be innumerable, insurmountable obstacles in their corporate advancement. As reported by the Hispanic Policy Development Project (1994, in U.S. Department of Labor), there are strong inconsistencies between the "talk" (what is said by corporate leadership) and the "walk" (what is done by corporate leadership).

The corporate executives that have been successful in addressing internal business barriers to women's upward mobility are those, according to the Glass Ceiling Commission Report (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995), who have been able to directly confront the reality that their priorities may differ from those of their middle and upper-level managers who may not favor inclusion because they perceive it as a threat. However, in order to progress to this level of development, a perception of the existence of obstacles and barriers specific to women seems a prerequisite.

In deference to these considerations, the following hypothesis is offered:

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Hypothesis #9: Organizations that perceive that women encounter more obstacles to advancing their careers than men will have more extensive and developed policies, programs, and initiatives to enhance women's upward mobility.

2.10.13 Characteristics of Successful Initiatives

Defining the elements of successful initiatives or exemplary programs is conducive to modeling behavior which can eventually result in widespread, system-wide or even societal change. Corporate initiatives to advance women, with the exception of work/family programs, are relatively few in number and have not been rigorously evaluated. (Catalyst, 1994) It is in profiling initiatives that have had measurable results, that organizational benchmarking and modeling may ensue.

Of course, there is no "one way" to advance the status of women and eliminate the barriers to their upward mobility in the private sector. Companies are varied and each must asses its needs and organizational environment, but an analysis of the companies that are managing change related to diversity constructively can lead to the defining of the characteristics requisite to successful glass ceiling initiatives. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)

Catalyst (1994) and the Glass Ceiling Commission (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) report a list of characteristics of corporate initiatives that are most

likely to succeed. The list includes: CEO and other top
level management support, an integration with the
organizational strategic business plan, an addressing of
specific cultural barriers within the organization, a
system of accountability, an addressing of stereotypes and
preconceptions, a tracking and monitoring component,
specificity to organization, and comprehensiveness.
Catalyst also includes the need for a system to identify
and monitor the progress of high potential women, and the
Glass Ceiling Commission adds the characteristic of
inclusiveness (must include white, non-Hispanic men). This
dissertation study is interested in determining if the
sample population of businesses recognized similar
requisite features.

Although characteristics of successful women's
advancement initiatives were not analyzed in terms of their
relationship to highly developed women in management
policy, they were inventoried. Respondents were asked to
relate the characteristics of effective initiatives in
their businesses and frequency distributions were reported
for purposes of description and to test for support of
Catalyst/Glass Ceiling Commission measures.

2.10.14 Level of Accountability for EEO Results

Another factor that may influence an organization's
number and level of change strategies in programs to

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advance the status of women could be the organizational

level of management held accountable for the results of

Equal Employment Opportunity efforts. Accountability for

performance requires commitment to initiatives to increase

performance.

According to Beckhard, who developed the most widely

quoted and agreed-upon definition of Organization

Development, one of the five requirements of an

Organization Development effort is that it be managed from

the top. Beckhard argues that the uppermost management of

an organization must be committed to and be knowledgeable

about the goals of the program and must share as an active

participant in the management of the intervention efforts.

(Huse, 1980)

Huse (1980) questions this notion stating instead,

that at the very least top management should not be opposed

to an organization development initiative if it has any

chance of being successful, but that an attempt to obtain

too strong a commitment from top management in the early

stages of a developmental plan may in fact be overly

threatening and actually cause withdrawal of any commitment

to the plans for change.

Based on Jackson and Holvino's (1988) research on

developing multicultural organizations, different stages of

multicultural development in an organization require

different conditions for the support of change. In the

first stages of development, external environment factors such as legal requirements and political mandates are often the conditions catalyzing and supporting change. However, in the more advanced stages of EEO/multicultural program development, commitment from top management becomes a major factor as a condition that supports change.

Catalyst research (1994) suggests that one of the major requisites to the success of corporate initiatives to develop women's upward mobility potential is that the CEO and other senior line managers recognize and articulate the importance of advancing women as an equal employment opportunity goal and ultimately as a good business practice.

It was a lack of corporate ownership of equal employment opportunities that was reported as one of five major problem areas in the original Glass Ceiling Initiative study (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). Most companies in the pilot study exhibited a lack of corporate responsibility with regard to principles of equal employment opportunity and access. This resulted in a difference in formal systems of tracking and monitoring developmental opportunities and training which ultimately led to questions of equitable access to corporate programs with the potential to enhance career progression.

Later, after careful analysis of companies that _are_ managing change regarding the advancement of women in

management effectively, the Glass Ceiling Commission (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) reported research indicating that there are eight characteristics common to all successful glass ceiling initiatives studied. One of those characteristics identified was the support of the CEO. Strong commitment and support from the top of the organization seems necessary to the level of development of equal employment opportunity initiatives and the long-lasting and widespread nature of their effectiveness and total impact.

Pursuant to these research findings, the researcher presents the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis #10: The level of EEO accountability in the organization structure is positively associated with the number and developmental level of initiatives to advance women.

2.10.15 Chief Executive Officer Involvement

Another factor relevant to an organization's level of policy and program development specific to women's advancement could be the involvement of the business's Chief Executive Officer (CEO). CEO commitment to women's upward mobility is critical to the success of Women in Management goals in corporations. (Catalyst, 1990, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; Anderson, Fantini, Habana-Hafner, and Zaimaran, 1987; Zeitz and Dusky, 1988) Full employment of women in the workplace is significantly impacted by the commitment and level of involvement of the

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CEO. The power of the CEO's influence has a major defining role in the success of change strategies throughout the organization. (Anderson, Fantini, Habana-Hafner, and Zaimaran)

Zeitz and Dusky report that the most important finding of their extensive research for their book The Best Companies for Women (1988) is that it is the person at the top of an organization who determines how fairly women are treated. They found that actions occur when the message from the top is loud, clear and unequivocal. These are recent, topical affirmations of a strong principle in Organization Development theory; high impact change in organizations requires CEO support.

One of the major characteristics found to be common to all successful glass ceiling initiatives is CEO support. Successful programs not only have strong, but also sustained CEO support. Programs work well when the CEO and senior managers advocate for change and involve themselves in the change process. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) It has been suggested by Catalyst (1991, 1994) that the CEO and other senior managers must recognize and articulate the business importance of strategies to advance the status of women in order for corporate initiatives to fall into the "most likely to succeed" category.

If the importance of the women's advancement agenda in an organization is not made clear from the CEO at the top

and she does not demand accountability, the existing

barriers to women's mobility remain intact. Each CEO and

leadership team within the corporation must demonstrate

that the inclusion of women and minorities is a top

priority or the best-laid strategic plans will be

unsuccessful. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)

Based on this research, the following hypothesis was

developed:

> Hypothesis #11: CEO involvement in efforts to recruit
> and promote women managers is positively associated
> with a higher number and developmental level of
> organizational programs to advance women.

2.10.16 Organization Structure

Organization structure organizes issues of division of

labor and authority thus resolving matters of

responsibility and accountability. (Lippitt, 1982) Kanter,

(1977) revolutionized ideas about organization structures

affecting power and opportunity cycles and how they, as

part of the work context, influence women's behaviors in

employment settings. She suggests that opportunity-

enhancement begins with changes in the formal structure of

the organization (i.e. career paths and job ladders), and

empowerment starts with, and is fundamentally dependent on,

modification of official organization structural

arrangements.

According to Kanter (1977), flattening of the

organizational hierarchy can be accomplished by removing

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levels of command and spreading out formal authority, thus virtually adding to the power components of certain positions and increasing the potential for contact among managers. Consequently, this action facilitates decision-making and improves communications. This flattening of the organization ultimately leads to enhanced control over organizational goals and strategies and the development of an environment more conducive to risk-taking than the environment of a steeper hierarchical organization traditionally loaded down with critical review processes where there are more channels requiring acceptance. (Kanter)

The "command" system of traditional hierarchical corporate management prevents deviation from established practice, results in high degrees of compartmentalization of responsibilities, and constrains communication between differentiated statuses as defined by levels, functions, units, etc. This "segmentalism", as Kanter (1983) refers to it, produces inflexibility and discourages change.

Conversely, organizations with a more flattened hierarchical structure are more conducive to an environment allowing the corporate flexibility needed to solve problems as complicated as those related to women's advancement issues. Based on Kanter's research (1976, 1977, 1986, 1989), organization structures offering flexibility in opportunity and power cycles, communication, work

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structuring and scheduling, and problem solving

capabilities seem better equipped, in some cases, to deal

with the kind of multidimensional, action-oriented

strategies requisite to the issue of women's upward

mobility. Both Catalyst (1990, 1994) and The Federal Glass

Ceiling Commission (1995) stress the importance of

organizational flexibility in solving gender-related

matters of workplace mobility.

Thus, the following hypothesis is submitted:

Hypothesis #12: The level of hierarchy of an
organization's formal structure will be negatively
associated with the quantity of women's advancement
programs and the level of development of initiatives
to advance the status of women in management.

2.10.17 Formalization of Organization

Formalization is one of the characteristics of the

internal economy of an organization; those structures and

processes that are integral to implementing organizational

goals. (Szafran, 1982) According to Pugh, Hickson,

Hinings, and Turner (1968), organizational formalization

reflects the extent to which rules, procedures,

instructions, and communications are written down.

When organizations have formalized decision-making

processes, it is not likely that there will be explicit

reference to ascribed characteristics such as sex in

criteria for hiring or promotion. (Szafran, 1982) These

formalized processes and procedures not only encourage

orderliness, but promote uniform, non-subjective methods for managerial decisions.

Studies have suggested that the development and existence of written rules, procedures, instructions, and communications in organizational settings is influential to the behavior of managers responsible for hiring and advancing employees. (Abramson, 1975; Beattie, 1975; Hefner and Kidder, 1972; Mayhew, 1968; Pfefffer, 1977; Schwartz, 1971; and Thiebolt and Fletcher, 1970 in Szafran, 1982) Standardizing the use of objective rating scales and decision-making procedures has the potential to guard against discrimination in workplace practices and consequently advance women's upward mobility.

Issues of organizational formalization were the centerpiece of the five major findings of the first Glass Ceiling Initiative Report. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991) The pilot study of nine Fortune 500 companies showed a lack of formalization leading to women's advancement and retention issues in areas of: 1.) formal systems for tracking and monitoring training and development opportunities, 2.) formal systems for monitoring appraisal and compensation systems, and 3.) formal systems for tracking AA/EEO records and responsibilities. Glass Ceiling Commission study conclusions implied that increased organizational formalization could alleviate glass ceiling issues.

Based on these research findings, the following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis #13: The formalization of an organization as represented by written rules, procedures, and practices is positively associated with the number of women's advancement programs and the degree of development of women in management initiatives.

2.10.18 Formalization of Communication Channels

In hierarchical organization structures, channels of communication are more formalized and constrained as the hierarchical configuration becomes more steep. As the span of control (number accountable to an individual) decreases and the organization structure pyramid rises, compartmentalization of responsibilities ensues and there is limited communication between differentiated statuses (levels, functions, units, whatever distinctions that separate responsibility/accountability). (Kanter, 1986)

Weber's bureaucratic model of organization structure (hierarchical) held the assumption that hierarchical arrangements in an organization facilitate communication and cooperation between organizational levels. This assumption or value is in complete opposition to basic Organization Development theory assumptions which posit the idea that hierarchical arrangements may actually inhibit communication and cooperation due to their fostering of organization levels which create inherent inequalities. (Cummings and Huse, 1989)

Opening communication channels and making system knowledge (budgets, salaries, minutes of meetings, etc.) more available to everyone is an additional strategy that can be developed to provide access to the power structure for individuals who are most likely to be excluded (i.e. women and minorities). Widespread empowerment, consequently, has the potential to reduce the dysfunctional consequences of powerlessness (low morale, bureaucratic rules-mindedness, and strict territorial control) allowing more room for speedy decisions, more risk-taking due to fewer critical channels for information to pass through, and more innovation. (Kanter, 1977)

Less formalized channels of communication thus seem to have the potential to be better suited to open, decentralized information-sharing systems which in turn appear to be more conducive to innovative problem-solving strategies to address such complicated, multidimensional issues as women's upward mobility.

Based on this deductive reasoning, the researcher proposes the following hypothesis:

> Hypothesis #14: The degree of formalization in channels of communication in an organization will be negatively associated with the number and level of development of women's advancement programs.

2.10.19 Organizational Innovation in Management Practices

In a 1991 Catalyst study, Women in Corporate Management: Model Programs for Development and Mobility,

organizational characteristics conducive to a corporate
environment with the potential for greater opportunities
for women's advancement and development were identified and
defined. One of those key organizational elements was
reported to be innovation. Organizational valuing of
innovation in addition to tradition was singled out as an
important organizational factor in a list of seven
corporate environment qualities integral to the development
of women's development and advancement initiatives.

According to Kanter (1986), the "new work place" (more
participative, innovative, and entrepreneurial) is a
response to the turbulence of our fast-paced environment
consisting of rapid technological advances, global
competition, and constant innovation in our corporate
structures. Organizations' changing strategies for
success, including management initiatives and practices,
are being developed in an effort to meet the challenge of
the nineties.

Innovation in managerial practices, a characteristic
of the "new workplace" would appear to benefit the
advancement of women who have documentably not been served
well by traditional organizational management policies and
practices. However, the research continues to indicate
that women still perform the bulk of family work; a
finding that may not be congruous with the increasing work
time demands of the "new workplace". An innovative

environment based on greater employee participation and responsibility, earnings dependent on initiative, team projects, etc. has the potential to require increased on-the-job time commitments that create tension considering women's high level of domestic responsibility. Kanter (1986) concludes that new work systems often designed with innovative practices and liberal goals for equal opportunity may offer increased organizational career potential for women if, and only if, they include strategies to address work/family issues.

Assuming that organizations singled out as "the Best Companies for Women" are offering work/family programs, the researcher submits this hypothesis:

> Hypothesis #15: The degree of innovation in the managerial practices of an organization is positively associated with the number of programs to advance women's status and the level of women in management policy development.

2.10.20 Formalization of AA/EEO Record-Keeping

In the pilot studies of the first fact-finding Glass Ceiling Initiative study (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991), nine Fortune 500 companies were extensively researched regarding their AA/EEO strategies. This was part of the U.S. Department of Labor's effort to understand what was affecting the career advancement of women and minorities. Although the organizational cultures of the nine companies were quite different, there were five commonalities

discovered. One of those was that each organization had

inadequate record-keeping with regard to AA/EEO

responsibilities concerning recruitment, employment, and

developmental activities for managerial positions. This is

despite that fact that they were all companies that held

major Federal Government contracts and were knowledgeable

in their record-keeping requirements for other government

agencies.

As a government contractor, companies are expected to

compile records of applicant flow, rates of hire and

advancement, career development activities, and other

personnel action. These records are legal requirements,

and are also essential to the adequate monitoring of a

contractor's implementation of AA/EEO programs. Such

record-keeping systems were beyond lax in the sample of

this Glass Ceiling Initiative pilot study. (U.S. Department

of Labor, 1991) The implication was that this lack of

monitoring of employment activities to ensure equal

treatment of employees actually had an impact on the

implementation of EEO programs for recruitment, employment,

and developmental activities for managerial positions. A

lack of record-keeping indicated a lack of monitoring which

in turn could mean a lack of compliance and overall

interest in EEO issues. (U.S. Department of Labor)

This part of the Glass Ceiling Commission research led

to the development of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis #16: The degree of formalization of AA/EEO record-keeping in an organization is positively associated with the number of programs to advance the status of women and the level of women in management policy development.

2.10.21 <u>Unionization</u>

According to Szafran (1982) few organizational researchers have tackled the question of how unions have affected the social composition of the workforce of an organization. One of a union's purposes is to serve as a vehicle that members can utilize to identify and organize their demands and influence organization decision-making. A union can be an enabling mechanism to emphasize the preferences of its members and increase their ability to impact organizational directives.

The research findings have been tentative, but have generally found that minority workforce participation has decreased with union activity. (Szafran, 1982) However, Szafran is quick to point out that as women and minorities join unions in greater numbers and become more influential, the effect of unionization on female and black employment patterns could change.

Traditionally, according to Ferman (1968, in Szafran (1982)), most unions tolerated racially inequitable working arrangements. No empirical evidence has been found to suggest that unions had a more positive impact on women's employment patterns than on blacks'. (Szafran)

Axel (1985) found that non-union or largely non-union companies seem to have more flexibility in the development and management of work/family policy due to the lower level of constraint experienced compared to institutionalized labor-management relations. This would seem generalizable to other forms of women's advancement and retention programs. Axel also recognizes that it is often likely that employee concerns and issues will be identified by a non-union company before they become cause for controversy if the company is interested in maintaining their non-union status.

Based on these considerations, the following research hypothesis is posed:

> Hypothesis #17: The presence of a union is negatively associated with the number of programs for women's advancement and the level of program development to advance the status of women.

2.10.22 Organizational Environment for Change: Motivating/Resisting Forces

There is a growing body of evidence suggesting that developing initiatives to shatter the glass ceiling is a business imperative. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) Beyond the demographic and social responsibility concerns, organizations that excel at leveraging diversity actually increase their potential for improved financial performance. (Cox and Smolinski, 1994)

Possible motivations for corporate involvement in developing strategies to enhance women's advancement potential range from: 1.) labor supply and demand issues (i.e. shortages of male employees, increased presence of qualified women, etc.) to 2.) social responsibility/ organizational culture concerns (i.e. concern for equity in the workplace, desire to improve morale and job satisfaction) to 3.) bottom-line cost (i.e. turnover costs, the desire to compete for market share by reflecting the diversity of the consumer market, etc). Each of these motivating factors can function as a force for change in an organization assessing its women in management policy development.

Conversely, there are potential barriers to an organization's efforts to affect change in any arena, and specifically in policy development to advance the status of women. These barriers fall into categories of: 1.) lack of perceived need and management support, 2.) lack of necessary resources to develop specialized programs, and 3.) stereotypes and preconceptions and other issues of organization culture.

Lewin's force-field analysis theory is a useful concept for examining an organization's readiness for change. He posits that it is after analyzing the entire social field of an organization that an attempt to change the social equilibrium may be pursued with effectiveness.

He views the organizational setting as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions. According to Lewin, it is in diagnostically viewing a change situation in terms of facilitating and resisting forces that successful, long-lasting organizational change initiatives may be executed. (Lippitt, 1982)

In consideration of this information, the researcher examined the forces for change and barriers against change in the sample population. While the relationship between organizational forces for and barriers against change and women in management development was not used for hypothesis testing, respondents were asked to rate these organizational forces and barriers in terms of their strength, and frequency distributions were reported.

In summation, there has been only minor progress to date in the development of theoretically motivated empirically based research designed to test the organizational characteristics, structural attributes, processes, and perspectives that represent a propensity to promote workplace program/policy development toward increasing career opportunities for women. In an effort to illuminate ways to better understand the linkages of women's issues with the organizational and social context, this chapter has: 1.) reviewed the research literature on women in management and organizational development regarding corporate changes toward gender equity, 2.)

highlighted some overarching paradigms and theoretical
underpinnings relating to the nature of gender
differentiation in the workplace and its implications for
the development of women's advancement policy, and 3.)
proposed some possible relationships based on theoretical
and empirical evidence between sex-related workplace
phenomenon as organizational processes, complex corporate
characteristics, and integrated change strategies.

Complicated and dynamic webs of connections,
interactions, and integrations at the individual, group,
organizational, and societal levels have been explored in
an effort to unravel the patterns of inequity; weaving the
threads into a broader organizational perspective with the
capacity to develop and implement appropriate and effective
change strategies that will begin to create a whole new
picture.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This study was designed to determine if organizations
are addressing the issue of women's underrepresentation in
upper-level managerial positions, and, if so, why, how, and
to what extent. It examines organizational initiatives
targeted toward the advancement and retention of women in
management via an investigation into the "best" companies
for women. This exploratory study analyzes corporate
factors that relate to the development and implementation
of organizational initiatives designed to advance and
retain women managers with the intention of determining
what antecedents may contribute to a high level of women in
management policy development. It also examines
organizational characteristics of companies predetermined
to have positive environments for women with the objective
of discovering any common distinguishing traits that may
catalyze or nurture programs and policies to advance the
status of women.

This chapter will describe the research methodology
used to conduct the study. Section 3.2 includes a
description of the pre-test subjects and procedure.
Section 3.3 provides a description of the sample
population. An explanation of the research instrumentation

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is outlined in Section 3.4. It includes the selection, construction, and purpose of the instrument used to collect the data. The research design is discussed in Section 3.5, including its strengths and weaknesses. Section 3.6 describes the measurement of the research variables. Section 3.7 covers data collection, procedures, and editing. Finally, Section 3.8 reviews methods of data analysis.

3.2 Pre-Test Subjects and Procedure

The pre-test population was a sample of convenience and consisted of six companies the researcher had access to due to personal networking. It was the researcher's belief that interacting with human resource professionals with whom she had a rapport would lead to a richer critique of the survey instrument.

The researcher's objectives for the pre-test were: 1.) to evaluate the content and context of the survey for ease of understanding, misinterpretation potential, and probability of soliciting a response; and 2.) to determine the time it would take to complete the questionnaire as input for reassessing its overall length.

Following initial telephone contact, questionnaires and cover letters were mailed to these company representatives who were aware that they were part of a pre-test population. They were asked to return the

questionnaire within a two week period. Five of the six
responded for a response rate of 83.3%.

The following modifications ensued based on the
results of the pre-test:

1.) In several questions, the word "organization" was
changed to "company".

2.) In Question #26, "circle as many as are applicable"
was added to define the response field.

3.) In the cover letter, the phrase "sparing the time" was
changed to "investing your valuable time".

4.) In Question #17, the format was changed from, "How
many women managers report directly to the CEO?", to a
two-part question: #17A: "How many managers report
directly to the CEO?", followed by #17B: "Of these,
how many are women?".

5.) Question #23 was added to the questionnaire. ("Are
all of the programs you circled in Question #22
available to women even at the highest levels?")

