

# **Women in Leadership: Comparing Issues in a Developed Versus a Developing Economy**

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Master of Business (International Business)

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## Abstract

The topic of 'women in leadership roles' has received considerable attention in the past two decades from many researchers e.g. Eagly and Carly (2003) and Northouse (2013) who have promoted the idea of 'the female leadership advantage'. Northouse, (2013) dedicated an entire chapter in his book 'Leadership Theory and Practice' to female leadership, describing the strong and growing interest of researchers in the topic of women in leadership in recent times. In order to understand the topic better, this dissertation draws on a range of definitions of leadership and management as it is important to clearly signal that these are contested terms which are often used interchangeably, as evidenced in this dissertation (Hearn, 2014). Context often determines the meaning of such terms (Collinson & Tourish, 2015). All of the above stated terms however, denote power, authority and influence. Research on women in leadership roles includes the study of the barriers women face in leadership positions. Elmuti, Jia, and Davis (2009) suggest that issues such as common situational barriers, personal barriers, and stereotyping and leadership styles are a few among the many existing barriers faced by organizational women leaders. However, the 2015 Catalyst and the 2015 Center of American Progress reports stated that there is almost double the percentage of women leaders in a developed country such as the US compared with a developing country such as India, suggesting that there may be greater barriers in the developing world.

This is the study of issues in leadership faced by women in leadership roles in developed economies, as compared to issues faced by women in developing economies, which are traditionally male dominated. There is little research available on the comparison of issues faced by women business leaders in two different economies, namely, developed and developing, making this dissertation and the related research of particular value. Such a comparison will help in addressing the issues in a developing country such as India. This study examines the issues for women leaders in business, in developed country markets like the US where much of the research in this area has been concentrated, compared with large emerging markets like India.

Research in the past has targeted issues faced by women in business with the aim of discriminating gender inequalities and/or empowering women in the field of business leadership. The objective of this research is to develop an understanding of the similarities and differences between leadership issues faced by women in the two different types of

economies (the US and India). Particular emphasis is placed on identifying and examining research that has been carried out on leadership styles in developing countries. The research aims to identify existing barriers as well as develop an understanding of the cultural, social, political and organisational factors which present issues for women aspiring to leadership positions within organisations.

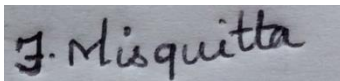
The purpose is to aid learning that could inform the practice of leadership by women in a developing country like India. The study summarizes and reviews theory on women as leaders and through comparison, contributes both to gender studies in organisational theory in developing country contexts and to organisational practice in such contexts.

The methods involve a qualitative study using desk research to draw on existing data and empirical research as a basis for comparing the status of women leaders in organisations in India with those in the US.

## Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed:

A photograph of a handwritten signature in black ink on a light-colored surface. The signature is written in a cursive style and reads "F. Misquitta".

Fiorella M Misquitta.

## Acknowledgements

There are no proper words to convey my deep gratitude and respect for my dissertation and research supervisor, Associate Professor Coral Ingley. She has inspired me to become an independent researcher and helped me realize the power of critical reasoning. She also generously gave her time to offer me valuable comments toward developing my work.

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I cannot forget Jude Lyndon D'souza, Nitin Kumar, Weylin Remedios, Tinu Odeleye and all my other friends, who went with me through hard times together, cheered me on, helped me get through this demanding period in the most positive way and celebrated each accomplishment.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Women in Leadership

The New Oxford American Dictionary (n.d.) defines a leader as “The person who leads or commands a group, organization, or country”. Traditionally, the world has referred to a leader as a *man* who leads a specific group of people or an organisation. Women, contrastingly have been leading organisations in traditional contexts but usually on a smaller scale than men. For example, the 2014 Grant Thornton Report estimated that not more than 2 percent of senior managers in mid-market business globally were women. In addition, Catalyst (2015) records women as holding just 7.7 percent of board seats in the Indian economy, whereas the Center for American Progress (2015) reported that in the United States (US) women hold 19 percent of board seats. This is more than double the number in India. This vast disproportion between the two countries may be linked with issues that women business leaders face in India, and is the focus of this research. To help understand this disproportion between the issues faced by women leaders the following research question needs to be answered:

**“What are the barriers for women leaders in organisations, in an emerging country market like India, compared with barriers challenging women in developed countries such as the US?”**

Research in the past has been conducted to study the issues faced by women leaders in their respective country’s economies; hence, very little data is available for the comparison between issues faced by women in the different economies, namely the US and India. This study attempts to compare the issues faced by women leaders in the US and India in the field of management and entrepreneurship, by use of a qualitative study using desk research to draw on existing data and empirical research.

While the focus of this study is on women in leadership it draws substantially from the gender diversity literature. It is acknowledged that in this literature the word gender is used interchangeably with male – men and female – women. The meaning attached to

gender is socially constructed and contextual and that ‘gender’ refers to qualities or characteristics that society ascribes to each sex i.e. male and female. In this study the state of being male or female is typically used with reference to social and cultural difference rather than biological differences. As defined by The World Health Organization (n.d.),

gender is the result of socially constructed ideas about the behavior, actions, and roles a particular sex performs.

## **1.2 Studies of Women Business Leaders in the US**

Chemers (1997) stated that until the 1990s researchers were relatively uninterested in businesses led by women. Times have changed since such views were held about women in leadership roles. Researchers like Shirley Ross, an industrial psychologist of the Hagberg Consulting Group in Foster City, California, have conducted studies of women's leadership qualities, and are now interested in examining the role of women as leaders in organisations. The study performed by Ross (Business Week, 2000) suggested that male executives sometimes scored higher in critical areas such as strategic ability and technical analysis. However, overall, female executives were judged by their peers, underlings, and bosses to be more effective than their male counterparts, proving to be better leaders because of their abilities, which range from producing high-quality work to goal-setting and mentoring employees — some of the key attributes of women as business leaders, which are said to be better suited to leadership than those attributes typically ascribed to men (Business Week, 2000). The Hagberg Consulting Group study was reviewed by Sharpe (2000), who concurred that to attain organisational goals and 'run the show', organisations need to hire more women leaders. This is because their motivation towards team-building and attaining organisational goals is greater than attaining personal growth, which helps them in concentrating on achieving organisational goals. In their (2003) article, 'The female leadership advantage: an evaluation of the evidence', Eagly and Carli described the advantages and disadvantages of female leaders in organisations. The purpose of their review of research in the leadership literature was to argue that organisations can progress towards social change and modernity by appointing women as leaders.

Although theoretically many business organisations around the globe advocate and support women as leaders, this perspective is not shared or practiced by all, even in developed countries. For example, Pam Postema (2003) revealed that she was not considered for the role of an umpire in the US National League 1998 (baseball) series. Bob Knepper, pitcher at the time for the Houston Astros, was vocal in his opposition, stating at a press conference that:

*I just don't think a woman should be an umpire. It has nothing to do with her ability. I don't think women should be in any leadership position. I don't think they should be presidents or politicians. I think women were created not in an inferior position, but in a role of submission to men* (Postema & Wojciechowski 2003, p.225).

The above statement by Knepper (Postema & Wojciechowski 2003, p.225) highlights the fact that women leaders in developed countries also face issues of resistance, although the above comment was made almost 20 years ago. However, it may provide a benchmark against which women leaders in developing countries can be compared with regard to progress in overcoming such issues. The research in this dissertation attempts to study and compare the issues faced by women leaders in both developed and developing economies, such as the US and India, and also to identify progress in addressing the issues faced by women leaders in that context.

A study by Elmuti, Jia, and Davis (2009) investigated public views on the role of women as organisational leaders in the US. A total of 700 entities were randomly selected from among industries across the US, with a response rate of 57 percent (400 entities). Of respondents to the questionnaire, 193 were females, 204 were males and three were individuals who did not disclose their gender. The investigation found that 50 percent of the women perceived there were barriers that prevented them from entering into leading management roles. The study also found that women aspired to be leaders; however, gender-based discrimination, family-life demands and stereotyping deterred or prevented them from achieving their aspirations in many cases. The same study reported that 65 percent of women and 66 percent of men were of the view that training and education would help women to be more prepared for business leadership roles. The study by Elmuti et al. (2009) drew four implications: (1) women in the US do not see themselves as well-enough prepared to be organisational leaders; (2) sufficient training will resolve the issues; (3) gender discrimination stands to be an ongoing issue, as two out of three issues stated in the study related to gender discrimination; and (4) women can't aspire to be leaders as they face the issue of taking time out from organisational activities to spend time with their families.

Furthermore, a national study in 2013, entitled 'Benchmarking Women's Leadership in the United States' conducted by Lennon (Chairperson of Law and society at the Colorado Women's College, US: Denver), found that, based on the progress of women leaders in 14 sectors (including business) in the US, women were outperforming men as

leaders but were not earning salaries or titles that reflected their high performance. This indicates that although women are accepted as leaders, they are not seen as equal to men by many organisations in the US. The study also revealed that certain women leaders in the US opt for senior management positions and refuse board seats as a preference to protect their personal life; but this may not be the case for women in developing countries such as India, as they may not have such choices compared to women in the US.

### **1.3 Studies of Women Business Leaders in India**

Sharma (2014) examined the challenges and opportunities that women leaders face as entrepreneurs while running their own companies. He focused on women in India, in particular, the expectations Indian society has of women and the challenges faced by ambitious Indian business women in overcoming social stereotyping and traditional role expectations. Sharma differentiated between society's expectations of women in urban and rural regions. He identified the various challenges an Indian woman has to face in that country in breaking the traditional portrait of a woman as a home maker if she is to have a business of her own, where she can be respected by the employees, both men and women. Sharma described the transformation of the traditional Indian woman from being primarily concerned with building a family, to being a modern woman who can now not only build a family but also start a business from scratch and lead it towards a being a successful organisation.

Appelbaum, Shapiro, Didus, Luongo and Paz (2013) investigated the different gender leadership styles in for-profit organisations around the globe. Their findings suggested that the most effective leadership style is transformational leadership, which is generally associated with the characteristics considered to be more typical of women. The study by Appelbaum et al. (2013) provides a general understanding for studying the different leadership styles of men and women and helps in understanding the issues women face in each of the economies i.e. developed and developing countries. Such studies may help women adopt certain leadership styles used by men to help reduce the existing issues, as well as help policy-makers regulate policies in educating women about the various leadership styles they could possibly adopt while leading an organisation.

