

GLASS CEILING: ASSESSMENT, IMPACT AND ROLE OF MODERATORS IN SERVICE SECTOR

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis entitled “**Glass Ceiling: Assessment, Impact and Role of Moderators in Service Sector**” has been prepared by me under the guidance of Dr. Sakshi Sharma, Assistant Professor, Govt. SPMR College of Commerce, a constituent college of Cluster University of Jammu, Jammu and Kashmir. No part of this thesis has formed the basis for the award of any degree or fellowship previously.

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ABSTRACT

This study is aimed at investigating the glass ceiling, its impact and the role of moderators in the service sector. In modern times, organizations usually pronounce equal opportunity in employment, but equal rights and status are not enjoyed by women in various countries. In this context, various researchers have drawn light on the hindrances in the individuals' progress at work based on gender and they have related these hindrances to the glass ceiling (Jabbar and Imran, 2013). The concept of glass ceiling was invented in the article written by two women Katherine Lawrence and Marianne Schreiber at Hewlett-Packard in 1979, to depict how while at first glance, there appeared to be a reasonable way of advancement, however, in reality, women seemed to hit a point where they were unable to advance beyond (Afza and Newaz, 2008). Later, Gay Bryant utilized the concept of the glass ceiling in terms of gender, in the March 1984 article published in "Adweek". After that, Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt conceptualized the term glass ceiling in 1986 in the article, published on March 24th edition of the "Wall Street Journal". The report disclosed that there are various invisible barriers which are responsible for the hindrance in women's professional success. The study also explains the other six variables i.e. occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, women's career obstacles, organizational justice, and social support. According to the glass ceiling theories (person-centered theory, organizational/situational theory, and social centered theory), the prevalence of the glass ceiling depends on the personal, organizational and societal factors respectively.

The review of literature begins with the general literature regarding the significance of the glass ceiling followed by specific studies related to the glass ceiling for women. Approximately, more than hundred research papers published in various international journals, book chapters, and published reports on this subject were reviewed. All the studies were categorized into six sections namely, existence of glass ceiling; barriers contributing to glass ceiling; impact of glass ceiling on occupational stress, work engagement and turnover intentions; impact of glass ceiling on women's career advancement; role of moderators on the relationship of glass ceiling with its

outcomes and effect of women's demographic profile on the level of glass ceiling. The review revealed that the term glass ceiling is by all accounts new in the women literature (Al-Manasra *et al.*, 2013). There is not enough evidence to distinguish the relation of the glass ceiling with other study variables. Various studies on the factors affecting glass ceiling were reviewed and identified that glass ceiling is predicted by three main factors which can be classified into personal factors/barriers, organizational factors/barriers, and societal factors/barriers. Various research studies delved deep into the relationship of these barriers with the glass ceiling. The studies on consequences of glass ceiling revealed a positive impact of glass ceiling on occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions and women's career obstacles which demonstrated that when women face glass ceiling, they experience a high level of stress, disengagement from work and high rate of turnover. Glass ceiling in terms of personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers prevent women from advancing in their career and create obstacles in their career. Studies on the role of moderators suggested that support from supervisors, colleagues and family/friends affected the relationship of the glass ceiling with its consequences. The review of literature also explored the significant difference in the level of glass ceiling regarding women's marital status, children status, and family structure.

Based on the review of literature, some research gaps were noticed. Although in the western context, the glass ceiling as a barrier has been researched extensively, this largely remained an under-researched concept in the Indian scenario (Kumari, 2009; Jain and Mukherji, 2010). Moreover, only three studies (Kaur and Jindal, 2009; Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014; Thapar and Sharma, 2017) are carried out in the Punjab State of Northern India. Therefore, the present study will be a huge contribution towards the understanding of the concept of GCW in Indian scenario, especially Punjab. Additionally, this is the first empirical study (quantitative) on GCW covered more than two industries of the Indian service sector i.e., banking, IT, and hospitality. However, there are very limited studies conducted in the Asian context which reflect upon the problems/barriers faced by the women managers, especially in India (Center for Social Research, 2009).

According to Jackson and O'Callaghan (2009), very few studies focused solely on the effects of the glass ceiling, and these studies covered only one sub-factor or one factor of the glass ceiling. Therefore, to fill the gap in terms of effects, the present study is stepped forward to analyze the impact of GCW on its consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intention, career obstacles). The present study will also identify the impact of moderators (organizational justice and social support) because the role of moderators is still in the nascent stages of investigation (Combs, 2003; Forret and Dougherty, 2004). Although, the previous studies established the moderation effect but considered only one sub-factor of glass ceiling instead of the whole construct of the glass ceiling. Therefore, there is not any study which deals with glass ceiling as a whole and moderation effect between GCW and occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intention. The present study is an initial investigation to assess the role of moderators (organizational justice, and social support). In concern to demographic variables, according to Claire and David (1994), and Bakar and Marican (2014) marital status positively affected the women managers' objective career success as women got active support from their partner while Buddhapriya (2009), Rasdi *et al.* (2012) and Kiaye and Singh (2013) in their findings suggested that married women experienced hindrance in career advancement, because women faced problems to move for their work and were unwilling to relocate. The present study will also analyze the gap determined in previous researches regarding the demographic profile. Therefore, this study addressed the gaps through its objectives.

The present study was designed using the multi-stage sampling technique. The sample consisted of 553 women managers selected from three industries of the service sector i.e., banking (n=334), IT (n=150), and hospitality (n=69). The respondents were drawn from various branches of two banks (HDFC and ICICI) and 5-star and 4-star hotels located in Ludhiana, Amritsar, and Jalandhar districts of Punjab state and two IT firms (Infosys and Tech Mahindra) located in the capital of Punjab-Chandigarh. The research instrument used for the data collection consisted of seven scales viz., GCW,

occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, women's career obstacles, organizational justice, and social support.

The data were analyzed by using the 'Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23.0 version). Before analyzing the data, the assumption of normality of the distribution and multicollinearity was checked. Further, factor analysis was applied dimension-wise to reduce the number of items in the structured schedule into a manageable number. After factor analysis, the values of Cronbach's alpha were computed to ensure the internal consistency of the instrument. Furthermore, One sample T-Test was used to identify the prevalence of glass ceiling at different managerial levels in the service sector. After that, Multiple Regressions were used to determine the impact of the glass ceiling on the level of occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, and women's career progression. The moderation was checked by applying Moderated Regression Analysis. Also, T-Test was used to determine if there is any significant difference between the two categories of respondents with respect to demographic variables. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed initially on the glass ceiling statements. The purified data resulted in 41 items of glass ceiling clubbed under eight factors, viz. 'lack of self-esteem', 'challenge aversion', 'gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment', 'biased corporate practices', 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'. Further, EFA was run on 'turnover intention', which consisted of 15 items and out of 15 statements, 10 items got clubbed into two factors, namely 'exploring appropriate opportunity' and 'urgency of quitting job'. By applying EFA on women's career obstacles four items got clubbed into a single factor, namely 'career obstacles'. The data have been proved reliable as the values of Cronbach's alpha have arrived above the .60. Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha obtained for all seven scales of the study were: glass ceiling (.79), occupational stress (.83), work disengagement (.78), turnover intentions (.77), career obstacles (.74), organizational justice (.87) and social support (.67). Then, analyses of data lead to the stage of hypotheses testing for making inferences. Further, the analysis led to the stage of hypotheses testing for making inferences that resulted .in the following key findings:

1) One sample T-test was used to identify the level of GCW prevalent at different managerial positions in the service sector. Most of the women managers agreed with the presence of glass ceiling and reported above-average levels of the glass ceiling in terms of organizational barriers (disparate treatment, negative work environment, gender discrimination, and biased corporate practices) and societal barriers (family responsibilities and work-family imbalance). However, women managers did not report any personal barriers in terms of 'lack of self-esteem' and 'challenge aversion'.

2) To test various barriers (personal, organizational and societal) leading to GCW, three sets of multiple regressions were performed with the overall statement 'there exist glass ceiling in the service sector'. The results revealed that organizational barriers ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices') explained 22 percent variation and societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explained 31 percent variation in the existence of GCW in the service sector. Furthermore, personal barriers ('lack of self-esteem' and 'challenge aversion') did not have any impact on the existence of GCW. Therefore, personal barriers were excluded from further analysis due to its insignificant contribution to GCW.

3) Further, multiple regression was applied to test the impact of GCW on the consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions). The results for 'occupational stress' revealed that GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment' and 'biased corporate practices' and societal barriers, i.e. 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explained 40 percent variation in the occupational stress, whereas, GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment' and 'gender discrimination' and societal barriers, i.e. 'family responsibilities,' 'work-family imbalance' and 'family priorities') explained 22 percent variation in work disengagement, and for turnover intentions GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment,' and 'negative work environment' and societal barriers, i.e. 'work-family imbalance' and 'family responsibilities') explained 38 percent variation.

4) To test the impact of GCW on the women's career progression, multiple regression was performed. The result indicated that GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment,' 'negative work environment,' 'biased corporate practices' and 'gender discrimination' and societal barriers, i.e. 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explained 48 percent variation in the dependent variable, i.e., career obstacles.

5) To test the hypothesis related to moderation, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. The process of moderation analysis was completed in four steps. In the case of the moderator 'organizational justice', the interaction terms revealed that organizational justice moderated the relationship between GCW (in terms of organizational barriers only) and occupational stress. Additionally, insignificant values identified that organizational justice did not moderate the relationship of GCW with work disengagement and turnover intentions. In the case of the second moderator, viz., social support, the significant interaction terms demonstrated that social support moderated the relationship of GCW (societal barriers) with occupational stress and turnover intentions. However, social support did not act as a moderator in the relationship between any barrier of GCW and work disengagement.

6) Independent T-test was used to identify the perception of women managers regarding GCW according to their marital status, children status, and family structure. The results indicated that there exist significant differences for marital status in five factors of GCW, viz., 'gender discrimination,' 'disparate treatment,' 'negative work environment,' 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'. Further, the study found significant differences in children status regarding all organizational and societal barriers. In the study, married women managers and women managers who had children faced more organizational barriers and societal barriers as compared to single women and women without children. Additionally, the significant differences were found in the nuclear and joint family regarding societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family

imbalance’) only, where women managers from the nuclear family had more family responsibilities and found it difficult to balance their work and family together as compared to women managers from a joint family.

Beyond limitations, this study presents opportunities for future research. The present research throws light on the barriers that contribute to the prevalence of GCW and provides opportunities for researchers interested in further exploration of the concept of GCW in the Indian organizations. Therefore, more empirical research would be useful in providing evidence to support the present findings. Further, the study included four consequences and two moderators; therefore, more variables can be added in the future, especially the mediators. Research can also be conducted to examine the impact of individual-level variables (such as academic rank, race, and religion) and organizational-level variables (such as size, public versus private status and different geographic region) on GCW. Further, a comparative study of public and private organizations can also be done. As the present study is administered on the service sector only, further research can be conducted on the GCW concept by considering other sectors, such as manufacturing, construction, defense, etc.

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Dated:

Rajvir Kaur

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CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION

In the modern times, equal opportunity in employment is generally talked about by every organization, but in reality, these equivalent rights and status are not enjoyed by women when compared to men. In this context, various researchers have drawn light on the hindrances in the individuals' progress at work based on gender and they have related these hindrances to the glass ceiling (Jabbar and Imran, 2013).

1.1 The Glass Ceiling

The Sociology theory defines the concept of the glass ceiling as, “an invisible barrier that prevents someone from achieving further success. It is usually phrased in the context of employees' age, gender, or ethnicity keeping them away from advancing to a certain level of the organizational hierarchy. Glass ceiling is usually observed in the organizational hierarchy as a barrier to attaining power and success equal to the dominant category of the individuals. For instance, as compared to men, women with better skills, talent, and education are being ignored for promotions”. The Business Dictionary describes the glass ceiling as, “invisible but real barrier through which the next stage or level of advancement can be seen, but cannot be reached by a section of qualified and deserving employees. Such barriers exist due to implicit prejudice on the basis of age, ethnicity, political or religious affiliation, and/or sex. Although generally illegal, such practices prevalent in most countries”.

Many researchers who studied the glass ceiling focused on women and minorities. Morrison and Von Glinow (1990) characterized the glass ceiling as, “subtle as well as transparent but so solid barrier that keeps minorities and women away from climbing in the organizational hierarchy”. According to Marriam-Webster Dictionary, “glass ceiling is an intangible barrier within a hierarchy that prevents women or minorities from obtaining upper-level positions”. According to the American Heritage Dictionary of the

English Language, “glass ceiling is an unrecognized inequitable barrier that obstructs women and minorities from achieving positions of power or responsibility, within a corporation”. However, Gibelman (2000) represented glass ceiling as, “transparent but real barriers, taking into account inequitable attitudes or organizational bias that block or prevent qualified people, including (yet not constrained to) women, racial and ethnic minorities and disabled persons, from progressing into management positions”.

1.2 Glass Ceiling for Women (GCW)

The term glass ceiling is, by all accounts new in the literature related to women (Al-Manasra *et al.*, 2013). It is “a well-enshrined phenomenon supported by conclusive evidence” (Simpson and Altman, 2003). The present study is confined to the glass ceiling based on gender, that is, glass ceiling for women. The term points towards an organization’s strategy that partiality blocks the entrance of women at the top positions (Smith and Crimes, 2007). Kiaye and Singh (2013) opined glass ceiling as a transparent barrier as well as the solid ceiling, which is impassable and keeps the women away from the top management positions. According to the Cambridge Dictionary, “glass ceiling is a limit that is unofficial but understood which prevents someone, especially a woman, from progressing to senior management positions in a company or organization”.

The concept of glass ceiling was invented in the article written by two women Katherine Lawrence and Marianne Schreiber at Hewlett-Packard in 1979, to depict how while at first glance, there appeared to be a reasonable way of advancement, however, in reality, women seemed to hit a point where they were unable to advance beyond (Afza and Newaz, 2008). Later, Gay Bryant utilized the concept of the glass ceiling in terms of gender, in the March 1984 article published in “Adweek”. After that, Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt conceptualized the term glass ceiling in 1986 in the article, published on March 24th edition of the “Wall Street Journal”. The report disclosed that there are various invisible barriers which are responsible for the hindrance in women’s professional success.

1.3 Glass Ceiling Theories

1.3.1 Person-Centered Theory

The authors of person-centered theories proposed that the lack of socialization practices and behavioral differences between the leaders of both the genders (men and women), led to the glass ceiling (Akande, 1994; Powell and Butterfield, 2003). Also, as per this theory, compared to men, women lack necessary qualities for leadership positions such as aspiration, assertiveness, confidence, and influential behavior (Singh and Terjesen, 2008). It is likewise proposed that females do not have the appropriate education and experience expected to hold high management positions. However, Har-Even (2004) suggested in their study that women's qualities and practices, socialization practices, and attitudes did not influence women's abilities to attain senior management levels. Besides, the researcher disproved that women's risk avoidance and achievement fear made them inefficient for management levels, and identified the similarities in personality, inspiration, and capacities that male and female managers had.

With regard to the personal barriers, women's low representation at higher managerial positions is due to the individual factors or the situational factors of managerial women. Riger and Galligan (1980) contended that the fundamental descriptions for the absence of women at top management levels are either personal or organizational. The details of personal/individual factors recommend that the socialization process practiced by women supported such attitude, behavior, and personality traits that are in opposition to the requirements of a leadership role. Furthermore, behavior differences and personality traits among women are exhibited as a basis for women's low representation at managerial levels. According to this theory, women lack the confidence required for a leadership role and to apply for top management roles.

In this regard, Morrison (1992) opined that women often neglect to plan a career, build networks, and mentoring relationships that influence their progression. Women have been associated with neglecting their professions for family and home life.

However, Tharenou (1999) recommended 'apparent absence of skill and knowledge' as the necessary clarification for women's lacking in career progression. The researcher also believes that the women's interest in their individual and aptitude improvement can lead to expanded compensation and role status, but since women take very few career advancement initiatives than men, therefore they get lesser rewards. Thus as per this theory, women do not have such ability and experience that are required for the top managerial positions.

1.3.2 Organisation/Situation Centered Theory

Situation centered theories are associated with the environment of the workplace experienced by women which inspire them for management levels. Although many studies have emphasized individual/personal factors that are responsible for women manager's moderate career growth, there are numerous studies that focus on organizational barriers affecting women's professional advancement. These studies contend that the organizational culture, instead of individual/personal qualities, is the reason for women's low representation.

In their study, Kanter (1977) contended that the organizational policies and procedures hinder the career growth of women, not individual factors. Several researchers claimed that women's representation in the organizational hierarchy where they have clustered in lower power positions could be comprehended in the form of organizational factors, instead of individual factors. The situational/organizational components that the women experience or face in the organizational environment while trying to attain the top managerial positions are noteworthy. April *et al.* (2007) indicated that the working pattern of the organizations resulted in organizational barriers/hindrances that ultimately pressurized Indian professional women working in the service sector to quit. There are various factors contributing to organizational barriers for women such as the absence of advancement opportunities inside the organization, long working hours, lack of flexible schedule options and night shifts that make it unfeasible for them to balance and manage their job and household responsibilities simultaneously.

According to Linehan and Scullion (2001), numerous occupations are still considered as men's or women's professions, and this affects the initial approach of a specific gender to organizations. The formality of the human resource management process supports reasonable practices for fair treatment among both the categories of gender, but the informality brings about unequal treatment of employees. Davidson and Cooper (1986) additionally identified that woman managers need to perform superior to their male colleagues to prove themselves. In the same line, Ragins *et al.* (1998) reported that women need to go beyond exceptional performance targets and have to over-perform in order to contradict negativity regarding their gender. According to Klenke (1996), as women advance as well as accomplish senior management roles that increase their visibility and profile, it becomes necessary for them to execute superior to their male counterparts. As per Powell and Butterfield (2003), the reason behind the women's undesirable feeling about career advancement is 'group dynamics in the work environment' that builds the employees' negative state of mind towards the women managers.

1.3.3 Social Role Theory

Social stereotypes and social roles also contribute to the obstruction of women's career advancement. In Indian society, women have numerous responsibilities due to various social roles they perform, which create societal/social barriers. Throughout her lifetime, a woman plays different social roles such as a daughter, sister, spouse, daughter-in-law, mother, mother-in-law, grandmother, as well as an employee. As social factors, many life events illustrate a woman's life and eventually result in a woman's career break. Some critical life incidents in a woman's life are marriage, life partner movement, pregnancy, childcare, elder care, pursuing higher education, etc.

According to the Indian culture, a woman after marriage (as a bride) has to leave her house to grace her husband's house as her own, and this is a common practice of our society for a woman. An Indian working women's life after marriage explains the real challenges because to completely fit into the new social roles especially, that of a wife

and a daughter-in-law, women after marriage needs to take a break from their career. Furthermore, if husband's migration takes place which implies the movement of Indian woman manager to her husband's place of work and in case that specific place does not provide a domain where she can continue her present job, then she might opt to quit. Also, becoming a mother bring a dramatic change in the woman's life that continues till the end of her life, where she feels that for the majority of the needs, the child is exclusively reliant on her and realizes that with the child's responsibility, it is tough for her to pay attention towards her career, therefore, at this stage, a woman might choose to take a career break. Additionally, in a typical Indian culture or society, being a daughter and daughter-in-law entitle the women to consider her parents and parents-in-law as a priority; therefore, she keeps her career on the backseat to fulfill the family requirements as she gives more priority to her family instead of a career.

These social roles assume a significant part in hindering the advancement of women. In their study, Singh and Terjesen (2008) declared 'gendered social system' as the factor of the glass ceiling, where the job is outlined "by men and for men" and organizational hierarchy characterized job roles by gender that encouraged gender segregation and stereotyping. Therefore, the system of advancement is implemented in a gender-biased manner that makes it difficult for managerial women to break the ceiling. This kind of system block the woman's growth who work part-time or have to avail maternity leave or migrate because of the spouse's job transfer, which leads to the prevalence of glass ceiling. Singh and Terjesen (2008) also clarified women's family obligations as a societal barrier that obstructed women's dedication towards the job.

1.4 Consequences of Glass Ceiling

1.4.1 Occupational Stress

Stress is a vital part of human presence, which has a considerable impact over the lives of people as well as the organizational adequacy and effectiveness where they work (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Since the working environment and organizations have become

unpredictable, stress exists in each organization to a certain extent and influences the employees' job performance (Anderson, 2003). Stress at work can be expressed as a result of the negative association of people with their workplace, which makes them feel uncomfortable (Jamal, 1984). According to Owen (2006), stressful circumstances in the work environment create occupational stress, which prompts harmful and destructive consequences for both employers and employees.

Malik and Shahabuddin (2015) characterized stress as an irregularity in a person's attitude because of exterior elements resulting in behavioral, mental, and physical change. Therefore, occupational stress is "the change in mental, physical, and behavioral reaction because of working environment difficulties and hazards created for the employees" (Krantz *et al.*, 1985; Mount, 2002; Colligan and Higgins, 2006). Alves (2005) defined occupational stress as the adverse emotional and physical reactions that arise when the job prerequisites are not comparable to the resources and abilities of the employees. It might likewise be characterized as a worker's feelings of anxiety, dissatisfaction, distress, emotional exhaustion, job-related hardness, strain and worry (Armstrong and Griffin, 2004). Cooper and Marshal (1976) explored that the environmental elements or stressors of occupational stress, viz., role ambiguity, role conflict, poor working conditions connected with a specific job and work over-burden.

Consequently, occupational stress would allude to the stress arisen by workplace events. The studies on occupational stress show its harmful consequences on worker's commitment, prosperity, satisfaction, and productivity in the distinctive contexts and circumstances (Michael, 2009). Therefore, occupational stress is the reason of unwelcomed outcomes viz., absenteeism, loss of profitability, and negative health issues (Nakasis and Ouzouni, 2008). Lazarus (2000) categorized three types of stress: acute stress, episodic stress, and chronic stress. Acute stress is usually experienced for a shorter period, and episodic stress occurs when individuals experience stress more frequently at different periods. However, chronic stress goes on for the most extended timeframe.

1.4.2 Work Disengagement

Kahn (1990) characterized work engagement as the association of employees' identity to their work roles and the simultaneous expression of employees in task behaviors that promote their associations with work and other employees.

Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) identified work engagement as a valuable job-related perspective that is divided into three factors, namely, vigor, dedication, and absorption. "Vigor" is described by the mental strength and high levels of energy while working and the readiness to put persistent exertion in an individual's work even during difficult times. Further, "dedication" is concerned with an individual's work, which encounters a feeling of significance, challenge, eagerness, motivation, and pride, on the other hand, "absorption" is demonstrated by being fully concentrated and joyfully fascinated in the individual's work where time passes frequently, moreover, the individual experience issues while separating himself/herself from the work (Barkhuizen and Rothmann, 2006).

Additionally, the theorists have identified work engagement as a reverse concept to burnout (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). It helps people bargain adequately with the demands of the stressful job (Britt *et al.*, 2001) and has been identified to be positively correlated with organizational commitment (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001) and performance of the employee (Aktouf, 1992). Conversely, disengaged employees tend to be disconnected from their jobs and conceal their real character, thoughts, and emotions during the performance (Olivier and Rothmann, 2007). Rothbard (2001) explained engagement as a two-dimensional motivational scale that incorporates attention (the psychological accessibility and the measure of time that the individual spends while thinking about their job role) and absorption (intensity of the individual's concentration in their task). The engagement is likewise seen as a perspective and does not concentrate on a particular behavior, event, individual, or object (Saks and Rothmann, 2006). Researchers suggest that the work engagement not only helps to lessen the levels of occupational stress (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004), additionally it promote the organizational and economic accomplishments with the expansion in employee motivation and organizational commitment (Koyuncu *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, engaged employees provide quality of

service that results in higher performance of the employee as well as the organization (Salanova *et al.*, 2005), while disengaged employees tend to separate themselves from their job responsibilities and drag back intellectually from the present work situation (Koyuncu *et al.*, 2006).

1.4.3 Turnover Intentions

Turnover intention can be referred to the careful and conscious willingness of an individual to depart from the organization. According to Tett and Meyer (1993), turnover is voluntary/intentional or unintentional leaving from the organization while the turnover intention is the indicator of this action. Voluntary/intentional turnover refers to an employee's own willingness to depart from an organization, while involuntary/unintentional turnover refers to the dismissals or layoffs (Stovel and Bontis, 2002). From the organizational viewpoint, Dalton *et al.* (1982) differentiated between dysfunctional and efficient turnover. Dysfunctional turnover is the voluntary turnover of the best performers or key data employees, while efficient turnover refers to the turnover of staff that is incompetent for an organization, especially of those employees who are apathetically assessed by an organization.

Turnover intention also refers to a psychological choice between an individual's attitude towards work and the option to stay or leave the organization, which can be viewed as the immediate cause to stay or leave (Jacobs and Roodt, 2011). Turnover intention is made of three aspects: whether a worker thinks of quitting, searches for another occupation, or forms an intention to quit (Jaros, 1997). According to Wright (1993), employees tend to quit when they get excellent job opportunities, expanded income, high fringe benefits, more organizational justice and numerous variables that attract the employees towards the external business sector. Malik *et al.* (2011) understood turnover as the labor movement, which consisted of three factors of 'regional movement', that is, demonstrating the transfer of an employee from one region to another, 'occupational movement' suggesting to an employee transferring from an occupation to

another and ‘industrial movement’ entailing the transfer of an employee from one industry to another.

Turnover intention is not the actual turnover but is the best indicator of actual turnover and a number of researchers established a significant positive association between turnover intention and actual turnover (Mobley *et al.*, 1979; Griffeth and Hom, 1995). Therefore, turnover intention signifies the conscious willingness of an employee to search for diverse opportunities outside the organization (Wallace *et al.*, 2009). The expense connected with employee turnover may be depicted in the form of hiring (the new labor force) and training them that reduce the effectiveness of an organization in the absence of the trained staff. Also, employee turnover may prompt a social capital loss that inversely affects the organization viability and also the accomplishment of an organization (Holtom *et al.*, 2006).

1.4.4 Women’s Career Obstacles

Career refers to the grouping of jobs undertaken during the life-span of an individual (Maimunah and Mariani, 2008). The traditional meaning of career is continuously connected with one’s preferred choice of a job, which is influenced by an individual’s self-concept about employment. In the case of the glass ceiling, there are obstacles hindering women from achieving career progression. Career progression is a multiphase process and requires lots of time, and therefore, career progression has an impact on individuals and organizations since it establishes an active association between the employees, their employment and the employer (Maimunah *et al.*, 2007). Career advancement definitions are extending with time (Roziyah *et al.*, 2009). Career success has become a pressing concern for both the workers and organizations because of the substantial part to exhibit links between career advancement of an individual and the organizational variables (Ballout, 2007).

Generally, career success is classified into two types, that is, objective and subjective career success (Nabi, 2001). Objective career success (OCS) refers to external appreciation, for example, salary, and occupation status (Kuijpers *et al.*, 2006). OCS is

also defined as the society's perspective of accomplishment and success utilizing measures such as salary, promotions, and status (Nabi, 2001). Numerous studies use income as the primary measure of OCS; however, not all employment fields utilize salary as the best way to measure OCS. In some circumstances where positions and responsibility are considered as the indicator of career success, the status will be a measure of career success. In their study, Abele and Spurk (2009) identified both the salary and status as the measures of OCS. Therefore, objective career success is considered as the success that can be seen and figured by a third party (Ng *et al.*, 2005).

On the other hand, according to Nabi (2001), subjective career success (SCS) is theoretically more complex. SCS depends on the individual's particular appreciation of his or her career actualization (Kuijpers *et al.*, 2006). Gattiker and Larwood (1986) also considered SCS as an internal perspective, which is defined as the individual's own preferences for development in an occupation. The subjective judgments of career success by an individual are employment and career satisfaction (Ng *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, SCS is frequently characterized as either employment or career satisfaction (Heslin, 2005).

1.5 Moderators

1.5.1 Organizational Justice

According to Ambrose *et al.* (2007), organizational justice signifies the fairness that employees receive in their organizations. The concept of organizational justice has been studied extensively amongst all categories of employees with regard to HR issues such as recruitment, selection, training, and development (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Therefore, perceptions of organizational justice concentrate on the function of justice in organizations. As indicated by Lemons (2003), perceptions of organizational justice are results of an individual's intellectual procedures, which are created in the light of basic desires. Organizational justice is divided into three categories viz., distributive justice i.e. outcome-related (Adams, 1965), procedural justice i.e. process-related (Thilbaut and

Walker, 1975), and interactional justice i.e. interpersonal and informational-related (Bies and Moag, 1986).

The concept of distributive justice is based on equity theory of Adam (1965) and is defined as the fairness that employees perceive regarding job outcomes (e.g., advancement, salary, performance rating, and termination). Conversely, procedural justice is based on the dispute solving models (Thilbaut and Walker, 1975) that are associated with the equality of methods utilized in the distribution of outputs. Lind and Tyler (1988) defined procedural justice as the fairness that employees perceived in the management's decision-making processes regarding HR policies and practices that influence employees' work outcomes for example advancement, performance appraisal ratings, and salary.

Interactional justice signifies the quality and justice of the relationship between an employee and his/her superior (Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2004). It is defined as the fairness that the employees perceive regarding the nature of interpersonal treatment that the staff attains from their seniors (Bies and Moag, 1986; Bies, 1987) and is categorized in further two forms of justice, i.e., interpersonal justice and informational justice. Therefore, interpersonal justice is defined as 'an extent to which employees are equally treated with nobility, politeness, and respect by their seniors or leaders and the third party, i.e. HR managers, while informational justice is defined as the perceived justice regarding the explanations that provide the employees information about the reason behind a particular utilized procedure or distributed outcome in a specific manner (Bies and Moag, 1986; Tyler and Lind, 1992; Colquitt, 2001).

1.5.2 Social Support

Since the mid-1970s, the role of social support is studied extensively as a coping strategy, and researchers' interest in this concept is expanding with time (Zimet *et al.*, 1988). Many of the researchers exhibited that the sufficiency of social support is commonly identified with the physical and mental symptoms and social support buffer the relationship between stressful life events and these symptoms (Andrews *et al.*, 1978;

Lin *et al.*, 1979; Brandt and Weinert, 1981; Schaefer *et al.*, 1981; Wilcox, 1981; Monroe *et al.*, 1983; Procidano and Heller, 1983; Sarason *et al.*, 1983; Sarason *et al.*, 1985). The concept of social support is imperative to numerous researchers interested in studying the physical (e.g., mortality) and psychological well-being (e.g., depression). Thus, there are more than 45,000 articles, books and chapters available on the concept social support over an extensive variety of fields including medicine, nursing, public health, psychology, social work and sociology (Narayanan, 2012).

According to Shumaker and Brownell (1984), social support is “an exchange of resources between a minimum of two people, i.e., the provider and the recipient, to improve the well-being of the recipient”. Generally, social support is characterized as the accessibility or presence of individuals on whom a person or employee can depend and who let them realize that the people around care, love and value them (Sarason *et al.*, 1983). The literature portrayed four sources of social support: emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental.