3.3 Description of Sample

This study was a cross-sectional survey; information
was collected from a sample drawn from a predetermined
population. This is opposed to a census which describes a
survey that collects information from the entire
population. A population is the aggregate of a group of
individuals or cases that have some designated set of
characteristics or specifications in common. A population
element is a single member of a population. A group of
elements selected for analysis for the purpose of finding
out something about the entire population is a sample.
(Kidder and Judd, 1986)

The sample for this study consisted of 110 companies identified in the book, The Best Companies for Women (Zeitz and Dusky, 1988). Fifty of the firms were profiled in the book as Zeitz and Dusky's selections of the "best" companies for women. These companies were identified based on nominations by executive recruiters, professional women's groups, and researchers. The selection criteria included: recruiting and hiring of women, opportunities for promotion, pay, commitment to equality, flexibility regarding parenting needs, and policy on sexual harassment. The nominees were surveyed by questionnaire and interviews followed. The final selection was based on a combination of benefits, policies and practices, and the personal experiences of women workers employed by the companies.

The other 60 companies were pointed out in the book as a supplemental list that were recommended but not profiled. These were considered businesses worth investigating based on the benefits they offer women, their potential for upward mobility for women, or both. According to the researchers and author of the book, these firms were not included in the 50 "best" selections because they: 1.) refused to participate, 2.) failed to return a minimum of five phone calls following the questionnaire, or 3.) were discovered too late in the research to be included. Those that refused to participate did so based on one of the following three reasons: 1.) we're not good

enough, 2.) we're too busy, 3). we're undergoing massive restructuring.

The authors of the book, <u>The Best Companies for Women</u>, are noted professionals with expertise in the field of Women and Work. Baila Zeitz, PhD. is a business consultant and noted psychologist. She lectures nationally on women's issues including combining career and family, stress management, and sex-role stereotyping. Lorrain Dusky is an award winning journalist. She is the author of several books and regularly contributes to <u>Working Woman</u> and <u>Saavy</u>.

Appendix A displays a list of the companies that were contacted. These businesses were selected as the target population for this study because they represent, according to Zeitz and Dusky's research, the best opportunities and most amenable workplaces for women. As companies leading the way in the development of women-friendly programs, the resulting data presumably are indicative of what types of organizational initiatives targeting women's advancement and retention are germinating and succeeding on the cutting edge of organizational development.

Questionnaires and a detailed cover letter were mailed to the Vice President of Human Resources or, if known, the Director of Diversity in each of the 110 companies. The individual questionnaires were coded by number to allow the identification of the responding firm. Each cover letter expressed the researcher's guarantee of confidentiality and

the voluntary nature of the study. Respondents were requested to return the questionnaire within a three-week time period. A reminder post card was sent 10 days after the initial mailing. If a respondent did not return the questionnaire within the allotted time frame, a second questionnaire with a revised cover letter was mailed along with copies of the first mailing. The second mailing requested a return within 10 days. A fourth and final mailing was sent to nonrespondents if they had still failed to participate. This last attempt included a once-more revised, only this time hand written cover letter and copies of all of the previous correspondence. This final request for participation allowed for two weeks response time. There were also telephone calls as required to identify personnel, answer respondents' questions, etc. (See Appendices C, D, and E for copies of the cover letters and post card.)

There were 110 surveys mailed. One company could not be located, one was no longer in business, and six had merged with other companies in the study. This reduced the total number surveyed to 102. Of those 102, 62 responded. Two of those responded with unusable questionnaires; they were nowhere near complete. Therefore, the final response tally was 60 of 102, for a response rate of 58.8%.

3.4 Instrumentation

Instrumentation was constructed so as to be consistent with the objectives of this study. A questionnaire was designed to include pertinent questions relating to the sample organizations' characteristics, perceptions of the issues, and efforts to develop organizational initiatives toward the advancement and retention of women managers. The questionnaire's purpose was to allow the collection of quantifiable data leading to the identification of organizational action and organizational variables affecting the development of women in management programs and policies.

The design of the questionnaire was based on an extensive analysis of the literature of women in management issues and the determination of some researchers that it is imperative that we investigate and attempt to understand complex organizations and how they shape the prospects for the work life of adults. (Kanter, 1976, 1977; Cullen, 1990; Dexter, 1979; Szafran, 1982) Kanter's (1976, 1977) structural approach to understanding the organizational behavior of women in organizations explains work behavior as a function of organizational context. This view makes it important to investigate the characteristics and structures of complex organizations in order to understand resulting work behaviors and develop appropriate social policy and intervention strategies toward the elimination

of sex discrimination and unequal opportunity in the workplace.

According to Cullen (1990), we are quite knowledgeable about the characteristics that women need to succeed in the corporate world, but we need more research to explore the characteristics of the organizations in which women succeed. Are there organizational factors and/or organizational forms that result in a more responsive agenda toward women?

The work of Szafran (1982) suggests that there are a number of organizational characteristics that may facilitate but do not necessarily determine the level of work force integration. He attempts to link organizational characteristics or organizational contexts to level of female and non-white work force participation. Factors that characterize terms such as formalization, centralization, hierarchical configuration, unionization, and diverse work-force composition, are among many implicated as change facilitators in the goal of the integration of women.

On the other hand, the Report on the Glass Ceiling Initiative (1991), a U.S. Department of Labor study investigating the dearth of women and minorities in management level positions, suggests that there are organizational factors that serve as barriers to equal access and opportunities for women in management. These

include: 1.) lack of corporate ownership of equal opportunity principles, 2.) lack of formalized monitoring of appraisal and compensation systems, 3.) placement patterns in line versus staff positions, 4.) inadequate record keeping, 5.) informal recruitment practices, and 6.) lack of formalized mechanisms for offering opportunities for corporate developmental experiences. A major theme of these barriers is a lack of formalization of organizational systems; a structural concern.

As Bolker, Blair, Van Loo and Roberts (1985) suggest, it is important to investigate what is being done to facilitate the advancement of women in organizations. The research in the field to date includes a plethora of recommendations for programs and policies to advance and retain women, but little empirical investigation has examined or assessed what is being done in organizations and how effective strategies are.

These theoretical underpinnings and analyses of research needs were integral to the construction of the survey instrument. Objective criteria outlined in the literature review were used in the development of the research tool. The questionnaire asked respondents to identify organizational characteristics, corporate initiatives, organizational perceptions of the issues, and facilitators and barriers for change concerning women-centered programs and policies. Respondents were asked to

report on the existence and level of targeted research variables by choosing the appropriate response from multiple choice options. Each item on the questionnaire was developed to measure a specific component of the research questions, objectives, and hypotheses outlined.

The questionnaire consisted of 36 questions. There were 35 closed form questions requiring a circled response to multiple choice inquiries. These questions addressed demographics, perception of the problem, forces for and barriers to change, organizational planning and program implementation, etc. The last question was open-ended and solicited any additional information the organization may wish to include on the topic. Some parts of other questions left room for explanation through the addition of an open-ended descriptor after the multiple choice question.

In several questions, Likert-type scales were used to seek degree of agreement and elicit subjective measurements of degrees of CEO involvement, difficulty attracting/retaining women, and organization structure, practice, and technology, characteristics, etc. Some rating scale response formats were required to determine perceived need of programs or degree of force be it for barrier or facilitator. (See Appendix B for a copy of the questionnaire.)

The questionnaire was developed with careful thought given to ease of reading, understandability, and time requirements in an effort to increase the probability of acceptable response levels. Sensitive issues were approached with directness tempered with discretion so as to elicit a high level of response. All questions were designed to induce easy, expeditious, clear, measurable responses.

3.5 Research Design

The research design of this study was questionnaire survey form leading toward the accumulation of descriptive information of organizational characteristics and initiatives that could illuminate the future direction of organizational strategies to advance the position of women in management. It was a quantitative research approach designed to add to the research base concerning organizational efforts to address the glass ceiling. Analysis of the existence and extent of previously suggested normative requisites of strong corporate support of women in management issues was a key factor of the design. Data were drawn from a sample of 110 companies singled out by Zeitz and Dusky (1988) in their book, The Best Companies for Women.

Survey research is a distinctive research methodology with a long historical tradition. It employs data-

collection tools used to obtain standardized information from a sample of subjects. (Borg and Gall, 1989) Survey research can be effective in outlining the distribution of a sample regarding a single variable and in exploring the relationships between two or more variables. It has the potential to identify possible cause-and-effect relationships, but is limited in its power to conclude a causal association; low internal validity. Only a controlled experiment has the ability to determine a cause-and-effect relationship between two variables with a high degree of certainty. According to Borg and Gall (1989), survey research has considerable value as an economical method of exploring relationships that if found, can be studied for causality through an experimental method. It is a powerful tool in establishing facts and relationships before the elaboration of general laws of causation.

A major weakness of the survey research method, however, is that it can lack the richness, depth, and clarity of the qualitative approach. As a component of the quantitative model, survey research is based on the research traditions and methods first developed in the physical sciences. Rooted in the philosophies of that paradigm, survey research is criticized as being limited by a priori assumptions and researcher influence and manipulation of the behaviors under study.

Although survey research has significant limits, it also has considerable strengths. It is economical, provides a means to easily quantifiable data, and allows the researcher to analyze the relationships among a large number of variables in a single study.

In order to enhance learning pursuant to the present state of organization involvement in addressing glass ceiling issues, and to define organizational characteristics and antecedents that may precipitate and actually catalyze a high level of women in management policy development, an analysis was conducted of the presence or absence of specific factors previously indicated as requisites to employers' support of women's career development. Data were drawn from a sample of 110 companies cited by Zeitz and Dusky (1988) as "The Best Companies for Women".

3.6 <u>Measures</u>

Through the use of a questionnaire format, respondents were asked to specify the existence of their organization's programs to advance women's status and indicate the depth and breadth of their efforts. Thirty-six questions were used to collect descriptive information on the responding organization's perception of the problem of women's lack of advancement, planning and needs assessment process, motivations and barriers to change, and specific

organizational characteristics and factors that may
motivate women in management policy development.

The literature of the research to date does not offer
a universally accepted measure of organizational success in
policy development to facilitate the advancement of women
in management. In fact, there has been little evaluation
and empirical investigation into the effectiveness or
validity of programs extensively recommended to promote the
status of women in organizations. (Boeker, Blair, Van Loo,
and Roberts, 1985) Catalyst and the Glass Ceiling
Commission have offered some research into programming
effectiveness, but it is of a limited nature. Establishing
a single performance measure for all of the organizations
in the sample was problematic. Based on previous research,
the researcher of this study developed a measure of an
organization's level of policy development for the
advancement of women called the <u>Total Women's Advancement
Policy Development Index</u>. This was used as well as the
<u>Total Number of Programs Offered</u> to measure organizational
support of women in management issues.

3.6.1 <u>Level of Corporate Involvement/Support</u>

The <u>Total Number of Organizational Programs</u>
implemented to promote the upward mobility of women
indicated by the respondents answer to Question #22 of the
survey was used as one measure of an organization's support

of women in management issues. The Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index developed by the researcher was used as the other measure representing organizational level of program development based on additional indicators beyond sheer numbers of programs.

The Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index was developed to measure the breadth, depth, and developmental level of an organization's programming and policy development targeting women's advancement. The index consisted of five measures of organizational commitment and support: 1.) the quantity of programs available, 2.) the range of programs offered, 3.) the comprehensiveness of organizational development planning and programming, 4.) the self-reported description of level of organizational efforts to advance women, and 5.) the developmental level of organizational programming for women in management. This measure of organization development and support of women's advancement policy and programs was operationalized as an index representing multivariate phenomenon composed of the above-mentioned variables.

The Quantity of Programs was indicated by the organization's response to Question #22, "Which formal programs has your company implemented as strategies to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in management?" The programs listed for identification as offerings included wide-ranging initiatives from training

and development programs for women in management, to training programs for management aimed at the adjustment of stereotypical attitudes, to work/family initiatives, to reward and punishment systems for managers including criteria for hiring, promoting, and retaining women managers. Each program circled received one point toward the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index for a possible sum of 23 points. (No company added "other" programs.)

The Range or Breadth of Initiatives was measured by dividing the program possibilities listed in Question #22 into eight categories. These included: 1.) individual training and development programs, 2.) work and family/workplace flexibility initiatives, 3.) monitoring/ compliance programs, 4.) group level diversity initiatives, 5.) recruitment/appraisal systems and practices, 6.) leadership development/succession planning strategies, 7.) upward mobility opportunity enhancement initiatives, and 8.) management accountability/reward and punishment systems. When tallying responses to Question #22, an organization received one point for each category that was represented by at least one program offering for a possible score of eight points.

The Comprehensiveness of Organizational Efforts to advance women was measured by evaluating seven criteria: 1.) long-range planning process regarding the advancement

and retention of women, 2.) integration of women's development initiatives with the organization's overall strategic business plan, 3.) salary disparity remediation efforts, 4.) accessibility of programs at all levels of management, 5.) organizational processes for determining women's advancement strategies (internal research to assess needs and corporate benchmarking, and 6.) evaluation measures of program success.

Based on the respondents' answers to Questions #14, #18, #19, #23, #25, and #26, the measures of organizational comprehensiveness in women's advancement program and policy development were determined. Each criteria was assigned one point with criteria #5 having a two point potential (one for utilizing internal research and one for corporate benchmarking). The possible total for organizational comprehensiveness of women in management policy development was <u>seven</u> points.

Next, the <u>Self-Reported Level of Organizational Action</u> toward improving women's status was measured by the respondents' answer to Question #35. The response possibilities were ranked according to developmental level and assigned points accordingly. "Ongoing dialogue about women's issues" was ranked with a score of one point, "Diagnostics of women employees' needs and consultants for women's development programs" was ranked next with a score of two points, and "Formal goals and organizational

programs" was ranked the highest on the developmental scale
for a score of three points. The possible total score on
this measure was _three_ points.

Lastly, the _Developmental Level of Women in Management_
Programming was measured by singling out 13 higher level
organization-structural programs from Question #22's list
of programs offered. These higher developmental level
initiatives characterized by their multidimensionality
targeting levels of intervention and/or impetus for deeply
embedded structural change included: 1.) training for
management in standardizing rating scales and decision-
making procedures, 2.) reward and punishment systems for
supervisors/management including criteria for hiring,
promoting, and retaining women managers, 3.) mentoring
programs for women, 4.) women's support/networking groups,
5.) organizational development strategies including job
rotation, job redesign, job enlargement, etc.,
6.) development of inclusive informal communication
channels, 7.) addressing issues of sexism via engaging
outside consultant, 8.) women's advisory committee
reporting to top management, 9.) special career development
programs for women, 10.) active tracking of managerial
women's career paths, 11.) succession planning,
12.) employee evaluation of managers, and 13.) early
identification of women managers with high leadership
potential. One point was assigned to each of these higher

level initiatives if marked by the respondent as an organizational initiative offered by the firm. The total possible score for this measure was <u>13</u> points.

Based on each of the above-mentioned six categories of the <u>Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index</u> measure, the total number of points that could be scored to indicate the overall development level of organization development strategic planning, programming, and policy development was <u>54</u>. (23 + 8 + 7 + 3 + 13)

3.6.2 <u>Rationale for Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index as a Measure</u>

These indicators were examined as measures of developmental level of organizational strategies to facilitate the advancement of and retention of women in management based on the evidence in the research literature.

3.6.2.1 <u>Range of Programs</u>

The categories defining the range of programs was loosely based on program categories outlined in <u>Cracking the Glass Ceiling: Strategies for Success</u> (Catalyst, 1994) and the structural program definitions of Kanter. (1976) Since the multidimensionality of programs is shared consistently in the research as a requirement of successful programs (Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; Kanter, 1976; Fagenson, 1990; Cullen, 1990;

Bhatnagar, 1988), the breadth of policy development seemed
critical to the index measure. As suggested in the Glass
Ceiling Commission report, single-pronged programs to
address women's advancement issues have little effect.
Isolated initiatives targeting one level of intervention do
not result in long-lasting change. Women in management
training and work/family programs alone cannot affect deep-
seated change unless they are combined with efforts to
dismantle structural barriers in the corporate culture and
work environment. (U.S. Department of Labor)

3.6.2.2 Comprehensiveness of Programs

The comprehensiveness measure was rooted in issues of
planning, evaluation, and organizational commitment. These
are all widely recognized requisites of any widespread
organizational change effort according to Organization
Development theory.

Long range planning is usually defined in Management
literature as planning 10 to 20 years in the future;
resting on vision and a sense of what management would like
the organization to become. Increased technological
complexity, financial risk, the global economy, changing
demographics, and management's burden of timely decision-
making all make formal organizational planning more
important than ever; and long-range planning a necessary
component. (Webber, 1975) Issues of women's lack of upward

mobility are impacting organizational effectiveness and growth based on these changes external to the business environment. The initiation and implementation of strategies to address the problem are dependent on a long-term view of organizational development for their success.

Formulating business strategy (<u>strategic business plan</u>) based on long-range vision and an examination of the environment is critical to business success (Webber, 1975) According to the Glass Ceiling Commission's Recommendations report (1995), the movement to break the glass ceiling must be positioned and measured as part of the strategic business plan. It must be recognized and supported at the same level as other business plans leading to long-term corporate profitability. Organizational initiatives (i.e. programs to advance the status of women) are not likely to succeed if they are not worthy of inclusion in the strategic business plan of an organization. (Catalyst, 1994, U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995) The Glass Ceiling Commission (U.S. Department of Labor) recommends "...that all corporations include in their strategic business plans efforts to achieve diversity both at the senior management level and throughout the workforce." (p. 13)

Another component of a company's planning process that represents commitment to an issue is the organizational needs assessment process. Organizations need to identify,

in a deliberate and systematic fashion the women managers'
needs, the organizational barriers, and the cultural and
environmental temperature before targeting specific plans
of action to address or eliminate them.

Catalyst (1994) suggests that the effectiveness of
corporate initiatives depends even more on the process used
for selections of strategies and programs for
implementation than the actual programs themselves. There
needs to be a recognition, an articulation of a business
need, an identification of the "real issues", and a sending
of the message down the management ranks. This type of
internal research is necessary to defining the problem so a
solution that fits the problem can be developed. Erroneous
assumptions regarding a problem often lead to solutions
that do not fit. (Catalyst)

Benchmarking is another component of corporate
planning processes that is indicative of a certain level of
comprehensiveness in identifying and addressing
organizational issues. Benchmarking is an external
research process designed to assess how industry peers are
progressing on certain human resources performance measures
and what strategies they are employing to advance women.
(Catalyst, 1994) Catalyst research suggests that corporate
benchmarking in combination with internal needs assessment
research is critical to the development of successful
initiatives to improve the status of women in management.

Accessibility of programs is important to women in management development. One often cited criticism is that programs to advance the status of women are not offered at the professional and managerial levels. For instance, workplace flexibility initiatives may not be available to certain levels of managers based on accusations of resulting business hardship. Catalyst (1991) found that programs and benefits that have no effect on working hours are much more likely to be available across the board than are flexible arrangements that affect hours of work and presence at company work sites. Professional staff are more likely to have many programs offered to them than management, and senior managers are the least likely of all. (Catalyst) This is indeed an ironic twist that would continue to hinder women's progress more than men's based on the still strong gender-relatedness of family issues. Therefore, organizations offering women's advancement programs at all levels indicate a stronger commitment to women in management issues.

Addressing salary disparities is an extremely complicated issue for corporations. It is well documented that sex differentiation in work pay for managers is still a somber reality. (Reskin and Ross, 1992) In 1980, the median income of women managers who worked full time year round was 56.3% of that of men. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984) By 1989, nine years later, this figure had increased

to only 68%. (U.S. House of Representatives, 1991)
Although some of this disparity results from the difference
in gender distributions across managerial occupations, in
no detailed managerial occupation had women achieved
earnings parity with men. (Reskin and Ross) At the higher
level managerial positions, the percentage earned by women
as compared to men is even lower. (Heidrick and Struggles,
1987) It is predicted by optimistic economists that this
wage gap may narrow with women earning 74% of what men earn
by the year 2000. (Zeitz and Dusky, 1988)

Pay equity and comparable worth analyses are internal
studies that are difficult for companies to pursue and are
often inconclusive. An organizational attempt to examine,
analyze, and make efforts to remediate salary disparities
would seem worthy of recognition as indicative of a firm's
level of commitment to women's advancement issues.

The final piece of the comprehensiveness measure was
based on the presence of evaluation measures to determine
program success. Evaluation is critical to the
Organization Development loop: plan, implement, evaluate.
Evaluation provides feedback to business leaders and
organizational members relevant to the progress and impact
of programs and policies. This information is then
utilized as a proof for further diagnosis and modification,
or to continue the program as a successful endeavor.

(Cummings and Huse, 1989) A measurement tool is required for meaningful evaluation.

An organization's reporting of the presence of a measure of program success implies evaluation is part of their organization development cycle regarding the women in management issue and offers another indication of the comprehensiveness of their overall organization change effort. Catalyst (1994) suggests that an organization's measuring and reviewing (evaluating) of corporate initiatives' results is an important characteristic of strategies that are most likely to succeed.

3.6.2.3 Self-Reported Level of Organizational Action

The self-reported assessment of the organization's efforts to improve women's status was used as another measure in the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index. Obviously, self-reported evaluations such as these run the risk of response effect; the tendency of the respondent to give an inaccurate account possible because she is predisposed to presenting herself and her organization in favorable terms. (Borg and Gall, 1989) However, this observation by the respondent could indeed be an accurate portrayal of the organization's level of development in addressing women's advancement issues. It could also be an appropriate indication of an organization's actual integration level for women since

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organizational development interventions should be
appropriate to the level of development of the target of
change (Jackson and Holvino, 1988) and may therefore be
indicative of that stage of development.

In terms of strictly organizational development action
levels, "dialogue" would represent a lower level than
"diagnostics" which would indicate a lower level of
development than "formal goals and organizational
programs". In Organization Development theory, these would
represent levels of sophistication of organizational
response.

Obviously, discussion, a symbol of recognition of a
problem, is likely to precede any remediating action.
Next, the diagnosing of an organizational issue precedes
the intervention or program development stage in the
process of Organization Development. (Cummings and Huse,
1989) Diagnosis is the process of assessing the
functioning of an organization in general or specific to a
certain issue to discover sources of problems and areas for
targeted improvement. Through data collection and analysis
regarding organizational functioning in a particular arena
(i.e. women in management), conclusions can be inferred for
potential change and improvement. (Cummings and Huse) This
"diagnostic information" then has the potential to lead to
the next level of development which would result in action:

intervention, defining of goals, formal organizational
programs, changing of policies, etc.

