Influx of women into the workplace will have major long term impact on the representation of women in middle and top management. The literature on working women and dual career couples have usually focused on the psychology of women and have suggested solutions to problems to help the couple make necessary adjustment. Very few articles have focused on what the organisation can do to help women grow and rise in the organisational hierarchy. This paper will discuss the major factors that influence women's growth in the organisation, under three broad areas, namely, socialisation process, individual characteristics and organisational practices and policies. Some suggestions for strategies that could help integrate women within the workplace are also discussed.

Dr. N. Sastry is Asst. Professor, Dept. of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay 400 076.

A topic of recurring interest in the literature on Organisational Behaviour is the impact of the influx of women into the workplace—a phenomenon that has occurred in the past few decades. India, like most developing countries, is witnessing a change in the gender-mix of employees in the organised sector. The changing political, economic and psycho-social scene have given some slow but steady impetus to women's literacy and awareness among women population. As a result, there is a shift in the labour market in terms of gender-mix; the number of women job applicants is growing steadily, particularly in the middle rung of organisations. Organisations and their role structures that are hitherto designed by male incumbents, subtly incorporate a somewhat male bias in their normal functions and culture (Sastry and Pandey, 1992; Harragan, 1977; Hennig and Jardim, 1977).

There is need to address the problems that arise due to the clash of women's perceptions, attitudes and behaviour that female socialisation encourages, with male corporate culture and male rules of career development; with the policies and practices of male-led corporations (Pandey and Sastry, 1991; Sastry and Pandey, 1992). Organisations invest heavily in recruitment, training and development of employees. Due to career interruptions and turnover, women are less likely to reach top executive positions. Women, it has been found, are clustered in positions with relatively little power (Hansen, 1974; Hill, 1980; Wolf and Flingstein, 1979). Also, even when promoted, they may not advance as far or as fast in the organisational hierarchy as their male counterparts (Stewart and Gudykunst, 1982). Women seldom reach top-level positions in organisations (Dexter, 1985; Raynolds, 1987; Tsui and Gutek, 1984), so the career path policies followed need special scrutiny, if organisations are interested to stop wasting the investment they make on women (human) resource. Accepting the reality of women's influx into organisations as inevitable, organisations have to recognize the need for a new working environment for women as well as for men. This is an emerging area to be incorporated with the traditional Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and practices in organisations.

This paper will discuss the major factors that influence women's growth in the organisation. Some suggestions for redesigning the workplace and personnel policies that could help integrate women into the mainstream of the organisation will be made. The factors that influence women's growth will be discussed under three broad areas: (I) socialisation process (II) individual characteristics and (II) organisational policies and practices.
Socialisation Process

Socialisation is the set of mechanisms and processes through which society trains and conditions its members to live life as social beings. Socialisation occurs through explicit and implicit training by agents of socialisation namely, parents, teachers, peers and others. Two aspects of socialisation are important in the context of the present paper (a) gender role socialisation and (b) choice of occupation and specialisation.

(a) Socialisation for Gender Roles: begins from the moment of birth. Parents treat male and female children differently and have expectations based on the cultural definition of sex differences. Rubin et al. (1974), report that parents make sex-typed judgements about their new born sons and daughters. Though researchers found their weight, length, strength and alertness was not significantly different, parents characterized boys as more alert, stronger, larger featured, more coordinated and firmer. They found girls less attentive, weaker, finer featured, less coordinated, softer, smaller, more fragile and prettier. This perception coloured by sex-stereotpying, influences parents behaviour towards their children, which subsequently shapes the children's self-concept and gender role expectations. The male and female children are differently trained. Training for masculinity involves for males to be trained for independent and aggressive action. Males are trained to use force, power, competition and aggression as means for achievement. The importance of self-reliance and independence is systematically inculcated in males. To be masculine means not only self-reliance and self-control, but control over other people and resources as well. In female socialisation, individual success is not important, friendship and relationships are valued. They are trained to believe that achievement comes through relationships and that overt competition is unfeminine. Learning helplessness and dependence rather than self assertion and self-reliance is a primary part of female socialisation. Nurturance, affectionate care and attention are the qualities that are highly valued in females. Female stereotypes tend to include such traits as gentleness, submission, dependency and nurturance. In contrast, male stereotypes usually include such traits as forcefulness, dominance, independence, ambition and competitiveness (Broverman et al., 1972; Rosenkrantz et al., 1968). Sex differences in socialisation experiences reflect that female identity throughout the world has its focus on nurturance, motherhood and home-making as the primary role. Career and working roles have always had a secondary if not a negligible priority. Over centuries of human civilisation, clear cut gender roles have emerged, based on the stereotypic conception of feminine and masculine characteristics.

(b) Choice of Occupation and Specialisation: An individual's decision to take up a job outside the home and the choice of occupation largely depend on the socialisation process. This could be one of the explanations for women being under-represented in executive and managerial positions. Since nurturance is socialized in females, the consequent stereotype that women are better at nurturing is accepted in society. Therefore, the societal norm has been that women stay home, to raise children and men go to work, to earn money.

There may be a genuine shortage of qualified women available to fill executive and management positions. This does not, however, mean that women lack the potential for such jobs but that the cumulative effect of past discrimination during early socialisation have prevented women from gaining the specific education, skills and experience needed for such positions. The current demographic trend, however, indicates that more women are now enrolling and graduating from technical institutes and management schools, but the number is still very small (Census of India, 1981). Deliberate selection of particular kinds of jobs, may also lead women to less powerful positions. Top executive and managerial positions require an emphasis on career, but women, because of disadvantaged
socialisation and increased economic pressures may seek jobs at lower levels (e.g. clerical or secretarial) that require little training and, therefore, end up in jobs that have little chance for advancement. The choice of jobs have some effect on the position power that is available at later stages of career (Dexter, 1985; Shullman and Carder, 1983). Though there has been an increase in the number of women in the labour force, they still tend to cluster in gender typed occupations and specialisations (Blau and Ferber 1985; Treiman and Hartman, 1981). A gender-typed occupation is an occupation congruent with the gender-role stereotype and dominated by one gender (Broverman et al., 1972; Frieze et al., 1978; Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Trieman and Hartman, 1981). In this connection, it is to be noted that the women who choose non-traditional careers i.e. jobs that are traditionally occupied by men are socialised differently; they are raised in families in which the mother has worked full-time, setting a role model different from the stereotypic feminine role (Almquist, 1974; Vogel et al., 1970). Consistent with the interpretation that the few women who are successful in non-traditional careers are socialised in ways that make them psychologically different from traditional women, Moore and Rickel (1980) found that women in male-typed business roles saw themselves as having more male-typed characteristics. They considered domestic roles less important, and strove for high achievement in their work roles. They seemed to have partly integrated male gender roles into their self-concept. Studies that compared male and female managers, matched on formal ranks and positions, found that the women were less likely to be married, had and/or wanted fewer children than the men (Larwood et al., 1980; Card et al., Greenfield et al., 1980; Harman, 1970; Tinsley and Faunce, 1980).

Studies even in western developed countries, show that female-typed occupations have less pay, power and prestige than male-typed occupations (Ackerk and Van Houten, 1974; Corcoran and Duncan, 1979; Dexter, 1985; Kanter 1977 (a); Treiman and Hartman, 1981; Wolf and Fligstein, 1979). There is bound to be a short supply of experienced qualified women for managerial positions if women are rewarded differently in organisations and forced to continue to choose female-typed occupations.

