Introduction: advancing women's careers: a key business issue
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As we prepare to send this manuscript to our publishers a seismic shift is occurring in the European Union (EU) on increasing the number of women on corporate boards. Viviane Reding, the EU Justice Commissioner, is threatening to impose a 40 percent quota. Norway led the way with a 40 percent quota in 2008. In the UK, Lord Davies' 2011 report *Women on Boards* prompted significant change. The nature of the debate has moved from 'Why is it important to have gender diverse boards?' to 'How do we achieve change?' The percentage of women directors on the top FTSE 100 companies has increased from 12.5 percent in 2010 to 17.3 percent. Back in 2010, 21 companies had all-male boards; this is down to seven companies now. Most striking of all, during March–September 2012, 44 percent of all new appointments to FTSE 100 boards went to women! The UK is the role model in the EU on how to advance women onto corporate boards without the use of mandatory quotas. The success of the UK's campaign has been due to the collective efforts of all stakeholders working together to achieve change without government intervention, but with great visible government support (Vinnicombe et al., 2009).

The way the UK has stolen the march on North America in terms of moving the dial on women on boards is also evident in the recent re-emerging debate on whether 'women can have it all'. Whilst in the UK Cherie Blair and Helen Fraser (chief executive officer (CEO) of the Girls' Day Schools Trust) have been rallying clever girls/women not to give up their aspiring careers to stay at home with children, in the USA, we read the compelling story of why Anne-Marie Slaughter gave up her high-powered career in the Obama administration to return to her academic career and to have more time with her family. Her articulate account of her story in *The Atlantic* went viral (Slaughter, 2012). These are indeed interesting times!

In this book we address challenges in increasing women's representation in professional and managerial jobs at all levels including the board, the reasons and motivations for doing so, and initiatives in various countries that have been shown to have some success. Our goal of gender equality cannot be realized until women and men share leadership roles equally. This does not yet exist in any country. We raise some central questions:

- Why do women have less access to top positions?
- What accounts for whatever progress some women have made?
- What more needs to be done and by whom?

We discuss our motivations for preparing this volume, we also assess women's career progress, barriers women face in organizations, ways women are disadvantaged and men are advantaged, work and family concerns, international and cross-cultural issues, women off-ramps and on-ramps re-entering the workforce after a short leave, 'women only' management development offerings, mentoring challenges, networking differences (the role of business schools, the role of women's associations and women's networks), organizational interventions that have proven to be helpful, and we offer an overview of the chapters that follow.

OUR MOTIVATIONS

Why a volume presenting research evidence on women's work experiences and initiatives that successfully promote their careers? Consider the following observations:

- There are more women than men graduating from universities with undergraduate degrees (60 percent), almost equal numbers of women and men graduating with advanced degrees in law and medicine, and at least one-third of Master of Business Administration (MBA) graduates are women. Women are increasing the talent pool, and in some sectors becoming the majority.
- While women have made progress in both entering professional and managerial positions, their career progress has been slow and uneven.
- There is an increasing percentage of women employees in the pipeline prepared and ready for advancement (Collins, 2009).
- Despite high levels of recession-related unemployment, there will be labor and skill shortages in all developed countries over the next two decades as the population ages and the low birth rate in these countries fails to provide enough new workforce entrants. This will add to the current war for talent (Michaels et al., 2001). Organizations will no longer be able to afford to ignore half of the available population.
- In the US for the first time more non-white children were born than white – a demographic change (*New York Times*, 'Whites account for under half of births in US', 17 May 2012, front page) that will force organizations to be more racially inclusive.

- More women at work gives them more income and greater purchasing power. Women now make 89 percent of the consumer purchasing decisions (Wittenberg-Cox and Maitland, 2008). Women professionals and managers may be better able to understand the needs of these newly empowered women consumers (Wittenberg-Cox and Maitland, 2008).
- There are data to show that companies with more women in top management positions are more successful.
- There is proof that women are less greedy than men, less likely to engage in theft, fraud and corruption, are less narcissistic and show less hubris, again protecting the organization from fraud, failure and a poor reputation.
- Globally women continue to face discrimination in pay, promotion and types of assignments.
- Organizations that do a better job in retaining and advancing qualified women become employers of choice, an advantage in the 'war for talent' (Bretz et al., 1997).

Few women have reached the top of their organizations or appear in elected offices. Consider the woman now President of Brazil, Dilma Rousseff, the woman now serving as Chair of the Board and CEO at Dupont, Ellen Kullman, and Christine Lagarde, Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The fact that these 'firsts' get our attention reflects the magnitude of the problem. There is still considerable work to be done to achieve full 'equal opportunity'.

Given these observed differences in personal, organizational and societal outcomes between men and women, we believe an emphasis on organizations and the way their policies, practices, processes and culture work to perpetuate inequality of opportunity warrants attention.

There has been an evolution in thinking about supporting women's career advancement over the past 20 years. We know today that there are enough qualified women in the pipeline; there is no shortage of qualified women. In addition, organizations having more women in senior roles have less turnover among their qualified women lower in the hierarchy. The questions that are being asked by organizations today have also changed. In 1990, the question was 'Why are our qualified women leaving?' In 2000, the question was 'What are the barriers to women's advancement in our organization?' In 2010, the question is 'How can we manage our talent in ways that supports both women's and men's advancement?'

A BUSINESS ISSUE NOT A WOMAN'S ISSUE

Gender has become a business issue, a societal issue, and not a women's issue. There is increasing competition for the best talent. Having the best talent then becomes a huge competitive advantage. The quality of an organization's human capital will separate those that excel from the rest. To meet this need, organizations need to do more with the female talent they now have. Organizations need to do a better job of recruiting, retaining, developing and promoting women. They need to achieve a better gender balance in their leadership teams, which too often are composed only of 50–65-year-old white males. They need to understand that women and men are equal but different. Finally, they need to appreciate the opportunity costs they have paid by neglecting or underutilizing the talents of half the population (Catalyst, 1998).

IMPORTANCE OF THIS TOPIC

Issues of talent management and development, and human resource management more broadly, are gradually gaining currency as organizational and government leaders strive for greater understanding of how to leverage performance in an increasingly demanding and competitive international environment. Getting to grips with a more diverse workforce, gender being a central feature of diversity, has become more urgent. These concerns have been reflected in the appearance of more books, journals and journal articles in mainstream academic publications that examine women in management/gender themes.

Every major academic association (for example, Academy of Management, British Academy of Management, Administrative Science Association of Canada, American Psychological Association, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology) has a section devoted to women in management/gender/diversity. In addition, professional human resources (HR) associations (for example, Human Resources Professional Association of Ontario, Society for Human Resources) have demonstrated a major commitment to women in management/gender issues. Undertaking women in management research, however, is still viewed by the majority of business school faculty as a marginal activity. Doctoral students are often cautioned to avoid working in this area but instead to choose more 'mainstream' research topics for their theses in order to be more marketable.

Fortunately many organizations have undertaken to support the careers of women and we know a lot about how to make these efforts more suc-

cessful (Catalyst, 1998; Wittenberg-Cox, 2010). The popular media has often reported on women's successes (the appointments of women to high corporate positions or elected to high public office, or receiving honors and awards for their contributions to society). In Europe the whole topic of women on boards is widely debated and rarely a day goes by without a journalist finding a fresh angle on the topic. In fact, we may be at a 'tipping point' in both understanding the importance of supporting women's career advancement and in knowing how to best go about this.

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT WORLDWIDE: A RECKONING

Davidson and Burke (2011) recently updated their 2004 review of the status of women in management in 21 countries. Women continue to enter the workplace in greater numbers in all developed countries. Several factors have accounted for this trend. The number of emerging economies has grown, the service sector has grown, opening up positions for women, and growth in the public and not-for-profit sectors has created new opportunities for women. Finally, attitudes towards working women, particularly women with children, as well as political and legal initiatives, have supported this trend.

But the pace of advancement for women managers and professions continues to be slow and uneven in different countries and cultures (Barreto et al., 2009; Bashevkin, 2009; Burke and Mattis, 2007; Helfat et al., 2006; Tarr-Whelan, 2009). Women seem to be having more difficulties in science, technology, engineering and mathematics, key areas for growth in the coming decades (Ceci and Williams, 2008; Burke and Mattis, 2007). Women tend to enter the workplace at levels similar to men, with similar credentials and expectations, but their career paths quickly begin to diverge (Burke and Mattis, 2005; Burke and Nelson, 2002). Women are obtaining the necessary experience for advancement but still fall short, a finding observed in all developed countries (Adler and Izraeli, 1988; Davidson and Burke, 2004; Wirth, 2001). Women continue to be paid less than men doing similar types of work (Blau and Kahn, 2007).