3.6.2.4 <u>Developmental Level of Women in Management</u>
        <u>Programming</u>

    This last category of the Total Women's Advancement
Policy Development Index measured the <u>developmental level</u>
<u>of the women in management programs</u> offered by the
business. The formal programs comprising the menu for
selection by the respondents ranged from training and
development programs for women in management to work/family
initiatives to reward and punishment systems for management
including criteria for hiring, promoting, and retaining
women managers. The 23 programs listed in Question #22 to
solicit an organization's identification of the programs it
offers, were extremely diverse in their sophistication and
level of development.

    Training programs targeting women's management skills
(individual-centered programs) were the first to be
developed to address issues of women's lack of corporate
position and power. They continued to be the target for
change until Kanter's (1976) organization structure theory.
At that point, structural strategies began to be explored,
and researchers have since outlined the limits of
individual-centered approaches. (Cullen, 1990; Morrison,
White, and Van Velsor, 1990; Fagenson, 1990)

According to Catalyst (1994), work/family programs are the first steps in organizational efforts to search for more comprehensive, highly developed program strategies that work in both the individual and structural realms. Catalyst has found these programs to be fundamental first steps for organizations that are interested in recruitment, retention, development, and advancement of women. Besides being the first attempts for most companies, they are consequently the most widespread initiatives in organizations today.

However, as Catalyst (1994) strongly advises, work/family initiatives are not sufficient to offer us a guarantee of women's career mobility and eventual equal representation in powerful positions. According to Dusky, one of the co-authors of <u>The Best Companies for Women</u> (1988), family benefits alone cannot always be effective in the retention and promotion of women. "there is no direct correlation between companies that have excellent maternity and child care benefits and companies where women get ahead." (Konrad, 1980 p. 54) A supportive environment with opportunities for professional advancement are necessary to the mix and often call for higher developmental strategies.

Catalyst (1994) offers a concurring view and reports a need for other initiatives (other than work/family) more specific to addressing issues of women's development and upward mobility in organizations. These suggested

strategies are more consistent with the characteristics of organization structure initiatives, and target structural barriers in the corporate culture and work environment. They are more multidimensional in their targeting realms and of a higher developmental level of change. They tend to zero in on fundamental changes in deeply embedded, systemic corporate value systems and culture and are, therefore, the most difficult ones to implement.

In Organization Development theory, potential targets of change include the individual, the group, the organization, groups of organizations, the community, the environment, society, etc. As one moves up the hierarchy while continuing to attempt to involve the lower level components in comprehensive, widespread change, the interventions become more difficult but perhaps more effective in catalyzing long-lasting, widespread change as suggested by Fagenson's (1990) gender-organization-system theory of Women in Management.

Based on this history and research of organizational development strategies to address women's advancement issues, the researcher singled out 13 of the higher level structural programs (listed earlier in this chapter, Section 3.6.1) to further represent an organization's strength of support for women in management program/policy development.

These measures of corporate support and commitment to women's advancement were thus key to the testing of the relationships between those organizational variables under study and the level of corporate involvement in programming to facilitate the advancement and retention of women managers.

3.6.3 Variable Coding

The questionnaire solicited corporate information on size of company, type of company, demographics relating to women's representation in the overall workforce, in senior management, on the board of directors, and in positions reporting directly to the CEO, the importance of the goal of attracting/retaining women managers, the difficulty in recruiting and retaining female managers as compared to males, the corporate environmental climate as to forces for and barriers against change toward women's advancement, remediation efforts targeting salary disparities, EEO accountability, CEO involvement, long range planning efforts and strategic planning integration with women's advancement agendas, perception of women's career obstacles and how they compared to men's, formal programs offered to facilitate the advancement of women in management, accessibility of programs, perception of developmental level of program need, internal and external planning processes, successful initiative characteristics,

unionization, hierarchical structure, management practice innovation, formalization of communication channels and EEO record-keeping systems, and level of overall formalization regarding rules, procedures, and instructions.

All of these variables were employed to enlighten the activity level and commitment of these organizations to issues of women's career development and advancement. Some were utilized as indicators of corporate response and some were tested for their relationship to high levels of organization development and support for women's advancement agendas.

Organizational Level of Respondent was determined by asking the subject to specify her job title. The responses were coded such that the value of one represented CEO, the value of two represented Senior Vice President of Human Resources, the value of three represented Vice President of Human Resources, the value of four represented Director/Manager of Human Resources, the value of five represented Manager/Coordinator of Diversity for Equal Employment Affairs, the value of six represented other Human Resource personnel, and the value of seven represented other.

Industry Classification was assessed through the use of ten categories: manufacturing/processing, banking/investment/insurance, education, healthcare, hotel/restaurant, telecommunications, wholesale, retail,

computer software development, professional and business services, and broadcasting/publishing/advertising. The measure was coded such that the value of one represented presence of the industry and the value of zero represented absence.

Company Size was measured by the total number of employees for each company. This measure was coded so that the value of one represented 0 to 50 employees, the value of two represented 51 to 500 employees, the value of three represented 501 to 5000 employees, the value of four represented 5001 to 25,000 employees, and the value of five represented more than 25,000 employees.

Percentage of Women in the Workforce was coded so that the value of one represented 0 to 25%, the value of two represented 26 to 50%, the value of three represented 51 to 75%, and the value of four represented 76 to 100%.

Percentage of Women Senior Managers was measured by dividing the actual number of female senior managers as estimated by the respondent by the actual number of senior managers as estimated by the respondent. The percentages were then statistically analyzed as a continuous ratio variable.

Percentage of Women Board Directors was measured by dividing the actual number of female board directors as estimated by the respondent by the actual number of board directors as estimated by the respondent. The percentages

were then statistically analyzed as a continuous ratio variable.

Percentage of Women Managers Reporting Directly to the CEO was measured by dividing the actual number of female managers reporting directly to the CEO as estimated by the respondent by the actual number of managers reporting directly to the CEO as estimated by the respondent. The percentages were then statistically analyzed as a continuous ratio variable.

Women's Attraction/Retention as an Important Organizational Goal was assessed by asking respondents if attracting/retaining female managers was an important goal of their company. The measure was coded such that the value of zero represented No and the value of one represented Yes.

Difficulty Attracting/Retaining Female Managers was measured by asking respondents to report their subjective opinion of the extent of difficulty in attracting/retaining female managers in their company. Responses were measured on a four-point Likert scale. The scale was coded so that one represented Not Difficult and four represented Extremely Difficult.

Difficulty Attracting/Retaining Female Managers Versus Male was measured by asking respondents to specify their subjective opinion as to the difficulty of attracting/retaining female managers as compared to

attracting/retaining male managers. Responses were
measured on a five-point Likert scale with one representing
Strongly Disagree and five representing Strongly Agree.

Organizational Environment for Change: Motivators was
assessed by asking respondents to specify the forces for
change present in their company concerning the issue of
women in management, and to indicate their strength. There
were 13 forces suggested from productivity/cost issues to
social responsibility/organizational culture concerns to
labor supply/demand matters. The forces were measured by a
rating scale of one to four, and coded such that the value
of one represented a Very Great force and the value of four
represented No Force.

Organizational Environment for Change: Barriers was
assessed by asking respondents to specify the barriers to
change present in their company concerning the issue of
women in management, and to indicate their strength. There
were seven barriers suggested ranging from lack of
perceived need/management support to lack of resources, and
stereotypes/preconceptions/organizational culture. The
barriers were measured for strength by a rating scale of
one to four, and coded such that the value of one
represented a Major Barrier and the value of four
represented No Barrier.

Level of Accountability for EEO Results was measured
by asking respondents to identify who is responsible for

EEO accountability in their company. The measure was coded

so that the value of one represented Middle Management, the

value of two represented Personnel/Human Resources Staff,

the value of three represented Senior Management, and the

value of four represented the CEO. The highest level

circled was the response coded if more than one were

circled.

CEO Involvement was measured by asking respondents

their subjective opinion by specifying their degree of

agreement with the statement that their company's CEO is

personally involved in efforts to recruit and promote women

managers. A five-point Likert scale measured the

responses. The measures were coded such that a value of

one represented Strongly Disagree and a value of five

represented Strongly Agree.

Women's Total Advancement Policy Development Index was

measured by compiling five other measures: 1.) quantity of

programs, 2.) range of programs, 3.) comprehensiveness of

programs, 4.) self-reported level of organizational action,

and 5.) developmental level of Women in Management

programming. These values were coded as indicated under

the description of each of these five sub-measures (pp.

206-210) and summed to form the Women's Total Advancement

Policy Development Index (possible value of zero to 54).

Total Programs Offered was measured by asking

respondents to specify which programs (from a list of 23)

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were offered by their organizations. Each of these program selections was coded as a dichotomous variable with the value of zero representing the absence of and the value of one representing the presence of the program examined.

Range of Programs Offered was measured by dividing the program selections into eight categories: Individual Training and Development Programs, Work/Family/Workplace Flexibility Initiatives, Monitoring/Compliance, Group Level Diversity Initiatives, Recruitment/Appraisal Systems and Practices, Leadership Development/Succession Planning, Opportunity Enhancement Initiatives, and Management Accountability Programs. The selections or programs offered were then coded as dichotomous variables with the value of one representing the presence of at least one program in a particular category and the value of zero representing the absence of any programs in that category. The values of one were then added across categories to measure the range of programs offered. (range measure-possible score of zero to eight) The Range of programs was consequently one of the measures comprising the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index.

Comprehensiveness of Programs Offered was measured by adding indices of the following measures: 1.) long range planning effort, 2.) women's advancement planning integration with strategic business plan, 3.) efforts toward salary disparity remediation, 4.) accessibility of

programs, 5.) level of organizational planning process, and 6.) level of evaluation process. (comprehensiveness measure-possible score of zero to seven.) The Comprehensiveness of programs measure was consequently added into the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index.

Long Range Planning Effort was measured by asking respondents if their company engages in long range planning regarding the advancement and retention of women. The measure was coded so that zero represented the absence of long-range planning and one represented the presence of long-range planning. This number, if one, was added into the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index as part of the Comprehensiveness measure.

Integration of Women's Advancement Program Planning with Strategic Business Plan was measured by asking respondents if planning regarding the advancement and retention of women is included in their company's strategic business plan. The measure was coded so that zero represented No and one represented Yes. This number, if one, was then added into the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index as part of the Comprehensiveness measure.

Effort Toward Salary Disparity Remediation was measured by asking respondents to indicate whether their company had taken steps to address salary disparities based

on gender. The measure was coded so that the value of one represented No, the value of 2 represented Yes, and the value of three represented No Disparities Present. This value (possible zero to three) was then added to the Comprehensiveness measure which became part of the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index.

Accessibility of Programs was measured by asking respondents if all of the programs offered by their company to advance the status of women were available to women managers even at the highest levels. The measure was coded so that the value of zero represented No and the value of one represented Yes. If one, this value was added to the Comprehensiveness measure of the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index.

Level of Organizational Planning Process was measured by asking the respondents to specify which organizational processes their company engages in to determine what programs it will develop and implement to target the advancement of women in management. The choices were internal research, corporate benchmarking practices, and other. The measures were coded so that the value of zero represented absence and the value of one represented presence of the planning process examined. These were then added for a total of zero to two to be incorporated into the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index under the program Comprehensiveness measure.

Level of Evaluation Process was measured by asking
respondents to specify how they determine program success.
The measure consisted of four options: participation rates
for women, overall recruitment and retention numbers for
women, women's job satisfaction indicators, and other. The
measure was coded such that the value of zero represented
the absence of a program and the value of one represented
the presence of a program. The offering of any one program
was coded as a one and added to the Comprehensiveness
measure of the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development
Index. (More than one offering was still only one point in
the index measure.)

Self-Reported Level of Organizational Action was
measured by asking respondents for their subjective opinion
in specifying which choice described their company's
efforts to improve women's status. The measure was coded
such that the value of one represented Ongoing dialogue
about women's issues, the value of two represented
Diagnostics of employees' needs and consultants for women's
development programs, and the value of three represented
Formal goals and organizational programs. These codes
(possible one through three) representing increasing levels
of advancement were then used in the Total Women's
Advancement Policy Development Index.

Developmental Level of Women in Management Programming
was measured by selecting 13 higher level structural

programs from the total programs offered list. The respondents were asked to specify the existence of these higher level women's advancement strategies in their divulgence of the general program offerings of their companies. The measure was coded such that the value of one represented presence of and the value of zero represented absence of the higher level structural programs inventoried. The number of ones (possible 0 to 13) were then tallied for inclusion in the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index.

Organizational Perception of Women's Career Obstacles Versus Men's was measured by asking respondents to estimate the extent that women face more obstacles than men in advancing their careers. Responses were measured on a four-point Likert scale. The scale was coded so that the value of one represented No Extent and the value of four represented Great Extent.

Characteristics of Successful Initiatives was assessed by asking respondents to specify the existence of nine characteristics as indicators of successful initiatives in their companies. The measures were coded such that a value of one represented inclusion of the characteristic as a requisite to success and a value of zero represented exclusion of the characteristic examined.

Unionization was measured by asking respondents to specify the existence of a union within their company. The

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measure was coded so that the value of zero represented the absence of a union and a value of one represented the presence of a union.

Organization Structure was measured by asking respondents to specify their subjective opinion of their company's basic structure. The measure was coded such that the value of one represented Flattened Hierarchical Structure, two represented Somewhat Hierarchical, and three represented Extremely Hierarchical.

Organizational Innovation in Management Practices was measured by asking respondents their subjective opinion by stating their level of agreement with the statement that their company exhibits a high degree of innovation in managerial practices. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale with the value of one representing Strongly Disagree and the value of five representing Strongly Agree.

Formalization of Communication Channels was measured by asking respondents their subjective opinion by stating their level of agreement with the statement that their company has extremely formalized channels of communication. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale with the value of one representing Strongly Disagree and the value of five representing Strongly Agree.

Formalization AA/EEO Record-Keeping System was measured by asking respondents to specify their subjective

opinion by stating their degree of agreement with the statement that their company's record-keeping system regarding AA/EEO responsibilities concerning recruitment, employment, and developmental activities for management positions is formalized, utilized, and closely monitored. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale with the value of one representing Strongly Disagree and the value of five representing Strongly Agree.

Formalization of Organization was measured by asking respondents to specify their subjective opinion of the degree of formalization (the extent to which rules, procedures, and instructions are written down in their business). The responses were measured on a four-point Likert scale. The measure was coded so that the value of one represented Not Formalized, the value of two represented Somewhat Formalized, the value of three represented Moderately Formalized, and the value of four represented Extremely Formalized.

Organizational Theoretical Perspective of Women Managers' Lack of Corporate Advancement was assessed by examining: 1.) organizational perception of women's career obstacles and 2.) organizational perception of women's advancement program need.

Organizational perception of women's career obstacles was measured by asking respondents to specify, based on their subjective view, the major obstacles women encounter

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in corporations in advancing their careers. The choices
ranged from individual-centered obstacles (i.e. lack of
appropriate skills and experience, lack of particular
characteristics requisite to managerial work, etc.) to more
organization-structure/culture oriented obstacles (i.e.
absence of opportunity for advancement, job classification
system, managerial attitudes and behaviors, etc.). The
obstacles were ultimately categorized into individual-
centered and organization-structure/culture-centered. The
measure was coded such that the value of one represented
Individual-Centered and the value of two represented
Organization-Structure/Culture-Centered obstacles.

In determining the organization's perspective of the
origins of women's obstacles (individual-centered or
organization-structure/culture-centered) a company that had
reported individual obstacles and 25% or less of the
structural/culture obstacles was determined to have a
predominantly individual-centered view of women's career
obstacles; a company that had specified individual
obstacles and more that 25% of the organization-
structure/culture obstacles listed was assessed as having a
combination gender-organization-structure view of women's
obstacles; and a business that did not report any
individual-centered obstacles but did specify organization-
structure obstacles was assessed as having an organization-
structure/cultural view of the origins of women's career

obstacles. These measures were then coded such that the value of one represented an Individual-Centered view of women's obstacles, the value of two represented an Organization-Structure/Cultural view, and the value of three represented a combination or Gender-Organization view of the nature of the obstacles women face in advancing their careers.

Organizational Perception of Women's Advancement Program Need was measured by asking respondents to rate the level of need of four categories of women's advancement programs. The program categories ranged from lower to higher level programs in the developmental stages of organizational initiatives to improve the upward mobility of women in management. The categories included, in order of developmental level: 1.) training and development for women, 2.) training and development for men regarding the issue of women in management, 3.) work/family initiatives, and 4.) organizational structure initiatives. The four-point rating scale was coded such that the value of one represented Most Needed and the value of four represented Least Needed.

The four foci representing developmental level of program need (individual women, male attitudes/behaviors, work/family, and higher level organization structural), each with their individual ratings for a total of 16 different permutations, were eventually collapsed into

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three categories based on the predominant focus of the program need rankings. These three categories were: individual-centered, organization-structure/culture-centered, and a strong combination of the two (gender-organization view).

If the highest need ratings reported were predominantly in the individual and lower level structural realms, the program need was categorized as basically individual-centered; if the highest need ratings were predominantly in the organization-structure/culture level areas, the program need was categorized as basically organization-structure/culture centered; and if the highest need ratings were represented strongly in both the individual and the organization-structure levels, the program need was categorized as a strong combination of individual and organization-structure (gender-organization-centered).

These categories were then coded such that the value of one represented Individual-Centered program need, the value of two represented Organization-Structure/Culture-Centered program need, and the value of three represented a strong Combination of both (Gender-Organization View).

Theoretical/Target Level of Programs Offered was assessed by dividing the program selections into two groups: individual-centered programs (lower developmental level) and organization-structure/culture programs (higher

developmental level). The indicator was coded so that a value of one represented Individual (lower developmental level) and a value of two represented Structural (higher developmental level) programs.

In determining the organization's overall theoretical or target level of programs offered, a company that specified the availability of at least one individual-centered program and 25% or less of the organization-structure/culture programs was categorized as being predominantly individual/gender-centered in its strategies to promote women's upward mobility. An organization that did not specify any individual-centered programs and any number or combination of organization-structure/culture initiatives was categorized as organization-structure/culture-centered in its organization development approach toward improving the status of women in management. And lastly, a firm that reported the existence of one or more individual-centered programs and more than 25% of the structural/cultural-centered strategies was categorized as displaying a strong combination, multi-level, or gender-organization approach to solving the issue of women's underrepresentation in positions of power.

These measures were then coded such that the value of one represented an Individual-Centered theoretical/target level of program offerings, the value of two represented an Organization-Structure/Culture-Centered theoretical/target

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level, and the value of three represented a Combination or Gender-Organization-Centered theoretical/target level of strategy development to advance women's managerial status.

3.7 Data Collection and Editing

Data were collected through the implementation of a mailed questionnaire. These questionnaires were collected at a private mail box in Great Barrington, MA. Raw data was collected from the returned questionnaires, coded and entered directly into the computer. The small sample size of the study population was conducive to this approach. Each company was assigned an identification code which was coded as the identifier in all data analyses. Research variables were also identified by code and analyzed via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software package. (Norusis, 1983)

3.8 Data Analysis

Data collected by means of a questionnaire survey were used to address the research questions and hypotheses guiding this study as introduced in Chapter 1. The survey data were analyzed quantitatively using descriptive statistics to report and summarize the findings of the questionnaire items, and correlational statistics to examine the relationship of organizational factors and the developmental level of initiatives targeted toward the

advancement and retention of women managers. The statistics employed to report the data and summarize the findings were computed using SPSS. (Norusis, 1983)

Descriptive analyses of the data based on the questionnaire items includes frequency and percentage distributions of responses. Relationships between variables were explored using bivariate correlational statistics to measure levels of association for hypothesis testing. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed as one method of correlational analysis. This statistical tool assesses the direction and strength of a linear relationship between variables with continuous interval quantitative properties. Rank expressions of variables were analyzed using the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient. For all statistical testing, alpha (level of significance) was set a priori at 0.05.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the survey research data and
data analysis results as determined by the methodologies
outlined in Chapter 3. Section 4.2 reports the results of
the survey questionnaire and outlines the major findings as
they relate to the organizational variables described in
Chapter 2, Section 2.10. For referencing, the tables
summarizing the findings described in Section 4.2 may be
located at the end of Chapter 4, pages 289 to 316. Section
4.3 reports and describes the statistical findings based on
the data analyses utilized to test the hypotheses and
address the major research questions posed by this study.
A summary of the findings and discussion of the
implications of the results are presented in Chapter 5.

4.2 Survey Results

The survey mailing resulted in the collection of 62
response questionnaires. Sixty of those were appropriate
for use in data analysis. Two were too incomplete to be of
any use.

Some of the questionnaires employed in the analyses
had incomplete responses to certain questions posed. Two
questions on the survey (#7 - percentage of women in line

versus staff positions, and #11 - reasons why women are leaving) could not be analyzed because of a widespread lack of information reported. This information was not readily available to the individuals responding.

In one respect, the researcher found it heartening that businesses did not guess as to why women are leaving if they did not have the actual data; however, the researcher also found it disheartening that the majority of respondents did not have a handle on the reasons for women managers' turnover. (Although the way the question was worded, "If your company perceives a problem with retaining female managers.....", a lack of response could have indicated that the respondents were not perceiving a problem. However, this was counterindicated by the responses for other questions in the survey relating to the difficulty in attracting/ retaining women managers.)

4.2.1 Executive Level of Respondent

Specification of the respondent's job title was requested in the survey. As presented in Table 1 (p. 289), 45% of the respondents were at the Vice President of Human Resources level or higher (26.7% Vice President of Human Resources, 16.7% Senior Vice President of Human Resources, and 1.7% CEO). Twenty-eight and three tenths percent were Directors or Managers of Human Resources, and 11.7% were

Managers/Coordinators of Diversity. This indicated an
extremely high executive level of respondent.

4.2.2 <u>Industry Classification</u>

Of the 60 companies responding, 18 (30%) were
manufacturers, 10 (16.7%) were wholesale/retail businesses,
9 (15%) were in broadcasting/publishing/advertising, and 8
(13.3%) were in banking/investment/insurance. The
remaining 25% were spread across other categories. (See
Table 2, p. 290.) Of the responding companies, 40.7% were
product-oriented and 39% were service-oriented. The
remaining were a combination of product and service (16.9%)
or other (3.4%).

