

Instytut **Z**arządzania
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WYDZIAŁ NAUK EKONOMICZNYCH I ZARZĄDZANIA
UNIWERSYTET SZCZECIŃSKI

EQUALITY AND MANAGEMENT

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FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT

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TABLE OF CONTENT

Introduction	5
Chapter 1 Has the economic crisis equally influenced women's and men's employment in Poland on the background of the EU countries? (M. Hozer-Koćmiel, P. Halik, A. Sobolewska)	7
Chapter 2 Role of Relationships Networks on Career Development of Female Employees (P. Wijewantha)	19
Chapter 3 Conflict between women's natural role and economical role in the contemporary socio economic system (S. D. Fernando)	41
Chapter 4 Potential of Tea Tourism in Sri Lanka: A Review on Managerial Implications and Research Directions (K. C. Koththagoda, D. M. R. Dissanayake)	51
Chapter 5 Gender Discrimination in Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) (W.M.C.B. Wanninayake, R. Herath)	69
Chapter 6 Financial Literacy: An Essential Tool for Empowerment of Women through Financial Inclusion – Literature Review (D. A. T. Kumari)	81
Chapter 7 The Relationship between Employee Engagement and Customer Satisfaction (H. M. R. Pushpanjalee Herath)	97
Chapter 8 Gendered expectations experienced by IT women in Sri Lanka: A theoretical review (K. Wijawardena, N. Wijawardena, S. Misiak-Kwit)	115

INTRODUCTION

The “EQUALITY AND MANAGEMENT” monograph, issued in English, is a joint publication of authors from Sri Lanka and Poland. Into the hands of readers we are placing this edition which is a collection of works devoted to the concept of equality and management.

This monograph consist of eight chapters. In the first chapter authors seek an answer to the question: Has the economic crisis equally influenced women’s and men’s employment in Poland on the background of the EU countries? In chapter two the author describes the role of relationships networks on career development of female employees. Chapter three presents the conflict between women’s natural role and economical role in the contemporary socio economic system. In chapter four there is investigated the potential of tea tourism in Sri Lanka. The fifth chapter raises the problem of gender discrimination in Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Chapter six present the Financial Literacy as an essential tool for empowerment of women through financial inclusion. Chapter seven contains the analyses of the relationship between employee engagement and customer satisfaction. The last chapter – eight explores the problem of gendered expectations experienced by IT women in Sri Lanka.

We are honoured to express words of gratitude to all co-authors and the reviewers for their efforts and contribution towards this joint international publication.

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CHAPTER 1

HAS THE ECONOMIC CRISIS EQUALLY INFLUENCED WOMEN'S AND MEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN POLAND ON THE BACKGROUND OF THE EU COUNTRIES?

1.1. Introduction

Many economic phenomena are characterized by patterns different for women and men, so the gender perspective should be more often taken into account by economists. This study was carried out under the project NCN 2015/17/B/HS4/00930 "Changing the position of women in the labor market. The analysis of the situation in Poland against the background of the European Union in the years 2002-2014 ". The study hypothesis that the economic crisis has significantly influenced the employment of women and men in the European Union has been verified.

When studying the impact of the crisis on the economic situation we must take into account not only the standard labor market variables. It is necessary to look at the broader issues related to the domestic sphere, the changes in disposable income and correctness concerning the use of various services, including care services (Bettio, Verashchagina 2011; Czerwińska Łapniewska, Piotrowska 2010; Hozer 2010).

We can indicate test results, according to which women experience major difficulties during the economic crisis and when leaving it. They are more sensitive to the deterioration of the state's financial condition, which results in a fall in employment in the public sector and in shrinking of the use of social services. These symptoms may intensify, despite the fact that the crisis or economic downturn is considered to be over in a country (Lyberaki 2012; Izdes 2004, 2014). There are also studies according to which it cannot be clearly stated that the crisis particularly

worsened the economic situation of women (Czerwińska, Łapniewska, Piotrowska 2010).

It is often emphasized that there is a need to increase the participation of women in decision-making. This is one of the conditions for a proper use of the economic potential of women, which may become a driving force for economies recovering from the crisis (Kompa, Witkowska, Jarosz 2015, Bohdanowicz 2011, Stepan 2014).

Girón and Correa (2016) point to an increase in the wage gap between men and women which occurred as a result of the economic crisis. They see the causes of this phenomenon in changes to public expenditure, for example the reduction of outlays in health care and education. Szelewa and Polakowski (2014) note that the crisis triggered political processes, which led to negative social policy reforms. By analyzing unemployment inter alia, they note that the unemployment rate has risen in most European countries. They also observe that the common trends in reforms include shortening of leisure vacation and abolishing the interdiction of work when on a holiday leave.

Young people are affected by the economic crisis in a particular way. Janiszewska, Chabowski, Prandecki (2014) note that young people are aware of this, but they declare that the difficult situation has not directly affected them.

1.2. Methodology and data used

In the study the issue of employment was illustrated by the employment rate by gender for 28 EU countries in 2002-2014. The economic situation was characterized by GDP per capita, GDP growth rate, public debt ratio, unemployment rate and changes in household income. The data came from the Eurostat database <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/>, OECD <https://data.oecd.org> and GUS <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/start>.

We used the structural and dynamic analysis methods (such as trend and incremental functions). We verified the trend models using the t-Student test to evaluate the significance of the parameters and the series test for the randomness of the deviations and the linearity of the trend.

1.3. Assessment of economic situation in EU countries in 2002-2014

Gross Domestic Product per capita slightly increased over the considered period, therefore the GDP growth rate, characterized by high volatility, significantly

better reflects the economic situation. Following the economic crisis, in most European countries, excluding Poland, there was a sharp decline in the GDP growth rate. In Poland, the basic indicators of the economic situation were more favorable than in other European countries. Therefore, when it comes the Polish economy, it seems more appropriate to define it as an economic slowdown rather than a crisis.

The analysis of the public debt to GDP ratio showed a moderate increase of debt over the considered period. It can be concluded that the economic crisis triggered a deepening gap between budgetary expenditure and GDP. Another breakthrough that occurred in 2008 concerned unemployment. In the majority of the European countries the unemployment rate in 2002-2008 was at a similar level or was characterized by a downward trend. With the crisis hitting their economies, in many countries the unemployment rate began growing rapidly. Throughout the considered period, also in the years of crisis, the overall upward trend of disposable income was clearly seen. Therefore, this variable cannot be used as an indicator of the beginning or end of a crisis. The situation in Poland in terms of GDP growth rate was exceptionally favorable, hence the name of a "green island"¹ untouched pan-European crisis. The high values before crisis (2002-2007) remained stable in the time of crisis and were the highest in Europe at that time (2.8% in 2009). Therefore, in the case of Poland the term of an economic slowdown seems more appropriate. Causes of the crisis must be sought not in exceptionally good condition of the Polish economy, but rather in its isolation from the world's leading economies.

Table 1.1: Percentage change of GDP relative to the previous year in the EU in 2002-2014

Country	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Years of crisis
EU 28	3.1	3.2	4.2	2.1	3.3	3.1	0.4	-4.4	2.1	1.7	-0.5	0.2	1.6	-
Belgium	1.8	0.8	3.6	2.1	2.5	3.4	0.7	-2.3	2.7	1.8	0.1	-0.1	1.7	2008, 2009
Bulgaria	6.0	5.1	6.6	7.1	6.9	7.3	6.0	-3.6	1.3	1.9	0.0	0.9	1.3	2009, 2010
Czech Republic	1.6	3.6	4.9	6.4	6.9	5.5	2.7	-4.8	2.3	2.0	-0.8	-0.5	2.7	2008, 2009
Denmark	0.5	0.4	2.6	2.3	3.9	0.9	-0.5	-4.9	1.9	1.3	0.2	0.9	1.7	2007-2011
Germany	0.0	-0.7	1.2	0.7	3.7	3.3	1.1	-5.6	4.1	3.7	0.5	0.5	1.6	2008, 2009
Estonia	6.1	7.4	6.3	9.4	10.3	7.7	-5.4	-14.7	2.3	7.6	4.3	1.4	2.8	2008, 2009
Ireland	5.6	3.7	6.7	5.8	5.9	3.8	-4.4	-4.6	2.0	0.0	-1.1	1.1	8.5	2008-2012
Greece	3.9	5.8	5.1	0.6	5.7	3.3	-0.3	-4.3	-5.5	-9.1	-7.3	-3.2	0.4	2008-2013
Spain	2.9	3.2	3.2	3.7	4.2	3.8	1.1	-3.6	0.0	-1.0	-2.9	-1.7	1.4	2008-2013
France	1.1	0.8	2.8	1.6	2.4	2.4	0.2	-2.9	2.0	2.1	0.2	0.6	0.6	2008-2010

¹ <http://www.bankier.pl/wiadomosc/Mit-zielonej-wyspy-2199555.html> (12.05.2017)

Croatia	5.2	5.6	4.1	4.2	4.8	5.2	2.1	-7.4	-1.7	-0.3	-2.2	-1.1	-0.5	2008-2014
Italy	0.2	0.2	1.6	0.9	2.0	1.5	-1.1	-5.5	1.7	0.6	-2.8	-1.7	0.1	2008-2014
Cyprus	3.4	2.5	4.6	3.7	4.5	4.8	3.9	-1.8	1.3	0.3	-3.2	-6.0	-1.5	2009-2014
Latvia	7.1	8.4	8.3	10.7	11.9	9.9	-3.6	-14.3	-3.8	6.2	4.0	2.9	2.1	2008-2010
Lithuania	6.8	10.5	6.6	7.7	7.4	11.1	2.6	-14.8	1.6	6.0	3.8	3.5	3.5	2008-2010
Luxembourg	3.6	1.4	4.4	3.2	5.1	8.4	-0.8	-5.4	5.8	2.0	0.0	4.2	4.7	2008,2009
Hungary	4.5	3.8	5.0	4.4	3.9	0.4	0.9	-6.6	0.7	1.7	-1.6	2.1	4.0	2007-2012
Malta	3.0	2.5	0.4	3.8	1.8	4.0	3.3	-2.5	3.5	1.4	2.7	4.6	8.4	2009
Netherlands	0.1	0.3	2.0	2.2	3.5	3.7	1.7	-3.8	1.4	1.7	-1.1	-0.2	1.4	2008-2010
Austria	1.7	0.8	2.7	2.1	3.4	3.6	1.5	-3.8	1.9	2.8	0.7	0.1	0.6	2008-2010
Poland	2.0	3.6	5.1	3.5	6.2	7.0	4.2	2.8	3.6	5.0	1.6	1.4	3.3	2009
Portugal	0.8	-0.9	1.8	0.8	1.6	2.5	0.2	-3.0	1.9	-1.8	-4.0	-1.1	0.9	2008-2013
Romania	5.2	5.5	8.4	4.2	8.1	6.9	8.5	-7.1	-0.8	1.1	0.6	3.5	3.1	2009-2012
Slovenia	3.8	2.8	4.4	4.0	5.7	6.9	3.3	-7.8	1.2	0.6	-2.7	-1.1	3.1	2009-2013
Slovakia	4.5	5.4	5.3	6.8	8.5	10.8	5.6	-5.4	5.0	2.8	1.7	1.5	2.6	2009
Finland	1.7	2.0	3.9	2.8	4.1	5.2	0.7	-8.3	3.0	2.6	-1.4	-0.8	-0.6	2008, 2009
Sweden	2.1	2.4	4.3	2.8	4.7	3.4	-0.6	-5.2	6.0	2.7	-0.3	1.2	2.6	2008,2009
United Kingdom	2.4	3.5	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.6	-0.6	-4.3	1.9	1.5	1.3	1.9	3.1	2008, 2009

Data Source: Own study based on Eurostat and World Bank data

The global financial crisis of 2007 caused a turmoil in many economic areas, including the labor market. The above table confirms that the most dramatic slump in the GDP growth rate in most European countries took place in 2008-2009. It should be also noted that in some countries the tested variable remained low until the end of the examined period (Greece, Cyprus, Croatia, Spain). In order to answer the question how the employment structure changed as a result of the crisis, the pre-crisis period (2006) and post-crisis (2012) were compared further in the study.

1.4. Employment structure

In many countries employment rates fell as a result of the crisis, however the decline in male employment was higher than in women's employment (Table 1.2A and 1.2B). The largest decrease in the employment rate for women was recorded in Greece (-5.6 points %), Ireland (-4.2), Denmark (-3.4), Portugal (-3.3) and Spain (-2.6). The estimated absolute increments for men adopted significantly higher and negative values. The deepest plunge in male employment was in Spain (-15.8), Ireland (-15.2), Greece (-13.8) and Portugal (-9.2). The countries where the situation deteriorated most were similar for women and men.

Table 1.2A: Employment rate for women and men in 2006 and 2012 in EU countries – Decline of the employment rate for women

Employment rate in EU countries (%)							
Women				Men			
Country / years	2006	2012	Difference	Country / years	2006	2012	Difference
Greece	47.3	41.7	-5.6	Greece	73.9	60.1	-13.8
Ireland	59.3	55.1	-4.2	Ireland	77.9	62.7	-15.2
Denmark	73.4	70.0	-3.4	Denmark	81.2	75.2	-6.0
Portugal	61.8	58.5	-3.3	Portugal	73.7	64.5	-9.2
Spain	53.8	51.2	-2.6	Spain	76.1	60.3	-15.8
Slovenia	61.8	60.5	-1.3	Slovenia	71.1	67.4	-3.7
Croatia	49.4	48.5	-0.9	Croatia	62.0	58.5	-3.5
Cyprus	60.3	59.4	-0.9	Cyprus	79.4	70.4	-9.0
Estonia	65.6	64.7	-0.9	Estonia	71.4	69.7	-1.7
United Kingdom	65.8	64.9	-0.9	United Kingdom	77.6	75.0	-2.6
Romania	53.0	52.8	-0.2	Romania	64.6	67.6	3.0
Latvia	61.8	61.7	-0.1	Latvia	70.4	64.4	-6.0

Source: Own study based on Eurostat data

Table 1.2B. Employment rate for women and men in 2006 and 2012 in EU countries - Increase of the employment rate for women

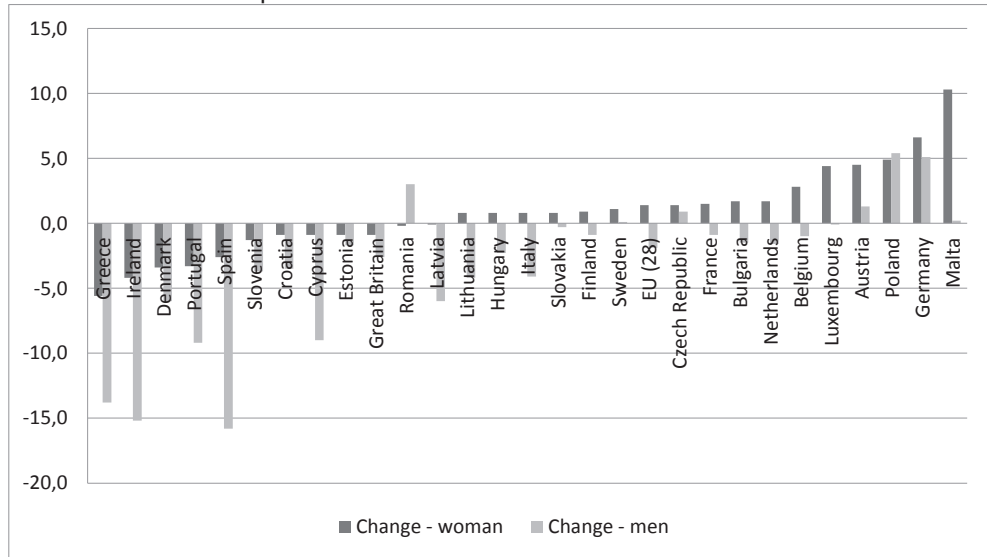
Employment rate in EU countries (%)							
Women				Men			
Country / years	2006	2012	Difference	Country / years	2006	2012	Difference
Lithuania	61.0	61.8	0.8	Lithuania	66.4	62.2	-4.2
Hungary	51.1	51.9	0.8	Hungary	63.9	61.6	-2.3
Italy	46.3	47.1	0.8	Italy	70.4	66.3	-4.1
Slovakia	51.9	52.7	0.8	Slovakia	67.0	66.7	-0.3
Finland	67.3	68.2	0.9	Finland	71.4	70.5	-0.9
Sweden	70.7	71.8	1.1	Sweden	75.5	75.6	0.1
UE (28 countries)	57.2	58.6	1.4	UE (28 countries)	71.5	69.6	-1.9
Czech Republic	56.8	58.2	1.4	Czech Republic	73.7	74.6	0.9
France	58.6	60.1	1.5	France	69.0	68.1	-0.9
Bulgaria	54.6	56.3	1.7	Bulgaria	62.8	61.3	-1.5
Netherlands	67.7	69.4	1.7	Netherlands	80.9	79.3	-1.6
Belgium	54.0	56.8	2.8	Belgium	67.9	66.9	-1.0
Luxembourg	54.6	59.0	4.4	Luxembourg	72.6	72.5	-0.1
Austria	62.2	66.7	4.5	Austria	74.9	76.2	1.3
Poland	48.2	53.1	4.9	Poland	60.9	66.3	5.4
Germany	61.5	68.1	6.6	Germany	72.8	77.9	5.1
Malta	33.7	44.0	10.3	Malta	73.6	73.8	0.2

Source: own study based on Eurostat data

Some countries also saw an increase in the rate, but the increase in the case of women was significantly more frequent (in 17 out of 28 countries) than men (in 7 out of 28 countries). The highest increase for women was in Luxembourg (4.4%), Austria

(4.5), Poland (4.9) Germany (6.6) and in Malta (10.3) and the highest growth rates for men were recorded in Romania (3.0 points %), Germany (5.1) and Poland (5.4). In the case of men, as it has been mentioned above, the greatest increases were lower than the greatest increases for women.

Figure 1.1: Change of the employment rate of men and women in EU countries in 2012 compared to 2006



Source: Own study based on Eurostat data

In some countries the change of the indicator was unidirectional. The indicators for women and men were lower in Greece, Ireland, Denmark, Portugal, Spain, while they both grew in Austria, Poland, Germany and Malta. There was also a group of countries where the changes occurred in opposite directions for example: Lithuania, Hungary, Italy, Slovakia, Finland, Netherlands and Belgium. This may prove a situation in which women, as cheaper labor, were more desired workers when companies and the market were generally in crisis.

1.5. Descriptive statistics of the employment rate for men and women

A statistical analysis of employment rates before (2006) and after the crisis (2012) showed stronger changes for men than for women. As a result of the crisis, men's employment decreased from 72 to 68%. The employment rate remained higher for men throughout the considered period. It was characterized by significantly less variability. The classic variation coefficient V_s was 7.83 and 8.68% for men respectively in the first and second trimesters, while for females it reached 14.80 and

13.69%. There were also strong changes in the asymmetry of distributions. The distribution of the female employment rate was characterized by left-sided asymmetry, which means that the index values above average prevailed. In the case of men, the asymmetry in the decomposition of the employment rate in 2006 was left-handed, while in 2012 it was right-handed, which means that values were below the average (see Table 1.3).

Table.1.3: Descriptive statistics of employment rates in 28 EU countries

WOMEN			
2006		2012	
Average	57.63	Average	58.36
Median	58.95	Median	58.75
Dominant	61.8	Dominant	none
Standard deviation	8.53	Standard deviation	7.99
Volatility index	14.80	Volatility index	13.69
Kurtosis	0.94	Kurtosis	-0.58
Slant	-0.57	Slant	-0.21
Gap	39.7	Gap	30.1
Minimum	33.7	Minimum	41.7
Maximum	73.4	Maximum	71.8
Population	28	Population	28
MEN			
2006		2012	
Average	71.54	Average	68.41
Median	72	Median	67.5
Dominant	73.7	Dominant	66.3
Standard deviation	5.60	Standard deviation	5.94
Volatility index	7.83	Volatility index	8.68
Kurtosis	-0.63	Kurtosis	-1.07
Slant	-0.20	Slant	0.14
Gap	20.3	Gap	20.8
Minimum	60.9	Minimum	58.5
Maximum	81.2	Maximum	79.3
Population	28	Population	28

Source: Own study based on Eurostat data

The employment rate of women was the lowest in Malta (2006) and Greece (2012), and the highest in Denmark (2006) and Sweden (2012). The lowest values for men were observed in Poland (2006) and Croatia (2012), and the highest values were observed in Denmark (2006) and Malta (2012). It is worth paying attention that in Malta the employment rate for woman was notably low, while for men – notably

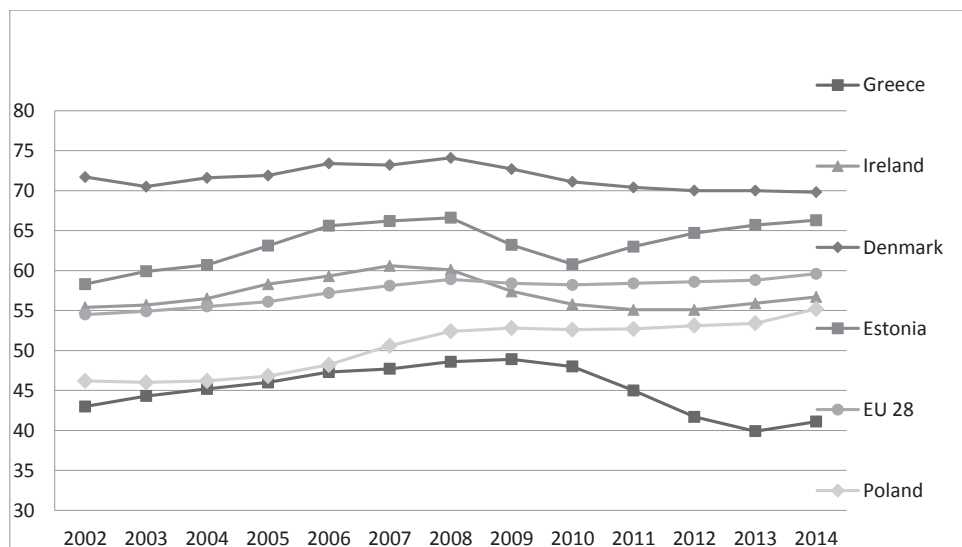
high. This demonstrates the traditional division of male and female roles in households, where the man remains a breadwinner and is active at the labour market.