THE BUSINESS CASE FOR SUPPORTING WOMEN'S CAREER ADVANCEMENT

Why should organizations be interested in developing and using the talents of women? Schwartz (1992) offered several reasons why supporting the

aspirations of talented women makes sound business sense. Organizations that do this get the best people for leadership positions, providing diverse perspectives in decision-making teams. Supporting capable women signals to women employees, and both male and female clients and customers, that women will be treated similarly to men, and provides role models for junior women. These benefits are particularly important given the acknowledged shortage of effective managerial talent (Burke and Cooper, 2006), the failure of at least half the current managerial incumbents in performing their jobs successfully (Hogan and Hogan, 2001) and the self-acknowledged failures of organizations to develop managerial talent (Fulmer and Conger, 2004). It makes no sense to ignore the talents of half the population.

In Japan, only 0.8 percent of CEOs are women versus 5 percent in the UK's top 100 companies. In Japan, less than 10 percent of Japanese managers are women versus 43 percent in the US. Japan is currently experiencing a severe shortage of talent and it does not encourage immigration. The only viable solution to this talent shortfall is for Japan to advance their qualified women.

Shriver (2009), based on the fact that half the US workforce is now female, used the phrase 'female nation' to highlight the notion that this body of employed women is going to bring about changes to men, women, families, organizations and society as a whole. More working women now have children. An increasing number of women are earning higher salaries than their husbands/partners. These statistics are changing slowly the nature of families, and the roles that men and women play. Children want their mothers to come home from work less tired and less stressed. More men are now shouldering home and family responsibilities. Dual earner families need to negotiate who is responsible for what and respond flexibly to changes as they arise. Both women and men are desirous of workplace flexibility, lower workloads and reduced job demands (Shriver, 2009).

Tarr-Whelan (2009) makes a strong case for increasing the numbers of women in senior executive and key decision-making roles in organizations. She suggests that having 30 percent of these leadership positions filled by qualified women would represent a 'tipping point'. Konrad et al. (2008) also suggest that having three or more women on a corporate board of directors serves as a critical mass or tipping point, whereby they are seen as directors and not just as females.

What do women bring to the table? Tarr-Whelan (2009) identifies five benefits organizations realize from having more women in senior jobs.

1. Higher profits, more risk awareness, less hypercompetitive, and a greater ability to survive financial downturns.

2. Policies that contribute to individual and societal health – education, families, entrepreneurship.
3. A stronger integration of work and family leading to higher productivity and quality of life.
4. Increased commitment to both personal and corporate responsibility and broader and more long-term planning.
5. Management that reflects the twenty-first century – teamwork, participative decision-making.

BARRIERS FACING WOMEN

Catalyst (1998) has identified nine strong barriers to women's career advancement:

1. Negative assumptions men hold about women, their abilities and their commitment to careers.
2. Perceptions that women will not fit into the organizational culture.
3. Lack of career planning for both women and men, and the required range of career experiences necessary for advancement.
4. Assumptions that women will not relocate for career advancement.
5. Failure to hold managers accountable for developing women.
6. Reluctance to give women line management experience.
7. Lack of mentoring, and exclusion of women from informal networks.
8. Discrimination and sexual harassment.
9. Priority given to long work hours and 'face time' over performance, which places women with families at a disadvantage.

Gender stereotypes exist to varying degrees in every country. Here are some common ones.

- Women typically should assume greater family and home responsibilities.
- People are prejudiced against women leaders and discriminate against them.
- People, including women, prefer to work for men rather than women.
- Women are not ambitious.
- Women have difficulty fitting into the male-dominated cultures at work.

There are also special challenges faced by women in management. Perhaps the most pernicious are barriers to mentoring, networking and

acquiring social capital. It is also harder for women to access training and important job assignments. Powell (2011, 1999) observed there are many qualified men for senior level positions. Moreover, men are likely to be more comfortable with other men – the 'old boy network'. Hiring and promotion decisions are often unstructured and open to bias. The *Harvard Business Review* concluded (Fernandez-Araoz, 2009), based on a survey of 500 companies in 2008, that candidates for senior executive positions typically went through only one–five interviews (32 percent) and half relied on the hiring manager's 'gut feeling' – a feeling that the candidate had what it takes to be successful in any job. So much for objectivity, data and similarity attraction.

Morrison et al. (1987) reported that women had difficulties fitting into their organization's culture, were seen by men as wanting too much for themselves or for other women, or had performance difficulties. Managerial women had to walk a fine line, they had to be tough but not too tough, they had to stand on their own two feet yet ask for help when needed, and they had to take career and job risks but still perform at a high level. Male-defined views of work and career success still represent the norm (O'Neil et al., 2008). One consequence of these barriers is a tendency for women to leave large organizations in order to pursue entrepreneurial and/or small business careers (Belkin, 2003; Mattis, 2004; Moore, 2000; Moore and Buttner, 1997).

Since we teach in schools of management and business, we have usually focused our work on women in the private sector. Other authors, however, have also examined women in the public sector, women in the voluntary sector and women in government. Generally there is a higher percentage of women in management in the government and voluntary sectors than in the corporate sector across the world. The latter range from a high of 41.8 percent in the US and 39.6 percent in New Zealand to a low of 16.5 percent in China and 23.2 percent in Argentina (see Table 0.1).

THERE ARE BARRIERS AND THEN THERE ARE OBSTACLES

Kesterton (2012), citing an article by Tait, wrote that female students in Iran have been barred from more than 70 university degree courses, an act of blatant discrimination. For years, Iranian female students have outperformed male students in contrast to the male-dominated views of Iran's religious leaders. Women, by a ratio of three to two, have passed the university entrance examinations. Women undergraduates were

Table 0.1 *Percentage of women legislators, senior government officials and managers*

Country	Percentage
Argentina	23.2
Australia	37.6
Canada	36.2
China	16.5
France	36.9
Israel	28.9
Mexico	27.3
New Zealand	39.6
Norway	32.9
Poland	35.4
Russia	38.9
Spain	31.7
United Kingdom	34.5
United States	41.8

excluded from several areas of study including English literature, English translation, hotel management, archeology, nuclear physics, computer science, electrical engineering, industrial engineering and business management.

WOMEN AND TABOO TRADE-OFF

There are also internal barriers that account for the relatively lower percentage of women in MBA programs and the relatively lower percentage of women in management and executive level positions. Kennedy and Kray (2012) suggest that taboo trade-off aversion is one possible explanation for this; results from three studies provide support for their suggestion. First, women more than men associated business with immorality and questionable ethics and values. Second, after reading case studies showing compromised ethics and values, women were more strongly morally outraged than men and saw less business sense or rationale for these actions. Third, women were less interested in jobs that involved potential taboo trade-offs than men were (to make as much money as possible using questionable tactics). Thus women have internal barriers that reduce their interest in some jobs and in business organizations more generally. Thus it appears that women are less likely than men to make ethical compromises and exhibit ethical lapses.

ARE THERE COSTS TO WOMEN FOR BEING 'GOOD SOLDIERS'?

Employees engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) make an important contribution to the success of their organizations. OCBs are voluntary behaviors and typically not recognized by the formal organizational reward system. OCBs have been divided into two types: communal (for example, touched base with colleagues at work, acted as a peacemaker to settle disagreements, offered constructive suggests about how to improve the department) and agentic (for example, organized a meeting, accepted a role in a professional association). Sex-typed expectations suggest that women engage in more communal OCBs than men and fewer agentic OCBs than men. Engaging in OCBs is both time consuming and stressful and may take time away from important job requirements. In a study of faculty at a major US research university, Bergeron (2005) found that (1) women engaged in more communal OCBs than men, (2) women engaged in as many agentic OCBs as men, (3) women engaged in more communal OCBs than agentic OCBs, (4) women increased their communal OCBs over time, and (5) women received fewer career benefits from engaging in their OCBs than men.

TANGIBLE SIGNS OF PROGRESS

> The world is awakening to a powerful truth: women and girls aren't the problem; they're the solution. (Kristoff and WuDunn, 2009)

Carlson et al. (2006), in a short note published in the *Harvard Business Review*, compared results from the same survey administered to managerial women and men in 1965, 1985 and 2005, covering a 40-year period. They reported the following trends

- Women and more men now have positive attitudes towards women in management.
- Women and more men (almost equal now) now feel comfortable working for a woman.
- More women than men now agree that a woman has to be exceptional to succeed in business today.
- More women than men today think that the business community will never wholly accept female executives.

These perceptions are similar to those reported by Ragins et al. (1998). In addition, these are only words. We need actions on the part of male managers and their organizations to make a difference.

As this chapter was being written, the Olympics were being held in London. There were some firsts in that some Middle East countries (for example, Saudi Arabia) sent their first female athletes, one female in these cases. But Smith (2012) believes that the International Olympic Committee's efforts are still only half-hearted. Some sports were only open to women starting in 2010 (for example, kayaking). Male athletes still receive more financial support than female athletes. Japan's men's soccer team travelled first class while its female soccer team travelled in economy; Australia's men's basketball team travelled first class while the women's basketball team travelled in economy.