The finding of interest in the industry
classifications was the significant percentage of
manufacturing firms represented. This high level of
representation in "The Best Companies for Women" is in
contrast with recent research suggesting that manufacturing
is among those industry groups with the lowest percentages
of women managers. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)
Also, the industry category with the largest percentage of
management women including senior management has been
reported to be the financial services industry (Catalyst,
1991); while in this study the category of
banking/investment/insurance was represented at less than
one half the level of manufacturing. Although these

observations are interesting, the small sample size of this research limits any strong inferences regarding industry differences in women's advancement policy development.

4.2.3 Company Size

Company size as measured by number of employees was distributed such that 8.3% of the firms surveyed had 51-500 employees, 25% had 501-5,000, 28.3% employed 5001-25,000 individuals, and 38.4% reported having more than 25,000 employees. Thus, two thirds or 66.7% of the businesses had more than 500 employees. (Refer to Table 3, p. 291.)

From this data, it appears that size may be associated with a high level of programming and policy development in women's advancement programs, if one assumes these firms under study provide similar numbers and levels of women in management initiatives. However, this research will later discover significant variation in the women's development programming of the firms under study, and will further examine the relationship between company size and quantity and level of women in management programs via hypothesis testing.

4.2.4 Percentage of Women in the Workforce

According to Table 4 (p. 291), 51.8% of the companies maintained a level of female workforce participation exceeding 50%. Forty-six and six tenths of the respondents

specified that women composed one half to three quarters of
their employees. This level of female workforce
participation appears compatible with the 1990 Catalyst
Study finding that over one third of the responding Fortune
500 companies reported that women constituted 50 to 75% of
their non-exempt employees. Three or 5.2% of the
businesses had a female labor force constituting more than
75% of their overall workforce.

4.2.5 Percentage of Women Senior Managers

Female representation in senior level executive
positions is 3-5% according to the Glass Ceiling Commission
Report. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) Therefore,
it was somewhat surprising to find that 50% of the
companies surveyed in this study reported over 22% of their
senior managers were women. Women represented 24-75% of
the senior level management positions in 44.4% of the
businesses. In 24.1% of the companies, women comprised
over one-third of the senior managers, and over 48% of the
senior managers were women in 11.1% of the firms. (See
Table 5, p. 292.)

4.2.6 Percentage of Women Board Directors

In 1994, women held 6.9% of all board seats on the
Fortune 500 and Service 500 companies. (Catalyst, 1994) As
presented in Table 6 (p. 293), 78.6% of the 42 companies

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responding to this question reported over 7.14% females on their boards of directors. Thirty-one percent had boards composed of over 20% women, 21.4% over 30% women, and 4.8% over 50% women. Only four or 9.5% of those answering the question reported no women on their boards of directors. This suggests a higher level of female board directors in this sample as compared to the Fortune 500 companies where 48% reported an absence of women in board director positions in the 1994 Catalyst census. However, the relatively high number of questionnaires with missing data to this query (18) seemed to represent a lack of information, although it could also indicate the absence of female board directors in those firms.

4.2.7 Percentage of Women Managers Reporting Directly to the CEO

Of those managers reporting directly to the CEO, more than 15% were women in 54.7% of the companies reporting, while 20.8% of the firms had women represented by more than 40% in their managers with direct accountability to the CEO. Seventeen of the 53 respondents (32.1%) reported a total absence of women reporting directly to the CEO. (See Table 7, p. 294.)

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4.2.8 <u>Women Managers' Attraction/Retention as an Important Organizational Goal</u>

As the data in Table 8 (p. 295) show, an overwhelming majority of the organizations queried (91.7%) reported the attraction and retention of women managers to be an important goal of their company. It would be interesting to know why five of the respondents did not; had their organizations developed beyond the need to gender differentiate in their recruitment and retention goals?

4.2.9 <u>Organizational Perception of Difficulty Attracting/Retaining Female Managers</u>

In survey findings based on a national sample of 2,500 firms, Rosen, Miguel, and Peirce (1989) found that over 50% of the respondents experienced moderate to great difficulty in attracting and retaining women managers. Contrastingly, of the 59 subjects in this study who responded to this question, 35 or 59.3% reported no difficulty in attracting and retaining female managers. No company specified extreme difficulty in attracting and retaining women managers, and only 10.2% expressed moderate difficulty. The remaining businesses (30.5%) reported that they experienced the attraction and retention of female managers to be somewhat difficult. (Refer to Table 9, p. 295.)

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4.2.10 <u>Organizational Perception of Difficulty Attracting</u>
<u>and Retaining Women Managers as Compared to Male</u>
<u>Managers</u>

The distribution of data shown in Table 10 (p. 296) reveals that 33.9% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that it is more difficult to attract and retain women managers as compared to men. The remaining responses were distributed such that 20.3% were neutral, 30.5% disagreed, and 15.3% strongly disagreed that it was more difficult to attract and retain female managers.

4.2.11 <u>Organizational Perception of Career Obstacles of</u>
<u>Women Versus Men</u>

When asked for their subjective perceptions regarding the extent to which women face more career advancement obstacles than men, a vast majority of the respondents (93.2%) reported a difference to at least some extent. Sixteen and nine tenths of the businesses felt that women face more barriers to a great extent, and only 6.8% of the respondents felt that women did not encounter more career obstacles than their male counterparts. (See Table 11, p. 296.)

4.2.12 <u>Organizational Theoretical Perspective of Women</u>
<u>Manager's Lack of Corporate Advancement</u>

<u>Organizational perceptions of the nature of women</u>
<u>managers' career obstacles</u> and <u>categories of program need</u>

may be reflective of an organization's theoretical perspective on women's lack of corporate advancement.

In reporting their perceptions of the career obstacles women managers are presently encountering, 77.6% of the respondents cited exclusion from the "old boy network", 70.7% absence of mentors, 67.2% family responsibilities, 56.9% male attitudes, 50% managerial attitudes and behaviors, and 46.6% gender discrimination.

The most prevalent obstacles reported were highly concentrated in the structural/cultural realm of theoretical explanations for women's lack of corporate advancement. This data corresponds to the 1990 Catalyst survey finding that 81% of CEO's found stereotyping and preconceptions to be an identifiable barrier to women's advancing to top levels of management in corporations; while 49% identified managers' adversity to taking risks with women in line responsibility (managerial attitudes and behaviors) as a formidable challenge to women's equitable representation in upper level managerial positions.

Also highly represented as career barriers for women in this study were: hitting the glass ceiling (44.8%), corporate culture (44.8%), and lack of challenging high profile assignments (41.4%). Advancement is fundamentally political in nature (22.4%), and lack of skill development and training opportunities (22.4%) were cited as obstacles by almost one quarter of the firms.

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It seemed surprising that 25.9% of the respondents specified the lack of appropriate skills and experience, clearly an individual-centered explanation, as a major obstacle to women managers' corporate advancement. This would appear somewhat counterindicated by the research demographic findings that an increasing number of women are entering the workforce today with the educational credentials and experience requisite to important technical, professional, and managerial occupations. (Rosen, Miguel, and Peirce, 1989) Women joining the labor force are better educated than ever (Lawler, 1995 and Raynolds, 1987); earning more than half of all of the bachelor's and master's degrees, and increasing their representation as MBA holders by 344% in the decade from the mid 1970s to the mid 1980s as compared to an increase of 25% for men. (Raynolds)

More expectedly, only 3.4% of the responding companies reported the lack of particular characteristics requisite to managerial work as a barrier for women managers. This is encouraging based on the research data supporting the evidence for a lack of gender-based differences in requisite managerial attributes. (Brenner and Greenhaus, 1979; Donnell and Hall, 1980; Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and Schein, 1989; and Schein, 1973)

The lack of female role models (43.1%), the absence of opportunity for advancement (34.5%), and tokenism (27.6%)

were well-represented barriers indicating major structural issues holding women back. Evaluation and advancement procedures were also cited in 19% of the organizations.

Images of women (19%) and female bosses viewed as liabilities (10.3%) were further citings indicative of stereotypical attitudes in the cultural realm of theoretical explanation. Finally, job classification system, a structural barrier, was the least reported (5.2%) obstacle to women managers' career advancement. (See Table 12, p. 297.)

As specified in Table 13 (p. 298), frequency distributions of the categorized responses (individual-centered, organization-structure/culture-centered, and combination gender-organization-centered) reveal that 5 or 8.4% of the organizations perceived the obstacles to women managers' upward mobility to be predominantly individual-centered in nature, 44 or 73.3% perceived the barriers to be predominantly organization-structural/cultural in nature, and 11 or 18.3% perceived women managers' obstacles to be a strong combination of individual-centered and organization-structure/culture-centered.

It is significant that none of the responding organizations specified only individual-centered obstacles in their descriptions of women managers' barriers. This finding is an indication that firms appear to be moving toward more complex organization-structure/culture or

combination theoretical perspectives of women managers'
challenges.

In rating the <u>perceived need of program categories to
advance women's status</u>, Table 14 (p. 298) reveals that
35.0% of the respondents perceived a relatively high need
for training and development programs for women; 28.3% saw
a relatively high need for training and development
programs for men regarding the issue of women in
management; 60.0% cited a significantly high need for
work/family initiatives; and 66.6% reported a particularly
high need for organizational structure initiatives
targeting women's mobility issues. (These total in excess
of 100% because multiple responses were allowed.) Again,
this may be indicative of some organizational movement
toward more organization-structural/cultural oriented views
of women's advancement program need.

Since these categories represent developmental levels
of programming to address women's advancement (from
individual-centered to organization-structure/culture-
centered), need ratings for each category were analyzed and
then collapsed to represent an organization's overall view
of the theoretical underpinnings of program need.
Consequently, 13.3% of the respondents saw a need for
<u>predominantly</u> individual-centered program strategies, 40%
expressed a need for <u>predominantly</u> organization-
structure/culture-centered initiatives, and 36.7% voiced a

need for a <u>strong combination</u> of individual-centered and organization-structure/culture-centered interventions. (The remaining 10% did not report a significant level of need for any of the program categories.) (See Table 15, p. 299.)

These findings indicate that although a significant number of organizations continue to perceive a need for individual-centered remedies to women's advancement concerns, this need is more often than not seen in <u>conjunction</u> with program needs within the organization-structure/culture-centered realm. It appears rare that companies in this study view action strategies to enhance women's upward mobility as an individual-centered need in isolation of structural/cultural change. This finding supports the myriad of research calling for integrated, multidimensional, multi-program, systemic approaches to facilitating and enhancing women's career advancement. (Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995; Cullen, 1990; Fagenson, 1990)

There seemed to be some parallels in the organizational theoretical perspective of women managers' obstacles and the organizational view of the developmental level categories of program need. Specifically, 20% of the organizations viewed women managers' barriers as <u>predominantly</u> individual-centered, while 13.3% seemed to

see program need in terms of <u>predominantly</u> individual-

centered strategies. Also, 80% of the firms responding saw

women's obstacles as basically organization-

structural/cultural in nature or as a combination of

individual and organization-structure/culture, while 76.7%

perceived a program need for structural/cultural

initiatives or a combination of individual-centered and

organization-structure/culture-centered strategies.

These underlying theoretical bases for viewing the

issue appear somewhat consistently represented in the

frequency distributions of organizational perception of

women managers' obstacles and perception of program need.

In an effort to explore association, however, a

correlational statistical analysis of organizational

theoretical view of women's advancement obstacles and

organizational perceived program need, found no significant

relationship. (p = 0.0763, significance = 0.281)

4.2.13 <u>Organizational Theoretical Perspective of Women's</u>
       <u>Lack of Corporate Advancement and Theoretical/Target</u>
       <u>Level of Program Offerings</u>

In an attempt to examine the consistency and possible

association between organizational view of the nature of

women managers' career obstacles, organizational perception

of program need levels, and actual program offerings to

advance women's status, the frequency distributions for

gender/individual-centered program offerings versus

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organization-structure/culture-centered program offerings were reviewed.

The findings in Table 16 (p. 299) reveal that 16 or 26.7% of the respondents offered <u>predominantly</u> individual-centered programs; 5 or 8.3% offered <u>exclusively</u> organization-structure/culture-centered programs; and 39 or 65% reported the existence of a <u>strong combination</u> of individual/gender-centered and organization-structure/culture-centered initiatives (gender-organization approach).

It is interesting to note that none of the respondents specified only individual-centered strategies to address the issue of women's lack of advancement in Corporate America, and only 5 companies reported offering organization-structure/culture-centered programs without the inclusion of any individual-level strategies. The majority of firms responding specified the existence of multi-level programs to tackle the problem of women's underrepresentation in positions of status and power. This organizational response to women in management initiatives seems to correspond with the overall trends in theoretical orientations toward viewing women's lack of advancement found and reported earlier. Program initiation and implementation appear to be multi-level and multidimensional in most of the organizations reporting as

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do perceptions of women's career obstacles and perceived program need target levels.

There were more program offerings in the predominantly individual-centered realm and less in the exclusively organization structure/culture-centered realm than organizational theoretical perspectives on obstacles and program need would warrant, but that may be accounted for by covariance with another variable, ease of implementation. Since individual-centered program options tend to be less difficult to develop and manage than initiatives in the structural/cultural realm, which target deeply embedded systemic patterns, they may be more prevalent than seems necessary as indicated by measures of organizational assessment of women's career obstacles and program need.

However, in an effort to test the possible association between the theoretical/target level of program offerings and the theoretical perception of women's advancement obstacles, the statistical analysis indicated a significant negative association. (p = -0.2203, significance = 0.045) Although a positive relationship would have been expected (the higher the level of the theoretical view of women's advancement obstacles (individual-centered, organization-structure/culture-centered, gender-organization-centered), the higher the target level of programs offered), the result may again be explainable because of the difficulty

of implementing higher level target programs (organization-structure/culture and combination) compared to lower level (individual) target programs.

In testing the possible relationship between the theoretical/target level of program offerings and the perceived level of program need, statistical analysis revealed a significant positive association). p = 0.2577, significance = 0.023) This result indicates that as the level of perceived program need develops from individual to structural/cultural to gender-organization-centered, the target level of programs offered also increases in developmental level. This would seem to be a logical progression.

4.2.14 Characteristics of Successful Initiatives

When asked to report the characteristics of successful initiatives to advance and retain female managers in their companies, the most often cited attributes were: CEO support (73.7%), inclusiveness (do not exclude white, non-Hispanic males) (59.6%), comprehensiveness (52.6%), and developed from internal needs assessment (50.9%).

Also, 43.9% specified the importance of accountability features, 40.4% cited integration with the strategic business plan, 36.8% included record-keeping and tracking as an essential ingredient to successful initiatives, while 36.8% specified the importance of tailor-made strategies,

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and 35.1% reported the addressing of stereotypes and preconceptions as an important ingredient of successful organizational initiatives to address the attraction and retention of women managers. (See Table 17, p. 300.)

Interestingly, the least popular element cited characterizing successful initiatives (addressing stereotypes and preconceptions) would seem critical to the mix based on recent research. It was "stereotyping and preconceptions" that was reported to be the most formidable challenge to women's advancement in a 1990 Catalyst study surveying the Fortune 500 and Service 500 companies.

4.2.15 Level of Accountability for EEO Results

The level of EEO accountability may be reflective of an organization's commitment to strategies toward workplace equity. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991) As detailed in Table 18 (p. 301), the organizations represented in this study showed a high level of corporate accountability for EEO issues. A total of 69% of the companies reported that the responsibility for EEO efforts went all the way to the top of the organization, the CEO. Ten and three tenths percent of the respondents listed Senior Management as the highest organizational level of EEO accountability, and 20.7% cited Personnel/Human Resources as the level EEO accountability reaches in their firm.

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4.2.16 <u>Chief Executive Officer Involvement</u>

When asked to report their level of agreement with the statement that their CEO is personally involved in efforts to recruit and promote women managers, 66.1% agreed (32.2% strongly agreed and 33.9% agreed). Of the remaining respondents, 20.3% were neutral, 10.2% disagreed, and 3.4% strongly disagreed. Therefore, a solid majority of respondents reported personal involvement of their CEO's in the women's advancement agenda, with a significantly smaller percentage citing a lack of CEO involvement. This finding, as reported in Table 19 (p. 301), is consistent with research linking strong CEO involvement to successful organization development efforts to improve women's upward mobility in corporations. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995; and Catalyst, 1994)

4.2.17 <u>Organization Structure</u>

The conventional bureaucratic command-and-control hierarchy of status and authority relations has been the dominant organizational form in this century. (Kanter, 1986) According to Kanter (1976, 1977), the flattening of the organizational hierarchy has the potential to increase cycles of opportunity and power for women in management.

In the reporting of the hierarchical level of their organization's formal structure (see Table 20, p. 302),

46.6% of the respondents stated their firm was somewhat hierarchical in its structure for organizing issues of division of labor and authority. Only 15.5% of the respondents reported their companies to be extremely hierarchical in structure, and a very significant 34.5% explained their organizational structures as flattened hierarchies. Two companies (3.4%) specified multiple answers to this question with no explanation which made a determination of hierarchical level impossible.

This level of respondents (over one third) specifying a more flattened hierarchical organization of command and authority could indicate a degree of corporate movement toward the "new workplace"; a workplace that spreads out formal authority and power thus enhancing control over organizational goals and strategies, creating opportunities for greater employee initiative and participation in problem solving, and increasing the potential for managerial communication ultimately facilitating decision-making, risk-taking, and innovation. (Kanter, 1986)

4.2.18 <u>Formalization of Organization</u>

In specifying the level of formalization (extent to which rules, procedures, and instructions are written down) in their companies, 71.2% of the respondents' descriptions included moderately or extremely formalized, 16.9% reported somewhat formalized organizational processes, and 11.9%

indicated that their firms were not formalized regarding
written procedures and records. This indicates that the
majority (almost three quarters) of the firms have
formalized decision-making processes that should encourage
uniform, non-subjective methods of managerial decision-
making (Szafran, 1982) which has the potential to
positively impact women managers' advancement. (Refer to
Table 21, p. 302.)

4.2.19 <u>Organizational Innovation in Management Practices</u>

As presented in Table 22 (p. 303), a majority of the
companies (57.7%) reported that they agree or strongly
agree with the statement that their company has a high
degree of innovation in managerial practices. Of the
remaining respondents, 20.3% were neutral, 18.6% disagreed,
and only two firms (3.4%) strongly disagreed. Again, this
significant number of organizations reporting a high degree
of innovation in management practices could be indicative
of a corporate response to the "new workplace". (Kanter,
1986)

4.2.20 <u>Formalization of Communication Channels</u>

Just over one third of the responding companies (39%)
stated that they agreed or strongly agreed with the
statement that their company has extremely formalized
channels of communication, while 42.4% disagreed or

strongly disagreed. The remaining 18.6% of the respondents were neutral in their assessment of this observation. These frequencies represent a significant variance in this sample's organizational structuring of communication channels for information exchange. (See Table 23, p. 303.)

4.2.21 Formalization of AA/EEO Record-Keeping

A prevalent lack of formalized AA/EEO record-keeping in the nine businesses of their pilot study was one of the major findings of the first Glass Ceiling Initiative report in 1991. (U.S. Department of Labor) The study strongly suggested this laxity to be a contributing ingredient in the sustenance of the glass ceiling.

In this study, when asked their subjective opinion of their agreement with the statement that their company has a formalized, utilized, and closely monitored record-keeping system tracking AA/EEO responsibilities, a vast majority (73.4%) agreed. Yet, considering the extent of AA/EEO legislation, there were still a significant number of respondents reporting neutral or disagreeing opinions: 13.3% were neutral, 10% disagreed that their organization had an AA/EEO record-keeping system that was formalized, utilized, and closely monitored, and two responding businesses (3.3%) strongly disagreed. (See Table 24, p. 304.)

4.2.22 Unionization

A look at the data in Table 25 (p. 304) reveals that the majority of the companies responding to the survey (61.7%) were not unionized. Slightly over one-third of the firms (38.3%) did report the existence of unions. Of those with union representation, 75% reported that the unions had no involvement in activities targeted toward the development and advancement of women.

4.2.23 Organizational Environment for Change: Motivating Forces

Forces for change are seen as important determinants of an organization's resulting action. The Glass Ceiling Commission (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995) stresses the business imperative for addressing issues of women's advancement, and highlights bottom-line advantages relating to overall business performance, reduction in turnover costs, and increases in market share through the leveraging of diversity.

The companies queried in this study ranked concern for the retention of valued employees (83%), the desire to reflect the diversity of the consumer market (82.4%), and increased presence of qualified women (78.4%) as the strongest forces for change in their companies' efforts to develop programs and policies to advance the status of women in management. These three motivators ranked much

higher in the "very great force" category with percentages at or near 50 for all three.

The respondents also ranked organizational culture (72.5%), and the desire to remain a viable organization (70.6%) very high. The desire to improve morale (54.9%), employee satisfaction (56.9%), efficiency (54.9%), and the desire to be socially responsible (56.9%) were also cited by a majority as moderate or very great forces for change concerning women in management. The desire to improve productivity (49%) and concern for bottom-line costs (43.1%) were other motivators with significant representations.

The desire to avoid the costs of lawsuits was reported as a moderate to very great force by only 28% of the respondents, while a shortage of qualified males was reported as a strong force by only two companies (3.9%). Eighty-four and three tenths percent of the respondents stated that a shortage of potential male employees was no force at all in their efforts to address issues of women in management. This finding is consistent with the Catalyst (1991) study reporting that the majority of corporations are not as yet experiencing a shortage of qualified males, especially at the upper levels, because of downsizing.

In summary, the responses seemed quite spread out over the three major categories of forces: labor supply/demand, social responsibility (organization culture), and bottom-

line cost. Social responsibility/organizational culture rooted forces of change had a strong showing despite the traditional view of them as "soft" business concerns as compared to "hard" bottom-line costs. (Refer to Table 26, p. 305.)

4.2.24 <u>Organizational Environment for Change: Barriers</u>

Stereotypes and preconceptions were reported as the most pervasive barrier (40%) against corporations' efforts toward change regarding women in management issues. This supports a 1991 Catalyst survey finding that 81% of the companies queried recognized stereotyping and preconceptions as barriers to women's advancement in U.S. corporations.