Another matter worth noticing are extremely low values of the employment rate in Poland. When talking about Poland being a „green island” during the crisis, it should be clarified that it was because of the sustained GDP growth rate. If other economic variables (such as employment rate or average earnings) were included in the analysis, the economic situation in Poland would turn out to be unfavorable.

1.6. Dynamics of the employment rate in Poland and selected EU countries

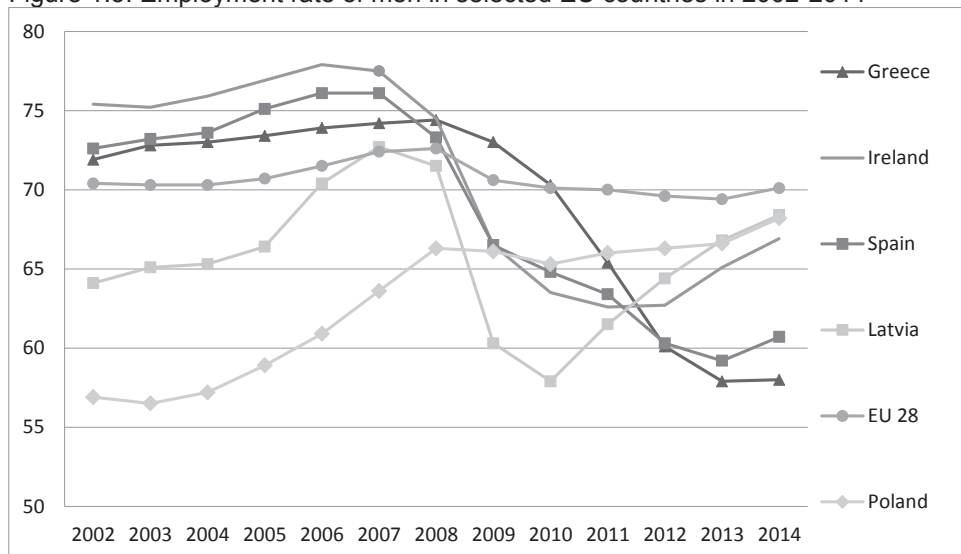
The analysis of the dynamics allowed to identify countries where the economic crisis significantly worsened the situation of workers by causing a decrease in the employment rate. In reference to women, those countries were Greece, Ireland, Denmark and Estonia, and in case of men - Greece, Ireland, Spain and Latvia. In all the EU countries (including Poland), the examined variable was characterized by an upward trend (see Figure 1.2). As regards men, the employment rate in Poland was increasing steadily, but in the remaining EU countries it decreased markedly.

Figure 1.2: Employment rate of women in selected EU countries in 2002-2014



Source: own study based on Eurostat

Figure 1.3: Employment rate of men in selected EU countries in 2002-2014



Source: own study based on Eurostat

The trend models for countries where the crisis negatively influenced the employment rate (see Table 1.4) are shown below. The analysis was also carried out for Poland and all the European countries together (UE 28), given the fact that the main subject of this report is Poland's economic situation against the EU.

Function matching to empirical data was investigated by discriminating between the standard residual component and the coefficient of determination R2. The significance of the structural parameters was verified by Student's t-test. The randomness of residuals and trend linearity were tested using a series test. In most (10 out of 12) trend models all structural parameters were found to be significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. All models were linear and were characterized by random deviations. Matching of models with significant structural parameters was relatively high and ranged from 59 to 92%.

Table 1.4: Verification of employment rate models in selected EU countries

Women								
	Regression Coefficient A (Error)	t-value for A	Regression Coefficient B (Error)	t-value for B	R-square	Standard Error	Randomness of deviations	Linearity of trend
Greece	-0.294 (0.342)	-0.860	48.613 (1.332)	36.488	0.156	1.431	yes	yes
Ireland	-1.089 (0.286)	-3.809	61.860 (1.113)	55.578	0.784	1.196	yes	yes
Denmark	-0.649 (0.204)	-3.183	74.753 (0.794)	94.191	0.717	0.853	yes	yes

Estonia	-0.931 (0.388)	-2.401	67.493 (1.511)	44.682	0.590	0.524	yes	yes
EU (28)	0.166 (0.125)	1.322	57.620 (0.488)	118.058	0.304	0.524	yes	yes
Poland	0.826 (0.265)	3.120	48.660 (1.031)	47.209	0.709	1.107	yes	yes
Men								
	Regression Coefficient A (Error)	t-value for A	Regression Coefficient B (Error)	t-value for B	R-square	Standard Error	Randomness of deviations	Linearity of trend
Greece	-1.589 (0.498)	-3.187	77.427 (1.941)	39.887	0.717	2.085	yes	yes
Ireland	-3.614 (0.514)	-7.026	83.067 (2.003)	41.462	0.906	2.152	yes	yes
Spain	-2.977 (0.432)	-6.896	80.453 (1.681)	47.856	0.922	1.806	yes	yes
Latvia	-2.860 (0.994)	-2.876	75.727 (3.873)	19.553	0.674	4.160	yes	yes
EU (28)	-0.469 (0.195)	-2.407	72.840 (0.759)	95.989	0.591	0.815	yes	yes
Poland	0.869 (0.359)	2.420	61.660 (1.398)	44.112	0.594	1.502	yes	yes

Source: own study based on Eurostat

1.7. Changes in entrepreneurship indicator in EU

By looking at the characteristics of the labor market in Poland and in the EU, several types of entrepreneurship indicators were examined.

It was observed that most of them presented rather favorable trends over the considered period. The variables that characterized entrepreneurship and had the downward trend were the self-employment rate of the total population and the rate of self-employment of the working-age population. These rates report the number of self-employed people per 1000 people (see Table 1.5). The decrease in both rates, for women and for men, was observed. As the lowest values were seen in 2005-2006 (and a few years before the global crisis), it may have indicated an imminent economic slowdown.

Table 1.5: Self-employment rate in Poland in 2000 - 2012

	Self-employment rate of the total population				Self-employment rate of the working-age population			
	Total	Men	Women	Absolute growth (M-W)	Total	Men	Women	Absolute growth (M-W)
2000	80.6	105.4	57.4	48	132.6	163.2	100.2	62.9
2001	79	101.4	58	43.5	128.5	155.3	100.1	55.3
2002	77.2	100.7	55.1	45.6	124	152.5	93.9	58.7
2003	74.1	99.6	50.1	49.5	117.7	149.3	84.4	64.9
2004	72.8	97.3	49.8	47.4	114.6	144.5	83.1	61.4
2005	72.3	97.6	48.7	48.9	113.1	144	80.6	63.4
2006	72.8	98.6	48.8	49.8	113.4	144.6	80.6	64
2007	73.7	99.8	49.3	50.5	114.5	145.4	81.6	63.8
2008	74.8	101.4	50	51.4	116.1	147	83	63.9
2009	75	101.9	49.9	52	116.3	147	83.1	63.9

2010	75.4	102.3	50.1	52.2	117	147	84	63
2011	76.2	103.7	50.4	53.4	118.7	149.2	85.1	64.1
2012	73.4	101	47.5	53.5	115	145.7	81	64.7

Source: own study based on GUS

* Highlighted years indicate the years in which the employment rate was minimal during the period considered

1.8. Summary

The above statistical analysis of the employment rate of men and women in EU countries in the years 2002-2014 shows that the economic crisis significantly influenced some aspects of the labor market. It has been observed that the employment rate for men declined more strongly than for women. Significant decreases in the rate of self-employment of men and women over the period considered were also noted.

The situation of Poland during the crisis was exceptionally favorable, hence the economists' definition of its being a "green island". However, it should be clarified that this is due to the persistently high GDP growth rate. Taking into account more economic variables such as average earnings, taxes, labor productivity, social trust or unemployment rate, Poland's economic situation was not good.

In conclusion, it was not possible to confirm the thesis stated in the introduction that women experienced greater economic difficulties during and after the crisis. In further research, the authors plan to explore deeper the issue of employment, namely to examine employment by age, industry (public and private) and individual industries.

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CHAPTER 2

ROLE OF RELATIONSHIP NETWORKS ON CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES

2.1. Introduction

Despite women constituting more than half (approximately 57%) of the total estimated population of 21 million (Salary.lk, 2017), statistics from Sri Lanka regarding women in employment are very disappointing. According to the Gender Profile, the country produces almost 55.6% female graduates a year from the state university system disregarding the females graduating from other private higher education institutions (MacDonald, Wong, and Sheldon, 2015). But the women have not been able to sufficiently reap the benefits of their education when it comes to the circles of employment. Although Sri Lanka had played a lead role in appointing women to positions of top political leadership, only a very limited number (below 10% according to Mitra and Kumar, 2004; 17% according to Gupta, Koshal, and Koshal, 2006) of females have reached the senior managerial and administrative echelons in both the public and private sectors of the country. Taking these statistics into consideration, it is obvious that there is a huge underrepresentation of women at the top strata of both public and private sector organizations in Sri Lanka (Asian Development Bank (ADB), 2015). These trends associated with women in employment in Sri Lanka are in parity with the global trend where only 22% of the senior management positions are held by women (Grant Thornton International, 2015). In the Sri Lankan private sector, only 8% of the senior management positions are held by women, whereas that figure is 19% in the public sector (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2015). Though this appears to be a very low percentage value, surprisingly, the figures are far above the largest country in the region, in terms of geography and demography – India, which has only 3%

women in senior management positions in the private sector (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2015). According to the report by the Commonwealth Secretariat (2015), this figure is only 3% and 4% in Bangladesh and Pakistan respectively, making Sri Lanka the leading South Asian nation in terms of the number of women occupying senior management positions in the private sector. However, we cannot be overwhelmed by these statistics as there are both private and public sector organizations in Sri Lanka, which do not have any women in senior management positions. as a third world developing nation, which achieved women suffrage in 1931 (Kearney, 1981), the present position of Sri Lanka is commendable, yet it has a very long way to go with drastic improvements to reach the standards of first world countries.

Regarding the improvements, advances in the rate of visibility and presence of women in senior management positions in both private and public sectors in Sri Lanka are important, in view of the degree of high quality managerial and leadership skills exercised by women in their day-to-day lives at home (Eagly and Carli, 2007). Furthermore, there is sufficient empirical evidence that indicate women make better managers compared to their opposite sex and thereby lead businesses to achieve better financial performance (Badal and Harter, 2014; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Billard, 1992; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Pounder and Coleman, 2002). According to research, organizations with a higher number of women in senior management positions have experienced more positive organizational outcomes (Joy, Carter, Srira, and Wagener, 2007; McKinsey and Company, 2007) and have outperformed companies with fewer women at the top (Catalyst, 2007). Hence, it is mutually beneficial for both the womankind and the organizations to promote women to high-ranking positions in all types of organizations. "Encouraging more women into senior management roles is good for women, and it is good for business (Hurst, Leberman, and Edwards, 2016, p. 62)". Given this situation, the question arises, as to why in spite of these reciprocal benefits to both organizations and female employees, and while having a higher percentage of women in the population, that Sri Lanka is not seeing a greater representation of women at senior management levels in organizations?.

The simplest explanation for this question, coming from the Western management literature is the overt and covert discrimination and prejudice against women in the Asian society (Bell, McLaughlin, and Sequeira, 2002; Cortina, 2008; Macarie and Moldovan, 2011), which is often emphasized by the feminist movement.

This discrimination is largely associated with gender stereotyping where the society still holds the mindset that a manager equals a male (male management culture) (Hoobler, Wayne, and Lemmon, 2009). The main barrier for women, observed in empirical studies from Eastern parts of the world, are the personal factors and constraints experienced by women through their socially and biologically defined roles (e.g., reproductive role etc.) in the domestic environment as a wife and a mother (family obligations) (Guillaume and Pochic, 2007; Kaparou and Bush, 2007; Jayatilake et al., 2014). In the Asian society, especially including Sri Lanka, taking time off from one's career to fulfill childbearing responsibilities brings a halt to the career of a woman (Shanon, 2007). But, further examination of conceptual and empirical literature in this area indicates that this is not a simple issue where a straightforward explanation can be provided. The complexity of this issue increases as this observed phenomenon is a consequence of a combination of personal, organizational, and socio-cultural factors (Hurst et al., 2016; Kaparou and Bush, 2007). There are a number of studies (e.g., Barmao, 2013; Jayatilake et al., 2014; Lahti, 2013; Shin and Bang, 2013) that have been conducted both in Sri Lanka and around the world covering these wide array of factors independently and integratively. Most of these studies fall into the areas of work-family conflict/balance, family support, and work-family enrichment (e.g., Kailasapathy, Kraimer, and Metz, 2014; Paustian-Underdahl, Halbesleben, Carlson, and Kacmar, 2016; Tang, Siu and Cheung, 2012; Victor and Tharakumar, 2010; Wang and Cho, 2013). Though most of the organizations and scholars discuss about interventions that would enable women to balance between their work demands and family commitments, it has been largely observed that at some point women face a dilemma and are forced to make a decision, between career and family, both in Western and Asian regions (e.g., in Ireland, women can have 42 weeks of maternity leave, however those who take up this benefit are less likely to be promoted) (Subramainam, Arumugam, and Akeel, 2014). Prior research into this area of career development of female employees have identified that receipt of support would be a major contributor to remain in the job and reach higher positions in one's career (Cheung and Halpern, 2010; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, and Hammer, 2011; Njiru, 2013; O'Neil, Hopkins, and Bilimoria, 2008; Valk and Srinivasan, 2011). Most of these studies discuss the spousal and parental support from family and organizational support from supervisors and through organizational initiatives such as flex-work, telework etc.

Going beyond these commonly discussed factors, the purpose of this paper is to give emphasis to one of the less discussed organizational factors affecting female representation in management - the impact of workplace relationship networks on the career development of female employees (Kwon and Milgrom, 2010; Williams and Locke, 1999). The decision to look at this aspect is also supported by a study by Metz (2005), which talks about the impact of internal networks on career development of two different categories of female employees.

Accordingly, this review paper was developed through an extensive and iterative search of literature coming from multiple academic disciplines (e.g., management, organizational behavior, human resource development and career development, sociology, psychology, leadership, gender studies, and human resource management etc.) on women and how their careers develop. The literature survey for this paper was done in two steps; in the first instance, literature covering the status of employment of women in the Sri Lankan society and the place of women in the workplace are discussed. Secondly, a narrowed down search on relationship networks and the potential impact of them on career development of female employees was performed referring to a small body of literature in the area being studied. Careful and critical review of this small stock of literature indicated a noticeable and important gap in the literature and this paper is an attempt to partially contribute to the field of career progression of women through social relationships and networks.

2.2. Career Development of Female Employees

With the increasing interest towards achieving gender diversity in organizations, in the recent years, a rise in the number of women pursuing administrative and managerial careers have been observed the world over (Linehan, Scullion, and Walsh, 2001, Subramaniam et al., 2014). It could be witnessed that, the trend in the West, where women have broken through the glass ceiling, is being transferred to the Asian countries as well (O'Neil, Hopkins, and Sullivan, 2011). According to Burke and Vinnicombe, (2005), women are now gradually gaining entry into once male-dominated fields and professions as well as into the ranks of the top and middle-level management. Most of these records of achievement in gender diversity often come from top companies in the world where they outperform average corporations by around 50% in figures related to the share of women in the leadership pipeline (Barsh and Yee, 2012).

Though there is a rise of women entering non-traditional, gender atypical careers in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEMs) and work contexts such as IT companies (Wijayawardena, Wijewardena, and Samaratunge, 2017) it is observed that, in the Sri Lankan and Asian contexts, women are still under-represented in senior management positions even in female-dominated industries such as banking (Afande, 2015), where they unintentionally filter out top female talent. This confirms that still the organizations in Sri Lanka, in a similar vein to the region have failed in achieving a satisfactory status in ensuring gender parity in organizations. Unfortunately, this is despite the gender equality policies and affirmative action programs introduced by organizations during the past two decade period. According to Kiaye and Singh (2013) and Kunze and Thorburn (2014), there is no any senior management team in any global organization which is gender equal and similarly in Sri Lanka also it is observed that women are not equally accounted for in considering for CEO and board positions. Scholten and Witmer (2017) state that, one prevailing explanation for this scenario is the fact that “women are not provided equal opportunities early in the leadership identification process” (p.48) and hence, they are not considered as potential candidates for leadership positions in succession planning. This unequal treatment is not only associated with the promotional processes but also throughout the recruitment and selection stages as well as the whole talent management process. This is mainly associated with the closed external recruitment processes in organizations for senior management positions, handled by recruitment agencies, headhunting organizations, and recruitment managers of organizations who behold that the position of a manager equals a male, with the commonly held gender constructions of roles in the society (Tienari et al., 2013). Nevertheless, it is also important to mention the efforts made by some of the leading private sector organizations in Sri Lanka to promote gender equality. These organizations, mostly the subsidiaries of leading Multinational National Corporations (MNCs), have implemented a number of tools and practices to ensure gender equality under their diversity and inclusion arms. They promote gender equality as one of their corporate values and attempt to create an atmosphere of a modern, attractive, gender-equal workplace. Furthermore, those organizations have initiated more transparent resourcing policies in their organizations, where they recruit highly competent candidates irrespective of their gender. This indicates that albeit, leadership still being a gendered construct in Sri Lanka, mostly with its national cultural influence, these MNC subsidiaries are mainly

following a competency-based leadership approach for recruitment and leadership development.

Regardless of the extensive discussion taking place in Sri Lanka, on increasing the number of women in board/top positions in both the public and private sector organizations, the priority given for the same in the political agenda is very low (Gunawardene, 2016). Though gender equality policies continue to develop among the corporate sector and though Sri Lanka is the forerunner in South Asia in terms of assigning a chair in the board room for women, it is very unfortunate that a national level policy dialogue in this area, is not actively implemented so far. Compared to the most developed countries in the world which occupy top ranks in the world happiness index like Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland etc. (Hetter, 2017), Sri Lanka lags far behind. In Sri Lanka, there are minimal legislation and programs to reduce the inequality between men and women, especially in employment. Due to this lag behind nature of the initiatives, it is not possible even to find the numbers on gender distribution in boards and management teams in Sri Lanka. Yet, it is appreciative that the government is providing more opportunities to women than before in assigning top administrative roles such as the Secretary to the Ministry, Additional Secretary etc. and hence, women are progressively entering public sector organizations.

Further investigations on to what holds women back over men, in reaching the top of the career ladder, Sullivan, Mainiero, and Forret (2006) state that usually there are lesser obstacles for the career development of men compared to women. As a result, the careers of male employees demonstrate a linear progression where they progress as planned in most cases. Instead, there are a number of factors such as age, marital status, job level, educational qualifications and attainments, as well as the family-related barriers that contribute to the progression/hinder the career development of female employees (Subramaniam, Arumugam and Akeel, 2013). These can be identified as a mix of cultural and organizational barriers and unfortunately only a very small percentage (33%) of men believe that these barriers exist for women in reaching the top (Institute of Leadership and Management, 2012). This is a major reason behind the lower proportion of women occupying top organizational leadership positions despite women achieving much better grades in most of the educational hurdles in the examination systems of Sri Lanka.

Out of the wide array of factors influencing (positively and negatively) to the career development of female employees, a number of studies have been undertaken on many and the next section looks at a less discussed factor - human relationships - which would largely contribute to the career development of females with potential.

2.3. Role of Relationship Networks

Based on the Relational-Cultural Theory (RCT) (Miller, 1976) and other literature, it is identified that human relationships play a major role in the existence and development of people. Human relationships play a major role in one's development (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, and Giles, 1999). Accordingly, it could be suggested that the relationships of different forms by female employees with other work colleagues play a major role in their career development. In this regard, the relationships between bosses and female subordinates become crucial (Hurst et al., 2016). Due to the feminine nature of women, they seek for strong bonds and relationships with work colleagues than their male counterparts and in that regard, apart from the supervisors, the networks and mentors also play a crucial role (Higgins and Kram, 2001). For them to be committed to task-oriented performance, backing and motivation often have to come through the friendships, which is a different scenario from men (Hurst et al., 2016). Men are believed to be strong in dealing with situations independently and they focus on goal attainment, whereas female managers expect caring and generosity from the superiors and work colleagues, as a source of motivation (Lyness and Heilman, 2009). In this regard, access to workplace networks and availability of mentors play a crucial role in getting the required performance from female employees in workplaces.