Emotional support is known as a well-acknowledged type of social support that comes from family and friends in the form of care, concern, empathy, love, and trust. Further, appraisal support originates from family, friends, co-workers, or community sources that include transmission of information as an affirmation, feedback, and social comparison, and this information is regularly evaluative. While, informational support incorporates guidance, recommendations, or orders that help the individual to react with another individual or situations. Instrumental support is the tangible type of social support that includes help in terms of assistance, money, time and other explicit interventions for the individual’s sake (Narayanan, 2012).

1.6 Indian Service Sector

1.6.1 The Banking Industry

The Indian banking industry contains public sector banks (n=27), private sector banks (n=21), foreign banks (n=49), regional rural banks (n=56), urban cooperative

banks (n=1,562) and rural cooperative banks (n=94,384). According to the Reserve Bank of India (RBI), Indian banking sector is adequately capitalized and well-regulated (Mahalingam, 2019). In 1969, the Indian banking sector became nationalized and took a step forward to diminish gender inequality in the industry and to provide advancement opportunities to women employees. However, before the 1970s, the banking industry was male-dominated but after that, the trend of women's employment in Indian banks has changed drastically. Nowadays, numerous public as well as private Indian banks are recruiting well qualified women at managerial levels and industry is making remarkable profit over the years (Ramya and Raghurama, 2016).

Although, numerous women executives such as Archana Bhargava (Chairperson and Managing Director, United Bank of India), Arundathi Bhattacharya, (Chief Managing Director, State Bank of India), Chanda Kochhar (Chief Executive officer, ICICI Bank), Meera Sanyal (Country Executive and Chairperson, Royal Bank of Scotland India), Naina Lal Kidwai (Group General Manager and Country Head, HSBC India), Shikha Sharma (Managing Director and Chief Executive Officer, Axis Bank Ltd), Shubhalakshmi Panse (Chairman and Managing Director, Allahabad Bank), Suvalaxmi Chakraborty (Chief Executive Officer of the Indian unit of State Bank of Mauritius), Usha Ananthasubramanian (Chief Managing Officer and Managing Director, Punjab National Bank) and Vijayalakshmi R. Iyer (Chairperson and Managing Director, Bank of India) are playing key role in the bank's growth (Bandyopadhyay, 2013) but these names are countable which points towards the existence of gender gap at senior management positions. In nationalized banks, women comprise about 17 percent of the total labor force. Despite a significant representation in the clerical cadre (26.5 percent), their representation in executive cadre (2.66 percent) is quite low (Khandelwal, 2013). Therefore, to analyze women's present situation in the Indian private banks and various barriers faced by them, the present study included two top private banks viz., HDFC and ICICI.

HDFC Bank Limited: HDFC bank limited, headquartered in Mumbai (Maharashtra, India) provides banking and financial services. The first housing finance company of India, i.e. Housing Development Finance Company (HDFC) established in 1977, promoted the HDFC bank. In order to incorporate a private bank in the banking industry in 1994, HDFC became the first bank amongst all the banks that attained the approval of 'in principle' from the Reserve Bank of India (RBI). In February 2014, the market capitalization announced HDFC as the largest private sector bank in India. HDFC bank is ranked at top positions by various reports, such as HDFC ranked on 32nd position amongst India's most trusted brands by Brand Trust Report 2014 and according to its market capitalization, HDFC was ranked 45th position among the world's top 50 banks. Currently, HDFC has 4,014 branches and 11,766 ATMs across 2,464 towns and cities of India (http://www.hdfcbank.com/aboutus/default.htm?src=hp_top_nav).

India's largest private bank (HDFC) endeavors to advance diversity and inclusion at the workplace so that women have equal opportunities, but still there is an enormous difference in the ratio of male and female employees, especially at the senior levels. As on March 31, 2017, the women employee strength stood at 14,570, which is four times less than the strength of the male employees, i.e., 69,755. However, at the senior managerial level, HDFC has a team of 10 board of directors, among them only one woman is present as a part-time non-executive chairperson and independent director. Therefore, the ratio of male and female on the board of directors is 9:1 (https://www.hdfcbank.com/aboutus/cg/Composition_of_the_Board.htm).

ICICI Bank: ICICI is an Indian financial institution, promoted in 1994 by ICICI Limited and it was a completely-owned subsidiary. In 1998, ICICI Limited's shareholding in the bank was decreased by 46 percent through a public share offering in India. In the year 2001, ICICI Bank acquired Bank of Madura Limited in an all-stock amalgamation. On March 31st, 2015, ICICI bank earned Rs. 111.75 billion profit after paying tax, and on the basis of consolidated assets, ICICI became India's largest private sector bank. Currently, ICICI Bank has a nationwide network of 4,050 branches and 12,921 ATMs.

The bank also has branches in Bahrain, China, Dubai, Hong Kong, Qatar, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and the United States; subsidiaries in Canada and the United Kingdom; and representative offices in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malaysia, South Africa, and the United Arab Emirates (<http://www.icicibank.com/aboutus/about-us.page?>).

The country's second-largest private bank is taking numerous initiatives for promoting its women. The bank has about 70,000 employees, out of which 30 percent are women. At the senior management level, ICICI bank has a team of 12 board members which consist of two executive directors, one chairperson, one managing director, one government nominee director, and seven independent directors, among them, only two women are independent directors, and one woman is executive director. Further, the bank has 11 board committees, out of which six committees are executed by three women. Therefore, in ICICI bank, the ratio of male and female at the senior management level is 9:3 (<https://www.icicibank.com/aboutus/bod-1.page>).

1.6.2 The Information Technology (IT) Industry

The IT industry is undergoing rapid evolution and is transforming the shape of the Indian business standards. This sector includes services such as business process outsourcing (BPO), consultancies, online services, software development, and software management. Indian IT's core competencies and strengths have attracted significant investments from major countries. According to the data released by the Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT), "the computer software and hardware sector in India attracted cumulative Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows worth US\$ 37.23 billion between April 2000 and March 2019 and ranks second in the inflow of FDI". According to India Brand Equity Foundation (2019), "leading Indian IT firms like Infosys, Wipro, TCS, and Tech Mahindra, are diversifying their offerings and showcasing leading ideas in blockchain, artificial intelligence to clients using innovation hubs, research, and development centers, in order to create differentiated offerings".

From the women's representation perspective, although women account for 34 percent of the total workforce in the Indian IT industry, gender ratio gets further skewed

at senior levels and in specialized engineering roles as only 7 percent of women reach the C-suite at Indian IT companies (Sushma, 2017). The lower percentage of women managers direct towards the glass ceiling which is empirically examined in the present study by including two top IT companies, viz., Infosys and Tech Mahindra.

Infosys: Infosys is the worldwide chief in consulting, outsourcing, technology, and next-generation services with headquarters at Bangalore. To smash the competition and stay forward in the innovation curve, it attracted customers across more than 50 nations. The company has more than 179,000 professionals, the revenue of US\$8.83 billion and is creating new avenues to generate value. Infosys is flourishing in the advancing world through strategic consulting, and co-creation of solutions such as big data, cloud computing, mobility, and sustainability. Initially, seven engineers established Infosys Limited with only US\$250 in 1981. The firm originated for creating and executing immense ideas that ensure the growth of customers and improve their lives with the help of enterprise solutions. This is the only reason that 98.4 percent (as of June 30, 2015) of the company's revenues come from active customers. As on 31st March, the total number of sales and marketing offices were 85 and development centers were 100, globally. Infosys Foundation started to give support to a few economically and socially saddened sectors of the society in which the company works (<http://www.infosys.com/about/>).

The second-largest IT services firm, Infosys, has recruited 48-51 percent of women at entry-level and has boosted the ratio of women employees' participation in the total workforce to 36 percent. Therefore, among the total of 169,638 employees, 36.05 percent are women. However, at the leadership levels, close to 15 percent of the workforce constitute women across the entire Infosys group. Infosys' nine-member board of directors has three independent woman directors, namely, Kiran Mazumdar-Shaw, Rupa Kudwa, and Punita Kumar-Sinha, while, among the company's seven executive officers, only one woman is present (<https://www.infosys.com/about/management-profiles/>).

Tech. Mahindra Limited: It is a multinational company of India that provides various services to telecommunication industry like business process outsourcing (BPO), information technology (IT) and networking technology solutions. Tech Mahindra (earlier known as Mahindra-British Telecom) is founded by Anand Mahindra and the company headquarters at Pune (India). The company is an expert in business re-engineering solutions, consulting, and digital transformation. As a part of the Mahindra Group, this company is of USD 4.6 billion and has 103,000+ employees in 51 nations. Included in Fortune 500 companies, Tech Mahindra Ltd provides services to 727 international clients. According to Forbes 2014 list, it is selected amongst the Fabulous 50 companies in Asia. In 2012, Tech Mahindra got rank five in India's software services firms (IT). Tech Mahindra's operations are running in more than 51 nations, and it has 40 sales offices (<https://www.techmahindra.com/company/default.aspx>).

Tech Mahindra's Board of Directors consist of six non-executive independent members, three non-executive directors, a non-executive member, and an executive member, but one of them is a female member. The company's website discloses that there is a leadership team of seven members, and one of them is a female. Interestingly, this woman is also the Human Resource Head. Therefore, among seven executive management members, only a single woman holds that position, and there is no woman among the board members (<https://www.techmahindra.com/General/leaders.aspx>).

1.6.3 Hospitality Industry

In the service sector, the Indian hospitality industry has arisen as the major commercial industry that enhances the development of the Indian service sector. The growth of the hospitality industry is foremost associated with the growth of the tourism industry because tourism is the key demand driver of the entire industry. The Indian hospitality industry is known as an imperative player in the global industry because India has recorded sound growth in the hospitality industry stimulated by the healthy inflow of foreign tourists and also enlarged tourist movement within the country. The third-biggest sub-fragment of the service sector containing hotels and restaurants, repair services and

trade has added almost 12.5 percent to the GDP (Gross domestic product) in 2014-15 and has grown rapidly at 11.7 percent CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate) from the period 2011-12 to 2014-15. In India, this sector has become one of the top 15 sectors to attain the highest FDI (Foreign Direct Investment).

The hospitality industry has come a long way from the time when it was not an attractive proposition for women and now it is one of the top five industries that see women workforce across levels. Therefore, now more and more women are entering into the industry, taking appropriate steps towards successful careers and making their mark prominent. Although the male-dominated industry considers women as skilled to grab promotions and be in the managerial roles with more professional qualifications and expertise, perception plays a huge role among women losing out on well-deserved opportunities and equal pay. Though higher emotional quotient is a positive characteristic of women, it is perceived that the women would not be good at chief development, investment, or finance roles as they are weaker negotiators (Business World, 2019). There is also stereotype about young mothers that they are not considered efficient enough to post a career break, while male counterparts are allowed to move ahead in their careers. With time, these perceptions seem to have changed for better, and the hospitality industry is now more welcoming towards women (Business World, 2019). Therefore, to explore the real picture of women representation in the hospitality industry, the present study included 5-star and 4-star hotels operating in three major cities of Punjab. The list of numerous hotels was acquired in 2015 from the website makemytrip.com.

5-Star Hotels: The hotels of 5-star category provide the top level of accommodations and services to their customers. Majority of five star hotels are luxury properties, but it also consisted of small independent (non-chain) property which facilitates an elegant intimacy that sometimes is hard to acquire in the superior properties. The hotel is generally located in the very exclusive locations of an inhabited area and in the city centre. The hotels in the 5-star category included in the study are: a) Ludhiana- Radisson Blu Hotel MBD, Park Plaza, Aveda hotel, and Hyatt Regency; b) Amritsar- Country Inn and Suites by

Carlson; Radisson Blu Hotel; Hyatt, and ISTA; and c) Jalandhar- Hotel Cabbana-an ECOTEL Hotel, Ramada Jalandhar City Centre, and Radisson Windsor Hotel.

4-Star Hotels: Mostly large, the four-star hotels are recognized hotels which include bellhop service, front desk service and stylish reception areas. Although this category of hotels is generally situated near their competitive hotel which offers same kind of facilities or services but it can also be found near recreational centers such as shopping mall, restaurants, and other major attractions. The service level of 4-star hotels is well above-average, and these hotels provide concierge services, fitness centers, and swimming pools. The study also included 4-star hotels are: a) Ludhiana- City Heart Sarovar Portico, and Fortune Klassik; b) Amritsar- Golden Tulip, Comfort Inn Alstonia, HK Clarks Inn, Hotel Ritz plaza, MK Hotel, Mohan International Hotel, Ramada, and Mango Hotels; and c) Jalandhar- The Maya Hotels, and Sarovar Portico.

1.7 Women's Representation at Managerial Positions

1.7.1 Women's Scenario in the Western Context

In the present scenario, huge numbers of women are entering the global workforce. There are various factors, such as falling fertility, higher educational levels, and industrial changes that contributed to the increased participation of women in the workforce. Women represent around 70 percent workforce in the developed nations and 60 percent workforce in the developing nations, and overall, 40 percent of the global workforce comprises of women (International Labour Organisation, 2015). Today, numerous women are qualified as graduates and postgraduates, and they are getting professional as well as technical degrees to enter the corporate world. As the educational levels of women are rising and the society is accepting the concept of gender equality, it has resulted into women's movement to the managerial levels, but the cultural and social factors still influence the women's interest of jobs. These cultural barriers are the reason why women choose the traditional 'feminine occupations' such as nursing and teaching (Tlaiss, 2013). However, still, women are concentrating on making the way towards

male-dominated professions. With the expansion of managerial positions, organizations are offering various opportunities to women that increase their participation in the workforce. Since there is a meager ratio of women at managerial positions as compared to men, it shows the slow and uneven progress rate of women because the glass ceiling still keeps women away from the top management positions.

In the modern corporate world, men are still referred as the default business leaders that affirm the “think manager, think male” mindset and senior managers often apply gender stereotypes to leadership that confirmed women as “take care” and men as “take charge” (Cuadrado *et al.*, 2015). Women represented 24 percent of the top management positions across the globe in 2016 with an increase of just 3 percent from 2011, while one third (33 percent) of the corporations had no women at the senior managerial positions which did not change since 2011 (Thornton, 2016). Therefore, according to Thornton (2016), at this rate of change, it is not possible to get equality with men until 2060, as the earlier worldwide survey conducted by the International Labor Organisation in 2000-2002 found that women’s overall representation on the managerial positions in 48 countries was between 20-40 percent.

In the world, on an average 24 percent women achieved senior management positions while in the US, over a third (39.2 percent) of managers were women in 2015 and women achieved 23 percent of the top management levels in 2016. Furthermore, in the US, 31 percent of organizations did not appoint any women at the senior managerial positions (Thornton, 2016). The data gathered by the Australian government showed that men in Australia dominate most of the senior management positions. In 2015-2016 women held only a third (37.4 percent) of all the managerial positions in Australia (40.8 percent of non-senior managers; 34.1 percent of senior managers; 30.1 percent of other executives/general managers; 28.5 percent of key management personnel; 16.3 percent of Chief Executive Officers/Heads of Business). However, in Canada, women also accounted for a third (35.1 percent) of all managers and only 31.8 percent of senior managers in 2015 (Statistics Canada, 2016). On the other hand, in the United Kingdom, women’s representation at the senior management positions (21 percent) has slightly

declined from the previous year (22 percent), and over one third (36 percent) of UK companies had no women at the senior positions (Thornton, 2016).

Further, Japan in 2003, set an objective to appoint 30 percent women at the senior management positions by 2020, but as of 2015, only 3.5 percent of women were directors at government headquarters, and with regard to the private organizations, women accounted for 17 percent of section chiefs, 9.8 percent of directors and 6.2 percent of department managers. Overall, just 7 percent of women occupied senior management positions, and most of the organizations (73 percent) had no women at the senior management (Thornton, 2016). According to Grant Thornton's ranking, Russia topped among all the countries in terms of the high visibility of women at leadership positions, as women held almost half (45 percent) of the senior positions in 2016. Additionally, in Italy, more than a quarter (29 percent) of women represented senior management positions, but Ireland (19 percent), the Netherlands (18 percent) and Germany (15 percent) performed lower than the global average (24 percent) in 2016.

The data regarding 'share of women in management jobs' showed the increased rate of women's representation at managerial positions in the countries of Eastern Europe, North America and South America as compared to the countries of Middle East, East Asia, and South Asia. According to the European Board Women Monitor survey, in 11 European countries, the percentage of women board directors were 8 percent, varying from 2 percent in Italy, up to 22 percent in Norway. Additionally, in European governments, women's representation is increasing gradually. Women's participation in European national governments has risen by about 0.7 percent per year since 2004. However, among the European Union (EU-28) listed companies, only 15 percent of the executives and 5 percent of Chief Executive Officers were women (European Commission, 2016).

Therefore, according to this scenario, women's career advancement is very slow due to various complex factors. Diverse actions have been taken to break the glass ceiling for women; one strategy found very useful that most of the nations have implemented, is the imposition of the Norwegian model. Since January 1, 2006, Norway's government

has reserved quotas under which either the top 500 publicly traded organizations have to fill 40 percent of their top leadership positions with women or be out-listed. Furthermore, France has imposed a 20 percent quota for women at senior management positions, while Spain decided to give preferential treatment to firms who appoint more women on their boards.

1.7.2 Women's Scenario in the Indian Context

In India, the women's situation is improving because a number of females are attaining high levels of education not only in general fields but also in technical and professional streams. As the educational level of women is increasing in all the streams, the number of women in workforce participation has also increased, but as compared to men, the ratio is quite low. In India, the rate of women employees at the lower level is 25 percent, at the middle level is 16 percent, but at the senior management positions, there is a sharp drop to 4 percent (Business Standard Report, 2015). Further, out of 323 total executive directorship positions (requirement of Chief Executive Officer position) in the Bombay Stock Exchange, only eight (2.5 percent) positions are achieved by the women, and 54 percent of the companies listed in Bombay Stock Exchange has no woman as a board director. However, the technology, media, and telecommunications industries have the maximum number of females on the boards (Deloitte, 2015).

In 2015, a study on 240 large Indian and multinational companies identified that women attained only 11 percent of the positions as Chief Executive Officers, while in 2016, a survey conducted by Grand Thornton highlighted that in India women occupy 16 percent (24 percent globally) of the top managerial positions (Thornton, 2016). However, the recent survey accomplished by Business Standard (2018), reported that only 25 percent of India's workforce is women and the antecedents for the gender gap includes gender inequality at work and in the society. Therefore, there are still some areas where India's statistics lag in comparisons, such as physical security and autonomy, legal protection, political voice, and women's role in essential services. However, India is one of the countries along with the Hong Kong, Philippines, Sweden, and Taiwan in which

women's participation is increasing at the managerial levels. In India, women achieving the positions at the executive levels in leading companies both listed and privately held are growing. However, as compared to the global average (24 percent), India's performance is much below since Indian woman occupies only 15 percent of the senior managerial positions in private companies. Overall, women attain 7.7 percent of board seats and only 2.7 percent of board chairs.

A study by Confederation of Indian Industry covered 149 large and medium-sized organizations across various provinces. The findings demonstrated that the women comprised 16 percent of the junior/entry management levels, four percent women occupied the middle and senior management levels but only one percent of organizational leadership positions (Chief Executive Officers) were represented by women, which is very less. According to the Business Standard Report (2018), there has been a steady growth in women at the leadership positions from 14 percent in 2014, 17 percent in 2017 to 20 percent in 2018. Although the women's representation in senior management positions is increasing, the process is quite slow. Therefore, it is evident from the above discussion that as compared to the world's average, India still lacks in women's representation at the managerial levels. Moreover, it is tough to believe that though the women represented 48 percent of the total Indian population (Census, 2011), 48 percent of the marginal workers and 17 percent of the primary workers but have achieved only 2-4 percent of leadership or senior management positions. This inconsistency signifies the relevance of "glass ceiling" that Indian women experience or face during their career advancement.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter explained various variables used in the study. The concept of the glass ceiling, glass ceiling for women, four consequences of the study, i.e., occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and career obstacles, and the moderators (organizational justice and social support) that influence the relationship of GCW and its consequences have been elucidated. The chapter also discussed the Indian service sector,

i.e., the banking industry, the IT industry, and the hospitality industry. Additionally, the women representation at the senior management level of the selected banks, IT firms and hotels are discussed in detail, that points toward a maximum of three women on the board of directors (only in case of ICICI and Infosys). According to Section 149(1) of Companies Act 2013, and Regulation 17(1) of SEBI Regulations 2015, “every listed company and every other public company having paid-up share capital of at least Rs.100 crore or turnover of at least Rs.300 crore shall appoint at least one woman director”. Therefore, this is due to regulatory compulsion, otherwise, companies still lack in appointing women as directors in equal numbers, when compared to men. Further, the overall representation of women at the managerial positions in the global and Indian context has also been explained. Therefore, the study aims to examine the significance of the glass ceiling for women in the service sector.

CHAPTER - 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The existing literature on the glass ceiling, both in the western and Indian context, has been extensively referred to identify the research gaps and formalize the objectives and methodologies for this research study. The review of literature has focused on three main aspects of the research topic namely the ‘assessment of glass ceiling’, ‘impact of glass ceiling on the level of occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions and women’s career progression’, and the ‘role of moderators on the relationship of glass ceiling and its consequences’. This chapter is devoted to addressing the aspects mentioned above. The secondary data collected from various national and international journals, book chapters, published reports and the internet, have been analyzed and the gaps in previous studies are identified to determine the need of the present research work.

2.1 Existence of the Glass Ceiling

The prevalence of the glass ceiling has been identified by various researchers. A study by **Hara (2018)** on full-time employees working in the Japanese organizations indicated that the glass ceiling, as well as the sticky floor, existed in the Japanese organizations for more than 25 years. ‘Gendered job segregation system’ was found as the reason for sticky floor and women managers faced glass ceiling due to ‘gender promotion gap’ and ‘swimming upstream’ phenomenon. Another study on the educational sector by **Yousaf and Schmiede (2017)** explored the various barriers that contributed to the glass ceiling. The data were gathered from 450 faculty members serving in the public and private universities of Lahore. The study revealed personal barriers (lack of leadership qualities, unsuitable to the image of masculine leaders and preference of lower-level jobs), organisational barriers (lack of opportunity networks, preference of male leader and sexual harassment) and societal barriers (family, parenting, inadequate support at home and cultural stereotypes) as the main factors responsible for

the prevalence of glass ceiling. Further, **Sever (2016)** studied the perception of males and females employed in the public and private sector, regarding the glass ceiling among 651 employees of Turkey. The study found that the women confronted the glass ceiling at a high level as compared to men and women appeared to accept this phenomenon rather than struggle with it. The study also identified various predictors/factors that influenced the intensity of glass ceiling concept in the organizations for the women employees such as gender, designation, additional income, promotion anticipations and marital status.

In the same line, **Darshan and Dubey (2014)** determined the presence of the glass ceiling. The study was conducted on a total of 100 employees including males and females, serving in Indore (India) city's educational institutes. The study took different variables (such as 'unequal participation of both categories of gender in management,' 'insufficient opportunities for women to motivate them for senior management positions' and 'unequal career development opportunities') that were regressed on the glass ceiling variable. The results of the study showed 73 percent variance in the glass ceiling explained by the independent variables. Additionally, the study found discrimination in terms of employment and salary that affirmed the existence of the glass ceiling, which raises the barriers and thwarts women from achieving the top leadership positions. So, the results found that the glass ceiling in the educational sector prevails at a very high level that needs to be razed by providing women career progression opportunities and implementation of positive organizational practices in terms of equal opportunities for all. Another study by **Shakir and Siddiqui (2014)**, explored the prevalence of the glass ceiling in the service and manufacturing industry of Pakistan and investigated the relation between several independent variables (education, experience, family responsibilities, queen bee effect, self selection, sponsorship effect, women's communication style and women's strategies) and a dependent variable i.e. glass ceiling. The study showed 39 percent correlation between the independent and dependent variable, and the value of R^2 showed 15.5 percent variance in the glass ceiling. The study discovered that the Pakistani organizations did not create any gender-based obstruction in the women's career progression while women's communication style at work, women's strategies and self-

selection (their judgment to select or leave the job) influenced their way to the senior management positions in the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, the results showed that the women faced barriers in career advancement due to their strategies to socialize, their communication style at work and their preference to employ at such professions that did not have enough scope for promotions.

Kiaye and Singh (2013) also examined the prevalence of glass ceiling in Durban organizations and identified various barriers (personal, situational and social) that obstructed the women's advancement to top management positions, through a survey on 117 MBA students of University of KwaZulu-Natal. The study found that most of the respondents were fairly evaluated (74 percent) as 70 percent respondents acquired equal career opportunities, 59 percent experienced gender equality and 53 percent of the respondents were assigned to the senior management positions. However, in terms of situational barriers, respondents experienced lack of recognition (53 percent), lack of support (59 percent) and lack of respect (78 percent), similarly, in social barriers, 40 percent of the married women were not willing to relocate only because of family responsibilities even though they aspired promotion. The study concluded that some factors of situational barriers and social barriers of the glass ceiling existed, that hinder the women's progression while personal barriers were not found as the reason for the occurrence of the glass ceiling in Durban organizations. Another study on the educational sector of India by **Sharma et al. (2011)**, identified the prevalence and significant differences regarding the glass ceiling based on their demographic profile (age, gender, and type of institution). The data were collected from 234 teachers serving in various B.Ed. Colleges of education, i.e., aided, government, and self-financing established in the Haryana state (Rohtak, Sonapat, Bhiwani, Jhajjar, Faridabad, and Gurgaon). The results showed that as compared to men, women got stuck at their positions, were over-represented at lower positions, and experienced biases. Additionally, both men and women agreed that despite equivalent qualification like men, women have to compete more, cultural expectations affected their role in the society and women rejected the opportunities of senior management positions. Further, respondents from self-financing

colleges confirmed the existence of salary discrimination, and all the respondents affirmed that women were over-represented at lower positions and faced more difficulty in being promoted to the senior management positions. Therefore, the study concluded that the majority of the respondents from all types of colleges and qualifications confirmed the prevalence of glass ceiling in terms of salary and employment differentiation that prevent women from reaching at managerial positions.

According to **Sampson and Moore (2008)**, glass ceiling also prevails in the New England in terms of wage disparity and women were less promoted on senior-level positions even with the same education and experience as men. The study conducted on 970 (male=170; female=800) professionals found that the majority of women received \$45,000 to \$60,000 salary as against men who received a salary from \$90,000 to \$120,000, while women who got higher salary ranges, dropped quickly. In the study, most of the women got less paying administrative jobs and they did not progress on high managerial positions with such designations as assistant vice president, chief development officer, executive director and vice president, but men held top management positions in high proportion than women. In contrast, **Rana (2007)** concluded that women did not face the glass ceiling as a barrier. The study analyzed the perception of 100 women working in the private organizations of Pokhara (Nepal) regarding the glass ceiling. The results identified that women did not feel glass ceiling in terms of 'behavior of male colleagues with women,' 'insights of role conflict,' 'role of family members in women's career advancement' and 'willingness of women to career advancement.'

To examine the reality of the glass ceiling phenomenon, **Babita (2006)** investigated the under-representation of women at the top managerial positions of the retail banks of South Africa. Qualitative data were obtained from 40 women managers in the form of interview. The study affirmed the existence of advancement barriers for women in the organizations that led towards the glass ceiling. Therefore, women managers considered the glass ceiling as real and various factors, i.e. 'organizational culture,' 'organizational policies' and 'women's inefficiencies' were identified as significant barriers. However, the researcher recommended that women's efforts towards

their academic as well as career development and supportive organizational culture could shatter down the glass ceiling. Another study on the banking sector by **Jamali et al. (2006)** discovered the concept of the glass ceiling in terms of various barriers among 61 senior and middle managerial level women working in twelve different Lebanese banks. The findings of the study suggested that the women managers did not agree on the general principles of glass ceiling theory because Lebanese women managers experienced overall favorable inferences regarding the work environment and daily work incidents. Therefore, results demonstrated the progressive evolution of the Lebanese banking sector.

According to **Budhwar et al. (2005)**, the literacy levels and the position of women is improving due to economic and social growth in India. A qualitative study conducted on six women identified that the women comprised 45 percent of the high tech labor force that made them an essential part in the extension of the Indian software industry and a number of women are employed in the education sector and BPO (business process outsourcing) industry. Additionally, the study reported that more than 60 percent of women employees are working in Pepsi and ICICI that is enough to justify the representation of women in the workforce. **Tai and Sims (2005)** studied the gender discrimination in the positions acquired in high tech companies of USA. The study aimed to identify the impact of gender on positions held, differences in the feeling of equitable treatment, and differences in the barriers to advancement among males and females. The data were collected from 318 (male=177; female=141) employees working in seven high technology companies. The study did not find any significant differences in males and females education, in the feeling of equal treatment and barriers to advancement while differences were found in the designation of male and female employees as 23 percent female employees held supervisory positions and 27 percent of male employees held middle/upper management positions. The study had an interesting finding that women despite an equal level of education and experience as men, were less likely to hold senior managerial positions that pointed towards the existence of the glass ceiling in the

organizations. However, due to the subtleness of it, women did not see any discrimination in treatment and advancement opportunities that made them overlook these biases.

In support with the previous study, **Jeavons and Sevastos (2003)** found that as compared to the male managers, female managers had to frequently prove themselves to be taken seriously and attain promotion, while in the perception of the male managers, women managers were treated equally. Qualitative data demonstrated that women's job level was lower than their qualifications and men's job level. Therefore, the study concluded that despite similar rates of progression, women were not promoted as men that confirmed the prevalence of glass ceiling which affected the women's career progression. **Jackson (2001)** also revealed the prevalence of glass ceiling in organizations among women working at middle-level positions in terms of lack of career advancement opportunities and lack of support from the organization. In their study, **Lyness and Thompson (2000)** identified the differences among 69 male and female executives in the way of climbing the corporate ladder by examining 'career histories,' 'facilitators of advancement,' 'perceived barriers' and 'self-reported developmental experiences.' The results found that as compared to men, women experienced more significant barriers, such as 'exclusion from informal networks', 'undeveloped relationships to facilitate advancement', 'more importance of good track record', 'lack of culture fit' and 'less facilitators of advancement' while insignificant differences were found among men and women regarding 'developmental experiences' and 'career histories'. According to **Brett and Stroh (1999)**, women managers are still far behind men in terms of advancement opportunities, mobility and salary. In their study, researchers associated the concept of the glass ceiling to the deliberate advancement of women versus men by gathering data from 1000 male and female managers and confirmed gender discrimination. Another supporting study by **Veale and Gold (1998)**, conducted on the women managers of Metropolitan District Council situated in the UK, affirmed the prevalence of glass ceiling that prevented women from attaining senior managerial positions.