## **1.4 Scope of the Study**

The topic of ‘women in leadership’ is vast and includes several sub-topics such as women in business leadership, women in sport leadership, women as political leaders and several more topics. This study focuses on women in business leadership in the areas of business management and entrepreneurship in the developed economy of the US and the developing economy of India. The study is focused on the aspects relating to women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs as this area helps best in answering the above stated research question which involves comparing the barriers faced by women business leaders in the US and India. The findings of the study could help women business leaders and also policy makers help in addressing the issues faced by women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs, not only in the US and India but also around the world.

## **1.5 Structure of the Dissertation**

The remainder of the dissertation is structured as follows:

- *Chapter 2: Methodology*

The methodology applied to this qualitative research was interpretive, involving desk research as described in Chapter 2. Secondary data was collected from recently available research. The chapter also includes a brief outline of the data collection and sampling methods used, along with data management, data analysis and a reflective stance.

- *Chapter 3: Literature Review*

The literature review involves a review and critical analysis of the available literature on the topics of women business leaders as managers and entrepreneurs in the developed economy of the US and the developing economy of India by key researchers in the field of women leadership such as Claes (1999), Rindova Barry and Ketchen (2009), and Lennon (2013). The chapter focuses on literature concerning the various issues faced by women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs in the US and India.

- *Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion*

The findings from this study are discussed in this chapter. Derived from the findings is a comparison between the issues faced by women leaders - as managers and entrepreneurs, in the US and India, which was the initial aim of this study. The chapter highlights the relationship between issues such as dual responsibilities and time constraints faced by women business leaders in the US and India.

- *Chapter 5: Conclusion*

This chapter summarises the study, drawing conclusions and implications from the findings discussed in Chapter 4. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and suggests directions for further research.

## **Chapter 2: Methodology**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the research methodology and methods used to gather and analyse the data for this dissertation. This research topic involves a qualitative study using desk research to draw on existing data and empirical research as a basis for comparing the status of women leaders in organisations in the US with those in the developing country of India. The use of desk research was found to be most appropriate for this dissertation, as recent data is widely available on the barriers faced by women business leaders in the individual economies of the US and India. This research aims to compare the barriers faced by women business leaders in the two economies.

The research aims to identify existing barriers as well as develop an understanding of the cultural, social, political and organisational factors that raise issues relating to women aspiring to occupy leadership positions within organisations

### **2.2 Data Collection and Sampling**

Research by past researchers was gathered and considered as data for this dissertation. The research conducted by Postema and Wojciechowski (2003), Elmuti et al. (2009), Lennon (2013) and KPMG (2015) provided a basis for examining issues faced by women in the US. The research by Eagly and Carli (2003), Appelbaum et al. (2013) and Sharma (2014) provided a basis for examining issues women face in leadership roles in organisations in developing countries like India. These key sources were extended to include research papers by Blau and Lawrence (2006), who measured the US gender pay gap in the 1990s; and Brash and Yee (2012), who researched the unlocking of the full potential of women in the work force. These and various other similar studies conducted on women in leadership in the US and India, were gathered and analysed.

The internet was a major tool for data collection to aid this research. In order to obtain the data available, peer reviewed, published journal articles, research papers and monographs published on the topic of women in business leadership were considered as potential data for this research. The AUT University library databases, such as Business

Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Complete, and Google Scholar were used to collect relevant academic journal articles and published research.

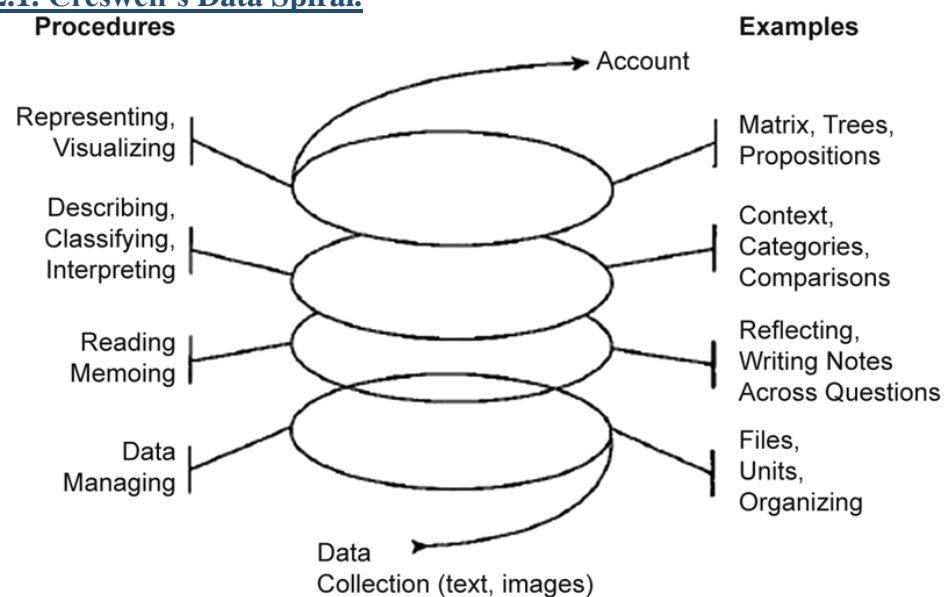
Key words such as ‘women business leadership’, ‘women leaders in the US work force’, ‘women business leaders in India’, ‘barriers faced by women managers in the US’, ‘barriers faced by the women managers in India’, ‘barriers faced by women entrepreneurs in the US’, and ‘barriers faced by women entrepreneurs in India’, were typed into the databases to search for and identify the relevant literature.

While searching the data, literature in the form of journal articles, peer reviewed articles and monographs was found which dated back to the 1970s; however, only relevant seminal concepts like transformational leadership, introduced by James MacGregor Burns in 1978 were retained. Most data considered for this research are in the form of recently published literature dating back furthest to three decades.

## **2.3 Data Management**

Secondary data was also gathered and analysed from existing published research, official reports and statistics from government sources, NGOs and censuses, as well as relevant organisational documentation such as company annual reports and websites. Data analysis in this study is descriptive and was conducted according to Creswell’s (2007) data spiral illustrated below:

**Diagram 2.1. Creswell’s Data Spiral.**



**Source:** Creswell (2007)



According to Creswell (2007), the data spiral includes:

- Data managing: The first step of data analysis, as shown in the above diagram involved maintaining and managing the collected data systematically. Creswell (2007), in his data spiral, recommended the use of files and tables to manage data. This was made possible with the use of Microsoft Excel spreadsheets to list and code data into two major categories: (1) issues faced by women managers and (2) issues faced by women entrepreneurs. A part of the Microsoft spreadsheet categorising the issues faced by women business leaders is illustrated in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 in the literature review (Chapter 3) of this dissertation. Each category was divided accordingly to issues faced in the US and in India, so as to compare the issues women leaders face as managers and entrepreneurs in those countries.
- Reading and memoing: The categorised data was read and reflected on in the second step. Memo writing, or writing notes (Creswell 2007), involved the use of small stick-on notes in step three, which were placed in between the pages of the categorised data to help navigate back and forth to the important points while reading the literature.
- Describing, classifying and interpreting: In the fourth step the data were coded in the following manner:
  1. 'Important' – suggesting that the particular data is vital. A series of data was termed as 'important' because it consisted of up-to-date prevailing issues, for example, lack of self-efficacy – which is not widely researched and yet continues to be faced by women business leaders in the US and India.
  2. 'Old-20' – indicating that the data is more than 20 years old and may be relevant but needs to be checked for up-dates,
  3. 'Old-10' – suggesting that the data is between 10 and 20 years old and similarly needs to be checked of up-dates,
  4. 'New' – suggesting that the data is less than 10 years old and therefore likely to be relatively up-to-date.

The data were coded to reduce them into meaningful segments for interpretation. All kinds of relevant textual data were coded, including memos and field notes.

- Visualising and representing: The data were then visualised and represented in the form of tables in the literature review and in the discussion section in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4.

## **2.4 Data Analysis**

Based on the research question re-stated below, the following guiding questions from the literature were addressed to analyse the data and answer the central research question.

### **2.4.1 Research Question:**

**“What are the barriers for women leaders in organisations in an emerging country market like India, compared with barriers challenging women leaders in organisations in developed countries such as the US?”**

While much of the literature relates to organisations, generically, this study focuses primarily on women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs in businesses, but does not specifically exclude other organizational types. In this study the term “organisations” refers primarily but not exclusively to women leaders in business.

### **2.4.2 Guiding questions:**

As the available data on the topic of women in business leadership is vast, guiding questions were used in deriving the key themes from the data. The key themes in this study were represented in the guiding questions. The guiding questions emerged from the initial reading of the data and aided in addressing the research question. Following are the guiding questions used to aid in answering the main research question:

1. What are the socio-cultural and political beliefs, attitudes and practices regarding women leaders in India compared with the US?
2. What are the main barriers for women leaders in organisations in emerging country markets such as India, compared with developed country markets such as the US?
3. What motivates a woman to lead? Is it the school, university, family or society? And how does this differ between developed country markets such as the US and emerging country markets such as India?

4. What measures are taken in developed country organisations to address gender inequality in business/organisational leadership, which could be adopted in India?

### **2.5 Reflective Stance**

As a citizen of India and an international student at Auckland University of Technology, having the same cultural background as the women business leaders from India has aided me in understanding the particular personal, social, cultural and organisational issues they face, and in turn has aided this study. This cultural understanding enables me to relate to the socio-cultural mores and traditions of India that impact on women leaders in business. Therefore, my interpretation of the data gathered for this study has been guided and influenced by my cultural background.

## Chapter 3: Literature Review

### 3.1 Introduction

This section reviews and critiques the literature on the issues faced by women in two different types of leadership roles; one, as business managers, and two, as entrepreneurs in the US and India. The purpose is to compare the issues that women business leaders face in the two economies. The concept of management provides a useful basis for examining these issues, as research on ‘women in leadership’ includes the study of women in organisational leadership positions – the position of a manager being one such position. In addition, a manager is considered to be an organisational leader who leads a group of employees in an organisation towards achieving common organisational goals (Paine, 1994).

This section begins with a brief introduction of management and its principles leading towards an understanding of the gender imbalance in management in the past and the present. This discussion provides a starting point for considering the issues women face in business management in a developed economy, i.e. the US, and in India, which is a developing economy. The chapter then defines ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘entrepreneur’ as concepts agreed upon by prominent researchers. Next discussed is women’s progress in the field of entrepreneurship and the issues women face as entrepreneurs.

The purpose of a study on women’s entrepreneurship, together with women in management, is in identifying the breadth of barriers women leaders face in the business context, for the cross-country comparison. These two categories of business can encompass all types of ownership structure, including public-listed, private, and family businesses, as well as public sector and not-for-profit entities.