It has been identified in the literature that networking and mentoring are central factors for career development of any employee (Crocitto, Sullivan, and Carraher, 2005; Knorr, 2005). According to Carter and Silva (2010 as cited in Hurst et al., 2016), networking and mentoring have a major impact in improving the career prospects of employees in general and women in specific. This has been further confirmed by Madsen (2006), where she has concluded that effective networking lays the grounds for successful long-term leadership for women. Strong networks and mentors provide support and empowerment, which are essential for the mental and emotional well-being of female employees in stressful work environments ("Women Wanted", 2015), highly influenced by both national and organizational politics in Sri Lankan organizations (Kodisinghe, 2011). Given this situation, it could

be suggested that having a strong relationship network may provide the necessary mental strength for women in Sri Lanka to develop in their careers, even in situations where they lack family support or have family circumstances hindering the progress. In this regard, the influence on female employees becomes exponential when the network is filled with women or when the mentors are women, in the Sri Lankan context. As such, most of the private sector organizations both in Sri Lanka and worldwide have been extensively providing training for employees on networking skills and managing a mentor-mentee relationship (Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur, 2006). Apart from these formal mentoring programs initiated by organizations, female employees also develop their own networks and seek their own mentors, buddies, and coaches. It sometimes produces more productive results than officially initiated networks and mentoring programs (Inzer and Crawford, 2005). But unfortunately, all these things are commonly seen in private sector organizations and are hardly seen in public sector organizations.

Still, the situation observed in Sri Lanka and South Asia on the subject of networking is different, as certain women's groups are only sincere and outspoken in certain circumstances. Furthermore, women in most of the organizations, have less access and reach to influential mentors compared to males, due to certain organizational and cultural limitations (Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb, 2011). This scenario is very common and largely observed in the Sri Lankan context, where women lack opportunities to get connected with capable and influential mentors due to certain restrictions in the society, in the workplaces, and in the family. This is also associated with certain cultural and religious norms in the society and the associated negative image that would be created through this kind of networks (Ragins, 1989). Hence, there are situations in the South Asian and especially in the Sri Lankan culture where female employees are scared to enter into these kinds of developmental relationships, as they can be largely misinterpreted and misunderstood by the society and could thereby negatively influence the matrimonial relationships.

According to Miller (1986), catering to the relationship needs of each other, both in the family and the workplace have been identified as a feminine activity in the Western society and there is no difference in the Eastern society as well. In the Asian society, all the activities related to maintaining relationships with relatives, friends, servants, neighbors, the village etc. were handled by the woman of the house where the male partner was the sole breadwinner of the family (Allen and Hawkins, 1999). This is mainly due to the special competency in females

in developing and maintaining relationships which root in their character qualities such as kindness, generosity, affection, and empathy etc. Thus, from the past, women had placed more emphasis on relationships everywhere, including the workplace, where they tend to build personal friendships and relationships compared to men, who maintain task oriented short term work relationships (Sias, 2009). as argued in the RCT, these human relationships are of major importance to women in their career development as well as in obtaining the emotional and social support required for coping with the stress caused by the excessive demands of both work and family domains (Litwin, 2011). Moreover, women expect these relationships to be taken to the realm of friendship beyond a workplace association, compared to men who focus only on maintaining friendships required for the situation (Kurtosi, 2008). Through these linkages, it is obvious that women with strong friendship networks are capable of developing their careers compared to their female counterparts who do not have strong friendship networks (Higgins and Kram, 2001).

Despite all this, Litwin (2011) points out that, most of the women do not succeed long with their friendship networks, mostly in the Asian context due to their uncommunicative nature. Women rarely discuss their relationship expectations in both matrimony and in the friendship networks, and this leads to a great degree of misunderstandings and conflict both in their matrimonial relationships and their work and friendship networks (Case, 1988). Accordingly, as stated by Hurst et al. (2016), conflicts worsen due to great unmet expectations from their colleagues, which occur as the expectations are not clearly communicated. Women expect more close and relational behavior from their managers, mentors, coaches, and work colleagues, and conflicts arise when those network members demonstrate more 'masculine' and 'western' type of behavior compared to the relationship-oriented behavior of Asians (Babin and Boles, 1998). in contrast to the Western context, most of the female employees in Sri Lanka and South Asia expect their managers to demonstrate more 'feminine' and Asian type of leadership and these differential expectations lay the foundation for most of these conflicts. in this regard, if employees have strong support networks in the form of mentors, coaches, buddies, a group of strong friends etc. they would be able to face the conflicts that they face with much courage. Women with strong support from their mentors and networks also would courageously face certain organizational pressures and unfavorable

treatment by bosses in occasions such as promotions, nominations for training programs and foreign tours, granting approval for leave applications etc.

With the influences coming from the feminist movement in the West and the education system, it is observed that there is a gradual tendency today, among the Sri Lankan women to develop a greater degree of solidarity to overcome these negative encounters. This is largely observed in the academia and among the women with 'masculine' qualities, where they attempt to take collective action for the progress (Šadl, 2009).

2.4. Influence of Feminist Movement

According to Hurst et al. (2016), the feminist movement is traditionally integrated and supported by the concept of 'sisterhood'. Aune (2013) also confirms this idea, where she says, 'sisterhood' was crucial to the success of 1970s feminism. Sisterhood refers to the notion that, women will stand united when together and support one another to confront sexism and inequality created by male domination (Tong and Botts, 2014; Wolf, 1994). This idea falls in line with the saying, "two are better than one; because together they can work more effectively. If one of them falls down, the other can lift her up". Based on these understandings, there is a general expectation in the feminist solidarity movement that women, when they have power and authority and strong relationship networks within the organizations or the society, will support the other women to develop their careers and achieve senior leadership and administrative positions (McGregor, 2012). Accordingly, powerful women in the public sector organizations are expected to extend their support to other women employees through nurturing and acting as mentors or role models (Hurst et al., 2016). Mavin (2006), suggests that this would also contribute to decreasing the level of gender inequality in organizations more than many of the expensive initiatives, by ensuring a higher level of equal representation of women in senior leadership levels in organizations. These notions hint better career development opportunities for women when they have stronger female networks than male networks, and demand further confirmation through empirical investigation.

Though the feminist movement is gaining momentum in the Sri Lankan society, certain uncandid behaviors of women, who work with their own personal agendas have prevented the movement from gaining the momentum and producing the desired results. Hence, still, these movements haven't been much capable

of bringing any changes in the organizational context. Though the feminist movement promotes sisterhood, where women support each other, there are certain attitudinal influences, which prevent women from being committed to these behaviors too. As such most of the women still remain only as nominal feminists in the Asian society. This has also been highlighted by Sheryl Sandberg, Chief Operating Officer of Facebook, where she states that women expect support from other women in the workplaces, but it is not always provided, as they do not really practice the notion of sisterhood. This act of divided behavior of women is referred to as the Queen Bee Syndrome by Hurst et al. (2016). It explains the counter behavior and aggression of certain women towards the interests of their female peers and subordinates. As explained previously, in the Sri Lankan and South Asian context, this is a largely observed phenomenon and therefore needs to be extensively investigated along with the other barriers for career progression of female employees in organizations. Staines, Tavis, and Jayaratne (1974) have also found this in their exploration of attitudes towards other women by female employees, that successful women with anti-feminist perceptions have exhibited behaviors coined as Queen Bee Syndrome. They believe that if they have succeeded in a male-dominated society by overcoming the barriers by themselves, the women of future generations also should be able to do the same. Such women also have the attitude that if they have reached these positions facing quite a lot of challenges; the next generations also should make their achievements amidst difficulties. Certain masculine and individualistic qualities developed by successful women in their journey towards accomplishment also push them to develop an attitude where they do not see the necessity of a feminist movement, but what you need is your own courage. Furthermore, they also tend to have a selfish attitude that only a few women should be in higher organizational ranks. Furthermore, women in higher ranks tend to persuade the society and the system as fair and tend to argue that networks and support relationships are not required, with the hidden expectation of preventing other women from reaching the top. Ultimately it is these women who have reached the top, tend to maintain the competitive systems within the organizations preventing other women from reaching the top easily.

Sometimes the masculine qualities developed by successful women who have reached top organizational ranks, also make them lose their femininity and manage organizations in a masculine type of behavior (Lahiti, 2013). They ultimately become blind to the discriminant policies within organizations and tend to propagate that

the organizational systems are fair and equitable and career development is on merit (Gilbert, Stead, and Ivancevich, 1999). This behavior of women in top ranks prevents the steps to be taken to remove the actual barriers prevalent against women, and these successful women in top ranks themselves act as a major barrier towards, other fellow women reaching top organizational ranks. Furthermore, these women who are in top ranks also tend to think that if other women also reach their ranks, that will be a major threat to their ability to remain unique and as a result, they develop an inclination not to favor women (Derks, Van Laar, and Ellemers, 2016). Through this kind of behavior, it is observed that women in top organizational ranks are directly and indirectly hindering the progress of other women. This also can be associated with the human tendency to retain power once achieved by creating barriers to others. It is possible to suggest another explanation to this behavior of successful women, where it could be that the masculine qualities that they developed to overcome the barriers in a male dominated work environment that push them towards a 'Queen Bee' type behavior. In most cases women have artificially planted male traits on them to overcome the barriers created by male dominated societies and later on, those qualities have become part and partial of their lives which have been interpreted and judged by other women and the society as aggressive behavior.

It could be proposed here that with the increasing number of females in the society and the increasing number of female graduates passing out from both Management and Arts faculties of the country, the organizations should start thinking about strategies that would strengthen the rapport between employees, through assigning coaches, mentors, and buddies to support women to develop their careers. Here they also need to also monitor the invisible barriers created by other women in top managerial positions. This would contribute to developing the much-needed stock of women leaders required by organizations to strengthen the corporate demands of the 21st Century.

2.5. Summary and Conclusion

In summary, it could be stated that considering the factors discussed above, it is depicted that, the South Asian society especially including Sri Lanka need to undergo a major macro-level societal transformation if it is to bridge the gender gap prevalent in the society and establish a long lasting change. Though there are solidarity movements of women in the Sri Lankan and South Asian societies, it would take a few more years for the womanhood to gain the desired level of emancipation.

There is a major role to be played by the female senior management of both public and private sector organizations in Sri Lanka in this regard. They need to work towards developing the careers of their female subordinates, by extending support through empowerment in the work context and extending psychological support for them to develop the coping behaviors during the stressful demands from both work and family. In this regard, relationship and support networks provided to female employees in the form of mentors, buddies, coaches, or even as work colleagues would be a very cost effective low-cost option to be utilized by organizations.

2.6. Directions for Further Research

This review opens up a number of important avenues for future academic research. According to Hurst et al. (2016), there is a huge dearth of research addressing this area and it calls for a great deal of work in this area. Accordingly, this study forms the basis for a future qualitative study to be done following the inductive approach (theory building rather than theory testing) using narratives of women employees who have strong relationship networks at work and who do not have such networks, from Sri Lanka representing both private and public sectors. The arguments proposed in this study can be empirically confirmed by a study delving into the lived experiences of female employees who had been having strong relationship networks at work and collecting data on their experiences to evaluate whether they have succeeded or failed. This would enable a deeper understanding of the role played by relationship networks in shaping the careers of female employees for better or for worse. The research strategy suitable for this empirical study is a qualitative method where the researcher would take an inductive approach for theory building. If the research context would be the Sri Lankan public sector, the findings of the empirical study would generate a lot of valuable insights not only to the area of women in management but also to public administration.

This does not mean that a quantitative approach will be inappropriate the way forward. Based on this review paper and a further review of the literature, a theoretical framework can also be derived along with the hypotheses to be tested.

This paper motivates the academics in the fields of 'women in management' and gender studies, to critically explore the role of relationship networks on developing the careers of female employees to reach top managerial positions and also for leadership scholars to look at the same in organizational situations rather than limiting the investigations to only look at women.

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CHAPTER 3

CONFLICT BETWEEN WOMEN'S NATURAL ROLE AND ECONOMICAL ROLE IN THE CONTEMPORARY SOCIO ECONOMIC SYSTEM

3.1. Introduction

This paper is basically focused to review the conflict between the natural or biological role of women and women's contribution towards the economic development in the contemporary socio economic system as a female employee. When consider about the natural or bio logical role of a women, absolutely women is exist to carrying out the reproductive system and give birth to child and look after child until the child can survive along. Even though the natural or biological role of the women is to carry out the human reproduction task in a natural systematic method, women also have a socio economic role to play in the modern system. Also this factor considered as a vital to achieve the so-called economical development. But it can be identified that there is very huge gap in between the natural role of a women and economical role of a women as a female employee in modern times. Simply this phenomenon can be defined as a work life balance issue in female employees. Moreover, this gap is lead to create many issues to the life of modern individuals and the entire society as well. According to the modern theories of development economics women's contribution towards the economic development as an employee is one of its key dimensions. Therefore, to maintain the balance between the women's natural role and the economic role as a female employee is become a vital part for the absolute progression of the human society. Moreover, to understand about this phenomenon is very much useful to the policy makers, educators and those who are interested to the study of gender and economics. The primary method of this study was reviewing the literature and the author tried to explain the above mentioned phenomenon through a simple conceptual model. At the same time this

study will open the door to many further research and realistic arguments about the considered scope of the study. Moreover, the main purpose of this article is to review the outcomes or consequences due to the gap in between the nature of women's biological role and the economic role of women as a female employee.

At the beginning, this article is reviewing the basic historical moments which are contributed to change the human society. Under this topic the reasons and the origination of the industrial revolution in 18th century will be reviewed. This review will help to understand how the external environmental changes have effect to changing the women's role in time to time. Next, this article is reviewing about the basic biological role of women and after that the article is going to discuss about the economic role of the women in the modern context. The gap between the women's biological role and the economic role will be review by using the simple conceptual model and the review of literature is providing many evidence to prove the argument. Finally, the paper will be ended up with discussion and conclusions.

3.2. Historical moments

The Role of women and women's contribution to the progression of human society is very much significant. From the ancient era woman has been contributed to the many activities as same as the man including religious, educational and political and economic.

Before the industrial revolution, in the Europe the woman's role was limited to the household activities and the domestic agricultural activities without wages. Most of the other part of the world including Asia, Middle East and Africa was also the same. The evidence from the very ancient civilization including Mohenjo-daro, Mesopotamia, Nile valley and Hovanho civilizations are proved that the women also contributed there labor to agricultural work.

With the commencement of the industrial revolution in the 18th century human life was changed significantly. The industrial revolution was an absolute result of the findings of new physics theories including sir Isaac Newton's law of mechanics (Kaku, 2010). The applications of the mechanics were able to transform the entire western European region in to the largest industrial power house. The factory system and mass production was replaced the traditional agricultural based economy and the new trading system also begun.

At the same time the political economic philosopher Adam Smith published his classical economic theory on his book called "An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations". As a result of implementing the classical economic theory

the labor utilization to the production process also begun with the concept of specialization and paid labor became a factor of production (The School of life, 2014)

The combination of science and classical economic theories was able to put the foundation stone to the so called capitalism economic system. As a result of those environmental changes many human life on earth was changed and moved to new lifestyle as a labor in part of a production system. Historical evolution of labor ages as 18th century agricultural age – farmers, 19th century industrial age – factory workers, 20th century information age – knowledge workers and 21st century conceptual age – creators and empathizers (Pink, 2005).

Considering about the modern day economy, organizations are playing vital role to produce goods and services to fulfill the needs and wants of the people in the society. In this entire production process, the women's are also a significant part as a work force or employees including every industry and the sectors. It's visible that in the modern organizations, women's are providing their labor to the process of value addition as same as the man to produce different types of goods and services. This means that the more women's are joined to the economy as female employees to achieve the individual as well as the national economic objectives.

In the end of 1980's the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) also introduced human development index in order to measure the development levels of each countries rather than measuring the gross domestic product. In this context the gender related inequality also eliminated and at the same time this dimension become one of the key factors of measuring the level of development. The result of this process was introduced Gender Development Index (GDI). Moreover, Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) also introduced to measure the distribution and participation of women in the political as well as the economic life. All the development programs was focus to improve the women's contribution towards the national development and they are trying to achieve all citizens standard of living with considering each and every aspects including health, education, employment for everybody without gender discrimination and also they believed that the more women's should be involved in the economic development.

3.3. Biological nature of women

Whatever the economic activities were done by the human the reality is the human been is a natural product. It means that there is a natural role combined with the human been. Within this natural context the term Sex refers to biological

difference in between man and women. This can be explained as a man is consisting of chromosomes XY and the women are consisting of chromosomes XX. Gender differences can be identified due to the resulting of sex differences. According to that man and women are not act, react, think and feel similarly way because each brains also behaving differently at the same time the primary chromosomes difference in man and women is the reason for basic hormonal difference (McLeod, 2014).

Therefore it's proved that the man and women are biologically different while the natural role of the man and women also different. But, within the artificial environment like economic environment it can be argued that there are many behavioral mismatches and those mismatches can be created harmful outcomes to the individual human bean as well as to the entire human society. Within this context it can be identified the basic mismatches in between the women and women's economic activities and also it's outcomes to the individuals and the society. Therefore this paper is basically addressed to explain the above phenomena by reviewing the literature and the author has developed a conceptual model to explain this phenomena. Moreover, this paper is only discussed about the scope of the conflicts in between female employment in the modern context and women's natural or biological role. The study is very much significant because this study is opening the many doors to further quantitative or qualitative research as well as the study is facilitating to understand the problems related to the female employees in a conceptual way.

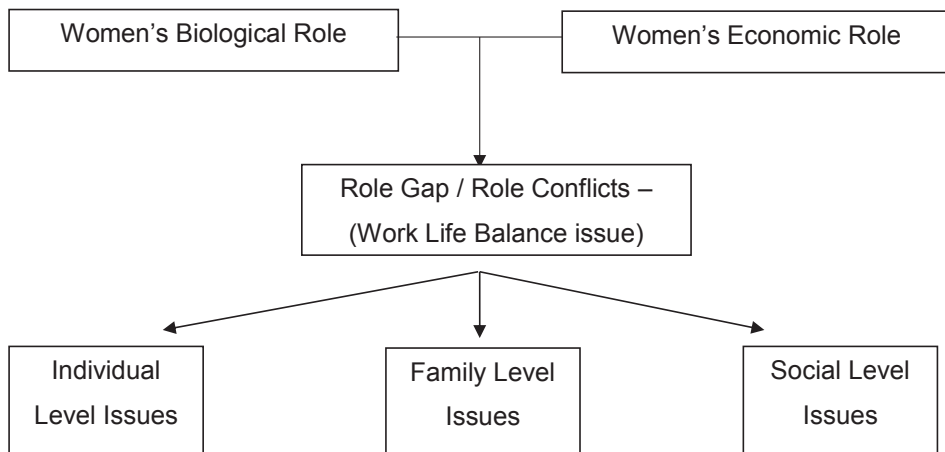
3.4. Economic role of women

Naturally human beans are not willing to work for someone or any organization. This is the fundamental reason for paying or rewarding for the work while motivate a person who is doing what he is naturally not willing to do. Because, the biological structure and the system of humans were designed to perform a set of natural tasks. Like all other animals human bean also willing to eat, have relaxed and do sex. Moreover, this can be explained through the low level needs of the early motivational theories including Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It can be argued that basic reason for the following mentioned individual and social issues as the existing mismatches in between the female employee's economical role and the women's biological role. Simply these mismatches can be defined as problems of work life balance. Moreover, work life balance issues are lead to create three levels of issues in working female's life and to the society such as individual level issues, family level issues and finely social level issues. Female employee's psychological issues and physiological

issues are some of the examples for individual level issues, role conflict as an absolute mother and employee, early childhood development issues due to mom’s employment and issues which are related to the psychological well been of the house hold due to mom’s employment are some of the examples for family level issues and those family level and individual level issues will lead to many social issues.

3.5. Conceptual Framework of the Study

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework for understand the conflicts in between women’s biological / natural role and economic role and its outcomes.



Source: own compilation.

The above conceptual model for understanding the conflicts in between female employee’s biological / natural role and economical role and its outcomes can be illustrated as follows.

The conceptual model assumed that there is a role conflict in between the women’s biological/ natural role and the women’s economical role in the modern socio economic system. According to the modern context this phenomenon can be identified as a work life balance. Moreover, it’s also assumed that the role gap or role conflict will lead to three types of issues including individual level, family level and the social level. Consider about the individual level, due to the role conflict female

employees are facing to many psychological issues as well as the physiological issues. When focus to the family environment, due to the above mentioned role conflict many parties are suffering. In this case children are taking very significant place. Most of the time female employees are unable to perform the task as an absolute mother. This will be a very good reason for early childhood development issues and domestic or house hold issues which has a negative impact to the family well been. Consider about the entire society, the family can be identified as its smallest organization. Based on that relationship if there is any issue or set of issues within the family, there is a possibility to create any social issue.

3.6. Literature Review

Many cultures in the world believe that the primary role of women is to build and maintain the homely affairs including take care of family and child. Moreover, In the traditional society, women's role was naturally limited to the family. Because she was the bearer of children, she was fully occupied with her duties as a mother and homemaker (Muntazir M, Neharshi S, Manju P, 2014).

Considering about the modern era, this is the era of science and technology lead the work place and at the same time psychological stress has become a universal issue. When focus to the female employees, everyone wants more and more for achieve of desire objective in a competitive way. Due to this reason its increases psychological stress among people. Healthy competition is acceptable but as a result of this situation more and more women are moved to many jobs (Abrol, 1990).