Lack of perceived need for additional efforts aimed at women (38.2%), lack of resources to develop and implement specialized programs for women (35.2%), lack of expertise to plan strategies targeted toward women in management (34.5%), and organizational culture (34.5%) were also cited as fairly strong barriers in the organizational environment for change regarding the advancement of women's status. These are significant representations of resource issues holding back organizational change to improve the upward mobility of women.

Perhaps even more disconcerting, though, is the level of respondents citing a lack of recognition of the need for

additional efforts and organizational culture barriers to advancing women's status. These indicate a lack of the basic elemental forces critical to the catalyzation of any strategic, purposeful efforts to improve women's advancement potential: recognition of the need, and a corporate culture favorable to the goal. Without the presence of these critical factors, even abundant resources are unlikely to make any difference in the level of organizational action.

Lack of management support (14.5%) and lack of CEO support (5.6%) were seen as the weakest and least present barriers against efforts to promote women in management agendas. Eighty-eight and nine tenths percent of the corporations responding reported that a lack of CEO support was no barrier whatsoever. (Refer to Table 27, p. 306.)

4.2.25 Total Programs Offered to Advance the Status of Women

As corporations deemed to be "The Best Companies for Women", it was anticipated that the firms in this study would have implemented many strategies, programs, and policies to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in management. This anticipated level of organizational effort was supported for the most part. There was still, however, a significant level of variance in the extent and nature of program offerings across the 60 businesses represented.

As the data in Table 28 (p. 307) reveal, the most widespread strategy/program offerings included: work/family initiatives (83.3%), tuition reimbursement (80%), grievance procedure for sexual harassment (75%), diversity training programs (73.3%), written affirmative action plan (63.3%), and designated AA/EEO officer (60%).

Also prevalent were women's support/networking groups (53.3%), and succession planning and the early identification of women managers with high leadership potential each reported as available by 50% of the sample. Recruitment/appraisal practices to eliminate female tokenism and equalize numbers (43.3%), split-location options (41.7%), and the monitoring of compensation systems for gender bias (45%) were each reported as offerings in over 40% of the firms queried.

Management training in objective rating scales and decision-making procedures, and employee evaluation of managers were significantly prevalent in the sample at a frequency of 36% and 35% respectively. Training and development and mentoring programs for women in management had been implemented in 33.3% of the companies, while engaging the services of an outside consultant on issues of sexism (28.3%), the development of informal communication systems that are inclusive (25%), and a women's advisory committee reporting to top management (23.3%) were

represented as available by approximately one quarter of the firms.

Among the least offered initiatives reported were: organization development strategies including job rotation, job enlargement, job redesign, etc. (21.7%), active tracking of managerial women's career advancement paths (20%), and reward and punishment systems for supervisors/managers that include criteria for hiring and promoting/retaining women (15%). Special career development programs for women was the least popular option with only 8.3% of the respondents citing its availability in their corporation.

It is interesting to note the prevalence of work/family initiatives (83.3%). This corresponds to Catalyst's (1994) research pointing out that the implementation of work/family programs is often a company's first step in developing programs to recruit, develop, advance, and retain women in management. With all of the research highlighting the need for women's mentoring programs (Kanter, 1976; Catalyst, 1994; Burke and McKeen, 1990) it seemed surprising that only 33.3% of the respondents offered mentoring programs for women.

It was also noteworthy that some of the higher developmental level structural/cultural programs focusing on extremely complex phenomenon seemed to be gaining momentum; or at least were represented in this small

sample at higher levels than the preponderance of research literature indicates. For instance, reward and punishment systems for managers that include criteria for hiring, promotion, and retaining women managers made a showing of 15%; job rotation, redesign, enlargement, etc. was available in 21.7% of the organizations reporting; and even the extremely complicated development of informal communication systems that are inclusive was cited as a women in management initiative by 25% of the respondents.

The frequency distribution of total number of programs offered by the respondents is represented in Table 29 (p. 308). The range of programs was from 1 to 20, or 19. The statistics on the data report a mode of 15, a median of 10, a mean of 9.98, and a standard deviation of 4.59. There was a variance of 21.07 in the data frequency representing a significant variation in the number of program offerings across the sample of respondents despite their commonality in group membership as "The Best Companies for Women".

4.2.26 Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Level

The Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index was used in conjunction with the total number of programs measure (previous section) to evaluate an organization's level of program/policy development and overall involvement in the women's advancement agenda. Each of these indices was correlated with particular variables under study

(organizational characteristics, etc.) to test the hypotheses and address the research questions outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.10.

As described in Chapter 3, Section 3.6, the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index was comprised of five measures: 1.) quantity of programs offered, 2.) range of programs available, 3.) comprehensiveness of overall organization development strategy (programming and planning) to advance women, 4.) self-reported level of organizational efforts to address women in management issues, and 5.) the developmental level of organizational programming to increase women's upward mobility.

As Table 30 (p. 309) indicates, the frequency distribution of the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index, a measure of corporate involvement in and support of women's advancement issues, revealed a range of scores from 3 to 49 (of a possible 54). The statistics for the frequency distribution showed a range of 46, a mode of 28, a median score of 27, a mean score of 25.03, a variance of 110, and a standard deviation of 10.49. Again, the variation of the score frequencies indicated the diversity of program offerings, program range, breadth, developmental level, and comprehensiveness in these companies despite their common membership in "The Best Companies for Women".

The frequency distributions of the quantity of programs offered was addressed in the previous section (Total Programs Offered). Table 31 (p. 310) displays the frequency distribution of the range of programs available in the responding corporations revealing that 50% of the responding companies cited at least 1 program offering in 6 or more of the 8 categories. Eighteen and four tenths had programs in 7 or 8 of the categories and 18.3% cited available initiatives in only 3 or less of the categories.

The range of category representation varied from 1 to 8 for a range of 7. The mode was 6 categories of program offerings, the mean was 5.12, the median was 5.5, the variance was 2.92, and the standard deviation was 1.71. There was significant variation in the distribution of respondents offering programs across the various categories of types of strategies to advance women's status. The range or breadth of program offerings in these companies noted for their women-friendly environments was anticipated to be considerable. These findings tend to support that assumption.

The comprehensiveness of organizational efforts to advance women's status measure of the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index included: 1.) presence of long-range planning, 2.) integration with strategic business plan, 3.) salary disparity remediation, 4.) accessibility of programs, 5.) organizational processes

to determine women in management program implementation, and 6.) evaluation measures of program success.

In examination of the individual components of the comprehensiveness measure: 1.) <u>Long-range planning</u> - Only 38.6% of the respondents reported the engagement of their companies in long-range planning regarding the advancement and retention of women. (See Table 32, p. 310.) 2.) <u>Integration of women's advancement planning with the strategic business plan</u> - Again, as reported in Table 33 (p. 311), only 37% of the firms reported the inclusion of women's advancement and retention planning in their overall strategic business plan. 3.) <u>Salary disparity remediation</u> - Fifty percent of the respondents indicated that their businesses had taken steps to address salary disparities, while 23.2% said they had not, and 26.8% reported that no salary disparities existed in their firms. (Refer to Table 34, p. 311.) 4.) <u>Level of accessibility</u> - Data in Table 35 (p. 312) reveal that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (96.6%) indicated that their program offerings regarding women's advancement were available to women even at the highest levels. 5.) <u>Planning processes</u>: A. <u>Internal research</u> - As reported in Table 36 (p. 312), 65% of the respondents reported that their companies engage in internal research to determine what programs they will develop and implement to target the development, advancement, and retention of women in

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management, while 35% still do not engage in an internal needs assessment process. B. Benchmarking - Corporate benchmarking was cited as an organizational process used to determine women's advancement program development and implementation by 55% of the respondents. Surprisingly, 23.3% (almost one quarter) of the respondents used neither of the internal and external planning processes to assess program need. (See Table 36, p. 312.) 6.) Evaluation measures of success - Table 37 (p. 313) shows that when asked what evaluation measures of success they utilize in assessing the results of their initiatives to promote women, 46.4% cited participation rates, 55.4% overall recruitment and retention numbers of women, 30.4% women's job satisfaction indicators, and 3.6% listed other measures. (These total in excess of 100% because multiple responses were allowed.) Of the 60 companies responding, 73.3% stated that they employed at least one evaluation measure of success in assessing their programs to advance the status of women.

Overall ratings for program comprehensiveness ranged from scores of 0 to 7 for a range of 7. Fifty-six and seven tenths percent of the respondents scored a 4 or less on the comprehensiveness measure, while 43.3% had a score between 5 and 7. The statistics on the data report a mode of 4, a median score of 4, a mean of 4.3, a variance of 3.37, and a standard deviation of 1.84. Again, there was a

significant variance in the distribution of comprehensiveness scores.

Organizational planning processes and efforts to advance women's status were not as comprehensive as might have been expected for this grouping of "The Best Companies for Women". The most surprising finding was the general lack of long-range planning and integration of women's advancement planning with the strategic business plan of the firm. This indicates that organization development planning and strategizing to impact women's upward mobility is occurring in isolation of other important business planning and most likely in a short-term, reactive mode. This does not jibe with the research stressing the importance of integration and comprehensiveness to the successful implementation of long-lasting, high impact organizational change. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995)

The <u>developmental level of women in management programming</u> revealed a frequency distribution of scores ranging from 0 to 13. (These scores represented initiative offerings in the more highly developed, structural program category consisting of 13 representative program selections as described in Section 3.6.) The range of the distribution of scores was 13, the mode was 4, the median was 4, and the mean score was 4 program offerings. The variance of the scores was 7.97 and the standard deviation

was 2.82. Again, there was significant variation in the scores especially between scores of 0 and 8. (See Table 38, p. 314.)

Over 56% of the respondents offered 4 or more of the 13 higher level organization development programs to advance women's status, while over 90% of the corporations had at least one program offering in this upper level grouping of advanced structural/cultural organization development initiatives targeted toward women's increased upward mobility.

The self-reported level of organizational action to improve females status scores ranged from 0 to 3. As Table 39 (p. 315) reveals, 38.3% of the companies responding reported being at the lowest level of organizational response, an ongoing dialogue about women's issues. Another 5% of the companies described their efforts to be at the middle level of corporate involvement, diagnostics of women employees' needs and consultants for women's development programs, while 38.3% represented their firms to be at the highest level of organization development, formal goals and organizational programs. A significant proportion of the sample (18.4%) did not check any of the choices in this question. This is a puzzling response since you would not expect firms noted as "The Best Companies for Women" to fail to report a level of action

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with regard to organization development efforts to promote women.

It is interesting to note that over three fourths of the respondents (76.6%) report their businesses to be either in the initial stage of women's advancement policy development or the latter stage, and they are equally divided between the two. This high representation of "dialogue only" representation of organizational efforts to advance women seems an anachronism for corporations singled out as "The Best Companies for Women".

4.2.27 <u>Respondents' Additional Comments on the Advancement and Retention of Women in Management</u>

When respondents were asked in an open-ended question format to offer additional comments regarding their company's interest in the topic of "Organizational initiatives targeted toward the advancement and retention of women in management", 20 or 33% made contributions.

Ten or 50% of those offering additional comments basically reported that the advancement of women's status was not an issue or was not regarded as a separate issue in their organization, but rather part of their overall employee promotional efforts provided to everyone regardless of race, gender, age, etc. They referred to "gender neutral" programs that were blind to gender and race. Some of these companies reported their lack of a problem with women's advancement was due to the fact that

their company was founded by a woman, and/or dominated by women. For example:

> ".....At the executive level our organization is 65% female and 35% male. Retail has always been a career path that has been accessible to women, and structured so that they can be successful therein. We have no problems attracting or retaining women in management."

> ".....Our company was founded by a woman, for the purpose of creating career opportunities for women that can provide them with financial security, personal success, and self-fulfillment. For this reason, we haven't needed formal programs, but in recent years we have focused more on increasing the number of women in mid-level positions, to prepare more women for Senior Management positions......"

> ".....We are blind to gender and ethnic background. We want the best candidate to fill each position."

> "Our company is owned by a female currently and was founded by a female. Therefore, it was just natural to look at females as equals in all areas of the company."

> ".....We find we have many programs aimed at the development and advancement of ALL employees - not just women. Attracting, retaining, and promoting women in our organization is largely a non-issue. Women are placed effectively at all levels of the organization."

Six or 30% of those offering additional information spoke to the perception that there had been much progress to date in their company's efforts to advance women's status, especially in the past five years, but there was much more room for additional efforts. Most of these reported that their organizations were involved in planning new and interesting programs to increase women managers upward mobility.

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Examples of comments were as follows: "Beneficiaries of Affirmative Action more so than any other targeted group. Making tremendous gains during the recent five year period. Not quite there yet, though." "We have had some success at targeting key roles as critical roles for women's participation which has significantly improved pipeline issues."

Three or 15% of those commenting reported some disturbing news that their companies had been more aggressive in developing strategies to advance women in the past and downsizing has resulted in a much decreased level of attention to issues of attracting and retaining women and minorities. Their disheartening comments follow:

> ".....This (downsizing) has made for lesser promotional opportunities and fierce competition for these promotions. We're trying to do the best we can in an extremely complex corporate environment."

> "Our company was much more aggressive in this arena in the past. When the company started losing money and downsizing, attention to attracting and retaining white women, women of color, and men of color dropped dramatically."

> "Recently the focus has moved away from this issue, with no formal goals for Senior Management or females/minorities re: hiring, retention, and promotion."

One additional firm had other comments to offer regarding the work/family balance:

> ".....I have very little hope that Corporate America can resolve the balance issue. To make it to the top, something has to give - - either one opts for no children or the spouse must have a significant

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"lesser" time required career or <u>no</u> outside career <u>or</u>
someone else raises your children!"

4.3 <u>Evaluation of Research Hypotheses</u>

Data generated based on the development of each
research hypothesis was evaluated after careful
consideration of the evidence resulting from statistical
analyses using Pearson's product-moment correlation
coefficient (r) and Spearman's rank-difference correlation
coefficient (p).

For ease in referral, the research hypotheses of this
study are reiterated below:

Hypothesis #1: Organization size is associated with
the number of programs for women and the level of
women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #2: The percentage of women in the
workforce of an organization is associated with the
number of women's development programs and the level
of development of women's advancement initiatives.

Hypothesis #3: The proportion of women in senior
level management positions is associated with the
quantity of programs to advance the status of women
and with the depth and breadth of women in management
policy development.

Hypothesis #4: The percentage of women board
directors is associated with the extent and level of
women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #5: The percentage of women reporting
directly to the CEO is positively associated with the
extensiveness and depth of women in management program
development.

Hypothesis #6: An organization's perception of the
importance of the goal of attracting/retaining female
managers is positively associated with its number of
programs to advance women and level of women in
management policy development.

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Hypothesis #7: Organizations experiencing difficulty attracting and retaining female managers have more extensive and highly developed women's development initiatives.

Hypothesis #8: An organization's perception of the difficulty of attracting and retaining female managers as compared to male managers is positively associated with the quantity and developmental level of women's advancement initiatives.

Hypothesis #9: Organizations that perceive that women encounter more obstacles to advancing their careers than men will have more extensive and developed policies, programs, and initiatives to enhance women's upward mobility.

Hypothesis #10: The level of EEO accountability in the organization structure is positively associated with the number and developmental level of initiatives to advance women.

Hypothesis #11: CEO involvement in efforts to recruit and promote women managers is positively associated with a higher number and developmental level of organizational programs to advance women.

Hypothesis #12: The level of hierarchy of an organization's formal structure is negatively associated with the quantity of women's advancement programs and the level of development of initiatives to advance the status of women in management.

Hypothesis #13: The formalization of an organization as represented by written rules, procedures, and practices is positively associated with the number of women's advancement programs and the degree of development of women in management initiatives.

Hypothesis #14: The degree of formalization in channels of communication in an organization is negatively associated with the number and level of development of women's advancement programs.

Hypothesis #15: The degree of innovation in the managerial practices of an organization is positively associated with the number of programs to advance women's status and the level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #16: The degree of formalization of AA/EEO record-keeping in an organization is positively associated with the number of programs to advance the status of women and the level of women in management policy development.

Hypothesis #17: The presence of a union is negatively associated with the number of programs for women's advancement and the level of program development to advance the status of women.

4.3.1 Research Hypothesis #1

Organizational size was positively associated with the number of programs (r = 0.4471) and the level of women in management policy development (r = 0.4731) at a level of significance of 0.01. This result lends some support to the suppositions that larger companies may possess the resources necessary to affect large-scale, long-lasting change to advance the status of women, and the higher visibility of most larger sized companies promotes more responsiveness to social pressures. (Elgart, 1982 in Fryxell and Lerner, 1981)

4.3.2 Research Hypothesis #2

The relationship between percentage of women employees and extensive women in management programs (r = -0.4479), and level of development of women's advancement initiatives (r = -0.4134), were negatively correlated at a 0.01 level of significance. This result is rather surprising, but may indicate that since many of the responding companies had relatively high percentages of female employees, they may

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not have felt as motivated to develop and implement strategies to advance women's status.

4.3.3 Research Hypothesis #3

The proportion of women in senior level management positions was found to be negatively associated with the quantity of programs to advance the status of women ($r = -0.5038$), and the depth and breadth of women in management policy development ($r = -0.5182$) at a 0.01 level of significance. Again, this finding may be attributed to the fact that many companies reporting relatively high proportions of women senior managers did not perceive as high a need for additional formal organization development initiatives to target women's upward mobility as those with lower proportions of women in high level managerial positions.

4.3.4 Research Hypothesis #4

The extent and level of women in management program/policy development was found to be negatively related to the proportion of women board directors ($r = -0.4260$ and $r = -0.4091$). The level of significance was 0.01. This result is once more puzzling, but could represent a lack of formalized programs and policy development specifically targeting women in organizations

where women are already well-represented in leadership positions.

4.3.5 Research Hypothesis #5

Contrary to what was hypothesized, a negative relationship was found between the percentage of women reporting directly to the CEO and the extensiveness (r = - 0.5184) and depth (r = -0.5390) of women in management policy development. These relationships were significant at the 0.01 level. This may be suggestive of the same explanatory phenomenon alluded to for the three previous hypotheses.

4.3.6 Research Hypothesis #6

Contrary to what was hypothesized, the relationship between an organization's perception of the importance of the goal of attracting/retaining female managers and the extent and level of its women in management policy development was not significant (p = 0.2043, significance = 0.059 and p = 0.1900, significance = 0.073), although there was some degree of association in the positive direction. The fact that a majority of the companies voiced the attraction/retention of female managers as a goal and reported a relatively high extent and level of women in management policy development, along with the small size of

the sample, might account for the lack of significance of this association.

4.3.7 Research Hypothesis #7

In support of what was hypothesized, the statistical analysis did report a significant positive association between an organization's difficulty in attracting and retaining female managers and the extensiveness of its women's advancement initiatives. (p = 0.2221 at the 0.045 level of significance) However, in examining the relationship between difficulty in attracting and retaining women and the developmental level of organizational initiatives, a non-significant association in the anticipated direction was discovered. (p= 0.1885 at a 0.076 level of significance)

The quantity of programs to advance women's status was more significantly positively related to difficulty in attracting/retaining female managers than to the developmental level of programs and policy to advance women's status. This result might suggest that the recognition of a problem with attracting and retaining female managers has an impact on initial organizational response as indicated by sheer numbers of programs, but then wanes as a possible determinant as organizational processes, policies, and programs to address the issue become more sophisticated.

4.3.8 Research Hypothesis #8

The quantity and developmental level of women's advancement issues were found to be positively associated with an organization's perception of the level of difficulty of attracting and retaining female managers as compared to males. The correlations ($p = 0.3399$ and $p = 0.3491$) were found significant at the 0.004 and 0.003 levels. These results supported the hypothesis as developed.

4.3.9 Research Hypothesis #9

The extent and developmental level of an organization's policies, programs, and initiatives to enhance women's upward mobility were not found to be mediated by an organization's perception that women encounter more obstacles in advancing their careers than men. ($p = 0.0623$, significance $= 0.320$ and $p = 0.0495$, significance $= 0.355$)

4.3.10 Research Hypothesis #10

In support of what was hypothesized, there was a significant positive relationship found between the organizational level of EEO accountability and the number and developmental level of initiatives to advance women. ($p = 0.5768$ and $p = 0.5394$ at a 0.000 level of significance) This correlational information indicates

that the organizational level of EEO accountability explains more than 29% of the variance in the quantity of programs and level of women's advancement organization development. This result is strong corroboration of previous research implying the importance of EEO accountability to organization development success in addressing issues of women in management. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

4.3.11 Research Hypothesis #11

The level of CEO involvement in efforts to recruit and promote women managers was found to be positively associated with the extent and level of women in management programs as hypothesized. (p = 0.2354, significance = 0.036 and p = 0.2450, significance = 0.031) This significant level of relationship is supportive of research to date suggesting that CEO involvement is critical to the development of effective strategies to enhance women's corporate advancement. (Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

4.3.12 Research Hypothesis #12

Contrary to the hypothesis proposed, the relationship between the hierarchical level of an organization's

structure and the quantity and level of its women's
advancement initiatives were not found to be significantly
related. (p = 0.0099, significance = 0.471 and p = -0.0068,
significance = 0.480) This result was unexpected in view
of the research supported significance of Kanter's
structural explanations of women in management issues.
This was a disappointing finding since the number of
organizations specifying the existence of a flattened
hierarchical structure was surprisingly high.

4.3.13 Research Hypothesis #13

The quantity of women in management programs and level
of organizational policy development to enhance women's
upward mobility did not appear to be influenced to any
significance by the formalization of the organization.
(p = -0.0457, significance = 0.366 and p = -0.0603,
significance = 0.325)

This was an unexpected finding in consideration of
research suggesting that the development of written rules,
procedures, instructions, and communications is influential
in guarding against discrimination in workplace practices.
(Szafran, 1982) This result may be affected by other
intervening variables such as a negative association
between the degree of an organization's formalization and
an organization's openness to change strategies.