Even if women choose careers with higher possibilities for advancement, they tend to occupy female-typed specialisations or sub-fields. Women in management tend to specialise in health administration, office management, and services, whereas men specialise in engineering, production or operations (Lyle and Ross, 1973; Treiman and Hartman, 1981; Wolf and Fligstein, 1979). Early socialisation prepares women for specialisations that are congruent to characteristics such as caring and nurturance. Even if professionally competent, external pressures may be created to sidetrack them into service roles, where they would play the traditional 'helping female' by rendering assistance to another person who holds a dominating role, generally a male. This social selection represents the role conflict and role ambiguity a woman experiences and is partly due to her tradition bound socialisation as a homemaker (Dexter, 1985).

In a nutshell, socialisation thus influences the decision of women to take up work outside the home, the choice of occupations and the specialisation which, in turn, decide how far she will be able to rise in the organisational hierarchy.

**Individual Characteristics**

The girl-child is socialised to expect her husband to take care of her, while boys are socialised from an early age, to complete their education, pursue careers, and provide support for their families. This seems to encourage women to bring to the workplace an expectation that they can choose to change to softer options at will, take time off, or
reduce their hours of work or even quit their jobs. Women's preparedness to take up non-traditional jobs and grow into higher management levels also depends on certain individual characteristics they bring to the job. Some such characteristics and personal styles of behaviour will be discussed in the following paragraphs. They include (a) self concept and self confidence (b) achievement orientation and career aspiration, and (c) influence styles.

(a) **Self-Concept and Self Confidence:** People choose careers that are consistent with their beliefs about themselves, that is, their self-concept (Korman, 1970). Societal norms state that women should not or cannot be successful in management roles. Sex role stereotypes and prescriptions for desirable feminine behaviour conflict with the desirable managerial behaviour. Traits that are positively valued for men are related to behaviour that reflect competence, rationality and assertiveness, while positively valued feminine traits reflect warmth and expressiveness (Broverman et al., 1972). Research shows that both men and women describe a good manager as having distinctly masculine characteristics (Powell and Butterfield, 1979).

Thus women tend to have a low self-concept regarding their possession of characteristics that are valuable for managerial behaviour. McClelland (1965) and O'Leary (1974) in their studies found that women, as a group, described themselves as different from or even opposite to men on presumed requisite management traits. Schein (1973, 1975) has shown that these beliefs are strongly held by male and female managers as well. Several other scholars (Lenney, 1977; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Nieva and Gutek, 1981) reported the prevalence of low self-confidence among women, which has long range effects on their performance in managerial positions. As a result, women employees attribute their success to temporary or external causes such as luck, rather than to lasting or internal causes such as ability (Bar-Tal and Frieze, 1975; Feather 1966; Simon and Feather, 1973). Any failure by women in performance, even within the normal range will reinforce the external attribution, and low self-confidence, thereby, making a beginning of the self fulfilling prophecy. On the other hand, women who have reached powerful positions, through some means, tend to exhibit a high level of self-confidence and make internal attribution (Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Keown and Keown, 1982); this indicates that setting a positive spiral of self fulfilling prophecy is equally possible in the case of women. In this connection Schwartz (1989) states

> Men and women may or may not have some innate psychological disposition towards these traditional roles - men to be agressive, competitive, self-reliant, risk taking; women to be supportive, nurturing, intuitive, sensitive, communicative - but certainly both men and women are capable of the full range of behaviour. Indeed, the male and female roles have already begun to expand and merge . . . . At the moment, however, we are still plagued by disparities in perception and behaviour that make the integration of men and women in the workplace unnecessarily difficult and expensive. Women who compete like men are considered unfeminine and women who emphasize family are considered uncommitted . . . It is absurd to put a woman down for having the very qualities that would send a man to the top (67-69).

(b) **Achievement Orientation and Career Aspiration:** Research suggests that women exhibit less achievement orientation and achievement related behaviour than men (Nieva and Gutek, 1981; O'Leary, 1974; Frieze et al., 1978; Stein and Bailey, 1975). But if achievement is measured by male-based criteria, females who seek achievement in ways consistent with gender role expectations, related to home and family roles, will be misjudged. Women's fear of success, since success in career is associated with loss of femininity and social rejection (Horner, 1972) may also force them to behave in ways congruent with gender-role expectations (Lockheed, 1975, Peplau, 1976). Therefore,
showing achievement orientation in male-typed, power related work roles may be avoided by women in general, since, first, it is against social expectations and second, it may increase the propensity of gender-role conflict (Sastry and Pandey, 1992).

Research indicates that achievement motivation and career orientation are related to gender role orientation rather than to sex per se (i.e. male or female); achievement motivation is higher among women having masculine or androgynous gender role orientations than among women with feminine orientation (Marshall and Wijting, 1980).

Based on a sample of otherwise matched male and female executives in Indian organisations, Sastry and Pandey (1992) found no significant difference between male and female executives in terms of sex role conflict, however, when data were recast across sex role orientation, sex role conflict was found to be higher among feminine sex role oriented persons (including males with feminine sex role orientation) than among persons with masculine or androgynous sex orientation. Further, female executives, if they conform to feminine sex role orientation (sex typed), experience maximum sex role conflict in organisations. While adoption of male sex role orientation by female executives (i.e. cross sex typed) reduces sex role conflict, the sex role conflict is minimum if they adopt androgynous sex role orientation.

(c) Influence Style: While men use the command and control style and transactional leadership style, women tend to use the interactive and transformation style of leadership (Rosener, 1990). Women tend to ascribe power to personal characteristics like charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work and personal contact. They also encourage participation and share power and information easily with other members in the organisation (Rosener, 1990). In a study of male and female executives, Kipnis et al., (1980) found that male and female managers differ in the 'career tactics' they use to gain power. Women are more likely than men to report using contacts with other women, and attempts to appear feminine (Larwood et al., 1980). Morgan (1978) found that men tended to use threatening and coercive tactics, whereas women tended to use rational discussion and verbal confrontation as their respective influence styles. In a similar study on an Indian sample, Ansari (1989) found that relative to females, males reported a greater likelihood of using such influence strategies as negative sanctions, assertiveness, reward and exchange. However, it is to be noted here that research also indicates no difference between male and female supervisors (i) in terms of rewarding and punishing subordinates (Baker et al., 1975) and (ii) preference for the use of coercion or withdrawal from the situation (Michener and Schwertfeger, 1972). Thus there is another issue of influence style that needs attention, i.e. how influence styles are perceived or received differently, depending on the sex of the person who exhibits them.

Organisational Practices and Policies

Women's effective development may be influenced by certain organisational practices and policies: (a) Implicit stereo-typing in Personnel decisions might lead to discrimination in decisions involving selection, recruitment and promotion; and prejudicial evaluation of women's qualifications and performance might also affect their growth (b) The attitudes of the organisational members might affect women's possibilities of forming relationships within the organisation, which could inhibit/deter them from building information networks, and finally (c) Women's relationship with their seniors or superiors will decide whether they can identify and initiate mentoring relationships with them.