Work life balance can be defined as "an employee's perception that multiple domains of personal time, family care, and work are maintained and integrated with a minimum of role conflict" (Clark, 2000) and (Ungerson & Yeandle, 2005). "The work-family balance reflects an individual's orientation across different life roles, an inter-role phenomenon" (Marks and MacDermid, 1996). Work-life balance is a major issue in all types of employment. Dual-career families have become common in the society as well as the high work demands with long working hours also become the custom in the society. As a human resource management strategy the importance of helping employees achieve a balance between the work demands of their work and their family and home lives has been highlighted. It's visible that the demographic changes and increasing number of women in the workplace as an employees and dual career families have generated a progressively diverse workforce and a greater need of

employees to balance their work and private non work life (Bharat, 2003) (Komarraju, 1997) (Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000) (Ramu, 1989) (Sekharan, 1992). Number of working women has increased due to knowledge economy created greater opportunities and work accesses to the women's (Grossman 1981). The knowledge economy has open the door to many occupational opportunities to the women's as a gift but this situation has become a great challenge for the every working women because they are also need to work similar to the man and at the same time this will created internal pressures and role conflicts. "By fulfilling their economic needs, employment has no doubt made women independent with an identifiable social status but it has also made them to juggle into two main domains of lifework and family. They have stepped into work place but the role responsibilities of women still remain the same, i.e., women may be a top executive, still the "nurturing" or "care giving" roles are considered much a part of feminine roles." (Sunita Malhotra & Sapna Sachdeva, 2005).

When considering about the psychological issues which are related to the female employees the stress can be identified as one of the major psychological issues. "The non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it" and further stress was defined as "any external event or internal drive which threatens to upset the organismic equilibrium" (Hans, 1936). Working married female employees have to face more difficulties in their lives including they experienced more mental stress and depression as compared to non-working married women (Hashmi et al, 2007).

3.7. Discussion

Natural science already proved that there is a difference in between man's biology and the women's biology. The primary reasons for those differences are physical structure and the internal body chemical process. Moreover, chromosomes are responsible for maintain the above structural and chemical differences to protect and human as human. According to that the nature has defined the role of man and women very specifically. Also all the tasks which are beyond this natural role can be identified as an artificial activities which made by the humans including economical activities.

Throughout the evolution humans became more and more complex than any other creature on the earth. Human was able to go beyond the natural phenomena and they were created many artificial systems including social system and

economical system. Many ancient civilizations also provide evidences about that and 18th Century was changed the entire course of human history because of the industrial revolution. After that the employment or labor factor became highly significant. As a result of this series of events throughout the timeline women became more important to the production process as a paid employee under the capitalism economic structure.

Later on women contribution to the economic development considered as a key factor. As a result of this many women's became paid employees apart from their natural role to survive and achieve individual economic freedom in the modern system.

As discuss about the conceptual framework this situation going cross the women's natural or biological role and the ultimate result was creating a role conflict in between women's natural or biological role and the women's economical role. Moreover, it can also be discuss as the women's natural and biological role and the economic role are two different paradigms which cannot go simultaneously. This conflict was lead to women's individual level issues, family level issues and social level issues. Currently many academics are studying and conducting researches related to this area under the topic of work life balance.

3.8. Conclusions

Human being is a natural product. Both man and women have to perform a natural role for the survival as an earth species. It is visible that the role conflict in between women's natural or biological role and the economic role in the modern socio economic system, and at the same time this conflict leads to create many issues including women's individual level, family level and finally the social level.

Moreover, the above mentioned role conflict can be defined as "it is a role conflict specially related to the female's those who are employed for achieving the so called human development indicators as well as achieving the standard of living by forgone their natural role with the perceived stimulation of external environmental factors. Therefore, the opportunity cost of female employment will be neglecting the women's natural role".

Therefore, it is better to conduct more academic researches related to this area and at the same time all the organizations also should be focused to their attention female employee's role conflict in order to develop better human resource management practices.

As a whole, in the legal point of view this area providing many inputs to formulating policies and regulations related to the female employment and this area of study also providing benchmark practices to employing females in any industry with minimizing the above mentioned role conflicts.

The aim of the article was to review the gap in between the biological role of women and women's economic role. According to the analysis based on the review of literature, the conclusion of the study can be summarized as "the role conflict due to the gap in between biological and economic roles of the modern women is existing and this will creating many issues in individual level, family level as well as the social level".

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CHAPTER 4

POTENTIAL OF TEA TOURISM IN SRI LANKA: A REVIEW ON MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

4.1. Introduction

Tea tourism is increasingly recognized as an important scope as per the trade value and integrated contribution marked for the sustainable development in tourism industry. At present, most of the tea growing countries are practicing tea tourism as a diversified concept alongside its main stream of revenue generations in bulk tea and value added tea. Since Sri Lanka has a prominent Ceylon tea brand image embedded with quality value proposition to worldwide consumer segments, tea could also be turned as multiple channel of revenue generation to tourism sector. Alongside, the main aim of this concept paper is to study the possible managerial applications for Sri Lanka to penetrate it as a destination for tea tourism whilst postulating navigations for the future empirical researches as to contribute for the existing knowledge gaps. Further, this paper has revealed how to operationalize the managerial practices in the tea tourism as a concept-based tourism option to skim the potential revenue models. Additionally, it has postulated how Destination Brand Equity could be examined with branding related concepts in the future studies.

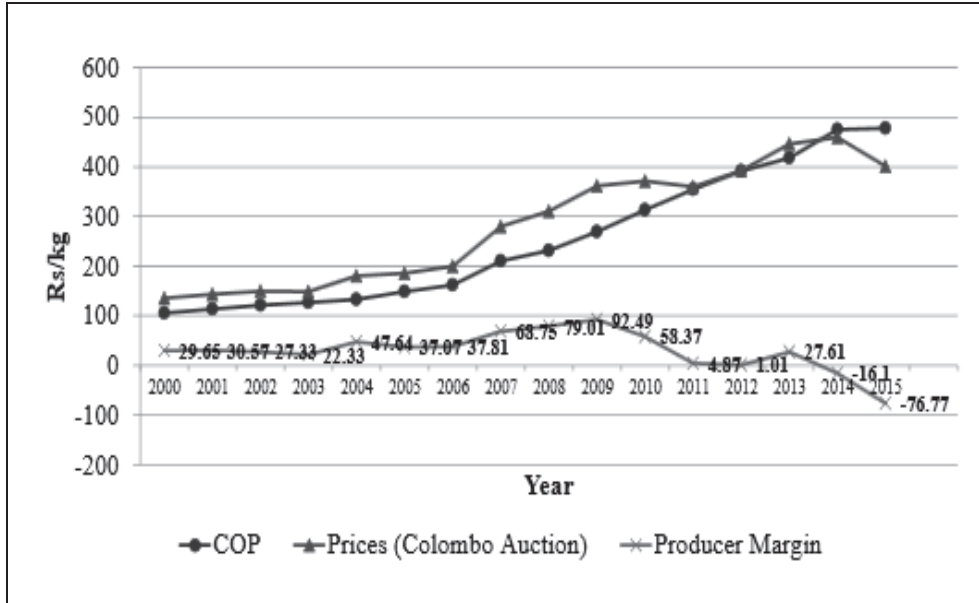
4.2. Background

Tea plantation industry plays a vital role in Sri Lankan economy in terms of gross domestic production (GDP) and tourism contexts connecting to international market. Sri Lanka is the world's fourth largest producer of tea and tea industry is one of the main sources of foreign exchange in the country. Contribution of tea industry to Sri Lanka's GDP has been declining against the expansion of the industrial

and services sectors (Central Bank Report, 2015). Nevertheless, the tea industry still remains as a vital component of Sri Lanka's exports since it is generating approximately USD 1.5 billion of revenue in 2015 and provides almost a million jobs to the economy today. the plantation industry is therefore undoubtedly critical context in the socio-economic make up. the notion of value added tea manufacturing has also been recognized as an important strategic decision to Sri Lankan to gain competitive edge in world market (Dissanayake & Wanninayake, 2010). Therefore, tea could be revitalized as a value – based industry whilst new avenues are yet to be penetrated to gain the competitive edge to holistic economic perspectives of the country.

When it refers to the composition of tea plantation industry in Sri Lanka, there are tea estates which are owned by Plantation sector and Small Holdings sector. These plantation sector estates are managing by Regional Plantation Companies (RPCs). According to Dishanka & Ikemoto (2014), early 1990s the contribution from the tea small holdings sector had been increasing while the contribution from the plantation sector had been fluctuating with a downward trend for the annual domestic tea production. At present tea plantation industry in Sri Lanka seems facing some challenges to earn profit and sustainability of the sector while managing high cost of production, increasing land use efficiency and labor productivity (Central Bank Report of Sri Lanka, 2015). Thus, Sri Lanka needs to change traditional land, labor usage and management models applicable to Regional Plantation Companies (RPCs), to enable RPCs to solve the current crisis of tea industry, especially due to comparatively low yield which leads for low profitability. the following statistical review provides the insights of the critical situation of the net gain of tea sector in Sri Lanka.

Figure 4.1: COP, Prices and Producer Margin



Source: Plantation sector statistical pocket book (2015)

Accordinging Figure 4.1 it clearly indicates that Cost of Production (COP) in the Sri Lankan tea sector has increased dramatically over its competitors and making tea industry less profitable.

This is the correct moment to apply long term value addition or diversification strategies to the plantation sector to enhance the profitability while assuring the sustainability. At the moment value addition efforts are taking place in some stages of supply chain. But the main problem is that the revenue from value addition is generally acquired by the value adding party; not by the producer. Therefore, value addition to the final product and marketing process will not address the needs of the tea plantation sector crisis. Accorodgly, applying diversification strategies for the plantation sector would be the most effective option, such as tea tourism in general.

However, plantation sector needs to apply any suitable value additions to address challengers. When it considers above facts, crop diversification still has to face for the rising cost issues unless teach-savvy options are occupied. Therefore, considering of non-crop diversification strategies would offer holistic benefits for the plantation sector while assuring the sustainable development. Tea tourism

is one of the best options for this non crop diversification. Even though Sri Lanka has resources to implement tea tourism in tea estates, there is huge gap of implantation when it compares with other tea producing competitors. Because China and India have already implemented tea tourism business models to their estates and enjoying the real intangible and tangible benefits of it. This is the high time to develop value-based business model to Sri Lanka to gain competitive edge over regional competitors. Tea tourism is a concept that results the possibility to develop a premium brand and linking expertise knowledge of the tourism industry in-order to get win-win situation for both industries. Strategic shift is essential for the tea plantation owners to come up with tourism related tea business in Sri Lanka.

According to the Koththagoda, Gunathilaka & Rathnayaka (2012), it has identified constraints to implement Tea tourism in Sri Lanka. Results were emphasized that poor financial position, lack of product variation, lack of infrastructure facility and lack security and minimum standard to be provided in tourism as the major constraints. Meanwhile, the strategic importance of value addition and positioning strategies for tea sector had been highlighted by Dissanayake & Wanninayake, (2010) providing a notion for a value based marketing approach for the tea industry.

Thus, the implementing of tea tourism should be assisted at policy framework level whilst planation level managerial focus needs to be alert on strategic thinking. Further, empirical knowledge to address the issues and the operational matters of tea tourism penetration efforts still finds not enough compared to the level of industry significance noted in the economy (Central Bank Report 2015). Meanwhile, review reports highlight the issues and challenges found in tourism and tea sector to the economy that may demand knowledge inputs to strategize the future managerial implications. Accorodgly, this this concept paper intends to identify the potential and possible marketing models to promote tea tourism in Sri Lanka as an extended model linking stakeholders into a strategic hub as a concept based tourism avenue. the main purpose of this paper is to review empirical evidences and secondary information sources. It has followed an extensive literature review as the main research tool to bridge the arguments and support for the research directions proposed whilst highlighting the needful managerial propositions.

4.3. Literature review

4.3.1. Tourism industry

World Travel and Tourism Council (2011) has defined Travel & Tourism as a truly global economic activity, one that takes place in destinations across the world, from leading capital cities and smaller towns and villages in rural and coastal areas. It is one of the world's largest industries, or economic sectors, contributing trillions of dollars annually to the global economy, creating jobs and wealth, generating exports, boosting taxes and stimulating capital investment. According to the Indian Ministry of Tourism (2006), a destination is a place of tourist interest with a group of tourist attractions located in the same village, town or city. Medlik (1993) proposed that a tourist destination can be defined as a country, region, town or other area visited by tourists. the Association of the Caribbean States (ACS, 2005) defined a tourism destination as where tourism is the predominant activity and the place has sufficient tourism facilities. They continue stating the main areas of a destination profile include location, accessibility, accommodation facilities and restaurants, tourism facts, climate, geography, population, tourism features. the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2006) notes local tourism destination as a physical space in which a tourist spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services, attractions and tourist resources with one day's return travel time. the destination is the primary location of supply, or focus of facilities and services (tourism products) that are created to cater for the needs of tourists, thus, a destination consists of components namely attractions, tourist facilities and services, infrastructure, transportation and hospitality (Keyser, 2002). Accorodgly, it is important to assess the attraction towards Sri Lanka as a tourism destination by analyzing the gap between the expected and perceived tourist facilities and services. Thus, to what extent Sri Lankan tourism has been integrated into its value propositions as a branded destination needs to be constructively assessed with empirical evidences to penetrate the future potentials. the major argument should be to examine how far it has penetrated the existing tourism related propositions to gain a competitive edge over the regional competitor's, for instance, tea as a unique value proposition in tourism.

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), International tourist arrivals grew by 4.3 % in 2014 to 1.133 billion. It has been generated US\$ 1.5 trillion in export earnings from tourism and related activities (UNWTO, 2014). Further, "UNWTO's Tourism 2020 Vision" forecasts that international arrivals are expected to reach nearly 1.6 billion by the year 2020. Although the contribution from tourism to

the Sri Lankan economy has been comparatively less for the past three decades due to the war against terrorism, Sri Lanka has again repositioned itself as a tourist destination in the world with the end of 30-year-long armed conflict, in 2009. Both global and local tourists can now freely travel anywhere in the country and enjoy this highly diversified tourism product. For example, according to the Central Bank of Sri Lanka 2009, gross tourist receipts were around Rs.mn. 40000 (US \$ mn. 400) from 2003 to 2009. The amount of Rs.mn. 40133 recorded in 2009 increased by 62% in the year 2010. This figure of Rs.mn. 65018 (US\$ mn.540) in 2010 has been more than doubled in the year 2012 by reporting Rs.mn. 132427(US\$1039) (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2014). With compared to 2012; in 2013 it has grown from 67% by recording a gross tourist receipt of Rs.mn. 221720 (US \$.MN. 715) (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2014). Further, it refers that tourists arrivals displayed 27% growth in 2013 compared to 2012 (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority- SLTDA, 2013) whilst it was 18.4% growth rate in 2015 (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority-SLTDA, 2015). However, for esaid review highlights that the net gain of tourism as integrated model to be further improved. Therefore, Sri Lanka could be considered as a significant context to be examined in line with tourism related propositions. Such examines would address to issues and opportunities through managerial and knowledge perspectives

4.3.2. Trends in Global Tourism Industry

The world tourism sector has been dynamically changing during past few decades, owing to market demand in tourism has been conceptually changed into the adjectival tourism aspects as low impact tourism. This change has been identified even by the premier body, World Tourism Organization (WTO) in its paper published in 1995. According to WTO, new kinds of lifestyle and a new realization of relationships between people and nature had pushed consumers to participate in outdoor activities, awareness of ecological problems, educational advances, aesthetic judgment and improvement of self and society. Leisure scientists and tourism scholars explain the emergence of alternative tourism models such as nature-based tourism, sustainable tourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism, and ecotourism to minimize the significant negative impacts of mass tourism on the environment, economy, and socio-cultural elements of the society (Valentine, 1993; Goodwin, 1996; Fennell, 2003). These alternative tourism models, have generated a special interest among tourism professionals because of its potential as a sustainable alternative to mass tourism, or other forms of economic

developments involving natural resources (Sirakaya & McLellan, 1998). Therefore, destination marketing with new product development is taking the most important requirement for promotion of tourism in highly referred destinations including Sri Lanka as a case of penetrating to different concepts driven tourism. In line with the notions highlighted in Central Bank Report of Sri Lanka (2015), it could make a rationale saying tea sector of the country need to focus more revenue penetration options coupled with tourism related value propositions as one of the main business models to be executed. Thus, this is the high time to promote Sri Lankan tourism industry by increasing the competitiveness via diversifying to potential tourism avenues including tea tourism, thereby, spreading the economic benefits of tourism to all parts of the country. This is a constructive approach to integrate tea and tourism as a hybrid model contributing sustainable development of the industry and ultimately achieve the goal of sustainable development of the nation.

4.3.3. Tea Tourism

Tea tourism is a diversified tourism concept from the mass tourism, which is emphasizing about getting real experience of tourism activity or event with having education and recreation rather than just visits tourism destinations (Jolliffe, 2007). Tea has its own identity of history, tradition and culture, which influence to attract tourist and strengthen up his or her motivation and pleasure to involve with tea tourism. At the moment, several tea growing countries in Asia are experiencing the real socio economic benefits of tea tourism investments. Mainly India and China are practicing tea tourism concepts as integrated models. Both countries are developing their unique experience using the geological, archeological, cultural and climatic conditions to attract the tourist. India introduced tea tourism to attract domestic and for foreign tourists to the tea plantations. The country boasts a number of tea plantations/estates for tea tourism and some of which have taken advantage of tea tourism. Chesshyre (2008) has reported that the country has 500-plus tea plantations, many of which have accommodation for visitors. It reports that tea tourism in India is becoming popular with tourists as how wine tourism is in Europe.

The Financial Express (2005) reports that guests get tours to tea gardens and pluck tea leaves. Nature walks, trekking, rafting and golf are also on offer, punctuated by as much tea tasting, as they like. Indian Holiday Tours Travel (2015) indicates that tea tourism packages provide visitors with an extensive tour of the tea gardens making them witness the whole process as to how the tea is plucked,

processed and finally available for final consumption. They are also taken on a tour of a tea factory that will allow them to experience the procedure involved in its making. Chesshyre (2008) reports that the regions of Sikkim, Darjeeling and Assam in India the majority of plantations, apart from just visiting tea estates, other events associated with tea, such as the tea tourism festival. India has marked certain tea tourism initiatives, for instance, Assam Tea Tourism Festival, which is a packaged tour concept associated with the festival: This concept is associated with tea culture, community practices and some folk dancing rituals which is a direction to claim the options available for concept based tea tourism. Additionally, China also has different types of tea, tea events, tea sets and tea customs for visitors. There is a tea museum is comprised of four groups of buildings which display the history and development of tea in China. the exhibition building is divided into six halls to show the history of growing and processing tea in China. They are the Hall of Tea History, the Kaleidoscope Hall, the Hall of Tea Properties, the Tea-friendship Hall, the Tea Sets Hall, and the Tea Customs Hall. Here, different halls illuminate different aspects of tea and its culture in China's long history. Accordingly, visitors can discover the great impact of tea on the lives of various Chinese minority groups. Likewise, India and China sound as destinations of penetrating concept based tea tourism.

Kenya and Taiwan are at an initial stage of implementation of tea tourism and Kenya has established tea hotel and Taiwan is conducting annual tea festivals to attract the specific group of tourist. Taiwan and North America have introduced English style tea houses to attract the tourist, and these trends demonstrate the transference of tea cultures and traditions across the borders and continent (Jolliffe, 2007). Not only the tea producing countries but tea consuming countries are trying to implement tea tourism to attract tourist while giving them to experience tea with tea services. Meanwhile, Sri Lanka tea estates find unique natural beauty with landscape and sound climatic condition to attract tourist to involve with tea tourism activities. When it considers the penetration intensity of Sri Lankan tea tourism industry, it is still at the early stage compared to the potentials could have been cleared. Sri Lanka has resources of implementing tea tourism model which could be targeted both niche markets and differentiated market segments focusing local and overseas customers.

When it considers of tea tourism in tea estates of Sri Lanka, most of tea estates operate tea concept based tourism as just serving tea to tourists. According to the Jolliffe (2007), at the movement Sri Lanka is also engaging tea-related tourism activities namely visits to plantations to watch the plucking and then the processing of leaves. Further, tourists visit Tea Shops typically located nearby in a renovated plantation house, where the tourist can have tea and purchase souvenirs. Some plantations have established roadside tea centers with the aim of earning extra income for the estate. Even though factory visits are included in most of the tour itineraries designed by tour operators, it was identified as less penetrated revenue option as compared to the relate options available. Recently a few RPCs have identified tea tourism as a good revenue source and promote their estate bungalows as holiday destinations (Wood, 2002). These are the few highlights of how tourists do engage with tea as a concept based tourism.

