Introduction

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The position of women in management has been a topic of discussion for the past five decades and the purpose of this book is to take stock of current thinking, practice, ideas and developments, and to consider the future directions in the field of gendered careers in management. In 2000, men had higher tertiary attainment rates than women but by 2011 the situation was reversed (University World News, 2013). University World News (2013) also reports that women are more likely to hold a tertiary qualification than men in most OECD countries (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). Hence one might expect that their position in the management hierarchies would have changed to reflect this. Although women have made substantial strides in middle management posts, and despite long-standing sex equality legislation in the UK, the USA and across Europe, women continue to be under-represented at the higher levels of management. For example, in the USA women represent only 15.9 per cent of board membership of Fortune 500 companies (Mulligan-Ferry et al., 2014) and in the UK women hold only 13.3 per cent of board membership of FTSE 250 companies (Sealy and Vinnicombe, 2013). Although the number of women on UK FTSE 100 boards has almost doubled in the last decade, from 8.6 per cent to 17.3 per cent (Sealy et al., 2008; Sealy and Vinnicombe, 2013), the ratio of women holding executive directorships compared to non-executive directorships has fallen, from 16.8 per cent in 2008 to 9.3 per cent in 2013. This means that, while there are greater numbers of women on boards, they have become less powerful. This evidence also suggests that despite numerous women being in pipeline positions (Sealy and Vinnicombe, 2013) they do not appear to be making it to the boards in sufficient quantities to make a difference.

The industry sector in which women have made the greatest advancement globally is in retail and consumer product companies, with women holding 18.4 per cent of board positions, which is 3.4 per cent higher than the Fortune Global 200 companies (Corporate Women Directors International, 2013). Nearly 80 per cent of the top retail and consumer product companies have at least one woman director, which is 3.5 per cent higher than Fortune Global 200 companies, 6.8 per cent higher than FTSE 250 companies (Sealy and Vinnicombe, 2013) and 20 per cent higher than Fortune 500 companies.
Furthermore, 4.2 per cent of the top retail and consumer product companies have a woman CEO, compared to 3.0 per cent for the FTSE 100, 3.2 per cent for the FTSE 250 and 3.3 per cent for the Fortune 500 (ibid.). Given that women continue to experience occupational segregation, women are over-represented in service sector industries such as retail and under-represented in sectors such as manufacturing and construction (Davidson and Burke, 2011).

BARRIERS TO WOMEN’S ADVANCEMENT

Since the 1970s, research has explored the countless barriers women face in progressing their managerial careers and many of these issues are discussed throughout the chapters in this handbook. The barriers women face can be individual (for example, lack of confidence, assertiveness, ambition and competitiveness) and/or institutional (for example, recruitment processes, networks, organizational cultures) (Broughton and Miller, 2009; Davidson and Burke, 2011). The notion that effective and/or successful management is assumed to be consistent with characteristics traditionally valued in men and reflects organizational male cultural norms and hegemonic masculinity (Schein, 1975, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kerfoot and Knights, 1993; Wajcman, 1996, 1998) is still apparent in the twenty-first century (Collinson and Hearn, 2000; Jackson, 2001; Mavin, 2009; Billing, 2011; Powell, 2012; Berry and Bell, 2012; Neale and White, 2014; Sang et al., 2014), and the established ideas about managerial behaviour and work norms remain (Carli and Eagly, 2011). Others (for example, Acker, 1990; Alvesson and Billing, 2009) have pointed out that many people believe that organizations are gender neutral but what is represented as gender neutral is in fact a masculine perspective and way of working. It is simply that this has become so instilled in cultural norms it is accepted as the norm, thus other behaviours (including those of many women) are seen as deviant or abnormal. Therefore, the established ideas about managerial behaviour and work norms remain (Carli and Eagly, 2011).

Issues of sex stereotyping and the widely shared beliefs about the attributes possessed by women and men and their acceptance in managerial positions continue to be highlighted. Women managers and leaders assert that women continue to be treated less favourably than men (Eagly and Carli, 2007; Powell, 2012). Even when women perform identically to men they are perceived as less competent than their male counterparts (Heilmann, 2001; Prime et al., 2008), and the ideal worker is still regarded as masculine (Benschop and Doorewaard, 2012). Further, women in
senior positions are highly scrutinized in a way that does not apply to men (Ryan and Haslam, 2005; Eagly and Carli, 2007). A recent report showed that 59 per cent of women believed that the culture of their organization is male dominated, while just 42 per cent thought opportunities to advance are fair and equal between men and women in their workplace (Opportunity Now, 2014).