(a) Selection, Recruitment, Promotion and Performance Evaluation: Once women have entered the job market, the organisational policies and practices start influencing their
chances of rising in the hierarchy. It has already been discussed elsewhere in this paper that the first difference women face in the organisation is that they enter the organisation in positions which rank lower than men. The research by Plake et al., (1987) shows women are excluded from powerful positions through recruitment. Where this is not possible, women may be given a nominally high rank but with little actual power (Kanter, 1983); when women apply for traditionally male jobs, they tend to get lower evaluation in the selection process (Cohen and Bunker, 1975; Rosen and Jerdee 1974). This is particularly true of jobs that involve supervision of male subordinates (Rose and Andiappan, 1978). Not only in recruitment and selection but women have differential treatment in placement too. In an organisation, some departments are more important than others, because they involve control over resources critical for the organisation's survival (Mechanic, 1962), or control over the decision-making process (Kanter, 1977 a; Preffer, 1981), or over information with the potential of reducing the uncertainty the organisation may be facing (Crozier, 1963; Hicson et al., 1971; Hinnings et al., 1974). Generally, staff support departments have less power than production department (Davis, 1951; Massie, 1965; Wright, 1982). Women are inadvertently or deliberately placed in departments like public relations and personnel (they are conspicuously excluded from positions related to Industrial Relations functions and production). These staff function oriented departments may also be gender typed as feminine (Harragan, 1977). Women may also be placed or offered high positions in less important departments which give them little position power. Position power is critical in organisational life because it gives an individual (i) the discretion and opportunity to plan, design, and implement (ii) the visibility in terms of tangible results or work and also the physical location and (iii) the relevance in engaging in activities that are important to resolve organisational problems (Kanter, 1983).

The situation is not very different when the question of promotion is studied. Differences in promotion between males and females has often been brushed aside because it is considered to be related to tenure and longevity (Allen and Panian, 1982) and, incidentally, as of now, women tend to have less tenure on the average than men (Smith, 1979). However, research has found 'gender' to be a better predictor of rank or position in organisations than tenure, experience and education (Astin and Bayer, 1972; Stewart and Gudykunst, 1982; Malkiel and Malkiel, 1973).

Performance evaluation plays a vital role in decisions regarding promotion and salary (Meyer et al., 1965), and also influences career progress in the organisation (Cascio, 1982). The effect of gender on performance evaluation in general is far from conclusive. There are studies that found men received higher evaluation (Cohen and Bunker, 1975; Dipboye et al., 1977; Rosen and Jerdee, 1973, 1974). But others found that women received higher evaluation (Abramson et al., 1977; Peters et al., 1984), while still others found no difference in the evaluation of performance of men and women (Dipboye and Wiley, 1977 Hall and Hall, 1976, Tsui and Gutek, 1984; Terborg and Ilgen, 1975).

However, Lott (1985) matched the subjects in terms of credentials and found women's performance is under-rated compared to men. Nieva and Gutek (1981) in their review of literature found that women receive lower evaluation when the rater has to rely on inference rather than actual behaviour, and when the behaviour is contrary to the gender role expectations. They also found that competent men receive better rating than equally competent women, but incompetent men receive lower ratings than equally incompetent women; this implies a different reward system for males and females. A woman needs to interact frequently with co-workers and supervisors who are potential evaluators, so that they are familiar with her, and her work, but when she makes an attempt to increase familiarity, it is often misinterpreted as a sexual advance (Bhatnagar, 1988).
In summary, sex-related evaluation bias presents a major problem even to competent women particularly in situations with considerable ambiguity regarding sex-inappropriateness and situations that demand gender-incongruent behaviours.

Another interesting feature of women's performance evaluation is available from a well documented area of psychological research, namely, attribution research. Research indicates that women's successful performance is attributed to effort and luck, while men's performance is generally attributed to skill, ability and competence (Cash et al., 1977; Deau and Emswiller, 1974; Etaugh and Brown, 1975; Feather and Simon, 1975; Taynor and Deaux 1975).

Differences in attributions, or perceptions of the causes of behaviour associated with gender are fairly well documented. Casual attributions of performance are important since they influence decisions made about the person being evaluated. Performance is seen as repeatable if its perceived causes are either stable or internal (as with 'ability' or 'skill' in the case of men) and performance is perceived as unpredictable if it is attributed to external factors (as with 'luck' in the case of women).

(b) Attitudes of Organisational Members towards Women (Tokenism Social Isolation and Information Network): Since very few women reach high executive and managerial positions the few who do are taken as 'tokens' or as representing the entire minority group, (Kanter, 1977 b). This leads to several uncomfortable situations for women. First of all, since every individual woman employee is supposed to represent womenkind, her every move or individual activity gains exaggerated publicity. As Ragins and Sundstrom (1989: 64) put it "when a member of a minority experiences a success or failure, more people within the organisation may learn of it than if the same success or failure involved a member of the majority". This creates in her a pressure to perform and excel, and a feeling that she has to take the responsibility of removing the barriers for other women's development, rather than the organisation itself. Since her failures become very visible and would be interpreted as the failure of women as a group, which would, therefore affect the development of other women too, she falls victim of the ‘fear of failure’. Tokenism also brings about in women a feeling of isolation (Kanter, 1977 b). The male groups tend to become more cohesive and assign women to stereotypic categories, making them uncomfortable in having to perform in male oriented organisations. Research shows the evidence of traumatic psychological and behavioural consequences of tokenism for women (Yoder, 1985; Cooper and Davidson, 1982). Yoder's (1985) case study of academic women reveals the psychological effects of tokenism as lowering of self esteem, self efficacy, life satisfaction and a feeling of guilt for blocking the chances of other women. Withdrawal into self, rebellious behaviour, complaining and finally a decision to leave the organisation were some of the behavioural consequences of tokenism. Linked to social isolation is the concept of communication network in an organisation.

Peer group is an important source of information (Brass, 1985; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). Women need social contacts that will include them in the organisational groups and provide social support, to acquaint themselves with the workplace and the technical and social aspects of the job. But, when women enter the male-dominated workplace, the communication network and the political system are already established. Women do not receive adequate socialisation and information during the early apprenticeship stages of their careers. This deprives them of the feeling of belonging and prevents them from forming the important linkages that provide information about the organisation's beliefs and attitudes (Lyles, 1983).
Lyles (1983) also points out that men, both because of their upbringing and the exchange of information among themselves are able to understand the political environment of the organisation and the implication of working in that environment. They know whom to approach to get support for their views. Lyles further explains that ways to accomplish a goal can be influenced by indirect actions that reflect the nature of the coalitions within the organisation. Women in organisations, being part of a poorly coordinated network system suffer from information inadequacy about implicit norms and behaviour rules of the informal system in the organisation. This, therefore, puts them in a disadvantageous position compared to their male counterpart.

(c) Development of Mentoring Relationship: Career development of a newcomer or young member of the organisation can be aided by a mentor (Kram, 1983; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Conceptually, a mentor in HRM literature refers to a high ranking influential senior organisational member with advanced experience and knowledge, who is committed to providing upward mobility and support to a protegee's professional career (Collins, 1983; Ragins, 1989; Kram, 1985; Roche, 1979) through appropriate socialisation.

Research has shown that women are not well integrated into mentoring systems (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Epstein, 1975; Nieva and Gutek, 1981, Zey, 1984). However, mentoring is actually more crucial in the case of female managers, for female managers face greater organisational, interpersonal and individual barriers to advancement than their male counterparts (Brown 1979; Epstein, 1975; Finkelstein, 1981; Nieva and Gutek, 1981; O'Leary, 1974; Smith and Grenier, 1982; Terborg, 1977).

