

Introduction – an overview of the book

Ronald J. Burke and Debra A. Major

Part I of this book sets the stage for this collection. In Chapter 1, Ronald Burke and Debra Major begin by positioning the chapters that follow. Talented women continue to have difficulty advancing their careers worldwide. Organizations are gendered; they were created by men for men. Women feel uncomfortable in them, are disadvantaged, and face barriers to advancement. They argue that examining men, masculinity, and gendered organizations adds to our understanding of why women have made so little progress over the past two decades, how men can be allies in changing organizations, and that there are benefits to men, women, families, and organizations if more men get on board. Male privilege has yielded both benefits and costs. Men with daughters and men seeing the value of using the best talent available to achieve business results, are more likely to 'get it'. Other factors such as having had a working mother, more working partners, women now earning more than their partners, more women in professional schools, more women in the workplace, and more men interested in fatherhood also play a role. Potential benefits to men, women, families, and workplaces are likely to occur when men become allies instead of observers or adversaries.

The second part of the book considers the downside of masculinity. Ronald Levant and Thomas Rankin review in Chapter 2 the literature on the gender role socialization of boys into men. Gender roles are psychologically and socially constructed and they have both advantages and disadvantages. Men thus score higher on variables associated with men and masculinity. Building on the gender role strain paradigm, violating gender roles results in negative consequences, particularly for men, and some of the prescribed masculine gender role traits are dysfunctional (e.g., restricted emotions). Through social interactions associated with rewards and punishments, boys and men behave in line with male norms by exhibiting masculine behaviors. Boys and men come to believe that they should behave in these ways. The gender role strain paradigm, however, is associated with three types of strains: discrepancy, dysfunction, and trauma. The authors go on to show how gender role

socialization particularly emphasizes emotional restrictions for boys and men.

In Chapter 3, David Collinson and Jeff Hearn take a critical look at the gendered dynamics of leadership. Men and specific masculinities predominate and are validated in senior management jobs, while women's identities are excluded. All forms of leadership approaches contain dominant masculinity/ies. Men are also in 'control' at home, reinforcing their control at work. Yet men and masculinity/ies are ignored in almost all leadership writing. They begin by reviewing key writings on men and masculinities before examining the gendered dynamics of leadership. They consider gender and leadership, gender and power, role of 'subordinates' in reinforcing gendered power relationships, changing masculinities (e.g., heroic to post-heroic), and why horizontal leadership dynamics are likely to be more effective than hierarchical power leadership dynamics.

Mark Maier considers in Chapter 4 the question of why men should work to change a system that seems to benefit them. He begins by describing 'corporate masculinity'. Corporate masculinity places a high value on the work role, hierarchical relations, competition, control, striving for power, and men's dominance over women. Corporate masculinity limits life possibilities and leadership performance as well as reducing ethical decision-making in organizations and organizational performance. He then contrasts the dominant leadership paradigm based on corporate masculinity with the newly emerging servant-leadership paradigm, a more feminist approach to leadership. Vivid examples of masculine managerial dysfunction are highlighted, including the NASA *Challenger* and *Columbia* disasters, the 2008 financial crisis, and the 2011 *Deepwater Horizon*/BP Macondo Well oil spill. He makes the case for leadership from a feminine perspective, servant-leadership being a useful prototype. He offers two personal reflection exercises that examine corporate masculinity and why it may have limitations.

Jobs are sex-typed but more men and women are moving into gender-atypical ones, with more women moving into men's jobs than men moving into women's jobs. There seemed to be few advantages of men moving into women's jobs, other than the possibility of their more rapid promotion. What are men's experiences in women's jobs? In Chapter 5, Ruth Simpson considers the experiences of men performing 'caring' roles. In these roles, performing 'feminine' services such as emotional labor can collide with views of masculinity. Men are then in a double bind: if they exhibit masculinity their caring skills may fall short; if they exhibit femininity their masculinity is questioned. She examines how male nurses and primary school teachers manage in these gender-atypical roles. She found that male nurses and primary school teachers drew 'emotional labor' into

the masculine domain. The chapter draws on literature on men working in non-traditional occupations as well as some findings from Ruth Simpson's own research to 'explore how men in these contexts "re-gender" emotional labor by drawing it into the masculine domain as well as how they draw on and activate sameness (e.g., to higher-status men) and difference (e.g., from women) to manage tensions between gender and their "feminine" occupation'.

In Chapter 6, Ronald Burke examines men, masculinity, well-being, and health. Although men have always been 'privileged', the rise of feminism in the 1960s and 1970s has raised, for many men, questions about their roles. Men are now having more difficulties fulfilling the provider role and masculine behavior is increasingly becoming an issue in both the workplace and in families. Traditional masculinity has become an unreachable goal for most men. Men must avoid anything feminine, be strong, powerful and competitive, show no emotion, and take risks. But there are also real costs to men's masculinity: costs include physical health problems, life dissatisfaction, and feelings of falling short. It is hard to satisfy most definitions of masculinity today. Burke focuses specifically on coronary-prone behavior, work addiction, the effects of long work hours, and career success and person failure as important costs of masculinity. He concludes with suggestions for ways that men and organizations might change to benefit men, women, families, and organizations.