Table 2.1: Summary of Studies on the Existence of the Glass Ceiling

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) studied	Major Findings
Hara (2018)	Japan	147 Women managers	Glass ceiling-organizational factors	Existence of the glass ceiling due to 'gender promotion gap' and 'swimming upstream' phenomenon.
Yousaf and Schmiede (2017)	Lahore	450 faculty members	Barriers to women's representation	Prevalence of glass ceiling due to personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers.
Sever (2016)	Turkey	651 employees	Glass ceiling	Women confronted glass ceiling syndrome and appeared to accept it rather than struggle with it.
Darshan and Dubey (2014)	Lahore	100 teachers	Glass ceiling	Employment and salary discrimination affirmed the existence of the glass ceiling at high levels.
Shakir and Siddiqui (2014)	Pakistan	520 Service & manufacturing employees	Glass ceiling	Glass ceiling prevailed due to personal barriers.
Kiaye and Singh (2013)	Durban	117 women managers	Glass ceiling	Situational barriers and social barriers of the glass ceiling existed, but personal barriers did not.
Sharma <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Haryana	234 teachers	Glass ceiling	Prevalence of glass ceiling in terms of salary and employment differentiation
Sampson and Moore (2008)	New England	970 professionals	Glass ceiling for women	Glass ceiling existed in terms of salary disparity and biased promotions.
Rana (2007)	Pokhara, Nepal	100 women managers	Glass ceiling	Glass ceiling did not exist for women.
Babita (2006)	South Africa	40 bank employees	Glass ceiling	Existence of advancement barriers for women in the organizations that led towards the glass ceiling
Jamali <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Lebanese	61 bank employees	Glass ceiling	Glass ceiling did not exist for women.
Budhwar <i>et al.</i> (2005)	India	Six women	Barriers to women's movement	Increase in literacy levels and the position of women is getting much better due to economic and social growth.
Tai and Sims (2005)	USA	318 employees of technology companies	Glass ceiling	Despite equal education and experience as men, women were less likely to hold senior positions, which mean glass ceiling existed.

Jeavons and Sevastos (2003)	India	750 employees	Glass ceiling, career progression	Despite similar rates of progression, women were not promoted as men that confirmed the prevalence of glass ceiling.
Jackson (2001)	USA	195 Women managers	Glass ceiling	Existence of glass ceiling in terms of lack of career advancement opportunities and lack of support from the organization.
Lyness and Thompson (2000)	Canada	69 executives	Perceived barriers	Women experienced higher barriers as compared to men.
Brett and Stroh (1999)	Chicago	100 male managers	Glass ceiling- Gender discrimination	Existence of the glass ceiling in terms of gender discrimination.
Veale and Gold (1998)	UK	180 Women managers	Glass ceiling	Prevalence of glass ceiling.

2.2 Barriers Contributing to the Glass Ceiling

To investigate various barriers that lead to the glass ceiling, **Segovia-Perez *et al.* (2019)** identified that at an individual level, women created barriers to their career advancement in terms of self-perception and self-imposed barriers, while, at the organizational level ‘stereotyping’ was predicted as a relevant factor in women’s career obstacles, because stereotyping process led to a dichotomy perception among men and women leadership styles and their effectiveness. Additionally, women behaved like women, but the traditionally female behavior was not considered desirable at the leadership positions. In their study, **Cimirotic *et al.* (2017)** identified self-reported obstacles and difficulties that women executives faced in their career advancement and also highlighted supporting factors that help them to reach their current position. The data were collected from ten women executives through semi-structured interviews (face-to-face) working in management accounting departments of Austrian firms, and general inductive approach was used to analyze the interview transcripts. The results of the study identified ‘motherhood’, ‘working time’ and ‘work-life imbalance’ as significant difficulties that women executives faced. Further, ‘ambition’, ‘luck’, ‘professional

expertise', 'social skills', 'partners' support' and 'superiors' support' were classified as leading factors contributing to women's career advancement. According to **Fernandez and Campero (2017)**, along with internal promotion biases, 'external recruitment' and 'hiring processes' are also responsible for the existence of the glass ceiling. The study was conducted on 441 small and medium-sized high tech firms and study provided evidence that glass ceiling prevailed due to both internal and external hiring processes. Additionally, the study found that as compared to men, women were appointed on lower-level jobs, and they faced biases in screening.

Yousaf and Schmiede (2016) identified the various reasons for women's under-representation in positions of power and academic excellence in academia. The study was conducted on 451 women faculty members employed in public, private and public-private universities. The results showed that women in universities experienced 'harassment' throughout the hierarchal level that hindered them from climbing the hierarchical scale. Therefore, the glass ceiling existed due to harassment in the workplace. The study by **Plessis et al. (2015)** identified the barriers that women experienced at managerial levels in the banking sector. A total of 68 respondents working in Vietnamese banking were studied. The results supported the prevalence of glass ceiling in the banking industry and found various factors that contribute in the existence of the glass ceiling such as social stereotypes, insufficient organizational support, lack of confidence and family responsibilities. In supporting, **Agier and Szafarz (2013)** studied 34,000 loan applications of male and female from a Brazilian microfinance institution. The results of the study detected that the most favorable loan size fixed by a gender-bias lender depends upon borrower's creditworthiness and the intensity of the lender's bias. Therefore, the study did not find gender bias in loan rejection while uncovered disparate treatment regarding credit conditions and the gender gap in loan size increased significantly that pointed towards the glass ceiling. According to **Cochran et al. (2013)**, as compared to men, women surgeons perceived various barriers in academic careers. The study was done on 154 surgeons (women=70; men=84) and identified that women surgeons experienced gender as a barrier and active discrimination in terms of

'differential treatment', 'gender-based negative attitudes' and 'negative comments about their gender' that hindered the women surgeons' career aspirations. However, the study did not show significant differences among men and women regarding career preparation or structural barriers.

The research conducted on the Indian banking sector by **Kumar and Sunder (2012)**, explored various barriers obstructing women executives from better performance and career aspirations, employed in public sector commercial banks of Pondicherry. The results showed that different variables contributed to the problems experienced by the women executives and all such variables prevented women executives from occupying higher posts viz., 'physical strain' (contributed 34 per cent), 'exploitation due to submissive nature of women executives' (32 per cent), and 'dealing with ignorant customers' (12 per cent). The study also identified 'fear of transfer that disturbed family life and domestic peace' and 'combining domestic work and office work' as major barriers/problems that blocked the women's career growth. In the same line, another study on India by **Jain and Mukherji (2010)** explored the perception of men about the reality of glass ceiling along with various factors that were responsible for the hindrance of women's career development in the Indian corporate world. The data were collected from 100 male respondents working in different industries such as information technology, power, automotive, telecom, manufacturing, financial services, and advertising industries of Delhi, Ghaziabad, Faridabad, Gurgaon, and Noida. The results of the study demonstrated that according to men, women faced career interruptions due to child and family responsibilities and they did not have the conducive environment at their workplace for career advancement though they were ambitious, challenge liking and sufficiently competitive. On the other hand, men also stated that women were indecisive, weak, unsuitable for managerial positions, unwilling to relocate and unwilling to make sacrifices to retain top positions. Hence, Indian men contradicted the reality of the glass ceiling.

Abidin et al. (2009) discovered the obstacles in women progression at a certain level in the organizations among 100 female accounting graduates of University

Technology MARA. The study identified only three percent of women who have smashed the glass ceiling and were employed at the top management positions. However, not even a single woman held senior position in big organizations due to five leading factors that affect the career progression of women i.e. commitment, culture, social, structure and task, and among them 'governance of organizations (structure)' was illustrated as the major factor (explained 20 per cent of the total variance) for women's career barriers. According to **Elacqua et al. (2009)**, as compared to men, women rarely gain senior management positions in their organization. The study was done on 691 managers (470 men; 221 women) working in the Midwestern insurance company and found a strong relationship between differential treatment towards women and glass ceiling perceptions. Further, the study identified interpersonal issues and situational issues as the barriers that led to glass ceiling perceptions while situational issues were found to be a critical factor of the glass ceiling as compared to interpersonal issues. Therefore, the study concluded the existence of the glass ceiling for women, but women experienced it more as compared to men. Another study by **Sujatha (2008)** investigated the different factors that ruined women's career advancement in organizations. The data were collected from 440 (males=215 and females=226) executives working in the private sector operating in the cities of India viz., Bangalore, Bombay, Calcutta, Chennai, Delhi, and Hyderabad. The study identified that 75 percent of the organizations had more than 60 percent of male dominance, and 1.4 percent of the organizations had only male employees. Additionally, the study found six barriers to women's advancement viz., depersonalization processes, family pressures, managerial stereotypes, normative pressures, space for private lives, maternity leave, work and family imbalance and structural barriers.

To determine various barriers in the women's promotion, **Jones and Oppenheim (2002)** researched the UK library profession with a sample size of 187 librarians (male=151; female=36). The study did not find 'lack of qualifications' as a barrier to women's progression, because in the study men and women had equal academic qualifications as 87 percent of the women possessed A level education as compared to 89

percent of the men and got an equal percentage in the postgraduate degree. However, 'domestic responsibilities' appeared as a key barrier to women's progression in libraries as 74 percent of the women took a break from career due to children nurturing. Further, 51 percent of women stated that taking a break certainly affected their career because with the children they preferred part-time work in which they did not get the opportunity to attend training courses that were mostly held outside. Therefore, the study suggested that for most of the women, personal barriers were responsible for the existence of the glass ceiling because they had to choose between career advancement and career break for the sake of children and their husband's job for which numerous women had to prefer the family needs before their career ambitions. The study also concluded that not all women wanted to move at the senior managerial positions as 35 percent of them were found to be satisfied at their current designation in the organization which suggested that with the children responsibility, women had to face specific barriers in advancement in the LIS (Librarianship and Information Science) sector. In another study, **Van Vianen and Fischer (2002)** analyzed the perception of men and women about the barriers to career progression among 327 and 350 women working in private and public organizations, respectively. The study perceived strong inclinations for masculine culture at the managerial level from men and women respondents. Furthermore, as compared to men, the study identified women as less ambitious while ambitious women experienced work-home conflict in their career progression.

In their study on public administration of Bangladesh, **Habib (2000)** considered various barriers of the glass ceiling. The results of the study found that from entry-level to senior management level, women faced discrimination in Bangladesh's civil services, which demonstrated the existence of the glass ceiling. Social and cultural factors were identified as major blocks that construct a wall in front of women that prevent them from entering into civil services, however systematic and attitudinal reasons were also found as obstacles and government laws and regulations proved unsuccessful to raze it. In the same regard, **Lyness and Judiesch (1999)** studied 30,996 managers and gathered data on human capital variables and personnel moves over three years. The findings of the study

did not indicate any gender biases in overall promotions. However, for the variable ‘designation’ study indicated that as compared to men, women at senior levels received lesser promotions than women working at the lower positions in the organizations. In their study, **Koshal and Gupta (1998)** identified the glass ceiling for Malaysian women and cultural barriers in women’s career progression that obstructed them from moving into the senior management positions. The findings of the study showed that approximately 40 percent men and women agreed on the prevalence of significant barriers in the women’s progression such as ‘women had to work harder than men to prove themselves’ and ‘salary disparity’ in their organizations since the organizations lacked in encouraging women to hold senior management positions. The study also identified some other barriers, responsible for the obstacles in women’s career progression viz., ‘commitment to family responsibilities’, ‘exclusion of women from an informal communication network’, ‘lack of business experience’, and ‘male stereotyping’.

According to **Groot and Van Den Brink (1996)**, there is a difference in the promotion rate of males and females at senior management jobs. Researchers obtained data from the British Household Panel Survey from 1991 to 1992, and the study concluded that women were absent at positions that offered advancement opportunities. Though, once the women got promoted at those positions, no significant difference was found in the rate of promotions in males and females. Therefore, the findings of the study suggested the lack of women at senior management positions because organizations did not select women for jobs that offered advancement. Further, **Simon (1996)** analyzed 211 (male=32; female=179) librarians and identified that as compared to men (17 percent), women (51 percent) firmly believed in the existence of the ‘glass ceiling.’ The study identified number of barriers that prevent women from achieving top management jobs and that were: ‘inadequate assistance’, ‘lack of assertiveness’, ‘lack of commitment’, ‘lack of interest’, ‘lack of self-promotion’, ‘lack of service image of the profession’, ‘masculine organisational culture’, ‘maternity leave’ and ‘women’s own lack of agency’. Therefore, the study suggested that most of the barriers to women’s career advancement

in librarianship were the result of their own making. **Naff (1994)** also examined the differential treatment among middle and senior-level employees and senior executives in the organizations. The study was conducted on 8400 employees and the results of the study reported a significant confirmation for the existence of the glass ceiling. Additionally, the study found ‘women’s unwillingness to relocate’ and ‘unwillingness to work late’ as the particular barriers when they had children. Therefore, these barriers were identified as evidence of stereotypes that emitted doubt on women’s abilities to perform at their workplace.

Table 2.2: Summary of Studies on Barriers Contributing to the Glass Ceiling

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) Studied	Major Findings
Segovia-Perez <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA	154 women managers	Glass ceiling	At the individual level, self-perceptions and self-imposed barriers, while, at the organizational level, ‘stereotyping’ predicted as a relevant factor in women’ career obstacles.
Cimirotic <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Austria	Ten women executives	Obstacles and supporting factors	The factors such as ‘motherhood,’ ‘working time’ and ‘work-life imbalance’ found as major barriers for women.
Fernandez and Campero (2017)	Canada	441 employees of tech companies	Glass ceiling-organizational barriers	Glass ceiling prevailed due to both internal and external hiring processes.
Yousaf and Schmiede (2016)	Pakistan	451 women faculty members	Glass ceiling-harassment	Glass ceiling existed due to harassment at the workplace.
Plessis <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Vietnam	68 bank employees	Glass ceiling	Social stereotypes, insufficient organizational support, lack of confidence, and family responsibilities led to the glass ceiling.
Agier and Szafarz (2013)	Brazil	34,000 loan applications	Glass ceiling-gender gap	‘Uncovered disparate treatment’ regarding credit conditions and ‘gender gap’ in loan size pointed towards the glass ceiling.

Cochran <i>et al.</i> (2013)	US	154 surgeons	Organizational barriers	Active discrimination in terms of 'differential treatment,' 'gender-based negative attitudes' and 'negative comments about their gender' was found.
Kumar and Sunder (2012)	Pondicherry	104 women executives	Organizational and societal barriers	'Fear of transfer that disturbs family life and domestic peace,' and 'combining domestic work with office work' as major barriers.
Jain and Mukherji (2010)	India	100 employees	Glass ceiling	Personal, organizational, and societal barriers predicted the existence of the glass ceiling.
Abidin <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Malaysia	100 accounting graduates	Barriers to women's advancement	Not a single woman held a senior position in big organizations due to commitment, culture, social, structure and task.
Elacqua <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Midwestern	691 insurance managers	Glass ceiling	Interpersonal issues and situational issues as the barriers that led to the glass ceiling.
Sujatha (2008)	India	440 executives	Barriers to women's career	Depersonalization processes, family pressures, managerial stereotypes, normative pressures, space for private lives, maternity leave, and work and family imbalance identified as barriers.
Jones and Oppenheim (2002)	UK	187 librarians	Glass ceiling	Personal and societal barriers found as the reason for the glass ceiling.
Van Vianen and Fischer (2002)	Netherland	327; 350 employees	Career progression	Masculine culture in the organization, less ambitious, work-home conflict identified as obstructions to career progression.
Habib (2000)	Bangladesh	300 Public administrators	Women's career growth	Social and cultural factors and attitudinal reasons found as obstacles in women's career growth.
Lyness and Judiesch (1999)	New York	30,996 managers	Organizational factors	As compared to men, women at senior levels received lesser promotions than women working at lower positions in the organizations.
Koshal and Gupta (1998)	Malaysia	135 executives	Organizational barriers	'Women had to work harder than men to prove themselves,' 'salary disparity' and 'lack of encouragement

				provided by organizations to women' to hold senior management positions.
Groot and Van Den Brink (1996)	US	3147 employees	Glass ceiling-organizational factors	Glass ceiling existed because organizations did not select women for jobs that offered advancement.
Simon (1996)	Australia	211 librarians	Glass ceiling	Personal barriers contributed to the glass ceiling for women.
Naff (1994)	San Francisco	8400 executives	Glass ceiling	Personal barriers identified as evidence of stereotypes that emitted doubt on women's abilities to perform at their workplace.

2.3 Impact of the Glass Ceiling on Occupational Stress, Work Engagement and Turnover Intentions

Although there have been numerous publications on occupational stress, work engagement, and turnover intention, there is lack of empirical data collected on the direct relationship between gender differences and these consequences, with regard to the glass ceiling. **Fei et al. (2017)** investigated the antecedents of occupational stress and also examined the relationship between barriers to career advancement, work-family conflict and organizational social support towards occupational stress among 285 women managers in Malaysia. The results of the study showed a significant positive relationship between barriers to career achievement, work-family conflict, and occupational stress among women managers while the relationship with organizational social support was predicted as insignificant. Further, **Imam et al. (2014)** identified the impact of the glass ceiling in terms of gender discrimination on job stress among 140 employees (70 men; 70 women) of the banking sector of Pakistan. The results of the study showed that glass ceiling in terms of gender discrimination moderately positively correlated with job stress and study depicted that with the increase of glass ceiling (gender discrimination), job stress also increased among the employees of the banking sector of Pakistan. Further, the study also identified a positive impact of the glass ceiling (gender discrimination) on job stress. In their study, **Khalid and Aroosh (2014)** revealed the concept of gender

discrimination in the workplace and identified its impact on women employees' performance and organizational commitment in the banking sector of Pakistan. The study included 166 male and female bank employees. Regression analysis showed a very weak impact of gender discrimination on women's performance, and organizational commitment, that is, .01 and .02, respectively. Therefore, the study concluded that gender discrimination did not have much impact on women's performance and organizational commitment. **Thomas et al. (2014)** analyzed the effects of gender on employee job satisfaction among 961 supervisors (males=572 and females=389) of U.S. based casino-entertainment sector. The study did not find any statistical significance difference in the company and department satisfaction based on supervisors' gender, therefore, neither the company nor the department satisfaction was affected due to the leader's gender. However, a significant difference was found in supervisor satisfaction levels between employees with male vs. female supervisors, where employees with their male supervisor indicated a higher supervisor satisfaction score. Therefore, the results of the study identified that the male supervisors received slightly higher subordinate satisfaction levels over female supervisors.

In another study, **Dost et al. (2012)** investigated the difference between the performance of committed employees and lower committed employees through the glass ceiling in private and public sector organizations of Rawalpindi and Islamabad (Pakistan) among 336 employees from various departments such as audit and accountancy, human resources, information technology and technical departments. The results of the study showed that glass ceiling moderately affected the level of employees' commitment. Additionally, the glass ceiling and employees' commitment were identified as interrelated to each other that suggested that with the decrease in the glass ceiling, employees' commitment level would be increased in public and private sector organizations. Another study by **Kanwar et al. (2012)**, examined the impact of gender on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intent among 313 respondents (male=218; female=95) chosen from six different organizations of the IT and ITES industries, hailing from the National Capital Region (Delhi, India). Results showed the

male employees to be more satisfied than the female employees as female employees had more conflicting roles, family responsibilities, family structure, mobility constraints, social expectations, and work-life imbalance, that made it difficult for them to manage the family and job responsibilities together, and led to lower satisfaction and higher turnover intention. However, the study did not find any significant difference in male and female employees regarding organizational commitment.

The study on work engagement by **Smith *et al.* (2012)**, explored the relationship between women's glass ceiling beliefs (acceptance, denial, resignation, and resilience) and subjective career success (career satisfaction, happiness, psychological well-being, physical health, and work engagement) among 258 women working in Australian organizations. The results of the study found the positive relation of resilience with work engagement and happiness. Also, denial had a positive association with career satisfaction and work engagement. On the other hand, acceptance had a negative relation with work engagement and resignation had a negative relation with happiness, psychological well-being, and physical wellbeing while the study did not find any significant relationship between resignation and work engagement. To conclude, the study found significant relationships between each of the glass ceiling factors and subjective success. In their study, **Channer *et al.* (2011)** explored the concept of gender discrimination in the organizations and impact on the stress level of employees. Data collected from 526 lower, middle, and higher category employees of public and private health and education departments of Hyderabad and Jamshoro districts. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to find a small positive correlation between the two gender discrimination and stress level that signified, with the increase in gender discrimination, the stress level of employees would be increased.

Ozer and Gunluk (2010) examined the link between perceived discrimination and turnover intention in public accounting firms. Data were obtained from 240 members (males=70 percent; females=30 percent) of the accounting profession operating in various districts of Turkey and demonstrated that with the increase in perceived discrimination, the turnover intention would also be increased. The study also concluded

that as compared to males, females left the organizations very certainly due to career-related concerns. In their study, **Ronald *et al.* (2010)** identified the correlation between organizational practices (designed to support women's career development) and women's work attitudes, satisfaction level, and psychological well-being. The study was conducted on 286 women working on the managerial and professional jobs of Turkish bank and identified five organizational practices, i.e., career barriers, equal treatment, male standards, negative attitudes towards women, and support. Although, women in the study reported more supportive organizational practices, were more engaged in their work, more job and career satisfied, and indicated higher levels of psychological well-being. To study the gender discrimination and stress levels, **Dowler and Arai (2008)** studied 1,104 Canadian police officers and found differences in men and women officers' expectations and experiences regarding the nature and level of gender discrimination. Further, men officers stated that women were treated more leniently by administration while women officers experienced gender-related jokes. The results also revealed that as compared to women, men officers with higher education and social support from family/friends experienced low levels of stress.

In their study, **Gunavathy and Suganya (2007)** declared organizational and personal factors as the reason for work-life imbalance. The organizational factors included 'relationship-related factors,' 'time-related factors,' and 'work-related factors.' The personal factors included 'frequent change in sleeping patterns,' 'lack of family support' and 'marital conflicts.' The results of the study also identified that the women employees suffered from stress, burnout, ill-health and poor work performance due to work-life imbalance as women employees experienced the guilt of not being able to spend time with family and anxiety about poor performance. The study on university teachers in the US, **Okpara *et al.* (2005)** investigated the impact of gender differences in the level of job satisfaction. Out of 560 respondents (male=60 percent; female=40 percent), 46 percent were assistant professors, 33 percent were associate professors, and 21 percent were professors. Results of the study showed significant gender differences as female teachers earned less and were less satisfied with their pay as well as supervisors

than their male colleagues. The findings implied various factors that female teachers experienced such as 'inadequate supervision' and 'lack of helpful feedback.' Further, the study also showed that most of the males held associate and full professorships and were paid more than women, while female teachers held lower-level positions. So, the study concluded that the female teachers had negative perceptions regarding their pay, promotion, and supervision that produced a low level of overall job satisfaction, while their male colleagues had positive perceptions regarding pay, promotion policies, supervision, and overall satisfaction.

According to **Doyle and Hind (1998)**, as compared to men, women experienced a high level of stress at their jobs, and they coped better with the demands placed upon them. The study was conducted on 582 teachers employed in institutions of higher education in the UK and indicated that the women teachers received similar structure and content of jobs as men. Also, women experienced a high level of stress at senior positions, but men did not. **Stroh et al. (1996)** examined the difference in the rate of turnover intention among men and women managers working in 20 Fortune 500 corporations from 1989 to 1991 and by 1991, as compared to men (14 percent), 26 percent women left the organization. The reason behind this percentage was not women's family structure such as dual-earner status or number of children, while there were career-related concerns such as lack of advancement opportunities in their current organization and traditional work-related predictors of turnover (job dissatisfaction and disloyalty to the current company). In supporting, **Spurr (1990)** identified the reason for women's dissatisfaction, and that was because of employment disparity and promotion discrimination. Additionally, women themselves lessened the probability of partnership and increased the exit rates because of work-life imbalance, and they received differential treatment at their workplace because they did not devote extra time at work.

Table 2.3: Summary of Studies on the Consequences of the Glass Ceiling

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) Studied	Major Findings
Fei <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Malaysia	285 women Managers	Barriers, career growth, occupational stress	A positive relationship was found between work-family conflict, barriers to career success and occupational stress.
Imam <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Pakistan	140 bank employees	Discrimination, job stress	Glass ceiling (gender discrimination) had a positive impact on job stress.
Khalid and Aroosh (2014)	Pakistan	166 bank employees	Gender discrimination, organizational commitment	Gender discrimination did not have much impact on women's performance and organizational commitment.
Thomas <i>et al.</i> (2014)	US	961 supervisors	Gender, job satisfaction	Men supervisors received slightly higher subordinate satisfaction levels as compared to women supervisors.
Dost <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Pakistan	336 employees	Glass ceiling, commitment	Glass ceiling moderately affected the level of employees' commitment.
Kanwar <i>et al.</i> (2012)	India	313 IT and ITES employees	Barriers, turnover intention	Women had more conflicting roles, family responsibilities, mobility constraints, social expectations, a work-life imbalance that led to higher turnover intention.
Smith <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Australia	258 women Employees	Glass ceiling beliefs, work engagement	Glass ceiling beliefs (resilience and denial) had a positive association with career satisfaction and work engagement.
Channer <i>et al.</i> (2011)	India	526 employees	Gender discrimination, stress	The study found a positive correlation between gender discrimination and stress level.
Ozer and Gunluk (2010)	Turkey	240 accounting professionals	Gender, turnover intention, career factors	As compared to males, females left the organizations very certainly due to career-related concerns such as gender discrimination.
Ronald <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Turkey	286 bank employees	Organizational practices, engagement	Women reported more supportive organizational practices and were more engaged in their work.
Dowler and Arai (2008)	Canada	1104 police Officers	Social support, stress	As compared to women, men officers with higher education and social support from family/friends experienced low levels of stress.

Gunavathy and Suganya (2007)	India	100 BPO's employees	Work-life imbalance, stress	Women employees suffered from stress due to work-life imbalance.
Okpara <i>et al.</i> (2005)	US	560 university teachers	Organizational factors, job satisfaction	Women teachers had negative perceptions regarding their pay, promotion, and supervision that produced a low level of job satisfaction.
Doyle and Hind (1998)	UK	582 teachers	Gender, stress	Women experienced a high level of stress at senior positions, but men did not.
Stroh <i>et al.</i> (1996)	Chicago	20 Fortune 500 corporations	Organizational and societal barriers, turnover intention	Women's family structure (dual-earner status or number of children) and career-related concerns (lack of advancement opportunities in their current organization) found as predictors of turnover intention.
Spurr (1990)	US	200 lawyers	Organizational factors, job satisfaction	Employment disparity, promotion discrimination, and work-life imbalance decreased the satisfaction level.

2.4 Impact of the Glass Ceiling on Women's Career Advancement

The study by **Osituyo (2018)** predicted the relationship of women's managerial capability, gender role perception, and gender stereotype with women's career progress in the South African public service sector. The study included 286 employees working in public organizations, and results found a positive relationship of women's managerial capability and gender role perception with women's career progress, while a negative relationship was found between gender stereotype and women's career progress. Therefore, the study concluded that the pace of women's career advancement was affected by organizational barriers. In support, **Abalkhail (2017)** identified the perception of women managers regarding the barriers that affected their career advancement to leadership positions in Saudi Arabian higher education. The data were collected through in-depth interviews (qualitative technique) with women managers and results showed that the women faced various challenges that kept women away from reaching equal

representation at the senior management positions. Additionally, the study explored that the organizational factors and socio-cultural background had a significant effect on women's advancement in management in the Saudi context. **Ng and Sears (2017)** examined macro-level organizational determinants such as active recruitment of women, gender of the chief executive officer, organizational characteristics, organizational strategies, organization foreign ownership and organization levels of internationalization as the predictors of women's representation in management in 278 organizations of Lebanese. The results of the study indicated a positive relationship between the organizational factors ('women chief executive officer' and 'active recruitment of women') and representation of women in management while other two organizational factors such as 'firm internationalization' and 'firm foreign ownership' were negatively correlated with the representation of women in management. Overall, the study concluded that although organizations took a fair decision regarding women's hiring and promotion process but were constrained by the external environment and characteristics as they limit organization's initiatives and efforts for women's career advancement.

Amudha et al. (2016) evaluated the problem of the glass ceiling in women's career advancement at the executive level. The study covered 250 women employed in IT companies, operating in Chennai. The study found 'corporate culture' and 'missed opportunities' as the factors that were responsible for generating the obstacles in women's career progression. To conclude, the study identified the culture involved inside their workplace and their capacity building nature as the major obstacles to women's career advancement. Further, **Evers and Sieverding (2014)**, researched 99 German medical students (male=52; female=47) to study the impact of gender differences with variables education, job experience, personality traits and a number of children on career success in terms of salary. The results identified that as compared to men, women with 'good qualifications', 'high agency' and 'high career achievement motivation' earned less and disrupted their career for longer times. Additionally, the study indicated that couples distributed their family responsibilities according to the traditional gender roles as women were found to disrupt their career for the sake of family responsibilities such as

children, but men did not. Furthermore, the results indicated that as compared to men, women faced high career obstacles because men were rewarded better by human capital variables. Another study on Malaysian government-linked companies by **Subramaniam et al. (2014)** identified the effect of demographic characteristics (age, educational qualifications, job level, marital status and number of children) and family-related barriers on women's career advancement. The study was conducted on 466 women managers and the analysis found a significant correlation of all the demographic variables (except a number of children) and family-related barriers with women's career advancement while most of the women had the assistance of their husbands, parents or parents-in-law to take care for their children. Therefore, the study concluded that with more family responsibilities, women had lower chances to advance in their career.

According to **Al-Manasra et al. (2013)**, glass ceiling (existence of male culture, organizational practices, family and social commitments) had a major impact on the career progression of women managers working at mid-level in Jordan organizations. The study was conducted on 117 women managers and found a significant strong positive relation between the glass ceiling and women's career obstacles ($R=0.73$). Further, the glass ceiling (existence of male culture and organizational practices) contributed 54.6 percent, and family and social commitments explained 9.5 percent of the total variance of the women career advancement. **Bombuwela and De Alwis (2013)** also studied the impact of the glass ceiling (individual factors, organizational factors, cultural factors, family factors) on women's career advancement among 150 women executives employed in the private sector organizations of Sri Lanka. The results of the study confirmed partial negative correlation between overall glass ceiling and women's career progression as weak negative correlation was identified between 'family factors' and 'women's career progression' and moderate negative correlation was found between 'individual factors', 'organizational factors', and 'cultural factors' and 'women's career progression'. Overall, the study concluded that the glass ceiling had 27.4 percent influence on the career development of women executives employed in the private sector organizations of Sri Lanka.

Another study on the Nigerian construction industry by **Kolade and Kehinde (2013)**, examined the impact of the glass ceiling on women's career progression. The data were obtained from 85 men and women working in construction organizations. The findings revealed gender discrimination in the Nigerian construction industry as 45 percent of the respondents affirmed that while deciding about the promotion the organizational structure favored men, and 42 percent of the respondents agreed that men did not prefer to work under a female boss. However, 52 percent assumed that women were not sufficiently competitive and ambitious, 58 percent respondents agreed on lack of confidence and timidity in women and 56 percent of the respondents stated that a lack of women role models/mentors blocked the women's career progression in the construction industry. Therefore, the study suggested advanced education, specialized training, work experience, professional membership, and taking the business risk as the key factors that provided advancement to women's career. **Posholi (2013)** examined dimensions that affected women's career progression and determined the reason for the absence of women at senior management levels among 100 women from Lesotho's parastatals. In their study, 60 percent respondents affirmed that glass ceiling in terms of 'conflicts with family responsibilities', 'job characteristics', lack of equity in pay', 'lack of equity in training', 'lack of mentoring and coaching', 'lack of support systems at work' and 'sexual harassment' was indeed a barrier to women's career progression.