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4.3.14 Research Hypothesis #14

These was no significant level of association found
between the degree of formalization of organizational
communication channels and the quantity and level of
women's advancement policy development. (p = 0.0622,
significance = 0.320 and p = 0.0392, significance = 0.384)

4.3.15 Research Hypothesis #15

There was no significant support found for the
hypothesis suggesting a positive association between an
organization's degree of innovation in managerial practices
and the extent and level of its women in management policy
development. (p = 0.0422, significance = 0.375 and p =
0.0612, significance = 0.323)

4.3.16 Research Hypothesis #16

A significant positive association was found between
the degree of formalization of an organization's AA/EEO
record-keeping system and extensive women in management
options and level of women's advancement policy
development. (p = 0.2977, significance = 0.010 and p =
0.3178, significance = 0.007) This result is supportive of
the hypothesis and the research that a formalized AA/EEO
tracking system is integral to gender equity agendas in the
workplace. (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991; U.S. Department

of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

4.3.17 Research Hypothesis #17

In support of what was hypothesized, there was a significant negative association between unionization in a company and the number of programs offered and the overall developmental level of program initiatives to advance the status of women. (p = -0.3642, significance = 0.002 and p = -0.3477, significance = 0.003) This finding adds support to the thought that non-union firms may have more flexibility in the development, implementation, and management of work/family and women in management policy due to a lower level of constraining forces as compared to those experienced by unionized companies encumbered by institutionalized labor-management relations. (Axel, 1985)

Table 1

Executive Level of Respondent

Executive Level	Number	Percent
Chief Executive Officer	1	1.7
Senior Vice President of Human Resources	10	16.7
Vice President of Human Resources	16	26.7
Director/Manager of Human Resources	17	28.3
Director/Manager of Diversity	7	11.7
Other Human Resources Personnel	5	8.3
Other	4	6.6

N = 60

Table 2

Classification by Industry

Type of Industry	Number	Percent
Manufacturing/processing	18	30.0
Computer Software Development	2	3.3
Healthcare	1	1.7
Education	1	1.7
Banking, Investment, Insurance	8	13.3
Professional or Business Services	4	6.7
Broadcasting, Publishing, Advertising	9	15.0
Hotel/Restaurant	3	5.0
Wholesale/Retail	10	16.7
Telecommunications	4	6.6

N = 60

Table 3

Company Size

Number of Employees	Number	Percent
0 to 50	0	0.0
51 to 500	5	8.3
501 to 5,000	15	25.0
5,001 to 25,000	17	28.3
More than 25,000	23	38.4

N = 60

Table 4

Percent Female Employees

Percent Female Employees	Number	Percent
0 to 25	0	0.0
26 to 50	28	48.2
51 to 75	27	46.6
76 to 100	3	5.2

N = 58

Table 5

Percent of Women Senior Managers

Percent of Women Senior Managers	Number	Percent
0	2	3.7
0 to 10	7	13.0
11 to 20	17	31.4
21 to 30	9	16.7
31 to 40	7	13.0
41 to 50	6	11.1
51 to 60	4	7.4
61 to 100	2	3.7

N = 54

Table 6

Percent of Women Board Directors

Percent of Women Board Directors	Number	Percent
0	4	9.5
1 to 10	7	16.7
11 to 20	18	42.9
21 to 30	4	9.5
31 to 40	6	14.3
41 to 50	1	2.4
51 to 100	3	4.7

N = 42

Table 7

Percent of Women Managers Reporting Directly to Chief Executive Officer

Percent of Women Managers Reporting Directly to CEO	Number	Percent
0	17	32.1
1 to 10	4	7.5
11 to 20	13	24.5
21 to 30	5	9.4
31 to 40	3	5.7
41 to 50	7	13.2
51 to 100	4	7.6

N = 53

Table 8

Attracting/Retaining Female
Managers as an Important Goal

Important Goal	Number	Percent
Yes	55	91.7
No	5	8.3

N = 60

Table 9

Difficulty in Attracting/Retaining
Female Managers

Extent of Difficulty	Number	Percent
Extremely Difficult	0	0.0
Moderately Difficult	6	10.2
Somewhat Difficult	18	30.5
Not Difficult	35	59.3

N = 59

Table 10

Attracting and Retaining Female Managers is More Difficult Than Attracting and Retaining Male Managers

Degree of Agreement	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	3	5.1
Agree	17	28.8
Neutral	12	20.3
Disagree	18	30.5
Strongly Disagree	9	15.3

N = 59

Table 11

Extent to Which Women Face More Obstacles Than Men in Career Advancement

Extent	Number	Percent
Great extent	10	16.9
Moderate extent	27	45.8
Some extent	18	30.5
No extent	4	6.8

N = 59

Table 12

Organizational Perception of the Nature of Women
Managers' Career Obstacles

Nature of Obstacle	Number	Percent
Exclusion from "old boy" network	45	77.6
Sexual harassment	15	25.9
Gender discrimination	27	46.6
Family responsibilities	39	67.2
Lack of day care	14	24.1
Absence of mentors	41	70.7
Absence of opportunity for advancement	20	34.5
Lack of female role models	25	43.1
Tokenism issues	16	27.6
Male attitudes	33	56.9
Lack of skill & training opportunities	13	22.4
Lack of high profile assignments	24	41.4
Hitting the glass ceiling	26	44.8
Job classification system	3	5.2
Evaluation and advancement procedures	11	19.0
Managerial attitudes and behaviors	29	50.0
Images of women	11	19.0
Corporate culture	26	44.8
Lack of skills and experience	15	25.9
Lack of managerial characteristics	2	3.4
Advancement is political in nature	13	22.4
Female "bosses" viewed as liabilities	6	10.3

N = 58

Total percentage exceeds 100% due to multiple responses.

Table 13

Organizational Perception of Obstacles
to Women's Advancement

Perception of Obstacles	Number	Percent
Individual-centered	5	8.4
Organization-structure/culture-centered	44	73.3
Combination gender-organization-centered	11	18.3

N = 60

Table 14

Perception of Need for Women's Advancement Programs

(Percentage of Responses)

Program	Need Rating			
	Most			Least
	1	2	3	4
Training and development for women	21.7	13.3	15.0	50.0
Training and development for men regarding women in management issues	13.3	15.0	23.3	48.4
Work/family initiatives	40.0	20.0	16.7	23.3
Organizational structure initiatives	43.3	23.3	6.7	26.7

N = 60

Total percentages exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

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Table 15

Organizational Perception of Need for
Women's Advancement Programs

Perception of Need	Number	Percent
Individual-centered	8	13.3
Organization-structure/culture-centered	24	40.0
Combination gender-organization-centered	22	36.7
None	6	10.0

N = 60

Table 16

Theoretical/Target Level of Program Offerings
for Women's Advancement

Theoretical/Target Level	Number	Percent
Individual-centered	16	26.7
Organization-structure/culture-centered	5	8.3
Combination gender-organization-centered	39	65.0

N = 60

Table 17

Characteristics of Successful Strategies to
Advance and Retain Women Managers

Characteristic	Number	Percent
Have CEO support	42	73.7
Are part of strategic business plan	23	40.4
Are tailor-made for company	21	36.8
Include accountability features	25	43.9
Developed from internal needs assessment	29	50.9
Include record-keeping and tracking procedures	21	36.8
Part of comprehensive plan aimed at individual and organizational change	30	52.6
Are inclusive (do not exclude white non-Hispanic males)	34	59.6
Address stereotypes and preconceptions	20	35.1

N = 57

Total percentage exceeds 100% due to multiple responses.

Table 18

Level of Accountability for EEO Results

Level of Accountability	Number	Percent
CEO	40	69.0
Senior management	6	10.3
Personnel/Human Resources staff	12	20.7
Middle management	0	0.0

N = 59

Table 19

CEO Is Involved in Recruiting and Promoting
Women Managers

Degree of Agreement	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	19	32.2
Agree	20	33.9
Neutral	12	20.3
Disagree	6	10.2
Strongly Disagree	2	3.4

N = 59

Table 20

Organization Structure

Degree of Hierarchy	Number	Percent
Extremely hierarchical	9	15.5
Somewhat hierarchical	27	46.6
Flattened hierarchical structure	20	34.5
Other	2	3.4

N = 56

Table 21

Formalization of Organization

Degree of Formalization	Number	Percent
Extremely formalized	12	20.3
Moderately formalized	30	50.9
Somewhat formalized	10	16.9
Not formalized	7	11.9

N = 59

Table 22

Company Exhibits a High Degree of Innovation in Managerial Practices

Degree of Agreement	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	13	22.0
Agree	21	35.7
Neutral	12	20.3
Disagree	11	18.6
Strongly Disagree	2	3.4

N = 59

Table 23

Company Has Extremely Formalized Channels of Communication

Degree of Agreement	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	13.6
Agree	15	25.4
Neutral	11	18.6
Disagree	17	28.8
Strongly Disagree	8	13.6

N = 60

Table 24

Company's EEO/AA Record-Keeping Is
Formalized, Utilized, and Closely Monitored

Degree of Agreement	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	18	30.0
Agree	26	43.4
Neutral	8	13.3
Disagree	6	10.0
Strongly Disagree	2	3.3

N = 60

Table 25

Unionization

Presence of Union	Number	Percent
Yes	23	38.3
No	37	61.7

N = 60

Table 26

Ratings of Forces for Change Concerning Women in Management

(Percentage of Responses)

Forces for Change	Very Great	Moderate	Some what	None
Retention of employees	52.8	30.2	13.2	3.8
Shortage of qualified males	2.0	1.9	11.8	84.3
Concern for bottom line	9.8	33.3	31.4	25.5
Improve morale	15.7	39.2	27.5	17.6
Improve employee satisfaction	25.5	31.4	29.4	13.7
Social responsibility	21.6	35.3	25.5	17.6
Organizational culture	33.3	39.2	11.8	15.7
Avoid costs of lawsuits	10.0	18.0	32.0	40.0
Enhance efficiency	23.5	31.4	17.6	27.5
Improve productivity	29.4	19.6	25.5	25.5
Remain viable organization	37.3	33.3	13.7	15.7
Increased qualified women	47.1	31.3	15.7	5.9
Reflect diversified market	47.1	35.3	13.7	3.9

N = 50 to 53

Total percentages exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

Table 27

Ratings of Barriers to Change Concerning Women in
Management

Barriers to Change	Major	Moderate	Some what	None
Organizational culture	10.9	23.6	21.8	43.7
Lack of perceived need for more women's programs	9.1	29.1	27.3	34.5
Lack of support from top management	3.6	10.9	16.4	69.1
Lack of CEO support	1.9	3.7	5.6	88.8
Lack of resources to develop women's programs	7.4	27.8	27.8	37.0
Lack of expertise to plan women's programs	3.6	30.9	27.3	38.2
Stereotypes and misconceptions	12.7	27.3	30.9	29.1

N = 50 to 53

Total percentages exceed 100% due to multiple responses.

Table 28

Formal Programs Implemented to Facilitate the Advancement
and Retention of Women in Management

Type of Program	Number	Percent
Training and development for women	20	33.3
Recruitment/appraisal for women	26	43.3
Training to reduce stereotyping	44	73.3
Training for objective procedures	22	36.7
Objective reward and punishment systems	9	15.0
Mentoring programs for women	20	33.3
Work/family initiatives	50	83.3
Women's support groups	32	53.3
Organization development strategies	13	21.7
Informal, inclusive communication system	15	25.0
Split-location options	25	41.7
Monitoring wages for gender bias	27	45.0
Written affirmative action plan	38	63.3
Designated AA/EEO officer	36	60.0
Consultant for sexism issues	17	28.3
Women's advisory committee	14	23.3
Special career development for women	5	8.3
Tuition reimbursement	48	80.0
Tracking women's career advancement	12	20.0
Succession planning	30	50.0
Sexual harassment grievance procedure	45	75.0
Employee evaluation of managers	21	35.0
Identification of high potential women	30	50.0

N = 60

Total percentage exceeds 100% due to multiple responses.

Table 29

Total Number of Programs to Facilitate the Advancement and Retention of Women in Management

Number of Programs	Frequency	Percent
1	1	1.7
2	1	1.7
3	4	6.7
4	2	3.3
5	3	5.0
6	4	6.7
7	5	8.3
8	5	8.3
9	2	3.3
10	6	10.0
11	3	5.0
12	4	6.7
13	5	8.3
14	2	3.3
15	7	11.6
16	3	5.0
17	0	0.0
18	1	1.7
19	1	1.7
20	1	1.7

N = 60

Table 30

Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index

(Range 0 - 54)

Index	Number	Percent	Index	Number	Percent
3	1	1.7	26	1	1.7
6	1	1.7	28	5	8.3
7	1	1.7	29	2	3.3
9	2	3.3	30	4	6.6
10	2	3.3	31	4	6.6
13	1	1.7	33	1	1.7
14	2	3.3	34	1	1.7
15	2	3.3	35	1	1.7
16	3	5.0	36	3	5.0
17	2	3.3	37	2	3.3
18	4	6.7	38	3	5.0
20	1	1.7	39	1	1.7
22	2	3.3	41	1	1.7
23	2	3.3	45	1	1.7
24	2	3.3	49	1	1.7
25	1	1.7			

N = 60

Table 31

Range of Programs for the Advancement
and Retention of Women

(Range 0 - 7)

Range of Programs	Number	Percent
1	12	1.7
2	5	8.3
3	5	8.3
4	9	15.0
5	10	16.7
6	19	31.6
7	7	11.7
8	4	6.7

N = 60

Table 32

Long-Range Planning for the Advancement and
Retention of Women

Long-Range Planning	Number	Percent
Yes	22	38.6
No	35	61.4

N = 57

Table 33

Integration of Women's Advancement and Retention Planning
with Strategic Business Plan

Included in Strategic Plan	Number	Percent
Yes	20	37.0
No	34	63.0

N = 54

Table 34

Salary Disparity Remediation

Address Disparities	Number	Percent
Yes	28	50.0
No	13	23.2
No Disparities	15	26.8

N = 56

Table 35

Accessibility of Women's Advancement Programs

Available to All Levels	Number	Percent
Yes	57	96.6
No	2	3.4

N = 59

Table 36

Organizational Processes to Determine Women's Advancement
Program Development and Implementation

Organizational Process	Number	Percent
Internal research	39	65.0
Corporate benchmarking	33	55.0
None	14	23.3

N = 60

Table 37

Evaluation Measures to Determine Success
of Women's Advancement Programs

Evaluation Measure	Number	Percent
Participation rates	26	46.4
Recruitment and retention numbers	31	55.4
Women's job satisfaction indicators	17	30.4
Other	2	3.6

N = 60

Table 38

Developmental Level of Women in Management Programming

(Range 0 - 13)

Developmental Level	Number	Percent
0	5	8.3
1	9	15.0
2	7	11.7
3	5	8.3
4	13	21.6
5	2	3.3
6	8	13.3
7	4	6.7
8	4	6.7
9	1	1.7
10	1	1.7
11	0	0.0
12	0	0.0
13	1	1.7

N = 60

Table 39

Self-Reported Level of Organizational Action
Toward Improving Women's Status

Level of Action	Number	Percent
None	11	18.4
Ongoing dialogue	23	38.3
Diagnostics of women employees' needs and consultants for women's development programs	3	5.0
Formal goals and organizational programs	23	38.3

N = 60

Table 40

Correlation Coefficients of Variables

Variable	Total Programs Coeff./Sig.	Total Index Coeff./Sig.
Size of company	0.4471/0.010	0.4731/0.010
Percent women in workforce	-0.4479/0.010	-0.4134/0.010
Percent women senior mgrs	-0.5038/0.010	-0.5182/0.010
Percent women board directors	-0.4260/0.010	-0.4091/0.010
Percent women report to CEO	-0.5184/0.010	-0.5390/0.010
Attract/retain female managers as important goal	0.2043/0.059	0.1900/0.073
Difficulty attract/retain female managers	0.2221/0.045	0.1885/0.076
Difficulty attract/retain female vs male managers	0.3399/0.004	0.3491/0.003
Women encounter more career obstacles than men	0.0623/0.320	0.0495/0.355
Level of EEO accountability	0.5768/0.000	0.5394/0.000
CEO involvement in recruiting and promoting female managers	0.2354/0.036	0.2450/0.031
Hierarchical level	0.0099/0.471	-0.0068/0.480
Formalization of company	-0.0457/0.366	-0.0603/0.325
Formalization of communication channels	0.0622/0.320	0.0392/0.384
Innovation in management	0.0422/0.375	0.0612/0.323
Formalization of AA/EEO record-keeping	0.2977/0.010	0.3178/0.007
Unionization	-0.3642/0.002	-0.3477/0.003

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This research was undertaken for the purpose of
uncovering data that would lead to a better understanding
of organizational response to women's lack of upward
mobility and consequent underrepresentation in corporate
positions of power and authority. According to Fryxell and
Lerner (1989) women and minorities continue to be
disproportionately underrepresented in our most powerful
societal institutions (corporations). The Federally
commissioned Glass Ceiling Commission (March, 1995)
concurs: "The world at the top of the corporate hierarchy
does not look anything like America.... Nor, ominously,
does the population of today's executive suite resemble the
workforce of America's future." (p. IV)

Corporate leaders are recognizing that this distorted
business reflection of a country with a history of
embracing profound diversity is not good for business.
Widespread social, economic, and demographic change has
affected the labor and consumer markets reshaping the
workplace and redefining corporate leaders' conceptions of
the way business must be done in order to meet the complex
and dynamic challenges of the coming century.

The inclusive values evident in our past, along with the economic and demographic challenges of the future, must impel organizations to address the environmental turbulence through planned organizational change efforts to dismantle the glass ceiling and ultimately provide a level playing field where each individual has the opportunity to work, develop, prosper, and contribute culminating in a stronger business community and ultimately society. This kind of organizational change with the potential capability to impact society as a whole, can be catalyzed and accomplished by learning from successful practicing organizations, creating models for success, and benchmarking and modeling to sustain and expand successful strategies and initiatives.

This rationale led to the main objectives driving this study: 1.) to determine if organizations are responding to issues of women's advancement and upward mobility, and if so, why, how, and to what extent (this includes an investigation into organizational theoretical perspectives of the issue of women's lack of corporate advancement and subsequent program development), and 2.) to identify what organizational factors or characteristics may facilitate successful organization development responses to women's upward mobility issues by examining the commonalities among organizations determined to be "The Best Companies for Women".

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of this study in Section 5.2, discusses implications of the results in terms of organization program/policy development in Section 5.3, and offers some recommendations for future research in Section 5.4

5.2 Major Findings

5.2.1 Research Question #1

Are those organizations determined to be the best companies for women (Zeitz and Dusky, 1988) addressing the issue of women's underrepresentation in upper-level management positions? If so, why and how? What kinds of policies, programs, and procedures are they implementing to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in managerial positions?

The findings presented in this study indicate that the organizations recognized as "The Best Companies for Women" are addressing the issue of women's underrepresentation in upper level managerial positions. They are responding to the problem of women's lack of corporate advancement with extensive and fairly highly developed, complex, multi-dimensional organizational strategies.

A vast majority of these organizations see the attraction and retention of women managers as an important goal of their business. Most are offering a wide variety of work/family initiatives, tuition reimbursement, and diversity training programs, and have established grievance procedures for sexual harassment. The majority also offer

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women's support/networking groups, and have written affirmative action plans and designated AA/EEO officers. One half of the companies utilize succession planning and the early identification of women managers with high leadership potential, while nearly 50% have recruitment/appraisal practices to eliminate female tokenism, split-location options, and the monitoring of compensation systems for gender bias.

A significant number (approximately one quarter to over one third) offer management training in objective rating scales and decision-making procedures, employee evaluation of managers, training and development programs for women in management, mentoring programs for women, sexism training via an outside consultant, the development of informal communication systems that are inclusive, and a women's advisory committee. Some of the companies also offer job rotation, enlargement, redesign, etc., active tracking of managerial women's career advancement paths, reward and punishment systems for supervisors/managers that include criteria for developing women, and special career development programs for women.

These companies are not only offering a high quantity of programs to facilitate the advancement and retention of women, they are also evincing a tendency toward reasonably highly developed, multiple-pronged strategies to target the problem. They are moving away from the pursuit of singular

focus efforts and putting forth complex, multi-faceted, combinations and sequences of initiatives aimed at more than one level of change.

Although there was significant variation within the sample as measured by the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index, acknowledgement that much remains to be done for some, the majority of companies are offering a wide range of strategies from training and development programs, to work/family initiatives, to monitoring/ compliance programs, management accountability/reward and punishment systems, etc. The majority also are addressing or have addressed salary disparities relative to gender, and are making their program offerings accessible to women managers at even the highest levels of the corporation.

Most have worked out at least some measure of evaluating the success of their efforts, and almost all (91.7%) of the investigated firms are offering at least one initiative in the higher organization-structure developmental level of programming. A majority of the respondents (56.7%) are providing four or more of the 13 higher developmental level initiatives and almost one third are offering six or more. Catalyst (1994) reports that it is important for companies to move beyond work/family initiatives and begin to address other structural barriers in an effort to promote women's upward mobility. Many of these businesses are starting to do just that, although

there is still considerable room for expansion into other structural program offerings.

Another area where there is much room for improvement even among these highly touted companies is in their organizational planning processes to develop strategies to advance women's status. Long-range planning and the integration of women's development planning with the strategic business plan were highly under utilized planning processes in this group.

These are surprising signs of a tendency toward quick fixes and a lack of serious organizational commitment to the long-term problem-solving efforts necessary to the remedy of an issue of such complexity and far-reaching effects. If women's advancement issues are not recognized as business issues and integrated with the strategic business plan, they are not relegated to the position they are worthy of as business practices leading to long-term corporate profitability. (U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

However, a majority of the respondents did engage in internal research and external research or corporate benchmarking for needs assessment and program strategy modeling purposes. If the effectiveness of corporate initiatives is as dependent on the process by which programs are selected and implemented as Catalyst research (1994) suggests, then these companies are developing a

strong needs assessment process foundation for the building of successful initiatives.

Why are these organizations responding to women managers' lack of career advancement issues at such high levels of involvement and support? Although a majority of the sample reporting were experiencing no great difficulty in attracting and retaining women managers, about one third did agree or strongly agree that it is more difficult to attract and retain female managers than it is to attract and retain male managers. A vast majority of the companies queried (83%) ranked concern for the retention of valued employees as a strong motivating force for their efforts to advance women's status. A high majority were also interested in reflecting the diversity of the consumer market (82.4%) and making full use of the increased presence of qualified women (78.4%). Almost three quarters alluded to the existence of a corporate culture that had a significant motivating impact on organizational efforts to change the status quo regarding women in management.