One of America's most exclusive men's clubs, the Augusta National Golf Club, admitted its first women to its membership in August 2012 in response to pressure from sponsors, rights groups and the passage of time. IBM, a major sponsor of their Masters Tournament, had a female CEO who was unable to become a club member whereas the past four male CEOs of IBM were club members. This small change matters. I was working as an external consultant with an office of a global public accounting firm and involved in a two-day working session held at a resort about an hour out of their city offices. We (about 60, 50 men and 10 women – all managers and professionals) met at their offices and were bused to the resort. As we approached the resort, every man – but not a single woman – left the bus and retrieved golf clubs from the storage area beneath the bus, and then we proceeded to the resort. In several male-dominated industries (for example, law, financial services, manufacturing), business contacts and business deals are sometimes navigated at sporting events. Relationships and networks are vital; women do not need to 'become one of the boys' but need to 'talk with the boys'.

WOMEN AND THE GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS

Having more women in senior corporate jobs and on boards of directors is a possible solution to the economic crisis that advanced countries found themselves in 2008. Women are less macho, less aggressive and more risk averse. Women tend to tone down mixed group discussions, taking the male ego out of the equation. Would the fiasco at Lehman Brothers in the US have occurred if the firm was Lehman Sisters, or Lehman Sisters and Brothers? Huang and Kisgen (2009) found that companies with female

chief financial officers (CFOs) fared better over the past few years than companies with male CFOs. Companies with female CFOs made fewer acquisitions, and acquisitions made by female CFOs made returns about 2 percent higher than those made by firms with male CFOs. Female CFOs seemed to undertake greater scrutiny and show less arrogance in acquisition decisions. In addition, female CFOs issued debt less frequently and their debt and equity issuances had higher returns.

Groysberg (2008), in a longitudinal study of 'star' stock analysts who changed jobs, found that more women than men maintained their superior job performance in their new jobs. Women were less tied to their work environments for their success. In addition, women were more interested in their external than internal relationships. Women also did more advanced research on their new companies resulting in a better fit.

The business media increasingly contains stories about executive-level men that are attempting to change their organizational cultures to make them more welcoming of talented women. In addition, business media are promoting organizations in several countries that are making efforts to 'level the playing field'.

Can women become drivers of the world economy? Silverstein and Sayre (2009a, 2009b) observe that women control $20 trillion in consumer spending and this figure is expected to increase. In addition, women earn about $13 trillion in total yearly income and this figure will also rise. Women make the major purchasing decisions in several areas (for example, home furnishings, vacations, automobiles). Women represent the largest market opportunity in the world.

IS THE 'GLASS CEILING' STILL A USEFUL METAPHOR?

Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) first used the phrase 'the glass ceiling' about 25 years ago. It captured the fact that relatively few women at that time had achieved senior level positions in the workplace. It served a useful purpose in calling attention to this reality in a compelling way.

Eagly and Carli (2007) believe that, 25 years later, this metaphor may be more wrong than right. There is not one obstacle, a glass ceiling, but several obstacles that women face during their careers. They offer instead the metaphor of the labyrinth – women face walls all around them.

These obstacles include prejudice (think manager, think male), negative views on women's leadership (not tough enough, too tough), family responsibilities, less access to mentors and sponsors, and less access to key line management roles.

They offer a number of organizational interventions which might assist qualified women:

- address sources and causes of prejudice;
- reduce long hours expectations;
- introduce more objective performance evaluations;
- use more formal recruiting processes;
- introduce more than one woman onto work teams;
- appoint more qualified women to senior roles so that tokenism is minimized;
- introduce family friendly policies;
- foster mentor and sponsor relationships;
- prepare women for career advancement with challenging early career line assignments;
- allow high performing women who leave the workforce for a period of time to return;
- allow women with family responsibilities more time to prove themselves;
- support men who take advantage of family friendly benefits.

WAYS WOMEN ARE DISADVANTAGED AND MEN ADVANTAGED

Let us consider two of the major ways at work that managerial and professional women are disadvantaged: work hours and workplace cultures. Long work hours include actual hours worked, overtime hours, 'face' time, workload, work intensity and work addiction. There is evidence that work hours have increased for managers and professionals in developed countries (Greenhouse, 2001; Rutherford, 2001a; Schor, 1991, 2003). New technology makes it possible now to work at any time and from any place. Working long hours may be required for achieving senior management roles (Jacobs and Gerson, 1998; Wallace, 1997). Work hours are not necessarily correlated with job performance and most people are unhappy about the hours they work.

Hewlett and Luce (2006) studied the experiences of women and men in 'extreme jobs', jobs in which they worked more than 70 hours per week and were 'intense' (for example, unpredictable flow of work, fast-paced work under tight deadlines). Most incumbents of extreme jobs were men (17 percent men versus 4 percent women), who were satisfied with their jobs (lots of perks, status and financial rewards). Men and women in these jobs indicated some difficulties in their relationships

with children. A majority of both women and men wanted to work fewer hours.

Working long hours has also been found to be associated with lower levels of both psychological and physical health, and more errors and accidents (Dembe et al., 2005; van der Hulst, 2003). Working long hours disadvantages women since more women are unwilling or unable to work as many hours as men (Hewlett and Luce, 2006).

Work addicts spend more hours at work than do their less work-addicted colleagues. Many men seem proud to describe themselves as work addicts. It has been shown that work addicts do not necessarily experience more job satisfaction than their counterparts, but they report lower levels of family satisfaction and psychological well-being. Women work addicts also report higher levels of perfectionism and job stress than women who are not work addicts.

Organizations were created by men for men (Marshall, 1984). As Marshall puts it 'women are merely travelers in a male world'. Rutherford (2011, 2002, 2001b) has described the difficulties that women face when they move into male cultures. Workplace cultures are both male-dominated and masculine; thus they are better suited for men than for women. Women are marginalized and excluded in both obvious and subtle ways in these arenas. Women are less comfortable in these cultures and have more difficulties both in understanding the codes of these cultures and in advancing their careers in them. Rutherford defines culture as 'the attitudes, values, beliefs and patterns of behavior of organization members. It is expressed in the management style, work ideologies (what is and isn't work), language and communication, physical artifacts, informal socializing and temporal structuring of work, and the gender awareness and expression of sexuality' (Rutherford, 2011: 28).

Women have more responsibilities at home, often referred to as the 'second shift' (Hochschild, 1989), are more likely to have career gaps for having and raising children, are more likely to work part-time at some point in their careers, have to re-enter the workplace following career gaps (Hewlett and Luce, 2005; Hewlett et al., 2005), have less time for socializing and informal networking after work, are less likely to be 'visible' in the organization, and are more likely to receive sexual advances. Time seems to be a more available resource for men than for women, even though they work longer hours and are more likely to be married, have children and family commitments.

MORE WORRISOME SIGNS

Development Dimensions International studied 12 000 managers in 26 countries and found 28 percent more men than women were in early career, high potential programs and 50 percent more men than women were in executive level, high potential programs. Women were underrepresented in high potential leadership development programs.

The pay gap between men and women is at risk of widening for the first time on record in the UK (Chartered Management Institute's 2012 Gender Salary Survey). Having children, particularly among women with a higher level of education, resulted in a large drop in income. Childless women earned more money than women with children. This difference was considerably smaller among women with or without children but with low levels of education (Canadian data from 1993–2004; Statistics Canada).

Women with children who travel as part of their jobs are viewed differently than men with children who travel as part of their jobs; for example, the recent incident in Canada where a court judge downplayed testimony of a female professional as she was traveling as part of her job and leaving her children at home (though well cared for).

A recent longitudinal study of more than 500 women reported by McLaughlin et al. (2009) found that female managers faced more sexual harassment at work than women with no supervisory responsibilities (50 percent versus 33 percent) because male co-workers target them to equalize power in the workplace.

Kornblut (2009) analyzed the US presidential race of 2008 in which two female candidates (Hilary Clinton and Sarah Palin) were involved; Clinton seeking the Democratic nomination eventually garnered by Barack Obama, and Palin being the vice-presidential candidate of the Republican party. Kornblut argues that both Clinton and Palin 'lost' because of gender. Commentators noted their hair, clothing, how they would manage their families and the role of their husbands. There was a double standard in the way male and female politicians were treated. For example, when Palin resigned as Governor of Alaska some commentators raised the question of 'psychological issues'; when Dole resigned from the Senate to run for president, pundits offered no analysis of his decision.