In another study conducted on 300 women employees working in the French company, **Herrbach and Mignonac (2012)** investigated the association between perceived gender discrimination, women's subjective career success, and career anchors. The results of the study showed a negative association between perceived gender discrimination and subjective career success while career anchors were identified as a moderator in the relationship between gender discrimination and subjective career success. Some anchors such as managerial, technical and lifestyle enhanced the influence of gender discrimination while other anchors such as autonomy and security lessened it. **Afza and Newaz (2008)** examined the existence and impact of various factors on the glass ceiling and women's career progression among 100 employees working in various

industries (bank, insurance, media, NGO, pharmaceuticals, telecom, textile, and university) of the service sector situated in Dhaka city of Bangladesh. The study identified 'management perception' and 'work environment' as the most contributing factor for the existence of the glass ceiling followed by 'organizational policy' and 'work-life conflict'. The study also identified 'career-focused' as the most significant factor that influenced the women's career advancement followed by 'attitude towards the organization', 'family support' and 'pleasant appearance'.

According to **Abidin et al. (2008)**, women's career advancement is negatively associated with job stress. The study was conducted on 396 women accountants of Malaysia and identified that various factors, viz., corporate practices, exclusionary environment, family responsibility, job demand, job flexibility, job stress, and workplace benefits, affected women's career advancement. However, the study found an insignificant relation between independent variables (except job stress) and the dependent variable. **Wentling and Thomas (2007)** identified various factors that enhance and obstruct women's advancement in senior management positions. The data were collected from 25 women executives working in the IT (information technology) companies of the United States through semi-structured telephone and in-depth interviews. The results of the study identified company politics, interpersonal issues, extremely difficult/challenging job assignments, feeling of being excluded (being an outsider), gender discrimination, male dominance in IT, non-supportive bosses and work/life imbalance as the major barriers that block women's career growth. The study also found the existence of glass ceiling that negatively affected the women's career growth.

In their study, **Chinchilla et al. (2006)** studied the career inhibitors and career enablers for women. The study was conducted on 145 women managers in Spain and found that the women were employed in general management posts in small companies. 'Corporate culture' (glass ceiling) was found to be the most significant (with mean value 3.27) obstacle to women's career development and 'priorities to family responsibilities' undermined the women managers' satisfaction with their professional life. The study also identified 'motivation,' 'training,' 'mental strength' and 'value system' as principal

career enablers. **Granqvist and Persson (2005)** studied the career mobility differences between men and women by collecting data from 3,422 respondents with the help of event history analysis based on Swedish event history data. The analysis found differences in the career mobility among males and females as females received lower chances to hold better positions in the organizational hierarchy (career mobility) and the reason behind it was family-related factors such as ‘children,’ ‘household time’ and ‘live in a union.’ However, the study did not find any impact of parental leave on women’s career mobility. In another study, **Majanja and Kiplang’at (2003)** investigated and compared the current status of women librarians with their male colleagues among 36 librarians in Kenya. The results from the study indicated that high profile jobs such as information manager and system manager were occupied by 81 percent male professionals while only 3 percent of men were employed as a system librarian. Additionally, the study demonstrated that despite sufficient qualifications, few of the women held senior management jobs that pointed towards the existence of the glass ceiling. Therefore, the study affirmed the lower status of women in terms of designation, income, and remuneration.

Igbaria and Chidambaram (1997) examined the differentiation in career success outcomes among men and women. Total 348 information systems managers and professionals employed in organizations of USA were studied, and results did not identify any differences in the education of men and women while the significant differences were found in their tenure and designation. The results showed that women managers had less tenure and received less salary than men and women occupied lower-level positions such as technical positions at the professional level, while men held consulting and managerial positions at the supervisory and management levels, resulting into a low level of intention to stay among women as compared to men. Another study by **Fried *et al.* (1996)**, determined the gender-based career obstacles for women in an academic department of medicine in Baltimore, US. The study identified that 86 percent of women and 83 percent of men did not report gender biases in the department while rest of the respondents reported improvements in ‘access to information needed for faculty

development’, ‘isolation’, ‘manifestations of gender bias’, ‘salary equity’ and ‘timeliness of promotions’. Therefore, outcomes reported an indication for substantive improvements in women’s careers advancement.

Table 2.4: Summary of Studies on Women’s Career Progression

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) Studied	Major Findings
Osituyo (2018)	South Africa	286 employees	Organizational barriers, career growth	The pace of women’s career advancement was affected by organizational barriers.
Abalkhail (2017)	Saudi Arabia	85 Women managers	Organizational factors, socio- cultural factors, women’ career	Organizational factors and socio- cultural background had a significant effect on women’s advancement.
Ng and Sears (2017)	Lebanese	278 firms	Organizational factors, women’ career advancement	Organizations constrained by the external environment that limited the organization’s initiatives and efforts for women’s career advancement.
Amudha <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Chennai	250 IT employees	Obstacles, career progression	‘Corporate culture’ and ‘missed opportunities’ generated the obstacles in women’s career progression.
Evers and Sieverding (2014)	German	99 medical students	Organizational and societal barriers	Women found to disrupt their career for the sake of family responsibilities and women faced high career obstacles because men rewarded better by human capital variables.
Subramaniam <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Malaysia	466 women managers	Family barriers, career advancement	With more family responsibilities, women had lower chances to advance in their career.
Al-Manasra <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Jordan	117 women managers	Glass ceiling- organizational and societal barriers, women’s career advancement	Glass ceiling (existence of male culture and organizational practices) contributed 54.6 percent, while family and social commitments explained 9.5 percent of the total variance of the women career advancement.
Bombuwela and De Alwis (2013)	Sri Lanka	150 women executives	Glass ceiling, career advancement	Glass ceiling had 27.4 percent influence on the career development of women executives.
Kolade and Kehinde	Nigeria	85 employees	Personal and organizational	Gender discrimination, less competitive and ambitious women,

(2013)			barriers, career advancement	lack of confidence in women and lack of women role models blocked the women's career progression.
Posholi (2013)	Lesotho	100 women	Glass ceiling, career growth	Glass ceiling predicted as a barrier to women's career progression.
Herrbach and Mignonac (2012)	French	300 women employees	Gender discrimination, career success	Negative association found between perceived gender discrimination and subjective career success.
Afza and Newaz (2008)	Bangladesh	100 employees	Glass ceiling, women's career advancement	'Career-focused', 'attitude towards organization', 'family support' and 'pleasant appearance' found as the most significant factors that influenced the women's career advancement.
Abidin <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Malaysia	396 women accountants	Organizational and societal factors, women's career advancement	The factors (corporate practices, exclusionary environment, family responsibility, job demand, job flexibility, job stress, and workplace benefits) affected women's career advancement.
Wentling and Thomas (2007)	US	25 women executives	Glass ceiling, women's career advancement	The existence of the glass ceiling negatively affected women's career advancement.
Chinchilla <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Spain	145 women managers	Glass ceiling, women's career satisfaction	'Corporate culture' (glass ceiling) and 'priorities to family responsibilities' undermined the women managers' satisfaction with their professional life.
Granqvist and Persson (2005)	Swedish	3422 employees	Family barriers, women's career growth	Family-related factors such as 'children,' 'household time' and 'live in a union' hindered career growth.
Majanja and Kiplang'at (2003)	Kenya	36 librarians	Glass ceiling, women's career advancement	Despite sufficient qualifications, few of the women held senior management jobs that justified the existence of the glass ceiling, which blocked women's career advancement.
Igbaria and Chidambaram (1997)	USA	348 managers	Organizational factors, women's advancement	Women managers had less tenure, received less salary and occupied lower-level positions, while men held consulting and managerial positions at the supervisory and management levels

Fried <i>et al.</i> (1996)	Baltimore, US	127 full-time faculty members	Women's career advancement	Majority of men and women did not report gender biases, and the rest of respondents reported improvements in academic departments.
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2.5 Role of Moderators in the relationship between the Glass Ceiling and its Consequences

As a number of studies identified the direct effect of the glass ceiling, but very few studies investigated the indirect effect such as moderating and mediating effect. One of the studies by **Asghar *et al.* (2018)** analyzed the moderating effect of family-supportive supervisor behavior on the relationship of work-family conflict with family-work conflict and turnover intentions. The study was conducted on 250 doctors working in hospitals of Pakistan which did not receive supervisor support. The results verified the buffering effect of family-supportive supervisor behavior on the relationship between work-family and family-work conflict regarding turnover intentions. The study suggested that support from a supervisor could psychologically encourage employees toward work and dynamic change at the workplace. **Downes *et al.* (2014)** examined the direct relationship of the perceived glass ceiling with employees' commitment to their organization, and turnover intentions and also identified the mediating effect of distributive justice on the variables' relationships among 767 respondents of Bentley University, USA. The results of the study found that the glass ceiling had a significant effect on distributive justice and also significantly affected organizational commitment and turnover intention. Additionally, results found a positive effect of the glass ceiling and distributive justice for organizational commitment and negative for the turnover intention that proved distributive justice as a mediator between the relationships of the glass ceiling with organizational commitment and turnover intention. In their study, **Ghosh *et al.* (2014)** explored the relationship between three organizational justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and employee engagement and also identified the inter-relationships between three dimensions of organizational justice. The study was conducted on 210 public sector bank employees operating in India.

The Pearson correlation showed the interrelationships between all the three factors of organizational justice while hierarchical regression analysis identified distributive justice as a major factor in determining employee engagement, followed by procedural justice and interactional justice.

The study on variable ‘social support’ by **Shin *et al.* (2014)**, conducted a meta-analysis with 36 appropriate studies that included 9,729 respondents to examine the relationships of various coping strategies with dimensions of burnout symptoms. The results of the study affirmed the negative association between ‘problem-focused coping’ and dimensions of burnout symptoms, whereas ‘emotion-focused coping’ was positively related to the dimensions of burnout symptoms. Further, ‘social support,’ ‘reappraisal’ and ‘religious copings’ were found to be negatively associated with burnout symptoms while ‘acceptance’ was positively correlated to burnout symptoms. Another study on Malaysian multinational companies by **Wan *et al.* (2012)**, examined the impact of distributive justice on career satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. To achieve the objective, interviews were conducted with 28 local managers working in various industries who had 12 to 25 years of job experience. The study showed that distributive justice significantly affected the career satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. In interviews more specifically, respondents agreed that employees who perceived fair distributive justice were more likely to be committed to the organization, experienced more career satisfaction, performed better and subsequently had a lower intention to leave the organization. Also, employees’ attitude, as well as employees’ performance, also improved in organizations where perceptions of fairness in tangible and intangible resources were higher. Therefore, organizational commitment and career satisfaction were expected to be higher, and intent to leave was lower.

According to **Galletta *et al.* (2011)**, social support acted as a moderator between gender discrimination and its consequences. The study highlighted the role of social support in terms of supervisor support and organizational support in the relationship of gender discrimination with job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study included

1240 nurses working in the three hospitals of Italy, and the findings revealed supervisor support and organizational support as the moderators in the relationship of gender discrimination with job satisfaction and turnover intention. Further, **Hsu (2011)** also examined the role of perceived supervisor support (work environment variable) and internal locus of control (personality variable) as moderators in the relationship of work-family conflict with job satisfaction. The study was conducted on correctional officers in Taiwan and hierarchical regression analysis identified that work-family conflict significantly negatively affected job satisfaction. However, perceived supervisor support and internal locus of control not only directly affected job satisfaction but also significantly moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. In their study, **Sackey and Sanda (2011)** examined the associations between job characteristics and symptoms of stress and also identified the moderating effect of social support among women managers. Data were collected from 170 women working at managerial positions in the organizations of Ghanaian metropolitan city. The results of the study showed that numerous job stressors negatively affected the employees' health and organizational performances. In the study, women managers felt various psychological strains such as 'becoming less communicative,' 'excessive fatigue,' 'feeling of job dissatisfaction,' 'feeling of low energy,' 'feeling tensed,' 'inability to concentrate on the job,' 'tired' and 'uptight.' Further, the findings of the study suggested that providing organizational support and societal support helped women managers to cope with various stress symptoms. Therefore, the study concluded that women managers working in socio-culturally challenged organizational environments along with high social support coped better with the number of job stressors in the organization and improved their occupational health and productivities.

In their study, **Foley *et al.* (2005)** examined the relationship between perceived gender discrimination, distributive justice and work-related attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention). The study was conducted on 877 employees working in Protestant clergy (Hong Kong). The study identified the significant positive association between gender discrimination, perceived injustice, job

dissatisfaction, low organizational commitment, and a high rate of turnover intentions. The results also found that women faced a high level of gender discrimination and low level of distributive and procedural justice as compared to men that resulted in lower organizational commitment among women. The study also established a strong significant relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction for men as compared to women. Furthermore, the study found job satisfaction as a mediator between justice perceptions (distributive and procedural) and turnover intentions. Another study by **Bellman *et al.* (2003)** identified the gender differences regarding social support and social support as a moderator. To measure the social support and occupational stress, the study used well-validated Pressure Management Indicator (PMI) for collecting responses from 204 Australian managers (55 percent women, mean age 41.4 years) from different organizations. The multiple regression analysis identified that for both categories of gender, i.e., men and women, social support moderated the effects of stressors on energy levels, job satisfaction, and organizational security. Further, social support had a significant interaction effect on an organizational commitment for men and a significant interaction effect on the state of mind for women.

In contrast, **Foley *et al.* (2002)** identified distributive justice as a mediator in the relationship between perceived glass ceiling and the consequences (perceived career prospects and turnover intention). The study was done on 204 Hispanic lawyers (men=61 percent; women=39 percent). The first step of the analysis was run excluding the mediator variable (distributive justice) and the results found a significant direct relationship between perceived glass ceiling and perceived career prospects as well as intentions to leave. However, in the next step, including the distributive justice showed the insignificant relationship between perceived glass ceiling and its consequences (perceived career prospects and turnover intention), that proved distributive justice as a mediator. Another study by **Nasurdin and Ahmed (2001)**, determined the influence of procedural justice on organizational commitment and the moderating role of gender in the relationship of justice and commitment among 161 Malaysian employees working in hotels. The results revealed that procedural justice significantly affected organizational

commitment, while gender did not moderate the effect of procedural justice on employees' commitment.

Table 2.5: Summary of Studies on Moderators between Glass Ceiling and Consequences

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) studied	Major Findings
<i>Asghar et al. (2018)</i>	Pakistan	250 doctors	Work-family and family-work conflict, supervisor support, turnover intentions	The result verified the buffering effect of supportive supervisor behavior on the relationship between work-family and family-work conflict regarding turnover intentions.
<i>Downes et al. (2014)</i>	USA	767 respondents	Glass ceiling, distributive justice, turnover intention	Glass ceiling had a significant effect on distributive justice and turnover intention ($R^2 = 0.31$), while distributive justice proved as a mediator between glass ceiling and turnover intention.
<i>Ghosh et al. (2014)</i>	India	210 bank employees	Distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, employee engagement	Distributive justice identified as a major factor in determining employee engagement, followed by procedural justice and interactional justice.
<i>Shin et al. (2014)</i>	Several countries	9729 respondents	Social support, burnout	Social support, reappraisal, and religious copings were found negatively associated with burnout symptoms.
<i>Wan et al. (2012)</i>	Malaysia	28 managers	Distributive justice, organizational commitment, turnover intention	Employees who perceived fair distributive justice were more likely to be committed to the organization and had a lower intention to leave the organization.
<i>Galletta et al. (2011)</i>	Italy	1240 nurses	Gender discrimination, supervisor and organizational support, job satisfaction, turnover intention	Supervisor support and organizational support found as moderators between gender discrimination, and job satisfaction and turnover intention.
Hsu (2011)	Taiwan	250	Work-family conflict,	Perceived supervisor support and

		correctional officers	supervisor support, internal locus of control, job satisfaction	internal locus of control significantly moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction.
Sackey and Sanda (2011)	Ghanaian	170 women managers	Organizational environment, social support, job stress	Women working in socio-culturally challenged organizational environments along with high social support coped better with job stressors.
Foley <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Hong Kong	877 employees	Distributive and procedural justice, job satisfaction, turnover intentions	Job satisfaction acted as a mediator between justice perceptions (distributive and procedural) and turnover intentions.
Bellman <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Australia	204 managers	Organizational commitment, social support	Social support had a significant interaction effect on the organizational commitment for men and a significant interaction effect on the state of mind for women.
Foley <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Hispanic	204 Lawyers	Glass ceiling, distributive justice, career prospects, turnover intention	Distributive justice showed the insignificant relationship between perceived glass ceiling and its consequences (perceived career prospects and turnover intention).
Nasurdin and Ahmed (2001)	Malaysia	161 employees	Procedural justice, organizational commitment	Procedural justice significantly affected organizational commitment.

2.6 Effect of Women's Demographic Profile on the Level of Glass Ceiling

The literature provided different findings on various women's demographic characteristics regarding glass ceiling such that marital status, children status, family structure. A study by **Hurley and Choudhary (2016)** determined the role of individual factors (age of CEOs, number of children, tenure in management roles, years of education) and the firm-level factors (net income, number of employees) in achieving the CEO position in large publicly listed companies of the USA. The study was conducted on 123 CEOs, and the findings demonstrated that the number of employees, number of children, and years of education played a significant role in achieving the CEO position. The study established that increase in the number of children and years spent in education

lowered the probability of the women to be a CEO, while a higher number of employees raised the probability of woman to attain the CEO position. **Bakar and Marican (2014)** determined the effect of individual characteristics (children and marital status) on women's career progression among 58 women in public sector organizations of Malaysia. In the sample, 46 women (79.3 percent) were married, and 12 women (20.7 percent) were single, while 20 women (34.5 percent) did not have any child and the majority of women had two children. The results of the study showed a statistically significant positive correlation between objective career success, marital status and the number of children. In the study, married women with more children held a higher management position (objective career success) and women with more children felt more satisfied in their career (subjective career success). Therefore, the study concluded that for objective career success, the variables marital status and number of children were significantly related, while for subjective career success, the variable number of children was significant but marital status was not. Another empirical study by **Cizel and Cizel (2014)** identified the effect of learned helplessness and socio-demographic characteristics on the glass ceiling for women. The study included 83 women teachers serving in the colleges of Antalya city. The analysis was done by applying binary logistic regression that revealed 'child possession' and 'learned helplessness' as the major factors that affected women teachers' perception regarding the glass ceiling in their working environment. The study also suggested that to understand the women teachers' perception regarding glass ceiling, not only socio-demographic factor (number of children) but also psychological factor such as learned helplessness should also be considered.

Jordan and Zitek (2012) examined the biases in the perception of employees based on marital status. Total 29 undergraduates (men=11; women=18) of West Coast American university completed the survey. The study identified single applicants as more suitable for the job compared to the married applicants. Additionally, single women were rated as more suitable for a strategy consulting firm (committed to progress in the firm, likely to succeed at the job, undistracted by social responsibilities and willing to work long hours) than married women. Additionally, respondents of the study perceived

married woman job applicant less favorably, while a married man applicant was perceived more favorably. The study also identified that a new married woman's dedication and job performance got a decline, in contrast, a new married man's dedication and job performance got a rise, and this difference made a married woman more willing to quit as compared to a married man. In the same line, **McGuire et al. (2012)** identified the barriers to progression and productivity of the women ecologists in the US. A total of 541 (men=282; women=259) respondents participated in the study. As the study considered demographic factors, findings revealed a significant difference in the respondents' perceptions regarding their marital status. Therefore, the study concluded that as compared to single women, married women (junior and senior) spent significantly less time on research, but for men (junior and senior), the marriage did not have any effect on the time that they devoted on research. Additionally, both men (junior and senior) and women (junior and senior) with children devoted less time on research than the respondents without children did.

In contrast, the study conducted on Lebanese women managers, **Tlaiss and Kauser (2011)** demonstrated the influence of gender, family, and work factors on career progression. The qualitative data were obtained through in-depth face-to-face interviews with 32 women managers. The findings of the study revealed that the Lebanese women managers did not experience any gender-centered factors as barriers to career progression and women's responsibilities towards their families were also not perceived as obstacles in their career advancement. Further, various other factors such as 'aspirations for management,' 'family-related factors,' 'levels of educational attainment and work experience' and 'women's personality traits' were also not perceived by women as career inhibitors. **Buddhapriya (2009)** analyzed the effect of demographic factors on women professionals' career advancement. The study comprised of 121 women professionals working in the government organizations, non-government organizations, private sectors, and public sectors operating in Delhi. In the study, 82.6 percent respondents were married, 14 percent were unmarried, 3.4 percent were single (either widow or separated), 40.5 percent had one child, 37.2 percent had two children, 88 percent were from the

nuclear family and 12 percent from a joint family. The results of the study showed an insignificant difference in the barriers of women's career advancement regarding their marital status, but when the impact of family responsibilities was assessed on women's career decisions, marital status played an important role. Therefore, as compared to the unmarried women, married and single (either widow or separated) women from nuclear families faced more obstacles in their career advancement due to their commitment to family responsibilities. The women who lived in nuclear families had more child-rearing responsibility and preferred flexible working hours that affected their career growth adversely as women professionals from joint families shared their responsibilities with their in-laws and husband. On the other hand, women from joint families needed more 'career trade-offs' and were found unable to utilize their full potential on the job than women from the nuclear family structure due to more family expectations from different family members. Therefore, the results suggested that marital status and family structure of the women profoundly affect their work-life challenges as well as their career decisions.

According to **Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009)**, various coping strategies can help executive women to manage their domestic responsibilities to progress in their career and to maintain a balance between career and family. The qualitative study conducted on 25 executive women working in the North American industries, explored career progression and strategies to balance career and family from the job and family perspectives. The study suggested various career advancement, career/family balance and life course strategies such as 'negotiating spousal support', 'ordering of career and family,' 'personal support', 'professional support', 'value system' and 'whether to have children.' **Ismail and Ibrahim (2008)** identified multiple barriers faced by women in acquiring senior management positions. The data were obtained through a structured questionnaire from 78 executive women working in the oil company of Malaysia. The study revealed an insignificant difference in women's perception, working at various job positions regarding barriers that they faced in career advancement. The results also identified 'family structure' and 'women's commitment to the family' as the most significant

barriers faced by executive women. Further, **Tzeng (2006)** examined discrimination and gender stereotyping faced by women expatriates at their home and host countries. The qualitative study through interviews conducted on 21 women expatriates employed in the western multinational corporations situated in Taiwan. The results showed gender 'discrimination' and 'gender stereotyping' as intra-ethnic rather than nonexistent. Also, a woman's life course influenced her efforts to build overseas careers and married women with children had to utilize various forms of social support to balance family and job responsibilities. In their study, **Windsor and Auyeung (2006)** analyzed the role of demographic characteristics in women's career advancement. The data were collected from 183 employees of large international accounting firms situated in Australia and Singapore. The study found that different forms of social support help women accountants in the promotion and Singaporean organizations provided more institutional support and social support to working mothers than Australian organizations. Additionally, the findings suggested that gender and dependent children had a significant effect on the career advancement of women, particularly mothers, while career advancement of fathers was identified as more positive and occurred more quickly than women employees.

The study conducted on the Australian banking industry by **Metz (2005)**, assessed the differences in the barriers related to the women's career advancement based on children. A survey was conducted on 848 women employees (209 had children; 639 had not) working at the non-managerial positions and managerial positions. The results of the study affirmed insignificant differences in various obstacles to the progression of mothers and non-mothers but some other key differences existed among both the categories. The study found a negative relationship between internal networks and women's career advancement, and weak relationship between work hours and career advancement for mothers while unrelated to the advancement of non-mothers. Another study on demographic variables, **Lingard and Lin (2004)** surveyed 109 women employees working in the construction industry of Australia to examine the relationship of career, family and work environment variables with women's organizational commitment. The

study identified a significant correlation between various factors ('career choice commitment', 'job involvement', 'perception of the organizational diversity climate', 'satisfaction with career advancement' and 'supervisory support') and women's organizational commitment. However, the study did not find any relation of demographic variables (women with dependent children and women with independent children) and family variables with organizational commitment.

Lo et al. (2003) examined the variable 'work-family conflict' and 'coping strategies' adopted by married women managers working in the organizations of Hong Kong. A qualitative study was performed on 50 women managers and data were acquired through in-depth interviews. The study identified that married women managers used ineffective coping strategies while the other women who used positive coping strategies also performed inefficiently due to their unwillingness in negotiating with the family-friendly organizational policies. Results also confirmed that Hong Kong companies provided more support to working mothers in managing their work-family responsibilities. **Keating and Jeffrey (1983)** determined the relationship of marital status with women's career advancement. The data were collected from 80 retired women (married women=58; unmarried women=22) from non-professional careers in America. The study identified that marital status had a significant effect on women's career growth but not on the quality of their work role participation.

Table 2.6: Summary of Studies on Demographic Characteristics

Author(s) (Year)	State/Country	Sample	Variable(s) Studied	Major Findings
Hurley and Choudhary (2016)	USA	123 CEOs	Children, education, women's career	More children and years for educational qualifications lowered the possibility of the women to be a CEO.
Bakar and Marican (2014)	Malaysia	58 women employees	Marital status, children, objective and subjective	Married women with more children held a higher management position (objective career success) and felt more satisfied in their career

			career success	(subjective career success).
Cizel and Cizel (2014)	Antalya	83 women teachers	Glass ceiling, child possession, learned helplessness	'Child possession' and 'learned helplessness' found as the major factors that affected women teachers' perception regarding the glass ceiling in their workplace.
Jordan and Zitek (2012)	America	29 undergraduates	Marital status, career prospects	Single applicants rated as more suitable for the job compared to married applicants.
McGuire <i>et al.</i> (2012)	US	541 researchers	Marital status, job prospects	As compared to single women, married women with children spent less time on their job (research) significantly.
Tlaiss and Kauser (2011)	Lebanese	32 women managers	Family responsibilities, career growth	Women's responsibilities towards their families were not perceived as obstacles in their career advancement.
Buddhapriya (2009)	India	121 women professionals	Marital status, family structure, women's career advancement	As compared to unmarried women, married and single (either widow or separated) women from nuclear families faced more obstacles in their career advancement.
Ezzedein and Ritchey (2009)	North America	25 executive women	Career advancement strategies	'Negotiating spousal support', 'ordering of career and family', 'personal support', 'professional support', and 'value system' identified as career advancement strategies.
Ismail and Ibrahim (2008)	Malaysia	78 executive women	Family structure, barriers	'Family structure' and 'women's commitment to the family' predicted as the most significant barriers.
Tzeng (2006)	Taiwan	21 women expatriates	Marital status, children, social support, family and job responsibilities	Married women with children had to utilize various forms of social support to balance family and job responsibilities.
Windsor and Auyeung (2006)	Australia and Singapore	183 employees	Children, women's career advancement	Gender and dependent children had a significant effect on the career advancement of women, particularly mothers.
Metz (2005)	Australia	848 women employees	Children, work hours, career	Weak relationship found between work hours and career advancement

			advancement	for mothers while unrelated to the advancement of non-mothers.
Lingard and Lin (2004)	Australia	109 women employees	Children, family variables, organizational commitment	The study did not find any relation of demographic variables (women with dependent children and women with independent children) and family variables with organizational commitment.
Lo <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Hong Kong	50 women managers	Marital status, coping strategies, organizational policies	Married women managers used ineffective coping strategies while other women who used positive coping strategies were also found to be inefficient due to their unwillingness in negotiating with family-friendly organizational policies.
Keating and Jeffrey (1983)	America	80 retired women	Marital status, women's career growth	Marital status had a significant effect on women's career growth but not on the quality of their work role participation.

2.7 Research Gap

Although in the western context, the glass ceiling as a barrier has been researched extensively, this largely remained an under-researched concept in the Indian scenario (Kumari, 2009; Jain and Mukherji, 2010). Kumari (2009) demonstrated that the lack of pertinent literature available on the topic and the women managers' presence at the top managerial levels in the Indian context, pointed towards the lack of attention paid to this concept. Moreover, only three studies (Kaur and Jindal, 2009; Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014; Thapar and Sharma, 2017) are carried out in the Punjab state of northern India. Therefore, the present study will be a huge contribution towards the understanding of the concept of GCW in Indian scenario, especially Punjab.

Further, according to Chaudhuri and Panigrahi (2013), studies on female perception regarding glass ceiling in several Indian sectors are very few viz., service sector (Nath, 2000; Kaur and Jindal, 2009; Bimba and Kaliyamoorthy, 2017), educational sector (Sharma et al., 2011; Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014), etc. Additionally, this is the

first empirical study (quantitative) on GCW that covered more than two industries of the Indian service sector, as Kaur and Jindal (2009), and Sharma and Sharma (2015) studied two industries, while Bhatt and Fukey (2014), Sachdeva (2014), Wesarat and Methew (2017), and Nilufer and Priyadarshini (2018), covered only one industry. In contrast, the present study included three Indian service industries i.e., banking, IT, and hospitality.

However, there are very limited studies conducted in the Asian context which reflect upon the problems/barriers faced by the women managers, especially in India (Center for Social Research, 2009). A few studies in the Indian context demonstrated a miserable outlook about the women representation at the top managerial levels in India and cursorily drew attention to the barriers contributing to their lower representation (Sujatha, 2008; Jain and Mukherji, 2010; Sharma *et al.*, 2011). Although, these studies tried to understand the reasons responsible for women's low representation at the senior level, but does not provide a detailed understanding of the various barriers that hinder women's career progression (Kumari, 2009).

Moreover, the studies available on the glass ceiling did not follow any comprehensive construct of the GCW (glass ceiling for women) consisting of all the three barriers, viz., personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers. The studies conducted in Punjab by Sharma and Sehrawat (2014), as well as Thapar and Sharma (2017), included the entry-level working women instead of women managers, which is more relevant to explore the glass ceiling concept. Also, all the above-mentioned three Indian studies (Kaur and Jindal, 2009; Sharma and Sehrawat, 2014; Thapar and Sharma, 2017) did not follow any standardized scale to examine the women's perception regarding the existence of glass ceiling. Therefore, owing to the lack of a valid standardized scale of GCW, the present study focuses on investigating the presence of the glass ceiling, including all the three barriers (personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers) by developing a standardized scale.

According to Jackson and O'Callaghan (2009), very few studies focused solely on the effects of the glass ceiling. These studies covered only one sub-factor or one factor of the glass ceiling. Imam *et al.* (2014) found that gender discrimination had a positive

impact on job stress. Kanwar *et al.* (2012) examined societal barriers and identified that family responsibilities, mobility constraints, social expectations, and work-life imbalance lead to turnover intention. Further, Channer *et al.* (2011) found a small positive correlation between gender discrimination and stress level. According to Ozer and Gunluk (2010), females left organizations very certainly due to gender discrimination. In contrast, Khalid and Aroosh (2014) discovered that gender discrimination did not have much impact on women's performance and organizational commitment. Therefore, to fill this gap in terms of effects of the glass ceiling, the present study is a step forward to analyze the impact of GCW on its consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intention, career obstacles).