This chapter aims to understand the leadership styles generally associated with women leaders in management positions. The chapter focuses on issues women leaders face as managers and as entrepreneurs in each of the economies (developed and developing). The comparison between the issues faced by women business leaders in the US and Indian corporate worlds is drawn in the ‘Findings and Discussion’ chapter of this study.

## **3.2 Women Leaders as Managers**

### **3.2.1 Leadership and Management**

Leadership, as defined by Jacobs and Jaques (1990, cited in Yukl, 1994, p .3) is "a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose." Hollander (1978, p.1) explained that "Leadership is a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers." The above two definitions present leadership as a *process* in which a leader leads a group of people/subordinates towards achieving particular goals.

Scholars from various disciplines define management in several ways (Murugan, 2008). Agarwal (1982, p. 36-55) noted various definitions of management by popular authors and researchers. Agrawal (1982, p. 38-55) cited Terry (1947, p.191), author of *Principles of Management*, who defined management as "a distinct process consisting of planning, organizing, actuating and controlling; utilizing in each both science and art, and followed in order to accomplish pre-determined objectives". Yet another prevailing definition of management explains that, 'to manage is to forecast and to plan, to organise, to command, to coordinate and to control'. This definition was offered by Henry Fayol (1949, p.43), a French mining engineer who developed a general theory of business administration that is often called 'Fayolism' and who is widely acknowledged as a founder of modern management methods. The above two definitions by Terry (1947, p. 191) and Fayol (1949, p.43) highlight the functional and process aspects of management. Another definition by Mary Parker Follet (Murugan, 2008), simply states that "management is the art of getting things done through other people". The definitions by Follet (Murugan, 2008) highlight the behavioral aspects of management. There are many more definitions of management by scholars around the globe. Bureaucrats consider management to be a *system* of authority, whereas sociologists see managers as a class of *elites* in society and management who are looked upon as a resource like capital, labour, land, or an organisation, by economists. Regardless of its various definitions, management is a goal-oriented process, which aims at achieving organisational goals. As stated above, leadership, like management, is also a process where a leader leads his/her group towards achieving a particular goal. Hence, a manager can, in this sense, be considered as a leader of a group of employees in an organisation.

There is a body of literature which considers leadership and management to differ in important ways (e.g. Bolman & Deal, 2003; Bush, 2007). Studies also show the need for leadership practices in management (Weathersby, 1999). Weathersby (1999) stated that due to high employee turnover during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, managers needed to change their style of management by including leadership skills in their management process, where persuading is needed instead of commanding subordinates.

### **3.2.2 Gender Balance in Management**

Management, like other business activities, was considered to be a ‘man’s’ job by business organisations. Typifying business as a ‘no woman’s land’ urged women to believe that the modern corporation was modelled on military structures and functioned according to the precepts of male team sports. This implied that in order to master corporate culture women had to both indoctrinate themselves with the military mindset and study the underlying dynamics of confrontational games such as football. Harragan (1977) expressed the view that in the 1970s, women managers were expected to conduct themselves as men if they wanted to climb the corporate ladder. However, Claes (1999) suggested that in recent times, women are considered more welcome in an organisation’s management team because of the feminine leadership values they bring with them.

Studies are reaching the conclusion that gender balance in management teams and boards appears to make financial sense (International Labor Organization, 2015). A study in 2015 by the International Labor Organization (ILO) agrees that promoting the growth in numbers of women managers and executives in business organisations is considered the right and smart thing to do for both financial and moral reasons in today’s modern business world.

### **3.2.3 Women’s Acceptance into Management**

In the past few decades, women have become more accepted as part of an organisation’s management team because of the values they are said to bring into an organisation. These values, which include intuition, communication and social aptitude, are regarded as already naturally forming part of their management style and life in

general (Claes, 1999). The ILO (2015) study underscores women's presence in the labour market as increasingly significant for economic growth and development at both national and enterprise levels. Women leaders are managing more businesses than in the past, and the power of consumer-spending decisions is increasingly in their hands (ILO, 2015).

The feminine leadership style of managing is known to be socially-inclined, in which crucial and personal attention is given to subordinates and to maintaining a good working environment. In contrast to the feminine style of leadership, the masculine management style is often labelled as instrumental and instruction-giving. In the leadership literature there are several recently introduced leadership styles e.g. authentic leadership, servant leadership as well as transformational leadership. Appelbaum, Shapiro, Didus, Luongo and Paz (2013) investigated different gender leadership styles in for-profit organisations around the globe. Their findings suggest that the most effective leadership style is transformational leadership – which is generally associated with characteristics considered to be more typical of women. Transformational leadership was first adopted by politicians in the US after it was introduced by James MacGregor Burns in 1978. This is a leadership style which suggests that leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation (Bass, 1985). The transformational leadership style was further developed by researchers such as Bass (1985), who explained the underlying psychological mechanisms, stating that transformational leaders act as inspirational role models, motivate others to go beyond the confines of their job descriptions, develop the skills of followers, and foster good human relationships.

While women leaders have greatly increased their share as managers over the last few decades, all data sources and analyses report a continuing dearth of women in top decision-making positions, at senior management levels, as CEOs and board members (ILO, 2015). Issues faced by women aspiring to, or holding these positions are discussed next.

#### **3.2.4 Issues Women Face as Leaders in Management**

According to the Global Gender Gap Report of 2014, in nine years of measurement, the world has seen only a small improvement in equality for women in the workplace. The survey conducted by the ILO in 2015 found that despite tremendous efforts recorded by companies globally, women acquire less than five percent of the top

management and CEO positions. The latest Grant Thornton International Business Report (2016) reported that although the percentage of women managers has increased from 22 percent in 2015 to 24 percent in 2016, almost one-third of organisations around the globe have not included women managers in leadership positions. This approximates to 33 percent of the total organisations around the globe. This cannot shake the fact that while women have achieved success in gaining management roles in their organisations, they face various issues that hinder their progress in achieving leadership.

### **3.2.5 The Global Glass Ceiling Effect**

One of the major issues faced by women leaders in organisations around the world is the ‘Glass Ceiling’ effect. Bryant, as cited by Wallace (2009), originally used the term glass ceiling in 1984, defining it as an unseen upper limit in organisations, above which it is challenging or unachievable for women to rise in the organizational ranks. The ‘Glass ceiling’ is a metaphor for the invisible, informal barricades that keep women from receiving promotions, pay raises and further leadership opportunities. Ryan and Haslam (2005) stated that, besides the ‘glass ceiling’, women in leadership positions may have to face metaphors like ‘glass elevators’ and ‘glass cliffs’, which refer to their being under greater scrutiny and criticism. There are some ‘walls’, for example personal, societally-related, organisational walls against which women continue to fight in attempting to strengthen their presence in the higher levels of management within organizations. The glass-ceiling effect is perpetrated by ongoing issues of gender differentiation and gender stereotyping.

Discussed below are some of the major prevailing issues women managers face as leaders in the US and Indian economies, which help retain the glass-ceiling effect and other major barriers women leaders face as managers in achieving success.

### **3.2.6 Issues Women Leaders Face as Managers in the US:**

The Business News Daily (2014) reported that the US is among the bottom 10 countries around the globe to employ women managers, occupying merely 22 percent of senior roles. McKinsey (2012) reported in a study that the top circles of corporate US



remain stubbornly male; only 14 percent of women serve as leaders on executive committees. This points to the fact that although the US is one of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, and a developed economy, women still face issues in climbing the corporate ladder. Some of the major issues faced by women in leadership and management positions are listed below.

□ Role stereotyping:

Duehr and Bono (2006) in their study examined gender and management stereotypes of male and female managers and students. The study included research about business leadership in the form of management, and gender stereotypes in the modern world, as compared to those that existed in the 1970s and 1980s. The study revealed that a significant change has been observed in male managers' views of women over the past three decades, as evinced by a greater correlation between their perceptions of women as prosperous managers and stronger authorisation of the agentic and task-oriented leadership characteristics for women. However, among their sample, although there was wide-ranging agreement on the characteristics of managers, there was less agreement about the characteristics of women. The study revealed that male managers in the US rate women as more leader-like than they did 15 or 30 years ago. However, male students today hold gender stereotypes similar to those of male manager's decades ago, who considered women to hold fewer traits of successful leaders as managers.

□ Gender wage gap:

A study by Blau and Khan (2006) (affirmed by Goldin in 2014) concluded that the gender wage gap has narrowed over the past decade, but only slightly. In agreement with these findings, studies by Hegewisch, Williams, and Henderson (2011) brought to light that a statistically median, full-time working woman earned 60 percent of the median full-time working man's earnings in 1960 and 77 percent of what he earned in 2009. An argument put forward by Huffman (2012) states that gender wage gaps will remain prominent as women move into management and positions of power, if gendered norms underlying organisations are not extraordinarily changed. Gender wage gaps may narrow substantially only when women leaders are better represented in high-status management positions (Cohen

and Huffman, 2007). The salience of categorical distinctions such as gender, and the ability for actors to use effectively these distinctions to make wage claims, will vary across organisations (Avent-Holt & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2012). For example, a study by Tomaskovic-Devey (2014) showed that manufacturing plants where women were not in management had larger gender wage gaps than those where women leaders had better management opportunities, longer job tenures, and more education. Many researchers have studied the gender wage gap among men and women, and have explored the idea that gender wage gaps may be linked to race, ethnicity and citizenship (Antecol 2001; Browne & Misra 2003; Greenman & Xie 2008; Lopez 2012; Marini 1989; McCall 2001).

□ Social/cultural issues:

The US is among the top developed nations in the world, yet women in the US continue also to face such issues while trying to achieve business leadership. A study conducted by Ipsos (2015), on behalf of KPMG, surveyed 3,014 US women (2,410 professional working women and 604 college women) between the ages of 18 and 64, expecting to gain knowledge about how these women were socialised towards leadership while growing up. The study found that 86 percent of women recalled being taught to be nice to others while growing up with their families; and less than 44 percent were encouraged to be good leaders. The study by KPMG also affirmed that just over three-quarters (76 percent) of women in the US today wish they had acquired more leadership knowledge and had more leadership opportunities while growing up. The study found further that most women were hesitant about taking a leadership role. More than 56 percent of all the surveyed working women reported that, being a woman, they were more guarded about taking steps toward leadership roles.