In 2010, two famous British soccer TV pundits lost their lucrative jobs when they were overheard in an off-mike conversation questioning the competence of a Premier League female referee, doubting that she understood the off-side rule. Sports is an industry of men writing and talking about the activities of other men. Female sports reporters are still viewed as cheerleaders, sideline reporters or ignored.

In Canada, women continue to have difficulties obtaining important artistic positions. In 1982, women constituted 10 percent of produced playwrights in Canada; 13 percent of directors, and 11 percent of artistic directors. Women were often found in administration, typically as general managers. Over 25 years later little has changed. In some parts of Canada, 83 percent of artistic directors are men, as are 79 percent of playwrights, and 67 percent of directors. Women tend to be directors in smaller, more peripheral theatre companies.

Plays written by women, but which for research purposes were identified as being written by an equal number of women and men, were sent to artistic directors. Male directors gave male and female authorship similar ratings; female artistic directors gave lower ratings to the scripts written by females.

There are very few female film directors. Women are more interested in making films that do not fit into the action blockbuster category. When a movie directed by a female director 'flops' it is usually more strongly and negatively criticized than 'flops' made by male film directors. In addition, most female directors do not have the money to pursue film making. Only 12 percent of film directors are female.

There has been recent research (Mooney, 2005) on female bullies, individuals similar to Meryl Streep's character in the film 'The Devil wears Prada'. According to a 2007 survey conducted by the Workplace Bullying Institute, a US research, consulting and advocacy group, female bullies target female victims 71 percent of the time.

ARE WOMEN MORE MORAL THAN MEN?

Almost without exception, when the popular media show an individual guilty of fraud, corruption, cheating, sexual harassment and sexual affairs that person is a man (for example, Bernie Madoff, Dennis Kozlowski, Silvio Berlusconi, John Edwards). Men more than women tend to minimize the consequences of moral misconduct, engage in dubious tactics in negotiation and more often use deceit. These behaviors are more likely to be seen in areas in which success has been seen as a sign of male vigor and prowess and loss signals male shortcomings. Kray and Haselhuhn (2012) write that men engage in these questionable behaviors to protect and defend their masculinity. When masculinity is challenged men become aggressive, sacrificing moral standards to win.

FINANCIAL PAYOFFS FROM WOMEN EXECUTIVES AND WOMEN CORPORATE DIRECTORS

A recent report by the Credit Suisse Research Institute (Berman, 2012) using data from 2360 companies worldwide having market capitalization of at least US$19 billion, reported that companies with women on their boards outperformed companies with no women board members over a six-year period (2005–11). Companies with female directors saw share prices increase by 26 percent over companies without female directors. Net income grew 14 percent in companies with female directors versus 10 percent in companies without female directors. Why should this be? Women directors have better attendance records, they spend more time in auditing business activities, and are more risk averse and less likely to make unwise investment decisions (see Barber and Odean, 2001). Other studies (for example, Catalyst have come to similar conclusions, but with less solid evidence).

WORK AND FAMILY

> At work you think of the children you left at home. At home you think of the work you've left unfinished. Such a struggle is unleashed within yourself. Your heart is rent. (Golda Meir, Former President of Israel)

Writing and research on work and family roles began in the early 1980s, shattering the myth that these two domains were 'separate worlds'. Work and family roles were first examined from the perspective of conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985), then considered in terms of balance (Brough and Kalliath, 2009; Kalliath and Brough, 2008), and most recently in terms of integration (Rapoport et al., 2002); work and family roles have received the most attention however in terms of their conflict. Two recent meta-analytic reviews of the literature (Byron, 2005; Michel et al., 2011) have identified both antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict.

There is still disagreement within all societies about whether mothers with young children working outside the home is bad or good for society, with more seeing it as bad than good. There is still discrimination against mothers of children; they are less likely to be hired and less likely to be promoted.

Work-family issues have been identified as potential barriers to career success for managerial and professional women (Morrison et al., 1987; Lewis, 2002). Work-family conflict has been shown to be associated with

turnover, job immobility and guilt, among other issues (Kofodimos, 1993; Byron, 2005; Michel et al., 2011; McElwain and Korabik, 2005). Thus work and family research and writing is both timely and relevant to individuals, families, organizations and societies. Yet work-family research remains peripheral in the industrial organizational and organizational behavior (IO/OB) fields.

Women almost always need to take some time off work when they have children. The vast majority of them then want to return to work, but many would not return to their current or previous employer depending on how they left for maternity leave. Kossek et al. (2011a) conclude, however, that work-family research has had little impact on organizations, and offer some suggestions for increasing its impact. This manuscript led to considerable debate and the response was summarized in part in Kossek et al. (2011b). This included broad changes to topics studied and methods used, better application of work-family research findings, and broadening the base of work-family research to the societal level.

Major and Morganson (2011) suggest that work-family research should be tied to job design, work processes and performance, and broader organizational and business needs. The field has taken a too narrow focus on work-family issues as ends in themselves instead of linking these to wider organizational needs. In other words, the needs of various stakeholders need to be considered simultaneously.

Work-family interventions constitute major organizational changes and are complex to bring about. Several organizations have made efforts to address work-family issues among both women and men by introducing flexible work arrangements, teleworking, extended maternal and parental leave options, reduced workload, and job sharing (Lee et al., 2002; Sabattini and Crosby, 2009). But these innovations, unless supported fully by senior management and found to be both used by and helpful to women and men who undertake them, too often fall short.

WORK EXPERIENCES ASSOCIATED WITH WOMEN'S CAREER SATISFACTION AND ADVANCEMENT

Burke (2001) reviewed factors found to have positive influences on the career development of women. These included: specific types of work experiences, developmental job experiences, developmental relationships, alternative work arrangements and organizational initiatives.

WORK EXPERIENCES

McKeen and Burke (1991) investigated the relationship between four work experiences – all related to support from one's organization – and indicators of job and career satisfaction and success in a sample of Canadian managerial and professional women. These work experiences were: support and encouragement by one's organization, access to training and development opportunities, feeling accepted by your organization, and an absence of tension from overload and ambiguity from being a woman. Women reporting higher levels of each of these four work experiences indicated more favorable work and career outcomes.

Other analyses using different subsamples of managerial and professional women who were part of a larger study of women's work and career experiences supported the following conclusions. First, women employing more career strategies were more career satisfied and indicated higher future career prospects. Second, women reporting higher levels of job challenge indicated higher levels of job satisfaction and less intent to quit. Third, women undertaking a greater number of training and development activities reported higher future career prospects, and women finding their training and development activities they undertook to be more useful were both more job and more career satisfied, and reported higher future career prospects and lower intent to quit. Fourth, women reporting more support and encouragement indicated higher levels of future career prospects, women feeling more accepted indicated lower intentions to quit, women reporting more training and development activities were more career satisfied and this was translated into higher future career prospects, and women reporting higher levels of job challenge in their assignments were both more job and career satisfied and this translated into lower intentions to quit and higher levels of future career prospects.

DEVELOPMENTAL JOB EXPERIENCES

Ohlott et al. (1990, 1994) considered measures of developmental job demands and skills learned from them. Developmental demands included lack of top management support, achieving goals through personal influence, and establishing personal credibility. Women scored higher than men on most of their developmental job demands, higher on 'complicating' factors (for example, out of the 'old boy network'), and women learned more from their developmental job demands than men.

DEVELOPMENTAL RELATIONSHIPS

Mentoring has been generally shown to have a positive influence on job and career satisfaction and career progress (Kram, 1985; Ragins and Kram, 2007). There is some evidence that women may have more difficulty in developing mentor relationships (Noe, 1988), and that cross-gender mentorships (typically male mentors and female protégés) have unique features that may make them more complicated (Clawson and Kram, 1984). In the absence of mentors, or even as a complement to them, individuals can profit from peer relationships (Kram and Isabella, 1985). Peer relationships are characterized more by mutuality than mentorships are.

Finally, individuals can profit from their interpersonal networks more broadly (Brass, 1984, 1985; Ibarra, 1997, 1993). There is evidence that men's networks contain mostly men, and women's networks contain mostly women. Men's networks may in fact also be more influential in including higher status members. Women tend to get social support from other women and instrumental support from men.

ALTERNATIVE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

MacDermid et al. (2001) studied part-time work arrangements among 78 professional and managerial women. These women chose to work on a reduced workload basis (RWL) for family or personal reasons. Most of the sample were satisfied with this arrangement, as were their direct reports who now had their supervisors absent for one or more days per week. Most felt that the quality of their performance was maintained and their managers agreed with this assessment. Women on RWL had some concerns that this arrangement likely had some short-term career consequences; but one-third of the women on RWL were promoted during this arrangement.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ROLE MODELS FOR WOMEN.

