



**Investigating the Role of Mentoring and Social Capital in
Managing Gender Diversity at the Senior Management Levels
of the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland: A Study of
NHS Tayside**

by

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I certify that this is a true and accurate version of the thesis approved by the examiners,
and that all relevant ordinance regulations have been fulfilled

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the role of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity at the senior management levels of the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland. Although the NHS employs a large number of females, they are not fairly represented at the senior managerial levels. The objectives of this research are: to explore whether there is a relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity; to identify whether it is more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels compared to males; to investigate whether access to mentorship is likely to facilitate the career progression of females; and to analyse whether access to social capital is likely to assist the career progression of females. Hence this thesis is aimed to develop a framework for Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals to help to facilitate the career progression of women to senior managerial roles.

The data for the study were collected from the senior level managers, who worked for one of the 14 NHS health boards in Scotland, namely, the NHS Tayside. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were the primary methods of data collection. Some documentary data on gender and ethnic diversity at the senior levels were also collected from the organisation. The questionnaires were sent out to 633 male and female senior managers, 242 complete responses were received. This gave a response rate of 38.23%. A total of 13 interviews were conducted, 10 of the interviewees were females and three were males.

The areas that the research investigated were the relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity, differences between male and female career progression, and the role of mentoring and social capital in female career progression to senior managerial positions. The analysis of the findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. It confirmed that females find it more difficult to progress their careers to senior managerial levels compared to their male counterparts. Moreover, it established that there is a positive correlation between mentoring and female career progression. Similarly, a positive correlation is also found between access to social capital and female career progression.

This thesis makes a number of contributions to theoretical and practical knowledge in the areas of Human Resource Management (HRM), Human Resource Development (HRD), Equal Opportunities (EO) and Managing Diversity (MD). To the best of the researcher's knowledge no similar studies were conducted in the context of the NHS in Scotland. It contributes to the theory of diversity management by proving that there is a positive relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. It also offers original empirical evidence in support of the theories of human capital and social capital. It provides the Human Resource (HR) managers, practitioners, policy and decision makers, at an organisational level, a greater understanding of managing diversity in general and managing gender diversity in particular. This will help them to introduce and implement effective policies and initiatives to facilitate gender diversity at senior managerial levels.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother

Esmat Mirza, *Ph.D in Physics*

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List of Abbreviations

AfC	Agenda for Change
EHRC	Equalities and Human Rights Commission
GDM	Global Diversity Management
HOSS	Horizontal Occupational Sex Segregation
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
KHPI	Kenexa High Performance Institute
KSF	Knowledge and Skills Framework
NHS	National Health Service
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
VOSS	Vertical Occupational Sex Segregation

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the role of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity in senior managerial positions. There are a number of reasons for choosing to study the role of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity at the senior management levels of the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland.

Firstly, gender diversity in the workforce in Britain is increasing (England 2010; Davies 2011), but organizations are yet to be successful in ensuring full integration of females in the workplace (Taylor 2010; Ng and Wyrick 2011). Recent employment trends show that the percentage of women in the UK labour force is 46.4% while that of men stands at 53.6% (Catalyst 2012). Among the people engaged in part-time employment, over 70% are women (ONS 2012). These statistics reveal that women represent nearly half of the labour force but their representation at the senior organizational levels is significantly poor (Coleman 2011; LaPierre and Zimmerman 2012; Applebaum 2013; Muller-Kahle and Schiehl 2013).

Secondly, the changes in the demography of the UK labour force over the years have made managing diversity an important function for organisations. For example, the number of foreign-born people who are of working age increased from 2.9 million in

1993 to just over six million in 2013 (Rienzo 2014). Among these people, the total number of females is slightly higher than that of males. The number of foreign-born females in the labour market increased from 1.5 million in 1993 to 3.15 million in 2013. Moreover, a vast majority of the females employed in the UK labour market, work in the public sector. A total of 65% of the public sector employees are females and 35% are males (Fawcett Society 2013).

Thirdly, only one-third of the managerial jobs are held by women in Scotland. Also, it is estimated that women earn 12% less than men in full-time employment (EHRC 2012). In the year 2013 the UK government published its own statistics on gender diversity of public appointments for the very first time. It revealed that only 37% of the public appointments made in 2012 to 2013 were women. The cabinet office aimed to raise the proportion of women on public boards to 50% by 2015 (Cabinet Office 2013).

Fourthly, women's career progression is slow in professions that have been traditionally occupied by men, such as academic Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics and Medicine (STEMM) (Servon and Vissor 2011; Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012; Bevan and Learmonth 2013).

Fifthly, there is a clear gender imbalance in many areas within the NHS workforce, but in particular in the senior roles (Ellis 2010). Ballantine and Wall (2010) referred to the public sector as being guilty of vertical segregation, where women are generally unsuccessful in securing senior management and leadership roles. The

benefits that could be obtained by including women in the senior roles are illustrated by Burke (1997, 1999), Bilimoria (2000). It was argued that the NHS would be in an advantageous position by capitalising on the skills and knowledge of women, and at the same time it would give a voice to the majority of the workforce.

According to the Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC 2011) some of the reasons behind the underrepresentation of women in senior positions are: the lack of flexibility in organizations and the presence of outdated working pattern; under estimation of part-time work; and the tendency of women to switch to self-employment instead of waiting to be promoted to senior management roles. In this respect, Coleman (2011) summarized the barriers to career progression of females as the result of male dominated work cultures, especially at the senior levels; prevalence of gender stereotypes which portray males as the leaders and females as the subordinates; and genuine and professed result of family responsibilities on the females' work capacity. It was also argued that sluggish career progression is the result of persistent assumptions and stereotypes which see women as communal, dependent and passive and thus incapable of successfully handling the demands of a senior role (The National Academies 2006).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although gender diversity in the workforce is growing in number (England 2010; Davies 2011), organisations are yet to be successful in ensuring full integration of females in the workplace (Taylor 2010; Ng and Wyrick 2011). Mainstream management research historically marginalized the role of gender in management

(Broadbridge and Simpson 2011). According to Dwyer, Orlando and Chanwick (2003) management literature did not give sufficient attention to diversity management and failed to fully grasp the significance of managing gender diversity in organisations. It was not until recently when research on gender and diversity became important in management studies (see Metcalfe and Woodhams 2012; Broadbridge and Simpson 2011). Gender diversity research generally derives its premise and hypotheses from sociological studies of gender and women. In this respect, Tatli and Ozbilgin (2012) argued that research in the field of business and management benefits from insights drawn from gender and women's studies. Gender and women's studies enable practitioners to run successful organisations by employing, training and retaining a gender balanced workforce that is creative, innovative and productive which, in turn, leads to higher organizational productivity.

Equal opportunities and managing diversity are two related terms. However, the nature of the relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity from an organisational perspective has never been tested to date. One of the aspects of managing diversity is gender diversity. Despite being the majority of the public sector employees, women are still under-represented in the senior managerial positions. Therefore, there is a need for managing gender diversity. Although it is well recognised through published statistics that women's career progression to senior management levels is slower than that of men, there are no studies which sought the views of both male and female employees to establish whether they recognise that it is more difficult for females to progress to senior management

compared to males in the context of an organisation with a large number of female employees such as the NHS.

The literature reviewed showed that access to mentoring and social capital could help women overcome the barriers associated with their career progression to senior management. However, there are no previous studies that were conducted in any of the Scottish NHS boards which sought to understand the role of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity at the senior management levels.

1.3 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This research study aims to develop a framework that can improve existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career development and progression of females to senior management roles. To meet this aim, this study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

The main objectives of this research study are:

1. To explore whether there is a relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity;
2. To identify whether it is difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels;

3. To investigate whether access to mentorship is likely to facilitate the career progression of females; and
4. To analyse whether access to social capital is likely to assist the career progression of females.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In order to meet the aim and the objectives of the study, the following research questions are formulated:

1. What is the relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity?
2. What is the difference between male career progression and female career progression to senior managerial positions?
3. How does mentoring affect female career progression in the NHS Tayside in Scotland?
4. How important is it for females in the NHS Tayside in Scotland to have access to social capital for career progression to senior managerial levels?

The literature reviewed in relation to the research aims, objectives and the research questions has led to the development of the following hypotheses:

- **H1:** There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the NHS organisation studied.
- **H2:** Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males.
- **H3:** There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females.
- **H4:** There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and the career progression of females.

The next section provides the details of the conduct of the study that was implemented in order to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses developed.

1.5 CONDUCT OF THE STUDY

As it will be explained in more details in the methodology chapter, the methodology adopted to carry out this study was based on the research questions and hypotheses developed. The philosophical assumption that guided the conduct of the study is interpretivism. The interpretivist ontology and the epistemology of the study necessitated the research to be conducted through a predominantly qualitative approach. However, there were some research hypotheses to be tested, which could

not be done through a purely qualitative research. Therefore, a mixed methods research strategy was adopted. Prior to data collection, a pilot study was conducted to test the validity of the questionnaire and to adjust the interview schedule. All primary data for the study were collected from the male and female employees of NHS Tayside who were employed in the top two salary bands, namely, bands 8A to 8D and band 9. The data were collected through the administration of self-completion questionnaires which comprised of mostly close-ended questions and one open-ended question. Data was also collected through in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The questionnaires were made available online via the Survey Monkey platform. The link to the questionnaire was emailed to 633 selected individuals of both male and female gender. A total of 242 complete and valid responses were obtained. This gives a final response rate of 38.23%. Following the questionnaire data collection, interviews were conducted with 13 individuals who had completed the questionnaire and had given their consent to be interviewed. Among the 13 individuals, 10 were females and three were males. All data collected were completely anonymised and all ethical considerations were carefully maintained at all times. The questionnaire data collected were analysed using the SPSS software package, whereas the interviews were analysed thematically.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The Equality Act 2010 requires the public sector organisations such as the NHS to ensure equality of opportunities and to manage diversity. The outcome of this research will enable NHS Tayside to partially fulfill NHS Tayside Equality Outcome 4 of the NHS Tayside Mainstreaming Report and Equality Outcomes 2013 – 2017

which aims to identify measures for improvement in equality of opportunity in employment policy and practise. The framework developed by this research could be used to evaluate and assist the career progression of women to senior management roles, thus enabling large public sector organisations, such as the NHS, to improve its progressive policies in relation to diversity management through equal opportunities in employment.

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This section outlines the contents of the chapters presented in this thesis. After this introductory chapter, chapter 2 provides the background of the organisation in which the study was conducted. It provides a brief history of the NHS in Scotland, its structure and its operations. Then it focusses on the Agenda for Change (AfC) and equality and diversity policies and practices of NHS Scotland. AfC is the current pay and grading system of all NHS staff, excluding doctors and dentists and some senior managers. Next it presents the documentary data on gender and ethnic diversity at various pay grades that were obtained from NHS Tayside. The chapter also provides a brief analysis of the equality and diversity practices of the NHS.

Chapter 3 is the first of the two literature review chapters. It reviews the literature on equal opportunities and managing diversity with a focus on gender diversity in organisations. The various theories, models and concepts that are related to gender diversity and organisations are critically reviewed. Hypotheses 1 and 2 are developed from the literature reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter 4 provides a review of literature on the role of human resource development in managing gender diversity. It provides a link between human resource management, human resource development, gender diversity management, mentoring and social capital. It offers a detailed review of the role of mentoring and social capital in career progression. The origins, theories and various up-to-date researches associated with mentoring and social capital are critically assessed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 is on the research methodology and the research methods used in this study. It gives an account of the methodological considerations undertaken and the rationale for the chosen methodology. The philosophical, epistemological, ontological assumptions of the research are explained before the data collection and analysis methods and the ethical considerations maintained during the course of the research are discussed and justified.

Chapter 6 presents the findings from the analysis of the data collected. The findings are presented in line with each section of the questionnaire and supported with quotations from the interviews. The analysis of the data is used to test each of the research hypotheses before a summary of the research findings is given at the end of the chapter.

Chapter 7 is the discussion of the findings of the research. It discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter in relation to the literature reviewed earlier in the thesis. The areas discussed are equal opportunities and managing diversity, gender

diversity, role of mentoring in female career progression and the role of social capital in female career progression. As these areas are aligned with the research objectives, their discussion led to the development of a theoretical framework for the study of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity in organisations.

Chapter 8 concludes the whole thesis with a summary of the main issues raised in this thesis, a reconsideration of the research objectives, a discussion of this study's contribution to knowledge, and some recommendation for gender diversity management. It also explains the limitations of the study and makes some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL BACKGROUND: THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE (NHS) IN SCOTLAND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The UK's National Health Service (NHS) is the largest and the oldest publicly funded healthcare system of the world. The National Health Service Act was passed for England and Wales in 1946 and the National Health Service (Scotland) Act was passed in 1947. The two legislations came into effect concurrently on the 5th of July 1948. As a result, the UK National Health Service (NHS) was established on the 5th of July 1948. It was inaugurated by the then Health Secretary Aneurin Bevan's opening of the Park Hospital in Manchester. The opening of the NHS is the outcome of a very ambitious plan to make good health care available to all regardless of wealth (National Health Service 2013). Under the NHS, the healthcare services are free to all UK residents, with the exception of prescriptions and optical and dental care. However, NHS prescriptions are currently freely available to people residing in Scotland. The NHS is the largest employer in Europe. It employs 1.3 million staff (NHS Careers 2015). There are over 350 different careers in the NHS. Over 70% of NHS staffs are involved in treating and caring for people under the following groups: nursing, midwifery, medicine, dentistry, the allied health professions and healthcare science. The large size of NHS means that management and organisation is an integral function of the service. In this regards, most healthcare staff have an option

to progress to work as clinical managers in order to help co-ordinate and deliver quality care.

2.2 HISTORY OF THE NHS IN SCOTLAND

The NHS has a distinctive Scottish root which commenced well before 1948 (Scottish Government Health Directorates [no date]). According to the Scottish Government Health Directorates, the history on the NHS in Scotland began in 1913 with the setup of the Highlands and Islands Medical Service. The Highlands and Islands Medical Service became fully functional after the First World War. Government grants were provided to doctors to treat patients in rural areas of the Highlands and Islands. Although the doctors were allowed to charge their patients a minimal fee, in most cases they ended up treating them for free. Next in 1936, the Cathcart Report, which was prepared by a committee set up by the Secretary of State for Scotland, recommended a new Scottish health service which is run by the general practitioners. The report was centred on promoting health instead of plainly treating the ill. The following year, Scottish novelist and physician Archibald Joseph Cronin published his best-known novel, 'The Citadel'. The novel helped shape public opinion ahead of the inauguration of the NHS. It was heavily inspired by the novelist's time in Tredegar, where he worked as a doctor along with Aneurin Bevan, who later became the architect of the NHS. The Emergency Hospital Service was established in 1939 ahead of the Second World War. Scotland made full use of it by increasing the number of general hospital beds by more than double. There were seven new hospitals built in areas which had the possibility of being bombed. The medical practise was upgraded by the introduction of new specialities, and an

innovative scheme in preventative medicine. These large scale state funded medicine in modern hospitals was directly run by the Scottish Office in Edinburgh. The Beveridge Report was published in 1942. The economist William Beveridge came up with a blue-print for an entire welfare state which also incorporated a national health service. The committee Beveridge worked in to publish this report, comprised of the Muriel Ritson who represented the Department of Health for Scotland. Muriel Ritson was an experienced health administrator who had previous involvement in the Highlands and Islands Medical Service. Beveridge was also influenced by a Scottish woman, by the name of Jessy Mair. She was one of Beveridge's close friends in Edinburgh. Finally, in July the 5th of 1948, the National Health Service was inaugurated across the UK. However, the service was separately set up in Scotland by an act which was passed in 1947.

2.3 STRUCTURE OF THE NHS IN SCOTLAND

In 2014, the NHS Scotland employed approximately 160,000 employees (Scottish Health Directories 2015). The employees are spread across 14 regional NHS Boards, seven special NHS Boards and one public health body. The 14 regional boards are: NHS Ayrshire and Arran, NHS Borders, NHS Dumfries and Galloway, NHS Fife, NHS Forth Valley, NHS Grampian, NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde, NHS Highland, NHS Lanarkshire, NHS Lothian, NHS Orkney, NHS Shetland, NHS Tayside and NHS Western Isles. These regional NHS Boards are accountable for the protection and improvement in health of the local population and for providing primary health care services in their regions. The purpose of the special NHS Boards is to provide support to the regional NHS Boards by supplying them with an array of

essential specialist and national services. All the NHS Boards are answerable to Scottish Ministers who are supported by the Scottish Government Health and Social Care Directorates.

2.4 AGENDA FOR CHANGE AND EQUALITY AND DIVERSITY IN NHS SCOTLAND

The Agenda for Change (AfC) is significant to the employment of a large number of NHS staff. AfC is the single pay system that is in place in the NHS. NHS Agenda for Change (AfC) became effective from 1st October 2004. It is applicable to all NHS staff who are directly employed. This excludes doctors, dentists and some staff in very senior roles. AfC is made up of three core elements. These are: job evaluation, harmonised terms and conditions and the Knowledge and Skills Framework (KSF). All NHS staff employed under the NHS Agenda for Change (AfC) Terms and Conditions are bound by the NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework. The NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework (KSF) supports staff to identify the knowledge and skills required to do their jobs well.

Equality and Diversity is the 6th core dimension of the Agenda for change: the NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework (NHS Scotland 2012). The 6th Core Dimension provides separate definitions of equality and diversity. It defines equality as, “creating a fairer society where everyone has the chance to participate and fulfil their potential”. The definition of diversity is, “recognising and valuing difference in its broadest sense. It is about creating a culture and practice that recognises, respects and

values people's differences for the benefit of all." (NHS Scotland: KSF Guidance 2015, p.1).

As a public sector organisation, the NHS is legally bound by the Equality Act 2010. Mainstreaming equality is a requirement of the current Equality Act 2010. The process allows for equality to be embedded in organisational systems, functions and culture. It simply refers to integrating equality into the day-to-day operations of an organisation. The next section provides an introduction to NHS Tayside.

2.5 NHS TAYSIDE

The data for this thesis was collected from one of the 14 regional NHS boards in Scotland, namely, NHS Tayside. This health board was established in April 1974. It provides health care services to the residents of the geographical areas of Angus, Dundee, Perth and Kinross. According to the General Register Office for Scotland, these three regions had a combined population of 405,721 in the year 2011. A total of 22 major and community hospitals are governed by NHS Tayside and it also comprises of over 75 GP surgeries and various health centres which are staffed by over 30,000 employees.