□ Networking:

Business networking is a socioeconomic business activity by which people in the labour force and entrepreneurs meet to form business relationships and recognise, create or act upon business opportunities, share information and seek potential partners for ventures. The duties of work and family life often leave women little or no time for networking (Eagly & Carli, 2007). However, the issue of networking dates

back to the 1980s and has been seen as a barrier to women in the corporate world ever since. Kozmetsky (1989), in her book entitled 'Women in Business', reported that women managers found it difficult to relate to management issues with male managers, mainly because of the difference in leadership styles, therefore male mentors were unable to comprehend a woman manager's frustrations relating to work. This caused a need to network with other women in similar work positions, for sharing their views and stories. Networking stands to be one of the major, ongoing issues for women leaders as managers in the US. The study by KPMG (2015) recorded that two out of three survey respondents believed that networking helped in confidence-building and encouraged leadership roles among women. However, as stated below (regarding uncooperative colleagues), men form a homo-social environment and feel interrupted by the presence of a woman leader.

Corresponding to the above-mentioned issues faced by women managers in the US, Caprino (2013) stated that these women leaders face six core issues as managers:

1. The differences between men and women are neither fully understood nor valued: The author simply states that men and women are different in every form – neurobiologically, socially, and in their cultural training. Hence, there may be a difference in their leadership styles compared to the dominant culture of leadership styles followed by traditional male leaders. Often the leadership styles followed by women are tagged as 'wrong' by organisations in the US (Caprino, 2013).
2. Whole-self authenticity is a must-have for many women, yet it is still impossible in many corporate environments: In a lecture presented by Caprino (2013), which included male and female corporate leaders, women leaders agreed to the idea of authenticity, full-transparency and portraying who they really are; but male leaders opposed that view.
3. Life, family and work priorities clash fiercely: This claim is supported by the works of Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (2009), where they stated that in addition to the roles they held in their companies, women remained the primary caretakers for their families. As the time constraints and work pressure became more important while attempting to climb the corporate ladder, many women faced a difficult dilemma in choosing between family and career. Welch and Welch (2007) stated that very few women executives had children due to the affect it would have on their career. On the contrary, Baxter (2000) and Wallace (2008) argued that many women voluntarily left

their jobs for family reasons. While a decreasing number of women were taking pregnancy or childcare leave, 32 percent of women still left their jobs once they had children (Elmuti et al., 2009). Also, once a woman had children she was much more reluctant to travel and work long hours due to her duties towards her family, further obstructing the likelihood of promotion (Hewlett, 2002).

4. Extreme work demands can burn women out: Caprino (2013) believes that “women are not less ambitious than men”. However, she also states that today’s modern hyper-competitive business world demands a 24/7 work environment. This may prove harsh for women (and men) who want to prioritise a life outside of work.
5. Marginalising of women is more common than we want to admit: Caprino (2013) adds to her study by stating that even today, women – even if the world does not admit it – are being sidelined, diminished and suppressed. Further, they are looked down upon in an organisation if they prioritise their families over their job. Also, Warner (2014) stated that longstanding assumptions about the so-called ‘ideal worker’ exist, who is all work, all the time, with no competing demands on the home front. Such assumptions have relegated employees with obvious caregiving responsibilities towards children, elderly and ageing parents, and other dependants — disproportionately women — to second-class status.
6. Personal accountability needs to be expanded: Caprino (2013) argues against the perception that the way women hold themselves back from leadership is the fault of the way women perceive leadership qualities. The author contends that the traditional model of leadership characteristics and methods needs to be revalued and reinforced but it may be a complex problem. However, the author states that the traditional woman is dependent in nature, hence a high level of mentoring and encouragement needs to be utilised in order to enable the woman manager to step up to what has to be done, and help women leaders to increase their personal accountability factor in being a leader.

The above are some major issues that women leaders face as managers in the US. Women leaders in India not only face very similar, but also other, issues in an organisation as a manager. Below are a few pertinent issues such women managers face.

### 3.2.7 Issues Women Leaders Face as Managers in India:

History states that India is a male dominated society. The entry of women into the Indian business sector has been extremely recent, and the growth of women business managers has been very slow. The Grant Thornton International Business Report (2016) records India as being one of the bottom 10 countries in the world to employ women managers, with 16 percent of women managers spread over business organisations in the Indian economy. A study, carried out by Kaila in 2007 about women in management roles in India, conducted 140 interviews with women managers across 81 Indian organisations to study the problems women face in management positions. This study emphasised the stories of women and the issues these women believe they faced in an organisation. Three main issues were faced by women leaders, as managers in India, namely: personal, social and organizational issues.

#### A. Personal issues faced by women in management in India

The personal issues faced by women are identified under four headings:

- ☐ Low self-efficacy
- ☐ Dual responsibilities
- ☐ Time constraints, and
- ☐ Night shifts

Each is discussed in turn.

#### Low self-efficacy:

Lunenburg (2011) describes self-efficacy as a person's belief that she is capable of performing a particular task successfully. Self-efficacy has three facets: magnitude – the level of task difficulty a person believes she can attain; strength – the perception regarding magnitude as being strong or weak; and generality – the degree to which the expectation is generalised across situations. Self-efficacy can be considered as one's sense of capability. It provides the foundation for human motivation. Bandura (1982) affirmed that self-efficacy effects learning and performance in three ways:

1. The goal that one chooses for herself: Managers with low self-efficacy may not set high goals as they may not believe they are capable of achieving them.
2. Learning as well as the effort that people exert on the job: Managers with low self-efficacy may exert little or no effort when learning and performing complex tasks, because they may not be sure that the effort will lead to success.
3. The persistence with which people attempt new and difficult tasks: Managers with high self-efficacy are confident that they can perform a new and difficult task, whereas, those with low self-efficacy may not be confident enough that they can perform a difficult task and are also likely to give up on the task and their team when problems start to surface.

Valiante (2004) deemed efficacy to contribute heavily towards occupational preferences. Bandura (1997) and Flammer (1990) established that individuals who possess great self-efficacy beliefs correspondingly reported strong feelings of overall well-being and high self-esteem. To sum it up, a woman manager's sense of self-efficacy can affect her perception, motivation and her performance. With the Indian economy being a male dominated one, most women employees face an extremely low self-efficacy. A study conducted by Janjhua, Chaudhary and Chauhan (2014) on employees' self-efficacy belief and role stress in India, using a simple random sampling method, found that male employees had a high level of self-efficacy belief in comparison with female employees. Findings from this same study concluded that the effect of gender on mean difference in level of self-efficacy belief was significant. This could be attributed to the reality that, due to social norms, family restrictions, household responsibilities and inter-role conflicts, females may have lower expectations than males for success. The build-up of low self-esteem limits women in climbing the corporate ladder. Hence, it is difficult for a woman to perform as confidently as a man in an economy dominated and run by men leaders.

#### Dual responsibilities (family over career):

The Indian woman has enjoyed a paradoxical status for centuries. Budhwar (2001) states that, although women in India have been given immense respect, women working away from their home have been looked down upon. The essence of female subjugation digs deep into ancient times, where the male was in charge of food-gathering or breadwinning, and the role of a woman was to restrict herself to domestic chores and

the care of children. This is mainly because in traditional India women are expected to be homemakers instead of being involved in businesses and the economy at large. The primary duty of a woman in India, even in today's modern world, is considered to be nurturing her children and her family, whereas, a man still bears the title of 'provider'. This puts working women in a state of dual-responsibility.

One of the major responsibilities faced by women, not only in India but also around the globe, is their duties towards children after childbirth. Motherhood duties in India, with little or no help from her male partner, and as expected by society, place a large burden on the shoulders of a working woman, and even more on the shoulders of a woman business manager who has to bear greater business responsibilities in top management positions as well as the responsibilities for her home and family. A study by McMillen (2011) recorded that women were 40 percent more stressed than men under parallel work pressure when their family life was interrupted by obligations from their workplace. A woman manager in India is expected to be a dynamic corporate employee by day, to fulfil her career ambitions, and be a mother and homemaker at the end of the day, so as to complete her responsibilities as a homemaker. What makes it worse is that most individuals, including women themselves, agree that is the way it should be (The Independent, 2005). Moreover, many women in the Indian economy quit their jobs after childbirth as they believe that their first duty is towards their newborn child and overlook or even give up on their career goals. A survey recorded by Arya (2013), of 1,000 women working in the Indian capital, Delhi, and its neighbouring areas, found that only 18–34 percent of married women continued working after having a child. This is because although the Indian government provides maternity benefits to a working mother, many Indian companies and organisations fail to abide by it. Leading businesswoman, Anu Aga, as interviewed by Arya (2013), explained that even women who have family support or can afford to pay for child care have a lot of guilt. This is because of the social conditioning of women that their responsibility is to bring up children. Also, there is a tendency to give greater importance to a man's job than a woman's job in India. So companies are not willing to make special allowances to integrate women after they take a break on becoming mothers. Motherhood, although a blessing, can be responsible for women giving up the ambition of climbing the corporate ladder.

### Time constraints:

Time constraints are one of the gravest personal issues a woman may face in top management. One of the major reasons for a woman manager facing time constraints is due to her dual responsibilities as discussed above. Kaila (2007) states, in her study, that the time crisis is one of the major issues faced by women in management in India, especially women in top management. The time crisis has both a positive and a negative outcome for women. An interviewee from the research conducted by Kaila (2007) stated that the time constraints helped her become immune to stress due to the continuous pressure she felt while trying to get her job done in the time provided. However, the time crisis affected the same interviewee negatively, as it put a lot of work pressure on her, which led her to completing her tasks without spending the appropriate time on conducting adequate research about the given task, leading to a sub-optimal result. Time crises also led most interviewees in Kaila's (2007) study to make a difficult decision in choosing to spend time either on family duties or work responsibilities, often pushing the women managers to compromise on either one or both.

### Night shift:

Apart from the above three major personal problems, women managers face another personal issue which involves 'shift work', which may constitute being required to work at night or during weekends, and also at odd times of the day. A study conducted by the Associated Chambers of Commerce & Industry of India (ASSOCHAM) (n.d.) discussed the issue of night shifts, often faced by women who work in call centres, and reported that their major concern related to insecurities about commuting and working during night hours. Also, working night shifts are a big setback to a person's health as it disrupts one's biological clock leading to headaches, inconsistent sleeping habits and ultimately fatigue. These effects are seen not only in women but also in men. Women working night shifts, in most parts of India, are looked down upon because women are expected to be home indoors after a certain time in the evening.

### B. Social Issues faced by women in Indian management sector are:

- ☐ Culture/Society
- ☐ Gender domination



- Role stereotyping
- Uncooperative colleagues, subordinates

Each is discussed in turn.