4.4. Empirical review on tea tourism: overview of concept based tourism

Tea Tourism, aligned with cultural tourism aspects and it follows most of the basic concept of food related tourism such as wine tourism of European countries like France, which many researchers those who are interested in examine concept based tourism (Demhardt, 2003). It could able to find same attributes of tea tourism from eco- tourism, agro- tourism and sustainable tourism based on how authors have defined it. Accordingly, Jolliffe (2007) has described potential of implementing tea tourism in Sri Lankan plantations industry connected to different concept based tourism models. Tea is closely related with world trade and travel because tea as a commodity and tradition which can be transformed from the traditions of one culture to the heritage of another (Jolliffe, 2007). as it finds in the global perspective, tea-related tourism is much popular in China, but now there are research work could be found in japan, Britain, USA, India etc. and many researchers descriptively focus on the significance and potential of tea tourism in certain areas; both rural and urban settings (Guo, 2001; Cao, 2006; Duan, 2006; Chen, 2005). As per the review outlined aforesaid, we do suggest the application of tea tourism as “concept based tourism” since it adds values to the generic business model of the tourism industry. Sri Lanka could practice the tea tourism as a concept based tourism in line with experiential value proposition to enhance the penetration options to embrace extended value margin to its traditional tourism business model in enhancing the net gain of tea sector. There are few studies have been conducted to investigate

the potential for promoting tea growing regions as tea tourism destinations. Further, it could suggest that the concept of tea could be integrated to overall business model of the regular tourism business of Sri Lanka to penetrate a cutting-edge position for tea culture. There are studies made an attempt to investigate problem and prospect of tea tourism sector referring interaction with the visitors and other stakeholders, for instance, it has examined present scenario of tea tourism by highlighting the existing lacuna and drawbacks (Goowalla & Neog,2011).When it considers Sri Lankan context, Fernando & Ranasinghe (2015) have conducted a study to identify the potential of developing Nuwara Eliya as a tea tourism destination by highlighting demand and supply perspectives. They have concluded the study by identifying the profile of potential tea tourists, expectations of tourists who travel to a tea-related destinations and the capabilities of Nuwara Eliya as a tea tourism destination from both demand and supply points of view. It has given recommendations for the policy makers highlighting operational perspectives. Meanwhile, as mentioned in the case study of Cheng, Xu & Zhang (2010), it has given a quantitative exploration of Chinese tea tourist's attitudes and perceptions towards tea and tea tourism and had identified profiles of the potential tea tourists. Findings revealed that Tea tourists are mainly tea lovers driven by their high interest in tea and tea culture. However, those studies have not detailed both demand and supply sides of the tea tourism contexts. Addressing to the said vacuum, Feng, Tanui, Wang, Zhuang, Yang & Li (2012) have studied about tea tourism resources in Suzhou, China by estimating contingent valuation method. It has investigated of willingness to pay (WTP) for the preservation value of the tea resources and it also provided a new dimension for the empirical content on tea tourism. The results reflect that most of respondents have a positive attitude to the environmental preservation, demonstrating that tea tourism resources have high preservation values. Significant factors that impact positively on the WTP are education level, income and attitude to the environment protection. With realization of the preservation values of tourism resources, it has highlighted policy related matters to be concerned to assist tea tourism. Meanwhile, there are studies which have conducted related to the wine tourism connected to destination marketing. the study of Gomez, Lopez and Molina (2015) have proposed a model for the influence of the Designation of Origin (DO) brand image and the destination image on the brand equity of wine tourism destinations and examining these effects on two stakeholder groups, winery managers and winery visitors.

The research has confirmed that managers evaluate wine tourism destination brand equity, DO brand image and destination image more positively than visitors do. Thus, we suggest to consider the notion of Brand Equity as a holistic frame to develop tea tourism as a concept based tourism in Sri Lanka too.

Many authors have attempted to explain the recreational behaviour through various behavioral theories. According the study of Perera & Vlosky (2013), it revealed the insights of distinct motivational and behavioral profiles of for est based tourist in Sri Lanka to understand and predict the eco-tourist behaviour. This study aimed to identify the target market aligned to the content of Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It has identified different type of tourists by suggesting “egoistic tourists” as the most important segment needs to be targeted in this kind of tourism business models by highlighting knowledge and satisfaction as the most important determinants of ecotourism behaviour. Meanwhile, Reynolds & Braithwaite (2001) claimed that eco-tourists’ satisfaction is influenced by physical attributes including tangible and intangible factors of the tourism site including facilities, design and weather whilst planning protected nature areas, financing and understanding the matters around them. Thus, tea tourism initiations and the development strategies in Sri Lanka should focus different value propositions connected to tangible and intangible value dimensions. It is a must for brand Sri Lanka as a tourism destination equipped with perceived brand equity as referred in the customer based brand equity (Keller;1993).

4.5. Propositions on Managerial Implications and Empirical Studies

Promoting Sri Lanka as a tea tourism destination is a solution for the current crises of the tea industry. Relevant responsible authorities and communities should involve in planning and implementation of tea tourism in Sri Lanka. Tea Tourism involves with numerous stakeholders resulting benefits are focused to both macro and micro levels of the economy. Besides, such implementation would positively influence to the socio-economic standards of plantation community as well. Tea Tourism is one of the special tourism concepts which is more environmentally oriented and benefit driven business model embraces holistic returns.

Most of the competitive tea producing countries already had implemented tea tourism and gaining real benefit of it. Since, Sri Lankan industries are thriving in to a service sector driven economy (Dissnayake, 2015), it could revitalize traditional

model of tea plantations into service related business model as tea-tourism service. This is a strategic move what we could initiate at policy level by providing macro level mechanisms to encourage plantation owners. Further, tea tourism is a strategic enabler to promote the brand image of Ceylon Tea by offering experiential exposure to holistic tea culture of Sri Lanka. Accordingly, this concept could be used to improve Sri Lankan tourism as a value added tourism destination. Therefore, it is high time to develop tea tourism business model to Sri Lanka while utilizing resources and making supportive policies encouraging stakeholders of the overall business model. What we suggest is to develop tea tourism as a connected model of tourism sector stakeholders namely hotels, travel planners, tea states and the public sector institution related to tea and tourism industries. A collaborative model could synergize the strategic competitiveness which leads for a sustainable gain to overall tourism sector revenue. Since this concept is at the initial stage, it is essential to conduct a proper customer profiling and develop differentiated market offerings to satisfy them. Different tour packages and product developments can be arranged based on tourist's purpose. Facilitating for value seeking tourists to enjoy a real nature-experience would be a highly demandable marketing strategy since many tourists are tend embrace augmented experiences. Accordingly, estate bungalows/ log cabins with the proper facilities can be arranged within the estates vicinity to deliver value added service to both local for eign client segments. Tea estates have huge capacity to provide different types of activities to visitors to enhance the destination personality. Tea factory visits, Nature watching, Tea field tours, Forest trekking, Bird watching, Mountain climbing, Educational activities, Village tours, Biking, Ayurvedic health activities are the potential value additions to augment the tea tourism packages. Different pricing strategies can be used for different segments as depending on customer profiles to establish value driven price proposition. Alongside, different tea tourism packages should be designed to fit with the budgets as a penetration strategy. These kinds of customized tour packages with product differentiation will lead for customer satisfaction resulting revisiting intention and destination recommendation to others.

Usually, it cannot expect regular international tourists for the particular destination as it finds in normalcy. Therefore, conducting annual tea festivals or tea events such as tea ceremony could attract specific group of tea tourists as regularly clients. Alongside, it needs to identify the relevance of for esaid initiatives for the Sri Lankan tourism in line with the seasonal trends. Customer awareness about

the product or service is a fundamental requirement of marketing a destination brand. Thus, brand awareness should be improved on core values of the tea tourism such as environmental aspects, cultural community and even performance related judgments in line with the customer based brand equity dimensions (Keller, 1993). Under such context, establishing brand awareness among potential customers is very much important for developing a strong salience for Sri Lanka as a destination brand equity offering value added experiences including tea tourism.

Therefore, policy makers and investors should give much attention to build strong awareness among potential tourists by developing marketing models based on the directions found in the strategies related to brand equity. Theoretical models namely Aaker (1991) and Keller (2003) suggest the contents to be considered in developing brand equity for any value driven marketable entities including tea sector tourism as one of the cases aforementioned. According to Aaker (1991), brand equity is expressed as a managerial and corporate strategy perspective. It has stated that the assets and liabilities linked to a brand's name or symbol can be grouped into five dimensions: brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets. Further Keller (1993) mentioned that measuring and managing brand equity depends on how consumer feel, think, and act with respect to that brand and it can define brand equity as the differences in customer response to marketing activity. in line with the said, managerial implications could be recommended to tea tourism investors to consider brand equity building strategies as an integrated model of both emotional and rational perspectives. Aligned to the positioning properties of Sri Lanka as one of the outstanding tourism destinations in the world, tea tourism could be encouraged amongst the potential visitors as a value addition coupled with regular packages.

Meanwhile, Aaker (1997) mentioned that destination personality dimensions can be used to improve the destination identity. Consumers make purchasing decisions based on any number of associations they have with individual brands, and companies could focus to bridge the brand promise into consumer behavioral dimensions to attract the potential opportunities. Therefore, marketing communications and brand building strategies could plan to communicate tea states as unique brands which offer natural diversities to customers to enjoy psychological values as connected to their life styles and personalities. a comprehensive positioning strategy for tea state brands could associate personality feelings as one

of the avenues to reflect respective brand as an exclusive identity fitting to the consumer profiles.

However, industries need to have knowledge sources and empirical research insights to sharpen the managerial decisions to optimize business opportunities. We do highlight the knowledge gap exists in Sri Lanka in terms of tea tourism related studies which is a key need to investigate the behavioral responses of customers towards the offerings found in tea tourism. Accordingly, comprehensive studies on how branding-related matters influence purchasing behaviour of consumers could address to the research gaps of tea tourism. Meanwhile, the importance of how significantly contributing industries should be supported by empirical studies has been highlighted as a timely needed research priority in Sri Lanka (Dissanayake 2015; Dissanayake & Ismail, 2015). Therefore, we do suggest that tea tourism as a notable context to be investigated in empirical researches as it signs a significance contribution to gross domestic production (GDP), exports income and specifically as a potential avenue to enhance the tourism sector income in future tenure (Central Bank Report, 2015). Thus, we summarize postulating navigations for the future studies to examine how brand equity does relate to purchasing behaviour of potential tourists towards Sri Lanka as a tourism destination where tea tourism as a value adding offer within. Moreover, the effect of destination brand personality on brand related responses could also be examined to impart empirical inputs for the practitioners of tourism sector. Likewise, Sri Lankan tourism sector needs comprehensive managerial focus assisted by empirical knowledge to penetrate the potential of tea tourism as a concept based value proposition within the tourism sphere.

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CHAPTER 5

GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

5.1. Introduction

Throughout the world, the gender differences in the labour market has constantly been studied and all the major indicators of the labour market have also pointed out the clear gender differences in the market. Labour participation rate of women has been low on many countries compared to the labour participation rate of men, one of the many reasons for this situation is gender discrimination and Sri Lankan labour market is no exception (Adu-Oppong, 2012).

In common, women have the assumed role as caregivers or nurtures. This assumption would be placed on women that joins the work force as well and creating a doubt in their capacities of being money makers.

The doubt is also due to the fact, despite being engaged in productive activities (being employed), women also have to engage in reproductive activities, and social activities that would be resultant in an increase their responsibilities (Madurawala, 2012).

Literacy rate of Sri Lanka is higher than that of expected for a third world country. According to the Ministry of High Education and Highways, Sri Lanka has the highest literacy rate in South Asia which would make Sri Lanka to be among the countries that have a high literacy rates in Asia (Department of Census and Statistics, 2014). With this, literacy rate of women has also increased greatly compared to 1881, however still the literacy rate of men is higher compared to women even though the gap has decreased over the years. Women's contribution to Sri Lankan economy has also increased with the increase of the literacy rate.

Women entering the Sri Lankan workforce had risen from 1.6 M in 1995 to 2.0 M in 2000 and 3.3 M in 2014. According to the Sri Lanka Labour Force Survey, in 2014 females accounted for 36.0% of the employed labour force, as against 30.9% in 1995. However the male labour participation rate is 65% which is nearly twice as the female labour participation rate (Labour Force Survey, 2014). The disparity between the male and female literacy rates and employment rates show the existence of gender discrimination of female employees.

Additionally, women in Sri Lanka are often involved in the jobs of the informal sector where wage disparities compound discrimination. Women are also responsible for bringing in the largest proportions of foreign exchange as migrant workers in the informal sector, plantation workers of the formal sector, and the garment factory workers where they would find themselves at the lowest steps of the employment ladder (ILO, 2009) which further proves the discrimination against female employees.

On the other side, organizational citizenship behavior could be defined as non-mandatory behavior of an individual, which are not clearly or directly recognized by the formal reward system and in aggregate however those behaviours would contribute to the effective functioning of an organization (Organ, 1988). Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has a great value as it contributes to success and performance of an organization. Many researchers have studied the positive outcomes of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2009, Xerri and Brunetto, 2013). Organizational behaviours are also result of positive job attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and fair perception (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Gender discrimination would affect these job attitudes negatively (Hitlan et al., 2006). The purpose of this paper is therefore to explore the roots of the gender discrimination and possible areas where gender discrimination can specially be identified in Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.

5.2. Gender Discrimination

Discrimination is a social practice that systematizes prejudicial attitudes into informal or formal segregation of social groups or classes highlighted by the collective prejudice. This is a practice that cultural tastes of dominant social class or group are affected negatively in social classes or groups they consider to be substandard (Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology, 2006). Gender is also a clarification system based on categories “men” and “women” that are socially constructed as

opposite sex. This is based on physical and biological differences that form “male” and “female” categories (Penguin Dictionary of Sociology, 2006).

Sen (2003) elaborated how the term “gender” is better than the term “women” as an analytical tool in the study of discrimination: “the importance of gender as a crucial parameter in social and economic analysis is complementary to, rather than competitive with, the variable of class, ownership, Occupations, incomes, and family status. The systematically inferior position of women inside and outside the household in many societies’ points to the necessity of treating gender as a force of its own in development analysis. Sex-specific observations and gender categories cannot be taken out of a development analysis”

Equal treatment being denied based on gender is known as gender discrimination (Zipfel and Kleiner, 1998). According to the Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary of Law (1996) gender discrimination is explained as discrimination based on sex, especially against women. There could be direct and indirect characters in gender discrimination according to the EU legislation. Direct discrimination occurs when one person is treated less constructively due to gender than another, would be treated in a comparable situation (Prechal and Burri, 2009).

The wage gap between men and women holding same job position or performing same duties at a workplace is a typical example for direct gender discrimination (Welle and Heilman, 2005).

As for Prechal and Burri (2009) indirect discrimination is a situation where a person of one sex would be put in a position of disadvantage compared to person in another gender in a neutral criterion, provision, or practice unless that criterion, provision, or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate intention, and the means of attaining that intention are appropriate and necessary.

5.2.1. The Roots of Gender Discrimination

As gender discrimination is a common occurrence in work places it is important to know what causes this discrimination. Cultural believes on gender are a main cause of gender discrimination and people translate their ideas of gender into discriminatory behaviour which also come across as gender stereotyping and sex categorization (Bobbit-Zeher, 2011). Gender stereotypes can be further divided into two categories, prescriptive stereotypes and descriptive stereotypes.

Descriptive stereotypes refer to unique traits and attitudes of men and women while prescriptive stereotypes concern what men and women like themselves to be defined according to a set of attitudes and characteristics. Different ways of discrimination could take place due to these stereotypes (Rodrigo, 2015). In situations where attributes required to a certain job do not match with the attributes connected with that stereotype, descriptive stereotypes will show discriminatory behaviors. Women not being hired in male gender-typed jobs is an example for this. Women being nurturance and relationship-oriented, while male gender-type jobs require decisiveness and task-orientation which are typical attributes of men can put a female employees at a disadvantage. Employers believing men will be more successful in these types of jobs could work against female employees, particularly in reference to highly statured vacancies in senior management (Welle and Heilman, 2005).

In situations where the expectations of coworkers and employers do not match with the attributes associated with gender discriminatory behaviors could occur due to prescriptive stereotyping which is about women's preference of how she should behave. If a female employee went against typical attributes of women by her behaviour (i.e. being successful at a male gender-type job) could result in hostile treatment from coworkers and employers (Welle and Heilman, 2005).

Organizational structure, policies, and practices could also be a root cause for gender discrimination. A woman is hired in company dominated by male workers, could lead to her exposure to sexual harassment and provocations in various forms from the male coworkers of the company as a result of their attempt to demonstrate their position of authority within the organization (Rodrigo, 2015). Interactions and actions could cause gender discrimination as well. Hiring and firing, promotions, and performance evaluations are the results of institutional actors. Therefore, interactions and actions within an organization could affect both organizational context and generated belief which could contribute to gender discrimination (Bobbit-Zeher, 2011).

According to Wild (2016) there are many sex or gender discrimination methods, which includes; recruitment, pay and terms and conditions of employment, promotion opportunities, training opportunities, dismissal, selection for redundancy, and sexual harassment. Isaac (1995) proposed hiring, promotion, and salary as main indicators to recognize the existence of gender discrimination at a workplace.

5.2.2. Gender Discrimination in Hiring

Hiring is the act of employing new staff (Dictionary of Human Resources and Personnel Management, 2006). It involves at least three different processes. The first process is recruitment, done through newspaper ads, social networks, or employment agencies. (Petersen and Togstad, 2006). Second process is deciding who gets hired and who gets rejected. This process includes selecting candidates for interviews, conducting interviews and tests, and choosing proper candidate for the job offer (Bloch, 1994). Offering conditions (i.e. pay, position, responsibilities, fringe benefits, perks, etc.) comes as the third process of hiring. Gender discrimination could take place within any of these processes of hiring (Petersen and Togstad, 2006).

Getting accessed to a good job in a good firm could have significant impact on ensuring career development and employment outcome in an extensive internal labour market. As limited information exists of the period of hiring, it could also where discriminatory behaviours could take place in a larger scale with much scope for stereotypes and prejudice (Petersen and Togstad, 2006). Lazear (1991) stated that hiring as the most important; promotion second; and wages are third.

Studies indicate that gender discrimination has continued to exist regardless the gender differences in the workplace has reduced over the years (Reskin, 1999). There are two challenging explanations for the existence of hiring disparity between men and women with equal education, work experience, and job occupancy: the discrimination explanation and the human capital explanation (Madden, 1987).

An individual's skill affecting the prospect of the employment and skills achieved from education and or workplace training making an employee more productive is elaborated as human capital explanation (Madden, 1987). Women could be less productive than men as they may have less human capital, ultimately resulting higher hiring rates for men (Desai and Waite, 1991).

Sex difference in job opportunities, in the words, gender discrimination is the reason for hiring differential according to the discrimination explanation (Madden, 1987). As for the discrimination explanation men are more likely to be hired than women due to gender discrimination rather than women being less productive compared to men (Mihail, 2006; Reskin, 1999).

As per the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2002) education of women has managed better than men with respect earning growth. Women's accomplishments of higher

education have continued to increase alongside with their human capital. Even though these have allowed women to obtain entry-level positions, they are not sufficient for a female employee to attain a position of power (Mihail, 2006). Therefore, discrimination explanation is more likely explanation of current hiring disparity between women and men (Jones, 2010).

5.3. Gender Discrimination in Salary

Female's economic status in the society is greatly influenced by salary gender discrimination. Many researches have carried out studies focusing on salary gender discrimination. Cain (1986) found out after reviewing the literature on gender discrimination on salary that most of the studies separate the salary differences between female and male into two parts: one is the legal one, which is based on employee's productivity difference; the other is the illegal one, which reflects gender discrimination.

Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) defines salary discrimination as: "different treatment to individuals with similar skills and qualifications in job and responsible hierarchy" and refers gender salary discrimination to that : "female employees receive less salary than their male peers as a result of organization custom or enterprise policy, even if these female employees do the same job, have the same educational background and experience as their male peers"(Alkadry, 2006).

Addition to this salary discrimination has also been divided into three forms by Zhang (2004). The first one is unequal pay for equal work, which indicates that male employees and female employees are paid differently even if the productivity level is at the same level. Occupation and position discrimination is the second form of salary discrimination. According to this employers purposely designate female employees with positions that are with lower salaries and responsibilities who have the same level of education and productivity as the male employees. Third form salary discrimination is pre-market discrimination, which occurs due to the indication of lower job expectations toward female employees because of the lower rewards for human capital of female employees or the unequal treatment in training and promotion.

Unequal pay for equal work lies in two factors: one is unequal pay for equal work in occupation, this occurs in situations where male employees receiving higher rewards than female employees in a given occupation; the other is value

discrimination, which describes female-dominated jobs and male-dominated jobs get different rewards even though the skill requirements and other relevant factors related to salary being equal (Milgrom, 2001).

According to Weichselbaumer and Winter-Ebmer (2005) largest share of the literature on gender discrimination on salary in developing countries and examines Asia (Horton, 1996). Second largest share is based on Latin America (Montenegro, 2001) and the smallest share on Africa (Temesgen, 2006; Nordman and Roubaud, 2009; Nordman and Wolff-Francois, 2009).

The canonical Oaxaca / Blinder (1973) technique, or variations of this technique is typically used in previous studies in estimating gender salary differences. It decomposes the gender wage gap into two parts: one is based on gender differences in observed or measured productivity-enhancing attributes, for example, experience and education level; the other one is due to differentiated treatment on female and male employees who are equally qualified, such as gender differences in unobserved and unmeasured characteristics. The latter is commonly known as discrimination, where discrimination is measured as gender differences in the return to attributes (Agesa et al., 2013).

5.4. Gender Discrimination in Job Promotions

Many explanations for the underrepresentation of female employees in the positions of decision making have been provided over the years. (Smith, 2002) According to the human capital theory (Becker, 1964) difference in employment patterns occur due to differences in individual assets in terms knowledge and skills, which are presumed to be linked with an individual's productivity. Even though women's educational achievements have increased to be on par with men during past decades (Grunow, 2006), they spend more time on home production and child care than men do (Coltrane, 2000). This could affect female employees' human capital and accordingly their opportunities to get promoted to a management level position within an organization (Damman et al., 2014).