Sealy and Doherty (2012) interviewed 34 high-level women working in six global investment banks on the contribution of female role models in their work and career experiences. Female role models served a number of functions. First, they served as symbols of similarity in their sex, values, approaches to work and other non-work experiences (attended the same uni-

versity, were mothers, and were different from the male norm). They served as symbols of hope in providing tangible evidence that some women succeed, that women can retain their uniqueness and still be successful. They also served as symbols of meritocracy, inaction and organizational support for women, and provided some confidence that they can succeed. They suggest that women find someone in their workplace they can relate to, find someone at a higher level that seems to hold the same values and try to find models with positive attributes along with some negative attributes. Organizations need to understand the messages they are sending if there are no women at senior levels. They should also highlight the success of several high-level and talented women rather than focusing on one or two potential role models.

GENDER BILINGUAL CULTURES

Despite increasing interest, progress in advancing women's careers continues to be glacially slow. There are several reasons for this. Many senior male executives still pay only lip service to this objective. In addition, companies typically introduce limited initiatives (for example, a mentoring program, gender awareness courses) which have little impact on the existing culture.

Wittenberg-Cox and Maitland (2008) argue that organizations need to become 'gender bilingual'. That is, organizations need to learn the language and culture of their female employees. Understanding gender difference will help organizations create and manage work teams more effectively and better relate to customers. This, however, is not a 'fix the women' exercise.

They offer the following suggestions for an effective program to build 'gender bilingualism'

- First, top management must be convinced that this is a key business issue.
- Training managers to be inclusive of men and women, and fluent in the differences between women and men (through awareness training, coaching, mentoring).
- Empowering women to succeed by identifying the messages in corporate culture, organizational politics, and more transparent criteria for managerial decision-making about careers, promotions and development.
- Removing bias in recruitment, pay, the identification of high potential, succession planning and promotion, and performance evaluation.

Retention of women would be increased by:

- Acknowledging the loss of women and determining the size and costs of this loss.
- Determining why this occurs, comparing exit reasons for both men and women.
- Acknowledging potential differences in men's and women's career paths.
- Recognizing and acknowledging the role of the organization's structure, culture and systems in this process.
- Introducing changes to eliminate these problems.

Promoting women would be increased through:

- Identifying the level in the organization at which the number/percentage of women starts to decline.
- Determining the reasons why.
- Determining the leadership profile desired in the future and review performance evaluation systems to make sure they can achieve this.
- Stating targets for women in leadership development programs, on lists of high potential employees and on succession planning lists.
- Holding managers accountable for promoting women.
- Measuring progress in the various business units to identify obstacles and encourage progress.

Catalyst (1998) offers a description of research-based practical and workable initiatives that they have identified over the past 25 years. They have identified a variety of practices that effectively support women's advancement to senior management. These examine the organizational work environment, human resource policies, human resource practices, barriers and opportunities facing women, leading to the development of a systematic change program.

Catalyst (1998) has observed eight characteristics of successful organizational change efforts that support women's advancement. These are:

- Having a strong foundation – linking motivation and reasons for initiating change to business results and performance.
- Guaranteeing support from the highest levels in the organization.
- Developing a clear communication plan linking change efforts to business issues.

- Developing metrics to measure results and progress.
- Taking a long-range viewpoint.
- Increasing support through education and training.
- Holding managers accountable.
- Celebrating small wins.

THE GOING WON'T BE EASY AND ALWAYS AS EXPECTED

It has been proposed that creating a meritocratic organization will support women's advancement and fair treatment. It turns out that developing merit-based organizations faces some challenges in practice (Castilla, 2008). Castilla and Benard (2010). In three experiments involving almost 450 individuals with managerial experience, individuals, when faced with organizations expressing explicit meritocratic values, made less favorable compensation decisions to females than to males. They explain this paradox in two ways: individuals felt freer to act on their prejudiced attitudes when they believed that their organizational culture was a fair one and they had established their moral credentials, and in a meritocratic culture people see each other as fair so individuals also see themselves as fair, allowing them to act on their (prejudiced) beliefs. We believe that creating a meritocratic workplace will be supportive of women's achievements and progress but care needs to be taken to address potential risks and unintended consequences.

WOMEN AND INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS

Altman and Shortland (2008) offer a 25-year review of women in international assignments (1980s to 2007). Few women were offered international assignments in the 1980s, slightly more women were offered assignments in the 1990s (let us make every effort to remove blockages to women in international assignments), and slightly more women in the early 2000s (let us make changes so it is easier for women to succeed in international assignments).

Women still face significantly more challenges than men in obtaining and succeeding in these assignments. Adler (1979) was the first to champion women in international assignments, but Linehan and Walsh (1999) refer to a glass border that still exists. This is problematic for women's careers since international experience is becoming more important for women to advance to senior management in some sectors. Women, more

than men, leave their partners at home while undertaking international assignments. The economic downturn and increased use of technology has perhaps reduced the numbers of international assignments.

WOMEN AND LEADERSHIP

As there are now more women working in professional and managerial jobs, the question of women's leadership can now be meaningfully addressed. Are women leaders effective? Several recent meta-analyses have examined this question in various contexts: gender-integrated work teams, comparing the behaviors and styles of male and female leaders, and the effectiveness of male and female leaders. These analyses showed that men and women differ only slightly in leadership behavior and style (for example, women engage in more consensus building), and men and women generally are equally effective in getting their jobs done and achieving results.

THE LANGUAGE OF LEADERSHIP

Since organizations were designed for men by men, the language of leadership is also sometimes problematic. Men are more likely than women to talk in terms of 'I' rather than 'we'. Women use a more inclusive vocabulary. Thus women tend to be overlooked as candidates for executive leadership roles. Men want to be promoted, want to show drive, and demonstrate these wants verbally. Women who therefore sound more like men are more likely to be promoted (Tannen, 1993; Wittenberg-Cox, 2010).

WOMEN – THE RICHER AND MORE EDUCATED SEX?

Recent evidence has shown that an increasing number of women are earning more money than their male spouses/partners. Eichler (2012) cites a Prudential survey in which approximately one-quarter of the women surveyed indicated that they were the primary breadwinner in their relationships. We already know that more women than men are enrolled in university undergraduate education. Eichler suggests that more women publicize their status, so employers see that they are working to support their households. In addition, companies that are recruiting staff should realize that managerial and professional women should be earning highly competitive salaries (Mundy, 2012). This also relates to the retention

of highly qualified women. Marketers are beginning to respond to this change with the realization that women have the major say in the majority of household purchases.

THE IMPORTANT ROLE FOR SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

Several highly rated schools of business have developed courses for women interested in learning more about themselves and their careers (for example, Rotman School of Management at the University of Toronto, the Stanford University School of Business, and INSEAD, Cranfield School of Management) and the Center for Creative Leadership has offered such courses for several years.

Ely et al. (2011) review the role and importance of gender in the theory and design of women's leadership development programs. They advocate a 'women only' leadership develop program instead of a program with both women and men taking part. They propose that leadership development is identity work and note that gender bias in the wider culture (including organizational) hinders the identity work of women. First they identify several features of second generation gender bias that favor men (for example, cultural beliefs about gender, workplace hierarchy and structure, organizational practices, and interaction patterns). More specifically, these include stereotypes that see leaders as masculine, few role models for women, gendered career patterns, gendered work, the 'old boys' network, lack of sponsors and women's high visibility. These features make it difficult for women to see themselves as leaders and to be seen by men as leaders.

They then consider traditional leadership topics from this perspective (for example, 360-degree feedback and coaching, networking, negotiation, leading change and dealing with career transitions).

They offer three principles for the design and delivery of women's leadership programs:

1. Use second generation gender bias information as the context for development.
2. Support the development of women's identity work.
3. Emphasize women's larger leadership purpose.

Though they strongly advocate a 'women only' leadership development program, women can later participate with men in further development of leadership competences as well.

Catalyst has reported that efforts must also be undertaken in college and university programs in business and management. They indicate a need for the hiring of more women as faculty members, the development of case studies with women as central actors, more emphasis on diversity issues in the workplace in courses, and more 'female friendly' classroom settings.

SUPPORTING WOMEN'S ADVANCEMENT – MANDATORY VERSUS ASPIRATIONAL APPROACHES

While there are some success stories of organizational efforts to support the advancement of women there are more examples of failed or limited success. Willis and Bligh (2012) make a distinction between mandatory versus aspirational approaches to achieve these aims. Mandatory approaches are by their nature involuntary, serve women, use measurable goals, are reactive, are less likely to be tied into wider organizational processes and business strategies and emphasize short-term improvements. Mandatory approaches tend to increase resistance by some and levels of conflict. Aspirational approaches, in contrast, are voluntary, can serve all employees, are proactive, emphasize long-term goals and work on bringing about cultural change. Aspirational approaches are associated with lower levels of conflict, less backlash, more organizational commitment and are more likely to be integrated into organizational practices, policies and business strategy. They contend that it is also possible to integrate these two approaches.