#### Culture/Society:

Natarajan (2001) restated the words of a great Indian writer, Manu from 200BC, who said, “Be a young girl, be a young woman, or even be an aged one, nothing must be done independently, even in her house”. Such philosophy and others similar prevail in the Indian culture even today. Culture has great influence on an individual’s mind-set and realisations about contributing to a society in a particular manner. In India, a man is educated from infancy, and is expected, to provide for his family when he becomes an adult; whereas the girl-child is nurtured and influenced by the traditional Indian family to play the role of a homemaker in her adult life. In addition, a woman in the workforce may or may not receive any external help from her family or her partner in her duties as a caregiver. This makes it all the more difficult for women to fulfil a dual responsibility. However, women have been stepping into the corporate sector in the last few decades. This change is mainly due to the change in thought processes of parents and an increased acceptance of girl-child education by society.

Furthermore, with western human resource (HR) practices and concepts such as gender diversity in leadership roles, Indian women, in theory, are provided with opportunities for entering into the business management sector. Nevertheless, the rate at which this change is taking place is yet to gather speed. Hence, culture and society play an important role in either encouraging or discouraging women to join the work force.

#### Gender domination:

Historically, in India, families often did not provide educational opportunities to the girl-child, as she was expected to learn the duties of a caregiver and not that of a provider, whereas a man was trained and nurtured from childhood to be the provider of the family. The Indian business sector, like an Indian family, is dominated by men. Women have been able to climb up to a certain height on the corporate ladder but find it very difficult to get above that level. However, in recent years, the girl-child has been

provided with opportunities to be educated and to step into the workforce – not eliminating her duties as a caregiver. Although there has been considerable progress in women's choice to enter into the labour market, cultural and social opinions still prevail about women's choices of jobs. The Centre for Social Research (2009) reported that women in India were more concentrated in traditional 'feminine professions' like nursing, teaching and lower-level management; and that men, in today's modern world, still dominated the top levels of management in India. CSR (2009) also revealed that in the few studies conducted in the area of business management, job segregation prevailed which caused women to lag far behind men. According to Koshal, Koshal and Gupta (2006), two women in 100 economically active individuals have administrative and managerial positions in India. The Confederation of Indian Industry (2005) released a report entitled "Understanding the Levels of Empowerment of Women in the Workplace in India" covering 149 large and medium-size companies across various regions of the country. The study highlighted that women comprised 16 percent at junior management level and 4 percent each at middle and senior levels. Maliye (2011) stated that work relationships between men and women flowed from the source of power within the general hierarchy in organisations, more specifically, from male power which is attained by the majority of men irrespective of their position in the general organisational hierarchy. This power comprises domination, control and co-ordination, which manifests in the form of paternalism, dependency relationships and coercion (sexual and non-sexual). Many women (75 percent), regardless of their position in the grading, felt that men tended to boast of their superiority no matter what position they may hold. Patriarchal power relations are interwoven into the very fabric of bureaucratic hierarchy and authority relations. Germain Greer is also quoted in the British Daily Telegraph (2016) as saying that women won't save the world and won't be better leaders than men because they have to play by the same rules – as it is outlined at the beginning of this dissertation.

### Role stereotyping:

Eagly (1987) explained gender stereotyping as widespread beliefs about the characteristics and qualities ascribed to men and women in society. Commonly, men are considered to be aggressive, risk-takers, decisive and autonomous, all being agentic attributes, whereas women are considered to be kind, caring, relational and humble, being communal attributes. Heilman (1983) explained that opinions and potentials concerning the qualities of men and women often dictate the type of jobs that are considered suitable

for them, leading to a situation in which the requisite characteristics for some jobs are defined in terms of gender, such as “men’s work” or “women’s work”. Khandelwal (2002) conducted a study based on a sample of 230 respondents. His study suggested that male managers were stereotyped as working in the fields of production, sales and marketing; were considered good bosses, leaders and decision makers; and carried out “hard” field work and challenging assignments. Conversely, female managers were stereotyped as working primarily in supporting fields such as human resources (HR), as personal representatives (PR), in administration at subordinate or junior levels, and in “soft” fields like fashion, clothing and beauty product-related organisations. In 2002, Marlow suggested that gender stereotyping was based on abilities believed to be essential to succeed in business, women commonly being seen as inferior to men. Stetz and Ford (2010) exclaimed that, although increasing participation of women in diverse organisational roles was observed, women were poorly represented in leadership positions due to gender stereotyping.

#### Uncooperative colleagues, subordinates:

Job segregation does not end with the domination of men in the business sector. Kaila (2007) in her study interviewed women managers who were reported to have had less or no cooperation from their subordinates. This led to stressful situations and eventual delay in projects. On many occasions, the interviewees reported having to request their subordinates to get the job done. On the other hand, male supervisors exercised control over the women managers and their subordinates. This led to work pressure from both ends – supervisors and subordinates alike.

Maliye (2011) affirmed similar responses from the interviewees in her study. Moreover, Maliye’s study (2011) also highlighted the fact that most of the uncooperative subordinates were men, as they were uncomfortable working under a woman boss or manager. This study recorded that many male managers preferred women as their subordinates but not as their managers or as their boss.

Furthermore, Maliye (2011) explained that lack of cooperation might also exist between colleagues in an organisation, especially between men and women. Maliye (2011) reported that her interviewees, both men and women, recognised that men often felt disruption in the smooth-running homo-social environment when women colleagues were appointed. In addition, men preferred to take credit for success and blamed the

downfall of a project on their women colleagues with an excuse that women managers lacked efficiency. Although Maliye (2011) found the above findings in her study, she also found that some women preferred to work under men supervisors instead of women supervisors as they deemed men to be more confident than their female counterparts. This posed another issue for female managers.

### C. Organisational Issues faced by women managers in India

- ☐ Clashes with superiors
- ☐ Relocation

Each issue is discussed in turn.

#### Clashes with superiors:

From a study they conducted using detailed interviews, Buhdwar, Saini and Bhatnagar (2005), suggested that women managers in India have to deal with the male ego, usually that of their superiors, which is viewed as a serious barrier to women moving up the managerial ladder. Kaila (2007), in her study on Indian women in management, reported an interviewee having issues with her superior whereby her boss bullied her to get her team to solve a certain problem. When the solution was not forthcoming, the boss criticised the manager and her entire team in the organisation. The same interviewee believed that the issue occurred as she was a woman and may have followed a different leadership style compared to the male style that she would commonly be expected to follow.

#### Relocation:

Other issues that Indian women face in management relate to relocation, where the employee with certain skills is asked to move to a new location to support another branch of the organisation. This may be a difficult choice for Indian women to make, especially married women, who have to care for their families. Relocations would not be in their best interest.

In a different scenario, if the husband has to relocate for his job, his wife is unequivocally expected to quit her current job and join her husband. Post-marriage, it is almost inevitable that a woman must try to get a transfer to work in her husband's city; if that is not possible, she would have to quit and find a new job there.

As indicated earlier, this dissertation aims at developing an understanding the issues faced by women leaders both as managers – as set out above - and entrepreneurs., The issues faced by entrepreneurial women leaders are set out below.

### **3.3 Women Leaders as Entrepreneurs**

#### **3.3.1 Defining Entrepreneurship**

Shane and Venkataraman (2000) suggest that the phenomenon of entrepreneurship has lacked a conceptual structure, noting that numerous attempts have been made by scholars to define entrepreneurship in various ways. Lumpkin and Dess (1996), define entrepreneurship as:

*the manifest ability and willingness of individuals, on their own, in teams, within and outside existing organisations to perceive and create new economic opportunities (new products, new production methods, new organizational schemes and new product-market combinations), and to introduce their ideas in the market, in the face of uncertainty and other obstacles, by making decisions on location, form and the use of resources and institutions (cited in Wennekers and Thurik, 1999, p. 46)*

Entrepreneurship according to Onuoha (2007) is the practice of starting new organizations or revitalizing mature organizations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities. Definitions of entrepreneurship often lead to describing the term entrepreneur, which is derived from the French verb ‘entreprendre’. A recent popular definition of an entrepreneur is stated by Papulova and Papula (2015, p. 515), who define an entrepreneur as “the creator and main enactor of business ideas, and also honoured with the utmost hopes of the expansion and future of the business”. Starting new organisations or revitalising mature organisations has been carried out in the past by the family providers – men – because entrepreneurship is considered to carry great responsibilities which, by implication, are not a capability of women. However, in recent times the acceleration of economic growth has required an increased supply of women entrepreneurs (Shah, 2012).

#### **3.3.2 Women as Leaders in Entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurs are by nature business leaders. Women become independent and take on positions of leadership as they step into the shoes of an entrepreneur. According

to Rindova, Barry and Ketchen (2009), entrepreneurship allows women a sense of security and providing for their families, even if only through the operation of small enterprises.

Moore and Buttner (1997) and Moore (2010) noted that women have taken a step further into the economy by gaining the knowledge they need from the business management sector and in the last few decades they have also ventured into entrepreneurship as successfully as the men who dominate the business world. The style in which women lead has been regarded as a major cause of the success of many businesses run by women leaders (entrepreneurs). Eagly and Carli (2003) suggested that women in entrepreneurship apply a democratic style of leadership as compared to men. By using interactive skills, women give importance to maintaining active work relationships. They value cooperation and being responsible to others: practices which serve to further organisational goals by integrating people into the group as respected individuals. This conclusion has been affirmed repeatedly (Moore and Buttner, 1997; Eagly et al., 2003). Furthermore, the success of business organisations led by women has been achieved as a result of the leadership barriers women have overcome. This has resulted from women's experience of practising collaborative and interactive job behaviours as a way of moderating the effects of gender biases, stereotypical negative behaviours (Ely, 1995), and hostile work climates (Kossek et al., 2003). Successful leadership by women in these organisations has also elevated them from being highly visible but isolated, often marginalised and denied access to power (Sealy & Singh 2010), as well as lacking role models and supportive relationships in organisations (Ely, 1994; Liff & Ward, 2001). It has been argued that although the leadership potential of women is exceptional, this potential is hidden by various constraints (Nelasco (2008)) described below.

### **3.3.3 Issues Women Leaders Face as Entrepreneurs**

As stated above, the expectations set by society as a whole have prevented women from entering into the business world, let alone becoming entrepreneurs. However, in recent times, as stated by Caputo and Dolinsky (1998) and affirmed by Afrin (1999) and Coleman (2004), women have been welcomed into the business world as entrepreneurs and continue to play an essential role not only in the growth and development of society

but also in the economy. The welcoming of women into the field of business entrepreneurship has been a substantial improvement for ambitious women, yet certain of barriers they have faced remain the same.