In Chapter 7, Shahnaz Aziz and Benjamin Uhrich examine causes and consequences of workaholism. Men generally spend more hours at work than women; men make heavier work investments than women, reflecting their presence at higher organizational levels. Workaholism is a progressive and compulsive disorder. It has both positive (that is, is rewarded) and negative connotations. Most researchers today see workaholism negatively. They begin by reviewing definitions of workaholism, concluding that workaholism is an addiction. Personal and environmental factors both contribute to the development of workaholism. The former include personality traits (Type A behavior, perfectionism, obsessive-compulsive traits) and the latter include family and organizational factors (coming from a dysfunctional family, and job characteristics such as time pressure). The authors then examine consequences of workaholism such as less life satisfaction, more ill health and burnout, negative effects on others, and negative effects on workplace performance. Both men and women who score higher on workaholism also report more negative consequences. It is difficult to conclude that men are more likely to be workaholic than women since so few studies have examined this. One would expect men to score higher on workaholism, however, since they score higher on some of the antecedents (e.g., Type A behavior) and heavy work investments.

Part III examines the ways that organizations are gendered and the advantages this gives to men. Sarah Rutherford in Chapter 8, using her own observations, consulting experiences, research, and the work of others, shows how most organizational cultures build on the interests of men and marginalize/exclude women. Organizational cultures are gendered and masculinized. Masculinity is taken for granted, thus remains invisible and unable to be confronted. Practices and structures that seem to be gender neutral aren't. She considers the following aspects of gendered organizational cultures: buildings and artifacts, gender awareness, the meaning of work, the separation of the private and the public, management style, time management and the long work hours culture, informal socializing, and sexuality. Cultures are dynamic processes that can be changed. But change is always uncomfortable and certainly means that men will have to give up some of their power. Although progress has been slow and mixed, more men are now supporting women, becoming allies in the quest for more effective organizations and fairness.

Suzette Caleo and Madeline Heilman examine in Chapter 9 the role of gender stereotypes as barriers to women in traditionally male managerial and executive jobs. These jobs 'require' characteristics consistent with stereotypes of men but not women. They first illustrate how stereotypes can be both descriptive (negative expectations of women) and prescriptive (how women should behave). Descriptive stereotypes (men are agentic, women are communal) have negative consequences for women working in male-typed contexts. These stereotyped expectations play a stronger role in ambiguous contexts, with much ambiguity existing in many organizational situations. Prescriptive stereotypes, focusing on ways women should behave, result in women being 'punished' for exhibiting stereotypically male behaviors. Women are 'punished' for pursuing male-typed careers, self-promotion, negotiating on their own behalf, communicating and influencing like men, being assertive, and merely being successful in male-typed jobs. These stereotypes, and negative outcomes (punishments) cause women to limit the expression of these behaviors. The authors conclude with suggestions for limiting these negative effects.

In Chapter 10, Elisabeth Kelan believes that business schools are a key place to alter the male domination of business. She advocates a focus on the practices in business schools that support gender inequalities. Masculinity pervades business schools; not surprisingly, business schools reflect the world of business. She addresses the question of how we can begin speaking about masculine practices in business schools. She reviews writing on women and men in business schools and how discussion of gender is silenced. She then offers interview data from business students that highlight masculinity practices (e.g., individualism, competition). She

concludes with suggestions on how doing and undoing masculinity can be carried out.

In Chapter 11, Corinne Moss-Racusin first outlines how hyper-masculinity stereotypes spell out men's acceptable behavior. She notes that pressures to conform to masculine stereotypes can harm organizations and suggests that removing penalties for men who perform counter to expectations can have positive results. She begins by examining the effects of men's conforming to the hyper-masculine stereotypes on their health, relationships, aggressive behavior, and egalitarianism. Gender stereotypes spell out how people should behave as well as how they should not behave. She then reviews research findings on negative reactions to both women and men who violate gender stereotypes. Men should not behave in 'feminine' ways, should be 'winners', show no weaknesses, and fit in with male peers by conforming to masculine stereotypes. Yet she convincingly shows that fulfilling masculine stereotypes has costs such as engaging in risky health behaviors. Men face a 'catch-22' backlash for violating harmful masculine stereotypes, for supporting and mentoring women, and for expressing gender-egalitarian beliefs.

Valerie Streets and Hannah-Hanh Nguyen in Chapter 12 consider impacts of 'stereotype threat' in women's experiences and performance in work and career. Stereotype threat occurs when a common negative stereotype exists against a group, the stereotype indicating behaviors and attitudes characteristic of the group. For women, stereotype threat represents an obstacle to entering the workforce, choosing an occupation or career, and advancing in their career. Stereotype threat effects on women are influenced by their awareness of the stereotypes, their identification with the stereotype, and their levels of empowerment. They examine the effects of stereotype threat when a challenging task is at odds with female gender stereotypes, when women are aware of their low status in a stereotypical career, and when the environment reinforces female gender stereotypes. They offer intervention tactics to address stereotype threat in the chapter.