The present study will also identify the impact of moderators (organizational justice and social support) because the role of moderators is still in the nascent stages of investigation (Combs, 2003; Forret and Dougherty, 2004). Although, the previous studies established the moderation effect but considered only one sub-factor of glass ceiling instead of the whole construct of the glass ceiling. Asghar *et al.* (2018) identified the buffering effect of supportive supervisor behavior on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intentions. Galletta *et al.* (2011) found supervisor support as a moderator between gender discrimination and turnover intention. According to Sackey and Sanda (2011), women working in socio-culturally challenged organizational environments along with high social support coped better with job stressors. Therefore, there is hardly any study which deals with glass ceiling as a whole and the role of moderators in the relationship of GCW with occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions. The present study is an initial investigation to assess the moderation effect of organizational justice and social support in the relationship between GCW and its consequences.

With regard to the demographic variables, Claire and David (1994), and Bakar and Marican (2014) identified that the marital status positively affected the women managers' objective career success as women got active support from their partner but Buddhapriya (2009), Rasdi *et al.*, (2012), and Kiaye and Singh (2013) in their findings

suggested that married women experienced hindrance in career advancement, because women faced problems to move for their work and were unwilling to relocate. However, Maimunah and Mariani (2008) comprehend that having children did not become an obstacle to women's objective career success, and Sever (2016) found that increased age and the number of children decreased the glass ceiling perception, while Cross (2010) emphasized that having children could hinder women from reaching top positions. The present study will also analyze the gap determined in previous researches regarding the demographic profile.

Thus, the present study aims at exploring the glass ceiling in the service sector and testing several hypotheses regarding the concept of GCW. The objective of the present study is not only to explore the prevalence of GCW in the service sector but also the barriers which are responsible for blocking women's career advancement, its consequences, and role of moderators in the service sector.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the review of literature that was relevant to the subject matter of the present study. Approximately, more than hundred research papers published in various national and international journals, book chapters, and published reports on this subject were reviewed. All the studies were categorized into six sections namely, the existence of glass ceiling; barriers contributing to glass ceiling; impact of glass ceiling on occupational stress, work engagement and turnover intention; impact of glass ceiling on women's career advancement; role of moderators in the relationship of glass ceiling with its consequences and effect of women's demographic profile on the level of glass ceiling. The chapter revealed the need to conduct a comprehensive study on GCW among women managers in the service sector, as very few studies exist in the Indian context. Therefore, the present study would contribute to the existing literature and fill the research gap.

CHAPTER - 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The negative impact of glass ceiling for women (GCW) has been focused by various researchers and has been discussed in detail in previous chapters. Therefore, the present study aims to measure the prevalence of GCW through its barriers and its relation to occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions and career progression of the managerial women. The study also considers the moderation effect of organizational justice and social support on the relationship between GCW and its consequences. Thus, this chapter presents the research design adopted for the study and details out the methodologies used at various stages of research for the accomplishment of the defined research objectives.

3.1 Problem Statement

Women managers working in organizations experience situations that are unique to their gender. The literature review identified a range of issues arising out of these situations, but the major issue is the glass ceiling reflected through its barriers viz., personal, organizational, and societal barriers. Therefore, the statement of problem for this research work is to identify the prevalence of GCW in terms of personal, organizational and societal barriers; its impact that leads to various consequences, like occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and career obstacles; and the role of moderators (organizational justice and social support) in the relationship of GCW and its consequences in the service sector of Punjab.

3.2 Rationale of the Study

It is examined that in India, instead of the expansion in women's academic qualification and their increased participation in the workforce, women's representation at the managerial levels in the organizational hierarchy is significantly low in comparison

to men. The very few women, who succeeded to attain the top positions, somewhere signify the improvement in the gender equations within the corporate world, but it is not so consistent. A handful of studies have paid attention to the individual, organizational, or societal factors which act as obstructions in the women's career advancement. Therefore, the question why numerous women working in the Indian service sector do not achieve top management positions needs to be understood and examined in detail to recommend various strategies to overcome such barriers and raze the GCW.

In the recent past, a few research papers have highlighted the prevalence of glass ceiling (Kiaye and Singh, 2013; Darshan and Dubey, 2014; Hara, 2018), but despite women's increased participation in the Indian labor force, no empirical research has been conducted on women managers working in the three service industries operating in Punjab (India), viz, banking, IT, and hospitality, to find out the specific barriers of GCW, their effects and the role of moderators. Organizations do implement the policy of gender equality at their level, but the actual barriers being faced by the women managers might not have been expressed openly by them. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to examine all the possible barriers of GCW and their subsequent effects on the women managers, since the diminution in GCW would positively affect the women participation at managerial levels and in turn, increase the gender equality.

3.3 Nature and Scope of the Study

The study is descriptive, original, and unique since it is the first empirical study on GCW, including all three barriers of the glass ceiling, being conducted in the state of Punjab (India). The study is based on the first-hand information collected on the glass ceiling from the women managers working in the three industries of the service sector, i.e., banking, IT, and hospitality. The study is also comprehensive and problem-solving in nature since it identifies the presence of glass ceiling being experienced by the women managers and also their negative consequences along with the role of moderators and suggests numerous key recommendations based on the findings of the study. The present study is, therefore, significant as:

- It is an endeavor to investigate whether women face hindrance in achieving managerial positions (glass ceiling for women) in the service sector of Punjab or not.
- In the study, GCW is examined based on all the three barriers, i.e. personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers in the service industries operating in Punjab.
- It not only looks into the barriers that contribute to the existence of GCW but also recognizes its four consequences, viz., occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and career obstacles in women's progression.
- It also explores the role of moderating variables viz., organizational justice and social support, in the relationship of GCW and its consequences.
- The study is not limited to only one industry operating in Punjab, but it includes three different service industries.
- It develops a standardized scale on GCW, which is not used by any other study in the Indian context, to date.
- It adds to the existing literature on the Indian women managers by giving timely and reliable statistics related to the women at the managerial positions.
- On a large scale, the study would be helpful to identify and understand the various barriers experienced by several managerial women in the various industries of the service sector.
- It also suggests some strategies that could be beneficial from organizational and women's perspective.

Thus, the present study provides a step forward towards the new perspective of understanding the problem of the glass ceiling in the service sector. The results of the study would assist the management in assessing and improving the women's position in the managerial hierarchy in order to break the glass ceiling. Since no study has been conducted to explore these issues in the service sector of Punjab, therefore, the present study is an endeavor in this direction.

3.4 Objectives of the Study

The present study aims at exploring the concept of “glass ceiling for women” in the service sector and testing several hypotheses pertaining to the effects that are most likely to be endured by the women managers who have experienced barriers in their advancement. The problem to be investigated is designed with the specific objectives demarcated below:

1. To measure the prevalence of the glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector.
2. To identify the barriers contributing to the glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector.
3. To study the impact of the glass ceiling for women on its consequences, viz., occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions among women managers in the service sector.
4. To examine the impact of the glass ceiling for women on the career progression of women in the service sector.
5. To identify the impact of moderators (organizational justice and social support) on the relationship between the glass ceiling for women and occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions in the service sector.
6. To find out the difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their demographic profile (marital status, children status, and family structure).

3.5 Formulation of Hypotheses

Keeping the aforementioned objectives of the present study in mind and on the basis of the review of literature that provides the direction towards the significance of GCW, the present study formulates the hypotheses as under:

Hara (2018) highlighted that discrimination in terms of pay, job responsibilities, and promotional opportunities lead to the glass ceiling. Another study indicated discrimination in terms of employment and salary that affirmed the existence of the glass ceiling, which raises the barriers and thwarts women from achieving top leadership positions (Darshan and Dubey, 2014). Yet in another study by Shakir and Siddiqui (2014), organizations did not create an obstruction in women's career progression, while personal barriers did. The results of the study by Van Vianen *et al.* (2002) revealed that the women had less masculine cultural preferences, and were found to be less ambitious than men. In contrast, Kiaye and Singh (2013) concluded that some factors of situational barriers and social barriers of the glass ceiling existed, that hinder the women's progression while personal barriers were not found as the reason for the occurrence of the glass ceiling in the organizations. With regard to societal barriers, Yousaf and Schmiede (2017) explored societal barriers (family, parenting, inadequate support at home and cultural stereotypes) as the main factors responsible for the prevalence of glass ceiling. Sharma *et al.* (2011) identified that despite equivalent qualification like men, women have to compete more and the cultural expectations affected their role in the society and women rejected the opportunities of the senior management positions. Based on the above literature reviewed, the existence of the glass ceiling for women managers was explored through the first hypothesis stated as:

H1: There is a prevalence of the glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector.

Segovia-Perez *et al.* (2019) identified that at an individual level, women created barriers to their career advancement in terms of self-perception and self-imposed barriers, while, at the organizational level 'stereotyping' was predicted as a relevant factor in women's career obstacles. According to Fernandez and Campero (2017), along with internal promotion biases, 'external recruitment' and 'hiring processes' are also responsible for the existence of the glass ceiling. Further, Singh and Terjesen (2008) suggested that women lack the necessary qualities that are required for senior positions.

Jones and Oppenheim (2002) found personal and societal barriers as the reason for the glass ceiling, while Elacqua *et al.* (2009) explored the interpersonal issues and organizational issues as the barriers that led to the glass ceiling. Another study by Sujatha (2008) identified that the variables ‘maternity leave’ and ‘work and family imbalance’ mostly affected the women’s career advancement. In support, Cimirotik *et al.* (2017) also found ‘motherhood’, ‘working time’ and ‘work-life imbalance’ as the barriers to women’s career. According to Plessis *et al.* (2015), all three barriers viz., personal, organizational and societal contribute towards the existence of the glass ceiling in terms of social stereotypes, insufficient organizational support, lack of confidence and family responsibilities. Thus, in order to break the glass ceiling in the service sector, the identification of the barriers is indispensable, which leads to the second hypothesis:

H2: There are various barriers (personal, organizational, and societal) leading to the glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector.

Fei *et al.* (2017) indicated a significant positive relationship between barriers to career achievement, work-family conflict, and occupational stress among women managers. The glass ceiling in terms of gender discrimination positively but moderately correlated with job stress and with the increase of glass ceiling (gender discrimination), job stress also increased among the employees of the banking sector (Imam *et al.*, 2014). Another study by Kanwar *et al.* (2012) identified male employees as more satisfied than female employees because female employees had more conflicting roles, family responsibilities, family structure, mobility constraints, social expectations, work-life imbalance, that made it difficult for them to make balance between family and job responsibilities which consequently lead to dissatisfaction and higher turnover intention. According to Ozer and Gunluk (2010), females left organizations very certainly due to gender discrimination, and Stroh *et al.* (1996) observed the family structure and career-related concerns as predictors of turnover intention. However, the study by Khalid and Aroosh (2014) did not show much impact of gender discrimination on women’s performance and organizational commitment. Ronald *et al.* (2010) identified that as

compared to men, women reported more supportive organizational practices and were more engaged in their work. Based on the above discussion, the third hypothesis is:

H3: Glass ceiling for women significantly leads to occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions among women managers in the service sector.

The study by Osituyo (2018) predicted the positive relationship of women's managerial capability and gender role perception with women's career progress, while a negative relationship was found between gender stereotype and women's career progress. According to Al-Manasra *et al.* (2013), glass ceiling in terms of the male-dominated culture, organizational practices, family and social responsibilities had a major impact on the career progression of women managers working at middle-level. Bombuwela and De Alwis (2013) confirmed partial negative correlation between overall glass ceiling and women's career progression, while weak negative correlation was found between 'family factors' and 'women's career progression', and moderate negative correlation of 'individual factors', 'organizational factors', and 'cultural factors' was identified with 'women's career progression'. Afza and Newaz (2008) found 'career-focused' as the most significant factor that influenced women's career growth followed by 'attitude towards the organization,' 'family support' and 'pleasant appearance.' Thus, the fourth hypothesis states:

H4: Glass ceiling blocks the career progression of women managers in the service sector.

Asghar *et al.* (2018) verified the buffering effect of family-supportive supervisory behavior on the relationship of family-work and work-family conflict with turnover intentions. The study suggested that support from a supervisor could psychologically encourage employees toward work and dynamic change at the workplace. Wan *et al.* (2012) suggested that employees who perceived fair distributive justice were more committed to the organization, experienced more career satisfaction, performed better

and consequently had a lower level of turnover intention. Galletta *et al.* (2011) revealed supervisor support and organizational support as the moderators in the relationship between gender discrimination and job satisfaction, and turnover intention. According to Sackey and Sanda (2011), women managers working in the socio-culturally challenged organizational environments along with high social support coped better with the number of job stressors in the organization and improved their occupational health and productivities. Hence, the fifth hypothesis:

H5: Organizational justice and social support significantly moderate the relationship between the glass ceiling for women and occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions in the service sector.

Buddhapriya (2009) identified an insignificant difference in the perception of women regarding the barriers in their career advancement based on their marital status, but when study assessed the impact of family responsibilities on women's career decisions, marital status played an important role. Women living in nuclear families had more child-rearing responsibility and preferred flexible working hours that affected their career growth adversely while women professionals from joint families could share their responsibilities with their in-laws and husband. Kiaye and Singh (2013) suggested that married women experienced hindrance in career advancement because women were unwilling to move and relocate for their work. From the perspective of children responsibility, Cross (2010) emphasized that having children could hinder women from reaching the top positions. However, according to Claire and David (1994) and Bakar and Marican (2014) marital status positively affected the women managers' objective career success as women got active support from their partner. Therefore, lastly, it is hypothesized that:

H6: There is a significant difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their demographic profile (marital status, children status, and family structure).

3.6 Theoretical Framework of the Study

Based on the literature review, a theoretical model of GCW exhibited in Figure 3.1 has been developed to comprehend the barriers of GCW (personal barriers, organizational barriers and societal barriers), moderating variables (social support and organizational justice), consequences of GCW (occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions) and career obstacles.

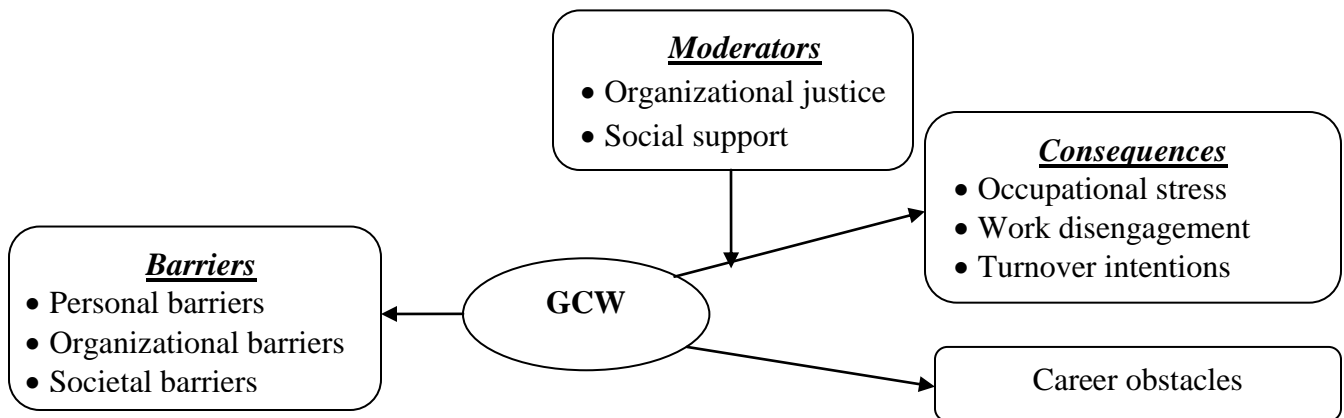


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Framework of the Study

3.7 Sources of Data Collection

In pursuance of the above objectives and hypotheses, the following sources of data collection were used for this study. The objectives of the study were achieved through the collection of both secondary and primary data.

- **Secondary data:** The secondary data has been mainly drawn from various listed publications, journals, books, and internet.
- **Primary data:** Primary data refers to the statistical material which the researcher originates for himself/herself for the inquiry in hand. The primary data for the present study was collected through structured schedules.

3.8 Research Design

The research design is descriptive in nature. The primary aim of Descriptive research (Statistical Research) is to describe the data and characteristics of what is being studied, and this kind of research is highly accurate. The study has used a structured schedule and the existing literature to collect relevant information about GCW. A 5-point Likert scale was employed for the structured schedule utilized for the study. The statements/items were framed positively and negatively, as well as directly and indirectly, to minimize the halo effect which is a kind of immediate judgment discrepancy, or cognitive bias, where a respondent makes an initial assessment of study variable statements and assumes ambiguous information based upon concrete information (Nufer and Alesi, 2018). It has also helped us to assess the barriers contributing to the GCW and its effects in the Indian service sector. The role of the demographic characteristics of women managers has also been identified.

3.8.1 Sampling Technique

Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for selecting women managers from the service industries operating in the state of Punjab (India). According to India Brand Equity Foundation (2017), the percentage distribution of GSDP (Gross State Domestic Product) in the Punjab economy is predominantly due to the tertiary or service sector which amounts to 50.36 percent as compared to the primary and secondary sector. The major growth contributors to the service sector as per the report are trade, hotels, real estate, finance, insurance, communications, transport, and other services. Out of the above-mentioned growth contributors, the participation of women is higher in finance and insurance, communications, and hotels. Therefore, at the first stage, three service industries banking, information technology, and hospitality were selected due to the established bridging of the gender divide in these specific industries (The Hindu Business Line, 2014). At the second stage, out of the three selected industries, two top private banks from the banking industry, two top IT companies from the IT industry, and two top star category hotels from the hospitality industry were selected. Since the literature

suggests that the women managers are the appropriate sample to study the concept of the glass ceiling for women (Nath, 2000; Kiaye and Singh, 2013), therefore, at the final stage, all the women working at the managerial positions (senior managerial level, middle managerial level, lower managerial level) in the selected units were included in the study.

3.8.2 Sample Unit

The study covered two top private banks (HDFC and ICICI) from the banking industry, two top IT companies (Infosys and Tech Mahindra) from the IT industry, and 5-star and 4-star hotels from the hospitality industry.

3.8.3 Sample Area

The study was conducted in Punjab (India) which is divided into three regions, namely, Majha, Malwa, and Doaba. For deriving a representative sample, one highly populated district opted from each of the three regions. According to Census (2011), Amritsar, Ludhiana, and Jalandhar are the most highly populated districts of Majha, Malwa, and Doaba, respectively. Therefore, banks and hotels were selected from these three districts, while IT companies were taken from the capital of Punjab, i.e. Chandigarh, the hub of IT firms.

3.8.4 Sample Size

In 2015, all the women working at the managerial level in the two selected private banks covering all the three districts of Punjab were 334, in IT companies were 150, and in hotels were 69. In total, the number of women at the managerial level was 553. Therefore, the proportion of women managers from three industries viz., banking, IT, and hospitality was 60 percent, 27 percent, and 12 percent, respectively. The study included women employed at three managerial levels: the lower managerial level (operative/supervisory level or first line of management) which is selected by the middle-level management; the middle managerial level which is selected by the senior level management; and the senior managerial level. Therefore, the study included women at the lower managerial level, viz., banking: line manager, HR manager, operational

manager, sales manager, relationship manager, etc., IT: account manager, technology manager, recruitment manager, etc., and hospitality: event planner, marketing and advertising coordinator, HR director, etc.; the middle managerial level, viz., banking: branch manager, cluster head, regional manager etc., IT: chief operating officer, chief technology officer, chief marketing officer, chief legal officer, etc., hospitality: event director, restaurant manager, supervisor, etc.; and the senior managerial level consisting of the members of the board of directors, the chief executive officer, the general manager, the managing director and the president (for all the three selected industries).

Table 3.1: Distribution of Sample Size

Sample unit		Sample area	Punjab			Total	
			<i>Ludhiana</i>	<i>Amritsar</i>	<i>Jalandhar</i>		
Service sector	<i>Banking</i>	HDFC	82	78	58	334	
		ICICI	58	24	34		
	<i>Hospitality</i>	5-Star	12	9	9	69	
		4-Star	3	27	9		
	<i>IT</i>	Infosys Tech. Mahindra	<i>Chandigarh</i>			150	= 553
			80				
70							

3.9 Data Collection Form

In order to assess GCW, its impact on the level of occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions and women’s career progression, and the role of organizational justice and social support as moderators, following scales were used:

Independent variable: In the study, ‘GCW’ acted as an independent variable. GCW scale was developed by absorbing the statements of ‘personal barriers,’ ‘organizational barriers’ and ‘societal barriers’ from different research papers. The statements of ‘personal barriers’ were absorbed from Zafarullah (2000), Jain and Mukherji (2010), Kiaye and Singh (2013) and Cizel and Cizel (2014); the statements of ‘organizational barriers’ were adapted from Hunton *et al.* (1996), Zafarullah (2000), Afza and Newaz

(2008), Dimovski *et al.* (2010) and Kiaye and Singh (2013); and the statements of ‘societal barriers’ were immersed from Jain and Mukherji (2010) and Subramaniam *et al.* (2014).

Dependent variables: The study has four dependent variables, i.e. ‘occupational stress,’ ‘work disengagement,’ ‘turnover intentions’ and ‘career obstacles’. A standardized scale of Health and Safety Executives (HSE-35) for ‘occupational stress’ was obtained from Edwards *et al.* (2008). Further, the statements of ‘work engagement’ were assessed by the standardized scale used by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). However, un-standardized scales were used for turnover intentions and women’s career obstacles. The 15-items of turnover intentions were taken from Sonnentag *et al.* (1994) and Sharma and Sehrawat (2014), and the statements of women’s career obstacles were absorbed from Fried *et al.* (1996) and Al-Manasra *et al.* (2013).

Moderating variables: In the present study, two moderators, viz., organizational justice and social support were taken. The statements of organizational justice and social support were adapted from the standardized scales used by Colquitt (2001) and Lee (2004), respectively.

Table 3.2: Generation of Scale Items

S. No.	Scale	Studies
1.	Glass Ceiling	Personal barriers Zafarullah (2000), Jain and Mukherji (2010), Kiaye and Singh (2013), Cizel and Cizel (2014) Organizational barriers Hunton <i>et al.</i> (1996), Zafarullah (2000), Afza and Newaz (2008), Dimovski <i>et al.</i> (2010), Kiaye and Singh (2013) Societal barriers Jain and Mukherji (2010), Subramaniam <i>et al.</i> (2014)
2.	Occupational Stress	Edwards <i>et al.</i> (2008)
3.	Work Engagement	Schaufeli and Bakker (2004)
4.	Turnover Intentions	Sonnentag <i>et al.</i> (1994), Sharma and Sehrawat (2014)
5.	Career Obstacles	Fried <i>et al.</i> (1996), Al-Manasra <i>et al.</i> (2013)
6.	Organizational Justice	Colquitt (2001)
7.	Social Support	Lee (2004)

3.10 Pilot Survey

The primary aim of conducting a pilot survey is to ensure the consistency and accuracy of each statement in the research instrument. Face and content validity of the structured schedule was determined with the support of five international subject experts such as Cary L. Cooper, Alison Cook, Helena Knorr, Mike Gallivan, Sabitha Marican. One statement of GCW construct, i.e. “My career is not as important because I am not the primary family provider” was reworded as “My career is not as important because I am not the main income earner for the family” based on the advice of one of the experts. The responses for pilot survey were collected from a sample of 100 women managers and one statement, i.e. “I am emotionally/academically unsuitable for management positions” was split into two separate statements, i.e. “I am emotionally unsuitable for management positions” and “I am academically unsuitable for management positions” based on the respondent’s suggestion. To determine the reliability, Cronbach’s alpha method was used for each of the seven scales included in the study, namely, GCW, occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, women’s career obstacles, organizational justice, and social support. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for the research constructs obtained were: GCW (.88), organizational stress (.82), work disengagement (.78), turnover intentions (.72), women’s career obstacles (.77), organizational justice (.80) and social support (.78).

3.11 Statistical Tools Used

The data is analyzed by using the ‘Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23.0 version). Before analyzing the data, the assumption of normality of the distribution and multicollinearity were checked. Since, the literature supports the use of skewness and kurtosis to check the normality of Likert scale data (Dawes, 2008; Chahal *et al.*, 2014; Oliveira *et al.*, 2015; Muzaffar, 2016); therefore the normality was tested through skewness and kurtosis. Though a normal distribution has skewness value close to zero, the range of skewness between -1 to +1 (Hair *et al.*, 2010) and kurtosis values between -3

to +3 (Field, 2009) is also acceptable. To check the multicollinearity issues, correlation values from -.70 to +.70 were considered. Two items, viz., 'I am not respected by male colleagues' and 'There is a lack of training opportunities to gain experience' had a high correlation value (.95); therefore, one item 'I am not respected by male colleagues' was dropped.

Further, factor analysis was applied on unstandardized scales to reduce the number of items into a manageable number. Factor analysis is the procedure which is used by the researchers to organize, explore and reduce various statements from the questionnaire to certain factors under one dependent variable in research (Chua, 2009). It is described as, "an extension of the correlational method, where several variables are found to be rather highly correlated, it may be inferred that they are connected in some way, perhaps by a common underlying variable which is not immediately present in the measurements" (Carroll and Schweiker, 1951). After factor analysis, the values of Cronbach's alpha were computed to ensure the internal consistency of the instrument. The minimum value of alpha accepted was above 0.60 (Malhotra, 2007). It is common to identify the instruments' reliability used in published studies of social sciences framed in terms of a statistic known as Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Cronbach's alpha is defined as "one of the most important and pervasive statistics in research involving test construction and uses (Cortina, 1993) to the extent that its use in research with multiple-item measurements is considered a *routine*" (Schmitt, 1996).

Furthermore, one-sample t-test was used to identify the prevalence of glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector. Salkind (2010) described one-sample t-test as, "a test for determining whether the mean of a population is different from the actual sample mean. The researcher begins by selecting a sample of observations from the population of interest and estimates the population mean by calculating the mean of the sample". Also, independent t-test was used to determine if there is any significant difference between the two categories of the respondents with respect to the demographic variables. Therefore, independent sample t-test is a hypothesis test for identifying

whether the population means of two independent groups are the same or not (Salkind, 2010).

Multiple regressions were used to determine the impact of GCW on the level of occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, and women's career progression. Regression analysis is performed so as to determine the correlations between two or more variables having cause-effect relations, and to make predictions by using the relation. Regression models with one dependent variable and more than one independent variables are called multiple regression (Uyanik and Guler, 2013). The moderation was checked by applying moderated hierarchical regression analysis. Moderation is considered as an interaction effect, where on adding a moderator, the magnitude or direction of the association between dependent and independent variable is changed. Moderation effect is divided in three kinds viz., (a) enhancing effect: when the moderator is increased, the effect of the IV (independent variable) on the DV (dependent variable) would also be increased; (b) buffering effect: when the moderator is increased, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is decreased; or (c) antagonistic effect: when the moderator is increased, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable would be reversed. To test the moderation, in particular, the interaction effect between X (independent variable) and M (moderating variable) is considered and whether or not such an effect is significant in predicting Y (dependent variable).

3.12 Limitations of the Study

Although the findings of the present study will contribute to the existing literature, some limitations of this study are evident, which are as follows:

- The study is limited to one state of Northern India. So, it would be difficult to apply these results in the same manner in other regions.
- The study is restricted to only three industries.
- The sample size of the study is not proportionate to all the three industries (Sharma and Sharma, 2015; Popescu *et al.*, 2018), though it covered all the women

managers from each selected industry and the high percentage was obtained from the banking industry, followed by IT and hospitality industry.

- The sample area and sampling units under study did not have any women at the senior management level. Therefore, the study was unable to attain any response from senior women managers.

- The study does is limited to only four consequences (occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, and women's career progression) and two moderators (organizational justice and social support). However, other influential factors such as emotional intelligence, leadership competency, individual changes, and organizational initiatives, which can influence women's perception of the glass ceiling and career goals can be studied in further research.

- The study did not obtain the opinion of HR personnel regarding the promotion criterion that can provide insights regarding the organizational promotion procedures.

- Since the results depend upon the perception of the respondents, and sometimes people show biases, or sometimes they never express what they want to say, some subjectivity in their response is possible.

3.13 Conclusion

The chapter explained the research methodology including problem statement, rationale of the study, nature and scope of the study, objectives of the study, formulation of hypotheses, theoretical framework of the study, sources of data collection, sample and sample technique, data collection form, pilot survey of the study, research design, statistical tools to test various hypotheses and limitations of the study. The descriptive study was designed using the multi-stage sampling technique. The women managers from three industries of the service sector, i.e. banking, information technology, and hospitality, were studied to achieve the objectives of the study. The respondents were drawn from branches of two banks and 5-star and 4-star hotels located in Ludhiana, Amritsar, and Jalandhar and for IT industry women managers were obtained from two companies located in the capital of Punjab- Chandigarh. The sample consisted of 553

women managers from two banks, two IT companies, and two kinds of hotels. The research instrument used for data collection consisted of seven scales, including glass ceiling, occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, career obstacles, organizational justice, and social support. The data were analyzed by using the ‘Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The chapter also explained in detail the methods used to operationalize and measure the concept of GCW and the instrument (survey) developed to understand the perceptions of women working at the managerial levels. It presented different hypotheses which, when tested would help achieve answers to the research problem or objectives.

CHAPTER - 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter analyses the data collected from 553 women managers through structured schedules. The responses for each variable ranged on a scale of 1 to 5 with average 3, where 1 means ‘strongly disagree’ and 5 means ‘strongly agree’ depicting that the mean value above 3 is considered as the existence of the study variables. The data were analyzed using factor analysis, one sample t-test, multiple regression, moderated regression, and independent samples t-test.

4.1 Data Purification

Before testing the hypotheses, the normality of distribution and assumption of multicollinearity were ensured. To check the normality, the values of skewness and kurtosis were computed and items with a value of skewness between -1 to +1 (Hair *et al.*, 2010) and kurtosis ranging from -3 to +3 were retained (Field, 2009). In addition, To check the multicollinearity issues, correlation values from -.70 to +.70 were considered. A total of 51 items out of 54 items of GCW were retained after data purification. Further, seven items of women’s career obstacles were reduced into five statements in the data purification process, whereas all items of turnover intentions fulfilled the normality assumption.