The secondary data collected from this NHS Board show that the percentage of females dropped significantly from salary Band 5 to Band 9. In November 2013, there were 88.83% female employees in Band 5, but only 37.50% at the top salary band, which is Band 9. This clearly shows that females are not represented in equal proportions in all levels of management. Although over 80% of the employees in the

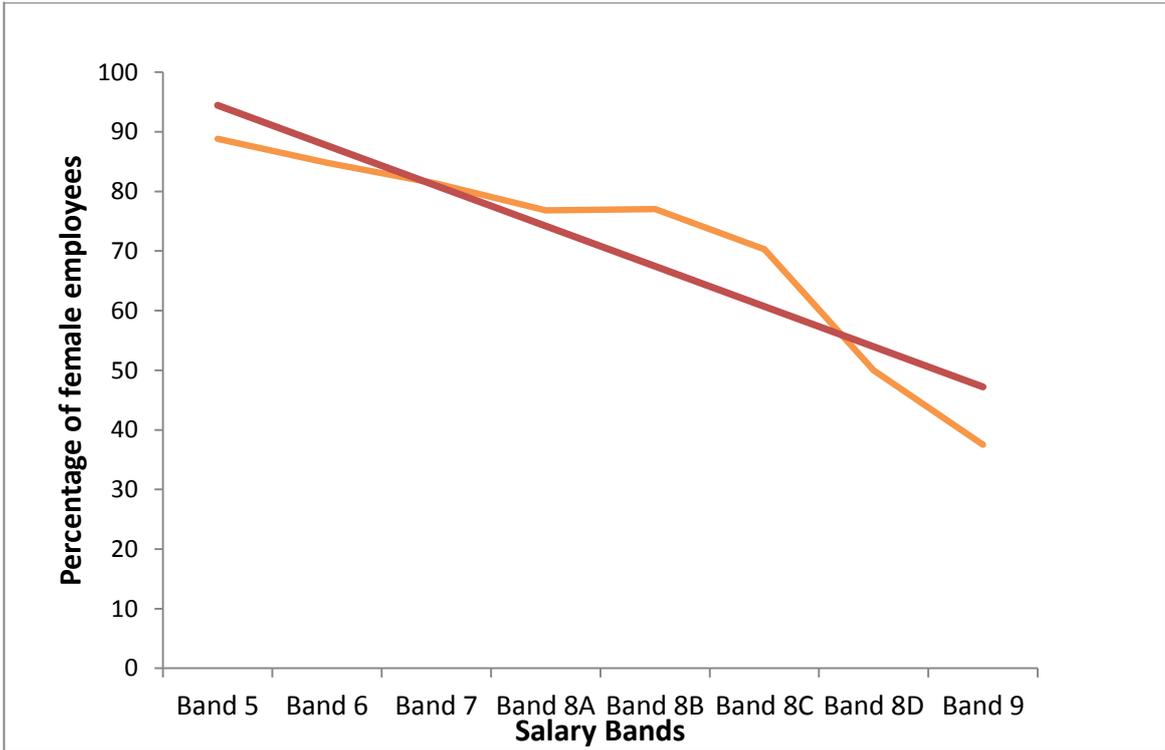
junior and middle-managerial levels in the NHS Board are women, the most senior management level is very male dominated. Table 2.1 below shows the percentage of female employees in salary Bands 5 to 9 as of November 2013. Salary Bands 1 to 4 do not represent any managerial duties, therefore those are not presented in the table.

Table 2-1: Percentage of female employees in salary band 5 to 9 as of November 2013

	Band 5	Band 6	Band 7	Band 8A	Band 8B	Band 8C	Band 8D	Band 9	Total
Females	88.83%	84.82%	81.35%	76.81%	77.06%	70.27%	50.00%	37.50%	85.33%

Source: Collected from NHS Tayside for the purpose of this research

Figure 2-1: Relationship between number of female employees and salary bands



Source: Based on the information in Table 2.1

Figure 2.1 is a graphical representation of the data presented on Table 2.1. It shows that the percentage of female employees is inversely proportional to salary bands. This means that, as the salary band increases, the percentage of female employees at each band decreases.

2.5.1 Ethnicity of female employees in the organisation

Data on the ethnicity of the female employees from salary band 5 to salary band 9 show that among the 37.50% female employees in salary band 9, the majority were Irish at 66.67% while only 33.33% were Scottish. There was no other ethnic group represented among the females in band 9.

The range of different ethnic groups represented by the female employees from salary band 5 to salary band 9 can be grouped into the following categories: Asian, Caribbean, White – British, White – Irish, White – Other, and Mixed or multiple ethnic groups. However, the ethnicities of all the female employees from pay Band 5 to pay Band 8D are not known as some declined to disclose their ethnicity.

Female employees in Band 5 and Band 6 are most ethnically diverse. In Band 5, there were 0.31% Asians, 0.03% Caribbean or Black only, 0.21% were from mixed or multiple ethnic groups and 1.25% of the female employees were from other white background. As shown in Table 2.2 below, female Asian employees are only represented in Band 5, Band 6 and Band 8A. The highest percentage of female Asian employees is in Band 6 at 0.37%, and the lowest in Band 5 at 0.31%. While, the representation rate of Asian females is only 0.32% in Band 8A. Females of

Caribbean origin were only represented in pay band 5 at 0.03%. However, the highest percentage of females who identified themselves as White – British was in Band 8D at 28.57% while the lowest percentage of White – British females was represented in Band 5 at 7.01%. The percentage of White – British females increased sharply from band 7 at 8.16% to Band 8A at 14.94%. Another significant rise in percentage of White – British female is seen from Band 8C to Band 8D. At Band 8D, it almost doubles to 28.57% from 15.38% in band 8C. Also, White – Irish females were only represented in salary Bands 5, 6, 7, 8A and Band 9. Their representation was very low in the first four bands at only 1.26% on average. Nevertheless, there was a significant leap in the percentage of White – Irish females in Band 9 at 66.67%. Similarly, White – Scottish females were represented in all the bands. However, the percentage of White – Scottish females was generally inversely proportional to increasing salary bands. The highest percentage was represented in Band 5 at 67.29% and the lowest in Band 9 at 33.33%. Conversely, females from other white backgrounds were only represented from Band 5 to Band 8A. The lowest percentage was in Band 5 at 1.25% and the highest percentage was in Band 8A at 2.38%. Similar to females from other white backgrounds, females from mixed or multiple ethnic groups were also represented from Band 5 to Band 8A. The highest percentage was in Band 6 at 0.37% and the lowest is in Band 5 at 0.21%.

The data presented in Table 2.2 clearly indicates that females from ethnic minority backgrounds struggle to progress to the senior managerial levels of the organisation. Therefore, it can be concluded that when gender intersects with ethnicity it is even more difficult for females to progress their career.

Table 2-2: Ethnicity of female employees in band 5 to band 9 as of November 2013

Ethnicity	Salary Bands								Total
	Band 5	Band 6	Band 7	Band 8A	Band 8B	Band 8C	Band 8D	Band 9	
Asian – Other	0.31%	0.37%		0.32%					0.28%
Caribbean or Black – Other	0.03%								0.02%
Declined to disclose	10.03%	9.63%	10.28%	6.17%	11.90%	3.85%			9.72%
Don't Know	12.64%	12.72%	10.64%	9.74%	7.14%	23.08%	21.43%		12.20%
Mixed or Multiple Ethnic Group	0.21%	0.37%	0.35%	0.32%					0.28%
Other Ethnic Group – Other	0.03%		0.24%	0.32%					0.07%
Skipped the question	0.03%								0.02%
White – Irish	1.15%	1.05%	1.54%	1.30%				66.67%	1.19%
White – Other	1.18%	1.48%	1.65%	1.30%	2.38%				1.35%
White – Other British	7.01%	8.21%	8.16%	14.94%	16.67%	15.38%	28.57%		8.16%
White – Polish	0.07%								0.03%
White – Scottish	67.29%	66.17%	67.14%	65.58%	61.90%	57.69%	50.00%	33.33%	66.68%

Source: Collected from NHS Tayside for the purpose of this research

2.6 DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE NHS

Public sector organizations have been responding to external calls to achieve gender diversity within the workforce over the past decade (Silvestri 2015). In order to examine the extent to which the NHS is diversity orientated, the NHS Knowledge

and Skills Framework (KSF) was inspected. The NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework define and describes the skills and knowledge that all NHS staff are required to possess and apply to their job. It provides a single framework that is used in the review and development of all staff. The NHS KSF is central to the career and pay progression strand of the Agenda for Change. According to the ‘Agenda for Change: The NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework’ (2004), equality and diversity is the last of the six core dimensions of the Knowledge and Skills Framework that applies to all, employed by the NHS. This requires all employees to: behave in a way that is conducive to supporting equality and valuing diversity; actively support and promote equality and value diversity; and to develop a culture within the organisation that promotes equality and values diversity. In this case, it is observed that instead of using the term equal opportunities or managing diversity, NHS prefers to use the term equality and diversity. On the one hand, this particular chosen term reflects NHS’s intension to emphasise their legal obligation to comply with the Equality Act as a public service organisation. On the other hand, the inclusion of the word diversity reflects their intention to manage diversity and create a culture where everyone feels valued (Kandola and Fullerton 1998).

2.6.1 Analysis of Equality and Diversity Practices in the NHS

In the NHS Terms and Conditions Handbook (2014), Part 5 is titled as Equal Opportunities. It clearly reflects the organisation’s slight preference for the term. However, the first section under Part 5 is titled, ‘General Equality and Diversity Statement’, which reiterates the organisation’s commitment to diversity and in attracting and retaining staff from diverse backgrounds. This slightly contradicts

Kirton and Greene's (2005) suggestion that 'managing diversity', 'diversity management' or 'diversity policy' are terms that have replaced previously used words like 'equal opportunities' or 'equality policy' in many British organisations. It is clear that the NHS is not among the British organisations that have replaced the previously used term. It can be seen that the NHS clearly prefers to use both terms, almost interchangeably. The NHS's commitment to equality and diversity is further established by the presence of a dedicated Equality and Diversity Manager working under the Chief Executive's Department.

As noted in chapter three, according to Kandola and Fullerton (1994, 1998) the chief characteristics of diversity orientated organisation is illustrated through the acronym **mosaic**, which is the following: First of all, the **m**ission and values of diversity focused organisation need to be strong and positive with diversity management being a part of the long term goal. Next, **o**bjectives need to be geared to promote fairness within the organisation and should be reviewed regularly to avoid power being stalled in informal networks and to avoid the domination of a single group of employees at any level. Then, **s**killed workforces should be aware of the effects of biases in their decision-making, and managers should manage diversity skillfully while emphasizing the high quality performance of individuals and groups. Further, diversity orientated organisations are characterized by **a**ctive flexibility, which refers to the fact that diversity orientated organisations need to demonstrate a great deal of flexibility in working patterns, policy, practices and procedures. Moreover, **i**ndividual focus is thought to be the most important characteristics of a diversity orientated organisation. This means that instead of focusing on differences between

groups, a diversity orientated organisation develops and promotes all employees. Finally, in diversity orientated organizations, there is a culture that empowers and it is achieved through creating a trusting environment. The best way to foster an open and empowering culture is by safeguarding the absence of discrimination and prejudice.

Most of the above characteristics identified by Kandola and Fullerton (1994, 1998), appear to be present in NHS Tayside. For example, Equality and Diversity is one of the Core Dimensions of the NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework for all employees. The Agenda for Change: NHS Knowledge and Skills Framework (KSF) (2004) defined the word 'core' as, "*a key aspect of all jobs and of everything that everyone does. It underpins all dimensions in the NHS KSF*". Also, Section 30.1 of the employee handbook (p. 139) states that,

"All parties to this agreement commit to building a NHS workforce which is valued and whose diversity reflects the communities it serves, enabling it to deliver the best possible healthcare service to those communities. The NHS will strive to be a leader in good employment practice, able to attract and retain staff from diverse backgrounds and communities."

This demonstrates that equality and diversity is ingrained in the mission and the objectives of the organisation. The statement also confirms that the NHS values individual focus, which Kandola and Fullerton (1994, 1998) described as the most important characteristic of a diversity orientated organisation.

2.6.2 Mentoring and social capital in NHS Tayside

According to Gopee (2011) mentoring is recommended by the UK National Health Service as a method for developing employees for new roles. Documentary data collected from NHS Tayside shows that the organisation recognises the importance of mentoring in achieving diversity in senior positions. The document collected in this regard is titled, 'Diversity in leadership – Mentoring scheme evaluation' (see Appendix A). It shows that there was a pilot mentoring scheme run in 2010 to help enhance diversity in senior roles. However, the idea that mentoring could enhance diversity at senior management roles was not based on research evidence rather it was grounded on anecdotal evidence as can be seen from the document. The scheme was made available to all employees.

According to the document the aims of the mentoring project were to: provide relevant skills and knowledge training to mentors to support their mentees; provide an understanding and knowledge of equality and diversity agenda to the mentors; mentor staff for their career development and career progression to more senior positions; identify the impact of mentoring on key performance indicators which include recruitment and selection, training opportunities and workforce monitoring; and to support employees' continuous personal development so that the organisation could benefit from their improved capability and capacity. The intended outcome of the programme was to develop and maintain a group of mentors who would support the career development and progression of a wider group of employees. The expected long term benefits of the mentoring programme included improved representation of a diverse group of people and the underrepresented groups in all

levels of the organisations, increasing the knowledge of the employees on important issues by providing relevant training opportunities, identifying whether there were any barriers to career development among the diverse groups of people, effective management of people through clear objective setting, external networking, and better listening. The document also states that a formal mentoring programme is chosen to address the underrepresentation of people with diverse characteristics at senior levels because women and ethnic minority employees find it difficult to establish informal mentorship opportunities. After the pilot ended, the mentoring programme was never rolled out formally. Therefore, currently, there are no mentoring schemes offered to employees to increase diversity at senior management levels.

During the pilot mentorship programme, the importance of networking or social capital building was identified by the mentees. However, it was also identified as being a risk as it could easily be viewed as preferential treatment (see Appendix B). Unlike the case of mentorship, NHS Tayside has no history of officially offering opportunities of employees' social capital development for increasing diversity at the senior management levels.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a background of the NHS, NHS Scotland and NHS Tayside, which is the research organisation of this thesis. As a public service organisation, NHS Tayside is bound by the Equality Act 2010. Therefore, equality and diversity is embedded in the organisational policies. However, despite employing a large number

of female employees, the organisation is yet to achieve proportionately equal representation of female at the senior management levels which reflect their otherwise large presence at the other levels. The organisation piloted a mentoring scheme to facilitate diversity at senior management positions but the scheme was based on anecdotal evidence of a possible relationship between mentorship and career progression and it has not been implemented officially. The organisation never considered establishing a social capital building programme in order to achieve diversity at senior managerial positions.

The next chapter reviews the literature on equal opportunities, managing diversity and gender diversity at senior managerial positions.

CHAPTER 3: MANAGING GENDER EQUALITY AND DIVERSITY IN ORGANISATIONS: A LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on managing diversity with particular emphasis on gender equality and diversity. It is divided into six sections: The next section is on managing diversity and its related concepts. It starts with explaining the concept, origin and meaning of managing diversity in organisations and reviewing its conceptual and theoretical models. The following section discusses the meaning and the different terms associated with equal opportunities. The differences between equal opportunities and managing diversity and the various legislations that have been made over the years, supporting equality in the United Kingdom, are reviewed in this section. It concludes with a discussion of the importance of managing diversity in organisations. Then the section on intersectionality is based on the premise that the factor of gender does not always act alone to make career development difficult for women. It is argued that gender along with the interplay of other factors such as race, ethnicity, class, make promotions even more difficult for women to achieve. In the section on managing gender diversity in organisations, various theories and concepts relating to managing gender diversity in organisations and the numerous impediments faced by women while trying to progress their professional careers are reviewed. The concept of glass ceiling and the mechanisms

by which it functions are also discussed. In this respect, the key theories that illustrate the root causes of the glass ceiling are reviewed. The section ends with a review of the metaphors associated with women's lack of career progression. Finally the chapter concludes with a summary of the literature reviewed and the hypotheses developed.

3.2 MANAGING DIVERSITY

The practice of managing diversity has become a widely recognized and a familiar phenomenon in contemporary organisations. It has become more important than ever before because of many factors such as the rapidly changing workforce demographics caused by a demographic shift and economic and societal changes which resulted in a very diverse workforce (Thomas 2005; Hite and McDonald 2010). According to Alcazar et al. (2013), societal changes over the past decades have led to substantial increase in work-force diversity and cross-culturality. Also, the major stakeholders of a business such as the customers, competitors, employees, suppliers and board members are now more likely to be from across the globe (Cox 2001; Hay-Thomas 2004; and Hite and McDonald 2010). Therefore, the increasingly diverse characteristics of organizational stakeholders have made it necessary for organisations to engage in diversity management. It is also argued that people are more conscious of the fact that differences exist between individuals and that societies have become more tolerant in accepting, for example, people with various sexual orientations, physical disabilities, and ethnic minority backgrounds. In this context, Hite and McDonald (2010) argued that the heightened awareness of the existence of differences is also due to the awareness raised by the media such as

television, newspapers, radio and the instant access to information across the world over the internet. They stated that the internet has brought about major changes in business and industry which increased the importance of managing diversity. The increasing importance of managing diversity has made diversity management a common practice in both public and private organisations (Wilson and Iles 1999; Maxwell, Blair and McDougall 2001; CIPD 2005; Kirton and Greene 2009). The next section reviews the literature on the meaning, origin and models of managing diversity.

3.2.1 The meaning of managing diversity

The concept of managing diversity has its roots in the USA. It gained prominence during the late 1980s following a study by Johnston and Packer (1987) which concluded that white males were likely to become a minority of the new entrants in the workplaces of the USA by the year 2000 (Kandola and Fullerton 1998). The importance of the concept of managing diversity started to gain significance in the UK in the 1990s (Kandola and Fullerton 1998; Wilson and Iles 1999; Kirton and Greene 2009). Before going to the meaning of managing diversity, it is important to know the meaning of diversity in an organisational context. One of the recent definitions of “diversity” in organisations is provided by Herring and Henderson (2011) who stated that diversity in organisations broadly denotes to the policies and practices that are in place to create a more inclusive environment and a culture which seeks to include non-traditional members.

The most cited definition of managing diversity is provided by Kandola and Fullerton (1998, p.8), who explained that:

“The basic concept of managing diversity accepts that the workforce consists of a diverse population of people consisting of visible and non-visible differences which will include factors such as sex, age, background, race, disability, personality and workstyle. It is founded in the premise that harnessing these differences will create a productive environment in which everyone feels valued, where all talents are fully utilized and in which organisational goals are met.”

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD 2005, p.4) defines managing diversity as “valuing everyone as an individual - valuing people as employees, customers and clients”. Daniels and MacDonald (2005, p.1) provided an interpretation of this definition by explaining that a diverse organization comprises of a range of different people. For example, the difference could be due to gender, ethnic origin or disability. An organization that values these differences creates a positive environment by believing in diversity. They defined managing diversity as follows:

“Diversity in organisations is about recognizing this range of differences in people and valuing people as individuals, respecting their differences and their differing needs. It is also about accommodating differences wherever possible so that an individual can play a full part in the working environment.” (Daniels and MacDonald 2005, p.1).

It can be seen that this definition is very similar to Kandola and Fullerton's (1998) definition of managing diversity. The next section reviews some of the conceptual models of managing diversity.

3.2.2 Conceptual models of managing diversity

This section reviews four different types of conceptual models of managing diversity. The first one is the most widely cited and the first conceptual model of managing diversity to have been empirically tested. It is the strategic implementation model of managing diversity by Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998). The second one is a conceptual model for global diversity management by Nishii and Ozbilgin (2007). The third model is on managing diversity through Human Resource Management by Shen et. al.(2009). The final and the most recent is an integrative model of diversity management by Guillaume et. al. (2014).

Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998) are widely cited in managing diversity literature. They laid out the strategic implementation model of managing diversity, which is the first ever model of implementing managing diversity to have been empirically tested. The strategic implementation model consists of eight elements, all of which are intertwined in a spider web which allows all of the components to work in conjunction instead of functioning individually. The eight elements are: organisational vision; top management commitment; auditing and assessment of needs; clarity of objectives; clear accountability; effective communication; co-ordination of activity; and evaluation. Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998) used the acronym MOSAIC to illustrate the chief characteristics of organisations that are

diversity orientated. M is for Mission. Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998) described that the mission and values of a diversity focused organisation need to be strong and positive with diversity management being a part of the organisation's long term goal. O is for objectives. In a diversity orientated organisation, the Objectives are geared to promote fairness within the organisation and are reviewed regularly to avoid power being stalled in informal networks and to avoid the domination of a single group of employees in any level. S is for Skilled employees who are aware of the effects of biases in their decision-making, and managers manage diversity skillfully while emphasizing the high quality performance of individuals and groups. A is for Active flexibility that refers to the fact that diversity orientated organisations need to demonstrate a great deal of flexibility in working patterns, policy, practices and procedures. I is for Individual focus which can be thought to be the most important characteristic of a diversity orientated organisation. Instead of focusing on differences between groups, a diversity orientated organisation develops and promotes all employees. C is for organisational Culture that empowers employees through creating a trusting environment. Safeguarding the absence of discrimination and prejudice is the best way to foster an open and an empowering culture.

Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998) tested their model by carrying out two diversity management surveys in UK organisations. The aim of the first survey was to examine the diversity initiatives implemented by the organisations and which of those initiatives were deemed to be successful and to what extent. A total of 285 organisations took part in this survey. The data collected through this survey was used to compare the findings of the second survey. The second survey was designed

to test the strategic implementation model. Among the 285 organisations who had participated in the initial survey, 49 agreed to take part in a follow up survey. These 49 organisations were sent the second questionnaire. The result of the second survey showed a statistically significant relationship between the eight elements of the model and the successful strategic implementation of diversity management in organisations. The limitation of this model is that it focused on the views of only one senior manager within each of the organizations studied. Therefore, the effectiveness of diversity management initiatives as perceived by the employees was not taken into consideration (Cassell 2000).

Nishii and Ozbilgin (2007) developed a conceptual model for global diversity management. They described it as an inclusive model of global diversity. According to the model, firstly, effective global diversity management should be based on developing an inclusive culture within the whole organisation and including the global units in decision making. Secondly, human resource practices should be designed to meet the local needs. Thirdly, global diversity definitions and practices should be based on local culture and practice. In this respect, local director of diversity programmes should be appointed. The final component of global diversity management is development of global competencies through talent development, cross-cultural training, and inclusion of employees in global work teams and encouragement of cross-national social networks. The model proposes that a number of leadership and cultural foundations facilitate global diversity management. These are top management team's beliefs and attitudes, demographics, cultural IQ, prior international experience, interpersonal relations in top management teams and

organizational culture. The model presents the diversity related outcomes such as global knowledge creation and sharing, reactions to global diversity programme, performance and innovation and employee engagement. Ozbilgin et. al. (2013, p. 427) described this model as a “comprehensive process model of global diversity management (GDM)”. They criticized process models for lacking attention to context and for ignoring the conflicting interests of various influential stakeholders.

Human resource management’s role in diversity was emphasized in a model that was developed by Shen et al. (2009). According to their model, diversity management includes equal employment opportunities, affirmative action and recognizing and valuing the benefits of diversity. In this model, Shen et al. (2009) suggested that diversity management should occur at three levels of Human Resource (HR) practice, namely, strategic level, tactical level and operational level. Managers at all three level need to be involved in the process of managing diversity through a range of different activities, such as planning HR strategy that values diversity, training and development, and flexible employment. At the strategic level it is essential for managers to recognize the importance of diversity for the success of the organization. The top management commitment to diversity need to be reflected through organizational vision, mission, business strategy. At the tactical level managers need to engage in formulating a range of diversity policies that support the top management philosophy. The implementation of these policies should occur at the operational level. The model indicated that through the active involvement of HR line managers, an organization could meet the ultimate objective of diversity management such as compliance with the law, innovation and creativity,

responsiveness, employee attraction and retention, turnover and absenteeism reduction, greater marketing capability and high organizational performance.

More recently a conceptual model of diversity management was developed by Guillaume et. al. (2014). They described it as “an integrative model of diversity management in organisations” (p.785). The model is based on a relational approach consisting of four levels. It conceptualizes diversity as employee dissimilarity. The four levels are individual level, work group level, organizational level and societal level. In the model, three types of work related outcomes are included at the individual level, namely, innovation, effectiveness and well-being. It suggests that individual dissimilarity will lead to positive work related outcomes when employee need for belongingness and intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are met. This will also lead employees to identify with their work groups. In the second level of the model, work group factors include transactional and transformational leadership and work group climate for inclusion. The factors in the organizational level comprises of top management diversity beliefs and organizational diversity management policies and practices. The final level of the model includes societal factors such as legislation, socioeconomic situation and culture. The relational approach used in this model is recommended in diversity research (see Pringle 2009; Syed and Ozbilgin 2011). The four levels described in this model can be categorized into macro level (societal factors), meso level (organizational factors and work group factors) and micro level (individual factors).

Similar to the model by Kandola and Fullerton (1998), Nishii and Ozbilgin (2007) and Shen et al. (2009), the model by Guillaume et al. (2014) states the importance of having top management's commitment to diversity. Therefore, all four conceptual models reviewed emphasized the importance of top management's commitment in successful diversity management. While the first model by Kandola and Fullerton (1994, 1998) is very generic, the rest of the models are more specific. For example, Nishii and Ozbilgin's (2007) model focuses on global diversity management and the model by Shen et. al. (2009) focuses on the role of HR in diversity management. The models by Shen et. al. (2009) and Guillaume et. al. (2014) described a multi-level approach to diversity management. The next section reviews the literature on the theoretical models of managing diversity.

3.2.3 The theoretical models of managing diversity

Pringle et. al. (2006) and Pringle (2009) described diversity management as a field which lacks a strong theoretical foundation. Despite this constraint, authors in the past have endeavoured to link diversity management to theories in various ways. For example, Daniels and MacDonald (2005) linked the importance of diversity management to Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation. They argued that organisations should consider the relationship between motivation and diversity. They explained that if employees feel that they are being unfairly treated they are likely to have less persistence in their work efforts. Then they further explained it through Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg et al. (1957), argued that there are two different sets of factors that can be associated with job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The first set of factors are known as hygiene factors whose absence in

the workplace gives rise to job dissatisfaction but their presence does not increase motivation. Examples of hygiene factors include working conditions, supervision, status, security, and relationship with peers. The second set of factors is likely to increase motivation as they increase. These are factors that are intrinsic to the job and are known as satisfiers or motivators. They are responsibility, growth, achievement and the work itself. Although Daniels and MacDonald (2005) recognized the criticism of Herzberg's two factor theory that it was based on limited research, they believe that the theory illustrates how employee motivation can be affected by the lack of proper diversity management initiatives. They argued that perceived inequality of opportunity could impact hygiene factors, including status and relationship with peers. This demotivation will persist regardless of the presence of satisfiers. Therefore, the issue of diversity needs to be addressed. Daniels and MacDonald (2005, p.24) summed up this theory by concluding that, if employees lack equality of opportunity at work they will never be fully motivated.

Another motivation theory illustrated by Daniels and MacDonald (2005) in order to provide a theoretical underpinning of managing diversity is Adams's equity theory. According to the equity theory (Adams 1965), individual employees within an organization will be demotivated if they perceive that they are receiving unequal treatment and feel motivated if they perceive that they are receiving equitable treatment. Employees' perception of fairness comes from comparing the treatment they receive with the treatment received by comparable groups. Daniels and MacDonald (2005) argued that Adam's equity theory is directly relevant to understanding motivation and diversity. They stated that achieving diversity is about

treating everyone fairly. Therefore, an individual's perception of unequal treatment will decrease their motivation to perform better (Daniels and Macdonald 2005). The two theories of motivation illustrated by Daniels and MacDonald (2005) show the importance of motivation in managing diversity. Thus, they recognise the importance of managing diversity.

In order to facilitate the development of a theoretical model of managing diversity, Pringle (2009) suggested that a promising theoretical model to diversity research can be developed through Bourdieu's integrative and relational approach. Pringle (2009, p.80) argued that "Bourdieu's theory, such as the analysis of habitus and field" is applied in various sub-disciplines of organisations such as, entrepreneurship and SMEs, and gendered employment relations. In order to develop a theoretical model of managing diversity using Bourdieu's ideas, Pringle (2009) advocated viewing diversity management as a multi-layered phenomenon with three layers to consider, namely, macro level, meso level and micro level (House, Rousseau and Thomas-Hunt 1995). According to Pringle (2009), in the context of theorising diversity, the macro level refers to the country context which includes the demography and the socio-political system of the country. Meso level refers to the organisational level which comprises of organisational structures and cultures. Micro level represents individual levels and refers to individual attributes, relationship between the manager and the employee and individual interaction in small groups. Pringle (2009) suggests that it is possible to theorise workplace diversity through the use of Bourdieu's integrative and relational approach that connects the micro concept of 'habitus' to the macro level of 'field' through the 'capital' (Bourdieu 1977) accumulated by

individuals. Similar to Pringle (2009), an integrative relational and multi-level approach to diversity management research incorporating Bourdieu's theories of 'field', 'habitus' and 'capital' was advocated by Syed and Ozbilgin (2009). However, while Pringle (2009) described 'habitus' as a more micro concept and 'capital' as the connection between 'field' and 'habitus', Syed and Ozbilgin (2009) situated 'field' at the macro-level, 'habitus' at the meso-level and 'capital' at the micro level. Nevertheless, this is a subtle difference. Therefore, it is possible to develop theoretical models of managing diversity by utilising Bourdieu's approach.

It can be concluded that diversity management lacks strong theoretical foundations. Nonetheless, from Daniels and MacDonald's (2005) attempt to theorize diversity management, it was noted that diversity management is linked to equal opportunities. In her research on gender diversity and organisational culture, Simpson (2000) cited the example of an NHS trust in England which had achieved a gender diverse workforce through stringent application of equal opportunities policies. According to Kirton and Greene (2005), 'managing diversity', 'diversity management' or 'diversity policy' are terms that have replaced previously used words like 'equal opportunities' or 'equality policy' in many British organisations.

3.3 THE BENEFITS AND IMPORTANCE OF MANAGING DIVERSITY

A diverse workforce benefits the organisation and the society in a number of ways. In business organisations, diversity is a pivotal source of competitive advantage

(Basset Jones 2005; Herring 2009) and is linked with profitability (Richard 2000; Jackson, Joshi and Erhardt 2003; Ng and Wyrick 2011). The benefits of a diverse workforce have also been emphasized by the theories of organisational change (Katz and Miller 1986; Cox 1993; Thomas and Elly 1996; Cross 2000; Meyerson and Fletcher 2000; Thomas 2001; Zane 2002). For instance, according to Zane (2002) the literature on organizational change has extensively explored organizational diversity from various perspectives, such as, in case of an organizational merger where individuals from two or more different organizational cultures need to be integrated. In a study of a financial institution that was going through change, Zane (2002) investigated the diversity discourse that took place during the change process. A number of studies have been conducted to establish the business case of managing diversity and to illustrate the benefits that diversity management brings to all stakeholders of an organisation (see Cornelius et al. 2001; Mulholland, Ozbilgin and Worman 2006; Ozbilgin et al. 2008; Davies 2011). For example, a longitudinal action research study of public and private organisations that was conducted by Mulholland, Ozbilgin and Worman (2006) had identified a number of individual, group and organisational benefits of diversity management. The proponents of diversity management such as Cox (2001), Herring (2009), Choi and Rainey (2010), among others, have indicated that diversity is important in the workplace as it enhances the effectiveness and productivity of organisations through broadening the perspective of employees, creating stronger teams, and adding to the resources required for problem solving. It has been also argued that the benefits outweigh the potential costs of conflict and lower group cohesiveness (Skerry 2002; Herring 2009). However, there is another view that suggests that conflict created by diversity

actually increases business performance (Herring 2009). This is because conflicts act as a facilitator in enabling groups to be creative and think beyond the usual norm.

In order to fully grasp the meaning and importance of managing diversity, it is important to know the difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities. Therefore, the meaning of equal opportunities needs to be clarified before going to the difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities. Thus the next section is on the meaning of equal opportunities.

3.4 THE MEANING OF EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES AND THE LEGISLATION SUPPORTING EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE UK

A moral concern for social justice is traditionally reflected by the term equal opportunities and it is believed that the term equal opportunities recognises and involves the implementation of measures to obliterate discrimination and disadvantages based on social groups (Kirton and Greene, 2005). A series of legislation made in the United Kingdom supported equal opportunities. These series of legislation gradually transformed the way in which diversity is managed in organisations. The first legislation was made in the 1970, with the Equal Pay Act 1970. The purpose of the Act was to ensure equality in payment and contractual terms of male and female employees, whose work are of equal value or are similar in nature. This Act only applies to perceived inequalities in payment between male and female employees. It does not include perceived discrimination in pay on the grounds of race or disability. Workplace discrimination within the UK was rendered illegal

by the provisions of the Equal Pay Act 1970 (Leatherbarrow et al. 2010). The next legislation against workplace discrimination was the Sex Discrimination Act 1975. The purpose of this Act was to make it unlawful to treat individuals less favourably in the workplace on grounds of their sex and marital status. Although this Act was primarily introduced to protect discrimination against female employees in the workplace, it protects both male and female employees. The Act was amended in 1999 to include gender reassignment along with sex and marital status. Thus, making it unlawful to treat employees or job applicants unlawfully because of their gender reassigned status. The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 was followed by the Race Relations Act 1976. This Act makes it unlawful to treat individuals in an unfair manner on grounds of their colour, race, nationality and ethnic origins. Although the original purpose of the law was to protect individuals from ethnic minority origins against discrimination, it covers individuals of all origins, including white British employees. Another major Act that is important for the realization of Equal Opportunities for all was introduced in the 1990s, which is the Disability Discrimination Act 1995. This Act makes it unlawful to discriminate against disabled individuals in terms of employment conditions, career progression opportunities, dismissals or subjecting them to any other less favourable conditions.

However, Wilson and Iles (1999) have argued that the aforementioned series of legislation was not very effective in averting discrimination based on gender, ethnicity and disability in the public sector. At the beginning of the 21st century, some Employment Equality Regulations were added to renew the Acts made earlier. These include Employment Equality (Sexual Orientation) Regulations 2003, which

extended the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, to prevent discrimination based on sexual orientation, and Employment Equality (Religion or Belief) Regulations 2003, which is a direct result of the European Union's Equal Treatment in Employment Directive which prohibits discrimination on the grounds of religion or belief. There was also another Employment Equality Regulation, prohibiting discrimination on the basis of age which is the Equality Act 2006. Following this Act, Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) was established. The purpose of newly established EHRC was to ensure the enforcement of laws and rules pertaining to sex, race, disability, sexual orientation, religion or belief along with the general responsibility of promoting human rights. The Equality Act 2010 is the most recent addition to the equal opportunities legislation in the UK. It came into effect from October 2010. According to the Equality and Human Rights commission (2015, p1), the Equality Act 2010 provides "a modern, single legal framework with clear, streamlined law to more effectively tackle disadvantage and discrimination". The Equality Act 2010 combines over 116 separate pieces of legislation, forming a single Act. There are nine major pieces of legislation merged by the Act. They are: the Equal Pay Act 1970, the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, the Race Relations Act 1976, the Disability Discrimination Act 1995, the Employment Equality (Religion or Belief) Regulations 2003, the Employment Equality (Sexual Orientation) Regulations 2003, the Employment Equality (Age) Regulations 2006, the Equality Act 2006, Part 2 and the Equality Act (Sexual Orientation) Regulations 2007.

The next section reviews some of the terms connected to equal opportunities that are commonly used in the literature.

3.4.1 Affirmative Action, positive discrimination and positive action

Equal employment opportunities and affirmative action are terms that are sometimes used synonymously (see Sheriden, 1998; Strachan, Burgess and Sullivan 2004; Herring and Henderson, 2011). This is particularly true in countries like Australia where the Affirmative Action Act was enacted in 1986 to address the problem of unequal employment opportunities of women and in the United States where affirmative action legislation was introduced in 1965 to counter racial discrimination.

Affirmative action came into being together with equal employment opportunities as a result of the civil rights movements of the 1960s in the USA (Skrentny 1996; Collins 1997; Webb 1997; Hyman et.al. 2012). It consists of actively identifying, recruiting, promoting and retaining members of disadvantaged groups either as a consequence of legislation or voluntarily by an organisation (Herring and Henderson 2011). In general, affirmative action along with equal opportunities policies are used as a tool to operationalize or implement equal opportunities (Groeneveld and Van de Walle 2010). However, affirmative action has been criticized for being ineffective as an organisational policy in reducing inequality among the groups targeted (Ornati and Pisano 1972; Berry 1976; Cole 1981; Wilson 1987; Loury 1991; Herring and Henderson 2011).

In the UK, the word affirmative action is hardly used, while positive discrimination and positive action are the more commonly used words to describe such actions. Positive discrimination includes the process of actively trying to attract or employ member of certain groups. This type of discrimination is mostly illegal in the UK

(MacDonald 2004). Positive discrimination in the workplace may occur through “quota system”, which is a slightly radical approach to positive discrimination; other approaches are “tie-break system” and “threshold” system (Noon 2010, p. 731). The tie-break system involves basing selection on sex, ethnicity or disability when making a decision between two or more equally qualified candidates, and contrary to the tie-break system, the threshold system permits the management to make decisions in favour of the disadvantaged group of people who have achieved the minimum required standard to do the job. Hall (2010) indicated that positive discrimination is not endorsed under the current UK law, although allowances are made under certain circumstances. For example, the “tie-break” system of positive discrimination is endorsed by the Equality Act 2010. In this regard, Noon (2010) argued that positive discrimination is necessary for transformative change.

Instead of positive discrimination, positive action is commonly practiced in the UK to ensure diversity in organisations. Positive action is a subtler approach to positive discrimination, while positive discrimination involves active discrimination against well-represented groups in the workplace to favour under-represented groups, positive action involves encouraging a specific group to join the workplace or making it easier for them to obtain the job (MacDonald 2004; Hall 2010). However, positive action does not include taking disadvantages of the minority group into account while making a decision regarding selection, pay, and promotion (Noon 2010). Positive action is flexible and often legal. EHRC quoted in Leatherbarrow et al. (2010, p.168) states that, “where members of the relevant sex or racial group are under-represented, there are limited exceptions allowing discrimination in training,

or encouragement to apply for particular work. These lawful exceptions are often referred to as positive action”. Therefore it is legal to incorporate an equal opportunities statement in a job advertisement to indicate that the organisation welcomes women onboard or to devise a training programme for women in particular - as long as men are not prohibited from participating as well. Noon (2010) pointed out that many people react adversely against positive action because they mistake it as positive discrimination. However, MacDonald (2004) emphasized on the fact that positive action is not made compulsory by the law, instead it is an option available to employers who are interested to increase the number of employees from under-represented or disadvantaged groups.

The following section highlights the differences between managing diversity and equal opportunities.

3.4.2 The difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities

In Europe, the emphasis began to shift from equal opportunities to managing diversity in the 1990s as a result of the work of Ross and Schneider (1992). McDougall (1996) suggested that managing diversity is an alternative to equal opportunities and the difference between the two terms could be based purely on the different names used to describe them. Also, it was argued that equal opportunities and managing diversity represents stages in the evolutionary process where equal opportunities is the first stage and managing diversity is the second stage (McDougall 1996). According to Oswick and Noon (2014), in recent years, the focus has been shifting from diversity to inclusion. They have referred to academic

commentators and consultants such as Roberson (2006) and Burnett (2005) who argued that inclusion facilitates the inclusion of differences into business practice. Inclusion is different from diversity because diversity recognizes the value of differences in workforce and focuses on managing them in order to obtain competitive business advantage. Roberson (2006) further indicated that the concept of inclusion focuses on individuals rather than groups. Therefore, inclusion might not be beneficial to disadvantages groups of people. Oswick and Noon (2014) maintained that it is not clear whether the recent focus on inclusion is the beginning of the shift away from diversity to inclusion. Their analysis of publications on equality and diversity and inclusion between 1970 and 2009, available from the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), revealed that diversity is the most popular area of research, followed by equality.