In Chapter 13, Susan Schick Case and Bonnie Richley examine perceptions of women post-doctoral bench scientists working within the science environments of 14 major US research institutions, and how both individual and institutional experiences impact their desired futures. Findings reveal three distinct career paths (research, teaching, and industry). Of significance is the shared ambition to contribute to the field of science based on traditional notions of success regardless of career choice, with none giving up being a scientist in some form. Findings provide insight into individual career decision processes, involving how gender is experienced in male-centric cultures, how experiences of barriers are reframed, and how hurdles and barriers impact their path as contributing scientists

and human beings. These women emphasized a strong desire to develop as scientists, to collaborate with others, a relational aspect missing in their environments, and to have a life as well as a career. Findings suggest an environment laden with gender and family biases, contributing to difficulties in being a woman with multi-arenas of responsibility as a scientist. Bias experienced included subtle discrimination, challenges working in a male-dominated culture, and a negative impact of the environment on their lives. A strong correlation between experiences of gender and family biases, including struggles and barriers to women with families or for those hoping to have children, suggests additional burdens placed on women's career paths and their evolving identity. The post-doctoral stage is a unique transition zone marked by a period of psychological squeezing and internal sense-making, suggesting an environment laden with institutional gender bias and forced family struggles, juxtaposed by feelings of powerlessness and vulnerability. It involves a process of adaption and selection as they experience their environment, make sense of their experience, and decide how best to achieve success and fulfillment. The relational identities of many of the participants found them making contributions to science by expanding norms of achievement, including guiding and developing future generations of scientists.

In Chapter 14, Ronald Burke considers backlash against women's progress at three levels: individual, organizational, and societal. Women get 'attacked' by some men for championing women's issues. Women who violate stereotypes and stereotyped expectations get punished in subtle and not so subtle ways. Why should talented women in the workplace face double binds and a need to monitor their agency? In addition, gendered organizations make it more difficult for women to get line jobs necessary for advancement, international experience required for visibility and promotion, and access to high-level male sponsors, while being more likely offered jobs classified as 'glass cliffs'. Finally men's groups have emerged in some countries in response to women's advancement linked to the rise in feminism in the 1960s and 1970s. Some of these men's groups were a reaction to women's progress and increasing challenges that men were facing and still are facing. Some men believed that women were increasingly being advantaged while men were increasingly being disadvantaged (e.g., affirmative action, women being given child custody following divorce). They longed for a return to the 'good old days'. Interest in such groups has waned in the past decade. Another men's movement has emerged, increasing in strength but still small, and advocating for equality of women, the reduction of violence against women, a stronger commitment to engaged fatherhood, and a better quality of life for men. Finally, there are some societies in which men hate women. Men who

shoot a young girl in the head because she wanted to go to school reflect this.

Part IV outlines the benefits to men, women, families, and workplaces when men become allies and offers examples of where this is taking place. In Chapter 15, Michael Litano, Dante Myers, and Debra Major focus on ways men and women can be allies in achieving work–family balance. This becomes increasingly important as more dual-earner couples become the norm. For men and women to become allies here their ways of managing work–family conflict must be aligned. They argue that men and women need to use coping strategies that foster each other’s well-being. They begin by examining work–family conflict and work–family facilitation, the building blocks of work–family balance. They then examine ways that men and women can be allies or adversaries depending on crossover effects from work-to-family, family-to-work enrichment and from partners to each other. Conflict results from negative crossover while facilitation follows from positive crossover. They suggest that men and women can become allies here by engaging in work–family coping strategies that support positive crossover. They describe various effective ways of coping that support work–family facilitation and balance.

In Chapter 16, Jeanine Prime, Mike Otterman, and Elizabeth Salib make the case that organizations in the twenty-first century need to use the full pool of available talent. Since men are typically in positions of power and influence they need to spearhead efforts to attract, retain, and advance qualified women. But men are too frequently overlooked. They begin by reviewing challenges women face in business organizations. They then suggest ways of engaging men in creating more equal workplaces: tackling outdated notions about leadership, addressing male barriers to more inclusive leadership (e.g., punishment for power sharing), a lack of awareness of gender issues, apathy, and fear. They use a case study of Rockwell Automation to show how one organization successfully overcame male barriers and engaged men in efforts to address gender gaps, concluding with ‘lessons learned’.

In Chapter 17, Michael Flood examines the importance of involving men in efforts to end violence against women. Men’s violence against women reflects men’s power over women and widespread gender inequalities. Men’s violence against women takes several forms. In addition, most women who experience violence in their family and relationships are working, as are most men who commit violence against women. The author documents the widespread occurrence of violence against women. Three broad clusters of factors ‘cause’ men’s violence against women: gender roles and relations, social norms and practices, and limited resources and support. Violence in the workplace limits productivity and

fosters inequalities. Workplaces can also be critical sites for prevention of workplace violence. He lists benefits to organizations in preventing or reducing men's violence against women, and offers actions to respond to and prevent violence in terms of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. He also describes some organizational efforts to involve men in workplace-based violence prevention.