GOVERNMENT POLICY AND THE USE OF QUOTAS

Governments in many countries have enacted legislation intended to introduce fairness in the treatment of women in the workplace (Davidson and Burke, 2011). This legislation has had some, albeit limited, effect. A more radical proposal is the enactment of quotas in the number of women that must appear in various situations, typically on boards of directors of organizations (Groschl and Takagi, 2012). Some countries have stated quotas for such boards (for example, Norway and Spain). This has resulted in increases in the numbers of female directors. Other countries have examined the use of quotas but decided not to go down this route (for example, the UK and Canada). Instead these countries have put a bit more 'pressure' on large organizations to nominate more women as direc-

tors, laying out a series of initiatives that would help these organizations achieve a greater representation of female directors. More time is needed to evaluate the success of quotas and greater pressure on the numbers of women directors.

As one might expect, there has been strong opposition to the implementation of quotas (Hakim, 2000; Noon, 2010). We are now beginning to see research studies being conducted on the effects of the use of quotas on appointments to boards of directors. It has been stated that women appointed to boards of directors to fill quotas would seem like 'second class citizens' who achieved their directorships just to fill a quota. Would men who get appointed to boards of directors feel the same way? Seierstad (2012) interviewed 22 Norwegian women appointed to boards following the passage of their quota legislation. The vast majority (90 percent) supported the use of quotas using a 'business case rationale' that firms need to have the best talent in these roles. While most of these women were initially ambivalent about the use of quotas, their experience serving on boards of directors resulted in a more favorable view of their use. Many believed that they now had an opportunity to use their talents that was previously denied to them. But the business case rationale was a much stronger factor in their views on quotas than was the issue of justice. They also saw a strong need to prove themselves. They saw that some men would not receive board appointments but that these were likely to be less-talented contributors.

THE IMPORTANT ROLE OF MEN

Men and management have received scant writing and research attention, yet when one thinks of managers or management one inevitably thinks in terms of men (Hearn, 1994; Collinson and Hearn, 2000). Schein (2007) found, in a series of studies in several countries, that 'think manager-think male' was pervasive. We know relatively little about how the numerical dominance of men in management, and their status and power, influences the nature of management, desired behaviors in workplaces, structures and processes within organizations and the challenges women face in advancing to higher executive-level positions. Masculinity also relates to the relationships men have with other men as well as their relationships with women. But in order to have more women at higher organizational levels there will have to be fewer men at these levels (Faludi, 1999). Thus, changing both men and managements will have to occur.

There have been some challenges for men over the past few decades

as a result of the feminist movement, which seem to have brought about modest changes in some men and their behavior (Kimmel, 1996, 1993, 1987; Kimmel and Messner, 1989). 'What are men supposed to do?' and 'What do women want from men?' reflect this uncertainty and transition. But some men have responded with anger, others with indifference, and still others with an openness to change. In addition, some men have realized that masculinity can be associated with negative psychological and physical health consequences (Burke, 2002; Kaufman, 1993).

Men in management will need to change their behavior if women are to be equally represented at executive levels. We have observed that men at senior levels who are more supportive of women in management tend to have daughters of their own. There are also some interventions that are likely to encourage and support men in their efforts to be more accommodating to women's career advancement. These would include training, counseling and management development initiatives that attempt to show various approaches to leadership and ways to reduce oppressive leadership styles, providing men with roles in organizational change efforts to advance women, and showing how more senior and experienced men can benefit through mentoring and networking with women in meeting the former's needs for passing on their wisdom to the next generation of leaders (generativity in Fromm's terms) as well as learning from them.

Major and Morganson (2011) argue that empowering supervisors to support and facilitate work-family balance is critical if we are to make inroads in organizations. And most of these individuals are men. Related initiatives found to support work-family balance include training supervisors in work-family supportive behaviors, assessing the performance of managers on these behaviors (for example, 360-degree feedback to supervisors). In addition, increasing the levels of co-workers' support for work-family balance has also been found to be helpful (Major and Morganson, 2011).

Having more women at senior levels, without the help of their male colleagues, is no guarantee of gender equity either. Abraham (2012) studied staffing and pay levels in a large bank in which 44 percent of the managers were women. Women and men in the same job earned the same salaries, but there were more women in lower-level jobs than men. Not all female mangers were motivated to help other women, perhaps for fear of being seen as too supportive of women by their male colleagues. Interestingly, both male and female employees reported more use of flexible work hours (for example, part-time work) when working for female managers than when working for male managers.

WOMEN LEADERS – CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES?

Most of the research on women in leadership roles has been carried out in North America. It is not clear whether these findings would translate to other areas of the world (den Hartog and Dickson, 2004). Central cross-cultural issues would include the following:

- Do perceptions about women and men as leaders differ across cultures?
- Do cultural differences exist in how, and ways that, women leaders balance their work roles and family roles?
- Do cultures have different environments that make career advancement for women easier?
- Do cultures differ in the level of interest employing organizations exhibit in undertaking initiatives that support the career advancement of women?

Bullough and Sully de Luque (2011), using the GLOBE data from managers in 62 societies (House et al., 2004), found that particular cultural dimensions were related to different culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (CLTs). Thus charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented and autonomous leaders were positively related to women's participation in leadership roles, while self-protective leadership was negatively related to women's rates of participation in these roles. These CLTs were unrelated to rates of men's participation in management roles however.

A NEED TO LINK MICRO-LEVEL AND MACRO-LEVEL EFFORTS

Landes (1999) suggests that the best indicator of an economy's growth potential is the legal rights and status of its women. He writes that denying women deprives a country of both labor and talent while undermining the motivation to achieve of boys and men. Boys and men who believe they are superior and entitled do not need to learn and achieve.

Efforts need to be made at the macro-level (societal) before significant progress will be seen at the levels of individual women. In addition, obstacles and barriers must be tackled at several levels simultaneously. These include: education, beginning in the early formative years, and socialization in families and schools.

On the research front, there is an urgent need to undertake projects on the experiences of women, not only in management but at all levels and walks of life (and including men as well) across different countries with different cultural values (Burke, 2009; Emerich et al., 2004). The work of Hofstede (1980, 1998), and the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004) has identified some of these cultural values (for example, masculinity, egalitarianism).

We must continue to put pressure on our government leaders to support women in all countries of the world. Institutions such as the United Nations, World Bank, IMF, International Labour Organization and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development need to support such initiatives by collecting statistics on the experiences of all women in various countries and follow up with appropriate change interventions.

RENEWED INTEREST AND MOMENTUM

Two events took place in July 2012, and one slightly earlier, that did more to put issues about women's work and life experiences and career progress at the front of our consciousness than the writing and research on women's careers of the previous decades. These were the article by Anne-Marie Slaughter in the July–August 2012 issue of *The Atlantic* and the appointment of Marissa Mayer as President of Yahoo.

First, Slaughter (2012) wrote about why she left a senior policy advisor position with US Secretary of State Hilary Clinton. Slaughter returned to her previous job as a professor of public policy and economics at Princeton University because she was unable to devote enough time to her family. She couched her article under the title 'Why women still can't have it all'. Slaughter had a very supportive husband, a higher income, high levels of organizational staff support and some degree of control over her job responsibilities. She was a member of the 'elite'. Yet she still felt she was unable to devote adequate time to her family despite these resources. Hundreds of thousands of women (and men) accessed her article and she has since appeared on television and her views have appeared in the print media. Readers sent her emails thanking her for her article. Women everywhere seemed to be wanting a more level playing field. She was honest about the difficulties she faced and suggested both organizational and societal changes were needed to better support women's career aspirations. Slaughter suggests a greater need for workplace flexibility to accommodate the needs of both women and men, a reduction in face time and 'time machismo', opportunities for part-time work, and the consideration

of individuals who have worked part-time for full-time senior leadership roles.

These are not women's issues, but rather social and economic issues. Societies that develop ways of utilizing the experiences and talents of all their citizens and allow both women and men to participate in home and family activities will have a competitive advantage. In this regard, countries can learn much from each other in terms of how to go about this and what seems to be working.

It should also be noted that men cannot have it all at present either (Hewlett, 2002). Although men are able to choose to devote more time than women to their work roles, some men (perhaps an increasing number of men) feel they are not doing a good enough job in their spouse/father roles. It also appears that women feel more guilt about this than men do.

Second, Yahoo appointed 37-year-old Marissa Mayer as its CEO knowing that she was pregnant with her first child. This story also went viral. Some individuals questioned whether a woman with a baby would be able to handle a demanding job with a struggling company. I hope her appointment is not an example of the 'glass cliff' phenomenon. Interestingly, when male CEOs have a child, no one questions whether this will interfere with their job duties. In her case it may be that being pregnant will no longer be seen as a liability for most women and in fact her example may represent another crack in the glass ceiling. Marissa Mayer is eminently qualified to be a role model in this regard.