Managing diversity came into prominence due the criticisms of equal opportunities (CIPD 2005). According to CIPD (2005) the main criticism of equal opportunities was that, it is not sufficiently holistic for eradicating discrimination. Maxwell, Blair and McDougall (2001, 469) adopted the following definition of managing diversity to demonstrate that managing diversity differs from equal opportunities in two distinct ways - managing diversity involves: "...understanding that there are differences among employees and that these differences, if properly managed, are an asset to work being done efficiently and effectively. They argued that there are two aspects of this definition that differentiate it from equal opportunities. Firstly, it illustrates that managing diversity conveys a positive dimension of the existing social-group based differences among employees as opposed to the negative

perspective of being disadvantaged and discriminated against in equal opportunities. Secondly, it is more inclusive in terms of incorporating diversity factors that are not covered by the law. Examples of diversity factors are race, culture, ethnicity, gender, age, disability, and work experience (Bartz et al. 1990). McDougall (1996) viewed managing diversity critically and questioned whether it was equal opportunities presented in a different name or an evolved form of equal opportunities. To illustrate the difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities, Wilson and Iles (1999) described a paradigm shift where the concept of equal opportunities is the old paradigm and managing diversity is the new paradigm. Wilson and Iles (1996) as well as Kandola and Fullerton (1998) identified five key areas of difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities. The five areas are summarized in Table 3.1.

A sixth difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities was mentioned by Maxwell, Blair and McDougall (2001). They suggested that managing diversity places an emphasis on organizational culture as a cultural change is necessary for effective management of diversity (Carnevale and Stone 1994). Consequently, instead of individuals conforming to legislation, the organization should adapt and change (Carnevale and Stone 1994; Liff 1999; Wilson and Iles 1999). Kandola and Fullerton (1994; 1998) and Shen et al. (2009), among others, reiterated the fact that one of the major differences between equal opportunities and managing diversity is the driving force, by emphasizing that the primary driving force behind equal opportunities is legislation, while diversity management is primarily driven by the business case.

According to Mulholland et al. 2006 and Davies 2011, the business case is the contention that a diverse workforce benefits an organisation's profitability through carefully mapped out and more inclusive recruitment, retention and promotion, focused marketing, improved creativity and decision making.

This section has illustrated the evolution of the concept of managing diversity. It reviewed the literature on the meaning, concepts and origin of managing diversity. It is postulated that managing diversity is a broad generic term that evolved from the concept of equal opportunities. The review of literature on the difference between managing diversity and equal opportunities illustrates a more favorable view of managing diversity compared to equal opportunities in an organisational context.

Equal opportunities was criticized to have a "negative approach" (Kirkton and Greene 2005, p.3). It was criticized that equal opportunities emphasised on the negative perspectives of differences through implying that difference equals disadvantage (Maxwell, Blair and McDougall, 2001; Kirkton and Greene, 2005). However, the managing diversity approach is not free from its criticisms either. It has been argued that the approach to managing diversity undermines the complications of implementing useful diversity policy (Kirkton and Greene, 2005). Therefore, the following hypothesis in relation to equal opportunities and managing diversity is proposed:

Table 3-1: Differences between equal opportunities and managing diversity

		Equal Opportunities	Managing Diversity
1.	Driving force	Equal opportunities is externally driven, for example, it is driven by the need for complying with legislation (Wilson 1996; Wilson and Iles 1999), social justice (McDougall 1996), ethical and human rights (Wilson and Iles 1999) and a concern for fairness (Wilson 1996; Wilson and Iles 1999).	In contrast, managing diversity is driven internally by the organization (Ross and Schneider 1992; Wilson 1996). The motivation behind an organisation's need to manage diversity is the 'business case' which is based on the premise that a diverse workforce will enhance business profitability (Wilson and Iles 1999; Mulholland, Ozbilgin and Worman, 2006);
2.	Nature of the concept	Equal opportunities is operational in nature. This means that, it is implemented by the human resource specialists (Kandola and Fullerton 1998; Wilson and Iles 1999).	Unlike the operational nature of equal opportunities, managing diversity is of strategic nature and therefore, it is important to the economic and competitive success of an organization (Wilson 1996; Wilson and Iles 1999). As a result, managing diversity concerns all employees, especially the managers, instead of the human resources practitioners only. Above all, Carnevale and Stone (1994) identified that managing diversity

		Equal Opportunities	Managing Diversity
			requires the top management's support, commitment and guidance;
3.	Perception of difference	Equal opportunities perceive difference as other/problematical. It concentrates on issues of discrimination (Kandola and Fullerton 1994; Kandola 1995).	However, difference is perceived as an asset/richness by managing diversity. Therefore, diversity management suggests that it is important to manage the differences between people effectively (Kandola 1995; Liff and Wajcman 1996).
4.	Focus	Equal opportunities is group focused and in contrast, managing diversity is individual focused. This means that equal opportunities focusses on specific minority groups, like, females, ethnic minority groups and disabled individuals.	In contrast, the focus of managing diversity is individuals (Ross and Schneider 1992; Kandola and Fullerton 1994; Kandola 1995; Liff 1997).
5.	Underpinning knowledge	Narrow positivist knowledge underpins equal opportunities.	Managing diversity is underpinned by a knowledge base which is wider and pluralistic (Kandola and Fullerton 1994; 1998).

H₁: *There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in organisations*

In Hypothesis 1, equal opportunities refer to practices and managing diversity refers to the outcomes, which is a diverse workforce where everyone feels valued.

Intersectionality is a key concept in understanding and managing diversity. When various ‘protected characteristics’ as described by the Equality Act 2010 intersect, it becomes even more difficult for women to progress their career. The intersecting characteristics could be gender, age, ethnicity, religion, sexuality, etc. The next section reviews the literature on intersectionality.

3.5 INTERSECTIONALITY IN DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Intersectionality is a relatively recent concept which has become increasingly important in the field of gender and management. It provides researchers with a tool to research the discrimination faced by women at the intersection of race, religion, ethnicity, class, culture and other variables. Intersectionality is currently an integral part of gender studies (Davies 2008; Lewis 2009; Kerner 2012) and hence in understanding the management of diversity in organisations. This is because ethnic diversity in Britain is increasing rapidly (Aspinall 2012; Heath et al. 2013). It has been stressed that it is important to consider intersectionality before designing HR practices for managing diversity (Holvino 2010; Alcazar, Fernandez, and Gardy 2013). In their analysis of the concept of diversity, Alcazar, Fernandez and Gardy (2013) concluded that diversity is complex as there can be a broad set of different

attributes among employees, some of which may not be visible such as values. Therefore, before designing HR practices for managing diversity, it is very important to analyze and understand the different types of diversity that the organization needs to manage. Intersectionality is particularly important to explore and understand the concurrent occurrence of two or more diversity categories.

3.5.1 Intersectionality: Origin, definition and debates

According to Yuval-Davis (2006), Styhre, Eriksson-Zetterquist (2008) and Walby, Armstrong and Strid (2012) among others, Kimberley Crenshaw (1989) was the first to introduce the term ‘intersectionality’ while discussing the issues of employment among black women in the US. Crenshaw (1989) developed a critique of the invisibility of women at the intersection of gender and race/ethnicity by introducing the concept of intersectionality to understand how the intersection of gender and race limit the access of black women to the American labour market and the ways in which ignorance about this intersection resulted in the marginalization of black women and their experiences. Intersectionality is rooted on the idea that gender inequality does not operate on its own, it intersects with other forms of inequality (Acker 2012). Therefore to enhance gender diversity in organisations, understanding the concept of intersectionality is of particular importance.

Tatli and Ozbilgin (2012, p. 181) defined intersectionality as “the interplay between strands of differences such as gender, ethnicity and class”. The Center for Women’s Global Leadership (2001, cited in Yuval-Davis 2006, p.197) emphasized the importance of intersectionality studies by stating that,

“Intersectional approach to analyzing the disempowerment of marginalized women attempts to capture the consequences of the interaction between two or more forms of subordination. It addresses the manner in which racism, patriarchy, class oppression and other discriminatory systems create inequalities that structure the relative positions of women, races, ethnicities, classes and the like. Moreover, intersectionality addresses the way specific acts and policies operate together to create further empowerment”.

Davis (2008, p. 69) suggested that the “vagueness and the open-endedness” of the term intersectionality has provided feminist scholars with the tool to explore new ideas and to raise new questions. The concept of intersectionality is described to offer a “new and imaginative” approach to the diversity research as intersectionality has been under-theorised and under-operationalised (Tatli and Ozbilgin 2012, p.181). Further, intersectionality offers a pioneering link between the *“critical feminist theory on the effects of sexism, class, and racism and a critical methodology inspired by postmodern feminist theory, bringing them together in ways that could not have been envisioned before”* (Davis 2008, p. 73).

Moreover, Tatli and Ozbilgin (2012) have expressed concerns that the focus on a single form of diversity is overpowering and thus workforce diversity research suffers from the absence of an intersectionality approach where a multiple form of difference is taken into account while constructing diversity categories. The idea that it is important to address the type of relationship between different forms of inequalities is extensively recognized in the gender theory (Crenshaw 1991; McCall

2005; Hancock 2007; Choo and Ferree 2010; Walby, Armstrong and Strid 2012a) and also in the analysis of policies pertaining to equality (Lovenduski 2005; Verloo 2006; Kantola and Nousiainen 2009; Squires 2009). In this context, Walby, Armstrong and Strid (2012a) have recognized that the theorization of the intersection of multiple inequalities has now become a central issue in gender theory. However, there remains a noteworthy difference as to how the theoretical recognition of the importance of the intersection of multiple inequalities should proceed (Hartmann 1976; Crenshaw 1991; Acker 2000; McCall 2005; Walby 2009; Walby, Armstrong and Strid, 2012b). In this context, Crenshaw (1991) made a distinction between structural and political intersectionality. The intersection of unequal social groups is represented by structural intersectionality. The intersection of political agendas and projects is represented by political intersectionality. Crenshaw (1991) instigated a number of studies on intersectionality at various points of intersection. The most notable ones are McCall (2005) and Hancock (2007).

An interest in the intersection of gender and class relations can be observed in the early debates on gender inequality (Walby, Armstrong and Strid 2012b; Acker 2000; Hartmann 1976) along with the intersection of gender, ethnicity and class (Davis, 1981; Anthias and Yuval-Davis 1992; Collins, 1998). There could be a number of reasons why class has not been widely studied in the intersectionality literature. The interest in class has now faded but it has not disappeared completely (McCall, 2005). As a result, the current debates tend to neglect the intersection of gender and class (Walby, Armstrong and Strid, 2012b). In the past, debates on intersectionality were mostly focused on the intersection of gender and ethnicity (Crenshaw 1991; Mirza

1997; Collins 1998; Medaglia 2000). Under the EU legislation, class is not recognized as a form of inequality. The six grounds for legal action on illegal discrimination named by the EU Treaty of Amsterdam in 1997 and the consequent Directives to implement it are: gender, ethnicity, disability, age, religion/belief and sexual orientation (Council Directives 2000/43/EC, 2000/78/EC, 2004/113/EC; European Commission, 2009). The United Kingdom's most recent Equality Act in 2010 rejected the attempt to include 'socio-economic' grounds or class. Nevertheless, Michaels (2006) suggested that it is time to take the discussion on diversity beyond race and focus on class. According to Hills, et al. (2010), class intersects with all other inequalities in a complicated fashion and is a vital part of the structuring of inequalities. Similarly, Walby, Armstrong and Strid (2012a) have emphasized the importance of class and recommended that class should be systematically reintroduced in the discussion of the intersection of gender and other inequalities. However, they have cautioned that the significance of class should not be over-stated. In this respect, Tatli and Ozbilgin (2012) pointed out that class together with gender and ethnicity are now being often used to develop intersectional analyses.

Since this study focuses on gender, the term "managing gender diversity" will be used instead of the term "managing diversity". The disadvantages faced by females in organisations multiply at the interplay of other protected characteristics such as race and ethnicity. In order to gain a full understanding of the key issues related to managing gender diversity, the importance of intersectionality in managing gender diversity will be recognised in this thesis. However due to lack of sufficient

empirical data it will not be pursued further in the data analysis section. The next section is on gender diversity and glass ceiling.

3.6 MANAGING GENDER DIVERSITY IN ORGANISATIONS: THEORY AND PRACTICE

The previous section illustrated the significance of managing diversity in organisations and one of the main diversity factors identified is gender diversity. Managing gender diversity is a subset of managing diversity and it is the focus of this thesis. The word gender refers to the social connotation of being ‘a man’ or ‘a woman’ (Game and Pringle 1984). Sex difference, which is being a male or a female, is biological. Gender is socially constructed and is the behavior which a particular sex is expected to demonstrate in a social context. For example, males are expected to demonstrate masculine behaviour and females are expected to exhibit feminine behavior (Pilcher and Whelehan 2004). This section reviews the literature on managing gender diversity in organisations. The theories underpinning the concept and practice of managing gender diversity are reviewed and then the concept of glass ceiling as a major hindrance to promoting gender diversity is discussed in great detail.

3.6.1 Women in the UK labour force

The percentage of women in the UK labour force is 46.4% while the percentage of men stands at 53.6% (Catalyst 2012). Among the people engaged in part-time employment, over 70% are women (ONS 2012). These statistics reveal that women

currently represent nearly half of the labour force but their representation at the senior organisational levels is very poor (Coleman 2011; LaPierre and Zimmerman 2012; Appelbaum et al. 2013). In Scotland, only one-third of the managerial jobs are held by women and women earn 12% less than men in full-time employment (EHRC, 2012). According to UK's Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC 2011) some of the reasons behind the underrepresentation of women in senior positions are: the lack of flexibility in the organisations and the presence of outdated working patterns; under estimation of part-time work (Durbin and Tomilson 2014); and the tendency of women to switch to self-employment instead of waiting to be promoted to senior management roles (Terjeson 2005; Bosse and Taylor 2012).

The segregation of females into certain jobs and sectors is evidenced by statistics such as 80% of the employees in health and social care are women in contrast to only 25% women in manufacturing (Ogden, McTavish and McKean 2006). Also, women are more inclined to be employed by the public sector compared to men (Wilson 2011; Green 2012). This could be because the public sector generally offers better pay for women across all levels of earnings compared to the private sector (Fawcett Society 2013). The theoretical perspectives on gender and organization, explained in the next sub-section, provide an understanding of the low representation of women in certain occupations.

3.6.2 Theoretical perspectives on gender and organisation

According to Acker (2012), gender and organisations began to be theorized in the late 1960s and early 1970s as a result of criticisms from feminist scholars that

conventional organisational research lacked adequacy due to the fact that they failed to recognize the importance of gender in work organisations (see Acker and Van Houten 1974; Kanter 1977). Theories originating from different disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, etc. are essential to understand the occupational sex segregation that occurs in organisations (Kirton and Greene 2005; Browne 2006). Occupational sex segregation refers to the phenomenon where females occupy jobs that are lower in status and pay and have less promotion, training and career opportunities (Kirton and Greene 2005). There are two types of occupational sex segregation, namely, horizontal occupational sex segregation (HOSS) and vertical occupational sex segregation (VOSS). Only VOSS is associated with inequality (Browne 2006). Browne (2006, p. 5) defines VOSS as “the disproportionate distribution of men and women across occupations, which, when on a hierarchical (vertical) scale indicative of pay levels, will reveal quantitative inequalities between the sexes in employment”

Kirton and Greene (2005) emphasized that occupational segregation, involving both HOSS and VOSS, is inequitable as it restricts individual freedom to choose a job that they would like to do (Hakim 1992). Kirton and Greene also mentioned the economic perspective of occupational segregation. According to the economic view, segregation creates inflexibility in the labour market that results in economic inefficiency. They also described it as a waste of human resources. Both Kirton and Greene (2005) and Browne (2006) agreed that occupational sex segregation explains differences in earnings between men and women and women’s weak position in the labour market and in organisations. There are different theories behind occupational

sex segregation. According to Browne (2006), they can be broadly classified as psychological and psycho-physiological theories, theories of patriarchy and human-capital based theories. Psychological and psycho-physiological theories include Goldberg's male dominance theory, Baron-Cohen's empathising/systemizing theory, and Gillian's different voice thesis.

Goldberg's (1979; 1993) male dominance theory argues that the physiological and psychological differences between men and women incline men and women to occupy different and unequal social positions. The male dominance theory is drawn from scientific research that suggests that men have an 'aggressive advantage' over women due to hormonal differences. This hormonal difference causes behavioural difference, which in turn results in social differences between men and women. According to Goldberg (1979; 1993), the hormone driven 'aggressive advantage' enables men to be competitive, self-assertive, and dominant. Therefore, men are more likely to succeed in hierarchical contexts of the labour market. Goldberg acknowledges that social factors affect behaviour, but he argues that social factors enhance the effects of hormonal differences between male and female. However, Goldberg did not claim that males are more capable than females in working at higher occupational levels. Instead, he maintained that men are more inclined to pursue high status positions. The male dominance theory is supported by Hakim (1996), who described the theory as "unassailable" (1996, p. 212). However, Browne (2006) identified several criticisms. She pointed out that the most important weakness of the theory is the fact that it is based on a "over-simplistic" (Browne 2006, p.20) relationship between male aggression which is induced by testosterone

and social advantage. The theory largely ignores the impact of external social structures and institutions. Therefore, it does not offer any possible solutions to sex inequality. Browne (2006, p.19) described Goldberg's male dominance theory as "based on a reductionist biological account of differences between males and females". She referred to other studies (for example, Lowe and Hubbard 1983; Connell 1987; Goldstein 2001), which indicate that social environment has a greater influence in human behaviour and action.

The next psychological theory that explains occupational sex segregation is Baron-Cohen's (2003) empathizing/systemising theory. This theory focuses on the differences between the male and female brains, instead of hormonal differences. Empathising refers to the ability to understand the emotions of people and to respond to emotions appropriately (brain type E). Systemising refers to exploring systems and the laws and rules governing them (brain type S). According to Baron-Cohen (2003, p.1), "the female brain is predominantly hard-wired for empathy" whereas, "the male brain is predominantly hard-wired of understanding and building systems". The two systems are described as, "wholly different kind of processes ... grounded in our neurophysiology" (Baron-Cohen 2003, pp. 5-6). Similar to Goldberg (1979, 1993), Baron-Cohen (2003) argues that males are more competitive. However, he attributes this competitiveness to the different cerebral abilities of males. Baron-Cohen based his theory on extensive sources of scientific experiments on male and female behaviour. Spelke (2005) criticized Baron-Cohen's theory describing it as an old idea presented using new language.

Another psychological theory that explains occupational sex segregation is Gilligan's (1982) different voice theory. This theory is different to Goldberg's and Baron-Cohen's theory as it does not attribute physiological factors such as differences in hormones and the brain to the difference between males and females. In her work in psychological development, Gilligan (1982) argued that males and females have different moral voices and the female voice is systematically silenced. She argued that men are more individualistic, achievement-oriented and motivated to obtain power compared to females. She described females as more selfless and exhibiting concern for the needs of others. Also, Gilligan maintained that there is a gender difference in moral codes. She explains this by claiming that men possess a morality of rights and formal reasoning. This was defined as 'justice perspective' which is different from the 'care perspective' associated with females. 'Care perspective' refers to the female possession of the morality of care and responsibility. Furthermore, female characteristics are, "associated with personal vulnerability in the form of economic disadvantage" (Gilligan 1987, p. 32). This is linked to gender division of labour in workplaces and at home and is also linked to vertical and horizontal sex segregation in the labour market. There were some criticisms of Gilligan's theory. For example, Fauldi (1992) argued that Gilligan's choice of case studies weakened her findings. Another criticism put forward by Connell (1987) was, the type of studies conducted by Gilligan are likely to misinterpret behavioural patterns due to inherent cultural biases about stereotypical sex roles.