There are several beneficial effects of mentoring relationships. First, mentors may provide training and inside information on the organisation and its political functions. A mentor may compensate for their exclusion from organisational networks by providing special access to information, contacts, and resources (Brass, 1985; Harlan and Weiss, 1982 Kanter, 1977 b; Ragins, 1989). In particular, when women have less experience in corporate politics than their male counterparts and lack powerful female role models, they may be at a definite disadvantage in developing political strategies and manoeuvering for powerful positions (Collins, 1983; Harragan, 1977; Kanter, 1977 a). Second, a mentor can buffer an individual from overt and covert forms of discrimination. Third, a mentor may provide psycho-social support and increase the protegee's self-confidence (Kram, 1985) by serving as a counsellor, friend, role-model, and coach. Fourth, by providing 'reflected power', a mentor may signal to others in the organisation that their female protegee has their powerful backing and resources (Kanter, 1977 a, 1977 b). Zey (1984: 115) observes: "By selecting a woman as a protegee, a senior manager bestows de facto legitimacy on her. Since monitoring represents the senior manager's public commitment to the junior member, this brings the organisation closer to the acceptance of women as bonafide members of its managerial power structure".

There are a number of explanations for women not integrating into mentoring systems in organisation. (i) Women in organisations for some reason may not seek mentors and (ii) potential mentors do not select female protegees.

Nieva and Gutek (1981) suggested that women are not as sensitive as men to the realities of organisational life. They are more likely to believe that hard work, perseverance and talent are the primary determinants of advancement and, therefore, are more likely to pay less attention to forming ties with influential supervisors. However, some studies also reported that female managers do recognize the importance of having a mentor, and consider it a responsible or key ingredient for advancement (Graddick, 1984; Hennig and Jardim, 1976; Keown and Keown, 1982); but then these studies were carried out on
Women who were advancing in their organisations and most of them had mentors. The value they placed on the mentoring relationship would consequently be related to their advancement and to their experience with mentors.

Even if women felt the need for mentors, they are less likely to initiate relationships with potential mentors (Collins, 1983). They may not have the knowledge, skills or strategies necessary to obtain a mentor. A woman’s problem of approaching a male mentor is also related to the fear that her attempts to initiate a relationship may be misconstrued as a disguised sexual advance by either the mentor or others in the organisation (Clawson and Kram, 1984; Reich, 1986).

Research on the biological perspective of the mentor/protegee relationship explains the probable reasons for this fear. Bushardt et al. (1991) have conceptualized the mentor/protegee relationship within the context of biological dimorphism, with sex roles reflecting different reproductive strategies that evolved by natural selection. They deduce that mentor/protegee roles mimic the male/female mating roles in humans. This often causes conflicts that are seldom understood within the limited context of mentoring in organisations. They state that “the similarity of the mentoring process to the mating process gives rise to a number of sexual themes that infiltrate the mentor/protegee relationship” (620).

Female managers may also have fewer formal and informal opportunities to obtain mentors than males. Potential mentors may observe and select persons who are involved in important projects of the organisation (Zey, 1984). But women tend to occupy low level positions (Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Terborg, 1977; Treiman and Hartman, 1981; Wallance, 1982) and, therefore, may not have the opportunity of being observed and selected. Women also lack access to informal gatherings, like after office hours social intercourse in a club, where their male counterparts meet potential mentors.

Another explanation for women not having mentors, may be that both male and female mentors do not select female protegees for different reasons. Male mentors may not want to encourage women’s progress into management positions. This negative attitude towards women may prevent them from selecting female protegees (Bowman et al., 1965; Basil and Traver, 1972; Dubno, 1985; Harlan and Weiss, 1982; Rosen and Jerdee, 1978). Gender-role socialisation conditions males to view women as mothers and spouses rather than executive peers (Cook, 1979; Reich, 1986; Shapiro et al., 1978).

Males may select male protegees rather than female protegees, because it is easier for them to develop professional and personal relationship with a male than with a female. Male mentors are able to identify with younger males and perceive them as younger versions of themselves (Blackburn et al. 1981; Bowers, 1984; Lunding et al., 1978).

As mentioned earlier in this paper, tokenism and minority group effects make women highly visible in organisations, which makes their failures receive more attention than those of their male counterparts (Kanter, 1977 b). This gives the male mentors a feeling that there is greater risk involved in sponsoring female protegees (Fitt and Newton, 1981).

Just as women avoid male mentors because of fear of sexual implications, males also may avoid female protegees due to fear of potential sexual involvement (Lean, 1983; Clawson and Kram, 1984). Sexual tension has been reported as an issue by both protegees and mentors; mentoring relationships have often turned into romances (Fitt and Newton, 1981). Cross-gender mentoring relationships, therefore, may interfere with work roles (Driscoll and Bova, 1980; Gutek, 1985; Spruell, 1985). Even unfounded rumors of sexual liaisons are enough to stop males from selecting female protegees. Cross-gender mentor relation-
ships have also been found associated with problems related to jealous spouses and resentful co-workers (Bowen, 1985). To avoid rumors, both have to be careful and avoid being too friendly. This constrains interpersonal interaction and may inhibit the development of friendship (Zey, 1984), which the male protegees develop.

To avoid problems related to male mentors women may seek female mentors. But as there are few women at the moment in mentoring positions, and a large number of women in need of mentors, there is a shortage of female mentors. Female executives as compared to males, are busier doing their jobs and trying to advance in their career against great odds (Brown, 1979; Nieva and Gutek, 1981; O'Leary, 1974; Terborg, 1977). As a result, they find little time to serve as mentors. Besides, they may be unwilling to select female protegees because, as minority group members women are highly visible in organisations and the combination of female-mentor and female-protegee may, therefore, involve high risk. Also, women might want to avoid the negative reaction of others in the organisation who may perceive this combination as building of female groups within the organisation. Yet another explanation, is what Staines et al., (1973) call the "queen bee syndrome". The queen bee is a woman who has attained success and status in the men's world and sees all other women as competitors to her position. If such be the case, there is a possibility that, the women who have attained success may join hands with the males in perpetuating the feminine stereotypes that hinder the growth of other women.

From the above review it is apparent that men enter the workplace with a definite advantage over women. Yet since the influx of qualified women into organisations is increasing, the motivation to recruit, develop and retain women is also increasing (Pandey and Sastry, 1991). Given this, it is necessary to explore the male and female roles and the related organisational policies and practices more. This will help gain information about the areas and aspects of the organisations, the jobs that need to be redesigned, the policies and practices to be modified, and will also indicate at the individual and organisational level what should be implemented and encouraged for both males and females to ensure a harmonious and effective HRM culture.

The next part of this paper will discuss some of the researchable issues, organisational strategies and policy issues that could help women integrate within the workplace, in relation to each of the factors that influence her growth namely, (a) socialisation process (b) individual characteristics, and (c) organisational policies and practices.

Socialisation and Related Issues and Suggested Change

It has already been discussed that boys and girls are expected to acquire sex specific self-concepts and personality attributes to be masculine or feminine, as defined by a particular culture (Barry et al., 1957). Socialisation agents instil in individuals the stereotypic masculine and feminine characteristics. Though there is a lot of evidence about the pervasiveness of gender stereotypes, little attempt has been made, by way of research, to examine its effect on women in organisational roles. If women perform roles that are not traditional feminine roles, how do they resolve the dilemma between accepting stereotypic roles and non-traditional roles.

If there is a gender role spill-over into the workplace, does it have negative effects for women? How do women resolve this problem? What are its effects on their psychological well-being? Are women the only victims of gender-role stereotyping? Research on gender role stereotyping and its relation to organisational roles and the under-utilisation of women resources need to be undertaken. At the societal level, some strategies can be suggested to reduce the interference of gender, and make professional competence a salient characteristic of work-related transactions.
Attempts should be made to help the human personality to free itself from the restricting prison of gender-role stereotyping and develop, psychologically, into an androgynous individual. Such individuals can adapt better to situational demands than sex typed individuals, because of their wide repertoire of behavioural responses. Androgynous individuals are behaviourally and emotionally more adaptable than rigidly stereotyped individuals (Bern, 1977; Bern et al., 1976).