Third, Cheryl Sandberg, CEO at Facebook, and a mother, made headlines when she said she typically leaves work at 5:30 p.m. to be home for family dinners. It is also likely that she puts in a few hours each night after her children are in bed.

These three vignettes raise the issue of ways in which work demands (long hours, face time, endless meetings) make it difficult for women, even elite women having considerable resources and control, to have a satisfying home and family life and raise concerns about the 'maternity wall' women face; women with children are seen as not able to fully commit to their work roles. These issues are not new; they have been talked and written about for at least 20 years (see Schwartz, 1992). What is new is the attention they have received worldwide.

MEN CAN'T HAVE IT ALL EITHER

Slaughter (2012) notes that men cannot have it all either. Hewlett and Luce (2006) studied work and extra-work experiences of very successful, high-level executives. Most were very work satisfied, receiving large

salaries, a wide range of perks and privileges, interesting work and recognition by their work colleagues. However, they were concerned about what working 70 or more hours a week was doing to their emotional and physical health, and what this work commitment was doing to their family and home relationships. Most indicated a desire to moderately reduce their working hours over the next five years.

In conclusion, much has been written already about women's careers. Our own book takes up four perspectives; the background context, the continuing challenges facing career women, an examination of women's careers in particular sectors and finishes with ways of supporting women's development.

OVERVIEW OF THE COLLECTON

The first part, 'Setting the scene', consists of four chapters:

Gender Ratios in Organizations: Managerial and Cross-Cultural Issues

Hetty van Emmerik and Merel Kats examine the impact of gender ratios on leadership behaviors cross-culturally. In so doing, they conclude that the percentage of female managers in an organization has a larger impact than national culture. Two leadership styles are discussed: an initiating style and a consideration style. Both leadership styles are used more by female leaders. The higher the proportion of female managers, the less male managers use an initiating style. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the different policies used to increase the number of women in management.

The Continuing Challenge of Incorporating Race and Ethnicity into Research on Women's Management Careers

Stella M. Nkomo challenges the ways researchers have traditionally examined race and ethnicity in explaining women's managerial careers. Most studies focus on gender. Nkomo wants to promote intersectionality as a means of not only taking into account race and ethnicity on women in managerial careers, but also as a means of studying it differently. She suggests a shift from a categorical approach to a process approach, in which the focus would be on the processes of racialization, ethnicization and gendering, rather than race ethnicity and gender. Such an approach calls for new methodologies and here Nkomo refers to Acker's advocacy of more case studies and ethnographic methodologies. Putting all this

in a transnational perspective would provide both the micro and macro context.

Sprinters, Marathoners and Relay Runners: Profiles of Women's Career Development over Time

Deborah O'Neil, Margaret M. Hopkins and Diana Bilimoria examine the pattern of professional women's careers. Building on their earlier work, in which O'Neil and Bilimoria identified three distinct phases to their careers, this chapter extends their theory by relating the phases to being a sprinter, marathoner and relay runner, using the analogy of running a race. These patterns reflect how women's contexts, connections and priorities change over time and impact their careers and lives. The chapter concludes with strategic actions that women can undertake at the various phases and how organizations can support women's career development.

Stop Fixing Women, Start Building Management Competencies

Avivah Wittenberg-Cox argues for strategic management of gender in organizations. The chapter focus on initiatives taken so far to increase the number of women in senior positions and a new way forward. She argues that most initiatives focus on changing women, as though the problem belongs to women and not the business. This has not been helped by positioning gender diversity as a human resources issue. Wittenberg-Cox advocates that gender balance is a business issue and should be tackled in four stages: audit, awareness, align and sustain. During this process the company thinks about how this applies to top management, all managers, talent and markets. In this process leadership is the key to success.

The second part, 'Challenges facing career women', consists of eight chapters:

Theoretical Advances in the Study of Sexual Harassment

Margaret S. Stockdale, Seth A. Berry, Joel T. Nadler, Dawn M. Ohse and Gargi Bhattacharya review the recent research and theoretical advancement on sexual harassment. The authors summarize research on the forms, theories and impact of sexual harassment. They first discuss the legal criteria of sexual harassment, present different categorizations and discuss same-sex and racialized sexual harassment. Various models are presented, and the theory that sexual harassment is either approach or reject-motivated is discussed. They also describe revictimization and cul-

tural and race/ethnicity factors. The authors explain that not only victims are negatively affected by sexual harassment and examine how characteristics influence perceptions of targets and harassers. Finally, the authors discuss the creation of sexual harassment policies and considerations like the backlash from zero tolerance policies, or the ratio of men to women in functional units.

Gender Stereotypes and their Implications for Women's Career Progress

Suzette Caleo and Madeline E. Heilman examine oppositional gender stereotypes and how these stereotypes are both descriptive and prescriptive. Descriptive stereotypes perpetuate the impression that women lack what it takes to succeed in male-typed positions. Organizational, structural and personal factors contribute to negative expectations about women's performance. Women are sometimes able to overcome stereotypes, either because the ambiguity surrounding performance valuation is minimal, or because the evidence of competence is undeniable. With prescriptive-based bias, acting in counterstereotypical ways can incur negativity in social attractiveness and organizational success. The authors discuss when women engage in 'should nots' and when they violate 'should'. Finally, the authors discuss 'success as a violation', question whether success could be considered engaging in 'should nots' or violating 'shoulds', and explain the difficulties of combating prescriptive biases.

Women's Occupational Motivation: The Impact of Being a Woman in a Man's World

Kim Peters, Michelle K. Ryan and S. Alexander Haslam explain that women continue to be underrepresented in traditionally masculine occupations and positions which could reflect inherent gender differences in career motivation that lead women to opt out of organizational life. Organizational identity factors may influence a person's occupational motivation. According to the authors' identity-fit model of occupational attainment, one such factor is the degree to which individuals perceive that their traits and abilities are similar to those of prototypical members of an occupation. They argue that perceptions of similarity to an occupational prototype are sufficient to fuel an individual's desire to pursue and succeed in that occupation. Thus in male-dominated occupations, women are especially likely to perceive incongruity and a lack of fit, with negative consequences for their occupational outcomes. The authors discuss research that supports their model and demonstrates that identity-fit dynamics can have negative consequences for women in male-dominated professions.

Women's Impact on Women's Careers in Management: Queen Bees, Female Misogyny, Negative Intra-Relations and Solidarity Behaviors

Sharon Marvin and Jannine Williams describe senior women's experiences and the oxymoron of queen bee and women's solidarity behavior, and discuss female misogyny, women's negative intra-relations and homosociality. Barriers to improving women's representation in senior positions include individual causes, interpersonal causes and appointment processes. The queen bee label perpetuates negative intra-relationships between women, contradicting the idea of women's solidarity behavior. The misogynistic backlash of junior women to senior women's counterstereotypical behavior creates negative intra-relationships, threatening future gender equality in the workplace. Male homosociality is explained as a factor in perpetuating gendered organizations and recommendations are given for strengthening female homosocial relations. The authors end with a call to action; to stop the use of the queen bee label and to progress empirical research in women's negating intra-relations and female homosociality.

Organizational Politics: The Missing Link to Women's Progression into Managerial Roles

Elena Doldor focuses on a neglected factor in women's managerial roles: organizational politics. Current research highlights the importance of politics for career progression and managerial effectiveness. Women's engagement in politics as managers can be better understood by examining the key concept of political will; what makes women willing (or not) to engage in politics. The nature of political will, and the three dimensions of this concept, are discussed and developmental opportunities and obstacles relevant to understanding how women's willingness to engage in politics are examined. The author suggests that women's willingness to engage in politics is shaped by the need to navigate gender stereotypes, and is influenced by the existence of mentors and role models in the political arena. The chapter concludes with a discussion of areas of future concern.

Glass Networks: How Networks Shape the Careers of Women Directors on Corporate Boards

Rosanne Hawarden examines gendered director networks, particularly through the Glass Network Theory (GNT). She examines boardroom glass ceilings and the glass networks, and then explains network terminology and GNT concepts. The author finds that director networks constrain career opportunities for individual directors, and that GNT accounts

for the glass ceiling and the 'queen bee' syndrome. Also, directors will typically choose boards of like-minded peers with similar experience. Hawarden discusses network 'outliers' and the implications of limited opportunities for women to gain board experience. She recommends that women start gaining board experience in their mid-thirties so that they acquire sufficient expertise, particularly through non-profit or start-up boards. The author believes the inertia of glass networks deters incremental social change; to be effective, formal affirmative action is required with quotas maintained and enforced.