Overall, the theories of Goldberg, Baron-Cohen and Gilligan are all based on separate and very different empirical studies. However, there are some similarities in their

conclusions. All of them attributed social differences between males and females to ingrained, universal characteristics possessed by males and females. In order to further understand occupational sex segregation from a different theoretical perspective, theories of patriarchy are explored next.

The concept of patriarchy has been widely used to analyse gender inequalities and to understand the position of women in society. The literal meaning of patriarchy is, “rule by the male head of a social unit” (Pilcher and Whelehan 2004, p.93). Patriarchy is the central concept in three major theories which try to identify the root causes behind women’s subordination to men, the theories are ‘radical feminist’, ‘Marxist feminist’ and ‘dual systems theory’ (Pilcher and Whelehan 2004).

Max Weber (1947, *cited in* Colgan and Ledwith 1996, p.7) referred to patriarchy by describing a system of government where men were the rulers as heads of households and women were their subordinates. In later times, the concept of patriarchy was elaborated by Hartmann (1979), Cockburn (1983) and Walby (1990; 1997), among others. According to Walby (1997) one of the major patriarchal strategy that facilitated men to secure well-paid jobs for themselves is ‘exclusion’, whereby women were prevented from joining certain jobs and sectors, such as, engineering, architecture and medicine. Walby (1990; 1997) suggested that organisations implementing patriarchal strategy of exclusion had led to the confinement of females to occupations lower in status and pay. She argued that patriarchy changed from the ‘private’ to the ‘public’ form in Britain in the 20th century (Walby 1990). While, private patriarchy is the use of women’s labour by the

men in the families and households, public patriarchy is the inequality and discrimination faced by women in the workplaces. Due to the patriarchal nature of the society, the responsibility of childcare falls heavily on women and women end up spending more time in childcare compared to men (Drago 2009). Hence, the careers of working women with family responsibilities are often interrupted and therefore, they pursue part-time or flexible jobs (Eagly and Carli 2007). Consequently, the human capital of women is affected as they accumulate fewer work experience and less hours of employment per year and it all act as a barrier to career advancement and progressing up the career ladder (Eagly and Carly 2007; Sabattini and Crosby 2008).

Browne (2006) argued that Walby's Patriarchy Theory is not useful in understanding the 21st-century workforce which is highly diverse and complex as it stereotyped sex roles and treated men and women as two groups that are distinct and homogeneous in nature. Bryson (2007) also criticized Walby's (1990; 1997) understanding of patriarchy as a strategy implemented by men to subordinate women. She proposed that patriarchy should be used as a tool for describing the inequality between men and women. According to Bryson (2007), the societal structure unknowingly contributes to the subordination of women and this can be recognized and understood only through viewing the political and liberal structures of society by using the lens of patriarchy.

Occupational sex segregation and the resulting pay gap between men and women are increasingly being explained by human capital based theories (Browne 2006). They

include Becker's Rational Choice Theory and Hakim's Preference Theory. Becker (1981) proposed that the main reason behind Vertical Occupational Sex Segregation (VOSS) is the rational choices made by males and females based on their levels of human capital. In this context, human capital refers to education and the employment skills and experience accumulated by individuals. The argument made by Becker (1981) is that the social expectation on women to be primarily responsible for the household and childcare negatively affects women's human capital. Therefore, women accumulate less human capital compared to men to contribute to the labour market. As a result, women choose to be employed in jobs that are lower in status and pay and which reflect the accumulation of lower human capital. The low skill jobs also enable women to conserve energy to carry out their unpaid household duties at home. Becker (1981) also explained that women with higher earnings are more prone to divorce as they are less interested in contributing to the unpaid labour at home.

Acker's (1990) theory of gendered organisation argued that gender inequality is ingrained into the structure of work organisations. The preference of employers to hire people who are likely to single-mindedly concentrate on work and dedicate themselves fully to the organisation excludes women who are often likely to hold primary care responsibility for the family. Five processes that breed gender differences in organisations were identified by Acker (1990). They are the division of labour, cultural symbols, workplace interactions, individual identities, and organisational logic. Out of the five processes, Acker (1990) focused on organisational logic to criticize gendered organisations. Organisational logic

illustrates the rationalization and legitimization of hierarchies in organisation and helps the managers to control the workplace by the use of legitimate policies and principles. Employees submit to these policies and principles as they are viewed as normal business practices. Organisational logic had previously been criticized as a source of class inequality (Williams, Muller and Kilanski 2012). Acker (1990 and 2012) has also identified it as a source of gender inequality because it legitimizes managers to privilege masculine qualities. Williams, Muller and Kilanski (2012) agreed with Acker's (1990) view that organisations are gendered but argued that the triggers that stem gender disparity are no longer the same because the career model have transformed over the past decades.

Hakim's Preference theory (1996; 2000; 2007) has been described as a development of Becker's Rational Choice theory. She made two main criticisms of Becker's Rational Choice theory. Firstly, Becker assumed that unpaid childcare responsibility at home is largely responsible for women's lower human capital and lower productivity in the labour market. Hakim (2007) argued that childcare is less demanding than Becker suggested due to the availability of publicly funded childcare facilities in welfare states. Also, technology enhanced household products saves time and labour at home, making childcare less demanding. Secondly, Becker's extensive emphasis on childcare is based on a false assumption that all women are in homogeneous situation with respect to childcare. Therefore, Hakim focused on the heterogeneous nature of the relationship between women and the labour market. However, both Becker and Hakim maintained that the main reason behind the unequal representation of women in the labour market is the result of the choices

made by the women themselves. Hakim (1996, p. 207) explained that women have more “genuine choices to make between different styles of life”, compared to men. She further argued that these ‘genuine choices’ are the result of five economic and social changes that began in the UK and in the USA in the late 20th century. These are the contraceptive revolution, the equal opportunities revolution, the expansion of white collar occupations, the creation of jobs for secondary earners and the changes in people’s preferences in modern societies which are liberal and prosperous (Hakim 2007). According to Hakim (1996, 2000), these five economic and social changes gave rise to three categories of women each with different preferences of lifestyle. The first category is the ‘home centered’. Women in this category prefer to rear children instead of undertaking jobs in the labour market. They are represented by 10%-30% of women. The next category is the ‘adaptive category’. These are women who prefer to balance housework and paid work in the labour market without prioritizing either. Therefore, they are likely to choose occupations that offer work-life balance and are more likely to work part-time. According to Hakim (2007), most women fall into this category (between 40%-80%). Hakim (2000) attributed women’s inferior position in the labour market to the adaptive category. The final category is ‘work-centered’. Women in this category are predominantly career-focused. They prefer to fit their family life around their work life and are prone to remain childless even if married. They represent about 10% to 30% of all women. Unlike, the patriarchy theorists, Hakim considered the fact that for some women taking care of the household is more attractive than undertaking paid work in the labour market. However, Browne (2006) criticized Hakim’s Preference theory by arguing that Hakim overlooked the restrictions on choice that may be faced by

women. Browne (2006) supported her argument by referring to Crompton and Harris (1996) who stated that, “sociological explanations relating to women’s employment patterns cannot rest upon a simplistic reduction to the argument that they are due to the fact that there are different ‘types’ of women” (Crompton and Harris 1998, p. 131).

This section reviewed the literature on the theoretical perspectives on gender and organization. The next section reviews the different perspectives on the underrepresentation of females at the senior managerial levels.

3.6.3 Perspectives on the underrepresentation of females at senior managerial levels

The literature on the study of women and work which explained the lack of women in top managerial positions has been enriched by researchers such as Kanter (1977), Reskin (1993), Tharenou (1999) among others (LaPierre and Zimmerman 2012, p.101). The various studies by the aforementioned scholars have classified the reasons behind the under-representation of women at the top managerial positions into two basic categories. The first emphasizes the characteristics of individual employees and the second focuses on the work environment to explain the under-representation of women. The debate over these two categories eventually led to the ‘pipeline theory’ and the ‘glass ceiling effect’ (Carter and Silva 2010). While the pipeline theory is based on the view that women’s progression to top management can be achieved as women gain more qualifications and work experience, the glass ceiling concept is focused on the obscure yet powerful forces that prevented capable

and qualified women from reaching the top management positions. The concept of glass ceiling will be reviewed in more details in a later section.

Studies by Broveman et al. (1972) and Heilman et al. (1989) explored the impact of sex stereotypes on women in management and found that male managers believed that female managers were less self-confident, less analytical, less emotionally stable, less consistent and owning lower leadership abilities compared to male managers. By contrast, male managers were seen as aggressive, independent, unemotional, objective, dominant, active, competitive, logical, worldly, self-confident, and to be in possession of good business skills. According to Ridgeway (1991) stereotypes associated with nominal characteristics such as gender, race, ethnicity, religion are socially constructed. She argued that nominal characteristics such as gender and race have established status value in the society. This argument was further strengthened by referring to several studies which showed that it is commonly assumed by people that it is more worthy to be male than female or white than black.

Studies by Eagly and Carli (2003), Powell and Graves (2003), described the female management style as collaborative and that female managers tend to confer with multiple stakeholders before making decisions and delegate responsibilities to capable subordinates. However, female management style is beneficial in promoting innovation within the firm (Helgeson 1990; Claes 1999; Goleman 2006). Recently, a study of 317 Norwegian firms by Torchia, Calabro and Huse (2011) revealed that

having at least three women appointed on the board level of an organisation leads to higher levels of innovation in the organisation.

Adams and Funk (2012) argued that gender differences in management style may disappear when women reach the top management positions. They supported their argument by criticizing studies which indicate that women are disinterested in facing competition (Gneezy et al. 2003; Hogarth et al. 2012) and women are more risk averse in general (Eckel and Grossman 2008; Sapienza et al. 2009). According to Adams and Funk's (2012) criticism, the participants of most of studies conducted by Eckel and Gneezy et al. (2003), Grossman (2008), Sapeinza et al. (2009) were students, workers, or general population. Therefore their results might not be valid to be generalized to women at the top of the corporate ladder. Another study conducted by Adams and Funk (2012) on Swedish directors using an augmented version of Schwartz's (1992) 40 question Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) revealed that women in the boardroom were indeed different from their male colleagues in their values and as a result their management style. However, studies by Reskin and McBrier (2000); Eagly and Carli (2007); Carter and Silva (2010) suggested that men usually enter managerial positions at higher levels than women. According to Collinson and Hearn (1996, p. 3), " 'Man'-agement came to be defined in terms of the ability to control people, events, companies, environments, trade unions and new technology".

Moreover, Kyriakidou (2012) stated that masculine terms had been used in the past and are still in use to construct the manager and leader in organisations. This explain

the reason behind Gherardi and Poggio's (2001) research finding in which some women believed that behaving like a man is the most effective way to progress their career in organisations. This could also be due to the 'think manager-think male' (TMTM) gender stereotype. Ryan et al. (2011) described TMTM as one's innate belief that a good manager cannot be associated with a female. Early studies in gender stereotypes were conducted by Schien (1973, 1975). Her study revealed that both male and female middle managers believed that females are unlikely possess the characteristics of successful managers.

It was also argued by Corsun and Costen (2001) that the capital which enables the movement of players in the management fields are mostly held by white men. Here, capital refers to economic, political and social capital (Corsun and Costen 2001, p. 18) required to obtaining career success. 'Field' and 'capital' are two of Bourdieu's core concepts (Ross-Smith and Huppatz 2010). In organisations, management is an example of a field. The capital held by white men is the valid, recognized capital in the management field (Ross-Smith and Huppatz 2010). Bourdieu termed this as 'symbolic capital'. According to Corsun and Costen (2001, p. 18), white men's possession of the symbolic capital mean that "women and minorities must play by the rules and within the boundaries established by white men". A similar view on men's powerful positions in organisations is expressed by Witz (1998, p. 58). Although Witz (1998) made no reference to capital, she recognized that masculinity and male work-life arrangements have been privileged by organisations. Also, organisations played a role in validating and permitting male forms of embodiments while invalidating female forms of embodiments or making them impermissible. As

a result, masculine characteristics are advantaged in organisations whereas feminine characteristics are disadvantaged. Therefore, males are better prepared for management compared to females. Any success of women in the management field is generally attributed to the capability to assimilate masculine norms or women's ability to use masculine tools to play the game in the management field (Ross-Smith and Huppertz 2010). However, some studies (for example, Illouz 1997; Lovell 2000) have found that femininity is increasingly being valued in the labour market. Similarly, a study by Ross-Smith and Huppertz (2010) among 168 female senior managers from public and private sector in Australia revealed that many of the participants believed that their gender facilitated their career progression in the management field. However, it was also revealed that this was mostly due to the impact of equal opportunities policies. This section reviewed the literature on different perspectives on the underrepresentation of females in senior managerial positions, while the next section reviews the concepts underpinning the low representation of females in senior managerial positions.

3.6.4 Theories and concepts underpinning the low representation of females in senior management positions

Theories and concepts underpinning the low representation of females in senior management positions are reviewed in this section. As indicated earlier, although the representation of women in management has improved in the past decades, women are still under-represented at the highest levels of management (Coleman 2011; LaPierre and Zimmerman 2012; Applebaum et al. 2013). Coleman (2011) summarized the barriers to career progression of females as a result of male

dominated work cultures, especially at the senior levels; the prevalence of gender stereotypes which portray males as the leaders and females as the subordinate; and result of family responsibilities on the females' work capacity. For example, women expected to undertake a large share of childcare and household responsibility at home and thus, it prevents them from career progression (Stone 2007; Kelly, Moen and Tranby 2011). Therefore, it is more common for female senior managers to be single or to be married and childless compared to their male counterparts (La Pierre and Zimmerman 2012). In this respect, LaPierre and Zimmerman (2012, p.103) also argued that "the actual role of family responsibilities and work-family conflict in explaining the under-representation of women in senior management positions is unclear".

An alternative view of the lack of females at the top management levels was presented by Hakim (2004), through the Preference Theory as discussed earlier. According to the Preference Theory, females in general prefer to be "home centered" rather than "work-centered" (Hakim 2004, pp. 14-15) and thereby choose to adapt their work lives around their family lives. The percentage of females who prioritise work over family is only 20%, contrary to 50% of males with work as the main priority (Coleman 2011). Hence, the preference theory argues that females by default shall continue to be a minority at the top of the organisation's hierarchy. The glass ceiling is a widely used term when referring to the stalled progress of women at the top organisational positions. Therefore, the glass ceiling is reviewed next.

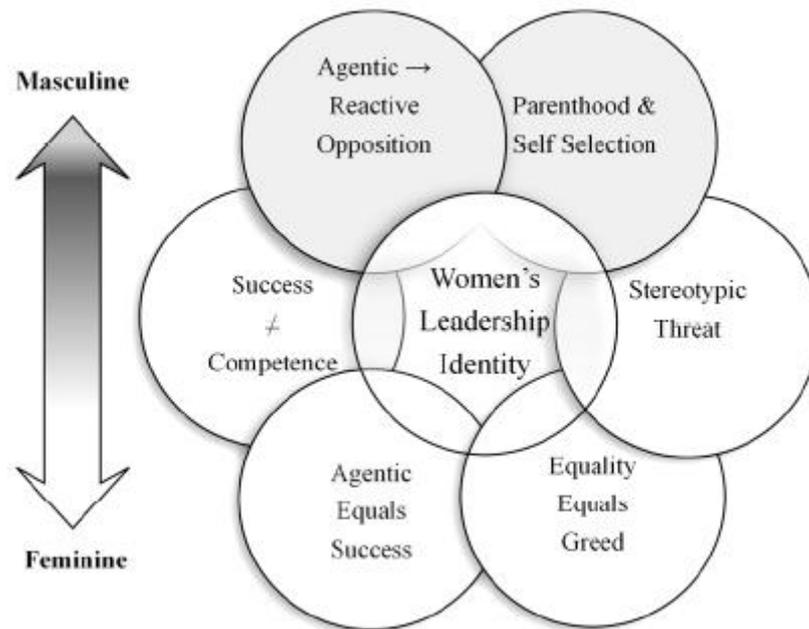
3.6.4.1 Glass-ceiling – the concept and causes

The metaphor, ‘glass-ceiling’ was first used by journalists Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) in *The Wall Street Journal* to describe the invisible barrier faced by women while seeking to climb up the organisational hierarchy (Eagly and Carli 2007; Carceres-Rodriguez 2011; Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). Smith, Caputi and Crittenden (2012, p.459) described it as an “obstacle that lead to the under-representation of women in leadership and upper-management positions”. Similarly, the term glass ceiling has also been labelled as the “most compelling metaphor” (Baxter and Wright 2000 p.275) used for the analysis of gender inequality in the workplace. According to Burke (2005, p. 13) the glass ceiling encountered by women “refers to a subtle and almost invisible but strong barrier that prevents women from moving up to senior management”. However, Wharton (2005, p.186) described glass ceiling as the “lack of access to authority”. She argued that although women have stepped into managerial roles alongside men, they are not as likely as men to secure positions which require the exercise of authority over people and resources. A more graphic description of glass ceiling is provided by Stith (1998, p. 22) who described the concept of glass ceiling as “a visual image of people pressing up against a window, getting a tantalizing view of a wonderful world before them, but being denied of entry to it”. Although the metaphor of glass ceiling is mostly used to describe the situation in the corporate world, the phenomenon is common all throughout the society and is relevant to all organisational contexts, which include the public sector (Caceres-Rodriguez 2011).

The glass ceiling is more prevalent in some occupations than in others. It has been argued that women's career progression is slow in professions traditionally occupied by men, such as Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics and Medicine (STEMM) (Servon and Vissor 2011; Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012; Bevan and Learmonth 2013). In a study of a large UK organization which employs 1600 healthcare scientists, Bevan and Learmonth (2013) found that although 60% of the organisation's employees are females, all the employees in the most senior positions are males. Also, two-thirds of the 110 staff in the two grades below the most senior grade was also male. According to Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes (2012), the sluggish progression of females to senior organisational roles is the result of persistent assumptions and stereotypes which see women as communal, dependent and passive and thus incapable of successfully handling the demands of a senior role. The reasons behind the existence of the glass ceiling are presented in a map by Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes (2012). The map shows the six major barriers faced by women while trying to advance their careers in traditionally male orientated jobs, based on empirical studies in the field of social and cognitive psychology. The map is adapted in Figure 3.1.

In Figure 3.1, the hierarchical nature of power and the characteristics that define leadership are represented by the vertical arrow. The center of the model represents the identity of women when it intersects with the barriers that create gender discrepancy. Moving in a clockwise direction in the diagram, the first barrier which is, 'Agentic Equals Success' represents the fact that male agentic behaviours are more valued in the society compared to the female communal traits.

Figure 3-1: Map of the glass ceiling



Source: Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012, p.81

Male gender-typed jobs value agentic behaviours in both male and female sexes (Carli 2001; Heilman et. al. 2004; Bongiorno, Bain and David 2014). In a quantitative social psychology study of women and leadership in Australia by Bongiorno, Bain and David (2014), it was revealed that women who showed agentic behavior achieved career progression to leadership positions more successfully compared to women who did not show agentic behavior.