According to status attainment theories, the reason for female representation being low in management because women are not aspired enough to become managers compared to men due to family responsibilities and such. Women have a limited access to decision making positions because they are "disproportionately located in the most marginalized structures of the economy" as for the structural explanations (Smith, 2002). Women are also disproportionately represented in

professions that less positions of authority (Kraus and Yonay, 2000). Discrimination processes such as, stereotypes about men and women, or processes of similarity attraction (which is, male managers selecting candidates for promotion on basis of social similarity) are other explanations that could create an unfavorable position for female candidates hoping for a promotion (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

It is proven that gender discrimination in promotion is taking place looking at the previous studies done by various researchers. Allison, Long, and McGinnis (1993) found out that women are 10 percent less likely to be promoted compared to a man using discrete time-proportional hazards model. Khan (1995) who used Doctorate Recipients to compare promotion of academic economists by gender found out that women take longer time to be promoted compared to men. An examination done by McDowell, Singell, and Ziliak (2001) on promotion possibilities of academic economists also showed that men are more likely to be promoted than comparable women.

Even though the number of women in decision making position of an organization has increased over the past decades (Powell, 1999), the rule of thumb is still “the higher up an organization’s hierarchy, the fewer the women” (International Labour Office, 2004).

According to Smith (2002) the discoveries of gender impedes authority attainments are: “consistent and robust in state-level, national, cross-national, and cross-temporal studies”. And female representation in management levels could also be low due to the glass ceiling, which is “a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy” (Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990).

According to Powel and Butterfield (1994) glass ceiling: “is an invisible obstacle based on gender, irrelevant with job situations, which is faced by female who are going to be promoted to top managerial levels in an organization”. There are concepts on glass ceiling that consists of two dimensions: one is internal glass ceiling of primary occupation, which is also known as occupational dimension; the other one is external glass ceiling of primary occupation, also known to be organizational dimension.

Groot and Van den Brink (1996) found out that accessibility of jobs with great potential of promotions are low for female employees based on their empirical study that done using second-hand data. Even if female workers were able to get jobs with

high potential of promotions, they do not get to experience promotion opportunities as their male employees. This occurs mainly due to the fact that female and male employees are treated differently according to the gender rather than individual's capabilities and personality that go with the job.

5.5. Conclusion

Organizational structure, policies, and practices are a few dominant factors to emerge gender discrimination among many other reasons. These factors, as evident in literature creates gender discrimination more apparently in hiring, salary levels and job promotions. Literature also discusses about two types of gender stereotypes: prescriptive stereotypes and descriptive stereotypes. The mismatch between the expectations of co-workers and employers is also affecting on creating a discrimination between male and female. When organizational citizenship behaviour is defined as a non-mandatory behavior of an individual which is not commonly recognized by the formal reward system the discrimination emerged based on gender would negatively effect on the employees' productivity. Therefore minimizing the discrimination based on gender would eventually contribute to the effective functioning of an organization.

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CHAPTER 6

FINANCIAL LITERACY: AN ESSENTIAL TOOL FOR EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH FINANCIAL INCLUSION – LITERATURE REVIEW

6.1. Introduction

Women, as being the larger part of the society, have demanded a larger part of the workforce and their involvement in financial matters has also increased. Women participation in labor force is growing more fast as compare to men and almost 47 percent of labor force consists of female (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Moreover, in most of the developed countries, women have high levels of education and experience lower level of unemployment than men (Department of Labor, 2012). Women are majorly working in health and education services, hospitality and leisure businesses, and professional services. (Haque and Zulfiqar., 2016). Women are also playing an important role in contributing towards economic growth by working at work place and through unpaid household working (Elborgh-Woytek, et. al., 2013). Therefore, women's role towards their economic empowerment and prosperity of the work will become more crucial in the near future. Hence, there is a greater need of enhance economic empowerment through financial literacy and financial inclusion of women (Haque and Zulfiqar., 2016).

Unless a woman becomes wiser in making financial decision and planning by accessing and usage of financial market, the women empowerment remains a main obstacle. Financial literacy is a critical barrier for women to participation of financial and economic decisions in the society. Because of a lack of knowledge about finance and financial products, many people especially the women in poor communities are not able to access formal banking and financial services, and are therefore kept out

of financial markets. In general, women tend to have lower levels of financial

knowledge and less access to financial market and they are also shown to be relatively less financially skilled than men along several dimensions. Such gaps represent fundamental problems for women empowerment and finally for gender equity. Within the continuously expansion in financial market and increase in women responsibility, it informed that financial decision making is becoming necessity for economic empowerment of women.

This issue is mainly prevailed in the developing countries with large number of people remain under the poverty line. Some sociologists and micro finance experts believe that women empowerment is a one of action to be taken in order to poverty elevation in the economies (e.g. Lusardi and Mitchell., 2008). Some poor countries such as Bangladesh has successfully implemented micro finance projects and improve the household income by empowering females in their households. However it should be considered that whether it can be the proper solution for improving the living conditions of rural poor in any country and whether financial literacy has direct impact on financial inclusion and women empowerment.

Therefore the aim of this paper is to attempt to critically discuss the answers for several questions i.e. whether financial literacy has direct impact on women empowerment in poor countries? Whether financial literacy has direct impact on financial inclusion among women in poor countries? How does financial literacy and inclusion level have influenced on the empowerment of females for decisions making within their households etc. In order to answer these questions, author has critically discussed key literature relating to respective concepts and empirical findings of previous researchers relating to given issues. Further some facts and figures are taken from different contexts with the purpose of justifying the arguments of the paper.

6.2. Financial Literacy

While there is no universal definition, Klapper et al., (2016) stated “financial literacy generally refers to a person’s ability to understand basic concepts of finance”. However in line with the following OECD/INFE² definition financial literature is ‘A

² OECD- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

INFE- International Network on Financial Education

combination of awareness, knowledge, skill, attitude and behaviour necessary to make sound financial decisions and ultimately achieve individual financial wellbeing'. Generally it refers that the ability to understanding how money works in the world including how to save, how to manage and how to invest. Thilakam, (2012) stated that "financial literacy is the ability to understand finance. More specifically, it refers to the set of skills and knowledge that allows an individual to make informed and effective decisions through their understanding of finances." Financially literate people can make sound financial decision so they are more inclined towards achieving their financial goal, have potential to hedge themselves against economic shocks and associated risks and eventually contributes toward the economic development. Lack of financial knowledge is the main driver that pulls people away from financial markets (Bernheim & Garrett, 2001; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2007; Van Rooji et al., 2011). Therefore among the financial inclusion determinants, financial literacy was treated as most significant variable (Van Rooji et al., 2011). Financial literacy is equally important for both men and women. Women acquiring higher financial knowledge can plan more effectively for their future (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2007; Napier et al., 2013; Ramji 2009; Allen et al., 2012).

According to the financial literacy survey in 2016, the countries with the highest financial literacy rates are Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom, where about 65 percent or more of adults are financially literate. On the other end of the spectrum, South Asia is home to countries with some of the lowest financial literacy scores, where only a quarter of adults or fewer are financially literate. When it considers European Union, on average, 52 percent of adults are financially literate, and the understanding of financial concepts is the highest in northern Europe. Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden have the highest literacy rates in the European Union: at least 65 percent of their adults are financially literate. Rates are much lower in southern Europe. For example, in Greece and Spain, literacy rates are 45 percent and 49 percent, respectively. Italy and Portugal have some of the lowest literacy rates in the south. Financial literacy rates are also low among the countries that joined the EU in 2004 and after. In Bulgaria and Cyprus, 35 percent of adults are financially literate. Romania, with 22 percent financial literacy, has the lowest rate in the European Union. Further financial literacy rates differ enormously between the major advanced and emerging economies in the world. On average, 55 percent of adults in the major advanced economies such as Canada, France, Germany, Italy,

Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States are financially literate. But even across these countries, financial literacy rates range widely, from 37 percent in Italy to 68 percent in Canada. In contrast, in the major emerging economies, the so-called BRICS (Brazil, the Russian Federation, India, China, and South Africa) on average, 28 percent of adults are financially literate. Disparities exist among these countries, too, with rates ranging from 24 percent in India to 42 percent in South Africa.

Financial literacy rates differ in important ways when it comes to characteristics such as gender, education level, income, and age. Worldwide, 35 percent of men are financially literate, compared with 30 percent of women (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2014). This gender gap is found in both advanced economies and emerging economies. There is also a gap in financial literacy when looking at relative income in some economies. For instance, 31% of the rich in the BRICS countries are financially literate, compared to only 23 percent of the poor countries (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2014).

In another perspective, the financial attitude is linked with financial literacy (Shim et al., 2009). Financial attitude deals with ability to manage finances, interest of the individual in increasing financial knowledge, spending verses saving attitude and attitude toward taking risk while making an investment. Researches indicate that financial knowledge (Shim et al., 2009), financial attitude (Grable & Lytton, 1998) and financial behaviour (Joo & Grable, 2004 and Hira & Mugenda, 1999b) affect the financial wellbeing of the individual.

6.3. Financial Inclusion

There are no universally accepted definitions for financial inclusion, but over the past years several definitions have been developed by different scholars, policy makers and researchers. For instance, in Global Financial Development Report (GFDR 2014), financial inclusion defined as the proportion of individuals and firms that use financial services. Broadly concern, financial inclusion is delivery of formal banking services at affordable cost to vast sections of disadvantaged and low income groups (GFDR 2014). There is a famous definition in literature which states: "Financial inclusion aims at drawing the unbanked population into the formal financial system so that they have the opportunity to access financial services ranging from savings, payments, and transfers to credit and insurance" (Hannig and Jansen, 2010). They said that, financial inclusion facilitate to increase propensity to savings, accumulating investment and paw the way for economic growth. The propensity to

save helps to increase investments and creating more employment opportunities which induced to reducing poverty and inequalities (Kodan and Chhikara 2013). For instance The World Bank's declared objective of achieving universal financial access by 2020 with recognizing financial inclusion as a fundamental element for economic growth and poverty alleviation.

Commonly, previous researchers have considered percentage of adult accounts with the formal financial institutions as financial inclusion rate of a particular country. According to the Little Data Book on Financial inclusion in 2015 world financial inclusion rate of the world is 60.7% of the total population. Further financial inclusion rate among the women was recorded as 58.1%. However the level of financial inclusion of countries and regions has been significantly varied from the world average. Some statistics relating to financial inclusion based on several regions in the world are given in table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Financial inclusion rates based on Regions

Region	Population age 15+ (millions)	GNI per capita (\$)	Account (% age 15+)	
			All adults	Women
East Asia & Pacific	1,584.3	5,536	69.0	67.0
Europe & Central Asia	211.7	7,114	51.4	47.4
High income: OECD	877.7	44,479	94.0	93.8
Latin America & Caribbean	428.2	9,542	51.4	48.6
Middle East	102.0	3,894	14.2	9.2
South Asia	1,168.6	1,483	46.4	37.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	533.1	1,686	34.2	29.9

Source: Financial Literacy Around the World,2016

According to the statistics given in table 01, high income OECD countries are reported 94 percent of financial inclusion rate and show very small deviation with the women financial inclusion. Further East Asia & Pacific region has achieved 69 percent of overall financial inclusion and 67 percent of women financial inclusion rate. According to the statistics, the financial inclusion of Europe & Central Asia and Latin America & Caribbean countries are at medium level. However financial inclusion rate of Middle East countries are very poor. Even though some financial inclusion levels of some South Asian countries are high, overall rate of the south Asian region is reported below the average. This figures clearly implied that degree of financial inclusion and socio economic development of the countries have positive

relationship. Therefore the policy decision makers should pay their close attention for improving the financial inclusion level of developing countries. However this argument is questionable in Middle East countries. The GNI per capita in Middle East region is 3,894 USD and it is higher than both South Asian and Sub-Saharan Africa countries. However financial inclusion of those two regions is at higher level than Middle East countries. Therefore social development also becomes important determinant of financial inclusion apart from the economic development of the country.

In addition to the regional statistics, World Bank group has assessed the inclusion rated among different income groups of the world and some related figures are summarized into table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Financial inclusion rates based on Income Groups

Income Category	Population age 15+ (millions)	GNI per capita (\$)	Account (% age 15+)	
			All adults	Women
Low income	516.2	728	27.5	23.9
Lower middle income	1,759.1	2,074	42.7	36.3
Low & middle income	4,166.6	4,168	54.1	49.6
Middle income	3,650.4	4,754	57.6	52.9
Upper middle income	1,891.3	7,604	70.5	67.3
High income	1,064.6	39,812	90.6	90.5
Euro area	285.6	39,350	94.8	94.0

Source: Financial Literacy Around the World, 2016

The figures clearly show that high income and Euro area show high level of financial inclusion and very small differences with the women financial inclusion levels. Further it reveals that income level of the country and the financial inclusion has close positive relationship.

Before the 1990s, the term "financial inclusion" was used to describe barriers of access to mainstream financial services and products (Rahim et al., 2009). But the term has gained importance since the early 2000s, as a result of findings about financial exclusion and its direct correlation to poverty (Shiimi 2010). And also financial exclusion was initially applied (in the early 1990s) to highlight the limited access to bank branches for liberalizing the financial sector (European Commission, 2009; Hannig et al., 2010). Over the past decade, access to financial services or outreach of the financial system has become a major concern to many policy makers, and therefore financial inclusion has entered the social policy glossary of

many developed and developing countries (e.g. Chakrabarty, 2010; Akudugu 2013; Kumara 2013; Onaolapo and Odetayo 2012 etc.). As per the previous literature, some studies are concerned with barriers of financial inclusion in order to identify the antecedents of financial inclusion (Onaolapo and Odetayo 2012). Antecedents could be examined at both the users' end (demand side) and at the end of providers of financial services and products (supply side) (Aduda and kalunda 2012; Agarwal 2010). The demand-side factors significantly affect the extent of financial inclusion, in addition to the supply-side factors (Akudugu 2013; Ghatak 2013). On the other hand some researchers argue that the supply side factors are considered more important than demand side factors for encouraging people for access to the formal financial system (Mehrotra et al., 2009; Onaolapo and Odetayo 2012; Kodan and Chhikara 2012; Akudugu 2013). However, some antecedents are common for demand side as well as for supply side. Therefore, some researchers commonly analyze the different types of antecedents using different perspectives which decide the degree of financial inclusion in their respective countries (eg: Shankar, 2011; 2012; Aduda and kalunda 2012; Agarwal 2010; Kodan and Chhikara 2013). According to Mehrotra (2009), who discussed financial inclusion in the point of view of obstacles, there are supply and demand side barriers to

Elborgh-Woytek, Katrin, and Monique, Newiak. (2013). Women, Work, and the Economy: Macroeconomic Gains from Gender Equity. IMF Staff Discussion Note SDN 13/10.

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Hannig, A. & Jansen, S. (2010). Financial Inclusion and Financial Stability: Current Policy Issues. ADBI Working Paper 259. Tokyo: Asian Development Bank Institute.

<http://www.adbi.org/> financial inclusion. He argued that main supply side barriers are poor banking infrastructure, low outreach by existing institutions, lengthy form-filling/account maintaining formalities, and security-based lending procedures etc. The demand side constraints are related to factors such as poor physical infrastructure (roads, bridges, irrigation structures etc.), low financial literacy, high cost of services etc. Further some researchers such as Akudugu (2013) and Aduda and kalunda (2012) argued that financial inclusion among the women will be mainly depend on their knowledge about formal financial services and financial instruments in the formal market.

6.4. Women Empowerment

There is no single definition of women's empowerment in the literature. Empowerment is variously conceptualized as a process, an end-state, and a capacity (Kabeer, 2001). It is generally accepted however that efforts to measure women's empowerment need to consider different levels (micro/macro, individual/collective), different spheres (economic, political, social), different temporal scales (often beyond the lifetime of a single programme) and must be sensitive to social context. Economically empowered women are able to enjoy wellbeing and also help in increasing productivity, economic growth; reducing poverty and enhancing efficiency will pave the way for gender equity.

Women access to financial resources help in gaining wide range of developmental goals like reduction in poverty, Increase in knowledge and economic growth (UNESCO, 2008). Women's financial literacy not only helps in the promotion of the workplace but also contribute in economy to become empower. Different studies have high lightened the importance of financial literacy for household's wellbeing and ultimately economic stability (Savitha, & Polepeddi, 2011). Gender plays an important role, as women are typically more financially excluded compared to men. The World Bank acknowledges 'significant disparities along gender lines in how adults save, make payments, borrow money and manage risk' especially among lower and middle income countries. Women generally lack control over family resources, as traditions and socio-cultural (and sometimes religious) norms that make women passive to men, also constrain their access to financial services and productive assets (Maheswari & Revathy, 2016) Further she explained, the majority of efforts to measure women's economic empowerment programmes focus primarily on quantitative outcomes such as increased access to credit or increased business revenue.

Malhotra et al., (1997) defined empowerment as the ability of people to make strategic choices in areas that affect their lives. They identified elements of economic empowerment at three levels namely household which includes women's control over income; community, which includes access to credit and broader access including representation of women's economic interests. Kabeer, N., (2005), finds that while access to financial services can and does make vital contributions to the economic productivity and social well-being of poor women and their households, it does not automatically empower women. Further Pitt et al., (20063), found that the view that women's participation in micro credit programmes helps to increase women's

empowerment by establishing a baseline of women's assets, knowledge, will and capacity. Katz, (2008), reviews existing policies and programs designed to promote labour force participation of young women in developing countries.

In 2009, Mayoux and Hartl emphasized the importance of studying the differential impacts of various types of financial products and service delivery, and their influence on women empowerment. Jupp, D.Ibn Ali and Barahona (2010), developed a participatory approach to measuring empowerment at the project level in Bangladesh by recognizing and quantifying all positive changes on different aspects of women empowerment.

6.5. Role of financial literacy and inclusion in women empowerment

According to the discussion of financial literacy, financial inclusion and women empowerment given in above sections, the authors has made strong argument on the association among those concepts. Accordingly previous literature evidenced to reveal that, through which improved financial inclusion by upgrading financial literacy can empower women. These include women having access to financial resources on their own account and tools that help them make a living, increasing their bargaining power within households, and reducing their vulnerability to external shocks (Napier et al 2013; Ramji 2009).

On the other hand, many of the previous researchers empirically proved that among the financial inclusion determinants, financial literacy was treated as most significant variable (Shankar 2011; Kodan et al., 2013; Serrao et al., 2012; Aduda and kalunda 2012; Agarwal 2010; Kodan and Chhikara 2013; Akudugu 2013; kumara, 2013; Koker and Jentzsch 2013; Onalapo and Odetayo 2012; Chibba, 2011; Heenkenda, 2014; Kelegama et al.,2014). Further many researchers argued that financial literacy has direct relationship with financial inclusion among females (Haque and Zulfiqar 2016). They further argued that financial literacy helps to grow and manage finances in a proper way and it will help to increase the level of financial inclusion. Further Arrondel et al, (2013) noted that financial literacy and positive financial attitude are equally important for both men and women for adapting to the formal financial system. Further some researchers (e.g. Lusardi and Mitchell, 2007; Van Rooji et al., 2011 etc.) explored that financial literacy is an important tool to help the customers to accept and use the products to which they increasingly have access. It helps to develop skills to compare and select the best products for their needs and empower them to exercise their rights and responsibilities. It enables

women to act “Smart Financially” by providing them knowledge and skills to understand financial planning, savings, basics of banking, understanding need of household budgeting, cash flow management, asset allocation to meet financial goal etc. Those arguments were convinced that financial literacy has direct impact on the financial inclusion among women population mainly in poor countries.

On the other hand there are some arguments can be extract from the previous studies to understand the association between financial inclusion and women empowerment. According to Mayoux (2000) financial inclusion can be looked upon as the ideal blend of the three schools of thoughts such as: feminist empowerment paradigm, poverty alleviation paradigm and financial sustainability paradigm. Therefore the argument of this paper is mainly connected with feminist empowerment paradigm. According to the research findings contributed to the feminist empowerment paradigm, financial inclusion has direct impact on female economic empowerment. Having considering previous literature, known to as financial knowledge is the key element for making sound financial decisions, financial literacy helps in more inclusion and developing financial sector and ultimately encourages growth and empowers women (Hung et al., 2012). The importance of financial literacy can never be neglected as it not only contributes in the wellbeing of people but also assist them to become economically empowered. From last few years, the economic empowerment of women through financial literacy has been the most vigorously explored area across the world (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2011; Mayoux, 2009; Fontana, 2011; Hung et al., 2012; Bhushan et al, 2013; Arrondel et al, 2013; Rooij et al, 2011). Further financial literacy is positively correlated with the financial situation and leads towards the financial wellbeing of women. The eventual consequence of financial literacy is the financial wellbeing of the individuals (OECD and INFE). Literate women better able to manage home and workplace, in this way they contribute in their financial wellbeing. Financial literacy positively contributes in wellbeing, strengths the economy and promotes growth (Worthington, 2006). Financial literacy leads toward women’s empowerment and wellbeing, and ultimately, economic empowerment (Judy et al., 2012). Financial literacy has positive relationship with the wealth accumulation and economic growth (Bhushan & Medury, 2013; Arrondel et.al. 2013 and Beckmann, 2013). Those arguments further convinced that financial literacy and financial inclusion are equally important for both men and women. Women as being the major part of economy need to be financially empowered in order to manage home finance and playing their

role in society and economy.