In addition to working in inhospitable organizational cultures and being more harshly evaluated, women continue to face myriad barriers in organizational life today. For example, they are less likely than men to be given challenging high-profile assignments; receive less feedback on their performance; receive less training; have less access to networks and mentors or sponsors; suffer from harassment; have inadequate career opportunities; suffer from gender-based stereotypes; experience tensions between private and work life; have less confidence; and are too self-critical (Oakley, 2000; Wellington et al., 2003; Agars, 2004; Broadbridge, 2008, 2009; Wood, 2009; Catalyst, 2010; Vanderbroek, 2010; Kumra, 2010; Sealy and Singh, 2010; Silva, 2012; Holgersson, 2013). Many women continue to be pigeonholed and segmented into certain types of roles (Bolton and Muzio, 2007), and this can be to their detriment particularly when broad and general management experiences are crucial to getting executive positions (Maineiro, 1994).

Moreover, Barsh and Yee (2012) identified four categories of barriers still persistent for women: structural, lifestyle, institutional mind-sets and individual mind-sets. For example, they found that structural barriers made it harder for women to access the networks of powerful executives and to nurture sponsor relationships. In addition, with regard to lifestyle, while both women and men were found to be primary breadwinners, only the women were also found to be the primary caregivers. Coupled with this, Barsh and Yee found only 3 per cent of managers working part-time, and less than 1 per cent of the senior executives working part-time, which they assert makes it a particularly difficult balance for mothers. Moreover, as successful executives were men and acted like men, institutional mind-sets expected women to also behave like men. They also argued that when leaders pay attention to differences between women and men, their responses are stereotyped and therefore may be limiting for women. They commented that one leader told them: ‘For one opening, we had an employee who was highly qualified – she was running operations in Asia. However, we didn’t ask her if she would be interested in the position, since she was pregnant and we assumed that she wouldn’t want to move’ (p. 7). With regard to individual mind-sets they discovered that some successful women sometimes blamed themselves for being held back, and proposed that they should have developed sponsors earlier.
Broadbridge and Simpson (2011) provided an overview of some of the reflections from the past 25 years of gender in management research, and speculated on the future developments. Their work showed how Kanter (1977) highlighted the problems women faced as ‘token managers’ and how stereotypical attributes were assigned to women by men. They also underscored how various institutional processes and experiences of women and men have worked to ‘close ranks’ against women in organizations. The women’s voice literature recognized gender differences and the need to listen to women’s accounts and experiences, while the feminization of management thesis highlighted women’s strengths and particular contribution to organizations (Fondas, 1997). More recently, there has been a move towards seeing gender as a process or ‘doing’ (Acker, 1992; West and Zimmerman, 2001), which involves the (re)creation, negotiation and maintenance of difference in specific social and institutional contexts.

**APPROACH TO THIS BOOK**

This book provides an international overview of the current perspectives in the field of gendered careers in management, bringing together the foremost scholars in the field. It covers a wide range of pertinent issues that impact on the beginning of gendered managerial careers (Part 1: Getting In) such as education, recruitment and choice; the progress of gendered managerial careers (Part 2: Getting On) such as career phases, succession planning and mentoring; and what comes after gendered managerial careers (Part 3: Getting Out) such as recalibration of career patterns, transition and retirement.

**Part 1: Getting In**

The authors in the first part of the book ‘Getting In’ discuss the issues that can continue to hinder women gaining access to organizations. The section begins with Lori Paris and Diane Decker looking at the issues that women need to understand and manage in order to ‘get in’ to management careers. They focus on the curricula provided by business schools and explore how educators can support women students as they embark on their careers. Internships are the subject of Elaine Swan’s chapter, which explores the inequalities in this first career step. She highlights how these generally unpaid ‘opportunities’ are increasingly being mis-sold as having many career and developmental benefits they do not always deliver, with the best opportunities afforded to those from privileged backgrounds.