Data from Indian organisations suggest (Pandey and Sastry, 1991; Sastry and Pandey, 1992) the following: female executives, if they conform to the female sex role (i.e. sex typed), experience maximum sex role conflict in organisations; adopting the male sex role (i.e. cross sex typed) reduces sex role conflict, but sex role conflict is minimum if the androgynous sex role orientation is adopted. Among Indian middle level executives, irrespective of the incumbent's gender, feminine sex role oriented persons experience higher sex role conflict in organisations; further, among them, feminine sex role oriented males experience even higher sex role conflict than feminine sex role oriented female executives. In other words feminine sex role orientation is linked with, and responsible for, excess sex role conflict in the realm of organisations. The above results suggest at least two distinct directions for further research (i) the psychological construct sex role orientation, rather than the biological construct sex is more critical a variable in sex role conflict research and (ii) there is a need to diagnose the facets of organisational policies and role structures that make female sex role orientation grossly incongruent with organisational life.

Research has also shown strong relationship between androgyny and such correlates of adjustment and psychological well-being as self esteem and self actualization (Halgund, 1978). Data from Indian urban women (the potential labour market of women employees) also showed that androgynous persons have the lowest level of anxiety (Sastry, 1990; 1987). The above research recommends the inculcation of androgyous gender role orientation during socialisation (at home, school and college) both among women and men. This is probably one of the answers to deal with the disparities in perception and behaviour between women and men employees in organisations, for there is a continuity between one’s childhood experiences in society and adult behaviour in the organisational setup (Dubin, 1961). Androgyous orientation over a period of time can also reduce the propensity of gender typing of occupations in society and, thereby, can neutralize the adverse social forces that are now compelling the women labour force to opt for only female typed occupations.

Individual Characteristics and Strategies for Development

It has already been discussed in the preceding section that though the work force compositions are changing, women are still socialised and expected to take primary responsibility for home and child-care. They are made to develop characteristics that are not congruent to the work role. Therefore, strategies with reference to individual characteristic's development should take care of not falling prey to social determinism. It is to be recalled here that social forces influence behaviour but they are not the sole determinants of it. Efforts at individual level can neutralise parts of social adversaries. Women must also put in special effort to free themselves of the stereotypic socialisation practices by inculcating and self-reinforcing androgyinous characteristics. Women who try to rise in the organisational hierarchy should be aware of or, rather be forewarned and expect to be obstructed on their way up. Apart from developing relatively stable characteristics like androgyous sex role orientation, they can use certain strategies for immediate results in the work situation. Following are some suggested strategies:
Women will have to take personal initiatives to build social networks of their own and get information they need for better performance and recognition of their competencies in organisations. They should try to identify the few men and women who are fair and just, and develop meaningful relationships which can lead to functional mentoring.

Aggression and transactional leadership style (the male style) may not be the only way to gain power in the micro-society of organisations. Women should learn to use feminine characteristics and styles effectively, namely, the transformational leadership style. This will help them cultivate strength and confidence in using what they have already developed.

Women who choose to take up careers will have to accept overload for the time being and arrange for whatever support (physical and psychological) possible and, simultaneously, should inculcate psychological preparedness, so that they enjoy the double rewards of home or family life, as well as the satisfaction of working outside the home.

While women at individual level can make certain efforts to adjust better in the existing corporate environment, efforts are also warranted at the organisational level to neutralise discrimination and foster a climate conducive to the new mix of work force for the sake of its (organisations) own interest. Several such issues have been discussed in the following paragraphs.

Organisational Practices and Policies and Suggested Changes

Most of the organisations are not able to amortize the investment they make in the recruitment and early training of women. They also fail to recognize that women can do a lot for their middle management and might, in mid-career, be able to reenter competition for the top with the same vigour, commitment and ambition as men. Even if women take time off for maternity, in the optimum case in Indian situation, they would work full-time from age 22 to 28 years and from 35 to 58 years i.e. a total of 29-30 years as opposed to the typical male's 36 years. The difference is really not very big. If the organisation is responsive to the needs of women, they will be able to retain their best women employees and, help them improve their performance and grow.

Organisations need to look into three different areas, namely, (a) the issue related to women employees and their selection, placement performance evaluation and promotions (b) personal issues as a part of the social responsibility of business organisations and, most importantly, (c) the issues related to social networking of women employees in organisations.

(a) The Issues of Women Employees Selection, Placement, Performance Evaluation and Promotion: The organisation should be able to protect the rights of women from sex discrimination in obtaining employment and in receiving equitable treatment once they are employed. In order to do this, the organisation needs information on certain issues. The following are some areas in which research may be undertaken to gain insight into certain practices of each organisation.

- Research needs to be focused on whether discrimination exists in explicit or implicit form in the hiring procedures
- Is there evidence that women are disproportionately employed in certain departments, and not in certain others
- Do gender role stereotypes affect the hiring procedures.
- Is there discrimination against women in the performance evaluation; male-female differences in promotion.
Women Employees

Certain strategies to overcome some of the problems of discrimination in hiring and performance evaluation procedures are suggested below:

- Advertising of a job vacancy for only one sex should be discouraged or completely stopped.
- Applicants should not be asked for information regarding the applicant's sex or marital status unless to be used for non-discriminatory purposes.
- Interviews and evaluators should be given special training to help overcome traditional gender-role bias.

Travelling away from home, work activities extended to after office hours and week-ends and promotion linked transfers are major working conditions that affect women. Advancement in career often requires that the incumbent travel to conduct business or to attend conferences and meetings. This may be stressful for women since they may not have someone to take the responsibility for household and children, even though they may be in a good financial position to hire someone (particularly, in dual career families) to assist the partner with work at home. Women usually contain work to a working day and office hours. Employers, however, encourage persons to continue working harder and longer hours in the interest of career success. As Maynard and Zawacki (1979: 468) state "the question of geographic mobility is an absolutely critical issue in the realm of dual career families." Women's careers generally suffer because of mobility, since decisions to move are generally made with the husband's career in mind. Also, organisations do not ask women to relocate due to sex role stereotyping, with the implicit assumption that relocation will disrupt their family, while such assumptions are not made for males (Maynard and Zawacki, 1979).

Since as of now, the issue of promotion is linked directly or indirectly to travelling and working hours and since geographic mobility influences the career growth of women, the organisation must invest some time and effort to critically examine the need and utility of these aspects of working conditions.

- It would find out whether travel is necessary or not; whether it can be decreased in length or frequency. It can explore other means of communication for conducting business (e.g., telephone, mail and so on). This would also be useful, since travel cost is ever increasing. In fact, if properly planned, sharing of information and resources that accrue from business trips and conferences by the members of different departments, within the same organisation and also across sister concerns, may help avoid duplication in efforts and resources spent on travel.
- Apriori assumption, regarding family obligations based on gender should not be made. Women employees should get equal opportunity to travel, particularly if travel is directly or indirectly linked with career progress in the organisation.
- Alternative job styles like job sharing, part-time work and flex-time should be explored; they may prove to be suitable for some kinds of occupation. If a women is working due to economic necessity, job sharing and part-time work may not be acceptable, although she might find flex-time helpful.
- A common complaint against women employees is that they do not work after office hours because they need to return to their family and home roles. All organisations explicitly mention minimum hours at work expected from employees. There is a need to determine the maximum hours permitted too. This would discourage workaholic patterns among employees, that sometimes have negative impact on the physical...
and psychological well-being at the individual level and a disruptive influence on marriages, at the interpersonal level. There is a need to recognize the fathers' role in parenting too. With more and more women entering the work force, organisations will be forced to revise policies explicitly discouraging work patterns which interfere with families. Paradoxically, modern organisations foster and reinforce workaholic patterns through policies and values, and then spend money and resources on stress audit and stress reduction training programmes.