6.6. Conclusion

According to the details given in this paper, it is clearly implied financial literature influence on financial inclusion among the women communities. Further it revealed that financial literacy has an impact on the improving the financial inclusion among the females, especially in under developed countries. On the other hand most of literature supported to conclude both financial literacy and financial inclusion having significant impact of women economic empowerment. Those arguments given in the literature are further supported by the world statistics on financial inclusion and financial literacy given in the paper. According to those figures, author revealed that financial literacy of poor countries is relatively low and accordingly financial inclusion also at poor level. Further it was prevailed very small gap between male and female in terms of financial literacy and financial inclusion in developed countries. Moreover women economic empowerments in developed countries are seemed to be high due to the more contribution of women for the economic development. As financial literacy and inclusion gaps of the developed countries are low, it implied those two concepts have significant influence on women empowerment of poor countries. Finally, it was concluded that financial literacy becomes an essential tools to empowering women through improving their intention to deal with formal financial institutions of respective countries. Therefore this issue can be further analyzed by researchers based on the empirical studies in developing countries. Further the future researchers can plan the comparative studies among developed and developing countries with the purpose of providing managerial implications to policy decision makers of the developing countries.

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CHAPTER 7

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

7.1. Introduction

Managers of the modern business world demand higher productivity and more efficiency than past. Organizations are often increasing their performance in order to place their company ahead of the competitors. Satisfied and experienced employees are staying with the organization and contribute to the workforce stability and productivity (Sanchez and McCauley, 2006). Nowadays the business world is global and competitive and clearly satisfied and stable individuals are not enough to bring expected results. Satisfied individuals should just meet the work demands, but this will not lead to higher performance (Abraham, 2012). Therefore, in order to compete effectively, management and employers should need to go beyond satisfaction. In addition, they should do their best to inspire their employees to develop their potential and capabilities to their task. If they do not, part of the valuable employees' resources remains unavailable for the organization (Bakker and Leiter, 2010).

Modern organizations anticipate their workforce to be full of enthusiasm and show initiative at work. Organizations expect employees to take responsibility for their own development, strive for high quality and performance, be energetic and dedicated to what they do. In other words organizations want their employees be engaged (Bakker and Leiter, 2010). Many researchers have noted that employee engagement is the best tool in organization's efforts to gain competitive advantages and stay competitive (Rashid, et al., 2011).

"Building of employee engagement has been an area of interest among many researchers and consultancy firms and received its recognition in the management

literature and among practitioners” (Sakovska, 2012). Engage employee has an emotional contribute to do their duties and beyond expectation of management of the firm. “The harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ the express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances” (Khan, 1990, pp. 694). In employee engagement literature stated (Banks, 2006: Bakker and Schaufeli, 2004: Harter, et al., 2009: Saks, 2006) that employee engagement link with important business brings back higher profitability, productivity, customer satisfaction and earnings per share.

Employee engagement can also predict employee outcomes, success, and financial performance of organizations (Saks, 2006). However, it has been reported that the engagement level of employees is decreasing and that disengagement is on the rise in the U.S. (Saks, 2006). For instance, approximately half of all employees in the U.S. are reportedly “disengaged” or “not fully engaged”, which has resulted in annual productivity losses of close to \$300 billion (Saks, 2006, pp. 600). Engagement has been mainly discussed in the different categories: namely personal engagement, burnout/engagement, work engagement, and employee engagement (Simpson, 2008).

On such a background, large scale fashion retailers in Colombo district have been selected for this research. The relationship between employee engagement and customer satisfaction will be elaborated through this study. World is running with fashions and customers go for shopping centers to seek entertainment, boredom relief, developing social interaction with friends, relaxation and also wide selection of comparison shopping (Bloch, et al., 1994). When we select textile, seeking for new fashions and try to fit those with colours and suitable sizes. People could do shopping to update for latest trends in fashion, styling or innovations of product or service (Tauber, 1972). At that time the voluntary support of the employee is smoothing customer selection process. Customer satisfaction has being bond with the behaviour of employee. Therefore, employee engagement has been crucial to be developed, specially regarding the fashion stores.

7.2. Research Problem

Modern HR professionals are expected potential talents and skills of employees and motivating them in order to increase customer satisfaction. Because engaged employees who feel engaged in their duties are doing a better job and are less likely to make mistakes (Leonard, 2009). They are dedicating to their duties and tasks with

energy and vigor into their performance. Lower turnover and less absenteeism can be the evidence of higher level of employee engagement.

Fashion retailers have become public magnets. People, especially ladies like to spend their leisure time at textile shopping malls. Now it has considered as physical activity and exercise for people who are living in urban areas (Tauber, 1972).

Engaged employees are indicating high loyalty and commitment towards the organization. Johnson (2004) argued the outcome of employee engagement could be measured through the experience of customer experience and customer loyalty. However, research that have been conducted regarding consequences of employee engagement on customer satisfaction in relation to the large scale fashion retailers is limited. Therefore, this research is focused on understanding the main factors that determine the employee engagement and investigate the extent to which these antecedents of employee engagement influence on customer satisfaction.

7.2.1. Research Objectives

- To critically evaluate the concept of employee engagement referring to its dimensions and indicators.
- To critically evaluate the concept of customer satisfaction referring to its dimensions and indicators.
- To identify the relationship between the determinants of employee engagement and customer satisfaction.

7.3. Literature Review

Employee engagement is one of the most popular topics in management field in this decade. There has been doubts regarding the meaning and definitions of employee engagement and confusion is still continuous. Many theories and models on employee engagement have been developed by different scholars too.

Employee engagement was mentioned for the first time in an Academy of Management Journal article called “Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work” (Khan, 1990). Through his article Khan defined personal engagement as “the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s “preferred self” in a task behaviors that promote connection to work and to others, personal presence, and active full role performance (Khan, 1990, pp, 700)”. As described above Khan stated that employees can be engaged on a physical, emotional and cognitive level. These levels are significantly affected by three

psychological domains: meaningfulness, safety and availability (Kahn, 1990). In turn, these domains create influence on how employees perceive and perform their roles at work.

Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) had developed burnout antithesis approach and in their study they stated employee engagement as the “positive antithesis” (Maslach, et al., 2001). Employee engagement had been defined as “a persistent positive affective state of fulfillment in employees, characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli, et al., 2002, pp. 74).

Multidimensional approach was formulated by Saks (2006). This theory was based on the belief that employee engagement has developed through a social exchange theory (SET). Saks (2006) had defined employee engagement as “a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance (Saks, 2006, pp. 602). This definition related with previous literature on employee engagement, and formulated the suggestion that employee engagement was developed from cognitive (Kahn, 1990; Maslach et, al., 2001), emotional (Harter et, al., 2002; Kahn, 1990), and behavioral components (Harter et al., 2002; Maslach, et al., 2001).

According to this Two Construct Engagement Model, it has allowed leaders and managers to pay attention at employee engagement from a totally different aspect. Two construct engagement model has derived drivers for disengagement and explored drivers for underperformance. Some individuals are happy with their leaders and organization and they have engaged to their roles. Even though they have left organization in short span, dis-engaged, likely to underperform and leave.

7.3.1. Antecedents of Engagement

According to the (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004) many employee engagement literatures comes from practitioner literature and consulting firms. Further they emphasized that there is minimum research on employee engagement. Among these studies some of them have identified antecedents and drivers of employee engagement. Literature on drivers and antecedents of employee engagement does not show many empirical researches although some factors have found from empirical supports (Saks, 2006). However, although a few of the factors that have an impact on employee engagement are discussed in the literature, this study is focused only on the two factors of relationship with supervisors and co-

workers, and leadership characteristics to investigate the relationship with customer satisfaction which are discussed below.

7.3.1.1. Relationship with Supervisors and Coworkers

Encouraging colleagues and proper feedback from supervisors enhance the possibility of being success in achieving organization goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the Maslach, et al., (2001), “social support stimulates employee engagement either through satisfaction of basic needs or through the achievement of work goals. Job burnout literature has also extensively studied social support and has shown that there is a consistent and strong evidence that lack of social support is linked to burnout” (Sakovska, 2012). Social support from supervisor and colleagues important to generate positive social climate which direct to employee engagement (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Further Saks (2006) has accepted the relationship between social support and employee engagement. Although Saks did not find a significant relationship between perceive supervisor support and employee engagement.

Studies, that show the connection between social support and engagement, are in conflict with the study conducted by Saks (2006), who did not find a significant connection between perceived supervisor support and employee engagement. The difference of these results and the ones presented later may be due to the fact that studies were conducted between different employee groups, in different organizations, industries and countries. These factors may have influenced the difference in the results.

7.3.1.2. Leadership Characteristics

According to the Ologbo and Saudah (2011), “employees need to be confident in their organization; this confidence can be built through the reliability of the leadership” (Sakovska, 2012). High level of trust and confidence in senior leaders develop the opportunities that individuals will repay with engagement (Karsan, Kruse, & James, 2011). They further stressed that trust is an important aspects in building relationships.

According to the Khan (1990) he categorized leadership under four aspects. Moreover, he emphasized that individuals are more enthusiastic to be engaged at work when their leadership has been characterized by following features;

- Resilience

- Consistency
- Trust
- Competence

Leaders are engaged and committed to their organization (Chartered Institute for Personnel Development (CIPD), 2006). A clear vision has with senior management which direct to the future success (Perrin, 2003). Management is clearly articulating to the organization goals and objectives (Welbourne, 2007). Performance expectations are implemented by leaders or management according to the organizational goals. CIPD (2006) noted that leaders put the right people on right job. Leaders are giving opportunities for employees for their development and career advancement (Harter, Keyes, & Schmidt, 2002).

According to the CIPD (2006), “Feelings of trust and confidence in leadership are important matters in the context of employee engagement. Strong leaders have a clear vision of the organizational goals and objectives and do their best to help staff to achieve them” (Heikkeri, 2010).

Great leaders are necessary for influence on employee engagement (Seijts & Crim, 2006). Further they stated that, great leaders have a passion to lead and are themselves engaged - inspiring passion and commitment in others.

According to the (Bernthal, 2004), “leaders and line-managers face an extremely difficult task in determining how to effectively motivate, support and engage their employees. Employees are individuals - not all have the same sources of motivation nor can they all be influenced the same way. Factors that contribute to an employees’ level of engagement can be specific and vary per individual. Once identified, these factors must then be encouraged and maintained at an individual, group and organizational level” (CAHRS, 2007, pp, 75).

7.3.2. Definitions of Customer Satisfaction

Literature suggest that customer satisfaction depends on leadership characteristics and relationship with supervisors and coworkers. Customer Satisfaction is a concept that is well discussed by many scholars. Recent interpretations in the consumer domain now couch satisfaction as a fulfillment response. Fulfillment implies that a consumption goal is known, as in basic motives of hunger, thirst, and safety. However, observers of human behavior understand that these and other goals can be and frequently are modified and updated in various ways. Thus, consumer researchers have moved away from the literal meaning of

satisfaction and now pursue this concept as the consumer experiences and describe it. In (Oliver R. L., 1997), the following definition has been proposed as being consistent with the conceptual and empirical evidence to date: Satisfaction is the consumer's fulfillment response. It is a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under- or over-fulfillment

According to the (Gundersen, Heide, & Olsson, 1996), customer satisfaction is post consumption evaluate judgment concerning a specific product or service. "It is the result of an evaluative process that contrasts pre purchase expectations with perceptions of performance during and after the consumption experience" (Oliver R. L., 1980).

7.3.2.1. Dimensions of Customer Satisfaction

Measuring customer satisfaction could be very difficult at times because it is an attempt to measure human feelings. It was for this reason that some existing researcher presented that "the simplest way to know how customers feel, and what they want is to ask them" this applied to the informal measures (Levy, 2009, pp. 6; NBRI, 2009). Levy (2009) in his studies, suggested three ways of measuring customer satisfaction:

- A survey where customer feedback can be transformed into measurable quantitative data.
- Focus group or informal where discussions orchestrated by a trained moderator reveal what customers think.
- Informal measures like reading blocs, talking directly to customers.

Asking each and every customer is advantageous in as much as the company will know everyone's feelings, and disadvantageous because the company will have to collect this information from each customer (NBRI, 2009). The National Business Research Institute (NBRI) suggested possible dimensions that one can use in measuring customer satisfaction, e.g.:

- Quality of service
- Innocently
- Speed of service
- Pricing
- Complaints or problems
- Trust in your employees

- The closeness of the relationship with contacts in your firm
- Other types of services needed
- Your positioning in clients' minds

7.3.2.2. Models/ theories of customer satisfaction

Organizations analyze customer satisfaction with various customer satisfaction models. Different models clarify different theories of customer satisfaction.

Expectancy Disconfirmation Model

“The most widely accepted conceptualization of the customer satisfaction concept is the expectancy disconfirmation theory (Barsky & Huxley, 32-40). The theory was developed by Oliver (1980), who proposed that satisfaction level is a result of the difference between expected and perceived performance. Satisfaction (positive disconfirmation) occurs when product or service is better than expected. On the other hand, a performance worse than expected results with dissatisfaction/negative disconfirmation”, (Leonard, 2009). This model has four main aspects. First category is expectation and it has defined as the customer's anticipations regarding performance of products or services. Above model (EDT) could define the multiple manners of customer purchasing process. First, initial expectation of customer is based on their previous experience with using particular product or service. Then they use to repurchase from specific organization. Second, the customer who does not have experience about using particular product or service, they are willing to purchase specific product or service for the first time. Their initial expectation contains feedback that they received from media and other customers. Perceived performance inquires the customer's experience could be better after consuming product or service than the customer expectation. Both customers who have previous experience and do not have experience would purchase product or service with the realization of actual quality of product or service. The gap between customer's initial expectation and observed actual performance has defined as the disconfirmation.

SERVQUAL

The SERVQUAL instrument has been widely applied in a variety of service industries, including tourism and hospitality. The instrument was used to measure hotel employee quality as well. A 22 item instrument called SERVQUAL for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, &

Leonard, 1988). SERVQUAL addresses many elements of service quality divided into the dimensions of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. A number of researchers have applied the SERVQUAL model to measure service quality in the hospitality industry, with modified constructs to suit specific hospitality situations.

Kano Model

The Kano model is a theory developed in the 80's by Professor Noriaki Kano and his colleagues of Tokyo Rika University. The Kano model of customer satisfaction classifies attributes based on how they are perceived by customers and their effect on customer satisfaction. The model is based on three types of attributes viz.

1. Basic or expected attributes
2. Performance or spoken attributes,
3. Surprise and delight attributes.

Performance or spoken attributes are the expressed expectations of the customer. The basic or expected attributes are as the meaning implies the basic attributes without any major significance of worth mentioning. The third one, the surprise and delight attributes are those, which are beyond the customers' expectations. Kano model measures satisfaction against customer perceptions of attribute performance grades the customer requirements and determines the levels of satisfaction. The underlying assumption behind Kano's method is that the customer satisfaction is not always proportional to how fully functional the product or service is or in other words, higher quality does not necessarily lead to higher satisfaction for all product attributes or services requirements. In his model, Kano distinguishes between three types of basic requirements, which influence customer satisfaction. They are:

1. Must be requirements: If these requirements are not fulfilled, the customer will be extremely dissatisfied. On the other hand, as the customer takes these requirements for granted, their fulfillment will not increase his satisfaction.
2. One dimensional requirement is usually explicitly demanded by the customer the higher the level of fulfillment, the higher the customer's satisfaction and vice versa.

3. Attractive Requirement: These requirements are the product/service criteria which have the greatest influence on how satisfied a customer will be with a given product.

7.4. Industry Overview

Large scale fashion retailers in Colombo district have been selected for this research. Shopping is one of the distinct activities of consumer behavior (Tauber, 1972) Customers go to shopping centers to seek entertainment, boredom relief, developing social interaction with friends, relaxation and also wide selection of comparison shopping (Bloch, Ridgway, & Dawson, 1994)

According to (Tauber, 1972) "People's motives for shopping are a function of many variables, some of which are unrelated to the actual buying of products. It is maintained that an understanding of shopping motives require the consideration of satisfactions which shopping activities provide, as well as the utility obtained from the merchandise that may be purchased. If needs other than those associated with particular products motivate people to go to a store, the retailer should incorporate this information into his marketing strategy".

Researcher had selected fashion industry instead of other industry because of its different identity. According to the (Abrahamson, 2011), fashion is more than any other industry/field in the world, embraces obsolescence as a primary objective; fast fashion industry simply raises the stakes.

According to the research has done by Jones Lang LaSalle- Asia Pacific (2013) it is revealed that Sri Lanka is growing middle-class population, the changing and spending patterns toward branded and organized fashion retail as well as the strong growth in the tourism (after the victory of war) are expected to maintain fashion retail demand upbeat over the next few years. Colombo is the capital of the country, it has tremendous retail potential, it is expected to witness fashion retail development in terms of both malls and high streets.

A.T. Kearney's Global Retail Development Index (2013) indicated that, Sri Lanka's ranking leapfrogged from 20th to 15th best country for retail investments between 2011 and 2012 and the country maintained the same ranking in 2013. Improvement in the fashion retail investment ranking was largely due to the political and economic stability, which is significantly uplifting the living standards in the country.

Colombo is one of the most densely populated districts in the country. Traditionally a port city, Colombo has transformed into one of the key business hubs in Sri Lanka and is the main contributor to the GDP of Sri Lanka. In recent years, the significant growth of the country's service sector made Colombo one of the prime commercial centers of Sri Lanka, as it houses the key national & international trade and financial institutions along with other commercial establishments. Colombo is also an industrial hub with various manufacturing and processing industries. With all of these developments, there has been ever-growing retail activity in Colombo, both the traditional and modern high streets as well as in malls (Jones Lang LaSalle- Asia Pacific – 2013). Further they investigated that Sri Lankan fashion retail sector is primarily driven by two categories. These categories are domestic consumption and followed by tourists' consumption. After the war a stable economic growth in Sri Lanka has increased the country's per capita income significantly, from USD 2,014 in 2008 to USD 2,923 in 2012. This represents a 45% growth in the last five years.

According to the Jones Lang LaSalle- Asia Pacific (2013), fashion retailers establishments in Colombo are largely located along the high streets, either in the traditional retail sub-markets like Pettah or in up market established retail sub-markets like Kollupitiya, Bambalapitiya, Nugegoda and Wellawatte (Southern Colombo). The branded shopping destinations are towards the south of the city centre along Galle Road & Duplication Road and cater to the neighboring up market populace.

Research is dealing with large scale fashion retailers, especially in the Sri Lankan context, is very less in number. Not many studies have empirically analyzed the influence of employee engagement on customer satisfaction in large scale fashion retailer's shop in the Colombo district.

7.5. Methodology

7.5.1. Research population

Five famous large scale fashion retailer shop were selected in Colombo district. Large scale fashion retailer shop had been drawn attention because of their functional variety and especially sample was limited to the Colombo district. This district has been selected because of the variety of population and Colombo is the number one district of highest population according to the data of Department of Census and Statistics.

7.5.2. Sampling and data collection

Five large scale retailer shops were focused and from each fashion retailer shop, twenty frontline employees were selected by using convenience sampling method from each fashion store. Then all together 100 frontline employees in the large scale retailer shops had been selected for this research.

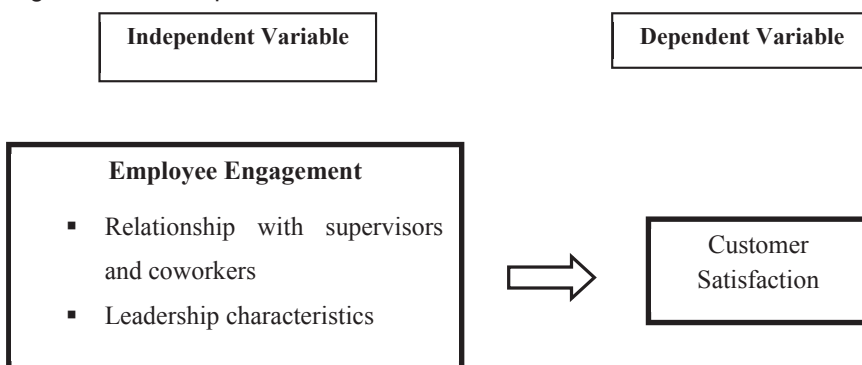
Another 100 sample of customers were also chosen on convenience base from the same five fashion retailer shops. To collect the data 100 questionnaires were directly distributed to customers by the researcher. A letter of request was attached to the questionnaire. Through these 100 questionnaires only 96 questionnaires were filled.

Two questionnaires were developed and first questionnaire had divided to two sections and those had been filled by frontline employees and second questionnaire had two sections and these last two sections were filled by customers at the same time that had been served from particular employees. At the end of data collection there were ninety-six (96) questionnaires filled by both employees and customers.

7.6. Conceptual Framework

The following conceptual framework illustrates the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable and also clearly shows the chosen two determinants of employee engagement and their relationship with customer satisfaction.

Figure 7.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: own compilation.