4.2 Principal Component Analysis

To reduce the whole data into lesser numbers of significant factors, principal component analysis (PCA) has been applied. PCA was performed initially on the GCW (glass ceiling for women) scale. The purified data resulted in 41 items of GCW clubbed under eight factors, viz. ‘lack of self-esteem’, ‘challenge aversion’, ‘gender discrimination’, ‘disparate treatment’, ‘negative work environment’, ‘biased corporate

practices', 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'. The result of factor analysis for GCW is discussed as follows:

Glass Ceiling for Women

EFA was run on GCW, which consisted of 51 items, after satisfying the normality and multicollinearity assumption. In the first round, the KMO came out to be 0.88 but the items such as "I am not interested in challenging assignments" and "I do not have the ability to solve most of life's problems" (personal barriers) showed low communalities (below .04, DeVellis, 2003), hence were deleted. Further in the second round three items such as "I have the inability to move if the job requires it", "I feel guilty if I do not spend enough time with my family" (societal barriers) and "I am academically unsuitable for management positions" (personal barriers) showed low factor loading (below .05) and were deleted. In the third round, again due to the low value of factor loading one more item was deleted, namely "I am not extremely passionate to progress in my career" (personal barriers).

In the fourth run, the items "I am not confident in my abilities", "I have lack of ambition in comparison to men" (personal barriers) and "organization discriminates with me regarding annual compensation" (organizational barriers) showed low factor loading and were deleted. In the fifth round, again due to the low value of factor loading one more item from organizational barriers was deleted i.e. "there is a lack of training opportunities to gain experience". In the sixth round of EFA, the remaining items satisfied the acceptance criteria with KMO value as 0.88 and total variance explained of 62.72 percent. All the eight factors were found to be reliable as the value of Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.60 to 0.92 (Malhotra, 2007).). The factors with the statements retained are exhibited in Table 4.1. Thus, out of 51 items, 41 items got clubbed into eight factors, two of personal barriers (lack of self-esteem, challenge aversion), four of organizational barriers (gender discrimination, disparate treatment, negative work environment, biased corporate practices) and two of societal barriers (family responsibilities, work-family imbalance), depicted in tabular form in Table 4.2.

Table 4.1: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for GCW

Statements	Mean	SD	Comm.	FL	VE	Cronbach's alpha
Factor 1. Lack of self-esteem						
<i>Mean value = 2.84</i>						
I am too hesitant, weak and illogical.	2.70	1.29	.78	.86	13.55%	.92
I feel that my success reflects chance, not my ability.	2.60	1.30	.79	.86		
I expect my supervisor to bear in mind my feminine characteristics when appraising my performance.	2.63	1.31	.76	.84		
My subordinates have not confidence in my leadership.	2.94	1.22	.73	.83		
I am not committed to my job.	3.07	1.26	.67	.81		
I am unable to reach my goals in life.	2.76	1.29	.65	.77		
I have no control over the outcome.	3.02	1.22	.54	.69		
I am not sufficiently competitive.	3.01	1.21	.45	.64		
Factor 2. Gender discrimination						
<i>Mean value = 3.58</i>						
I have to be more skilled than men in order to be promoted.	3.78	1.02	.68	.80	11.47%	.90
Management lack in commitment to equality of genders.	3.58	1.10	.66	.77		
Organization discriminates with me regarding annual compensation.	3.51	1.15	.69	.76		
There is discouraging corporate cultures in my organization.	3.61	1.03	.64	.75		
There are not career opportunities for me.	3.49	1.14	.63	.72		
Men have negative attitudes towards me.	3.41	1.13	.56	.70		
I have to work extra hard to be recognized.	3.63	1.04	.66	.66		
Organization discriminates with me regarding promotion.	3.64	1.04	.56	.66		
Factor 3. Family responsibilities						
<i>Mean value = 3.50</i>						
If I did not have any commitment to my family members, I would have gotten a higher managerial position.	3.70	1.01	.65	.76	8.13%	.83
Without family's help in housework, I would not accept the high post.	3.23	1.21	.59	.75		
More job responsibilities have a bad effect on my family life.	3.78	1.06	.65	.74		
Female manager cannot be a caring mother and attentive manager.	3.72	1.05	.53	.72		
My commitment to family life is a barrier to career progress.	3.13	1.28	.53	.69		

Woman can be a caring mother and wife but not the successful manager.	3.48	.98	.49	.60		
Factor 4. Work-family imbalance	Mean value = 3.47					
I am not willing to make sacrifices to get senior positions.	3.42	1.04	.70	.80	7.67%	.83
Taking care of family act as a barrier to my job advancement.	3.61	.88	.58	.75		
My career is not important because I am not a primary earner.	3.40	.93	.58	.73		
I am not prepared to avoid family responsibilities to advance in a job.	3.63	1.01	.61	.72		
Maintaining a balance between family affairs and job responsibilities is a difficult task.	3.31	.97	.55	.70		
Factor 5. Disparate treatment	Mean value = 3.88					
Men receive more organizational support/trust than me.	4.00	.91	.63	.75	6.54%	.78
Organization discriminates with me regarding job assignments.	3.75	1.00	.57	.73		
Performance appraisal and incentive systems favor men.	3.96	1.02	.61	.73		
I am not assigned to high visibility positions.	3.83	.96	.61	.67		
Factor 6. Challenge aversion	Mean value = 2.80					
I do not place myself in situations in which I cannot cope up.	2.91	.97	.75	.84	6.49%	.79
I am emotionally unsuitable for management positions.	2.96	.97	.70	.83		
I do not consider myself as a leader.	2.99	1.00	.68	.77		
I am unsuccessful at most tasks which I try.	2.34	1.01	.45	.59		
Factor 7. Negative work environment	Mean value = 3.63					
Men perceive I am less efficient than them.	3.79	.93	.66	.77	4.85%	.71
Superior officers doubt my work capabilities.	3.70	1.00	.64	.71		
I do not receive enough organizational support in order to manage my professional and domestic responsibilities.	3.40	1.11	.58	.68		
Factor 8. Biased corporate practices	Mean value = 3.41					
Male colleagues suffer from my superiority complex.	3.04	1.05	.62	.72	3.99%	.60
My work performance is not fairly evaluated.	3.78	.99	.59	.70		
Women achieving high positions are not rising in my organization.	3.43	1.03	.60	.63		
Note. SD= Standard Deviation, Comm.= Communality, FL= Factor Loading, VE= Variance Explained						

Table 4.2: Factors of GCW based on Exploratory Factor Analysis

S. No.	Dimensions/Factors of GCW	Corresponding Barriers
1.	Lack of self-esteem	Personal barriers
2.	Challenge aversion	Personal barriers
3.	Gender discrimination	Organizational barriers
4.	Disparate treatment	Organizational barriers
5.	Negative work environment	Organizational barriers
6.	Biased corporate practices	Organizational barriers
7.	Family responsibilities	Societal barriers
8.	Work-family imbalance	Societal barriers

Turnover Intentions

EFA was run on ‘turnover intentions’, which consisted of 15 items and this process got completed in three rounds. In the first round, the KMO came to be 0.83 but the two items such as ‘I do not like staying at workplace’ and ‘I cannot continue my job because of my personal reasons’ showed factor loadings below 0.5, hence were deleted. Again in the next round, the statement ‘I am not fit for this job’ showed low factor loading and the item was deleted. When the third round of EFA was performed, all the items fell in the acceptance criteria. The three factors solution showed KMO value as 0.80, the value of variance explained 60.13 percent and out of the three factors, two factors were found to be reliable. The factors with the statements retained are mentioned in Table 4.3. Thus, out of 15 statements, 10 items got clubbed into two factors, namely:

- (1) Exploring appropriate opportunity
- (2) Urgency of quitting job

Table 4.3: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for Turnover Intentions

Statements	Mean	SD	Comm.	FL	VE	Cronbach's alpha
<i>Turnover intentions (Mean value= 3.55)</i>						
<i>Factor 1: Exploring appropriate opportunity</i>	<i>Mean value= 3.57</i>					
As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave the organization.	3.71	.86	.63	.79		
I am actively looking for a job outside the organization.	3.37	1.07	.64	.78		

I am seriously thinking of quitting a job.	3.66	.97	.59	.76	28.40%	.84	
I will not be working at my place of service after 5 years.	3.78	.92	.56	.73			
I will change my job if the right opportunity with better pay offered.	3.37	1.03	.56	.70			
I am finding my job bored and repetitive.	3.56	1.02	.50	.68			
Factor 2: Urgency of quitting job	<i>Mean Value= 3.54</i>						
I would quit this job at once if I could.	3.67	.89	.68	.81	18.03%	.70	
I often think of giving up job sometimes.	3.59	.97	.65	.78			
I will not say as long.	3.33	1.13	.61	.62			
If I could I would get another job with another organization.	3.58	.99	.46	.60			

Women's Career Obstacles

EFA was run on 'women's career obstacles', which consisted of five items after deleting two items which were not normal and this process got completed in two rounds. In the first round, the KMO came out to be 0.68 but the item such as 'Men has difficulty in taking careers of women, seriously' showed factor loadings below 0.5, hence was deleted. When the second round of EFA was performed, all the items fell in the acceptance criteria. A single factor solution showed KMO value as 0.67, the value of variance explained 56.45 percent and was found to be reliable since the value of Cronbach's alpha was .74. The items retained are mentioned in Table 4.4. Thus, out of five statements, four items got clubbed into a single factor, namely 'Career Obstacles'.

Table 4.4: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis for Women's Career Obstacles Statements

Statements	Mean	SD	Comm.	FL	VE	Cronbach's alpha	
<i>Career obstacles</i>	<i>Mean value = 3.45</i>						
I have less opportunity than men for career progress at work.	3.26	1.00	.63	.79	56.45%	.74	
Gender-based barriers exist in my career success.	3.45	1.07	.56	.75			
Women employee is put up for promotion later than men.	3.40	1.05	.54	.74			
At top post promotion, women are discriminated.	3.69	.88	.50	.71			

4.3 Overall Reliability, Validity and Correlations

To verify the internal consistency in the data collected, Cronbach's alpha values have been worked out. The data proved reliable as the values of Cronbach's alpha were obtained above .60 (Malhotra, 2007). Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha obtained for all scales is: GCW (.79), occupational stress (.83), work disengagement (.78), turnover intentions (.77), career obstacles (.74), organizational justice (.87), and social support (.67). The descriptive statistics and correlations of study variables are shown in Table 4.5.

To establish the content validity of the items, the scales were developed using extant review of literature and discussions with the international subject experts. The international experts were:

1. Cary L. Cooper, Manchester Business School, University of Manchester, UK.
2. Alison Cook, Department of Management, Jon M. Huntsman School of Business, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, USA.
3. Helena Knorr, Global Management and Organizations, School of Business, Point Park University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA.
4. Mike Gallivan, Department of Computer Information System, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia, USA.
5. Sabitha Marican, Faculty of Economics and Administration, University of Malaya, Malaysia.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for the Study Variables

	Mean	SD	1. GC	2. OS	3. WD	4. TI	5. CO	6. OJ	7. SS
1. GCW	3.31	.33	(.79)						
2. OS	3.47	.66	.46**	(.83)					
3. WD	3.52	.79	.25**	.27**	(.78)				
4. TI	3.46	.69	.41**	.64**	.21**	(.77)			
5. CO	3.51	.61	.51**	.75**	.40**	.69**	(.74)		
6. OJ	3.19	1.07	-.26**	-.14**	-.08*	-.11**	-.05	(.87)	
7. SS	3.15	.90	-.24**	-.12**	-.05	-.08*	-.06	.14**	(.67)

GCW= Glass ceiling for women; OS= Occupational stress; WD= Work disengagement; TI= Turnover intentions; CO= Career obstacles; OJ= Organizational justice; SS= Social support; **Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The mean values are shown in Table 4.5 exhibit that among the seven study variables, ‘work disengagement’ and ‘career obstacles’ faced by women managers in the service sector are at a high level. Additionally, the level of occupational stress and turnover intentions was also found to be high as the mean values are 3.47 and 3.46, respectively. GCW has a significant positive relationship with its consequences while negative with organizational justice and social support. Further, the study identified a positive correlation between occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and career obstacles while the negative relationship found of all the consequences with organizational justice and social support. Additionally, the study showed a positive relationship between organizational justice and social support.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

The analyses of data lead to the stage of hypotheses testing for drawing conclusions. The testing of each hypothesis is discussed as under:

H₁ - There is a prevalence of the glass ceiling for women managers in the service sector.

One sample T-test was used to determine the level of GCW in the service sector. Most of the women managers working in the service sector agreed with the presence of the GCW in terms of various barriers. Therefore, women managers reported above-average levels of GCW in the form of organizational barriers (disparate treatment, negative work environment, gender discrimination, and biased corporate practices) and societal barriers (family responsibilities and work-family imbalance). However, women managers did not report any personal barriers in terms of ‘lack of self-esteem’ and ‘challenge aversion’. The mean, standard deviation (SD) and inference are exhibited in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Glass ceiling for Women Managers in the Service Sector

Factors of GCW	Mean	SD	T-value	Sig. value	Inference
Lack of self-esteem	2.84	1.02	-3.60	.00	Disagree
Challenge aversion	2.79	.78	-6.02	.00	Disagree
Gender discrimination	3.58	.83	16.39	.00	Agree
Disparate treatment	3.88	.76	27.32	.00	Agree
Negative work environment	3.62	.81	18.13	.00	Agree
Biased corporate practices	3.41	.76	12.77	.00	Agree
Family responsibilities	3.50	.82	14.44	.00	Agree
Work-family imbalance	3.47	.75	14.71	.00	Agree

As the first hypothesis of the study concluded that the GCW in terms of organizational barriers and societal barriers exist among women managers in the service sector. The results showed that women managers agreed with the prevalence of various factors such as gender discrimination, disparate treatment, negative work environment, biased corporate practices, family responsibilities, and work-family imbalance that contributed in the presence of GCW.

Discussion for H₁

Various studies support the present findings (Babita, 2006; Sampson and Moore, 2008; Sharma *et al.*, 2011; Kiaye and Singh, 2013; Darshan and Dubey, 2014). The studies conducted by Darshan and Dubey (2014) and Sharma *et al.* (2011) identified the presence of GCW in terms of differentiation in employment and the present study also identified gender discrimination as a barrier and family responsibilities and work-family imbalance occurred as a societal barrier while personal barriers (lack of self-esteem and challenge aversion) did not exist among women managers (Kiaye and Singh, 2013). In their study, Sampson and Moore (2008) also explored the existence glass ceiling in terms of organizational barriers while Babita (2006) identified organizational and societal barriers as the key factors of the glass ceiling. Therefore, Indian women managers were found to be self-confident and challenge liking (Kiaye and Singh, 2013), but they faced organizational barriers and societal barriers that prevented them to advance towards the senior-level positions.

At the organizational level, discrimination was in the form of pay, job responsibilities and promotional opportunities (Hara, 2018), that indicated towards the prevalence of glass ceiling. However, the high mean value was predicted for 'disparate treatment' that signified differential treatment to women such as men received more support and trust than women, and performance appraisal and incentive system favored men, which create obstacles to women's advancement and created an invisible ceiling of glass (Babita, 2006). In terms of societal barriers, 'family responsibilities' was identified as the main barrier, responsible for the existence of the glass ceiling. Societal barriers inhibit the advancement of women managers at senior management positions in terms of more family responsibilities and work-family imbalance. In the support of the present findings, the various studies conducted by Maimunah and Mariani (2008), Orser *et al.* (2012), and Shahtalebi and Yarmohammadian (2012) identified work and family issues as career barriers and family issues reflected in the form of children status, taking care of parents, personal and job demands, long time away from family and time necessitated for work and travel. In the same line, Lyonette and Crompton (2008) suggested in their study that gender discrimination is still present but for higher-level positions, family responsibilities were found to be one of the major barriers.

Therefore, the results of the present study identified that the glass ceiling for women is reflected by the organizational barriers and societal barriers rather than the personal barriers. So, according to the present study, the justification for women having fewer opportunities for the career advancement in the organization is gender discrimination, disparate treatment, negative work environment, biased corporate practices, family responsibilities, work-family imbalance rather than lack of self-confidence and challenge aversion. So, the overall study concluded that there is an existence of GCW at managerial levels in terms of organizational and societal barriers (Table 4.6), which leads to the support of the first hypothesis.

H₂ - There are various barriers (personal, organizational and societal) leading to the glass ceiling for women in the service sector.

H_{2a} - There are personal barriers leading to the glass ceiling for women in the service sector.

H_{2b} - There are organizational barriers leading to the glass ceiling for women in the service sector.

H_{2c} - There are societal barriers leading to the glass ceiling for women in the service sector.

To test the second hypothesis, the impact of all three barriers on the master statement ‘there exist glass ceiling in the service sector’ was studied, for which three sets of multiple regressions were performed. In the analysis, the statement, ‘there exist glass ceiling in the service sector’ served as the dependent variable. In the first multiple regression, factors of personal barriers i.e. ‘lack of self-esteem’ and ‘challenge aversion’ were entered as independent variables (H_{2a}) and in the second multiple regression, factors of organizational barriers (‘gender discrimination’, ‘disparate treatment’, ‘negative work environment’ and ‘biased corporate practices’) as independent variable (H_{2b}) were entered. In the last set, two factors of societal barriers (‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’) were entered (H_{2c}) as the independent variable (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Multiple Regression Analysis for the Existence of GCW

	Predictor	B	Beta	Sig.	R	R²	Adjusted R²
<i>Personal barriers</i>	(Constant)	3.81		.00	.24	.10	.09
	Lack of self-esteem	-.01	-.03	.49			
	Challenge aversion	-.07	-.10	.11			
<i>Organisational barriers</i>	(Constant)	1.43		.00	.46	.22	.21
	Gender discrimination	.09	.12	.00			
	Disparate treatment	.18	.22	.00			
	Negative work environment	.17	.24	.00			
	Biased corporate practices	.12	.16	.00			
<i>Societal barriers</i>	(Constant)	1.82		.00	.56	.31	.31
	Family responsibilities	.25	.34	.00			
	Work-family imbalance	.23	.29	.00			

The result of the first multiple regression analysis reveals the value of R and R² which are .24 and .10 (F(2, 550) = 13.53, p<.05) respectively, but the insignificant beta values indicate that personal barriers ('lack of self-esteem' and 'challenge aversion') do not have any impact on the existence of GCW that lead to the rejection of H_{2a}. Furthermore, in the second multiple regression analysis the value of R is .46 and R² is .22 (F(4, 548) = 38.23, p<.05), indicating that organizational barriers ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices') explain 22 percent variation in the dependent variable, which means that organizational barriers have 22 percent impact on the GCW. Therefore, H_{2b} is supported. Further, for the third multiple regression analysis, the value of R is .56 and R² is .31 (F(2, 550) = 125.61, p<.05), indicating that the societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explain 31 percent variation in the existence of GCW in the service sector which supports H_{2c} (Table 4.7).

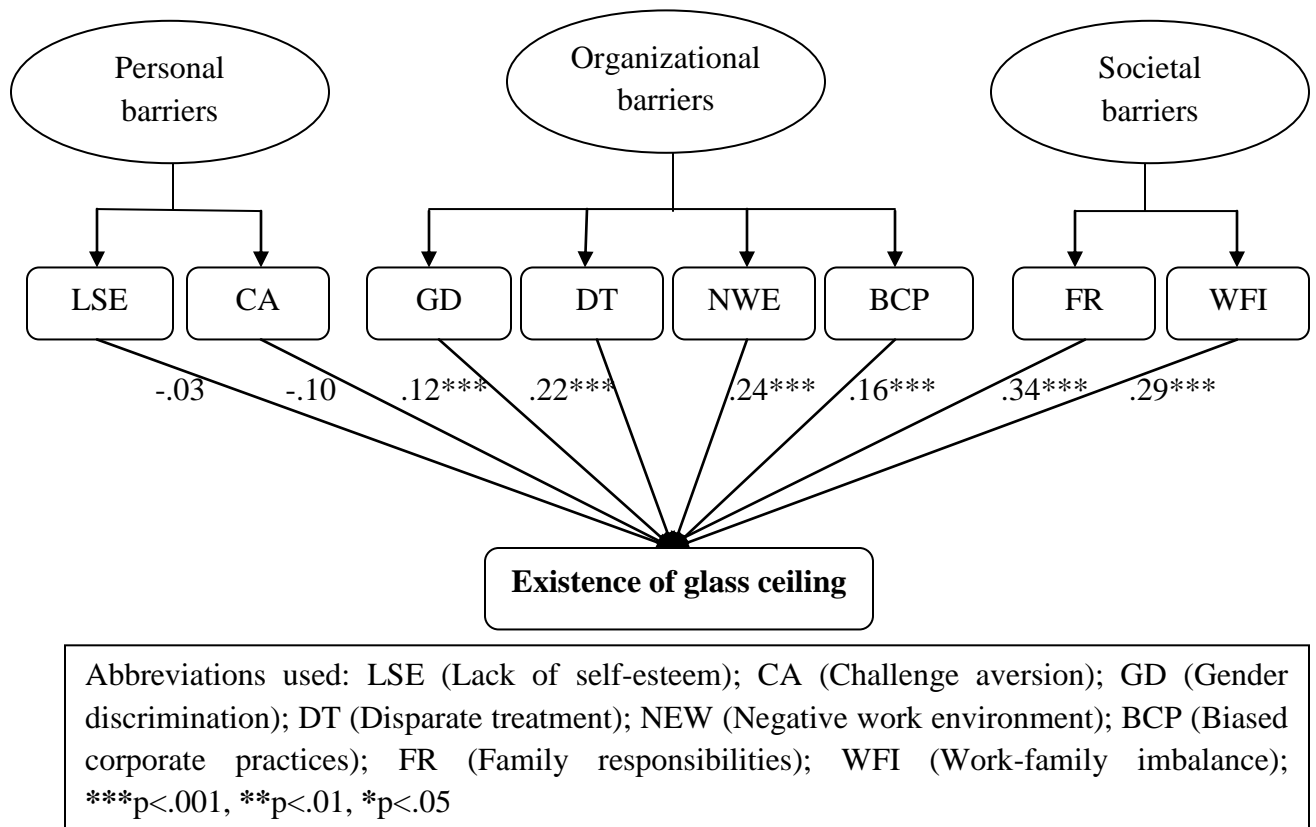


Figure 4.1: Results of the Hypothesized Model for the GCW

Discussion for H₂

The results suggested that in the Indian service sector ‘societal barriers’ are the major contributor that lead to glass ceiling (Habib, 2000; Jones and Oppenheim, 2002; Sujatha, 2008; Jain and Mukherji, 2010; Kumar and Sunder, 2012) because of Indian culture and society’s expectations from women, as she is not treated as the primary earner and her career is always considered as optional. Therefore, she has to give priority to her family and not to the career. In support, Cimirotik *et al.* (2017) also identified ‘motherhood’, ‘working time’ and ‘work-life imbalance’ as major difficulties that women executives faced; and family responsibilities majorly contributed in the existence of the glass ceiling (Plessis *et al.*, 2015). In support to the present findings, Abidin *et al.* (2009) also discovered social life (includes children, male counterparts, public, relatives, spouse, etc.) as a factor thwarting women from gaining entrance to top management positions in the large-scale organizations. Another study done by Sujatha (2008) identified family pressures, managerial stereotypes, maternity leave, normative pressures, structural barriers and work-family imbalance as the barriers in women advancement. Therefore, the study revealed the presence of GCW with significant barriers to women’s advancement in the service sector with regard to various societal barriers.

Furthermore, the study highlighted that the women managers agreed with the presence of organizational barriers in terms of the negative work environment, biased corporate practices, disparate treatment, and gender discrimination that led to the issue of biasness occurring in corporate practices. In other words, women considered that the organization discriminated with them regarding job advancement, annual compensation, and job assignments. This result is in accordance with Cochran *et al.* (2013), observed that women experienced active discrimination in terms of differential treatment and negative comments about their gender which obstructed the women’s career aspirations. Women managers also considered that the work environment of the organization was negative towards them in the form of unfair evaluation, lack of career opportunities and they had to work extra hard to be recognized. Jain and Mukherji (2010) also identified that women did not have a conducive atmosphere in the workplace for their career

advancement. The study by Sharma *et al.* (2011) also identified that women faced biases, salary disparity and they had to choose only traditional areas of the profession. The reason behind this pattern is that in the organizations, masculine characteristics still persist that deny the presence of women.

The first two factors of personal barriers i.e. lack of self-esteem and challenge aversion indicated that the Indian women managers felt that they neither lack self-esteem nor challenge aversion while they agreed that they are self-confident and challenge liking. In support of the present finding, Kanter (1977) suggested that for the blockage of women's career advancement, the organizational policies and processes are responsible and not their personal factors. In another study done by Har-Even (2004), also disagrees on the statement that the women's risk aversion and fear of success make them incompatible for leadership positions in the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, societal barriers and organizational barriers were identified as the main barrier to the prevalence of the GCW which support the social role theory, and organization/situation centred theory, while person-centered theory which proposed that lack of socialization practices and behavioral differences between the leadership of both genders (men and women) leads to the glass ceiling (Akande, 1994; Powell and Butterfield, 2003) is not supported. According to the organization/situation centered theory, negative work environment experienced by women creates a hurdle for women to reach the management positions. Additionally, with regard to the social role theory, social roles and social stereotypes play a significant role in the obstruction of women career advancement. To conclude, the second hypothesis of the study is partially supported, since two barriers viz., organizational and societal barriers lead to GCW.

Since, the second hypothesis identified that personal barriers, viz., 'lack of self-esteem', and 'challenge aversion' did not have any contribution towards GCW; therefore, the present study will consider only six factors of organizational ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices') and societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'), while the personal barriers will be excluded from further analysis.

H₃ - Glass ceiling for women significantly leads to occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions among women managers in the service sector.

H_{3a} - Glass ceiling for women significantly leads to occupational stress among women managers in the service sector.

H_{3b} - Glass ceiling for women significantly leads to work disengagement among women managers in the service sector.

H_{3c} - Glass ceiling for women significantly leads to turnover intentions among women managers in the service sector.

To analyze the impact of the GCW on the consequences, three sets of multiple regressions were performed. In all analyses, six factors of GCW i.e. ‘gender discrimination’, ‘disparate treatment’, ‘negative work environment’, ‘biased corporate practices’, ‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’ served as the independent variables. In the first multiple regression, occupational stress was entered as the dependent variable (H_{3a}) and in the second multiple regression, work disengagement as the dependent variable (H_{3b}) was entered. In the last set, the variable ‘turnover intentions’ was entered (H_{3c}) as the dependent variable (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Multiple Regression Analysis for Occupational Stress, Work Disengagement and Turnover Intentions

Predictor		Criterion	B	Beta	Sig.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
	(Constant)	Occupational stress	.43		.04	.63	.40	.39
<i>Organizational barriers</i>	Gender discrimination		.02	.03	.32			
	Disparate treatment		.13	.15	.00			
	Negative work environment		.04	.05	.17			
	Biased corporate practices		.06	.08	.02			
	<i>Societal barriers</i>		Family responsibilities	.31	.39			
	Work-family imbalance		.26	.30	.00			
	(Constant)		Work	-.10				
<i>Organizational barriers</i>	Gender discrimination	.24		.25	.00			
	Disparate treatment	.15		.14	.00			
	Negative work	.02		.02	.53			

	environment	disengagement				.47	.22	.21
	Biased corporate practices		.40	.39	.00			
<i>Societal barriers</i>	Family responsibilities		.05	.06	.17			
	Work-family imbalance		.12	.12	.00			
	(Constant)		.50		.03			
<i>Organizational barriers</i>	Gender discrimination	Turnover intentions	-.02	-.02	.49	.61	.38	.37
	Disparate treatment		.13	.15	.00			
	Negative work environment		.09	.10	.00			
	Biased corporate practices		.04	.05	.13			
<i>Societal barriers</i>	Family responsibilities		.28	.34	.00			
	Work-family imbalance		.28	.31	.00			

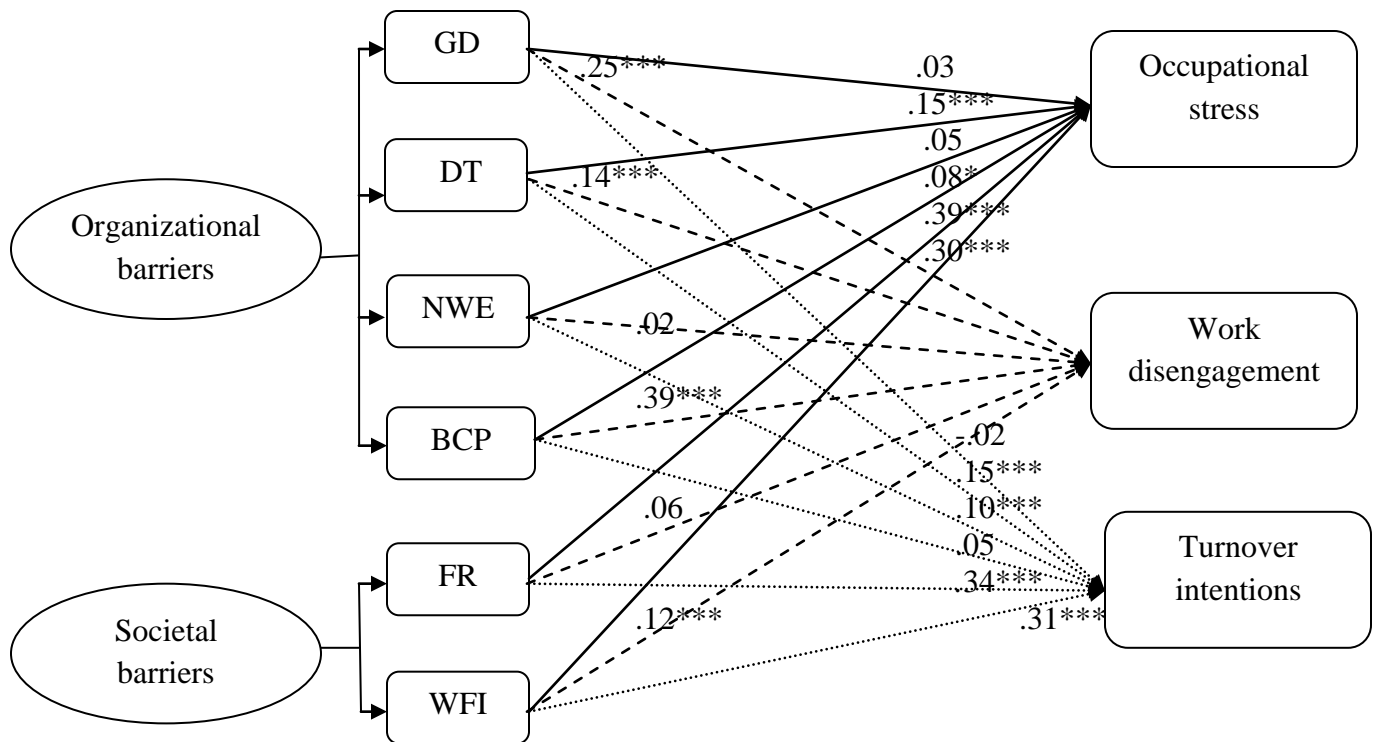
The result of the multiple regression analysis for ‘occupational stress’ reveals that R is .63 and R² is .40 (F(6, 546) = 62.15, p<.05), indicating that GCW (organizational barriers i.e. ‘disparate treatment’ and ‘biased corporate practices’ and societal barriers i.e. ‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’) explains 40 percent variation in the dependent variable i.e. occupational stress (Table 4.8), which lead to support of H_{3a}. The result for ‘work disengagement’ reveals that R is .47 and R² is .22 (F(6, 546) = 26.86, p<.05), indicating that GCW (organizational barriers i.e. ‘disparate treatment’ and ‘gender discrimination’ and societal barriers i.e. ‘family responsibilities’, ‘work-family imbalance’ and ‘family priorities’) explains 22 percent variation in the dependent variable i.e. work disengagement. Therefore, H_{3b} is also supported. The result for ‘turnover intentions’ reveals that R is .61 and R² is .38 (F(6, 546) = 55.74, p<.05), indicating that GCW (organizational barriers i.e. ‘disparate treatment’, and ‘negative work environment’ and societal barriers i.e. ‘work-family imbalance’ and ‘family responsibilities’) explains 38 percent variation in the dependent variable i.e. turnover intentions (Table 4.8), that support H_{3c}. The regression equations comprising of ‘occupational stress’, ‘work disengagement’ and ‘turnover intentions’ as dependent variables and nine variables as independent is as under:-

$$\text{Occupational stress} = .43 + .13 (\text{disparate treatment}) + .06 (\text{biased corporate practices}) + .31 (\text{family responsibilities}) + .26 (\text{work-family imbalance})$$

$$\text{Work disengagement} = -.10 + .24 (\text{gender discrimination}) + .15 (\text{disparate treatment}) + .40 (\text{biased corporate practices}) + .12 (\text{work-family imbalance})$$

$$\text{Turnover intentions} = .50 + .13 (\text{disparate treatment}) + .09 (\text{negative work environment}) + .28 (\text{family responsibilities}) + .28 (\text{work-family imbalance})$$

The equations reveal that half of the independent variables in the model influence dependent variables significantly. Further, the most important contributor for occupational stress is ‘family responsibilities’ ($\beta=.39, p<.05$), work disengagement is ‘biased corporate practices’ ($\beta =.41, p<.05$) and turnover intentions is ‘family responsibilities’ ($\beta =.34, p<.05$).