**Personal Issues for Consideration:** Working women face major problems and stress due to child care needs. Though dual career couples may be in a better financial position to pay for child care (even for care in the home), there is difficulty in locating such care and also in transporting children to care centres. In most locations, child care is not available in either sufficient quantity or in good quality. Keeping in mind that child rearing i.e., developing future citizens of the nation or developing the future labour market, is not the personal responsibility of women, for it is evidently a social responsibility too, and organisations as part of their social responsibility must participate in the process, the organisations need to develop child care centres within their premises, so that parents can attend to their children during lunch breaks and other short breaks. However, to be economically viable, the users may be charged for the facility or this may be included as one of the employee benefit programmes like medical and other insurance options. Efforts on the part of the organisation to arrange buses or vans to transport children to schools and child care centres, from home or from workplace, and bring them back in the evening, would also prove helpful.

Working couples have difficulty in getting time to run personal and family errands, since most of these jobs (repairs, getting gas, groceries, banking and so on) are open only during their working hours. Employers may consider helping all employees in these regards as part of their HRM policies, particularly, in view of the future demographic patterns in society, with increasing number of nuclear families and increasing number of working couples.

**Issues related to Social Networking in the Organisation:** As has been discussed elsewhere in this paper, women represent a visible and salient minority in the upper ranks of organisations [Kanter, 1977 a; Kanter, 1977 b]; they face problems of social isolation and find it difficult to integrate into the informal groups and, therefore, miss a lot of valuable information and social support. However, more research is needed on the implications of tokenism and social isolation for both men and women and the organisational consequences of tokenism. Research also needs to be directed towards understanding the attitudes of males in the organisations towards women and issues related to integrating women into male groups.

To help women perceive themselves as belonging to the organisation, the organisation and its members should assess the resources, by way of information, social contacts and power, that they have, and the resources that are needed by individual women.

Lyles (1983) gives a valuable framework for strategies for helping women. Special mechanism to provide information about tasks (such as upcoming meetings and events, and also how to get their work done through the system and political strategies; identifying important persons, identifying unwritten rules, and pointing out which of them should be followed and which can be broken) could help women gain faster access into the communication network of groups in the organisation. Organisational members may also build social relationship by using ‘including tactics’ and ‘sharing tactics’ to involve women into their groups. They may ask or invite the women to join them for informal social gathering or other social activities; ask the women's advice, and share views about some issues of common interest. The senior organisational member, with position power may take special
initiative to make structural changes in the office (like putting women's offices in centralized locations) and work assignments (like giving them opportunities for 'success projects,' i.e. include them in projects that provide valuable experience). By asking their opinion at meetings, noting down their ideas, and keeping a watch for people who are overly critical, both overtly and covertly, the senior members can make women feel part of the work group. When needed, they can be provided access to powerful people to identify suitable mentors. Career plans and succession plans can be devised to help women in developing themselves for future roles to come, by providing them training to develop skills in needed areas, and by gradually developing their capacity to shoulder responsibilities and leadership roles.

Since all the above mentioned strategies rely on informal relationships given the male bias in corporate culture, this help may not reach the women. However, organisations have formal policies and practices that are aimed at helping employees, such as training programmes, formal reporting relationships (hierarchical) and institutionalised mentoring. These human resource management policies can be engineered suitably for strategic intervention with an aim to integrate women employees into the mainstream of organisations.

REFERENCES

Abramson, P.R., Goldberg, P.A., Greenberg, J.H. and Abramson, L.M. 1977

Acker, J. and Van Houten, D.R. 1974

Allen, M.P. and Panian, S.K. 1982

Almquist, E.M. 1974

Ansari, M.A. 1989

Astin, H.S. and Bayer, A.E. 1972

Baker, L.D., DiMarco, N. and Scott, W.E. 1975

Barry, H. III, Bacon, M.K. and Child, I.L. 1957

Bar-Tal, D.C. and Frieze, I.H. 1975

Basil, D.C. and Traver, E. 1972

Bern, S. 1977

Bern, S., Martyna, and Watson, C. 1976

Betz, N.E. and Fitzgerald, L.F. 1987

"The Talking Platypus Phenomenon: Competency Ratings as a Function of Sex and Professional Status", Psychology of Women Quarterly, 2, 114-124


"Power, Performance, and Succession in the Large Corporation", Administrative Science Quarterly, 27, 538-547


"Effects of Leader Sex, Subordinate Sex, and Subordinate Performance on the Use of Influence Strategies", Sex Roles, 20(5/6), 283-293

"Sex Discrimination in Academie", Educational Record, 53(2), 101-118

"Effects of Supervisors' Sex and Level of Authoritarianism of Evaluation and Reinforcement of Blind and Sighted Workers", Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 28-32

"A Cross-Cultural Survey of Some Sex Differences in Socialisation", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 55, 327-332

"Achievement Motivation for Males and Females as a Determinant of Attribution for Success and Failure", Sex Roles, 3, 301-313

Women in Management, New York; Dunnellen


Bhatnagar, D. 1988
Blackburn, R.T., Chapman, D.W. and Cameron, S.M. 1981
Blau, F.D. and Ferber, M.A. 1985
Bowen, D.D. 1985
Bowers, A.G. 1984
Brass, D.J. 1985
Brown, L.K. 1979
Bushardt, S.C., Fretwell, C. and Holdnak, B.J. 1991
Card, J.J., Steel, L. and Abeles, R.P. 1980
Cascio, W.F. 1982
Cash, T.F., Gillen, B. and Burns, D. 1977
Clawson, J.G. and Kram, K.E. 1984
Cohen, S.L and Bunker, K.A. 1975
Collins, N.W. 1983
Cook, M.F. 1979
Cooper, C.L. and Davidson, M.J. 1982
Corcoran, M. and Duncan, G.J. 1979
Crazier, M. 1963


"Were Men Meant to Mentor Women?" Training and Development Journal, 39 (2), 21-34

"Mentors and Protegees in Male-Dominated Corporate Cultures: The Experience of Top-Level Women Executives", Dissertation Abstracts International, 45 (9), 3103B

"Are Women Executive People?" Harvard Business Review, 43 (4), 164-178

"Men's and Women's Networks: A Study of Interaction Patterns and Influence in an Organisation", Academy of Management Journal, 28, 327-343


"Women and Business Management", Signs, 5, 278-288

"The Mentor/Protegee Relationship: A Biological Perspective", Human Relations, 44 (6), 619-639

"Sex Differences in Realization of Individual Potential for Achievement", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 17, 1-21

Applied Psychology in Personnel Management, Reston, VA: Reston


"Managing Cross-Gender Mentoring", Business Horizons, 27 (3), 22-32

"Subtle Effects of Sex-Role Stereotypes on Recruiter's Hiring Decisions", Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 566-572

Professional Women and Their Mentors, Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