In terms of being held back in their progressive efforts to improve women's upward mobility, stereotypes and preconceptions regarding gender differences were the strongest and most prevalent barriers (40%). There was also significant reporting of a lack of resources and expertise to support organizational development to improve women's upward mobility. Corporate culture was specified

as a barrier to change efforts in only about one third of
the organizations as compared to the 75% that reported
corporate culture to be a positive force for change.

5.2.2 Research Question #2

>Based on their perceptions of the obstacles women face
>in organizations and their assessment of program need,
>how do the organizations singled out in Zeitz and
>Dusky (1988) view the theoretical issue of women's
>lack of advancement; from primarily an individual-
>centered or organization-structure perspective, and
>are their organizational response initiatives
>consistent with this view?

Using organizational perception of the targeted level
of women's advancement obstacles and program need as
indicators, the existence of a predominantly gender or
individual-centered organizational theoretical view of
women's lack of corporate advancement was almost non-
existent. A majority of respondents saw women's career
obstacles as basically organization structure/culture-
centered in nature, and viewed program need as either
organization-centered or as a strong combination of
individual and organization-structure/culture-centered.

Theoretical perspectives seemed to be moving beyond
the limits of gender/individual-centered explanations into
more integrated, multidimensional, multi-target level
viewpoints stressing the interaction of the individual and
the organization in determining the work status of women in
management. Individual-centered remedies to facilitate
women's upward movement in organizations were rarely

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indicated to the exclusion of organization-structure/
culture-centered or combination remedial strategies.

These theoretical perspectives regarding the
underlying explanations of women's lack of advancement
seemed consistent with overall organizational response
initiatives actually offered as program strategies to
promote women in management. There was a significant
positive association found between the perceived level of
program need and the theoretical/target level of program
offerings. Programs tended to be even more multi-pronged
and multi-leveled than perception of obstacles and program
need. None of the responding firms offered only
individual-centered initiatives, and only five of the 60
reported only organization-centered programs without the
inclusion of any individual-centered strategies.

The majority of respondents had complex, fairly
comprehensive, multidimensional program strategies to
tackle the problem of women's underrepresentation in
positions of status and power. These offerings included a
cross section of initiatives from each theoretical realm of
thought and each of many program categories. These
conglomerations of strategies and policies were developed
to target many levels of change and represent efforts with
characteristics consistent with the requisites for success
outlined in the research literature. (Catalyst, 1994; U.S.

Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995; Cullen, 1990)

5.2.3 Research Question #3

> What organizational characteristics might be contributing factors motivating those organizations that are noted for their work in facilitating women's career development to initiate and support organizational development interventions to advance and retain women managers?

The quest to identify commonalities among organizations deemed to be "The Best Companies for Women" can be seen as the first step in determining the antecedents of organizational responsiveness to women in management issues. Examining internal organizational demographics, organizational perceptions of the problem and program need, organizational theoretical-based understanding of the issue, corporate environment for change, and various other organizational structural/cultural characteristics has helped to shed some light on the facilitating factors influencing women in management policy development and program implementation.

5.2.3.1 Internal Demographics

Most of the organizations were large with two thirds having workforces composed of over 500 employees and 38.4% reporting more than 25,000 employees. A significant positive association was found between size of organization

and quantity and developmental level of women's advancement programming and policy.

There was almost equal representation between product and service orientations. Thirty percent of the companies were manufacturers, with the rest fairly spread out over the remaining industry classifications.

Over one half of the companies in this study maintained a female labor force constituency of over 50%. A workforce composed of one half to three quarters women was reported by 46.6% of the participating companies. Based on the statistical test of correlation, this variable was significantly negatively associated with the number and developmental level of programs to advance women's status. This could indicate that within those companies with extensive programs/policy for women in management, those with the lowest proportion of women workers are recognizing the problem and working harder toward organizational change.

Women's representation as senior level managers and board directors was significantly higher in these companies than national averages. Over half of the companies responding reported over 22% of their senior management level positions were filled by women. Women composed over one third of the senior managers in 24.1% of the firms. In reference to board directors, 31% of the boards were represented by over 20% women. However, again, the

statistical test of correlation for these variables resulted in a significant negative association between percentage of women in important positions and women in management policy development. The same held true for proportion of women reporting directly to the CEO.

5.2.3.2 Perception of the Issue/Environment for Change

An overwhelming majority (91.7%) of the respondents viewed the attraction and retention of women to be an important goal of their organization, yet the majority of companies specified the attraction and retention of women managers to be of no difficulty, and did not agree that it is more difficult to attract and retain female managers as compared to male managers.

Although only 33.9% perceived the attraction and retention of female managers to be of greater difficulty than males, this variable was found to be significantly positively correlated with the quantity of programs and developmental level of women's advancement policy development. Contrastingly, no significant relationship was found between the perception of the attraction and retention of women managers as an important goal and the level of corporate programming response. Also, the level of difficulty in attracting and retaining female managers was found to be significantly positively associated with

only the extent of women in management programming and not the developmental level.

Support from the CEO was by far the most prevalent element cited by the respondents as an important attribute of their successful organization development initiatives to advance and retain female managers. Almost three quarters (73.7%) of the respondents felt CEO support was critical to the success of such organizational efforts. This finding was supportive of the research literature stressing the importance of CEO commitment to organizational effectiveness in efforts to promote women. (Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995) The characteristics of inclusiveness (59.6%), comprehensiveness (52.6%), and developed from internal needs assessment (50.9%) were also important to the majority of those companies reporting.

Most of the respondents felt that women managers face more career obstacles than male managers, although no significant association was found between this perception and the level of corporate response to issues of women in management. A strong majority of respondent firms saw the major obstacles women managers encounter as rooted in deep-seated structural barriers in the corporate culture and work environment. They perceived a very strong program need for work/family initiatives and organizational structure programs targeting women's upward mobility.

The organizational environments of those businesses

reporting seemed high in motivating forces perhaps

elevating organization development to advance women's

status to the business imperative level suggested in the

Glass Ceiling Commission Report. (U.S. Department of Labor,

March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

Resource barriers were significantly reported along with

stereotypes and preconceptions, but driving forces for

change directed toward the advancement of women seemed to

out-pace restraining forces in an overall force-field

analysis of the organizations in general.

5.2.3.3 <u>Structural Characteristics</u>

A vast majority of the respondents (81.1%) reported

their firm to be only somewhat hierarchical in structure or

flattened hierarchically. These organizations seem to

represent a trend away from conventional steeply

hierarchical systems of command-and-control. However, no

significant association was discovered between

organizational level of hierarchy and extent of programming

to advance the status of women.

Almost three quarters of those firms responding

reported a high level of general formalization as

represented by the written record of rules, procedures, and

instructions (71.2%), and the presence of formalized,

utilized, and closely monitored record-keeping systems for

tracking AA/EEO responsibilities (73.3%). The degree of formalization of EEO record-keeping systems was determined to be significantly positively associated with the number of programs and developmental level of policy to advance women in management in a statistical correlational analysis. This is strong support for the mandate for formalized AA/EEO tracking systems reported in the Glass Ceiling Commission studies. (U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995) On the other hand, no significant association was found between the general formalization level of an organization and the extensiveness of policy development to promote women.

A high degree of innovation in managerial practices was present in 57.6% of the participating companies and 61% noted that their companies did not have extremely formalized communication channels. Neither of these variables was found to have a significant relationship with program development for women in management.

Over 60% of the companies responding to the survey were non-unionized. A significant negative association was discovered via the statistical correlational test between unionization and the number of programs offered and overall developmental level of program initiatives to promote women's upward mobility. This finding supports the research that non-unionized companies may be freer to

respond to women's needs than those constrained by institutionalized union rules and regulations. They may also be more eager to alleviate gender issues before they become cause for controversy and possible union formation instigating. (Axel, 1985)

The organizations under study displayed a very high level of accountability for EEO responsibilities. In 79.3% of the respondents, this accountability climbed all the way to the CEO or Senior Management level. The CEO level of involvement in efforts to recruit and promote women managers was also reported as extremely high. Almost two thirds of the reporting companies (66.1%) agreed that their CEO is personally involved in efforts to advance women managers' status. These are both very strong indicators of the kind of commitment these organizations possess regarding strategies to facilitate workplace equity.

Each of these variables (level of accountability for EEO responsibilities and level of CEO involvement) was found to be significantly positively associated with extent and developmental level of programming and policy development to advance women's status by means of the statistical correlational analysis. This is highly supportive of the research in the literature to date. (Catalyst, 1994; U.S. Department of Labor, March, 1995; U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995)

In summary, the statistical and descriptive data gathered in this study indicate that those companies recognized as being "The Best Companies for Women" tend to be large, have significantly larger proportions of women in leadership positions than the national average, and recognize the importance of attracting and retaining women managers as part of their organizational goals; they tend to perceive women's career advancement obstacles as more organization-centered than individual-centered, and consistent with that perception, they assessed program needs to be basically organization-centered in nature; they tend to feel a multitude of motivating forces toward changing the status quo regarding women in management, and see CEO support as a major ingredient essential to the development of successful initiatives to advance women's status; they tend to exhibit a high level of formalization in terms of written records in general and in terms of tracking systems for AA/EEO responsibilities, a moderately hierarchical organization structure, less formalized communication channels, and highly innovative managerial practices; and, they tend to be non-unionized, possess extremely high levels of CEO support for women's advancement initiatives, and maintain high executive levels of accountability for EEO efforts.

5.2.4 <u>General Conclusions</u>

Based on the descriptive and statistical results emanating from this research study, a few general conclusions can be drawn. These conclusions are specific to the population of this study and not inherently generalizable.

The participating companies in this study are responding with commitment to the issue of women's lack of representation in positions of power and influence. They are answering the call for change through the development and implementation of wide-ranging, fairly highly developed and comprehensive programs targeting the advancement of women. Although this study did not measure the effectiveness of their change strategies, these companies were originally singled out as organizations where women fare best in terms of the career ladder. That seems evident in the gender demographics of their leadership positions. They are generally representative of organizations that have made major accomplishments in carving out a supportive work environment for women.

Despite these laudable efforts, the scores on the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index measure were evidence of significant variations within this population with regard to the overall breadth, comprehensiveness, and developmental level of organization development programs and policies. Even these companies

that are noted as "The Best Companies for Women" are in very different developmental stages in their awareness of women in management issues, their motivations and organizational environments for change, and their developmental level of programming response.

The findings of this study support the thought that strategies to address the glass ceiling are evolving away from the limits of purely individual/gender-centered approaches toward more organization-centered strategies that address deeply embedded structural and cultural concerns. Companies are beginning to move away from the pursuit of singular focus efforts and to understand the need for integrated, multiple programs that target many levels of organizational change, and realize the futility of isolated targeted efforts (i.e. gender-centered) that cannot succeed if surrounded by barriers at other levels of organization development (i.e. organization-structure or systems-level). As theoretical perspectives of the issue are developing, so too are efforts toward solution.

One half of the companies responding in this study had a score of 50% or less on the Total Women's Advancement Policy Development Index which indicates that there is much room for improvement in the corporate development of multi-pronged, holistic programs and strategies to dismantle the glass ceiling and improve women's upward mobility. Long-range planning efforts and the integration of women in

management program planning with the strategic business plan were sorely lacking. On the other hand, CEO involvement, level of EEO accountability, and formalization of tracking and record-keeping for AA/EEO efforts were all at high supportive levels. These characteristics were also significantly positively associated with the level of organizational response indicating the possibility of their potential as determining factors in women's advancement policy development.

Basically, even the efforts of those touted as "The Best" are still evolving and unfolding. Although women's advancement planning processes need improving and upgrading as an important component of overall business planning, it is encouraging that internal research, benchmarking, and measures of success are being widely utilized. It is also heartening to note the prevalence of salary disparity remediation efforts and highly accessible programming at all levels of management.

Catalyst (1994) found that corporate initiatives to promote women's upward mobility are relatively few in number compared to work/family programs. Contrastingly, the companies in this study offered significant initiatives in the structural and cultural realm of organization development beyond work/family initiatives. This growing sophistication of program efforts and movement toward integrated, multi-faceted, systemic organizational

strategies that are evidential of a deeper understanding of the complexity of the problem and its demand for holistic, non-reductionist solutions are impressive developments.

5.3 Implications for Organization Development

This research represents just one more small and fragile untangled piece of connective fiber in the web of complexity explaining women's disenfranchised position in Corporate America and the resulting organizational response. The findings presented via this study are the result of an effort to begin to take the temperature of today's corporations by reviewing the practices, programs, and policies of those regarded as "The Best" in their environment for and record of women's advancement; an effort to identify and define the corporate antecedents to positive change strategies to promote women through the establishment of commonalities among these organizations. The findings of this study are open to interpretation and are limited in their generalizability due to the shared characteristic of the sample, their membership in a select group of "The Best Companies for Women".

For CEO's, corporate executives, Human Resource/Diversity managers, and Organization Development practitioners, this study illuminates the extent and developmental level of present organizational strategies to advance the status of women in management. It offers a

look at the newest state of the art developments in corporate policies, programs, and procedures, and offers insight into useful sequences and combinations of initiatives for benchmarking purposes.

The results of this study support the importance of CEO involvement, the organizational level of EEO accountability, and the formalization of the AA/EEO record-keeping and tracking of efforts promoting workplace equity. These research findings also lend validation to the necessity of integrated, multidimensional, comprehensive, systemic approaches to promoting women's upward mobility. They suggest a need for companies to understand the nature of women's career obstacles internal to their particular corporate setting before determining the target levels of program need and establishing and implementing strategies for change. Failure to understand the underpinnings and extent of the problem, and to make logical connections toward organization development solutions, has a great probability of resulting in failed efforts and wasted organizational resources including human resources.

Organization development efforts to advance women's status must be planned and executed in an integrated, comprehensive manner with strongly articulated affirmations of CEO and upper-level management commitment and the business and social imperative of the action.

Accountability must be clearly communicated and the corporate environment must be supportive of change.

These characteristics and processes can lead to comprehensive organization development strategies that have the potential to result in wide-ranging, long-lasting, systemic change for women in management.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

This study was limited in its scope and bound by the parameters of the positivist philosophical foundation of the quantitative paradigmatic form of scientific inquiry. The ontological and epistemological underpinnings of this research approach have resulted in significant outcomes that possess the potential to be augmented with more quantitative research, or enriched and complemented with additional qualitative research.

It may be interesting and insightful to supplement this questionnaire survey research with ethnographic interviews of executive-level business representatives for a more subjective, naturalistically-oriented approach to the issue. This complementary methodology could potentially provide some additional insight into the nature and extent of corporate responses to women's advancement issues and enrich our understanding of organizational motivations, processes, practices, and cultures and their effect on the development, implementation, and evolution of

strategies and policies to facilitate women managers'
upward mobility.

Also, as the very recent Glass Ceiling Commission
Recommendations Report (U.S. Department of Labor, November,
1995) suggests, "...additional study is required in the
area of comparative research of business and industries in
which women and minorities are and are not promoted to
management and decisionmaking positions." (p. 55) This
dissertation study concentrated on "The Best Companies for
Women", while a comparative analysis of those companies
with highly developed programs and policy and those who are
not so evolved in their organization development efforts to
address women in management issues, could further enlighten
this assessment of the corporate variables affecting change
and consequently lead to pragmatic and meaningful results.

Although this cross sectional study begins the
analysis of current corporate strategies for success called
for by the Glass Ceiling Commission (U.S. Department of
Labor, 1991), it would be complemented by a longitudinal
design study to determine what organization development
processes, programs, and activities in combination are most
effective in dismantling glass ceilings and promoting women
and minorities into positions of leadership and power. As
suggested in the Glass Ceiling Recommendations Report (U.S.
Department of Labor, November, 1995), future study could
also combine an analysis of organizational infrastructures

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impacting the glass ceiling with an analysis of the career programs of high-potential managers within the organizations, comparing and contrasting the experiences of white and minority women and men.

Another interesting comparative analysis idea might include expanding the sample of corporations offering intensive programs to promote opportunities for women, and then comparing and contrasting their successes and failures. This concept was suggested by Jacobs (1992) as a research effort that might facilitate the collection of systematic evidence regarding organizational structure/culture attributes that tend to promote women's upward mobility.

Quantifying the cost of business' failure to utilize the full pool of talented resources available and lack of success in dismantling the glass ceiling is a research goal of acute importance to individuals, corporations, and society in general. Glass Ceiling Commission recommendations (U.S. Department of Labor, November, 1995) suggest the desirability of such a research project complete with the development of econometric models.

The research within this discipline needs to move beyond mere levels of organizational response to issues of women's underrepresentation in managerial leadership positions to measures of program success as evidenced in the organizational demographic statistics, opinions of

female managers, turnover rates, bottom-line business savings, and overall organizational well-being. There needs to be positive feedback as to the effects of organizational efforts to catalyze change for women in management that will reinforce the organizational development strategies that are working and discourage the allocation of limited corporate resources for those initiatives that have had only a limited effect. The definition and measurement of the variables associated with successful women in management programming and policy development are difficult assignments, but integral to the production of quality indicators eventually leading to benchmarking and modeling standards.

Additionally, when women are successful in attaining the highest level positions in organizations, we need to examine why. Is it a result of their characteristics, or is it due to the characteristics of the organization they are working in? (Cullen, 1990) We need to be able to separate these two possibilities so researchers can focus on appropriate efforts to achieve change. As Grondin (1990) points out, when researchers and practitioners have difficulty identifying and separating out the individual characteristics and organizational factors that restrain or catalyze women's promotion, there are serious repercussions in the organization development initiatives targeted toward advancing women's career development. Misguided efforts

can result in organizational harm and the squandering of limited resources.

There is also a call for more system-wide (individual-organization-societal) theoretical research into understanding women's behavior in organizations which could ultimately lead to more broad-based practical strategies toward solution of the problem of women's lack of corporate advancement. Research within this realm would require multiple analysis of variance and regression methods capable of testing the interaction of variables for main effect, joint function, interaction, and non-additivity.

Multiple levels of analysis are necessary to any comprehensive understanding of women in management issues and the underlying assumptions driving organizational change. Again, without a basic understanding of the theoretical concepts regarding the nature of gender inequities in the workplace, practical solutions or conceptualizations for organization development remedial action have the potential to be misdirected, limited, and ultimately ineffective. Corporate response emanating from one level of analysis without attention to the others (i.e. individual sans organization structure or system), will most likely result in myopic, short-lived, ineffectual, single-pronged approaches to an extremely complex problem.

Furthermore, there needs to be more extensive research into the developmental levels of organizational response to

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issues of women's upward mobility. The theoretical
underpinnings of women in management research (Fagenson,
1990) suggest a developmental progression from individual-
centered to organization-centered to gender-organization
and gender-organization-system-centered thought and
resulting strategy, but a clearly defined developmental
model is necessary to further investigation and analysis
into corporate levels of action.

Most interestingly, research is needed that will
burrow down to the root of the sustenance and long-
prevailing maintenance of gender inequities in the
workplace. More specifically, there is a need to examine
the basic underlying assumptions and values driving our
organizations; to critically investigate corporate
settings and examine the gender arrangements in their
social, political, organization-structure, and historical
contexts. We need to question the purposes of our
organizational structures, the ends they serve, and the
extent to which these ends and purposes are related to
gender. (Cullen, 1990) These questions challenge the very
fiber of today's organizations.

There is a need to ask: Where have the gender-related
barriers in our organizations come from? Who and what is
responsible? Are they the result of centuries of
socialization rooted in various cultures, societies, and
traditions? Are these gender-related, acculturated myths

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and stereotypes appropriate today? How can changes in organizational structures, cultures, and gender-related realities affect long-lasting, systemic, societal change?

There is no doubt that this leads to an additional imperative to recognize that our family structures are intertwined with our organizational structures and the assumptions about family life that our organizations are based on are no longer a societal reality. There is a need for further research to examine the present status of work/family policy and to assess its limited potential for impact unless combined with the depth of structural change requisite to an organizational response that will be compatible with the massive societal changes that have occurred in family life patterns.

Lastly, future research must address the methodological weaknesses evident in the research efforts to date. Feminist standpoint epistemologists argue for the need for a feminist methodology of research that is more in touch with women's experience than the objective authoritarian "male model" of scientific ways of knowing (quantitative paradigm). This called-for methodology stresses qualitative methods of data collection including interviews and case studies that introduce women's own stories and experiences into social science research.

As in all research, caution must be exercised when concluding cause and effect in the women in management

discipline. Temptations to uncover gender differences need to be assuaged as interpretations of disparities must reflect covariance possibilities with other variables besides gender, and must take them into account.

Research design issues are critical to studies of women in management including: type of investigation (causal versus correlational), study setting (field versus lab), time horizon (cross sectional versus longitudinal), sampling design, data collection methods, and data analysis techniques (qualitative versus quantitative). As Sekaran (1990) points out, the proper handling of all of these research methodology elements are crucial to research's improvement in defining women in management issues and evaluating corporate response.