Abbreviations used: GD (Gender discrimination); DT (Disparate treatment); NEW (Negative work environment); BCP (Biased corporate practices); FR (Family responsibilities); WFI (Work-family imbalance); *** $p<.001$, ** $p<.01$, * $p<.05$

Figure 4.2: Results of the Hypothesized Model for Occupational Stress, Work Disengagement, and Turnover Intentions

Discussion for H₃

The study found that GCW (organizational barriers and societal barriers) had a significant positive impact on occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions through the explained variances of 40 percent, 22 percent, and 38 percent, respectively. In support of this, Channer *et al.* (2011) and Imam *et al.* (2014) identified the glass ceiling as the predictor of occupational stress. As the glass ceiling for women gets stronger in terms of organizational barriers and societal barriers, women managers would experience high levels of occupational stress. According to Doyle and Hind (1998), women experienced a high level of stress due to the glass ceiling. Additionally, a study done on IT industry by Kanwar *et al.* (2012) found women as less satisfied employees and hence the rate of turnover among women were more as compared to men. The various factors i.e. conflicting roles, family responsibilities, mobility constraints, societal expectations, and work-life balance were identified as the antecedents of turnover intentions among women (Kanwar *et al.*, 2012). Hence, as the women perceived a high level of disparity and discrimination, the level of turnover intentions among them also increased (Ozer and Gunluk, 2010). Further, Kim (2015) explored that the perception of women about biased treatment experienced at the workplace in the form of organizational barriers, including disparate treatment and negative work environment resulted in a lower level of work engagement among them. Some other studies by Sia *et al.* (2015), and Messarra (2014) also identified gender discrimination as the reason of low levels of commitment and work engagement, indicating that the supportive organizational practices can enhance the level of work engagement, job, and career satisfaction among women managers.

With regard to the societal barriers, Fiksenbaum (2014) identified that the women managers give more preference to their family rather than their career that create conflicts between work and family as they prioritize the family over their work, thereby negatively affecting the engagement level of the employees. Additionally, this is the reason why female employees experience exhaustion from work to family and enhancement from family to work in contrast to the male employees who experience enrichment from work to family (Rothbard, 1999). According to Fei *et al.* (2017), work-family conflict was

predicted as a barrier to career growth that led to occupational stress among middle-level women managers.

In contrast to the findings of the present study, Ronald *et al.* (2010) found in their study that women experienced more supportive organizational practices that resulted in more engagement at their work. In the same line, Khalid and Aroosh (2014) discovered that gender discrimination did not have much impact on women's performance and organizational commitment, while, Qureshi *et al.* (2010) showed that there are a number of factors such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, well-defined job description, and gender discrimination that affect employee performance. Therefore, with the increase in GCW (organizational barriers and societal barriers) the level of occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions will also increase. The study found that women managers experienced glass ceiling that resulted in negative consequences i.e. occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions. To conclude, the third hypothesis of the study is supported which proposed that GCW leads to occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions.

H₄ - Glass ceiling blocks the career progression of women managers in the service sector.

To analyze the impact of GCW on the career progression of women, multiple regression analysis was performed. In the analysis, 'career obstacles' served as the dependent variable and all the factors of GCW i.e. organizational barriers ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices') and societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') were entered as independent variables (Table 4.9).

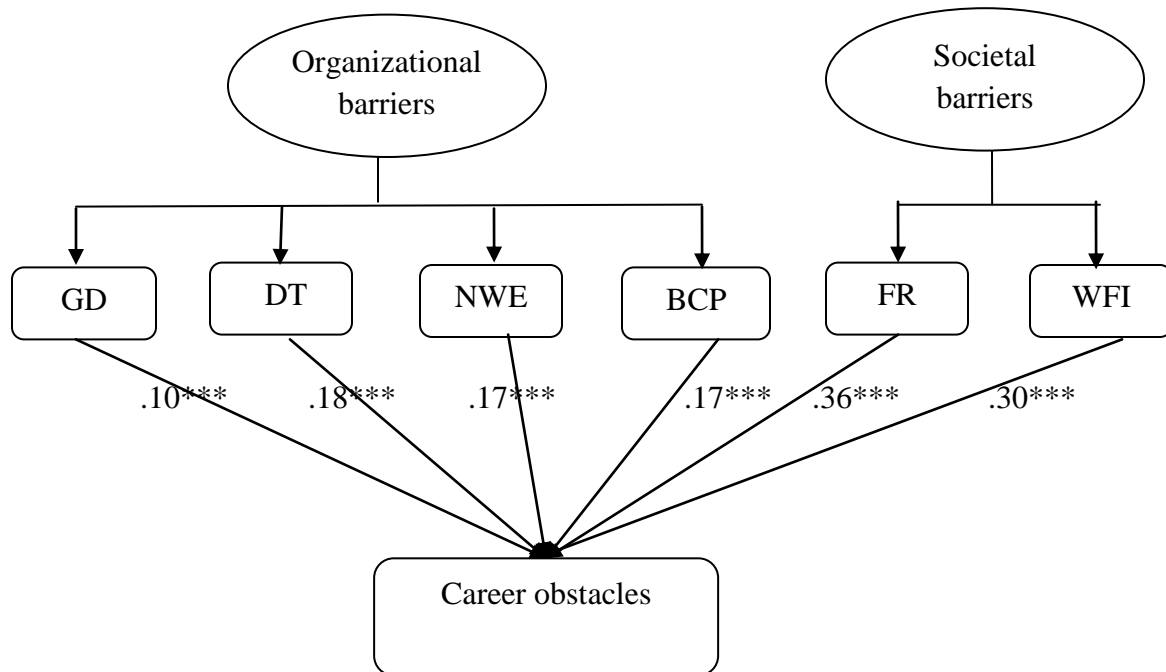
Table 4.9: Multiple Regression Analysis for Career Obstacles

Predictor		B	Beta	Sig.	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	
<i>Glass Ceiling</i>	(Constant)	-.15		.42	.69	.48	.48	
	<i>Organizational barriers</i>	Gender discrimination	.07	.10				.00
		Disparate treatment	.15	.18				.00
		Negative work environment	.13	.17				.00
	<i>Societal barriers</i>	Biased corporate practices	.13	.17				.00
		Family responsibilities	.27	.36				.00
		Work-family imbalance	.25	.30				.00

The result of the multiple regression analysis for ‘career obstacles’ reveals that R is .69 and R² is .48 (F(6,546) = 86.67, p<.05), indicating that GCW (organizational barriers i.e. ‘disparate treatment’, ‘negative work environment’, ‘biased corporate practices’ and ‘gender discrimination’, and societal barriers i.e. ‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’) explains 48 percent variation in the dependent variable i.e. career obstacles (Table 4.9). Organizational and societal barriers are 48 percent responsible for the obstacles in women’s career progression. The regression equation comprising of ‘career obstacles’ as the dependent variable and five variables as independent variables is as under:-

$$\text{Career obstacles} = -.15 + .07 (\text{gender discrimination}) + .15 (\text{disparate treatment}) + .13 (\text{negative work environment}) + .13 (\text{biased corporate practices}) + .27 (\text{family responsibilities}) + .25 (\text{work-family imbalance})$$

The equation reveals that all the factors of GCW (except personal barriers) in the regression model influence career obstacles significantly. The key contributor to women’s career obstacles is ‘family responsibilities’ ($\beta = .36$, p<.05).



Abbreviations used: GD (Gender discrimination); DT (Disparate treatment); NEW (Negative work environment); BCP (Biased corporate practices); FR (Family responsibilities); WFI (Work-family imbalance); ***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Figure 4.2: Results of the Hypothesized Model for Career Obstacles

Discussion for H₄

It was found that GCW has a direct significant impact on women’s career progression that creates obstacles in their path. This finding is supported by previous studies (Afza and Newaz, 2008; Al-Manasra *et al.*, 2013; Kolade and Kehinde, 2013; Evers and Sieverding, 2014). Another set of studies suggested that the women managers faced the glass ceiling in the form of organizational barriers and societal barriers which acted as a stumbling block in their career advancement (Abidin *et al.*, 2008; Bombuwela and De Alwis, 2013; Posholi, 2013).

In the present study, personal barriers did not appear as a barrier for women career advancement because as per the study, women are enough ambitious, confident, challenge

liking, and emotionally and academically suitable for the management positions which makes them capable for advancing in their respective careers. However, the women managers are observing obstacles in their career due to gender discrimination, negative work environment, biased corporate practices, disparate treatment, family priorities, and work-family imbalance. Likewise, Subramaniam *et al.* (2014) also suggested that more family responsibilities prevent women to advance in their career. Al-Manasra *et al.* (2013) identified 54 percent variance explained in women's career progression due to the glass ceiling.

In support of this finding, Wentling and Thomas (2007) found that glass ceiling in terms of work-life imbalance, challenging job assignments, gender discrimination, and male dominance had a significant negative impact on career development of women executives working in the IT sector. Another study by Herrbach and Mignonac (2012) identified a negative association between gender discrimination at the workplace and subjective career success. Further, Afza and Newaz (2008) recommended that the family support, career-focused, pleasant appearance and positive attitude towards the organization influenced the women's career progression in the organization at the higher managerial levels. Hence, the fourth hypothesis of the study is supported that GCW blocks the career progression of women.

H₅ - Organizational justice and social support significantly moderate the relationship between the glass ceiling for women and occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions in the service sector.

H_{5a} - Organizational justice significantly moderates the relationship between the glass ceiling for women and occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions in the service sector.

H_{5b} - Social support significantly moderate the relationship between the glass ceiling for women and occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions in the service sector.

To analyze H₅, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. The process of moderation analysis completed in four steps. Step1 included all the demographic characteristics (managerial position in the organization, marital status, children status, family structure). In Step 2, the independent variables (organizational barriers and societal barriers) and in Step 3, the moderators (organizational justice and social support) were included. Finally, in Step 4, interaction terms (independent variable x moderator term) were served in the model, to test the moderation effect. Initially, moderation analysis was applied with organizational justice (H_{5a}, Table 4.10, Table 4.11, and Table 4.12).

Table 4.10: Moderating Effect of Organizational Justice between GCW and Occupational Stress

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Occupational stress			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	-.01	-.03	-.03	-.03
Marital status	.18*	-.04	-.04	-.04
Children status	-.01	.04	.04	.04
Family structure	-.33***	.09*	.09*	.10*
<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.19***	.19***	.19***
Societal barriers		.66***	.65***	.65***
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Organizational justice			-.08*	-.09**
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Organizational justice				.08*
Societal barriers x Organizational justice				.05
R ²	.15	.40	.41	.42
Adjusted R ²	.14	.40	.40	.41
R ² change	.15	.24	.00	.01
Total F	25.93	62.65***	55.04***	44.38***
F change	25.93***	114.58***	5.96*	4.55*
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.11: Moderating Effect of Organizational Justice between GCW and Work Disengagement

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Work disengagement			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	.02	-.00	-.00	-.00
Marital status	.11	-.12	-.11	-.12
Children status	-.05	.00	.00	.00
Family structure	-.01	.14**	.14**	.15**
<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.41***	.41***	.41***
Societal barriers		.25***	.24***	.24***
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Organizational justice			-.07*	-.08*
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Organizational justice				.03
Societal barriers x Organizational justice				.03
R ²	.00	.17	.18	.18
Adjusted R ²	-.00	.16	.17	.17
R ² change	.00	.16	.00	.00
Total F	.84	19.30***	17.21***	13.57***
F change	.84	55.87***	4.01*	.88
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.12: Moderating Effect of Organizational Justice between GCW and Turnover Intentions

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Turnover intentions			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01
Marital status	.17*	-.03	-.03	-.03
Children status	-.00	.05	.05	.05
Family structure	-.33***	.05	.05	.05
<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.18***	.18***	.18***
Societal barriers		.61***	.60***	.60***
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Organizational justice			-.06	-.06
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Organizational justice				.00

Societal barriers x Organizational justice				.02
R ²	.16	.37	.37	.37
Adjusted R ²	.15	.36	.36	.36
R ² change	.16	.21	.00	.00
Total F	26.15***	53.53***	46.57***	36.17***
F change	26.15***	91.10***	3.38	.23
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.10, 4.11, and 4.12 exhibit the findings of hierarchical multiple regression analysis for studying the role of organizational justice as a moderator in the relationship between GCW and occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions. GCW in terms of organizational barriers and societal barriers was identified as a significant predictor of occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions (Step 2). Further, organizational justice had a negative significant impact on occupational stress and work disengagement even after controlling the demographic variables (Step 3). Therefore, GCW (organizational barriers and societal barriers) and organizational justice resulted in a significant increase in the explained variance of the model for occupational stress and work disengagement ($p<.05$), not for turnover intentions.

Specifically, when two interaction terms between two barriers and organizational justice were served in Step 4 for occupational stress (Table 4.10), it was found that R² change value was .01 (F change = 4.55, $p<.05$), that showed the significant value for the interaction of organizational barriers and organizational justice. Therefore, organizational justice moderated the relationship between GCW (in terms of organizational barriers only) and occupational stress. The decreased significant beta value of interaction term (organizational barriers and organizational justice) proved the buffering effect of moderation which means that with the increased value of organizational justice, the impact of organizational barriers on occupational stress decreased. Further, in Table 4.11 and 4.12, it was found that R² change value was .00, as the interactions between the two barriers (organizational barriers, and societal barriers) and organizational justice were found insignificant. Therefore, organizational justice did not moderate the relationship between GCW and two consequences, viz., work disengagement and turnover intentions. Thus, H_{5a} does not find full support.

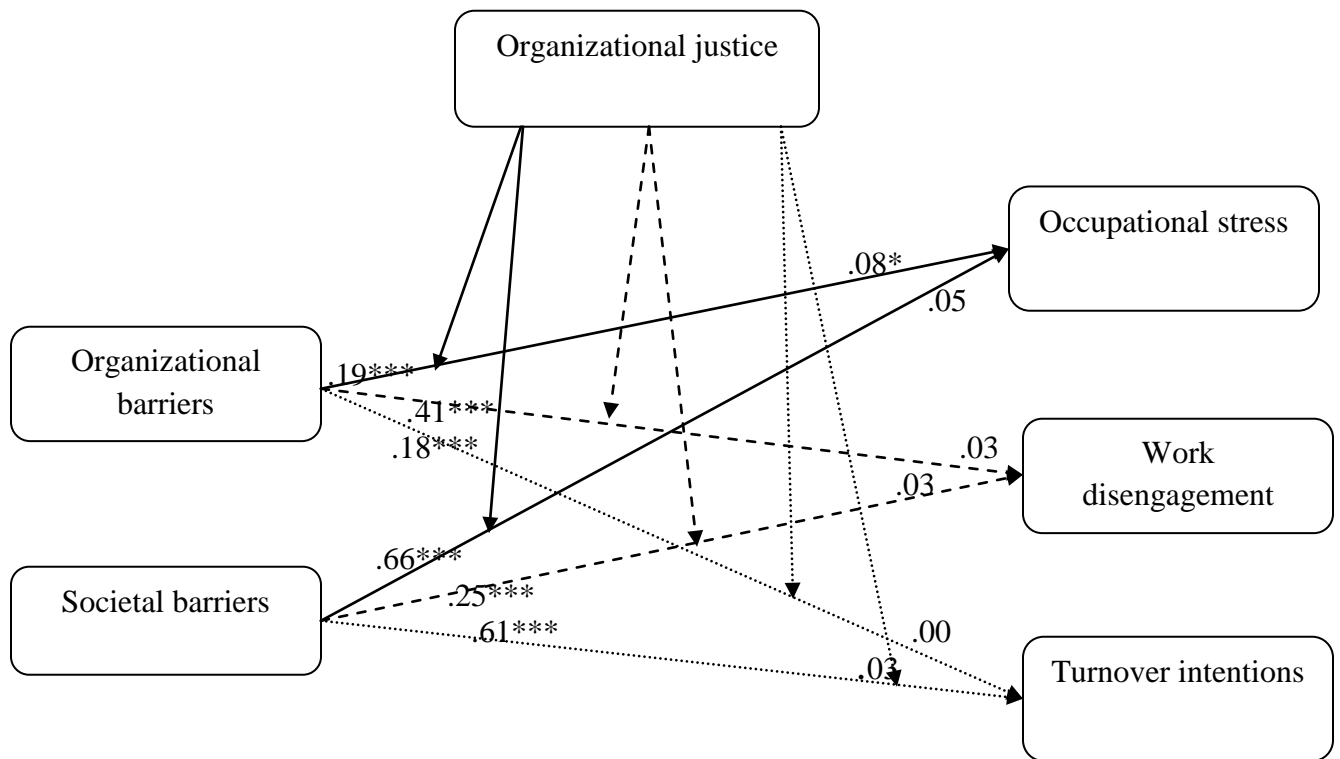


Figure 4.4: Results of the Hypothesized Model for Moderator ‘Organizational Justice’

To check the moderation effect of social support, again hierarchical regression analysis was applied. In the first step, control variables were entered, in the second step independent variables were served and in the third step, social support was taken as a moderator. In the last step, interaction terms were added (H_{5b}).

Table 4.13: Moderating Effect of Social Support between GCW and Occupational Stress

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Occupational stress			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	-.01	-.03	-.03	-.03
Marital status	.18**	-.04	-.04	-.03
Children status	-.01	.04	.04	.04
Family structure	-.33***	.09*	.11*	.11*

<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.19***	.20***	.20***
Societal barriers		.66***	.67***	.67***
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Social support			-.12***	-.12***
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Social support				.02
Societal barriers x Social support				.06*
R ²	.15	.40	.42	.43
Adjusted R ²	.15	.40	.41	.42
R ² change	.15	.24	.01	.01
Total F	.25.93***	62.65***	56.94***	44.23***
F change	25.93***	114.58***	13.84***	4.55*
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.14: Moderating Effect of Social Support between GCW and Work Disengagement

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Work disengagement			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	.02	-.00	-.00	-.00
Marital status	.11	-.12	-.11	-.12
Children status	-.05	.00	.00	.00
Family structure	-.01	.14**	.15**	.16**
<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.41***	.41***	.41***
Societal barriers		.25***	.25**	.26**
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Social support			-.08*	-.08*
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Social support				.00
Societal barriers x Social support				.04
R ²	.00	.17	.18	.18
Adjusted R ²	-.00	.16	.17	.17
R ² change	.00	.16	.00	.00
Total F	.84	19.30***	17.24***	13.50***
F change	.84	55.87***	4.20*	.52
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.15: Moderating Effect of Social Support between GCW and Turnover Intentions

Independent variables	Dependent variable: Turnover intentions			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Step 1: Control</i>				
Managerial position in organization	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01
Marital status	.17*	-.03	-.02	-.03
Children status	-.00	.05	.05	.05
Family structure	-.33***	.05	.06	.07
<i>Step 2: Independent</i>				
Organizational barriers		.18***	.19***	.19***
Societal barriers		.61***	.61***	.61***
<i>Step 3: Moderator</i>				
Social support			-.08*	-.08*
<i>Step 4: Interactions</i>				
Organizational barriers x Social support				.04
Societal barriers x Social support				.08*
R ²	.16	.37	.38	.39
Adjusted R ²	.15	.36	.37	.38
R ² change	.16	.21	.01	.01
Total F	26.15***	53.53***	47.10***	37.25***
F change	26.15***	91.10***	5.71*	4.54*
<i>Notes: Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001</i>				

Table 4.13, 4.14, and 4.15 exhibit the findings of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses for studying the role of social support as a moderator in the relationship between GCW and occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions. GCW in terms of organizational barriers and societal barriers was identified as a significant predictor of occupational stress, work disengagement and turnover intentions (Step 2). Further, social support had a negative significant impact on occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions even after controlling the demographic variables (Step 3). Therefore, GCW (organizational barriers and societal barriers) and social support resulted in a significant increase in the explained variance of the model for occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions ($p < .05$).

Specifically, when the interaction terms were served in Step 4 (Table 4.13 and 4.15), it was found that the R² value changed. As the interaction between societal barriers

and social support was significant for occupational stress, moderation occurred (Table 4.13). Additionally, the interactions between the GCW (in terms of societal barriers) and social support were found to be significant for dependent variable turnover intentions (Table 4.15). Therefore, significant values demonstrated that social support moderated the relationship between GCW (societal barriers) and occupational stress, and GCW (societal barriers) and turnover intentions. Social support as a moderator showed buffering effect because significant beta value decreased in the interaction model. This implies that as social support increases, the impact of societal barriers on occupational stress and turnover intentions decreases. However, social support did not moderate the relationship between any barrier of the GCW and work disengagement as indicated by the insignificant values in Table 4.14 (Model 4). Therefore, H_{5b} is partially supported.

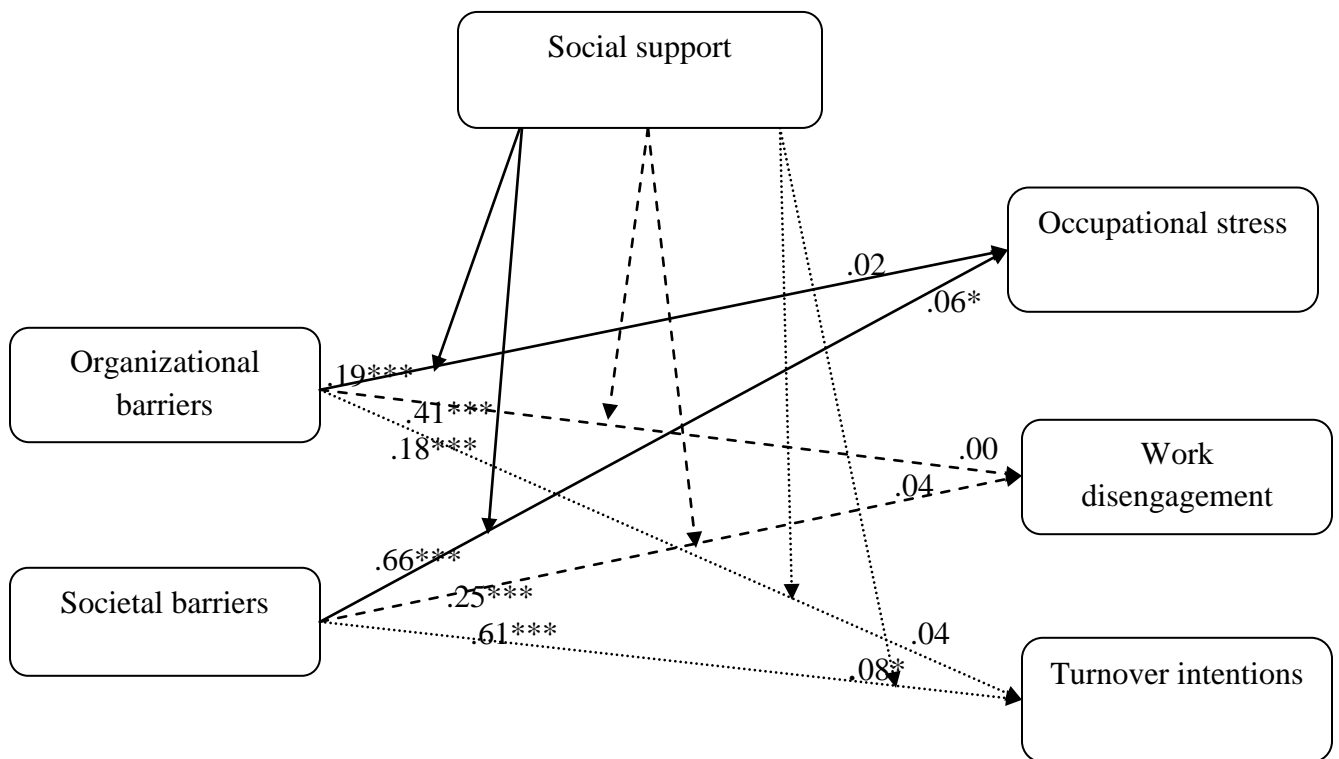


Figure 4.5: Results of the Hypothesized Model for Moderator 'Social Support'

Discussion for H₅

The findings suggest that organizational justice did not moderate the relationship between GCW (organizational barriers, and societal barriers) and its consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions), except for organizational barriers and occupational stress. It may be because of the biases or discrimination that women experienced in terms of designation, tasks, etc. The women managers responded in favor of discrimination that means organization lack in commitment to justice (Foley *et al.*, 2005) but if there would be organizational justice in terms of distribution, procedures followed or interactions, employees would be more committed to the organization, more satisfied, better perform and have lesser intention to leave (Wan *et al.*, 2012). In their study, Foley *et al.* (2002) and Downes *et al.* (2014) identified distributive justice as a mediator instead of a moderator between glass ceiling and turnover intentions. Another study done by Ghosh *et al.* (2014) found the significant positive relation of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) with work engagement. According to Foley *et al.* (2005), women perceived less distributive, procedural and interactional justice that significantly related to low organizational commitment and a higher level of turnover intentions. Therefore, in the service sector, women did not experience organizational justice that failed to moderate the relationship between GCW and its consequences.

With regard to the second moderator, the findings of the present study suggested that social support moderated the relationship between GCW and its consequences i.e. occupational stress and turnover intentions (Bellman *et al.*, 2003; Galletta *et al.*, 2011). In support to this, Galletta *et al.* (2011) also identified social support as a moderator in terms of supervisor support and organizational support between gender discrimination (glass ceiling- organizational barriers) and turnover intentions. Sackey and Sanda (2011) suggested that women managers working in socio-culturally challenging work environments need more support and that organizational support and societal support helped them to cope with various organizational stressors. Another study done by Hsu (2011) identified that the supervisor support moderated the relationship of societal

barriers (work-family conflict) with job satisfaction. In the same line, Bellman *et al.* (2003) demonstrated that for both categories of gender i.e. men and women, social support moderated the effects of occupational stress. This is consistent with a qualitative study done by Nath (2000) that identified that only those women who received a higher level of social support were competent to smash through the glass ceiling and advance professionally. Some other studies also found that women who receive high social support cope better with the numerous occupational stressors (Marcellissen *et al.*, 1988; Sackey and Sanda, 2011; Ganesh and Ganesh, 2014). Therefore, H₅ was partially supported as organizational justice acted as moderator only in occupational stress while social support was proved as a moderator between GCW and its consequences (occupational stress, and turnover intentions).

H₆ - There is a significant difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their demographic profile (marital status, children status, and family structure).

H_{6a} - There is a significant difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their marital status.

H_{6b} - There is a significant difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their children status.

H_{6c} - There is a significant difference in the perception of respondents regarding the glass ceiling for women based on their family structure.

The respondents' demographic profile is summarized as follows: 67 percent were single and 33 percent were married; the majority of the respondents (75 percent) did not have any child and 25 percent had children; 67 percent of respondents belonged to a nuclear family structure while only 33 percent lived in the joint family; majority of the respondents (85 percent) held lower management positions, only 15 percent were on middle-level positions in the hierarchy and not even a single women worked on the senior position of management. Therefore, it is evident that the respondents of the present

study are still far away from the senior management positions. Table 4.16 demonstrates the demographic profile of the women managers/respondents.

Table 4.16: Demographic Profile of Women Managers

Description		Number
<i>Level in organization</i>	Senior Manager	0
	Middle Manager	82
	Lower Manager	471
<i>Marital status</i>	Single	376
	Married	177
<i>Children status</i>	Without child	417
	With children	136
<i>Family structure</i>	Nuclear	372
	Joint	181

Independent t-test was used to identify the perception of respondents regarding GCW according to their marital status, children status, and family status (H_{6a} , H_{6b} , and H_{6c}). For marital status (single or married), Table 4.17 showed significant differences in five sub-factors of glass ceiling (except, 'biased corporate practices') viz., 'gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' (organizational barriers), 'family responsibilities', and 'work-family imbalance' (societal barriers). Further, for children status, t-test divulged that there exist significant differences for 'without children' and 'with children' regarding all six sub-factors of glass ceiling viz., 'gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment', 'biased corporate practices' (organizational barriers), 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance' (societal barriers). Additionally, Table 4.17 shows the significant differences in the nuclear and joint family regarding societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'), while insignificant differences in the nuclear and joint family with regard to GCW factors, viz., organizational barriers ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices'). Thus, t-test divulges that there exist significant family structure differences for societal barriers only. Therefore, H_{6a} and H_{6b} are fully supported, while H_{6c} is partially supported.