Moreover, women behaving in a male stereotypical manner are more likely to gain access to senior positions in organisations (Francesco and Hakel 1981; McConnell and Fazio 1996; Rudman and Glick 2001). However, the “agentic equals success” barrier in Figure 3.1 is based on leadership research and leadership theory is

criticized for gender blindness (Brewis and Linstead 2009). The second barrier which is 'Success \neq Competence' depicts the fact that when a woman becomes successful, unlike that of a man, her success is attributed to luck, the task being less difficult or it is seen as a result of extreme hard work rather than recognising the competence of the woman in performing the task (Valain 1998). This resonates with the research findings of Heilman and Hayes (2005) and Williams, Muller and Kilanski (2013) which found that women are given less recognition for their success compared to their male counterparts. Stereotyping prevents the success of women from being perceived as an outcome of competence (Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012). The third barrier, 'Agentic \rightarrow Reactive Opposition', depicts that women displaying agentic traits are deemed equally competent as men but will perform low in the likeability scale and are seen as hostile in comparison to successful men. This is also supported by Bongiorno, Bain and David's (2014) study mentioned earlier. Likeability is important in achieving career progression as it determines the outcome of reward allocation and evaluation (Heilman et al. 2004). The fourth barrier, 'Parenthood & Self-Selection' depicts that parenthood and mobility is the cause for women to self-select away from demanding careers (van Anders 2004). For example, it was found (see Mason and Goulden 2004) that successful women in academic careers are less likely to take up family responsibilities through marriage and also, the rate of divorce is higher among successful women compared to successful men. Isaac et al (2012) referred to socio-cultural reasons behind the lag of women in senior managerial roles, which include the fear of deviating outside the cultural norm. However, it is not success that women tend to fear but the fear of behaviours that lead to success may not be approved by others (Austin 2000). The fifth barrier in Figure 3.1 is

‘Stereotypic Threat & Identity Safety’. Stereotypes of women not being as good as men in leadership positions may threaten women and is likely to damage women’s performance and career aspirations (Davies, Spencer and Steele 2005). In psychology research, women have been identified as vulnerable to threats possessed by stereotyping in male dominated areas that claim gender based inability (see Crandall, Eshleman, and O’Brian 2002; Spencer et. al. 2002; O’Brian and Crandall 2003; Davies, Spencer and Steele 2005). In Davies, Spencer and Steele’s (2005) study, the female participants were shown gender-stereotypic television advertisement and were then given a choice between a leadership role and a supporter role. The participants were inclined to choose the supporter role as they felt vulnerable to stereotypic behavior. The sixth and final barrier illustrated in the diagram is, ‘Equality Equals Greed’. This one illustrates the power possessed by social norms. According to Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes (2012) there are several studies which show that women tend to evaluate their own performance less favourably compared to men. Female medical students rated themselves lower in all account of academic capabilities and future performance on the job compared to their male counterparts (Fiorentine 1988). As a result of their own competence beliefs, men and women are likely to have different career aspirations (Correll 2004). In a study by Blackmore (2007) it was found that self-promotion was pivotal to becoming a manager, but women fail to break-away from being modest. A study on affirmative action in Australia among 118 men and 111 women by Boeckmann and Feather (2007) reveals a contradictory view between men and women, where “women believe men receive unfair advantage and men believe that women are responsible for their own disadvantage” (Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012, p. 83).

Overall, the glass ceiling map represents a sociological and cognitive psychology point of view. Therefore, the glass ceiling is viewed from a single angle. It has been argued that the term glass ceiling is no longer an appropriate metaphor to describe the barriers faced by women because many women have successfully achieved several leadership positions (Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). In this respect, Bolton and Muzio (2008) and LaPierre and Zimmerman (2012) among others, have challenged the arguments of shattered glass ceiling. For instance, LaPierre and Zimmerman (2012) in their study of healthcare managers in the USA, found that women were less likely to be promoted to senior managerial positions even after controlling for individual, organizational and family associated factors. They concluded that the glass ceiling has been raised instead of being shattered, as relatively few women manage to reach the top organizational positions.

3.6.4.2 Metaphors associated with women's lack of career progression

Although glass ceiling is the most commonly used word to describe women's slow career progression, there are many other words that have been coined over the years to understand the difficulties faced by women in organisations. Examples of such metaphors are:

'Firewall' which was coined by Bendl and Schmidt (2010), is an alternative metaphor that has been used to describe the discrimination faced by women and other minority groups in rising up the organisational hierarchy. They argued that the metaphor 'firewall' may be more useful in understanding discriminations present in the current organisational context because it is said to highlight many of the

discrimination issues that are not covered by the glass ceiling metaphor. For instance, in information technology, firewall refers to a virtual wall that inhibits outsiders from entering the system. While the glass ceiling refers to the structure of discrimination, firewall refers to the process of discrimination. The term firewall helps in understanding discrimination in organisations in several ways. Firstly, it identifies the originator of discrimination by using words such as ‘firewall developer’. Secondly, in order to cross firewalls, one has to decode the firewall system. The codes are metaphors for age, sex, religion, ethnic background and other diversity factors. Thirdly, contrary to the glass ceiling metaphor the firewall metaphor represents an invisible barrier which can be changed as required by changing the firewall code. However, the firewall and the firewall code are not clear to people outside the system (Bendl and Schmidt 2010).

‘**Glass cliff**’ is another metaphor used to describe the obstacles women face while seeking promotion within organisations (Ryan and Haslam 2005; 2009). Glass cliff refers to the perilous leadership positions in organisations that face a crisis. The glass cliff theory argues that when women are promoted they are often promoted to unstable positions. Therefore, the term glass cliff relates to the small minority of women who have managed to break through the glass ceiling. An archival examination of the FTSE 100 companies in 2003 by Ryan and Haslam (2005) revealed that women were most likely to be appointed in the leadership positions of companies during unsettling times. Women were put at the top of a glass cliff as their appointments were made at a precarious time when the organisations were going through crises. Therefore, the women were more likely to be unsuccessful in

performing well. Conversely, the study also found that those companies who appointed women in leadership positions when the stock market was stable had experienced an overall positive performance. More often women plunge on top of the glass cliff by accepting precarious positions because they may view those positions as the only opportunities available to them (Lyness and Thompson 1997; Ryan et al. 2007; Rink, Ryan and Stoker 2012). However, Rink, Ryan and Stoker (2012) argued that the available literature is not clear on whether women or men are more likely to accept precarious leadership positions. Major (1994) and Gibson and Lawrence (2010) indicated that men may also accept glass cliff positions in the hope of becoming successful leaders.

‘Sticky floor’ is also another metaphor that has two interpretations (Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). Firstly, it illustrates the predicament of women who are held at the lower levels of the organisations by lowly paid jobs (Kee 2006). The second, more common interpretation of sticky floor is related to the notion that the barriers faced by women in workplaces are self-imposed and women self-sabotage their careers in the workplace (Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). The term was first used by Tesch and Nattinger (1997) to describe the careers of women in academic medicine which were hindered by the non-existence of institutional resources and support available to women. Their survey of male and female physicians in academia who were appointed at the same time found that, in addition to fewer numbers of women compared to men being promoted, women received less institutional support at the beginning of their career. Therefore they coined the term sticky floor to describe it.

‘Glass escalator’ is a sparsely used metaphor to describe the privilege men are likely to obtain in female dominated work occupations by gaining rapid promotions compared to their female colleagues (Ng and Wiesner 2007; Price-Glynn and Rakovski 2012; Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). The term was first coined by Williams (1992) while researching the underrepresentation of men in four distinctly female dominated occupations – nursing, librarianship, elementary school teaching and social work. Quantitative tests carried out on the glass escalator hypothesis have provided mixed results. The results of some studies have reinforced the hypothesis (Maume 1999; Hultin 2003; Huffman 2004) while others have rejected it (Budig 2002; Snyder and Green 2008). A study by Wingfield (2009) in the nursing profession showed that unlike white men, black men do not get a ride on the glass escalator. This illustrates that when race intersects with gender, the glass escalator hypothesis may become redundant.

Some other metaphors that are associated with glass ceiling include ‘glass floor’, ‘glass wall’, ‘concrete ceiling’, and ‘glass door’. Barnet-Verzat and Wolff (2008) have used the term ‘glass floor’ to describe gender inequality at the lowest levels of organisations where the employees are more prone to have low levels of educational qualifications and the opportunities for promotion are very low. Strong evidence of inequality known as the ‘glass wall’ was found by Guillaume and Pochic (2009), when they investigated the horizontal segregation of careers based on gender. ‘Concrete ceiling’ is the term used by Davidson (1997) to describe the discrimination faced by black and ethnic minority women while it comes to getting promoted to a higher rank. The term ‘glass door’ has been used to describe the preliminary barrier

that women may face while applying for a job in an organisation (Cohen et al. 1998; Smith, Caputi and Crittenden 2012). According to Caceres-Rodriguez (2011) and Zhang, Schmader and Forbes (2008) the key difference between glass ceiling and glass door is that while glass ceiling prevents women from climbing up the organisational hierarchy, glass door separates them from male dominated occupations. Thus it prevents women from entering professions of greater authority and salary.

To sum up, there are several metaphors surrounding the term glass ceiling that are used to describe the barriers faced by women to progress their careers in the workplace. Previous studies of the glass ceiling leave a number of areas instrumental to the understanding of the causes, and subsequent elimination of the invisible barrier faced by females in terms of advancing their careers unexplored. Baumgartner and Schneider (2010) suggested that more research is required to be undertaken to examine whether females have access to effective mentoring to prepare themselves for promotions. It was also inferred that studies need to be conducted to understand the “queen bee syndrome” (Keeton 1996, p. 28; Baumgartner and Schneider 2001, p. 561; Ng and Chiu 2001, p. 76) which refers to the manifestation of apathy amongst the small number of females who have broken the glass ceiling to assist their same sex colleagues to overcome it (Derks et al. 2011). However, Marvin (2008) argued strongly against the notion of ‘queen bee syndrome’ by suggesting that it initiates a sexist discourse on female senior managers, especially when no similar discourses exist regarding senior males.

Therefore, it can be concluded from the above review of literature on gender diversity and women's career progression that females face several barriers which make it difficult for them to progress to senior managerial levels. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₂: *Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males*

3.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter sought to review the literature on managing diversity in organisations with a particular emphasis on managing gender diversity. The importance of gender diversity in organisations and the various theories and concepts related to the difficulties faced by women in climbing up the organisational hierarchy are reviewed and hypotheses developed. It has been argued that women face multiple forms of inequalities in progressing their career opportunities. Women at the interplay of ethnicity or any other diversity factors are likely to face even greater difficulty in obtaining promotion to senior management positions. Intersectionality is taken into consideration in this research as the data were collected from a diverse group of people in terms of gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, religious beliefs, etc. This is reflected through the diverse demographic characteristics of the questionnaire and interview respondents.

The next chapter reviews the literature on the role of Human Resource Management in managing gender diversity in organisations. It focuses on the contribution of

Human Resource Development in female career progression through mentoring and social capital. It concludes with a theoretical framework based on the literature reviewed in chapters three and four.

CHAPTER 4: THE ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN MANAGING GENDER DIVERSITY: MENTORING AND SOCIAL CAPITAL IN CAREER PROGRESSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on the role of Human Resource Management (HRM) in managing gender diversity in organizations. Diversity management is now considered as an important function of human resource management (Shen et. al. 2009; Leatherbarrow 2010; Jabbour et al. 2011). According to Shen et. al. (2009), the human resources departments of organisations are primarily responsible for making opportunities equally available to people of all races, ethnicities, genders, sexual orientations and physical abilities. Specifically, human resource development (HRD) has a key role to play in developing a diverse workforce and obtaining the maximum benefit of maintaining a diverse workforce (Horwitz, Bowmaker-Falconer and Searll 1996; Bierema 2010; McDonald and Hite 2010). HRD aids in fostering diversity in multiple ways, such as facilitating employees' access to mentoring and building social capital. In this study, the theoretical underpinnings of the importance of mentoring and social capital are obtained from the theories of human capital and social capital, which is discussed in detail in this chapter.

This chapter starts by reviewing the role of HRM in diversity management and then examines the literature on the role of HRD in gender diversity management. In this section, it is seen that the theoretical underpinning of this thesis is based on different theories of capital, which comprises of human, cultural and social capital. Further, the section elaborates the role of mentoring and social capital in gender diversity management. Mentoring and building social capital are identified as crucial activities of HRD in facilitating the career progression of women to senior management positions, and thus breaking the glass ceiling (Forret and Dougherty 2004; McDonald and Hite 2005; Hezlett and Gibson 2007). The theoretical framework of this research, which is developed from the literature review, is presented before concluding the chapter.

4.2 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

In contemporary organisations, one of the major challenges for human resource managers is managing diversity (Benschop 2001; Alcazar, Fernandez and Gardy 2013). According to Fleury (1999) and Jabbour and Santos (2008) the involvement of Human Resource Management (HRM) in diversity management is a significant challenge and the process of diversity management requires actions to be taken by the HR managers. Shen et al. (2009) argued that diversity management should be at the center of HRM policies and practices. Agars and Kottke (2004) advocated the active involvement of human resource managers in managing diversity by sharing the values of diversity management with all employees. Litvin (1997) and Shen et al.

(2009) recognized that appropriate HRM strategies in recruitment and selection, training and development, appraisal and pay could achieve effective diversity management. Also, it has been asserted through previous studies (Konrad and Linnehan 1995; Burbridge et al., 2002; Goodman et al., 2003) that the use of human resource management practices such as addressing inequalities in recruitment, appraisal, career progression and reward could enhance diversity management in organisations. According to Goodman et al. (2003), in the past, many leading corporations had failed to train, promote and retain women and minorities due to lack of effective HR diversity policies. In this regard, Shen et al. (2009) pointed out that there is a lack of research investigating HRM approaches that are effective in managing diversity in organisations.

The range of human resource practices that incorporate diversity management and are necessary to support minority groups in organisations include active recruitment, training and development, compensation, diversity policy statements, and management accountability (Konrad and Linnehan 1995; Ng and Burke 2010; Ng and Wyrick 2011). For example, it was reported by Konrad and Linnehan (1995) that when organisations implemented HR practices that engaged in actively targeting minority groups, there was an increase in the number of females and individuals from ethnic minority groups in management positions. Ng and Burke's (2010) study of 286 large Canadian firms revealed that organisations whose human resource departments were proactive in implementing diversity practices such as recruitment, training, etc. were more successful in managing diversity. Shipton (2005) described training and development of employees as one of the critical aspects of HRM. It can

be seen from the following definition of HRD that training and development is a core function of HRD. McLagan and Suhadolnik (1989, p.1) defined HRD as, “the integrated use of training and development, career development, and organization development to improve individual and organizational effectiveness”. Therefore, one of the ways in which human resource practitioners can deliver diversity management is through its human resource development function (Bierema 2010; Harte, Stewart and Rodgers 2013). According to Harte, Stewart and Rodgers (2013), HRD can intervene in diversity management in many ways, starting from implementing diversity policies to developing training programmes. Hence, the next section is on human resource development.

4.3 THE ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (HRD) IN DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Horwitz, Bowmaker-Falconer and Searll (1996) described Human Resource Development (HRD) and diversity management as conceptually integrated processes. Hite and McDonald (2010) argued that the link between HRD and diversity is twofold. Firstly, at the philosophical level, both HRD and diversity are similar in their commitment to the development of systems as well as people. This includes responding to the needs of the society, developing interventions that are proactive in nature and helping individuals to maximize their potential in a professional context. Secondly, on a practical level, the connection between HRD and diversity can be observed through the new roles that traditional HRD practices undertake in response to a diverse workforce. Examples of such new roles of HRD include, “diversity

training, organizational development and diversity culture change, and career development of members of underrepresented groups” (Hite and McDonald 2010, p.284).

HRD has been described as a “growing and influential discipline, which is increasingly critical to the success and survival of all organisations” (Wilson 2006, p. xxi). It is a social science discipline that involves multiple paradigms (Lynham 2000; McGoldrick et al. 2001; Storberg-Walker 2007). In this respect, Storberg-Walker (2007, p.1) argued that “borrowing from other disciplines is an implicit, taken-for-granted practice in HRD theory development”. The theories, research and practice of HRD incorporate concepts and ideas from different disciplines such as management, sociology, psychology and philosophy. According to McGoldrick, Stewart and Watson (2001), the multidisciplinary nature of HRD makes it difficult to give it a definition. Hence, this thesis draws on the multidisciplinary nature of HRD as it explores the role of mentoring and social capital in female career progression. It is drawn from the theories of capital which incorporates the importance of accumulation of human and social capital in the career progression of minority groups such as females. This will be explained in more details in the next section.

4.3.1 Forms of capital in managing gender diversity at the senior managerial levels

In order to understand the forms of capital in managing gender diversity at the senior managerial levels, it would be useful to draw on the concepts of the French Sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. The three core concepts of Bourdieu’s theory are ‘field,

‘capital’ and ‘habitus’. The relationship between field and capital in an organizational context can be explained by describing organizations as being “embedded in a field of relations in which individuals strive to accumulate capital” (Ross-Smith and Huppertz 2010, p. 548). One example of such a field is management. Although women are now able to enter the management field they often fail to accrue the capital necessary to aid them to break the glass-ceiling and reach the senior management levels (Broadbridge 2010). The theory of cultural capital was first introduced by Bourdieu (1977). It refers to the accumulated knowledge, skills and education that convene power and status in a particular system of social exchange. In an organizational context, where the organization is the system of social exchange, cultural capital refers to the knowledge, skills and education that are essential for organizational success. Cultural capital can be acquired or developed through the process of mentoring. Also, mentoring enables individuals to develop their human capital (Mankin 2009). Therefore, mentoring is also a tool for human capital development. Bourdieu (1983, 1986) argued that cultural capital is a resource that is capable of generating ‘profits’ which are possessed by particular individuals and groups. Moreover, cultural capital is transferrable from one generation to the next under appropriate conditions (Ingram, Hechavarria and Matthews 2014). In an organizational context, profit can be interpreted as career success and the transfer of knowledge and skills required for that may occur through being mentored by a senior, more experienced employee. This thesis focuses on mentoring.

The other widely discussed form of capital in gender and organizational research is social capital (see Bourdieu 1986; Coleman 1988; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Lin

2001; Storberg-Walker 2007). Adler and Kwon (2002) listed the benefits of social capital identified by previous organizational researches as follows: an individual's career success is influenced by social capital; it helps individuals to find jobs and aids organisations in recruiting talented employees; knowledge exchange, innovation and team effectiveness is enhanced by social capital in organisations; social capital facilitates the formation of new organisations and reduces employee turnover and organizational dissolution rates; and it promotes inter-organisational learning, supplier relations and networks in regional production. The different definitions of social capital were summarized by Adler and Kwon (2002) as external, internal and both. Examples of all three types of definitions are provided below. The first definition by Bourdieu (1977) is an example of an external definition. The second one by Coleman (1988) is an internal definition and finally, the definition by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) is an example of both.

The initial definition of social capital provided by Bourdieu (1977, p.119) is,

“capital of relationships which will provide, if necessary, useful ‘supports’: a capital of honourability and respectability which is often indispensable if one desires to attract clients in socially important positions, and which may serve as currency, for instance in a political career”.

Coleman (1988) stated that social capital is a resource as it involves an ‘expectation of reciprocity’ and it is not confined to individuals as it involves a wider network

which is built upon trust and shared values. A more general definition was provided by Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992, p. 119) as follows,

“Social capital is the sum of resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition”.

The organizational advantage that can be acquired through social capital was emphasized by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998). The following definition of social capital was provided by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 243):

“The sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through the network.”

They developed three arguments regarding social capital, intellectual capital and organizational advantage. First of all, social capital leads to the creation of intellectual capital. Secondly, organisations are in a favourable position for the development of high levels of social capital and finally, high degree of social capital enables organisations to obtain an advantage over markets in the process of creating and sharing intellectual capital.