Patricia Lewis and Ruth Simpson uncover the notions of ‘choice’ in
women’s careers, arguing that it is not as simple as Hakim (2000) asserts. They present the notion of ‘choice feminism’, which emphasizes individual action and choice, and highlight some of the criticisms of Hakim’s preference theory. For example, they argue that there is a need to locate choice within its particular cultural domain, and explain why it is necessary to fully understand how and why choice frames career understandings and career experiences.

Edeltraud Hanappi-Egger explains how organizations are gendered spaces that establish and reproduce gendered regimes. She examines the role of male-oriented ‘gender scripts’ as a structural framework for organizational practices and shows how they are silently accepted and reproduced, thus serving to undermine career women. These, she argues, can lead to biased recruiting and promotion policies for management positions, which need to be critically examined and changed if change is to occur.

Ulla Hytti also continues the theme of using scripts and emphasizes how gender practices are played out in the context of recruitment. Her research demonstrates how gender plays an important role in recruiters’ evaluations, disclosing how gendering is done in nuanced and subtle ways rather than it being overt.

Madeline Heilman, Francesca Manzi and Susanne Braun use the ‘lack of fit’ model to demonstrate how gender-based expectations result in different interpretations of the same behaviour and how stereotypes are reinforced. They continue to examine how these ‘lack of fit’ perceptions can be alleviated within the selection process.

Mary Barrett’s chapter examines linguistic research into gender and language and she focuses on how meaning is constructed in a conversation and how these can lead to various judgements by interviewers. She re-examines Campbell and Roberts’s (2007) research on interviews, taking a gender perspective.

In the following two chapters, the executive search process (that is, headhunting) is scrutinized. Charlotte Holgersson and Janne Tienari highlight how these people can act as gatekeepers and can help to endorse the position of white men in business. They indicate how executive search processes can serve to reproduce norms and expectations of a specific gendered management ideal. They reveal that the exclusion of women is not owing to the overt discrimination of women but to the active inclusion of a particular type of man. Regine Bendl, Helga Eberherr and Angelika Schmidt’s chapter also discloses that executive search consultants reproduce male dominance in and through their practices. They recommend the introduction of diversity management as an organizational practice in executive management search firms, which should consider areas other than just gender.
Susan Adams’s chapter rounds off this part of the book and her focus is on how to overcome gender-related barriers from a change management perspective. She points to how societal expectations and organizations still cater for men’s way of working, and how difficult it is to activate changes.

**Part 2: Getting On**

The authors in the second part of the book ‘Getting On’ discuss the issues that can continue to hinder women developing their careers. It begins with Kate Huppatz’s chapter, which reviews the dominant theoretical perspectives that have attempted to explain vertical segregation, and in particular she draws on Bourdieu’s triad of concepts (habitus, capital and field) and her own research, and argues that a Bourdieusian analysis allows for a consideration of the ways in which social class complicates vertical segregation.

This is followed by Paul Smith’s chapter looking at women’s own views and beliefs of the barriers to their own career progression. He utilizes the Career Pathways Survey, which examines a diverse range of variables related to the glass ceiling for women at all stages of career advancement.

Mary Shapiro, Susan Hass, Sylvia Maxfield and Vipin Gupta look at the impact of risk-taking on women’s career advancement, exploring the theory that taking fewer risks may indeed be a major cause of ‘glass ceilings’ in career ladders. They propose some best practices from women who have successfully managed risk to the benefit of their careers and their organizations.

Mentoring is consistently recognized as one way in which women can overcome the barriers to success and in the next chapter Jane Fowler looks at some of the main aspects to consider when pursuing, doing and reviewing mentoring. Her chapter also offers practical guidelines for both the mentor and mentee to consider to achieve mentoring goals.

Viki Holton focuses on what helps drive women’s careers and the challenges they face. Support from bosses and being given challenging assignments early on drive their careers. The barriers women can face include combining work and family commitments, lack of career support and feedback, gaining the right experience and support from others, including networking and mentoring.

Adelina Broadbridge looks at UK retail companies and particularly focuses on those women who have succeeded in gaining high positions in their companies (a sector in which women are most likely to progress). This was attributed to self-efficacy, and the acquisition of human and social capital.