Table 4.17: Independent T-Test for Marital Status, Children Status and Family Structure

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Marital status</i>		<i>Children status</i>		<i>Family structure</i>	
	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
<i>Organizational barriers</i>						
Gender discrimination	2.72	.00	2.70	.00	2.26	.78
Disparate treatment	.04	.00	.20	.00	.32	.08
Negative work environment	9.23	.00	7.46	.00	.13	.26
Biased corporate practices	.00	.12	.21	.05	2.88	.66
<i>Societal barriers</i>						
Family responsibilities	1.34	.00	2.83	.00	6.30	.00
Work-family imbalance	3.48	.00	2.00	.00	6.07	.00

From the mean values, it is observed that all the women managers from all categories faced an above-average level of GCW in the form of organizational barriers and societal barriers. As the result suggested significant differences in the marital status with regard to organizational barriers (gender discrimination, disparate treatment, and negative work environment) and societal barriers (family responsibilities and work-family imbalance), married women managers faced more organizational barriers (overall mean value of three significant factors=4.03) and societal barriers (overall mean value of two significant factors=3.74) as compared to single women (overall mean value of significant organizational barriers=3.53 and overall mean value of two significant societal barriers=3.36). The study also identified that women managers who had children faced more organizational barriers and societal barriers (overall mean value of six significant factors=3.79) as compared to women who had no child (overall mean value of significant factors=3.50). The results of the comparison between nuclear and joint families are set forth in Table 4.18. The overall mean scores of GCW indicate that respondents from the nuclear family reported a significantly high level of GCW (mean value=3.80) as compared to respondents of the joint family (mean value=2.83). Conversely, women manager from the nuclear family had more family responsibilities and were unable to

balance their work and family together as compared to women manager from a joint family.

Table 4.18: Marital Status, Children Status and Family Structure-Wise Analysis of GCW

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Marital status-wise</i>		<i>Children-wise</i>		<i>Family-wise</i>	
	<i>Single</i>	<i>Married</i>	<i>Without children</i>	<i>With children</i>	<i>Nuclear</i>	<i>Joint</i>
	Mean values		Mean values		Mean values	
<i>Organizational barriers</i>						
Gender discrimination	3.40	3.96	3.47	3.91	3.57	3.59
Disparate treatment	3.72	4.22	3.77	4.20	3.92	3.80
Negative work environment	3.48	3.92	3.53	3.92	3.65	3.57
Biased corporate practices	3.45	3.34	3.45	3.30	3.40	3.43
<i>Societal barriers</i>						
Family responsibilities	3.37	3.77	3.43	3.72	3.84	2.80
Work-family imbalance	3.35	3.71	3.40	3.69	3.76	2.86

Discussion for H₆

In support of the present findings, Jordan and Zitek (2012) also identified that unmarried women were rated as more suitable as compared to married women because of various factors such as commitment to advancing in the firm, likely to succeed at the job, willing to work long hours and undistracted by social responsibilities. Additionally, women with children devoted less time to their work that made them less competent for senior management jobs (McGuire *et al.*, 2012). In their study, Buddhapriya (2009) revealed that women from nuclear families faced more obstacles in career progression due to commitments to family responsibilities and taking up child-rearing responsibility as compared to women living in joint families. The reason why this happens might be that in the joint families, women can share their responsibilities with their family members, whereas women who live in the nuclear families need more flexible working hours as compared to women from joint families so as to manage their family and/or children responsibilities along with the job (Buddhapriya, 2009). These studies confirmed the significant differences in the glass ceiling barriers with regard to the marital status,

number of children and family structure. To conclude, there is a significant difference between the perceptions of respondents regarding organizational barriers (except ‘biased corporate practices’) and societal barriers based on their marital status. Additionally, the present study found a significant difference in the perception of women managers regarding organizational and societal barriers based on their children status, while significant difference was found in the perceptions of respondents regarding societal barriers based on their family structure (Table 4.17), which leads to the partial support of the sixth hypothesis.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter tested the hypotheses of the study using various statistical tools. A total of six hypotheses were studied to identify the prevalence of GCW among women managers in the service sector, its impact on four consequences, and the moderating effect of organizational justice and social support on the relationship of GCW and its consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions). The first hypothesis confirmed the prevalence of GCW at an above-average level and the second hypothesis proved that the organizational barriers and societal barriers contribute to the existence of GCW. While testing the impact, the third and fourth hypothesis concluded that GCW has a significant positive impact on occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and career obstacles. As per the fifth hypothesis, social support was identified as a moderator while organizational justice did not moderate the relationship between GCW and its consequences. The last hypothesis of the study proved that married women with children and women living in the nuclear family faced more glass ceiling. Therefore, this chapter provides the answers to all the questions regarding the glass ceiling among women managers in the Indian service sector.

CHAPTER - 5

SUMMARY, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study, draws the suggestions, delineates the future avenues for research, and presents the conclusion of the study.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The present study was aimed at investigating the prevalence of GCW (personal barriers, organizational barriers, and societal barriers), its impact (occupational stress, work engagement, turnover intentions, obstacles in women's career advancement), and the role of moderators (organizational justice and social support) in the service sector. The study focused on women working at managerial levels in the organizational hierarchy for which, data was collected from 553 women managers working in the three service industries viz., banking, IT, and hospitality.

Before testing the various hypotheses framed, factor analysis was performed initially on the GCW statements. The purified data resulted in 41 items of GCW clubbed under eight factors, viz. 'lack of self-esteem', 'challenge aversion', 'gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment', 'biased corporate practices', 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance'. Further, factor analysis was run on 'turnover intentions', which consisted of 15 items and out of 15 statements, 10 items got clubbed into two factors, namely 'exploring appropriate opportunity' and 'urgency of quitting job'. After applying factor analysis on women's career obstacles four items got clubbed into a single factor, namely 'career obstacles'. The data proved reliable as the values of Cronbach's alpha have arrived above .60. Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha values obtained for all seven scales of the study were: glass ceiling (.79), occupational stress (.83), work disengagement (.78), turnover intentions (.77), career obstacles (.74), organizational justice (.87) and social support (.67). Further, the analyses

lead to the stage of hypotheses testing for making inferences that resulted in the following key findings:

1) One sample T-test was used to identify the level of GCW prevalent at different managerial positions in the service sector. Most of the women managers agreed with the presence of glass ceiling and reported above-average levels of the glass ceiling in terms of organizational barriers (disparate treatment, negative work environment, gender discrimination, and biased corporate practices) and societal barriers (family responsibilities and work-family imbalance). However, women managers did not report any personal barriers in terms of 'lack of self-esteem' and 'challenge aversion.'

2) To test various barriers (personal, organizational and societal) leading to GCW, three sets of multiple regressions were performed with the overall statement 'there exist glass ceiling in the service sector'. The results revealed that organizational barriers ('gender discrimination', 'disparate treatment', 'negative work environment' and 'biased corporate practices') explained 22 percent variation and societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explained 31 percent variation in the existence of GCW in the service sector. Furthermore, personal barriers ('lack of self-esteem' and 'challenge aversion') did not have any impact on the existence of GCW. Therefore, personal barriers were excluded from further analysis due to its insignificant contribution to GCW.

3) Further, multiple regression was applied to test the impact of GCW on the consequences (occupational stress, work disengagement, and turnover intentions). The results for 'occupational stress' revealed that GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment' and 'biased corporate practices' and societal barriers, i.e. 'family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') explained 40 percent variation in the occupational stress, whereas, GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate treatment' and 'gender discrimination' and societal barriers, i.e. 'family responsibilities,' 'work-family imbalance' and 'family priorities') explained 22 percent variation in work disengagement, and for turnover intentions GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. 'disparate

treatment,’ and ‘negative work environment’ and societal barriers, i.e. ‘work-family imbalance’ and ‘family responsibilities’) explained 38 percent variation.

4) To test the impact of GCW on the women’s career progression, multiple regression was performed. The result indicated that GCW (organizational barriers, i.e. ‘disparate treatment,’ ‘negative work environment,’ ‘biased corporate practices’ and ‘gender discrimination’ and societal barriers, i.e. ‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’) explained 48 percent variation in the dependent variable, i.e., career obstacles.

5) To test the hypothesis related to moderation, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed. The process of moderation analysis was completed in four steps. In the case of the moderator ‘organizational justice’, the interaction terms revealed that organizational justice moderated the relationship between GCW (in terms of organizational barriers only) and occupational stress. Additionally, insignificant values identified that organizational justice did not moderate the relationship of GCW with work disengagement and turnover intentions. In the case of the second moderator, viz., social support, the significant interaction terms demonstrated that social support moderated the relationship of GCW (societal barriers) with occupational stress and turnover intentions. However, social support did not act as a moderator in the relationship between any barrier of GCW and work disengagement.

6) Independent T-test was used to identify the perception of women managers regarding GCW according to their marital status, children status, and family structure. The results indicated that there exist significant differences for marital status in five factors of GCW, viz., ‘gender discrimination,’ ‘disparate treatment,’ ‘negative work environment,’ ‘family responsibilities’ and ‘work-family imbalance’. Further, the study found significant differences in children status regarding all organizational and societal barriers. In the study, married women managers and women managers who had children faced more

organizational barriers and societal barriers as compared to single women and women without children. Additionally, the significant differences were found in the nuclear and joint family regarding societal barriers ('family responsibilities' and 'work-family imbalance') only, where women managers from the nuclear family had more family responsibilities and found it difficult to balance their work and family together as compared to women managers from a joint family.

5.2 Suggestions

According to the findings of the study, women managers faced the glass ceiling in terms of organizational and societal barriers at an above-average level. Therefore, in light of the findings of the present study, suggestions are as follows:

A) Focused at mitigating organizational barriers

1) *Audit for bias across the entire talent management lifecycle*: In terms of organizational barriers, the present study found 'biased corporate practices' as one of the contributors towards GCW. Therefore, some positive actions are required to overcome biases in organizations' policies and practices. Although self-awareness is the initial and effective approach, without HR practices and processes the gender bias cannot be reformed. However, leaders expect increased diversity and equality among both genders in their organizations but at the time of hiring and promotion decisions, due to their own unconscious biases, they select men over women. To ensure equality and diversity, management needs to remove gender biases from the hiring process through some steps such as, "instituting blind resume review", "applying artificial intelligence to candidate screening and interviewing", "eliminating gender-based wage gaps", and "updating HR policies that exclude women" (Deloitte, 2018). This initiative would not only help to change corporate practices positively but will also decrease its consequences such as occupational stress and turnover intentions.

2) *Promote best and similar practice for women and men*: With regard to 'disparate treatment', the women managers perceived that there is a difference in the treatment,

organizational support, performance appraisal, and incentives given to men and women as preference is given to men to be a manager, despite women's willingness of equal contribution towards work. The best and similar practices in the organization can be the solution, as it will result in attracting and retaining the talented employees in the organization, and will facilitate a better environment for men and the organization too. These best practices can be, diversity training, transparency in selection criteria, quotas for women percentage at managerial positions, etc., however, the similar practices in terms of promotion, development, salary, task responsibilities, incentives should be implemented. For this, the organization should assess practices for leadership development, promotion reviews, staffing patterns, and succession planning to provide equal opportunities for women (Udemy for Business, 2017). Fair and similar treatment for both the genders will reduce the negative consequences of GCW, i.e., occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions.

3) *Continuous monitoring of organizational effectiveness by the organization*: In the present study, women managers experienced negative work environment in terms of 'lack of organizational support', 'seniors doubting women's capabilities', and 'perception of male employees that women are less efficient' which leads to the presence of GCW. Therefore, to establish a positive organizational culture for women, continuous monitoring can be effective. Nowadays, the companies usually disclose data regarding gender ratio in their organization and therefore try to depict reduced gender gap to enhance their corporate image. Retaining fair and unbiased workplace is more difficult than simply writing policies and procedures on paper. However, with continuous monitoring of organizational effectiveness, these policies and procedures can be actually put into practice, and it will ensure that every employee irrespective of their gender is attaining right training, promotions, and other advancement opportunities, which requires management's engagement with employees on regular basis. Therefore, the organization can send anonymous satisfaction survey or put an online suggestion box to motivate the employees to raise their voice about the unnoticed issues. This initiative will also make the decision-makers cautious while taking such important decisions, and with the right

and justified decision, the employer can retain the employees for the long-term. Consequently, turnover intentions rate will be decreased.

4) *Provision of stretch roles*: The findings of the present study pointed towards organizational barriers which lead to 'career obstacles'. Women managers reported that as compared to men they have less opportunity for career progression at work, and due to gender-based barriers they are discriminated in terms of high visibility tasks and assigned with lower-level responsibilities. Since limited job responsibilities hinder women from showcasing their leadership skills, it makes the male employees perceive women as unsuitable for higher management positions. Ambitious and career-oriented females in an organization should not be assigned only job-related responsibilities in the organization but should be provided with more of 'stretch' roles such as international assignments, employee exchange programs, meetings, and being a part of new startups to enhance their team building and leadership qualities by providing them broad business exposure. It would be beneficial for women to advance in their career, and these kinds of roles will increase the engagement level of women managers at their work.

5) *Build more inclusive cultures*: To overcome organizational barriers like 'biased corporate culture,' today's management should aim at creating an organizational culture that is diverse as well as inclusive. In fashion retailing company, namely 'Inditex' inclusive cultures are pursued, where all employees can progress, irrespective of age, disability, gender, race, or other characteristics. Therefore, by implementing basic rules that support equality and have zero tolerance for rule-breakers, senior management can create more friendly and healthy environments (Prabhakar *et al.*, 2018). It requires committed HR leaders who consider bias or harassment complaints as a serious issue and investigate and mitigate them fairly. They can also take steps to identify and eradicate biases that lessen women's growth opportunities.

6) *Organize mentorship programs*: The findings depict that GCW leads to various consequences such as occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions and career obstacles. Therefore, to assist women in conquering these negative consequences,

mentorship programs can play a vital role. Mentoring aims at enhancing the personal and professional competencies of trainee managers through the process of advising and coaching. In the course of mentoring, mentors provide coaching, counseling, and challenging assignments, besides offering personal support and encouragement. Mentors are the role model for trainee managers, and women managers can benefit from mentors, who listen and advise them whenever required. This program will enhance women's professional skills and enable them to gain more interest and satisfaction at their workplace.

7) *Organize sponsorship programs:* Mentoring alone does not provide advancement for women, but sponsorship programs through which sponsors advocate women can be another area worthy of attention because senior management efforts are involved in this program that aid women to advance at managerial positions by reducing organizational barriers. In the corporate world, as compared to men, women are less promoted at senior management positions due to several barriers. A sponsor belongs to a member of the senior management who invests in a person's career success. Therefore, under sponsorship programs, sponsors, i.e., company leaders can actively use their influence, networks, the strength of relationships and capital to connect women to high-profile assignments, people, pay increases and promotions (Center for Women and Business, 2017). Women need this senior sponsorship - especially in male-dominated industries such as IT, hospitality, construction, defense, and manufacturing (Paycheck India, 2013).

8) *Fill the management and leadership pipeline with high-performing women:* The present study explored the existence of the glass ceiling for women managers, which means that the women are less promoted at senior management positions. As a solution, a clear path for promoting women talent can enhance the representation opportunities for them at the top managerial positions. Management can reduce bias by proactively noticing high-performing females early in their careers. It can help the organization ensure that high-potential women have access to the resources needed to advance such as

a formal leadership development programs, career road maps, learning and development plans, formal and informal mentoring, etc. (Montgomery, 2017).

B) Focused at mitigating societal barriers

1) *Introduce specific programs targeted at women:* The present study identified ‘work-family imbalance’ as the factor of societal barriers. However, specific programs such as “targeting high-performing females to participate in the leadership program”, and “internships that enable women who have taken time off for child-rearing to transition back to work” can contribute to enhancing the women’s representation at senior levels. Women prefer to sacrifice promotions or leadership positions due to childcare responsibilities. Along with female, male employees should also be provided with flexible and extended paternity leave so that the task of childrearing is equally divided between the partners, rather than exclusively being a women’s job. For instance, a revolutionary family leave program launched by Amazon enables the female employees to share their paid leave extendable up to six weeks with their spouse while taking care of their newborn baby and allows women to concentrate on their job responsibilities and career advancement. Further, the balance between job and family responsibilities will lessen the level of occupational stress, work disengagement, turnover intentions, and especially the career obstacles.

2) *Provide flexible work programs:* Another recommendation to balance work and family is a flexible work arrangement, where employees can work flexible hours or days instead of a traditional nine-to-five workday. High productivity does not necessarily mean working full eight-hours a day. Therefore, organizations should allow employees to work one day a week from home and work flexible hours for the other five days. The flexible work programs for women who have just entered parenthood or have no guardian to keep an eye on their children can include compressed work weeks, flextime, reduced hours, telecommuting, job sharing, phased retirement, partial retirement, etc. For instance, if there is a provision for working eight hours a day, the employees should have the

flexibility of choosing their start and finish time. There are several options for flextime: organization can give a weekly hour requirement, but allow women to space the time out however they like (like, 8 hours on Monday but 5 on Tuesday), organization can provide an hour system (like, 32-40 hours per week), or in case the task is accomplished, no requirement to work for long. With such a program, women can be assured that they will get quality time to spend with the children and maintain a healthy balance between work and personal life, which will consequently decrease the stress level, work disengagement, turnover intentions and career obstacles among women managers.

3) *Delegation*: Delegation is the assignment of authority and responsibility to another person (usually from a manager to a subordinate) to perform particular tasks. Generally, delegation is a transfer of decision-making authority from one hierarchical level to a lower one. Delegation can be beneficial for all women working at senior and lower levels. It can improve the speed and quality of decisions, which will reduce overload for the women managers; therefore, women at managerial positions can fulfill both their family responsibilities and perform at workplace effectively by assigning their tasks to responsible and efficient subordinates.

4) *Networking and collaboration*: Since the present study also demonstrated ‘family responsibilities’ as an obstruction for women to hold senior management positions because they often have caretaking responsibilities in addition to their careers. To solve this issue, networking and collaborating can be a practical approach to manage job responsibilities along with family responsibilities. Success is never the result of individual efforts. In the corporate world, an attempt to do everything individually can be highly risky, no matter how capable an employee may be. The organization should motivate women to make persistent connections and collaborate with others, which will add immense value to the work performed by them. Regular networking is the right way to reach new audiences, explore synergies, and share expertise in a low-stress environment. In order to enhance personal growth, priority should be given to networking since better collaboration and relationships will help women managers in sharing job

responsibilities with their co-workers at the time of emergency at the personal front and enable them to manage both their family and job responsibilities in an efficient manner. Therefore, senior managers can build teams comprising of male and female employees to provide better opportunities of collaboration, because it can be the first step to make good relationships, and while working in a team, women will feel comfortable and less hesitant to ask for help and support.

5) *Arrangement of dependent care program:* Further, to demolish 'family responsibilities' as a barrier, dependent care program can be the solution. Although this program has gained popularity in western countries, it is yet to obtain recognition in India. Most working women have concern for their kid(s) staying alone at home. In addition to this, they may also have their aging parents (in-laws) to take care of. Therefore, a dependent care program can prove very helpful and useful for women who have no one to take care of their kids back home. This program provides the employees with care-giving services or onsite daycare either in the same premises or some other place within the proximity to the office. Consequently, the female employees will become more productive since they will be happy knowing that their children are ~~located only one floor down~~ from somewhere near their office place. Women managers, who are career-oriented and also have more family responsibilities, will not feel guilty for not spending time with their family members because under dependent care program, they can have lunch with their children which will lead to a significant increase in their morale. Therefore, women can remain assured and consequently be more productive, relaxed, and engaged at work.

6) *Celebrate corporate family day:* The present study found 'social support' as a moderator between GCW and its consequences (occupational stress and turnover intentions). Therefore, in order to make the female employees feel the support from family and organization, corporate family days can become attractive for the employer as well as both the male and female employees because these events are often used not only to reward employees for their performance but also as an opportunity for team building

and a thank giving to their supporting families. The organization can extend their support to the females by organizing family day event annually, half-yearly, or quarterly where the family members can be invited for a celebration. The families can see where their female family member works, watch them receive the awards and meet their leader or team members. Additionally, employees can spend quality time with their family, and the family could better understand the importance of women's work and advancement by realizing the value of women to their organization. The family will thus, respect, support, and co-operate more with women to advance in their career.

The given suggestions are directed towards reducing the effects of GCW by offering pathways to women, organization, and society, to improve women's career prospects within the organizations and also assist the Indian service sector in meeting their business goals through the equal contribution of men and women.

5.3 Future Research Prospects

Beyond limitations, this study presents opportunities for future research. The present research throws light on the barriers that contribute to the prevalence of GCW and provides opportunities for researchers interested in further exploration of the concept of GCW in the Indian organizations. Therefore, more empirical research would be useful in providing evidence to support the present findings. Further, the study included four consequences and two moderators; therefore, more variables can be added in the future, especially the mediators. Research can also be conducted to examine the impact of individual-level variables (such as academic rank, race, and religion) and organizational-level variables (such as size, public versus private status and different geographic region) on GCW. Further, a comparative study of public and private organizations can also be done. As the present study is administered on the service sector only, further research can be conducted on the GCW concept by considering other sectors, such as manufacturing, construction, defense, etc.

5.4 Conclusion

The study has attempted to examine the presence of GCW, its impact on various consequences and role of moderators among the women managers working in three service industries viz., banking, IT, and hospitality. The findings of the study ascertained that women face glass ceiling at managerial positions at an above-average level due to organizational and societal barriers, depicting that GCW blocks the women's progression at senior management positions. The study concludes that the major barriers for the advancement of women managers are 'disparate treatment,' 'negative work environment,' 'gender discrimination,' 'biased corporate practices,' 'family responsibilities,' and 'work-family imbalance.' It suggests that organizations need to provide equal treatment, positive and unbiased work environment, and practices to the women managers. The society should also encourage women to prioritize their career along with family responsibilities, where family members can play an important role.

The study also accomplished that GCW leads to occupational stress, disengagement at work, turnover intentions, and career obstacles for women. Further, social support as a moderator was found to buffer the relationship of GCW with its consequences. It implies that social support in terms of supervisor support, colleagues support, and family/friends support plays a significant role to lessen the effect of GCW on the consequences. Therefore, social support can help women managers to balance their work and personal lives, which can help them to reach the next level in the organizational hierarchy.

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STRUCTURED SCHEDULE

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Ph.D Scholar
Lovely Professional University
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Dr. Sakshi Sharma
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Dear Ma'am,

I am conducting a survey as a part of my Ph.D project from L.P.U. (Phagwara). The purpose of this study is to know "*Glass Ceiling: Assessment, Impact and Role of Moderators in Service Sector*". Your cooperation is solicited in sparing time to answer the following question. **Your responses shall be used for the purpose of research only and shall be kept confidential.**

(A) Please provide the following information about yourself:

1. Managerial Position in Organisation:

Top Level Middle Level Lower Level

2. Marital status:

Single Married

3. Children status:

None Children

4. Family structure:

Nuclear Joint

(B) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Glass Ceiling*”. Here SD= Strongly disagree, D= Disagree, N= Neutral, A= Agree, SA= Strongly agree.

S. No.	Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I am confident in my abilities. (R)					
2.	My subordinates have confidence in my leadership. (R)					
3.	I consider myself as a leader. (R)					
4.	I am not sufficiently competitive.					
5.	I have lack of ambition in comparison to men.					
6.	I am too hesitant, weak and illogical.					
7.	I am not interested in challenging assignments.					
8.	I am emotionally unsuitable for management positions.					
9.	I am academically unsuitable for management positions.					
10.	I have no control over the outcome.					
11.	I don't place myself in situations in which I cannot cope up.					
12.	I am unable to reach my goals in life.					
13.	I do not have the ability to solve most of life's problems.					
14.	I feel that my success reflects chance, not my ability.					
15.	I am unsuccessful at most tasks which I try.					
16.	I am very committed to my job. (R)					
17.	I am extremely intense (passionate) to progress my career. (R)					
18.	I expect my supervisor to bear in mind my feminine characteristics when appraising my performance.					
19.	My work performance is fairly evaluated. (R)					
20.	There are career opportunities for me. (R)					
21.	I am not assigned to high visibility positions.					
22.	I have to work extra hard to be recognized.					
23.	I am not respected by male colleagues.					
24.	Organization discriminates against me regarding promotion.					
25.	Organization discriminates with me regarding job assignments.					
26.	Organization discriminates me regarding annual compensation.					
27.	Work life has negative attitude to me because I'm women.					
28.	I have to be more skilled than men in order to be promoted.					
29.	Men receive more organizational support/trust than me.					
30.	I receive enough organizational support in order to manage my professional & domestic responsibilities. (R)					
31.	Women achieving high positions are rising in my organization. (R)					
32.	Management lack in commitment to equality of genders.					
33.	Performance appraisal & incentive systems favour men.					
34.	There is discouraging corporate cultures in my organization.					
35.	There is lack of training opportunities to gain experience.					

36.	Men have negative attitudes towards me.					
37.	Superior officers doubt my work capabilities.					
38.	Male colleagues suffer from my superiority complex.					
39.	Men perceive I am less efficient than them.					
40.	Men do not cooperate with me.					
41.	Gender is a factor in my placement for specific positions.					
42.	I am not willing to make sacrifices to get senior positions.					
43.	I have inability to move if the job requires it.					
44.	My career is not important due to non primary family provider.					
45.	Taking care of family act as barrier to my job advancement.					
46.	Maintaining balance between family affairs & job responsibilities is difficult task.					
47.	I feel guilty if I do not spend enough time with my family.					
48.	I'm prepared to avoid family responsibilities to advance in job. (R)					
49.	More job responsibilities have a bad effect on my family life.					
50.	Female manager can be a caring mother and attentive manager. (R)					
51.	Without family's help in housework, I'd not accept high post.					
52.	My commitment to family life is barrier for career progress.					
53.	If I didn't have any commitment to my family members, I'd have gotten a higher managerial position.					
54.	Woman can be caring mother & wife than successful manager.					
55.	Overall, There exist glass ceiling.					

(C) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Occupational Stress*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree**, **D= Disagree**, **N= Neutral**, **A= Agree**, **SA= Strongly agree**.

S. No.	Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA
1.	I am clear what is expected of me at work. (R)					
2.	I can decide when to take a break. (R)					
3.	Different groups at work demand things from me that is hard to combine.					
4.	I know how to go about getting my job done. (R)					
5.	I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour.					
6.	I have unachievable deadlines.					
7.	If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me. (R)					
8.	I am given supportive feedback on the work I do. (R)					
9.	I have to work very intensively.					

10.	I have a say in my own work speed. (R)					
11.	I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are. (R)					
12.	I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do.					
13.	I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department. (R)					
14.	There is friction or anger between colleagues.					
15.	I have a choice in deciding how I do my work. (R)					
16.	I am unable to take sufficient breaks.					
17.	I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organisation. (R)					
18.	I am pressured to work long hours.					
19.	I have a choice in deciding what I do at work. (R)					
20.	I have to work very fast.					
21.	I am subject to bullying at work.					
22.	I have unrealistic time pressures.					
23.	I can rely on my senior to help me out with a work problem. (R)					
24.	I get help and support I need from colleagues. (R)					
25.	I have some say over the way I work.					
26.	I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work. (R)					
27.	I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues. (R)					
28.	Staff is always consulted about change at work. (R)					
29.	I can talk to my senior about something that has upset or annoyed me about work. (R)					
30.	My working time can be flexible. (R)					
31.	My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems. (R)					
32.	When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice. (R)					
33.	I am supported through emotionally demanding work. (R)					
34.	Relationships at work are strained.					
35.	My seniors encourage me at work. (R)					

(D) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Work Engagement*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree, D= Disagree, N= Neutral, A= Agree, SA= Strongly agree.**

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1.	At my work, I feel full with energy.					
2.	I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.					
3.	Time flies when I'm working.					

4.	At my job, I feel strong.					
5.	I am excited about my job.					
6.	When I am working, I forget everything else around me.					
7.	My job inspires me.					
8.	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.					
9.	I feel happy when I am working deeply.					
10.	I am proud on the work that I do.					
11.	I am immersed (absorbed) in my work.					
12.	I can continue working for very long periods at a time.					
13.	To me, my job is challenging.					
14.	I get carried away when I'm working.					
15.	At my job, I am very flexible, mentally.					
16.	It is difficult to disconnect myself from my job.					
17.	At my work I always carry on, even when things don't go well.					

(E) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Turnover Intention*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree**, **D= Disagree**, **N= Neutral**, **A= Agree**, **SA= Strongly agree**.

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1.	I often think of giving up job sometimes.					
2.	I would quit this job at once if I could.					
3.	I will stay for as long as I can. (R)					
4.	If I could I would get another job with another organization.					
5.	It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year.					
6.	I'd take other job where I'd earn as much as I am earning now.					
7.	I do not like staying at work-place.					
8.	I'll change my job if right opportunity with better pay offered.					
9.	I will be working at my place of service after 5 years. (R)					
10.	As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave the organization.					
11.	I am actively looking for a job outside the organization.					
12.	I am seriously thinking of quitting my job.					
13.	I am finding my job bored and repetitive.					
14.	I can't continue my job because of my personal reasons.					
15.	I am not fit for this job.					

(F) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Career Obstacles*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree, D= Disagree, N= Neutral, A= Agree, SA= Strongly agree.**

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1.	Gender-based barriers exist in my career success.					
2.	I feel like a welcomed member of the organization. (R)					
3.	Women employee put up for promotion later than men.					
4.	Men have difficulty in taking careers of me, seriously.					
5.	I have less opportunity than men for career progress at work.					
6.	Organization’s support/trust in men more than me to reach top.					
7.	At top post promotion, women are discriminated.					

(G) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Organisational Justice*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree, D= Disagree, N= Neutral, A= Agree, SA= Strongly agree.**

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1.	I am able to express my views during various procedures.					
2.	I have influence over the outcome arrived at, by procedures.					
3.	Organizational procedures are applied consistently.					
4.	Organizational procedures are free of bias.					
5.	Organizational procedures are based on accurate information.					
6.	I am able to appeal the outcome arrived at by procedures.					
7.	Organizational procedures support ethical and moral standards.					
8.	My outcome reflects the effort I have put into my work.					
9.	My outcome appropriate for the work I have completed.					
10.	My outcome reflects what I have contributed to organisation.					
11.	My outcome justified, given by my performance.					
12.	Seniors treated me in a polite manner.					
13.	Seniors treated me with dignity.					
14.	Seniors treated me with respect.					
15.	Seniors avoid improper remarks or comments to me.					
16.	Seniors are open in communications with me.					
17.	Seniors explained the procedures thoroughly.					
18.	Senior explanations regarding the procedures were reasonable.					
19.	Seniors have communicated details in a timely manner.					
20.	Seniors seems to modify communication to my specific need.					

(H) Please indicate your responses according to your experience of “*Social Support*”. Here **SD= Strongly disagree, D= Disagree, N= Neutral, A= Agree, SA= Strongly agree.**

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
1.	When things get tough at work, I can always rely on my supervisor to help me solve the problem.					
2.	My supervisor will go out of his/her way to support me in my work.					
3.	It is easy for me to talk to my supervisor when I need help.					
4.	My supervisor is always willing to listen to my problems.					
5.	When things get tough at work, I can always rely on my colleagues to help me solve the problem.					
6.	My colleagues will go out of their way to support me in my work.					
7.	It is easy for me to talk to my colleagues when I need help.					
8.	My colleagues are always willing to listen to my problems.					
9.	When things get tough at work, I can always rely on my family and friends to help me solve the problem.					
10.	My family and friends will go out of their way to support me in my work.					
11.	It is easy for me to talk to my family and friends when I need help.					
12.	My family and friends are always willing to listen to my problems.					

Thank you for your co-operation.