It is argued that social capital is accumulated by networking with influential individuals and it is the investment made in social relations with expected returns in the marketplace (Lin 2001). The 'expected returns in the marketplace' in the case of gender diversity at the senior management levels is the career advancement of women. All forms of social capital are dependent on the stability and continuity of social structure and therefore, time is an important factor for the development of social capital (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998).

According to Ozbiligin and Tatli (2005), various forms of capital have increasingly become an area of interest in organization studies literature. There are many studies in the area of diversity management that have used the theories of capital. For example, studies in the area of gender diversity in senior management in sectors such as retailing, education and health found that accumulation of capitals, such as human capital and social capital is likely to benefit women in their managerial career progression (see Timberlake 2005; Broadbridge 2010; Kumra and Vinnecomb 2010; Ross-Smith and Huppertz, 2010; Tolar 2012). A study by Tolar (2012), investigating the influence of mentoring in women's career development in higher education, employed cultural capital as the theoretical framework. The female participants in her research identified mentoring as a critical factor to their career development. In another study on the influence of social capital factors on career development at senior levels in retailing sector, Broadbridge (2010) found that both men and women were aware of the importance of social capital in career development. All 11 men and six women senior retail managers who participated in the study had benefitted from social capital accumulation early in their careers. The study also revealed that

women were not as skilled as men in accumulating social capital and using networking techniques strategically for career development purposes. Similarly, Kumra and Vinnecomb (2010) studied 19 female consultants from an international consulting firm to investigate whether women were aware of the importance of social capital accumulation in career advancement, and found that women were aware of the need for social capital accumulation for career advancement. Overall, “mentoring and networking are clearly identified as being of prime importance in the support and development of women at work” (Coleman 2011, p. 45).

4.3.2 Mentoring and Social Capital in HRD Literature

The development of people is crucial in organisations because it brings enormous benefits to the organisation as well as the people working for it. Hence, HRD is mutually beneficial for the organisation and its employees (McDonald and Hite 2005). In organisations, the continuous development of human resources provides competitive advantage. Employees benefit from improved knowledge, skills and resources, which enhance their personal development. This in turn increases their career development opportunities and the likelihood of being promoted to senior management roles. The development of employees is disseminated by the HRD practitioners through facilitating training, education, reflective learning, mentoring and building social capital - to name a few. The employee building and development role of HRD enables it to play a key functional role in managing diversity within organisations (Shipton 2005; Mankin 2009). McDonald and Hite are well known for their research contribution in the field of diversity and HRD. McDonald and Hite (2005) developed a framework to help guide HRD professionals to incorporate career

development into the organization. The strategic HRD model developed by them incorporates mentoring and social capital and emphasizes their importance in HRD and career development. In McDonald and Hite's (2005) model of strategic human resource development framework for career development, there are three inter-linked elements, which are organizational support mechanism, learning activities and evaluation process. For instance, the organizational support mechanisms such as fairness/equity issues, environmental issues and life-work balance issues determine the nature of the learning activities fostered in the organization. They indicated that traditionally HRD contributed to career development through what they referred to as the "bounded" activities (McDonald and Hite 2005, p.427). The bounded activities process comprises of formalized programmes such as training, mentoring, tuition reimbursement, job posting, and career-planning workshops. These are bounded activities because their access and availability are bounded by the organization's willingness and ability to offer them. Mentoring of employees is of utmost significance for the development of human resources (Kram 1985; Daloz 1990; Segermann-Peck 1991; Bozeman and Feeney 2007; Peterson et al. 2012). Mentoring is the process where a more experienced person supports the personal and professional growth of a less experienced person. The less experienced person is the protégé or mentee, and the more experienced person is the mentor. Mentoring is a mutually beneficial relationship but the usual focus of a mentoring relationship in the workplace is the professional development of the protégé (Russell and Adams 1997; Noe, Greenberger and Wang 2002; Hezlett and Gibson 2005, 2007). Mentoring is important for career development, as individuals who receive mentoring advance their career to higher levels, earn higher salaries and are more satisfied in their jobs

compared to others (Bierema and Hill 2005). McDonald and Hite (2005) argued that the organization's career development efforts could be supported by both traditional bounded activities which include mentoring and the non-traditional "boundary-spanning" (p.427) activities. They emphasized on four boundary spanning activities. They are informal learning, networks, community involvement and unconventional forms of mentoring. Similar to the view of Ibarra (1993), Combs (2003) and Forret and Dougherty (2004), McDonald and Hite (2005) concurred that networking opportunities, the informal ones in particular, are difficult to avail by minority professionals and managers. This is a disadvantage for the minority groups in terms of career development as networking opportunities are crucial for career development since networking is positively linked to perceived career success and marketability (Eby, Butts and Lockwood 2003; Wolff and Moser 2009). In a longitudinal study, Wolff and Moser (2009) found that networking is related to career satisfaction and growth in salary rate over time. A study by Shantz, Wright and Latham (2011) shows that networking with boundary spanners could help women obtain senior organizational positions. According to Shantz, Wright and Latham (2011, p. 220) boundary spanners are "individuals who perform boundary functions at organizational interfaces". They identified three key functions of boundary spanners. Firstly, information from external sources is provided by boundary spanners to increase the effectiveness of the organization. Secondly, they develop relationships with important stakeholders and transfer the perceptions, expectations and ideas of each group of stakeholders to the others. Thirdly, exchange of value-adding resources between two or more separate parties are facilitated by boundary spanners. Moreover, boundary spanners act as a bridge to foster long-term

relationships between individuals within and external to an organization (Kusari et al. 2005; Shantz, Wright and Latham 2011). Examples of boundary spanners include recruitment agencies and individual employees who refer others for promotion or a new vacancy. The findings of Shantz, Wright and Latham's (2011) quantitative study of a large UK engineering organization revealed that women were less likely to be hired to senior roles compared to men as they did not use boundary spanners as their main job searching tool.

The forms of unconventional mentoring that McDonald and Hite (2005) gave examples of are: mentor networks (de Janasz, Sullivan and Whiting 2003); team or group mentoring (Dansky 1996; Mitchell 1999); and virtual or electronic mentoring (Bierema and Merriam 2002; Hamilton and Scandura 2002). The benefits of these unconventional forms of mentoring include; less number of mentors are required, and it gives the mentees an opportunity to select a mentor from a diverse group of people (Hamilton and Scandura 2002; de Janasz, Sullivan and Whiting 2003). These also facilitate the availability of flexible developmental opportunities for individuals requiring it such as those who are telecommuting, working in remote locations or with work-life balance issues (Hamilton and Scandura 2002; de Janasz, Sullivan and Whiting 2003). Similar to Forret and Dougherty (2004), McDonald and Hite (2005) also identified building social capital or networking and mentorship as types of developmental relationship that aids career success.

The significance of HRD's role in delivering mentoring and developing employees' social capital is also discussed by Mankin (2009). While discussing strategic HRD,

Mankin (2009) argued that an organisation's intellectual capital of employees could be developed by a combination of direct and indirect interventions in developing employees' human capital and social capital. Previously, Baron and Armstrong (2007) argued that intellectual capital consists of three elements. They are human capital, social capital and organizational capital. According to Mankin (2009), the direct HRD interventions for human capital development include focusing on formal structured intervention such as training courses, coaching or mentoring sessions and education programmes. These examples of direct interventions are HRD activities that McDonald and Hite (2005) described as the 'bounded activities' of HRD. The indirect HRD interventions of human capital development is described by Mankin (2009, p.90) as "devolved informal learning". It is called devolved informal learning because the operational responsibility of learning on a day to day basis is devolved to the line managers and the employees. HRD supports this by helping the line managers and the employees to understand about learning and development. This requires the HRD practitioners to design and deliver a range of programmes such as, "training workshops on learning styles and reflective practice; e-learning courses that encourage self-managed learning; coaching sessions to help line managers develop facilitation skills etc" (Mankin 2009, p. 91). According to Mankin (2009), the devolved informal learning strategies are commonly associated with lifelong learning and career development. HRD's direct interventions for social capital development is described as "Engineering" (Mankin 2009, p. 90). The process of engineering involves "creating and controlling communities-of-practice and social networks" (Mankin 2009, p.90). The indirect HRD interventions for facilitating the development of employees' social capital is termed as "empowered informal

learning” (Mankin 2009, p.90). In order to implement the empowered informal learning intervention, the HRD practitioners facilitate the development of social capital through the creation of an environment that encourages social capital development. Overall, the HRD strategic choice described by Mankin (2009) show the importance of building employee human capital through mentoring and other programmes, and social capital for the organization as well as the employees.

Wischert and Steele’s (2013) study supports McDonald and Hite’s (2005) framework reviewed, which identified HRD activities such as mentoring and social capital building as key to career progression. Wischert and Steele (2013) also examined a framework for women’s career progression developed by Kenexa High Performance Institute (KHPI). The framework comprises of three levels, namely, the individual level, the immediate work environment and the organizational context. These three levels are in line with Pringle’s (2009) and Syed and Ozbilgin’s (2011) recommendation for the use of a relational approach in diversity research that was reviewed in the previous chapter. The three levels in the KHPI framework, could be described as the micro level, meso level and the macro level. In this framework, the individual or micro level consists of factors that will help women to increase their visibility and become familiar to the senior employees in the senior management. They are career planning, politically-skilled networking, embracing risk and seeking new opportunities and self-promotion. The immediate work environment or the meso level comprises of access to critical job assignments, supportive supervisors and mentors and sponsors. The organizational context or the macro level factors are flexible working arrangements and work-life balance, supportive organizational

work-life culture, objective HR processes and absence of bias and gender stereotypes. In this framework, the importance of social capital or networking in women's career advancement is placed in the individual or micro level and access to mentoring is positioned at the immediate work environment or meso level. Wischert and Steele (2013) studied the effect of implementing this framework on a global professional services firm which has 13,000 partners and employees in the UK. The organization implemented the framework in order to increase the number of females in executive roles and in partner grades. The study by Wischert and Steele revealed that implementing the framework had enabled the organization to prepare more females for senior roles.

This section reviewed the literature on the role of human resource development in diversity management. It was noted that HRD can play a role in diversity management by making mentoring and social capital development opportunities available to minority groups to help them develop their careers. The following section reviews the literature on the contribution of HRD to gender diversity management.

4.4 CONTRIBUTION OF HRD TO GENDER DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Hezlett and Gibson (2007) contended that the understanding and application of mentoring and social capital are likely to remain very significant for the HRD professionals in organizations. Women's access to mentors and social networks in

organisations is not similar to their male counterparts (Taylor, 2010). This difference generally places women in a disadvantageous position in the workplace due to the lack of access to information, influence and opportunities (Pierce 1995; Taylor, 2010). Therefore the function of HRD that is going to be emphasized in this review is the role of HRD in developing the human capital and social capital of female employees. Mentoring develops an individual's human capital. The concept of human capital is similar to the concept of cultural capital. In HRD literature the term human capital is more widely used compared to the term cultural capital (see Gold et al. 2013). The next sub-section is on developing human capital through mentoring. It explains the difference between the two terms.

4.4.1 Developing human capital through mentoring

Human capital is defined as, “the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being” (OECD 2001, p. 18). The theory of human capital originates from neo-classical economics (Smith 2002). The term ‘human capital’ was first coined by Schultz (1961), who was an economist. Schultz (1961) argued that in organizations in the United States, the return on investment in building human capital was larger than investment in physical capital. According to Becker (1964, 1993), human capital comprises of all the skills, knowledge and experience that the employees attain in order to be successful and productive in the labour market. Contrary to the theory of human capital, the theory of cultural capital originates from Sociology. The sociological influence in the definition of cultural capital differentiates it from

Becker's (1964, 1993) understanding of human capital. This is explained by Ingram, Hechavarria and Matthews (2013, p. 1), as follows:

"First introduced by Bourdieu (1983, 1986), cultural capital refers to the combination of the dominant forms of societal knowledge, skills, and education level that impact an individual's behaviour. Some individuals benefit from relatively greater amounts of cultural capital, which in turn affords them a higher status in society".

The term human capital is more commonly used in HRD literature. Mentoring helps an employee develop their human capital. Therefore this thesis is grounded on the notion of human capital and social capital.

According to HRD literature, human capital is important for career advancement at all levels of management (Tharenou 2005; LaPierre and Zimmerman 2012). Studies by Davies-Netzley (1998) and Ragins, Townsend and Mattis (1998) found that male Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) cite the lack of experience and job tenure as the major reasons for women's under-representation in senior management roles. Their studies also found that the human capital of women is likely to be in jeopardy due to family responsibilities. Family responsibilities may cause women to involuntarily lose human capital in the form of work experience and continuous professional development. However, Newman (1993) argued that the unequal level of career development of males and females are prevalent due to the fact that females voluntarily choose to invest fewer resources in developing their human capital. This

argument was contested by Guy (1993) who indicated that women in the public sector are in possession of equal or higher human capital compared to their male counterparts. Hence, even with equal or higher human capital, females lag behind males in climbing up the organisational ladder (Smith 2002). Therefore, this limitation of human capital in helping career progression can be counteracted by building social capital. Nevertheless, prior to discussing the role of social capital in career advancement, the role of human capital is examined. As discussed earlier, one of the possible methods of developing human capital of females is through mentoring. Mentoring is identified as very useful in promoting career development (Morrison and Glinow 1990; Gubbins and Garavan 2005; Noon 2010). According to Noon (2010), mentoring schemes that are specifically designed for women in management roles to improve their promotion prospects to senior management roles is a 'positive action' (discussed in Chapter 2) initiative to enhance diversity. The next section will review literature on the relationship between mentoring and career advancement.

4.4.2 Mentoring for career advancement

It is often argued that mentors facilitate the career advancement of both men and women (Tharenou 1997; Bozeman 2008; Woolnough and Fielden 2014). Mentoring can be formal or informal. Formal mentorship is established through a mentoring programme, whereas, informal mentorship is developed spontaneously. The outcomes obtained from formal and informal mentoring have been examined by several studies (see Ragins and Cotton 1996; Ragins, Cotton and Miller 2000; Scandura and Williams 2001). Mentoring, in general, has been associated with

positive career success (Allan et al. 2004; Underhill 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge 2007; Stamm and Buddeberg-Fischer 2011). A research by Sambunjak, Straus and Marusic (2006) revealed a positive relationship between mentorship and personal development, career guidance, career choice and research productivity in academic medicine. However, studies by Stamm and Coleman et al. (2005) and Budderberg-Fischer (2011) show that female medical professionals are less likely to have mentors compared to their male counterparts. In this respect, Tolar (2012) argued that having a mentor is not particularly beneficial in all instances. She described that the presence of a mentor as both “help and a hindrance” and the absence of a mentor as “both benefit and deficit” (Tolar 2012, p.1). Mentoring can be detrimental to the mentee as a result of the following reasons: mismatch between the mentor and the mentee; distancing behavior; manipulative behavior; lack of mentor expertise; and general dysfunctionality (Eby et al. 2000; Eby et al. 2004). Detrimental effects of mentoring are more likely to occur in formal mentoring relationships (Kram 1985; Mullen 1994; Eby and Allen 2002). Tharenou (1999) criticized mentoring by arguing that there is no clear relationship between mentoring and the career advancement of women to senior management positions. However, since then many studies (see Feeny and Bozeman 2008; D’Agostino and Levine 2010; Petersen et al. 2012; Wischert and Steele 2013; Woolnough and Fielden 2014; Durbin and Tomilson 2014) have demonstrated a direct relationship between mentoring and career progression. For example, Feeny and Bozeman (2008) referred to research where both male and female employees reported to have benefitted from being mentored. A study of 241 account executives and managers in the USA by Briggs, Jaramillo and Weeks (2011) identified lack of mentoring as a

potential barrier to career advancement in sales. Moreover, a study of part-time female managers in the public, private and non-profit organizations in the UK by Durbin and Tomilson (2014) found that the lack of mentoring negatively affected female career progression. Another study by Woolnough and Fielden (2014) among female mental health nurses in the UK showed that career development and mentoring programmes which were designed to help women and minority groups to progress their career to more senior roles were very effective.

In recent research literature discussing the importance of mentoring in female career progression, the importance of role models is also discussed (see Healy et al. 2012; Steele, Fisman and Davidson 2013; Durbin and Tomilson 2014). For example, a study by Durbin and Tomilson (2014) found that mentoring along with the presence of role models had a positive impact on female career progression. Pace, Heard and Moss (2002) described role models as, “people we can identify with, who have qualities we would like to have and are in positions we would like to reach” (Healy et. al. 2012, p. 257). The difference between mentor and role model is highlighted in a study by Taylor et al. (2009, p. 1131), which considered “the role model function as one in which the learner is in a purely observational learning role and that mentoring pre-supposes the intentions to offer help or provide guidance”. While mentoring encompasses a direct supervisory relationship between the mentor and the mentee, a role model may not have any interaction with the learner. The actions and attitudes of a role model consciously or unconsciously inspire and influence an individual’s behaviour.

In summary, many research studies have evidenced that human resource development can contribute significantly to gender diversity management. Access to mentorship is likely to develop the human capital of females which in turn might lead to career advancement. In light of this review, the following research hypothesis can be proposed:

H3: *There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females.*

Although the human capital of males and females are similar when they enter an organisation, the level of success and career advancement opportunities are not fully dependent on human capital (Timberlake 2005; Miller 2007). Thus, building social capital becomes necessary. One of the potential benefits of mentoring is that it could assist in social capital development (Seirbert et al. 2001; Bozionelos 2003, 2006; Feeney and Bozeman 2008). Social capital development opportunities in the form of networking facilities, improve the career advancement prospects of individuals affected by the glass ceiling, as explained in the next section.

4.4.3 The importance of building social capital for career advancement

Although the notion of social capital originates from Sociology (Portes 2000; Storberg-Walker 2007), it is used in numerous disciplines, including Human Resource Development (HRD) to explain, understand and determine a number of phenomena (Coleman 1988; Emirbayer and Goodwin 1994; Lin 2001; Fine 2002; Storberg-Walker 2007). Social capital has an important role to play in organisations

in terms of obtaining access to power and in influencing policy (Brass 1985; Fukuyama 1995; Kathlene 1995; Barr 1998; Burt et al. 2000; Timberlake 2005; Miller 2007). Social capital is the connections, social relations and norms of a social structure that facilitate the attainment of anticipated goals (Putnam 1995; Cohen 2001; Miller 2007). This means that social capital can be used as a means of obtaining promotion by being recognized by the powerful and influential people. According to Akdere (2005), social networks developed by employees enable them to obtain faster promotions, improved pay and better jobs. Timberlake (2005) reported that women's inability to access social capital thwarts their prospect of career advancement. A study by Foster, Whysall and Harris (2007) in the retailing industry in East Midlands region of the UK found that females were often excluded from career development opportunities because of the nature of hours at which the events were held. Similarly, Ozbilgin, Tsouroufli and Smith's (2011) study of UK hospital doctors revealed that female doctors were excluded from influential career development opportunities because of the constraints they faced in working out of office hours. Social capital has been described as important because it is a valuable source of networks, knowledge and resources essential for career development and maturation. Networking has been identified as essential in the current economy (Osnowitz 2010; Vallas 2011; Williams, Muller and Kilanski 2012) in finding opportunities for career progression both within and outside of an employee's work organisation.