#### **3.3.4 Issues Faced by Women Leaders as Entrepreneurs in the US:**

According to the 2012 US Census, women owned 36 percent of the total businesses in the US. This was a major jump from 30 percent in 2007. Emily B. Spencer, founder of Premier Medical Corporation in the US, explained that:

*To be a successful entrepreneur your business has to be profitable, but to really make an impact you must make a difference in someone's life. This is the advantage that women have in the business world – we are not afraid to combine the two.* (cited in Lennon, 2013, p. 55)

A report by Cantwell (2014), for the US Senate Committee on small business and entrepreneurship, highlighted that women-owned enterprises are the fastest growing business segment in the US; nevertheless, women entrepreneurs in this developed economy face the glass ceiling and have to deal with prevailing barriers that their male counterparts do not face. Cantwell (2014) lists the following as predominant barriers women of the 21st century face as entrepreneurs:

□ **Fair access to capital:**

Fair access to capital continues to be an issue for women entrepreneurs. The report by Cantwell (2014) provides evidence that for obtaining conventional small business loans, women account for only 4.4 percent of the total dollar value of loans from all sources. Simply put, just one US dollar of every USD23 in conventional small business loans goes to a woman-owned business. Also, women account for only 16 percent of conventional small business loans and 17 percent of Small Business Administration (SBA) loans even though they represent 30 percent of all small companies in the US; further, women receive only 7 percent of venture capital funds – and the percentage of female venture capitalists has actually declined from previous years. A study by Lennon (2013) provides evidence that although small businesses run by both men and women face



difficulties in the US economy, those led by men have much greater access to capital, which is a vital factor in a competitive market. Lennon (2013) also reported that in the US in 2011 women entrepreneurs received 11 percent of the capital investment and comprised 20 percent of the top entrepreneurs, in contrast to their male counterparts who received 89 percent of capital investments and comprised 80 percent of the top entrepreneurs. The study by Cantwell (2014) leads one to believe that lower funding of capital for women entrepreneurs may present a negative picture to women entrepreneurs of the future and this in turn may obstruct their success as entrepreneurs.

□ Equal access to government contracts:

The Women-Owned Small Business (WOSB) Procurement Program 2000 was established by the US Congress in an effort to escalate government opportunities for women at a time when the highest achievement to date at that time was only 2.47 percent. According to Cantwell (2014), the WOSB program is the only major small business contracting initiative where sole source authority is absent. This has reinforced the continued inability of the Program to meet the government-wide goal of awarding 5 percent of government contract dollars to women-owned small businesses. This means that women business owners, as of year 2013, failed to gain the minimum USD4 billion in the form of government contracts awarded annually to women-owned businesses (Lennon, 2013).

□ Getting relevant business training and counselling:

The Women's Business Centre (WBC) Program in the US, established in 1988, was originally a demonstration pilot program enacted as a part of the broader Women's Business Ownership Act of 1988 (P.L. 100-533) to provide financial, management, and marketing assistance to women entrepreneurs. After many years, the US Congress, under the same Act, established the Office of Women's Business Ownership within the Small Business Administration with responsibility for the administration of the program, reauthorising the demonstration projects through the fiscal year of 1997 under the Small Business Administration Reauthorization and Amendments Act of 1994 (P.L. 103-403).

Cantwell (2014) records that the WBC program helps provide business training and counselling annually to approximately 134,000 female entrepreneurs and aspiring entrepreneurs. However, it remains the only authorised business counselling program legislatively purposed to serve socially and economically disadvantaged women. Also, according to both Cantwell (2014) and Lennon (2013), the WBC program is extensively overdue for transformation to decrease red tape and maximize its resources to help more women step up and grow into entrepreneurs. Operating on laws written over 15 years ago, it has been deprived of any updates.

□ Insufficient mentoring:

Carmin (1988) states that mentoring is an interactive process occurring between individuals of differing levels of experience and expertise that incorporates interpersonal or psychosocial development, career, and/or educational development, and socialization functions into their relationship. Parsloe (2009) affirms that mentoring supports and inspires individuals to accomplish their knowledge, resulting in making the most of their potential by developing skills, refining their performance, and becoming the person they want to be. According to Kickel and Gundry (2006), women entrepreneurs are supported by their mentors with decision-making and problem-solving, but mainly the latter. Laukhuf and Malone (2015) sought to explain the importance of mentoring in their study through the use of a qualitative phenomenological methodology which examined the experiences of women entrepreneurs. In their findings, Laukhuf and Malone (2015) stated that mentored women business owners reported greater career satisfaction and better organisational socialisation.

As stated previously in this dissertation, the issue of insufficient mentoring for women business leaders has remained since the late 1990s (Kozmetsky, 1989). Kozmetsky (1989) attributed this to a possibility that male mentors may not understand women's personal frustrations. In the US today almost half (48 percent) of all women entrepreneurs agree that they need mentoring and guidance to be accepted as leadership-ready, and that it is very sparsely available (Calhoun, 2015).

□ Existing myths regarding women entrepreneurs:

Apart from the above-mentioned major barriers of unfair access to capital, unequal access to government contracts, lack of access to relevant business training, and insufficient mentoring, other minor and less obvious issues exist in the form of myths, which obstruct women entrepreneurs from proving themselves to be good leaders. Lennon (2013) in her study stated that one of the issues women entrepreneurs face is the thinking that women favour lifestyle businesses that allow them to balance work and family, or use entrepreneurship only to supplement household income, although research has found otherwise. For example, Carter et al. (2007), found that in the US approximately 110,000 women-established and women-led firms achieved more than \$1 million in sales, and almost 8,500 women-owned firms employed more than 100 people, generating average revenues of \$66 million. Lennon (2013) reported that more than 3,000 US women applied to participate in Springboard Enterprises in 2008, a program connecting women-led businesses with equity financiers.

### **3.3.5 Issues Faced by Women Leaders as Entrepreneurs in India:**

The role of modern women in Indian society may no longer be restricted to the traditional duties of a mother and house wife: it has undergone, and is undergoing, changes. A woman today is encouraged to attain education, allowing her to think of herself as an independent individual, giving her the right to become aware of her individual identity and potential, and making her capable of making her own decisions. Nevertheless, it is a common assumption that the majority of women in India are economically non-productive as they are not involved in activities that are financially remunerative (Sharma, 2014).

Sharma (2014) examined the challenges and opportunities women leaders face as entrepreneurs while running their own companies. He focused on women in rural India – in particular, the expectations Indian society has of women and the challenges in overcoming social stereotyping, as well as traditional role expectations faced by ambitious Indian business women. Sharma differentiated between society's expectations of women in urban and rural regions of India. He identified the various challenges a rural

Indian woman faces in breaking the traditional picture of a woman as a homemaker if she is to have a business of her own, with the respect of employees – men and women alike. Sharma described the transformation of the traditional Indian woman from being primarily concerned with building a family to being a modern woman who can now not only build a family but start a business from scratch and lead it towards a being a successful organisation. Sharma's (2014) study sheds light on some of the many issues women face as entrepreneurs in India, such as:

□ Access to finance:

Sharma (2014) believes that accessing credit, in particular for starting an enterprise, is one of the major constraints faced by Indian women entrepreneurs. Finance is regarded as the backbone of any business enterprise – small, medium or large. Studies by Sharma (2014) and Nehru and Bhardwaj (2013) assert that one of the major barriers women face, as entrepreneurs, is the access to finance. Nehru and Bhardwaj (2013) suggested that there are two reasons why women face low access to finance. First, in the traditional Indian society, women do not inherit family wealth and, hence, they do not own any form of capital to start a new business. Second, banks in India have given little or no encouragement to women who wish to start businesses of their own. Kumari et al. (2010) stated that government and bank officials have had preconceived ideas and stereotypes of what was considered women's work and of what women were capable. Hence, their access to external capital is more difficult and limited, leaving them only with the option of borrowing capital in the form of personal loans from friends, relatives and private loan-givers, which may not always serve as the ideal way of establishing businesses.

□ Access to markets and product marketing problems:

Sharma (2014) explains that business owners and leaders need to have acquired market knowledge while trying to run a successful business. This knowledge requires adequate experience and training, to which men entrepreneurs and business leaders in India commonly have access. Women, on the other hand, lack business experience and training, and access to the target market is more difficult from a woman entrepreneur's perspective. Thus, women-

owned businesses are frequently incapable of taking on both the production and marketing of their goods.

□ Training:

Sharma (2014) stresses the fact that women have inadequate access to vocational and technical training in South Asia, including India, compared to men. While entrepreneurship training may be provided at post-high school level, as stated earlier, women are inclined towards more feminine serving roles such as those of secretaries and receptionists rather than leading roles in businesses. The exclusive nature of training acts as a limiting factor for women in the earlier stages of their education.

Significant lack of access to finance, markets and training may be the major issues women entrepreneurs face in India. Gender gap and networking barriers also continue to prevent many women from entering into the vast economy of entrepreneurship.

□ Gender gap:

Studies in the past have stressed that economic growth and development of a country depend upon the successful deployment of the entire workforce, both male and female (Afrin, 1999; Caputo & Dolinsky, 1998; Coleman, 2004). Ghani et al. (2013) stated that greater female entrepreneurship among incumbent businesses within an industry leads to a greater share of subsequent female entrepreneurs. Also, higher female ownership of local businesses in related industries (for example, input-output markets and similar labour needs) predicts higher relative female entry rates, even after taking into consideration the particular industry conditions. However, Shah (2013) reported that Indian society characterises entrepreneurship as a male venture, and the existing gender gap discourages many women from undertaking private business ownership. Ghani, Kerr and O'Connell (2013) also reported that the gender gap is a prevailing barrier for women in entrepreneurship in India. Their study found that regardless of its recent economic developments, India's gender balance in economic participation and entrepreneurship remains among the lowest in the world. The Global Gender Gap report by the World Economies forum (2015) affirms that India remains at

the bottom among 145 economies listed in the report. The same report reveals that only 11 percent of the total businesses listed in India show female participation in ownership.

□ Networking:

The gender gap issue is often accompanied by issues relating to networking. According to a survey report published by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2013), networking issues arise from the difficulty women face juggling the demands of taking care of both family and business, while at the same time, women entrepreneurs are considered to be relatively less experienced at handling external business contacts for innovation. However, such difficulties have also enabled women to embrace opportunities provided by information and communications technologies (ICTs) to create marketing channels, collect customer information and improve efficiencies in their business processes. Reports such as that by Shah (2013) have shown that more than 80 percent of women entrepreneurs in India use ICT technologies for networking purposes.

Shah (2013) believes that enhancing institutional support, identifying future candidates for entrepreneurship, directing women entrepreneurship development programs toward commercial manufacturing, or service activities that amount to setting up a microenterprise of some sort, has potential for further employment generation. Such initiatives that enlarge the cadre of trainer-motivators, support women entrepreneurs through to operation, and foster an entrepreneurial culture and environment, may reduce the barriers women face as entrepreneurs in India (Shah, 2015).