Beyond Bias and Barriers: A Biopsychosocial Lens for Understanding Gender Communication in Organizations

Susan S. Case and Angela J. Oetama-Paul examine communication differences between men and women using a biopsychosocial lens. Despite a massive influx of women into the workforce and increased upward mobility of women into management, persistence of gendered communication styles and strategies are still prevalent. Prior explanations have focused on socialization or sociocultural biases and barriers. The authors suggest a biologically based explanation, neuroanatomy, as an interpretive framework. They present a comprehensive explication of the literature on the different brain architectures in men and women, drawing on a large body of psychological and linguistic literature to illustrate similarities and differences in the way that men and women typically use language. The authors offer examples of organizations that are benefitting from awareness of brain-based science insights about gender, particularly in relation to linguistic practices.

Prejudice against Women Leaders: Sex of Voice

Fiona Sheridan discusses the potential impact that the sound of a female leader's voice has a primal trigger for realized prejudice and discrimination. Her study extends role congruity theory through the inclusion of sex of voice as a gender-related trigger that may activate gender stereotypes about women and leaders. Sheridan provides background on changes in women's leadership and outlines the challenges that women leaders face. The author discusses the scholarly literature to depict the role congruity theory of prejudice towards women leaders. Sex of voice is introduced as an important moderating variable, and its impact on stereotyping and prejudice towards women leaders is discussed. The author then introduces an exploratory research model. The implications for research and practice are set out and directions for further research are presented.

The third part, 'Women in specific occupational sectors and roles', consists of six chapters:

Women in Professional Services Firms

Camilla Quental examines women in professional service firms. Whilst professional service firms (PSFs) have grown in importance in the last 20 years and increasing numbers of women seek careers in this sector, there are few research studies examining women's advancement in PSFs. Quental reviews the studies to date on women's careers in PSFs and then describes her own qualitative research among male and female senior executives and partners from six major management consulting firms in France and the United States to understand the partner promotion process. Quental's research reveals the gendered construction of the ideal consultant and how women build their professional identity as a partner.

Gender Differences in the Academic Work Experiences of Faculty at Early, Middle and Late Career Stages

Diana Bilimoria, Xiangfen Liang, Shani D. Carter and Jeffrey M. Turell analyze the gender differences in the academic work experiences of faculty. Although there has been a significant increase in the number of female faculty in post-secondary institutions in the USA, there has been limited research on faculty careers. In this chapter the authors examine the work experiences of women and men in early, mid and late career stages in terms of five aspects: faculty work hours, research productivity, satisfaction, perception of equity and compensation. From their large-scale analysis two key differences emerge for women; female academics participate in substantially fewer development activities and they earn substantially less than male academics at all career stages.

Where Are the Women in Academic Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics Fields?

Wendy M. Williams, Susan M. Barnett and Rachel Sumner examine the challenges facing female academics in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) in the USA. Interestingly this is an excellent time to be a woman applying for a tenure-track job in an STEM field. The data show that her chances of being interviewed and hired are higher than a man's. Many women, however, who receive a PhD, make the decision not to apply for a tenure-track professorship due to the tension between getting tenure and having children. The careers of women are shaped by

their child-bearing decisions and intentions, while the careers of men seem relatively unaffected by such issues.

Breakthrough for Women on UK Boards

Ruth Sealy examines the increase in the number of women on top corporate boards in the United Kingdom over the past two years. She starts by examining the trends up to 2011, when the Lord Davies government report *Women on Boards* was launched. She examines the significant impact of the report in terms of contextualizing the recommendations and the impetus for change coming from the European Union's threatened quota of 40 percent women on boards by 2020. Sealy concludes by looking at the possible ways forward.

Women Professionals in the Software Services Sector in India

Vasanthi Srinivasan and Amit Gupta focus on the rise of women in software services in India. Women's participation in the software services in India has increased from 24 percent in 2005 to 30 percent in 2010. Srinivasan and Gupta unpack this phenomenon by examining why the industry is seen as attractive to women. Multinational corporations (MNCs) in India have focused extensively on gender diversity at work and this has resulted in several companies demonstrating best practices in childcare, leadership development and organizational culture to engage, motivate, retain and grow women leaders. However, the role of the family and sociocultural factors continue to exert pressure on the situation.

A Gendered Analysis of International Career Development: Progress, Pitfalls and Prospects

Savita Kumra explores the growing importance of international management experience in terms of generating career capital. She then focuses on expatriate assignments and discusses the barriers facing women who want to access them. These relate to suitability, selection and adjustment. How success on international assignments is determined is then considered. The only difference found between men and women was expatriate readiness, with women being rated lower than men. The chapter concludes with a discussion of organizational initiatives that can support women on expatriate assignments.

The fourth and final part, 'Supporting women's career development', consists of six chapters:

Advancing Women: A Focus on Strategic Initiatives

Julie S. Nugent, Sarah Dinolfo and Katherine Giscombe discuss the use of mentoring and sponsorship programs as successful tools in bridging the gender gap. By examining organizations that have successfully employed mentor and sponsor programs, the authors identify best practices. As the case studies illustrate, effective programs include senior leadership support, genuine alignment with the business plan and company strategy, accountability measures and consistent metrics to record and monitor the program's impact. Sponsors have been established apart from mentors, as sponsors are likely to have more influential positions within the organization, and they have more at stake when advocating for their protégés. As more companies develop these programs, they will be more successful if they connect compensation and advancement to the performance of both the mentor/sponsor and the mentee/protégé, train male leaders to act as mentors/sponsors, and make special efforts in tailoring the program to address the specific challenges facing women of color.

Women's Leadership Programmes are Still Important

Susan Vinnicombe, Lynda L. Moore and Deirdre Anderson examine the issue of why women's leadership programs continue to be controversial. They proceed to build the case for such programs by reviewing the existing research in the area and by reflecting on their own women's leadership program practices in their own schools – Cranfield School of Management in the UK and Simmons School of Management in the USA. The authors conclude by presenting three key learning principles for the design and delivery of women's leadership programs.

The Effect of Race and Migration on the Managerial Advancement of Women

Charmine E.J. Härtel, Nasreen Sultana and Günter F. Härtel discuss the findings of an Australian study of working women and the impact of migrant status and race. The findings highlight the significant role of human resource management, specifically the accessibility of career development programs, strength of network development, establishment of mentoring programs and status of minority training facilities. Specifically, informal networking and mentoring programs facilitated higher career advancement for women. The trends across migrant status and race suggest that the impact of race on career advancement

is dependent on migrant status. Migrant status and race affected career advancement indirectly through barriers, such as communication skills, while facilitators, such as networking, mentoring and training, directly affected career advancement among women. A deeper examination of the barriers and facilitators suggest that organization-centered factors have a more consistent impact on the outcome of women's career advancement.

Factors Supporting Women's Career Advancement: Differences between Male and Female CEOs in the US

Alix Valenti and Stephen V. Horner discuss their research on individual and organizational differences between male and female CEOs. Referencing data from a survey of 33 female and 33 male CEOs of Fortune 1000 companies, the authors suggest that the differences in age, tenure and education levels between males and females were statistically insignificant. The implication of this outcome is that the qualities valued by companies do not waiver between gender, suggesting that the lack of women in leadership positions can be attributed more to organizational differences. As the research suggests, interpersonal linkages and access to high-profile and international assignments have a larger influence on career development. Male-dominated hierarchies can therefore be linked to the differences in social equity, training programs and job assignments between males and females. Increasing the number of female leaders in an organization will help address the gap, improving internal networks and accessibility to women.

Best Practice Case Studies

Lesley Brook and Jacey Graham present best practices for global organizations to address gender issues and leadership. As illustrated by case studies, the authors argue that in order to create a successful intervention, organizations must work to understand and own the specific issues, align gender advancement with business strategy and human resource (HR) functions, integrate change initiatives into corporate culture and policies and enroll talented women to serve as leaders and advocates. In addition, senior leadership must be able to effectively communicate the case for gender equality, understand the invisible challenges, provide resources and hold themselves and others accountable. Gender equality initiatives should be built around both qualitative and quantitative situation analysis, include cross-functional collaboration, customizable career support and established talent management goals.

E-Coaching as a Technique for Developing the Workforce and Entrepreneurs

Carianne M. Hunt and Sandra L. Fielden discuss the increased use of coaching as a targeted intervention to help individuals reach their personal career goals. Coaching is a flexible learning tool, supporting varying needs and learning styles in ever-changing business environments. Males and females can benefit from coaching, as it is customizable and able to address unique challenges. E-coaching has specific benefits, such as cost-efficiency, flexible timeframes, and written a recording for personal reference and progress reporting. The authors have developed the Tailored E-Coaching (TEC) program, which includes one-to-one, long-term, personal and professional development, as well as potential for external networking and group support. The TEC program specifically targets female entrepreneurs, providing individual and collaborative support for women as they face the specific challenges of business development.

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