"Is the Mentor Relationship Primarily a Male Experience?" The Personnel Administrator, 24(11), 82-84

"The High Cost of Stress in Women Managers", Organisational Dynamics, 10 (4), 44-53

"Work History, Labor Force Attachment and Earnings: Differences between Races and Sexes", Journal of Human Resources, 14, 3-20

The Bureaucratic Phenomenon, Chicago: University of Chicago Press
Women Employees

Fundamentals of Top Management, New York: Harper and Brothers

"Explanations of Successful Performance on Sex-Linked Tasks: What is Skill for the Male is Luck for the Female", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29, 80-85


"Reactions of College Recruiters in Interviewee's Sex and Self-Presentation Style", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 10, 1-12


"The Sexual Side of Enterprise", Management Review, 69(7), 51-54


"Perceiving the Cause of Success and Failure of Male and Female Performers", Developmental Psychology, 11, 103

"Effects of Prior Success and Failure on Expectations of Success and Subsequent Performance", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 3, 287-298


"When the Mentor is a Man and the Protegee is a Woman", Harvard Business Review, 59,56-60

"Women's Expectations for and Causes of Attributions of Success and Failure". In M.T.S. Mednick, S.S. Taugri, and L.W. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and Achievement: Social and Motivational Analyses, Washington, DC: Hemisphere

Women and Sexroles: A Social-Psychological Perspective, New York: Norton

"Organisational Correlates of Advancement". In R. Ritchie (Chair), The successful woman manager: How did she get there? Symposium conducted at 92nd Annual meeting of the American Psychological Association. Toronto, Canada

"The 'Feminine Mystique' in Male Dominated versus Female Dominated Jobs", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 17, 291-309
Gutke, B.A.  
1985

Sex and the Workplace, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Halgun, S.V.  
1978

"Relationship among Adjustment Variables and Sex Role Orientation in College Women. A Construct Validity of Psychological Androgyny", Dissertation Abstract International, 38, 3880-B

Hall, F.S. and Hall, D.T.  
1976

"Effects of Job Incumbents' Race and Sex on Evaluation of Managerial Performance", Academy of Management Journal, 19, 476-481

Hansen, D.  
1974

"Sex Differences and Supervision", Paper presented at the 82nd annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, New Orleans

Harland, A. and Weiss, C.L.  
1982


Harman, L.W.  
1970

"Anatomy of Career Commitment in Women", Journal of Counselling Psychology, 17, 77-80

Harragan, B.L.  
1977

Games Mother Never Taught You: Corporate Gamesmanship for Women, New York: Warner Books

Hennig, M. and Jardim, A.  
1976

The Managerial Woman, New York: Pocket Books

Hennig, M. and Jardim, A.  
1977

The Managerial Woman, Garden City, New York: Anchor Press

Hickson, D., Hinnings, C., Lee, C., Schneck, R. and Pennings, J.  
1971

"A Strategic Contingencies' Theory of Interorganisational Power" Administrative Science Quarterly, 16(2), 216-229

Hill, M.S.  
1980


Hinnings, C., Hickson, D., Pennings, J. and Schneck, R.  
1974

"Structural Conditions of Intraorganisational Power", Administrative Science Quarterly. 19, 22-44

Homer, M.S.  
1972

"Towards an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women", Journal of Social Issues, 28, 157-175

Kanter, R.M.  
1977 a

Men and Women of the Corporation, New York: Basic Books

1977 b

"Some Effects of Proportions on Group Life: Skewed Sex Ratios and Responses to Token Women", American Journal of Sociology, 82, 965-990

Kanter, R.M.  
1983


Keown, C.F. and Keown, A.L  
1982

"Success Factors for Corporate Women Executives", Group and Organisation Studies. 7, 445-456

Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S.M. and Wilkinson, I.  
1980

"Intraorganisational Influence Tactics: Explorations in Getting One's Own Way", Journal of Applied Psychology, 65, 440-452

Korman, K.  
1970

"Toward a Hypothesis of Work Behaviour". Journal of Applied Psychology. 54, 31-41

Kram, K.E.  
1983

"Phase of the Mentor Relationship", Academy of Management Journal, 26, 608-625

1985

Mentoring at Work: Developmental Relationships in Organisational Life, Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman
Women Employees


Lean, E. 1983

Lenney, E. 1977

Lockheed, M.E. 1975

Lott, B. 1985


Lyle, J.R. and Ross, J.L. 1973

Lyles, M.A. 1983

Macooby, E.E. and Jacklin, C.N. 1974

Malkiel, B.G. and Malkiel, J.A. 1973

Marshall, S.J. and Wijting, J.P 1980

Massie, J. 1965

Maynard, C.E. and Zawacki, R.A. 1979

McClelland, D. 1965

Mechanic, D. 1962


Michener, H.A. and Schwertferger, M. 1972

Mintzberg, H. 1983

Moore, L.M. and Rickel, A.U. 1980

Morgan, J.R. 1978

Nieva, V.F. and Gutek, B.A. 1981


"Cross-Gender Mentoring: Downright, Upright and Good for Productivity", Training and Development Journal, 37(5), 61-65

"Women's Self-Confidence in Achievement Settings", Psychological Bulletin, 84, 1-13

"Female Motive to Avoid Success: A Psychological Barrier or a Response to Deviance?" Sex Roles, 1, 41-50


"Everyone who Makes it has a Mentor", Harvard Business Review, 56(4), 89-110

Women in Industry, Lexington, M.A.: Heath


The Psychology of Sex differences, Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press

"Male-Female Pay Differences in Professional Employment", American Economic Review, 63, 693-704

"Relationships of Achievement Motivation and Sex Role Identity to College Women's Career Orientation", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 16, 229-311

"Management Theory". In J.G. March (Ed.) Handbook of Organisations, Chicago: Rand McNally

"Mobility and the Dual Career Couple", Personnel Journal, 58, 468-472

"Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition", American Psychologist, 20, 321-333

"Sources of Power of Lower Participants in Complex Organizations", Administrative Science Quarterly, 7, 349-364


"Liking as a Determinant of Power Tactic Preference", Sociometry, 35(1), 190-202

Power In and Around Organizations, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

"Characteristics of Women in Traditional and Non-Traditional Managerial Roles", Personnel Psychology, 33, 317-333

"Personality, Sex, Setting and Position Factors in Interpersonal Influence". Dissertation Abstracts International, 39(2B), 1050

Women and Work: A Psychological Perspective, New York: Praeger
O'Leary, V.E.  
1974

Pandey, S. and Sastry, N.  
1991

Peplau, L.A.  
1976

Peters, L.H., O'Connor, E.J.  
Weekley, J., Pooyan, A.,  
Frank, B. and Erenkrantz, B.  
1984

Pfeffer, J.  
1981

Phillips-Jones, L.L.  
1982

Plake, B.S., Murphy-Berman, V.,  
Derscheid, L.E., Gerber, R.W.,  
Miller, S.K., Speth, C.A. and  
Tomes, R.E.  
1987

Powell, G.N. and  
Butterfield, D.A.  
1979

Ragins, B.R.  
1989

Ragins, B.R. and Sundstrom, E.  
1989

Raynolds, E.H.  
1987

Reich, M.H.  
1986

Roche, G.  
1979

Rose, G.L. and Anidiappan, P.  
1978

Rosen, B. and Jerdee, T.H.  
1978  
1974

1973

Rosener, J.B.  
1990

Rosenkrantz, P., Vogel, S.,  
Bee, H. Broverman, I.  
and Broverman, D.M.  
1968

Rubin, J.Z., Provenzano, F.J.  
and Luria, Z.  
1974

Sastry, N.  
1987

"Some Attitudinal Barriers to Occupational Aspirations in Women",  
_Psychological Bulletin, 81_, 809-826