Based on the relatively young nature of the field, and consequently the importance of theory development, Sekaran (1990) makes an important case for correlational investigation, field setting studies, longitudinal designs, probability sampling designs, and qualitative data collection methods and data analysis techniques. This theory development will ultimately lead to more practical-based research of organization development processes. As theory-building in women in management research leads us to more sophisticated ways of knowing and a higher level of understanding, more meaningful practice will be possible through organization development efforts toward changing

the status quo for women in corporate settings. That all-important bridge between theory and practice will finally be under serious construction.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE

FIFTY "BEST" COMPANIES

American Express Company
Shearson Lehman Hutton, Inc.
American Express Tower
World Financial Center
New York, NY   10285

American Telephone & Telegraph
550 Madison Avenue
New York, NY   10022

Avon Products, Inc.
9 West 57th Street
New York, NY   10019

Barrios Technology, Inc.
1331 Gemini
Houston, TX   77058

Bidermann Industries USA, Inc.
1211 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY   10036

CBS, Inc.
51 West 52nd Street
New York, NY   10019

Children's Television Workshop
One Lincoln Plaza
New York, NY   10023

Citizens and Southern National
Bank
Box 4899
Atlanta, GA   30302

Cognos, Inc.
2 Corporate Place, I-95
Peabody, MA   01960

Conran Stores, Inc.
10 Astor Place
New York, NY   10003

The Denver Post
650 15th Street
Denver CO   80202

Digital Equipment
Corporation
146 Main Street
Maynard, MA   10754

Drake Business Schools,
Inc.
10 East 38th Street
New York, NY   10016

Federal Express
Corporation
Box 727
Memphis, TN   38194

Fidelity Bank
Broad and Walnut Streets
Philadelphia, PA   19109

First Atlanta
Corporation
Two Peachtree Street
Atlanta, GA   30383

Gannett Company, Inc.
1000 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, VA   22209

General Mills, Inc.
9200 Waywazata Boulevard
Minneapolis, MN   55440

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Grey Advertising
777 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10017

GTE Corporation
One Stamford Forum
Stamford, Ct 06904

Hallmark Cards, Inc.
2501 McGee Street
Kansas City, MO 64108

Hearst Trade Books including
      William Morrow & Co.
      105 Madison Avenue
      New York, NY 10016

      Avon Books
      1790 Broadway
      New York, NY 10019

Herman Miller, Inc.
Zeeland, MI 49464

Hewitt Associates
100 Half Day Road
Lincolnshire, IL 60015

Hewlett-Packard
3000 Hanover Street
Palo Alto, CA 94303

Home Box Office, Inc
1100 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036

Honeywell, Inc.
Box 524
Minneapolis, MN 55940

International Business
Machines, Corporation
Corporate Headquarters
Armonk, NY 10504

Levi Strauss & Company
P.O. Box 7215
San Francisco, CA 94120

Lotus Development
Corporation
161 First Street
Cambridge, MA 02142

Manufacturers Hanover
Trust Company
320 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Merck & Company, Inc.
P.O. Box 2000
Rahway, NJ 07065

Mountain Bell
1125 17th Street
DN 1690
P.O. Box 1300
Denver, CO 80201

Mount Carmel Health
793 West State Street
Columbus, OH 43222

Neiman-Marcus
Main and Ervay Streets
Dallas, TX 75201

Northwestern Bell
1314 Douglas Avenue
Omaha, NE 68102

Payless Cashways, Inc.
1 Pershing Square
2301 Main, Box 466
Kansas City, MO 64141

Pepsico, Inc.
700 Anderson Hill Road
Purchase, NY 10577

Pitney Bowes
Walter H. Wheeler Jr. Drive
Stamford, CT 06926

Proctor & Gamble Company
Box 599
Cincinnati, OH 45201

Recognition Equipment
2701 East Grauwyler Road
Irving, TX 75001

Restaurant Enterprises Group,
Inc.
2701 Alton Avenue
Irving, CA 92714

The Rowland Company,
Inc.
415 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Saks Fifth Avenue
611 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10022

Solomon Brothers, Inc.
One New York Plaza
New York, NY 10004

Simon & Schuster, Inc.
Simon & Schuster
Building
1230 Avenue of the
Americas
New York, NY 10020

Southern New England
Telephone
227 Church Street
New Haven, CT 06506

Syntex (USA), Inc.
3401 Hillview Avenue
Palo Alto, CA 94304

Time, Inc.
Time & Life Building
New York, NY 10020

U.S. West Direct
2500 South Havana
Aurora, CO 80014

SIXTY ADDITIONAL COMPANIES "WORTH INVESTIGATING"

American Savings & Loan
77 W. 200 South
Salt Lake City, UT   84101

ARA Services
1101 Market Street
Philadelphia, PA   19107

Atlantic Richfield Company
515 S. Flower Street
Los Angeles, CA   90071

Bank of America
555 California Street
San Francisco, CA   94104

Bankers Trust
280 Park Avenue
New York, NY   10017

Bergdorf Goodman
754 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY   10019

Boston Consulting Group
Exchange Place
Boston, MA   02109

Cable News Network
CNN Center
Atlanta, GA   30348

Calvert Group
4550 Montgomery Avenue
Bethesda, MD   20814

Campbell Soup
Campbell Place
Camden, NJ   08103-1799

Cardiac Pacemakers
4100 N. Hamline Avenue
St. Paul, MN   55112

Carter Hawley Hale
550 S. Flower Street
Los Angeles, CA   90071

Chemical Bank
277 Park Avenue
New York, NY   10172

Christian Dior
1372 Broadway
New York, NY   10018

Citicorp-Citibank
399 Park Avenue
New York, NY   10043

Conde Nast Publications
350 Madison Avenue
New York, NY   10017

Connecticut General
Hartford, CT   06152

Contempo Casuals
5433 W. Jefferson
Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA   90016

Dayton Hudson
777 Nicollet Mall
Minneapolis, MN 55402

DDB Needham Worldwide
437 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

D-A-Y
40 W. 57th Street
New York, NY 10019

Encyclopedia Britannica
310 S. Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60604
The Equitable
787 Seventh Avenue
New York, NY 10019

Esprit
900 Minnesota Street
San Francisco, CA 94107

Estee Lauder
767 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10153

European American Bank
EAB Plaza
Uniondale, NY 11555

Exxon Corp.
1251 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

Federated Department
Stores
7 W. 7th Street
Cincinnati, OH 45202

W. L. Gore & Associates
551 Paper Mill Road
Newark, DE 19714

Hoffman LaRoche
340 Kingsland Street
Nutley, NJ 07110

Liz Claiborne
1441 Broadway
New York, NY 10018

R. H. Macy's
151 W. 34th Street
New York, NY 10001

Marriott
10400 Fernwood Road
Bethesda, MD 20058

Mary Kay Cosmetics
8787 Stemmons Freeway
Dallas, TX 75247

Mattel
5150 Rosecrans Avenue
Hawthorne, CA 90250

McKinsey & Company
55 E. 52nd Street
New York, NY 10022

Merril Lynch & Co.
World Headquarters
North Tower
World Financial Center
New York, NY 10281

Mervyn's
25001 Industrial Boulevard
Hayward, CA 94545

Montgomery Securities
600 Montgomery Street
San Francisco, CA 94111

Morgan Stanley
1251 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

New Jersey Bell
540 Broad Street
Newark, NJ 11747

New York Times
229 W. 43rd Street
New York, NY 10036

Nordstrom
1501 Fifth Avenue
Seattle, WA 98101

Northwestern Mutual Life
720 E. Wisconsin Avenue
Milwaukee, WI 53202

Ogilvy & Mather
2 E. 48th Street
New York, NY 10017

Omega Engineering
1 Omega Drive
Stamford, CT 06907

Polaroid
549 Technology Square
Cambridge, MA 02139

Port Authority of New
York & New Jersey
1 World Trade Center
New York, NY 10048

Publix Supermarkets
P.O. Box 407
Lakeland, FL 33802

Quaker Oats
P.O. Box 9001
Chicago, IL 60604-9001

Ranier National Bank
P.O. Box 3966
Seattle, WA 98124

Sara Lee Corporation
Three First National
Plaza
Chicago, IL 60602-4260

Security Pacific Bank
333 S. Hope Street
Los Angeles, CA 90071

Shawmut Bank
1 Federal Street
Boston, MA 02211

Stop & Shop
1776 Heritage Drive
North Quincy, MA   02171

Tenneco
1010 Milam
Houston, TX   77002

3M Corp.
3M Center
St. Paul, MN   55144-1000

Weinstocks
600 K Street
Sacramento, CA   95814

Xerox
P.O. Box 1600
Stamford, CT   06904

SURVEY

<u>University of Massachusetts at Amherst</u>

<u>Department of Education - Organization Development</u>

<u>Organizational Initiatives Targeted Toward the Advancement
and Retention of Women in Management:
An Investigation Into the "Best" Companies for Women</u>

<u>Instructions</u>: Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible. Most of the questions can be answered by circling the appropriate number, word, or words. For others, please follow individual instructions. Please note the survey is double-sided; questions continue on the back of each page. The answers you offer will be completely confidential. If you have any questions, please write or call the researcher.

Please return to: Diane Mirante, 35 Cottage Street
                   Gt. Barrington, MA 01230 (413) 528-1311

Please check (√) this box if you are interested in receiving a summary of the survey findings. ☐

1.   What is your job title?

        1)   CEO
        2)   Senior VP of Human Resources
        3)   VP of Human Resources
        4)   Director/Manager of Human Resources
        5)   Other
             (specify)_____

2.   How many employees are employed by your company?

        1)   less than 50
        2)   51 - 500
        3)   501 - 5,000
        4)   5,001 - 25,000
        5)   more than 25,000

3.   What type of company are you?

        1)   Product
        2)   Service
        3)   Other

     Please specify name of product/service or explanation
     of other.
     _____

4.   What percentage of your workforce are women?

        1)   0 - 25%
        2)   26 - 50%
        3)   51 - 75%
        4)   76 - 100%

5.   How many <u>senior</u> managers (vice-president and above)
     are in your company?   _____

     Of these, how many are women?   _____

6.   How many members are on your Board of Directors?

                                              _____

     Of these, how many are women?   _____

7.   Of the female managers in your company, approximately
     what percentage are in line positions (i.e. sales,
     production, operations, etc.) and approximately what
     percentage are in staff positions (i.e. human
     resources, public relations, administration, etc.) If
     you don't have specific data, please provide your best
     judgement. Check (√) the appropriate basis for the
     following data:

                                   __actual __estimated

     _____% line   _____% staff

8.   Is attracting and retaining female managers an
     important goal of your company?

        YES   **NO**

9.   To what extent is it difficult to attract/retain
       female managers in your company?

              1)   Extremely difficult
              2)   Moderately difficult
              3)   Somewhat difficult
              4)   Not difficult

       If you have indicated that it is difficult, please
       explain why.

       _____
       _____
       _____

10.   To what extent do you agree with the following
       statement?   Attracting and retaining female managers
       is more difficult than attracting and retaining male
       managers.

       Strongly   **Strongly**
       Agree   **Agree**   **Neutral**   **Disagree** **Disagree**

11.   If your company perceives a problem with retaining
       female managers, please rank the following reasons why
       women are leaving, highest (1) to lowest (6):

       Rating:
       _____ 1)   take similar or better jobs with other firms
       _____ 2)   family responsibilities/considerations
       _____ 3)   change career tracks
       _____ 4)   permanently drop out
       _____ 5)   start own business
       _____ 6)   return to school

12. Please rate the following as _forces_ of change for your company concerning the issue of women in management:

> **Very great force**   - 1
> **Moderate force**   - 2
> **Somewhat of a force**   - 3
> **No force**   - 4

Rating:

_____ 1) concern for retention of valued employees
_____ 2) shortage of qualified males
_____ 3) concern for bottom-line regarding costs associated with alienation, high turnover, etc.
_____ 4) desire to improve morale
_____ 5) desire to improve employee satisfaction
_____ 6) desire to be socially responsible
_____ 7) organizational culture
_____ 8) desire to avoid costs of lawsuits
_____ 9) desire to enhance organizational efficiency
_____ 10) desire to improve productivity
_____ 11) desire to remain a viable organization
_____ 12) increased presence of qualified women
_____ 13) desire to reflect diversity of consumer market

13. Please rate the following in terms of their strengths as _barriers_ against your company's efforts toward change regarding women in management issues:

> **Major barrier**   - 1
> **Moderate barrier**   - 2
> **Somewhat of a barrier**   - 3
> **No barrier**   - 4

Rating:

_____ 1) organizational culture
_____ 2) lack of perceived need for additional efforts aimed at women
_____ 3) lack of top management support
_____ 4) lack of CEO support
_____ 5) lack of resources to develop and implement specialized programs for women
_____ 6) lack of expertise to plan strategies targeted toward the advancement and retention of female managers
_____ 7) stereotypes and preconceptions

14. Nationally, statistics indicate that women earn seventy-two percent of what men in comparable positions earn. Has your company taken steps to address salary disparities? If yes, discuss what steps have been taken. If no, could you explain?

    YES   **NO**

    _____
    _____
    _____

15. In your company, who is responsible for EEO accountability? Circle as many as are applicable.

    1) CEO
    2) Senior management
    3) Personnel/Human Resources staff
    4) Middle management

16. The CEO of this company is personally involved in efforts to recruit and promote women managers.

    Strongly   **Strongly**
    Agree   **Agree**   **Neutral**   **Disagree** **Disagree**

17. How many managers report directly to the CEO? _____

    Of these, how many are women? _____

18. Does your company engage in long-range planning regarding the advancement and retention of women?

    YES   **NO**

    If yes, could you very briefly describe the major long range planning activities that your company is engaged in?

    _____
    _____
    _____

19. Is planning regarding the advancement and retention of women included in your company's overall strategic business plan?

   YES **NO**

20. In your view, what are the major obstacles women managers encounter in corporations in advancing their careers? Circle as many as are applicable.

   ___ 1) exclusion from "old boy" network
   ___ 2) sexual harassment
   ___ 3) gender discrimination
   ___ 4) family responsibilities
   ___ 5) lack of day care
   ___ 6) absence of mentors
   ___ 7) absence of opportunity for advancement
   ___ 8) lack of female role models
   ___ 9) tokenism issues
   ___ 10) male attitudes
   ___ 11) lack of skill development and training opportunities
   ___ 12) lack of challenging high profile assignments
   ___ 13) hitting the glass ceiling
   ___ 14) job classification system
   ___ 15) evaluation and advancement procedures
   ___ 16) managerial attitudes and behaviors
   ___ 17) images of women
   ___ 18) corporate culture
   ___ 19) lack of appropriate skills and experience
   ___ 20) lack of particular characteristics requisite to managerial work
   ___ 21) advancement is fundamentally political in nature
   ___ 22) female "bosses" are viewed as liabilities
   ___ 23) none of the above
   ___ 24) other
       (specify)_____

   Are there any of these obstacles that you feel that your company has been particularly effective in eliminating or alleviating? Please check (√) the appropriate numbers above.

21. To what extent do you feel that women face more obstacles than men do in advancing their careers?

   Great   **Moderate**   **Some**   **No**
   extent   **extent**   **extent**   **extent**

22. Which formal programs has your company implemented as strategies to facilitate the advancement and retention of women in management? Circle as many as are applicable.

1) training and development programs for women in management
2) recruitment/appraisal practices aimed at hiring and promoting women managers and eliminating female tokenism by equalizing numbers
3) training programs for management aimed at reducing gender-related stereotypical attitudes and behaviors as they relate to organizational practices (i.e. diversity training, sensitivity training, consciousness raising, etc.)
4) training for management aimed at standardizing the use of objective rating scales and decision-making procedures
5) reward and punishment systems for supervisors and management that include criteria for hiring, promoting, and retaining women managers
6) mentoring programs for women
7) work/family initiatives including flex-time, on-site day-care, child care referral, job share, part-time work options, parental/family leave, (circle all that apply)
8) women's support/networking groups
9) job rotation, job redesign, job enlargement, and other strategies to increase opportunities for women in management
10) development of informal communication systems that are inclusive
11) split-location options (work done partly at home, partly at office)
12) monitoring of compensation systems for gender bias
13) written and distributed affirmation action plan
14) designated AA/EEO officer
15) engage services of outside consultant on issues of sexism
16) women's advisory committee that reports to top management
17) special career development programs for women
18) tuition reimbursement
19) active tracking of managerial women's career advancement paths
20) succession planning
21) grievance procedure for sexual harassment
22) employee evaluation of managers
23) early identification of women managers with high leadership potential
24) none of the above
25) other (specify)_____

23. Are all of the programs you circled in Question 22
    available to women managers even at the highest
    levels?

    YES   **NO**

24. Based on the programs you offer or would like to
    offer, please rate the following categories of
    programs from most needed (1) to least needed (4):
    Skip programs that you do not feel would be useful.

    Rating:
    _____ 1)   training and development for women
    _____ 2)   training and development for men regarding
                the issue of women in management
    _____ 3)   work/family initiatives (i.e. day care,
                family leave, flex-time, job share, part
                time options, etc.)
    _____ 4)   organizational structure initiatives (i.e.
                recruitment and advancement procedures,
                communication patterns, reward and
                punishment systems, opportunity and power
                structure changes, AA/EEO monitoring and
                record-keeping procedures, etc.)

25. What organizational processes does your company engage
    in to determine what programs it will develop and
    implement to target the development, advancement, and
    retention of women in management? Circle as many as
    are applicable.

        1)   Internal research to evaluate human resource
              performance, assess specific needs, and
              identify issues
        2)   Corporate benchmarking practices comparing
              your programs with industry peers and
              studying the policies, practices, and
              procedures other companies are implementing
              to address the issue
        3)   none of the above
        4)   other
              (specify)_____

26. How do you determine the success of the programs implemented for women? Circle as many as are applicable.

      1) participation rates for women
      2) overall recruitment and retention numbers of women
      3) women's job satisfaction indicators (explain measure)_____

_____

_____

      4) other (specify)_____

_____

27. For this question, circle as many responses as are applicable. In this company, initiatives to advance and retain female managers that have been <u>successful</u> tend to:

      1) have CEO support
      2) be part of a strategic business plan
      3) be tailor-made for this company
      4) include accountability features
      5) have developed from an internal needs assessment
      6) include record-keeping and tracking procedures
      7) be part of a comprehensive plan of numerous strategies including initiatives aimed at both <u>individual</u> change and <u>organizational</u> change
      8) be inclusive (do not exclude white males)
      9) address stereotypes and preconceptions
    10) none of the above
    11) other (specify)_____

28. Does your company have a union?

    YES   **NO**

If yes, to what extent has the union been involved in activities directed toward the development and advancement of women?

Great extent	Moderate extent	Some extent	No extent

29. How would you describe your company's basic structure?

       1)   extremely hierarchical
       2)   somewhat hierarchical
       3)   flattened hierarchical structure

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your company? Circle your choice using the following scale:

       Strongly Agree   **SA**
       Agree   **A**
       Neutral   **N**
       Disagree   **D**
       Strongly Disagree   **SD**

30. This company exhibits a high degree of innovation in managerial practices.   **SA A N D SD**

31. This company has extremely formalized channels of communication.   **SA A N D SD**

32. This company's record-keeping system regarding EEO/Affirmative Action responsibilities concerning recruitment, employment and developmental activities for management positions is formalized, utilized, and closely monitored.   **SA A N D SD**

33. In this company, the practice of filling upper level managerial positions allows for more subjectivity than the practice of filling lower level positions.   **SA A N D SD**

34. How formalized (the extent to which rules, procedures, and instructions are written down) is your company?

       1)   extremely formalized
       2)   moderately formalized
       3)   somewhat formalized
       4)   not formalized

35. Which **best** describes your company's efforts to improve women's status?

      1)   formal goals and organizational programs
      2)   diagnostics of women employees' needs and consultants for women's development programs
      3)   ongoing dialogue about women's issues

36. Is there anything else you would like to add regarding your company's interest in the major topic of this survey: Organizational initiatives targeted toward the advancement and retention of women in management?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

SURVEY COVER LETTER 1

35 Cottage Street
Gt Barrington, MA 01230
April 27, 1995

Dear Madam or Sir:

Your company has been recognized as one of the "best" companies for women in recent publications. It is for that reason that I would like to encourage you to take a few minutes to answer the enclosed survey.

There is significant research at present highlighting the importance and influence of working women in the U.S. economy. Women's development, advancement and retention is an issue of importance and concern in today's society. Businesses are increasingly analyzing issues related to the underrepresentation and underutilization of women in managerial positions. Many companies are interested in pursuing efforts to support and enhance women's career advancement, and are looking for guidance from model companies such as yours.

I am a researcher at the University of Massachusetts. My study explores factors leading to successful organizational initiatives developed to promote women's upward movement in organizations. Specifically, I am interested in knowing what it is about organizations that facilitates their development and implementation of policies and procedures positively impacting the advancement and retention of female managers.

The purpose of this survey is to better understand successful organizational initiatives designed to advance the status of women in organizations. Since companies are beginning to benchmark against the successful human resources practices of their industry peers, the research findings should be useful to businesses that are interested in offering women supportive environments conducive to equitable opportunities for career advancement.

Your participation in this survey is critical to the successful completion of my study. Whatever information you share with me will be completely confidential. There will be no individual or company names appearing on the survey to insure anonymity. The code in the upper right hand corner of the survey is for evaluation purposes only. Confidentiality is assured. Any results will be reported in the aggregate and not by individual.

Pilot testing has determined that the survey should take no longer than fifteen to twenty minutes to answer. It is important that you answer <u>all</u> the questions as accurately, openly, and honestly as you can. In return for your participation, I would be happy to send you a summary of the findings.

I sincerely hope that you will participate in this study, and I thank you for your interest, time, and effort. Please return the completed survey in the self-addressed stamped envelope. If I can be of any assistance to you in this process, please call me collect at (413) 528-1311.

I would really appreciate a response by <u>May 19, 1995</u>. I thank you again for investing your valuable time in my research project.

Sincerely,

Diane Mirante
Doctoral Candidate
University of Massachusetts

APPENDIX D

POSTCARD REMINDER FOR SURVEY RETURN

May 18, 1995

Dear Survey Participant:

I want to thank those of you who have already completed and returned the survey I recently mailed to you. If you have not, please help me by doing so as soon as possible. If you need another blank copy of the survey, call me <u>collect</u> at (413) 528-1311.

Thank you for making my doctoral study a successful research project.

<div style="text-align: right;">

Diane Mirante
University of Mass.

</div>

SURVEY COVER LETTER 2

35 Cottage Street
Gt Barrington, MA   01230
June 5, 1995

Dear Madam or Sir:

If you have not returned the survey I sent to you
dated April 27, 1995, please help me with my research
project by filling it out as soon as possible. I
understand how busy you are, and would not be so persistent
in seeking your response if it were not truly critical to
the successful completion of my doctoral research study.
Since the validity of the results of this research project
depends on the number of survey responses, your input is
critical. This point is particularly salient given the
small sample size of my study; "the best companies for
women" is still a very exclusive population.

In case you require another survey form, I have
enclosed one with a new self-addressed stamped envelope.
Please complete the survey (which will take no longer than
15 to 20 minutes), and return it to me before June 15,
1995.

If you need any further information, please phone me
"collect" at (413) 528-1311. It is important that you keep
in mind my guarantee regarding the anonymity and
confidentiality of your responses. I truly appreciate your
willingness to participate.

If you have already returned the survey, I thank you,
and please excuse the inconvenience of this follow-up.

Sincerely,

Diane Mirante
Doctoral Candidate
University of Massachusetts

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