**Table 3.1: Issues faced by women business leaders as managers in the US and India**

When the above literature is summarised the following Tables 3.1 and 3.2 can be drawn:

<div>Country</div> <div>Issues</div>	The US	India
Personal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Whole self-authenticity (Caprino, 2013)</li> <li>• Setting priorities (Caprino, 2013; Hughes et al., 2009; etc.)</li> <li>• personal accountability (Caprino, 2013)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low self-efficacy (Janjhua, 2014)</li> <li>• Dual responsibilities (Budhwar, 2001; McMillen, 2011; Arya, 2013)</li> <li>• Time constraints (Kaila, 2007)</li> <li>• Night shifts (ASSOCHAM, n.d)</li> </ul>
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social/cultural (Ipsos, 2015)</li> <li>• Networking (Eagly &amp; Carli, 2007; Kozmetsky, 1989; etc.)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Culture/society (Natarajan, 2001)</li> <li>• Gender domination (CSR, 2009; Koshal et al., 2006; Maliye, 2011)</li> <li>• role stereotyping (Khandelwal, 2002;)</li> <li>• uncooperative colleagues and subordinates (Kaila, 2007; Maliye, 2011)</li> </ul>
Organisational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Role Stereotyping (Duehr and Bono, 2006)</li> <li>• Gender wage gap (Blau and Khan, 2006; Hegewisch et al., 2011; etc.)</li> <li>• Undervaluation (Caprino, 2013)</li> <li>• Extreme work demands (Caprino, 2013)</li> <li>• Marginalising (Caprino, 2013; Warner, 2014).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clashes with superiors (Budhwar et al., 2005; Kaila, 2007)</li> <li>• Relocation.</li> </ul>

**Table 3.2: Issues faced by women business leaders as entrepreneurs in the US and India**

<b><u>Issues faced in the US</u></b>	<b><u>Issues faced in India</u></b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fair access to finance (Cantwell, 2014; Lennon, 2013)</li> <li>• Equal access to government contracts (Cantwell, 2014; Lennon, 2013)</li> <li>• Relevant business training and counselling (Cantwell, 2014; Lennon, 2013)</li> <li>• Insufficient mentoring (Kickel &amp; Gundry, 2006; Laukhuf &amp; Malone, 2015)</li> <li>• Concealed myths regarding business women (Carter et al., 2007; Lennon, 2013)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Access to finance (Sharma, 2014; Nehru &amp; Bhardwaj, 2013; Kumari et al., 2010)</li> <li>• Access to markets (Sharma, 2014)</li> <li>• Insufficient training (Sharma, 2014)</li> <li>• Gender gap (Shah, 2013; Ghani et al., 2013; Global Gender Gap Report, 2015)</li> <li>• Networking (UNCTAD, 2013; Shah, 2013)</li> </ul>

Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show that women, both in the US and India, face the glass ceiling along with other barriers. From the literature reviewed in this chapter, women managers in India face comparatively more personal and social issues than women managers in the US. As a developed country, the US business environment has evolved from a situation where women faced personal and social issues to one in which there is a rising trend in more intense organisational issues, such as marginalizing, fair access to capital, equal access to government contracts and so on.

The literature reviewed in this chapter shows that women business leaders, globally, continue to face considerable barriers in the modern business world. This review provides a basis for comparison and further discussion of issues faced by women business leaders in a developing economy such as India, with issues faced by women business leaders in a developed economy such as the US. This comparison and discussion is the focus in the next chapter, which presents and discusses the findings and discussions of this research.



## Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion

### 4.1 Women Leaders as Managers: Comparing Issues Faced by Women Leaders as Managers in the US and India

As shown in Table 3.1, women leaders as managers in both the US and India face a range of personal, social and organizational issues that act as barriers or hinder their progress in leadership. Personal issues for women managers include whole self-authenticity, setting priorities, and personal accountability. Social issues include social and cultural issues and networking issues. Organizational issues continue to revolve around stereotyping, gender-based wage gap, undervaluation, and marginalization due to extreme work demands.

Women leaders as managers in India also face personal, social and organizational issues that act as barriers to their progress, although these differ in type and extent. Personal barriers for Indian women leaders as managers include low self-efficacy, dual and conflicting responsibilities, time constraints and the issue of night shifts. Social issues include those relating to Indian culture and traditional societal expectations, relocation, gender domination, role stereotyping and uncooperative colleagues and subordinates. Organisational issues derive from social issues and play out in clashes with superiors and relocation issues.

While comparing the issues that women managers face in the US and India, it is apparent that issues faced by women managers in the US relate mainly to the organisation, whereas their Indian counterparts face issues that impact more at a personal level. For Indian women managers, personal issues are more marked than for those in the US, being a consequence of social mores and traditional dictates, which, in turn, have a greater effect at an organisational, level.

Table 4.1.1. below, summarises the differences and similarities between women leaders as managers in the US and those in India.

**Table 4.1.1: Comparing The Issues Faced by Women Leaders as Managers in The US and India:**





















<b><u>Issues Faced by Women Mangers</u></b>	<b><u>In The US</u></b>	<b><u>In India</u></b>
1. Role stereotyping		
2. Society/Culture		
3. Gender wage gap		
4. Networking		
5. Undervaluation		
6. Whole self-authentication		
7. Setting priorities		
8. Extreme work pressure		
9. Marginalising		
10. Personal accountability		
11. Dual responsibilities		
12. Time constraints		
13. Low self-efficacy		
14. Shift work		
15. Gender dominated sector		
16. Uncooperative colleagues and subordinates		
17. Clashes with superiors		
18. Relocation		

Table 4.1.1 compares the issues women leaders, as managers, face in the US and India. The numbers (1 to 18) in the table represent issues faced by women in business management in both the above-stated economies. Table 4.1.1 shows that women managers in the US face issues of role stereotyping and issues related to society and culture. Women in India also face these issues but the level at which these issues obstruct women leaders as managers from achieving success differ considerably and in important ways. For example, role stereotyping can be observed as a marked social characterization throughout India. Studies from the US and India show the portrayal of male managers stereotyped as good bosses, leaders, and decision-makers, who also carry out challenging assignments. Alternatively, female managers in both the above stated countries are stereotyped as working primarily in human resources (HR) management and administration at subordinate or junior levels, and in “soft” fields like fashion, clothing and beauty product-related organisations. On the other hand, studies in the US reveal that male managers in the US rate women as more “leader-like” than they did between 15 and 30 years ago. This suggests that the view of women as management leaders in the US is more than three decades ahead of India in this regard.

Comparing issues related to society and culture, this study observes that, with major help from the western world regarding education in business and HR practices, women in India are stepping into management roles; however, this action needs to gather pace. While the US is regarded as a developed economy, studies report that even in such economies women continue to face issues relating to cultural and societal attitudes and socialization. These attitudes are conveyed from early education and are acquired by a girl-child who is conditioned to be ‘nice’ and ‘feminine’. Such conditioning emphasises accommodating and other-pleasing behaviours that prevent her from building leadership skills from early childhood. It is noteworthy that such social and cultural issues similarly are faced in a developing economy like India, implying that the society, culture and the family play an important role in either encouraging or discouraging the growth of an individual – in this case, a woman business leader.

#### **4.1.2: Relationship between the issues of extreme work demands, time constraints, dual responsibilities and setting priorities:**

Research reviewed in Chapter 3 shows that women in the US experience extreme work pressure due to expectations that a manager will devote undivided time to achieving organisational goals in a 24/7 work environment. Hence, it is possible to suggest that extreme work demands impose major time constraints on women who often also have family care responsibilities. Studies also report that the primary duty of a woman in India continues to be considered that of nurturing her children and her family. Hence in Indian society, a woman manager is expected to be ambitious and “leader like” in an organisation and a caretaker outside work hours at home, leading her towards accepting heavy dual responsibilities. In both country contexts, this conflict not only puts an ambitious woman manager under severe time pressure where she has to play the roles of a homemaker and a manager, but also pushes her to make difficult choices in setting priorities between work and family. More often than not, this leads a woman manager to choose one over the other. In such cases, studies record that most women choose family over their ambition of being management leaders. Also, because of socio-cultural attitudes, this conflict is greater for Indian women than for those in a developed economy such as the US.

## **4.2 Women as Entrepreneurs: Comparing the Issues Faced by Women Entrepreneurs in the US and India**

### **4.2.1: Issues Faced by Women Leaders as Entrepreneurs in The US and India:**

As shown in Table 3.2, women entrepreneurs in the US face barriers such as fair access to capital, equal access to government contracts, relevant business training and counselling, insufficient mentoring and concealed myths regarding business women. Women entrepreneurs in India face major barriers such as access to finance, access to markets, insufficient training, gender gap and networking. While some of these issues appear similar in kind, they are much more severe and limiting for Indian women, due to the several personal and cultural barriers they face, as stated in Table 3.1.

#### **4.2.1.1: Access to Finance**

Women in India face difficulties in accessing finance whereas women in the US face barriers preventing them from “fair” access to finance. The studies conducted by Nehru and Bhardwaj (2013) and Sharma (2014) clearly show that women in India face difficulties with gaining access to external capital due to the preconceived ideas and stereotypes about what is considered women’s work and what women are capable of. Women in the US face barriers relating to fair access to capital, which is a more subtle manifestation of the issue women face in India. Although the US Government has provided women with access to external capital (which is nevertheless very low), women-owned businesses enjoy not more than 4.4 percent of the total dollar value of loans from all sources (Cantwell, 2014). This means that even in a developed economy such as the US, women-owned businesses have not attained fair access to capital. However, there is no available comparative data for India on fair access to capital for women. This reflects the nature of the Indian economy, which is yet to reach a stage of development where, as in the US, women entrepreneurs have passed the stage of merely accessing capital.

#### **4.2.1.2: Access to Markets and Contracts**

In India, women entrepreneurs face the issue of access to markets, which is not recorded as an issue for women entrepreneurs in the US. This may also reflect the developed nature of the US economy, wherein women have gained equal access to

markets but have not yet gained equal access to lucrative government contracts. Unlike the US economy, as a developing economy India is yet to face this issue. As such, fair access to government contracts for Indian women entrepreneurs could be an issue relating to economic developmental progression, which follows simply gaining access to markets, and which India may be yet to encounter. As stated by Lennon (2013), the WOSB Procurement Program was established in the US in the year 2000 in order to escalate government contract opportunities for women. However, the available literature on women entrepreneurship in India gives no indication of any programs designed give women such access.