Janet Kottke and Mark Agars focus on how career success is defined,
how it is perceived and the role of organizations in facilitating or inhibiting women’s career progression. They discuss how the definition of career success can be varied and unique, but are able to identify the issues that challenge women in maintaining successful careers.

The issue of women and leadership is picked up in the next chapter by Linda Carli, who explores how gender affects opportunities for leadership and the factors that inhibit such opportunities. These include the competing demands of career and family, gender stereotyping and discrimination, gender and leadership styles and the structure and culture of organizations.

Sharon Mavin, Jannine Williams, Patricia Bryans and Nicola Patterson then look at how women have broken through the glass ceiling to achieve senior leadership positions in predominately ‘think manager–think male’ environments. They theorize six emergent themes to support women who want to get on as managers and leaders in organizations.

This is followed by Alison Sheridan, Anne Ross-Smith and Linley Lord’s appraisal of the actions that have been taken by major institutions in Australia to increase women’s access to corporate boards. One of their conclusions is that women should develop specialist knowledge in a particular industry sector to help them achieve board positions.

The issue of global careers is explored by Yehuda Baruch and Cristina Reis who focus on the push-pull model, kaleidoscope and intelligent career models to analyse expatriate women engaging in corporate executive careers. They highlight that women are likely to encounter greater and more complex hurdles than men. They argue that expatriation and repatriation can facilitate future career success but warn that there are also associated risks and that they can also pose threats to career success.

This is followed by Leslie Levin, Mary Mattis, Andrea Tsentides and Jill Choate Beier’s chapter looking at women’s experiences of promotion in US accounting and law firms, focusing on the availability, use and experiences of flexible work arrangements (FWAs). They claim that women’s recruitment, retention and advancement, as well as use of FWAs, have been quite different in law firms than in accounting firms.

Savita Kumra then explores women’s progression in professional service firms (which include law, accounting, banking and consultancy). She gives consideration to a wide range of theories to explain women’s lack of progress, and comments on how little numerical progress has been made for women moving into senior positions in professional service firms.

This part of the book is concluded with a chapter by Silvia De Simone and Vincenza Priola, who focus on women entrepreneurs in Italy and the unique problems that arise from self-employment. They particularly focus on how women manage the demands of their work with those of their family and whether these are seen as opportunities or constraints.
Part 3: Getting Out

The final part of this book ‘Getting Out’ looks at the issues women face when leaving their managerial careers. Yvonne Due Billing examines how women respond to the conditions in their organizations. She argues that organizations still tend to support the notion of the ideal worker but is hopeful that the de-masculinization of leadership and weakening of the traditional norms in management will eventually have an effect.

Then Wendy Marcinkus Murphy and Elizabeth Hamilton Volpe examine the benefits of encore careers in revitalizing working life. Their chapter demonstrates how the ‘golden years’ do not have to be spent in careers that no longer provide the key elements required by long-term managers and look at why people leave management careers in order to pursue careers that are more fulfilling and rewarding, investigating the role of factors such as fun and novelty.

Deirdre Anderson and Susan Vinnicombe look at senior women’s work–life balance and their decision to leave large organizations. Their analysis was by age and whether the women fell into the Baby Boomer generation or Generation X. They found that the search for balance remained significant for all the women.

Helen Woolnough and Jane Redshaw look at how the support offered (social, organizational and family) to managerial and professional women in terms of reconciling their work and home life impacts on their career decisions. In particular, they consider how that support impedes women’s ability to return to full-time employment.

Adelina Broadbridge and Agneta Moulettes explore what retirement means to contemporary women about to, or having recently, retired. They were able to deduce that not everyone approaches retirement in the same way, especially before they retire. They conclude that attitudes to retirement are not a straightforward process and, for some, can be lengthy and complex.

In the last chapter and taking a resource-based perspective, Rachel August examines women’s post-retirement needs, well-being and adjustments. She identifies that adjustment may not mean the same things to all people and may be a somewhat relative concept by nature. She concludes by arguing that retirement is neither a discrete event nor static moment in women’s lives.

And finally, we are grateful to all the authors for their contributions to this book. They responded to the reviewers’ comments promptly and professionally, and this contributed to our enjoyment of putting the book together and it has been a pleasure working with them.
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