Based on the conceptual framework following hypotheses were developed.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between relationship with supervisors and coworkers and customer satisfaction

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between leadership characteristics and customer satisfaction

7.5.2. Operationalization of Variables

Table 7.1: Variables Operationalization

Variable	Dimensions	Indicators	Scale
Employee engagement	Coworkers and Supervisors	-Take on more work to help relieve my colleagues' workloads -Positive relationships with colleagues -Caring of supervisor -Commitment to do quality work -Best friend at work	Likert scale
	Leaders' characteristic	-Confidence about leaders -Trust about leaders -Having clear vision about organization -Leaders consult employees about important decisions	Likert scale
Customer Satisfaction	customer satisfaction with frontline employees	-Quick respond to requests -Following through on their promises -Doing things right the first time -Problem handling -Knowledge of products, brands and services -Ability to answer to questions -Understanding specific needs.	Likert scale
	manner in which customer is treated by frontline employees	-Friendliness of employees. -Willingness of employees to help. -Concerned and caring attitude. -Providing prompt customer service. -Being capable and competent. -Giving undivided attention. -Being consistently courteous. -Maintaining a professional appearance.	Likert scale

Source: own compilation.

7.5.3. Data Analysis

First responded data were stored and tabulated. Both two questionnaires were tabulated under one data base for the purpose of analyzing the relationship between employee engagement and customer satisfaction. SPSS version 22.0 used to analyze the data. Reliability test was carried out following table shows the values of Cronbach’s Alpha proving that reliability of data can be confirmed.

Table 7.2: Reliability Statistics

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
Employee Engagement	.748	4
Customer Satisfaction	.877	16

Source: own compilation.

A correlational analysis was carried out to test the hypotheses and following table shows the correlations obtained through data analysis.

Table 7.3: Correlation Coefficient Table

Correlations				
		Coworkers and Supervisor	Leaders characteristics	Customer Satisfaction
Coworkers and Supervisor	Pearson Correlation	1	.128	.772**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.215	.000
	N	96	96	96
Leaders characteristics	Pearson Correlation	.128	1	.301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.215		.003
	N	96	96	96
Customer Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.772**	.301**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	
	N	96		96
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				

Source: own compilation.

7.6. Findings

The formulated two hypotheses can be accepted as the results of data analysis show that they are statistically significant. Furthermore, the findings revealed that the dimensions of independent variable (employee engagement) have different nature of relationships with customer satisfaction. Relationship with, coworkers and supervisors and customer satisfaction shows through the Pearson correlation coefficient $r=.772$ and $p = .000$ (significant level 2-tailed). From this correlation analysis it shows that, the relationship with coworkers and supervisors of employee's is significantly correlated with customer satisfaction. The value of correlation lies between 1 and -1, there is a positive or negative linear relationship and when the value get 0, and it indicates that there is no relationship in between two variables (Bekele et. al 2014). "Social support stimulates employee engagement either through satisfaction of basic needs or through the achievement of work goals. Job burnout literature has also extensively studied social support and has shown that there is a consistent and strong evidence that lack of social support is linked to burnout" (Sakovska, 2012, Importance of Employee Engagement in Business Environment). Hakanen, et al., (2006) have stated social support from supervisor and colleagues important to generate positive social climate which direct to employee engagement.

Characteristic of leaders/ senior managers has aslight correlation with customer satisfaction. Pearson correlation coefficient $r=.301$ and $p = .000$ (significant level 2-tailed). Multiple regression had shown the impact of attitudes on leaders/ senior managers on customer satisfaction. According to Bernthal (2004), "leaders and line-managers face an extremely difficult task in determining how to effectively motivate, support and engage their employees". Karsan (2011) stated that it can be identified in a couple of studies that a strong degree of trust, confidence in senior leaders enhances the chances that the individual will repay with engagement. But in this research it showed a small correlation between attitudes on leaders/ senior managers and customer satisfaction. In Sri Lankan context cultural bond is quite strong and it may be affecting on this small correlation between above two variables, and as well as organization environment, organization culture, HR policy of organization can also affect.

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CHAPTER 8

GENDERED EXPECTATIONS EXPERIENCED BY IT WOMEN IN SRI LANKA: A THEORETICAL REVIEW

8.1. Introduction

The reflexive re-look at 'gendered organizations' by Joan Acker (2012) invites researchers to rethink gender in contemporary work settings. Given the recent trend of increasing the number of women in the labor force and particularly in to gender atypical work, this paper focuses on women employees who are successful in hegemonically masculine work domains. The paper proposes a favorable answer to one of the questions set by Acker (2012), to understand the evolution of gendered phenomenon (masculinity and femininity) and its impact on employment in contemporary organizations. The research question explored in the paper is as follows; **Do new or strengthened ideologies of masculinity and femininity support changing organizations and proliferating forms of employment?** (Acker 2012, pp 222, question: 05).

In order to address the above question, the paper begins by exploring two specific arguments related to the IT industry to establish the gendered ideology of the industry. Subsequently, careful consideration is given to the challenges experienced by women in the IT industry which highlights gender substructure and gender subtext

(Acker, 2012) of the industry. In addition, the study considers women who are committed to delivering outstanding performance and retaining in the industry to explore the impact this has towards performance by strengthening the gender ideology by women in men dominant work. To do so, the authors specifically concentrate on the IT industry in Sri Lanka.

8.2. Context: The danger of being gendered

Over the last few decades, seminal research studies have portrayed a clear picture of the evolution of gender in organizations. Kanter (1977) was interested in researching minority gender groups at work. West and Zimmerman (1987) in their seminal work emphasized gender adjustments in the workplace. Eagly (1987) also discussed specific social roles assigned to each gender and their influences on employment, while Acker (1990; 2006; 2012) was very critical of the concept of gender neutrality in organizations. The commonality of all these contributions was the feminist ideology and the common acceptance of women as major victims. Women entering gender atypical work settings are breaking two barriers which exclusively bring pressure on them (Denissen, 2010; Kvande, 1999). Firstly, they are crossing the border of gender atypical labor and entering into highly technical professions. Secondly, they are exposed to certain challenges and issues. One of them is representing a numerical minority in these masculine hegemonies where men always appear to have a monopoly on power. For women to succeed in a gendered work domain they often have to develop a masculine identity in order to appear as a 'social man' (Lohan & Faulkner, 2004) or make gender adjustments to be able to play a similar role as men (Ainsworth, Batty & Burchielli, 2014). However, the ability of women to be purely masculine and forget their feminine attributes remains debatable.

Therefore the understanding towards gender identities in gendered organizations is crucial. Hence the main purpose of the paper is to build a navigation to understand how changing gender identities would impact on individual and organizational performance, focusing on the IT industry in Sri Lanka. It is worthwhile looking at how women sustain their role and what possible approaches they have employed in these male dominated work cultures. These sustainable approaches used by women could not be mere random behaviors but consciously developed as per the demand raised by the context. A range of studies have emphasized changing gender identities as part of the work requirement which helps to explain the detachment of capable women in nontraditional areas of employment. If this cycle is not broken serious Human Resource (HR) issues are likely to occur in these male

dominated work contexts. Therefore research on women who ‘stay’ will provide a deeper explanation on how they are ultimately attempting to manage these various issues and sustain themselves successfully.

8.3. IT industry in Sri Lanka

When it comes to male dominant work cultures there is a number of specifically identified male dominated industries such as Engineering, Information Technology (IT) and Construction Engineering (Balcita, Carver & Soffa, 2002; Baxter & Wallace, 2009; Hellense, Nielsen & Trauth, 2001; Lohan & Faulkner, 2004; Watts, 2009). Science and technology are widely acknowledged as powerful motifs of hegemonic masculinities.

This paper gives its entire focus on development of gendered ideologies of women as numerical and normative minorities in the IT industry (Balcita, Carver & Soffa, 2002; Lewis, 1999; Valenduc & Vendramin, 2005; Lohan & Faulkner, 2004). Quite specifically, selection of the IT industry as the study context was motivated by four key elements which are embedded in the IT industry worldwide (figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1: IT industry as the study context

A key player in economic development	Low women’s representation
Use of team based work cultures	Growing number of women in IT related education

Source: own compilation

The number one selection criterion was the role performed by the industry as a key player in economic development of a country. Secondly IT industry had low women’s representation. Haag (2005) identified gender imbalance as a key issue in the IT industry. Furthermore employee turnover is high among women (Jayaweera, Sanmugam & Wanasundara, 2006). The next significant factor is the growing number of women in IT related education (Misiak, Hozer-Koćmiel & Tomaszewska, 2014).

There is a tremendous potential for women to enter into different segments of the IT work. HR is one of key elements in IT industry, where the requirement of skilled, competent and outstanding personalities is always emphasized (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2011). The fourth criterion was the use of team based work cultures over individual-based work in IT companies (Fonseka, 2010). This has necessitated employees to develop greater interconnected and mutual dependency amongst each other in comparison to employees who work in more individualistic contexts. This dependency and interdependency creates problems in women's work lives for a number of reasons and shows why women (or men) are not able to become purely independent on their own. Thus the current body of research on this topic recognizes the challenges and issues faced by women employed in the IT sector as an ongoing, unresolved global issue (Bhattacharjee and Takruri-Rizk, 2011).

When it comes to IT, it can be identified as a significant growing sector (Chene, 2004). This is true in terms of the IT industry in Sri Lanka which is also expanding rapidly (Information and Communication Technology Agency (ICTA) of Sri Lanka, 2013). Sri Lanka is a developing country in South Asia. The social and cultural environment in Sri Lanka easily reinforces the gender gap in this industry (Jayaweera, Sanmugam & Wanasundara, 2006). Furthermore, as stated by Fernando and Cohen, (2011) Sri Lankan culture is dominated by a masculine hegemony, and not surprisingly the IT industry, is also found to be male dominant. However, the good news is that the National ICT Workforce Survey in Sri Lanka (2013) shows that women's participation in the IT workforce has improved from 21% in 2009 to 29% in 2013. This is a positive trend but needs more attention to enhance the attraction and retention of women in IT sector.

8.4. Gendered substructures and the subtexts of IT industry

In order to explore the gender orientation of a particular industry or organization, it is essential to look at gendered subcultures and subtexts (Acker, 2012). Hence, the explicit and implicit gender orientations of work can portray the existing gender norms of particular work contexts. Thus, it is essential to have a broad understanding of the national culture, the industry, organizations and employees. The essentialist perspective dichotomizes gender based upon the presumption of significant inherent differences between women and men. This view finds the causes of gender under representation in biology. The social construction perspective focuses on the social construction of IT as a male domain, which is interpreted as incompatible with the social construction of female identity. This view

seeks to explain the causes of gender underrepresentation in the IT sector. In the literature, there are contradicting arguments which present the IT industry as a 'gender neutral' (Kugele, 2009; Miller et al., 2000) work setting and also as a 'gendered' work setting (Lohan & Faulkner, 2004). A review of current literature indicate that while the IT industry strives to be a gender neutral industry, it remains very masculine (Anderson, 1999; Kovacs, Ryan, & Haslam, 2006; Lohan & Faulkner, 2004). This can be seen especially in IT project teams where men always outnumber women.

According to Karakowsky, Mcbey and Chuang, (2004) it's accepted that men and women differ in their behavior according to the early socialization process they were undergoing. Similar to this, Denton (as cited in Kailasapathy, 2013) also identified that men and women have developed predetermined gender roles over time. As per Abhayadeva, (2007, p.5) human attributes, roles, responsibilities, characteristics and behavioral expectations which are perceived to be gender specific are developed in the early stages after birth. Hence, 'dolls for girls and machines for boys' is a norm fixed into Sri Lankan culture; there are a few extraordinary individuals who break these social norms and join gender atypical work. Women IT specialists are somewhat exceptional in the Sri Lankan culture. However, successful performance by women, particularly in masculine and demanding situations, is perceived as a freak phenomenon due not to their real abilities but to other unstable external factors (Nieva & Gutek, 1980; O' Neill, 2002).

The presence of women in male dominated work requires them to face many challenging issues and fulfil different expectations. Rigg and Sparrow (1994) stated that women are caught between two forms of male prejudice. When women behave with more feminine qualities men like them but tend to perceive them as relatively unintelligent and incompetent. At the same time, if women behave and perform assertively then men see them as intelligent and competent, but they are disliked for being unfeminine. Thus a woman who behaves in a competent manner disconfirms sex role expectations and is usually either disliked or excluded from the group or her performance is discounted (Wijayawardena, Wijewardena & Samaratunge, 2017). Research has verified this argument further by stating that women who behaved assertively were seen as successful, despite being seen as less likeable, than women who use more feminine behavior styles. Heilman, Martell and Simon (1988) described the consequences suffered by women because of their sense of femininity within work cultures. They mentioned that aggressiveness, persistence, and

forcefulness are thought to be essential for being successful at jobs conceived as 'male' but none of these attributes was thought to characterize women. Therefore in past research conducted about gender, women were viewed as possessing a blend of both masculine and feminine characteristics (Rigg & Sparrow, 1994). According to Boyle (2002) women are increasingly expected to simultaneously behave like their male counterparts while bringing special qualities in to work that are supposed to soften the work. (Rigg & Sparrow, 1994; Valcore & Gomez, 2011). As ramifications for this dilemma of dual expectations many studies (Boyle 2002; Rigg & Sparrow, 1994; Valcore & Gomez, 2011) argue females should accrue expertise to be more task competent than men. Surprisingly on the other hand women should soften their assertive nature by balancing it with tentative behavior.

8.5. Strengthening the gender ideologies

The expectation from women to soften their assertive nature by balancing issues and challenges at work would require women to accommodate to men's prejudices. Furthermore all these ramifications suggest that women should manage themselves according to the different expectations placed upon them. Although these ideas are contradictory, it is clear that women's primary task is to gain acceptance and integrate with the majority of their work colleagues. Women entering male dominant fields either lose their feminine characteristics in order to gain acceptance or challenge the status quo which leads to failure, in achieving acceptance and inevitably is a reason for leaving mainstream employment. Therefore women within a male dominant field can expect to face a change in identity (Denissen, 2010; Hirschfeld, Jordan, Field, Giles & Armenakis, 2005; Young & Hurlic, 2007).

The scholarly answers for these concerns show that not all women who sustain are retained in the engineering profession contribute to gender diversity as expected. This has explained by Betz and Sekaquaptewa (2012, pp. 739) "for instance, women who excel in stereotypically masculine domains are subtyped into a less feminine gender category asserting that only certain types of women are good at masculine endeavours helps maintain larger stereotypes about most women".

The causes of gender underrepresentation in male-dominant work settings shapes women's gender identity and her professional development and her individual responses to the influences (Lohan & Faulkner, 2004; Miller et al, 2000; Rhoton, 2011). There are women who are able to sustain themselves successfully in male dominated employment contexts. A range of supportive factors such as

organizational culture, subcultures, management styles, social support, and work-family balance have been found to help women in these industries (e.g. Panteli, 2012; Panteli, Stack, & Ramsay, 1999). Almost all these favorable support belonged to external factors which are beyond the control of women. Nevertheless one critical component is missing – individual adjustments made by women in order to survive in context roles (Denissen, 2010; Fernando & Cohen, 2011). Initially, this was discussed in the leadership literature (Cook & Glass, 2014). It was suggested there that women adapt a variety of strategies to reestablish a 'femininity' that has been undermined by the 'masculine' nature of their work (Simpson, 2004). Moreover, in these masculine cultures, women exert more effort at identity management than their male counterparts. However, as clearly mentioned by Hellens and Nielsen (2001) both gender and IT can be considered as socially constructed phenomenon because IT related occupations are constructed as a domain that is attractive to male employees. Thus, the paper attempts to initiate a new research forum that seeks to encourage more women to be attracted and retained in the IT industry, especially in technical areas, in order to construct a healthier work environment for women to work within.

There are only few studies which explore the ability of women to integrate into a male dominant culture, working environment (Wicramasinghe & Jayathilake, 2006, p.17) and barriers associated with successful adaptation into a male dominated work environment. Though some studies proved that technology fields are gender neutral, women still become victims of men's technology and male dominant cultures (Lohan & Faulkner, 2004). As mentioned by Karakowsky, Mann, and McBey (2010) women in professional or upper level managerial positions which have been identified as male dominant, find it difficult to manage pressure like 'men'. However, managing like a stereotypical man who is aggressive and competitive, may be seen as too assertive but alternatively a more feminine and corporative manner may be received as soft and ineffective.

Women who succeed in male dominated environments often believe that they must act in unfeminine ways as this allows them to be viewed as efficient and competent. Assimilation of women distorts the characteristics of women and forces them into a role set upon them. Any movement away from this assimilation can lead women to be considered incompetent. These findings demonstrate that by adopting anti-feminine approaches women separate themselves from their own identity.

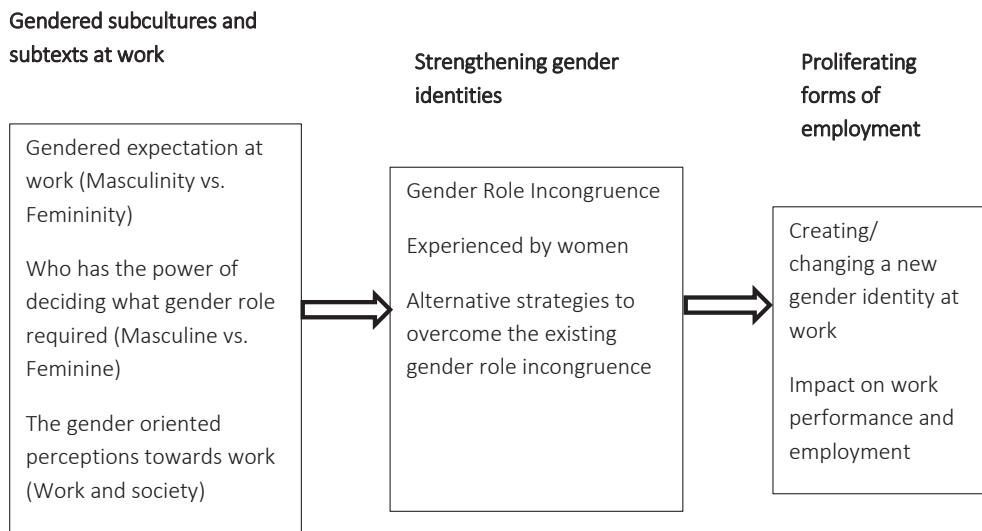
Table 8.1: The expectations placed on women in IT industry in Sri Lanka and their outcomes

Expectations placed on women	Responses by women	Outcome for women
Be competent in completing tasks	Gain expertise through training	Become task competent as their male counterparts Gain confidence
Adhere to masculine characteristics (e.g., aggressive, competitive etc)	Undermine their femini and take on masculine characteristics (e.g., be like a man, dress like men etc.)	Seen as more task competent and efficient, yet disliked as a person Can lead to quitting job
Display feminine characteristics (e.g., caring, understanding etc.)	Display and engage in traditional feminine behavior	Liked more as a person but seen as task incompetent Can lead to quitting job
Expect both masculine and feminine characteristics as per the demand of the work situation	Actively engage in identity management to cater to the required expectations	Able to sustain in their job

Source: own compilation

The following conceptual framework assists to build a conceptual model to answer the question proposed by Acker (2012), **do new or strengthened ideologies of masculinity and femininity support changing organizations and proliferating forms of employment?**

Figure 8.2: Changing and creating new gender identity



Source: own compilation

As can be seen in Figure 8.2, gendered subculture and subtexts at work originate from the gendered expectations placed on masculinity and femininity, who decides the gender roles at work and general social perceptions of what gender roles are. If these factors are highly biased towards masculine forms of gender behavior and roles, they can create a subculture and subtext at work that is greatly gendered and challenging to women employees. To counter this gender role incongruence experienced by women at work, it is necessary to employ alternative strategies. These can result in creating and developing a new gender identity at work for women that can ultimately impact their work performance and employment.

8.6. Summary

In line with Acker (2012) this paper is directed at the development of a new way that focuses on individual differences among women as they relate to the characteristics of work requirements in IT workplaces. The causes of gender underrepresentation in the socio-cultural environment shape each woman's gender identity, her professional development, and her individual responses to these influences (Lohan & Faulkner, 2004; Miller et al, 2000). Further, empirical studies could test how different work settings change gender ideologies and their impact on contemporary employment.

The aim of this paper was to seek an answer to the question: Do new or strengthened ideologies of masculinity and femininity support changing organizations and proliferating forms of employment? The authors believe that although much headway has been made in terms of opening up previously male-dominated work settings to women, there is still a discrepancy between the new ideologies of masculinity/femininity and the changing and proliferating forms of work. Work and organizations are still defined, described and promoted using masculine ideologies which cause barriers for women. Thus the authors propose a more gender diverse form of work culture, particularly in relation to the IT industry where both masculinity and femininity are accepted and utilized.

In order to make our contribution effectively, unlike in most of other studies we treated femininity as an untapped resource in most of engineering fields including IT. If IT industry requires celebrating diversity, incorporation of feminine values can be extremely valuable. Therefore, it is important to understand why we should not neutralise the gender component at work.

Interestingly there is an emerging research interest in 'soft engineering' (Hersh, 2017). The soft characteristics are moreover ascribed in feminine values. Thus, Wang & Degol (2017) affirm that several stereotypically feminine competencies are important to engineering work. The IT profession has been evolving around the world and boundaries of engineering have also expanded (Johnston, 2001). Acceptance of women could bring more inclusion to the engineering culture, where engineering may need more women inputs including emotional values in order to bring more value as it grows with new idea and competencies. It will also utilize the complementary skills that men and women can bring to the workplace (e.g., women's listening and caring skills alongside men's competitive nature to accomplish team tasks). Organizations should strive for work cultures that celebrate and make use of both masculine and feminine qualities. This will broaden the scope and productivity of occupations which were highlighted as gendered. Thus, we need more studies to discuss the creation of new gender identities while thinking beyond gender.

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