#### 4.2.1.3: Training and Counselling

Issues relating to business training and counselling available to women entrepreneurs are common to both the US and India (Cantwell, 2014; Sharma, 2014). Training is a major factor leading to the success of any business entrepreneur, for both men and women. Inadequacy of training, in particular, is an issue for women entrepreneurs in both the US and India. However, in India this issue is more marked and is associated with the early stages of the Indian education system. Indian girls are inclined towards, and trained in, achieving more feminine roles such as those of a teacher, receptionist, secretary. In the US, although training and counselling in the form of the WBC Programme exists, the programme is considered to be outdated and much of its content need to be enhanced and updated in order to train women entrepreneurs for the contemporary challenges they face.

#### 4.2.1.4: Mentoring and Networking

Issues of mentoring and networking apply similarly in both the US and India. As explained by Kozmestsky (1989), and affirmed in a report by Calhoun (2015), mentoring for women continues to be a major issue in the US where business remains dominated by men. Women find it difficult to obtain stable and consistent networks with other women entrepreneurs who have adequate experience, and who could potentially act as mentors to newly established women entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs face a similar issue in India. However, in India, they face an additional issue of severe time constraints, due to the social expectation that they will carry out dual responsibilities as both business women and homemaker. This prevents them from allotting adequate time to networking and mentoring.

#### 4.2.1.5: Gender Gap

The literature reviewed in Chapter 3 provides evidence that the gender gap is considerably wider in India than in the US. As noted in Chapter 3, the Global Gender Gap Report (2015) lists India near the bottom of 145 countries with a rank of 108 in the Gender-Gap Index, whereas the US ranks 28 at the top of the list in the Global Gender-Gap Index in the same report. This highlights the existing circumstances that women in India experience regarding gender inequalities compared to the US. The gender gap is much wider in India than in the US because Indian society remains more overtly male-dominated. As stated in 4.1 family and society play an important role in encouraging women business leaders to climb the business ladder. However, if there is little or no support from family or society, it may be difficult to stay motivated to move forward and achieve leadership aspirations.

#### 4.2.1.6: Myths and Assumptions

Women face barriers of myths and assumptions by society regarding business entrepreneurship. It is widely believed in the US that women favour lifestyle businesses that allow them to balance work and family or use entrepreneurship to supplement household income, although research in the past has found otherwise. In India, however, it is a common assumption that the majority of women are economically non-productive as they are not involved in activities that are financially remunerative (Sharma, 2014). The two assumptions differ subtly from each other. The former myth contrasts with the motivations identified by Rindova, Barry and Ketchen (2009), who found that entrepreneurship allows all women a sense of securing and providing for their families. The latter assumption discourages all potential women entrepreneurs from leading businesses in India as the society deems them as economically non-productive (see 3.2).

In summary, these findings regarding women entrepreneurs indicate that women in India face the greatest difficulties in simply accessing finance whereas women in the US do have to finance but face the greatest difficulty in gaining fair access to it. Indian women entrepreneurs also face problems in accessing markets, which does not present such an issue for women entrepreneurs in the US. Issues relating to business training and counselling for women entrepreneurs prevail in both the US and India, as do issues regarding mentoring and networking.

## Chapter 5 – Conclusion

### 5.1 Introduction

This dissertation has aided in highlighting and better understanding the disparity between the issues faced by women leaders in the US and Indian economy - the aim of this research in answering the following research question:

**“What are the barriers for women leaders in organisations, in an emerging country market like India, compared with barriers challenging women in developed countries such as the US?”**

The emergence of women leaders as business managers and entrepreneurs in the world economy is substantial. However, this contribution may vary across economies around the globe. With the available data reviewed in this study, the conclusion is that engaging in business activities and leading an organisation allows women a sense of safeguarding and providing for their families, even if only through management activities or the operation of small enterprises. Although women possess an abundance of leadership potential, this potential often is hidden by various constraints. Some constraints are shown from this study to be similar or common across countries, whether developed or developing, while other constraints differ between these economies. Specifically, when barriers faced by women entrepreneurs in both the economies of the US and India are compared, women in India face substantial personal and social impediments, whereas entrepreneurial women in the US most typically face issues relating to organisational barriers. This study suggests that, although India is one of the largest emerging markets, very few measures have been taken to break the traditional thinking of a male-dominated economy.

### 5.2 Key Findings

Findings from this study contribute to the literature on ‘women as leaders’ as it compares the issues faced by women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs in a developed and a developing economy. Such comparison is important for every economy around the globe, as it acts like a guide for policy makers, in order to take important



steps towards helping women business leaders in achieving growth and success. This study also provides a reference point to policy makers and researchers in understanding the differences between the existing policies, in different economies, and the need to improve them in order to help women become successful business leaders in India and other developing companies.

As stated above, when barriers faced by women leaders as managers and entrepreneurs in both the economies of the US and India are compared, women in India face substantial personal and social impediments, whereas women in the US typically face issues relating to organisational barriers.

This study suggests that, although India is one of the largest emerging markets, very few measures have been taken to break the traditional thinking of a male-dominated economy. Furthermore, the persistent perceptions in India of a male-dominated economy mean that women will continue to find it difficult to emerge as leaders as long as this perception remains.

Based on the findings regarding women leaders as entrepreneurs, access to markets is a major issue in India, but not in the US. This may be because the issue is progressive in nature: once women entrepreneurs have fair access to markets the problem then becomes one of fairness in accessing the more lucrative markets such as government contracts. Further study targeting the issue of 'fair access of capital' may help policy builders – not only in India, but also in other developing nations – generate policies such as the Women-Owned Small Business Procurement Program 2000 established in the US. However, such programmes will only prove effective if they are made available to women business leaders on wide scale and the women are made aware of such provision.

Issues relating to the availability of business training and counselling for women entrepreneurs prevail, also, in both the US and India. Additionally, issues of mentoring and networking prevail at similar levels in both countries. However, this research shows that while the gender gap is higher in India compared to the US, women in both countries face barriers created by enduring myths and assumptions held by society about business entrepreneurship. For example, the predominant myth in the US is that women entrepreneurs need to act like men to be successful in business. Indian society holds that women lack the capability to match the hard work put in by men. These kinds of myths act to discourage women in both countries from entering into the business world as leaders.

The findings from this study may provide a baseline for more in-depth research in the field of women's leadership issues relating to time constraints. Moreover, extensive research on the personal issues faced by women managers could help policy-makers in India and other developing economies generate policies that may help in addressing the personal issues faced by women leaders as managers.

### **5.3 Implications**

The research reported in this dissertation has found that while there are some similarities in the issues faced by women business leaders in the developed economy of the US compared to the developing economy of India, there are substantial and important differences between them. In particular, the tensions created by dual responsibilities, the resultant time constraints and extreme work demands for Indian women managers could be compounded by – or compound – other issues experienced by women leaders in developing countries. The findings lead to such questions as to what various other issues, apart from the ones mentioned in this study, could be inter-related. Gendered issues arising from unconscious bias and considered minor by society and the family may come together to present a major issue (and yet another barrier) for a woman business leader.

While some progress has been made towards providing women with equal opportunities to aspire to and succeed in business leadership roles, if anything approaching gender parity is to be attained, much more effort needs to be applied in both countries to designing and implementing programmes aimed at removing the barriers that continue to prevent women from realizing their ambitions.

This study focuses on an aspect of women in business leadership, namely, women business leaders as managers and entrepreneurs, in the developed economy of the US and the developing economy of India. This focus is reflected in the above stated research question, which seeks to identify and compare the barriers faced by women business leaders in both countries. The reason for making such a comparison was based on the surmise that the same programmes designed to reduce or remove such barriers to women's progress as business leaders in developed countries may not be appropriate for developing countries due to the kinds of issues faced in the differing economic developmental contexts. While the study sheds light on these similarities and

differences and provides some indication as to which programmes may be applicable in both country contexts where the issues are similar, it also highlights barriers that have deeper context-specific roots, where customised programmes are needed. Further comparative research involving a larger number of developed and developing countries would establish more firmly, the similarities in issues for women's leadership in business found in this two-country study, that are shared across countries irrespective of their economic development. The results would further not only theoretical understanding but also provide a reliable basis for policy makers in designing such programmes for women's advancement in business leadership.

## **5.4 Limitations**

There are limitations to this study regarding the secondary data collected, as there is limited data available on the existing issues faced by women business leaders in the US and India. This study has aimed at identifying the broad issues faced by women business leaders in a developing and a developed economy. Research involving deep enquiry into these issues as they apply in different geographical domains (such as rural or urban settings) would be fruitful not only in building theory but also in providing closer, specific guidance for policy development. Other limitations include the use of secondary data and the recognition of the subjective nature of choices made during the course of this research.

## **5.5 Areas for further research**

A more comprehensive study covering a wider cross-section of business sectors in different countries and geographical regions in a developed and a developing economy could better help understand and compare the issues faced by women as business leaders. Action research could be conducted with a "before and after" quasi-experimental study based on a change initiative introduced to stimulate faster progress for women in business leadership.

Focus groups involving experienced and new women business leaders would also be valuable in generating discussion of the various personal and social problems women

business leaders face in different economies as a basis for policy development. This approach could be especially useful for developing policies for addressing issues women leaders face in India and other developing economies. Focus groups could be used not only to build knowledge to help overcome personal and social issues for women as leaders, but also to facilitate the development of women's business networks. Social media can be used to initiate focus groups and discussion panels through the internet both for research purposes and for connecting women business leaders around the globe where they can network and share their business experiences and the issues they face as business leaders. This approach could be beneficial to women in both developed and developing countries in building stable networks whereby experienced women leaders may guide and mentor new and potential women business leaders in achieving success. Online networks may be especially applicable and appropriate in developing country contexts (assuming access to the internet) in overcoming extremely limited networking opportunities arising from more marked social pressures. Such initiatives could involve the following:

1. Research to provide accurate and reliable statistical data regarding the percentage and number of potential and existing women business leaders in a given country's economy. Such information could assist not only policy making but also provide the basis for a database for longitudinal studies that track progress towards gender parity in business leadership.
2. A global women's network established with the help of the internet and social media to connect women business leaders to each other. An online network would also give researchers access to information about women business leaders to deepen understanding of the issues and their potential solutions.
3. Making women around the globe aware of and enabled with the internet skills to access this network.
4. Active encouragement of women by government policies to join the network whereby they can gain the confidence and skills that will help them build a better future themselves and be successful leaders. A global network for women business leaders may thus inspire and motivate more women to be organisational leaders. This in turn may help, not only to increase women's participation as business leaders in India, but also globally, thereby potentially hastening the closure of the gender gap in business leadership.



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