"Impact of Fear of Success and Sex-Role Attitudes on Women's Competitive Achievement",  
_Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34_, 561-586

"Sex Bias and Managerial Evaluations: A Replication and Extension",  
_Journal of Applied Psychology, 69_, 349-352

_Power in Organisations, Boston:_ Pitman

_Mentors and Protegees, New York:_ Auburn House

"Access Decisions of Personnel Directors: Subtle Forms of Sex Bias in Hiring",  
_Psychology of Women Quarterly, 11_, 255-266

"The 'good manager': Masculine or Androgynous?"  
_Academy of Management Journal, 22_, 395-403

"Barriers to Mentoring: The Female Manager's Dilemma",  
_Human Relations, 42_, 1-22

"Gender and Power in Organisational Perspective",  
_Psychological Bulletin, 105(1), 1_, 51-88

"Management Women in the Corporate Workplace: Possibilities for the Year 2000",  
_Human Resource Management, 26(2), 265-276

"The Mentor Connection",  
_Personnel, 63(2), 50-56

"Much Ado about Mentors",  

"Sex Effects on Managerial Hierarchy Decisions",  
_Academy of Management Journal, 21_, 104-112

"Perceived Sex Differences in Managerially Relevant Characteristics",  
_Sex Roles, 6_, 837-843

"Effects of Applicant's Sex and Difficulty of Job on Evaluations of Candidates for Managerial Positions",  
_Journal of Applied Psychology, 59_, 511-512

"The Influence of Sex Role Stereotyping on Evaluations of Male and Female Supervisory behaviour",  
_Journal of Applied Psychology, 57_, 44-48

"Ways Women Lead",  

"Sex-role Stereotypes and Self-Concept in College Students"  
_Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 32_, 287-295

"The Eye of the Beholder: Parent's Views on Sex of Newborns",  
_American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 44(4), 512-519

_A Study of the Relationship between Level of Anxiety and Masculine, Feminine and Androgynous Sex-Role Orientation in Working Women_, Unpublished Ph.D. thesis submitted to the Department of Psychology, Gujarat University.
Sastry, N. and Pandey, S. 1992 (Forthcoming) 

Schein, V.E. 1973 
1975 

Schwarts, F.N. 1989 

Shapiro, E.C., Haseltine, F.P. and Rowe, M.P. 1978 
Shullman, S.L. and Carder, C.E. 1983 

Simon, J.G. and Feather, N.T. 1973 

Smith, H.L and Grenier, M. 1982 

Smith, R.E. (Ed.) 1979 

Spruell, G.R. 1985 

Staines, G., Tavris, C. and Jayaratne, T.E. 1973 

Stein, A.H. and Bailey, M.M. 1975 

Stewart, C.P. and Gudykunst, W.B. 1982 

Taynor, J. and Deaux, K. 1975 

Terborg, J.R. 1977 

Terborg, J.R. and Ilgen, D.R. 1975 

Tinsley, D.J. and Faunce, P.S. 1980 

Treiman, D.J. and Hartman, H.L. (Eds.) 1981 

Tsui, A.S. and Gutek, B.A. 1984 

"Anxiety, Sex-Role Orientation and Age: Married Women in Urban India", The Indian Journal of Social Work, 51(4), 659-668 

"Sex Role Conflict and Sex Role Orientation of Male and Female Executives: An Empirical Exploratory Study" Paper accepted for presentation to 79th session of the ISCA 

"The Relationship Between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics", Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 95-100 

"Relationship Between Sex-Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics Among Women Managers", Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 340-344 


"Vocational Psychology in Industrial Settings". In W.B. Walsh and S.H. Osipow (Eds.), Handbook of Vocational Psychology, Vol.3, 141-180, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum 

"Causal Attributes of Success and Failure at University Examinations", Journal of Educational Psychology, 64, 46-56 

"Sources of Organisational Power of Women: Overcoming Structural Obstacles", Sex Roles, 8, 733-746 

The Subtle Revolution, Washington, DC: The Urban Institute 

"Daytime Drama: Love in the Office", Training and Development Journal, 39(2), 21-23 

"The Queen Bee Syndrome", In C. Tavris (Ed.) The Female Experience, Del Mar, California: CRM Books 

"The Socialization of Achievement Motivation in Females". In M.T.S. Mednick, S.S. Tangri, L.W. Hoffman (Eds.) Women and Achievement: Social and Motivational Analyses, Washington, DC: Hemisphere 

"Differential Factors Influencing the Hierarchical Level and Number of Promotions of Males and Females within an Organisation", Academy of Management Journal, 3, 586-597 

"Equity and Perceived Sex Differences: Role Behaviour as Defined by the Task, Mode and the Actor", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 381-390 


"A Theoretical Approach to Sex Discrimination in Traditionally Masculine Occupations", Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance, 13, 352-376 

"Enabling, Facilitating and Precipitating Factors Associated with Women's Career Orientation", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 17, 183-194 


"A Role Set Analysis of Gender Differences in Performance, Affective Relationships and Career Success of Industrial Middle Managers", Academy of Management Journal, 27,619-635
Vogel, S.R. Broverman, I.K. 
Broverman, D.M., Clarkson, F.E. and Rosenkrantz, P.S. 
1970

Wallance, P.A. 
1982

Wolf, W.C. and Fligstein, N.D. 
1979

Wright, J.W. 
1982

Yoder, J.B. 
1985

Zey, M.G. 
1984

"Maternal Employment and Perception of Sex Roles among College Students", Development Psychology, 3, 391-384

Women in the Workplace, Boston Massachusetts: Auburn House


The American Almanac of Jobs and Salaries, New York: Avon


The Mentor Connection, Homewood IL: Irwin
Human Resource Management (HRM). - set of organizational activities directed at attracting, developing, and maintaining an effective workforce. The Strategic Importance of HRM. - Human capital reflects the organization’s investment in attracting, retaining, and motivating an effective workforce critical for effective organizational functioning. The Legal Environment of HRM. 1. Equal Employment Opportunity 2. Compensation and Benefits 3. Labor Relations 4. Health and Safety. The Legal Environment of HRM; Equal Employment Opportunity. - Title VII of Civil Rights Act of 1964. - Pregnancy Discrimination Act. Human resource management (HRM) is adopted by many companies because of its benefits. But at the same time, various challenges and issues may emerge in front of managers of human resource department while performing their duties. Any capable HR manager would work on these issues and challenges to prevent the organizational activities from being obstructed. But they must first identify these issues. Hiring employees is not only the challenge that HRM faces; retaining them is also one. Retention of employees is essential to minimize employee turnover rate. This is a major challenge for HRM because of following reasons: i. Contingent workforce. The contingent workforce includes part-time, temporary contract and work-at-home employees. Training employees and management on how to work within the law, thereby reducing legal exposure, is a great way for HR to cut costs for the organization as a whole. In Chapter 8 “Training and Development”, we will further discuss how to organize, set up, and measure the success of a training program. In HRM, we can help ensure our people have the tools to communicate better, and contain costs and save dollars in doing so. Some of these tools for better communication will be addressed in Chapter 9 “Successful Employee Communication.” Human Resource Recall. Have you ever worked in a multigenerational organization? What were some of the challenges in working with people who may have grown up in a different era?