According to Williams, Muller and Kilanski (2012), the key characteristics of the current economy is job insecurity, teamwork, career maps and networking. Their

study of female geoscientists in the US found that the research participants were offered mentorship in the first three to five years of their career but they had no support in career progression when they reached their mid-career. The respondents viewed networking as key to career progression at the mid-career stage. However, Kirton and Greene (2005) had argued that social networks are male-dominated and females are excluded from it informally by the practices and behaviours of their male co-workers. The same was argued by Duberley and Cohen (2010) in their study of 31 female scientists in the UK. They identified female exclusion from influential networks as one of the barriers to female career progression. This argument is further confirmed by Willams, Muller and Kilanski's (2012) findings which show that, the most powerful networks in the oil and gas industry are almost exclusively male. These male networks are strengthened by sports, hunting and fishing trips sponsored by the company. Therefore, in order to progress their career to senior managerial roles, females need to be able to build their social capital by being included in network building programmes sponsored by the organization. The theories that explain how social capital can be developed for career advancement are reviewed next.

The **weak tie theory** was proposed by Granovetter (1973) who explained how individuals working in an organization or from a friendship group make connections to external organizations and other friendship circles. According to Granovetter (1973), there are two types of social ties between individuals within a group and between people of different social groups. The first one is strong ties. Strong ties exist between individuals belonging to the same social group. The key characteristics

of strong ties described by Gubbins and Garavan (2005) are that, these ties are emotionally intense, frequent and involve multiple types of relationships such as family, friends, advisors and coworkers. The second type of social ties is the weak ties. Weak ties exist between an individual of a particular social group with another individual belonging to a different social group. Unlike strong ties, weak ties are not emotionally intense. These ties are infrequent and are confined to one narrow type of relationships only. Weak ties allow individuals to make connections beyond their own social circles as it often acts as a bridge between unconnected social groups. This results in the facilitation of a large and diverse network.

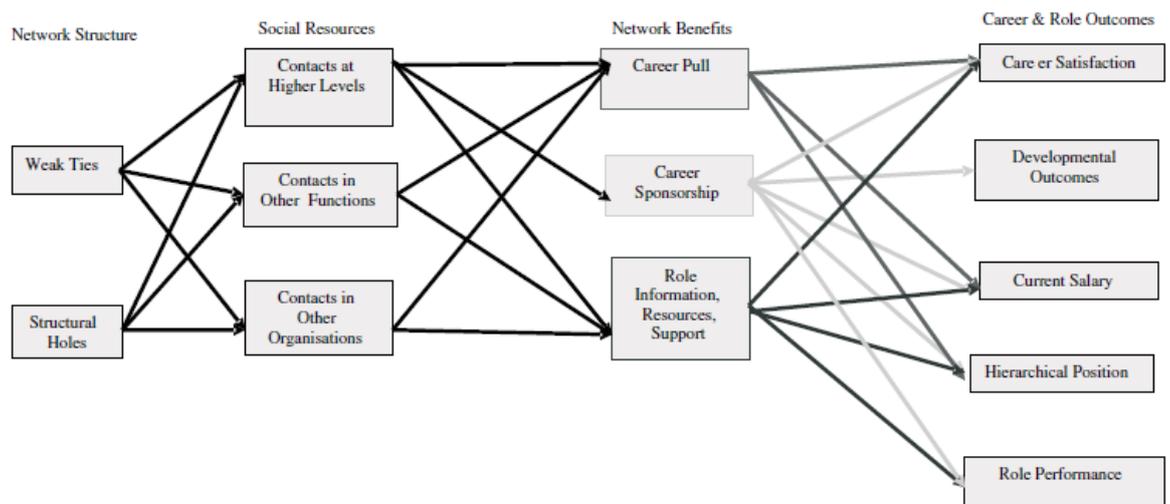
An insight into the relationship between social capital and career advancement in the workplace is provided by the **structural hole theory** (Burt 1992). Structural holes exist between two contacts when they are not connected to each other directly, thus an individual who is connected to both of them acts as a bridge between them and reaps the benefits of this position (Burt 1992 cited in Gubbins and Garavan 2005). The main difference between the structural holes theory and the weak tie theory is that the weak tie theory focuses on the strength of tie. Burt (1992) argued that the bridging concept of social ties is addressed more directly by the structural hole theory than by the weak tie theory. The structural hole theory suggests that as the number of structural holes in organisational/interpersonal networks increase, there is a greater possibility of increased social capital accumulation. This means that, the structural holes present in the organisation presents employees with an opportunity to enhance their social capital. Similar to structural holes theory, weak ties theory suggested by Granovetter (1973) can also act as a bridge in connecting different

social groups, thus developing a larger and more diverse social network (Gubbins and Garavan 2005).

Another theoretical conceptualization of social capital is the **social resource theory** (Lin, Ensel and Vaughn 1981). The definition of social resources provided by Lin, Ensel and Vaughn (1981, p. 395) is, “the wealth, status, power, as well as social ties, of those persons who are directly or indirectly linked to the individual”. According to Lin (1982), the concept of social resources comprises of two components. They are social relations and resources surrounding the positions attained through those social relations. Weak ties enable the attainment of those positions (Lin, Vaughn and Ensel 1981, Lin 1982). In spite of the fact that this suggests an interdependence between weak tie theory and social resources theory, Lin, Vaughn and Ensel (1981) contended that there is a difference in the understanding of the role of weak ties in the two theories. In social resources theory, weak ties are in a suitable position to take advantage of a contact who has the resources needed to help fulfil a particular objective, such as career advancement. Gubbins and Garavan’s (2005) model drew a relationship among network structures which consist of weak ties and structural holes, social resources, network benefits, and beneficial career and role outcomes. According to the model, the three components of social resources are: contacts at higher levels, contacts in other functions, and contacts in other organisations. The network benefits are career pull, career sponsorship and role information, resources and support. Finally, the third and last component, career and role outcomes comprise of career satisfaction, developmental outcomes, current salary, and hierarchical position. Figure 4.1 below shows the social capital model developed by

Gubbins and Garavan (2005). This model is adapted here to give a clear illustration of the functions of HRD in developing social networks that ultimately leads to career advancement.

Figure 4-1: A social capital model



Source: Gubbins and Garavan 2005, p. 197.

The different theories of social capital are all functionalist and there is no ‘one best’ theory of social capital (Storberg-Walker 2007). The concept of social capital is not free from criticisms either. Critics argue that social capital is too flexible as a concept; it is broad, circular and not easy to measure (Schuller, Baron and Field 2000). This has been addressed in the design of this thesis by identifying the measurable characteristics of social capital from recent literature. Borgatti and Foster

(2003) described social capital to be at its early stage of development. The next section reviews the HRD interventions to facilitate social capital building.

4.4.4 Facilitating social capital enhancement through HRD

HRD scholars and practitioners are in a favourable and unique position to partake interdisciplinary research on social capital (Storberg 2002; Gubbins and Garavan 2005). This favourable position is the result of the fact that multiple frameworks and systems thinking are used by HRD professionals and practitioners to solve problems in the real world (Kessels and Poell 2004). As social capital is critical to organizational success, it is necessary for HRD professionals and practitioners to facilitate the development of social capital among individuals within an organization by improving the interaction between people (Hatala 2006; Holton and Yamkovenko 2008). Kessels and Poell (2004) described HRD as an emerging and applied field and insinuated that HRD scholars are in an advantageous position to respond to the need for instruments to diagnose, measure and improve social capital. This can be done by developing practical theories and creating instruments for elaborating on the conceptual work around social capital. According to Kessels and Poell (2004, p.152), the contribution to social capital that HRD practitioners can make at an organizational level comprises of: bringing together people from different backgrounds and with different viewpoints; developing practice based communities; facilitating the access to social networks of individual employees; maintaining and providing counseling services to social networks; ensuring that the benefits of social capital are clear to the employees; and building a discourse to make the benefits of social capital recognizable to people. According to Kessels and Poell (2004, p. 152-

153), the contributions that can be made by HRD practitioners at the broader community or societal level include increasing the employees' educational level, facilitating the learning and personal development of an employee, supporting the employees' social networking skills, and advancing policies on diversity and environmental awareness, democratic principles and equal opportunities. Moreover, Yorks (2005) and Storberg and Gubbins (2007) also argued that social capital interventions made by HRD can transform relationships between people and enhance effectiveness at multiple organizational levels. The HRD interventions to facilitate employees' social capital development suggested by Gubbins and Garavan (2009), Manderscheid (2008) and Storberg and Gubbins (2007) include social activities, workshops, training programmes, designing improved learning environments and creating an environment that encourages executive development. However, critics argue that although HRD research and practice may benefit hugely from functionalist theories like the theories of social capital, the development of the HRD field can be limited by exclusive use of theory building tools from a single paradigm (Torraco 2004, 2005; Storberg-Walker 2007). Therefore, HRD theories need to be developed using multiple paradigms.

From the above review of literature on social capital, it can be concluded that access to social capital is likely to facilitate female career progression. Therefore, the following hypothesis can be suggested:

H4: *There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and career progression of females.*

4.5 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

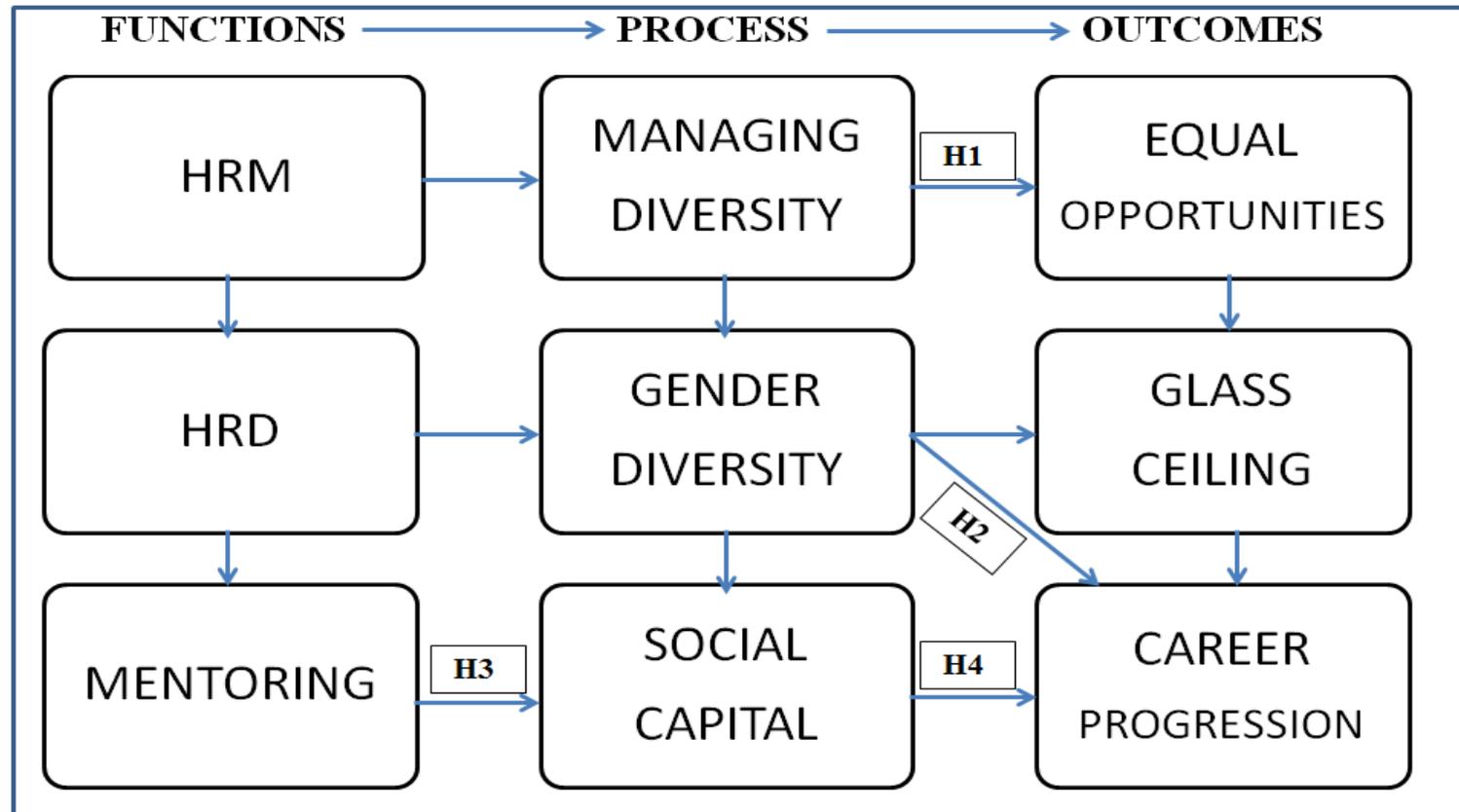
This research study investigates the role of mentoring and social capital in the career progression of females through the theories of human capital and social capital. In recent years, theories of capitals - such as, human capital, social capital, cultural capital, intellectual capital - to explore the issues of managing equality and diversity in organizational analysis has become widely used by Human Resource Management scholars (Ozbilgin and Tatli 2011; Tatli and Ozbilgin 2012; Ariss et. al., 2013).

When put together, the review of relevant issues in the literature on the role of mentoring and social capital from an HRM perspective, results in the development of the following theoretical framework (see Figure 4.2). The framework gives an illustration of the link between HRM and HRD and managing gender diversity in organizations. Figure 4.2 illustrates the association between HRD, career progression, mentoring and social capital. It also represents the hypothesized link between mentoring and social capital and the career progression of women to senior managerial levels. A total of four hypotheses are going to be tested in this study.

H1: There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation;

H2: Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males;

Figure 4-2: A model for the use of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity



Source: Developed by the researcher from the literature reviewed

H3: There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females; and

H4: There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and career progression of females.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed the literature on the role of human resource management and human resource development in diversity management. HRD is a function of HRM that has an instrumental role to play in promoting diversity. The review of literature has revealed that theories of human capital and social capital are likely to assist managers and HRD professionals in terms of making a contribution to the facilitation of the career progression of females to senior managerial roles. This will result in enhanced gender diversity at the senior levels of the organisation. It has been noted that the term human capital instead of cultural capital is commonly used in HRD.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide an elaborate, chronological account of the methodology adopted to conduct the research and to provide an in-depth rationale for choosing a particular methodology and research methods of data collection and analysis for this study.

Kumar (2008, p. 1) defined research as an, “intensive and purposeful search for knowledge and understanding of social and physical phenomena”, or “...scientific and a systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic”. In order to carry out a research, a methodology is essential. The word methodology originates from the Latin word *methodus* + *-ology*. *Methodus* translates to “way of teaching or going” and *-ology* translates to “branch of knowledge, science”. Research methodology – the two words together – is, “the approach to the process of the research, encompassing a body of methods” (Collis and Hussey 2009, p. 67). There are several ways to conduct a research, and thus there are many different methodologies. It is important for the researchers to be able to select the most appropriate methodology for their research. The choice of methodology largely depends on the nature of the research undertaken.

This chapter is divided into ten sections. The first section is an introduction. The second section is on research paradigm. It is important to identify a research

paradigm to guide the conduct of a research prior to carrying out the research itself. The third section describes the philosophical assumptions associated with the research paradigm selected by the researcher. The fourth section discusses the relationship between theory and research, which identifies the research approach undertaken in this study. The fifth section is on research design, which provides a framework for data collection and data analysis. The sixth section explains the qualitative and quantitative research strategies adopted in this research. The seventh section provides a detailed account of the data collection methods that were implemented. It consists of the research population, sample, questionnaire design, pilot study and the process of data collection. The eighth section provides details of the data analysis methods implemented. Research ethics and the ethical considerations undertaken in this study are mentioned in the ninth section. The final section provides a conclusion to the chapter.

5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

All researches are guided by a research paradigm (Bryman 2008; Collis and Hussey 2009). A research paradigm is a philosophical framework. Researchers choose their research paradigms based on their own philosophical beliefs and their understanding of the world and their interpretation of information or knowledge.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified four paradigms for the analysis of social theory. They are ‘radical humanist’, ‘radical structuralist’, ‘interpretive’ and ‘functionalist’. Burrell and Morgan (1979, p.27) described their ‘functionalist’ paradigm as the “sociological positivism”.

According to Morgan and Smircich (1980), there are two major paradigms, *positivism* and *interpretivism*, that lie at the two extreme ends of a continuum. All researches can be broadly categorised under positivism or interpretivism. The positivist paradigm stemmed from the natural sciences discipline, such as physics. The underpinning philosophical theory behind positivism is realism. Positivism has been widely used until the late nineteenth century (Smith 1983). This could be mainly because, during that time, the predominant research subject was the physical world. Scientists would implement a systematic method of observation and experiment and apply inductive logic to invent theories that are explanatory in nature. The theory of positivism was established by theoreticians such as Comte (1798 – 1857), Mill (1806 – 1873) and Durkheim (1859 -1804).

Positivism is based on the underlying belief that social reality is independent and objective. The goal of the researchers is to discover theories by undertaking empirical research. Researchers who apply a positivist paradigm in business research tend to emphasize on precision, objectivity and rigour by applying a logical reasoning in their research. Positivists avoid subjectivity and intuitive interpretation. Quantitative methods are used in positivist researches.

Social phenomena as opposed to natural phenomena began to obtain the attention of researchers as a result of the arrival of industrialisation and capitalism (Collis and Hussey 2009). Initially, social scientists implemented paradigms set by the natural scientist in their research but its suitability was challenged by theorists. Consequently, an alternative paradigm came into being. This new paradigm is known

as interpretivism or phenomenology. It is underpinned by the idealism philosophy. The theoreticians who are associated with interpretivism are Kant (1724 – 1804), Rickett (1863 – 1936) and Weber (1864 – 1920).

Interpretivism disagrees with the positivist view that social reality is objective. Interpretivism argues that social reality is highly subjective and it is shaped by people's perceptions. Instead of measuring social phenomena, interpretivism aims to gain an interpretive understanding of the social phenomena by focusing on exploring the complexity. Hence, a range of methods are implemented by interpretivists in their research. Strauss and Corbin (1990) concluded that any type of research that does not derive its findings solely from statistical analysis of quantitative data is interpretive research.

Based on the above definitions, the current research can be deemed as an interpretive research. This is because, although the research implemented questionnaires consisting of a large number of closed questions to collect and analyse quantitative data, it is not entirely based on the quantitative data collected. Follow up interviews were also conducted and the results analysed qualitatively. The main purpose of the aims, objectives and hypotheses proposed in this research is to contribute to theoretical and practical knowledge to facilitate the improvement of gender diversity in the senior managerial levels of the organisation studied. Therefore, an interpretivist paradigm is best suited to be adopted to carry out the research for a number of reasons. Firstly, the factors associated with the career progression of women to senior management positions are not entirely objective. It is not a

phenomenon that can be measured with pure objectivity as there are subjective matters involved in the research, such as how females are perceived as managers in organisations. Therefore, implementing a paradigm guided solely by the natural sciences is unlikely to be appropriate. Secondly, creating an organisation where the senior management level is gender diverse is a complex matter, using a single measure to capture it would be misleading (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Thirdly, an interpretivist paradigm assists in gaining an interpretive understanding of a phenomenon. It consequently helps in developing theories. Based on these three points it is asserted that an interpretivist paradigm is the most appropriate choice for this research.

However, pragmatism may also be considered as a plausible research paradigm for the research. Pragmatism has been described as a new paradigm (Morgan 2014). However, Morgan (2014) argued that pragmatism is a paradigm that is not entirely new to social research and it is frequently linked to mixed method research. Since this current research is a mixed methods social research, pragmatism could be explored as a possible research paradigm.

5.3 PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS

The main research paradigms are underpinned by philosophical research assumptions. It is important to consider the research assumptions before designing a research method. Nevertheless, unlike older research paradigms such as positivism and interpretivism, pragmatism does not involve the philosophy of knowledge approach which understands social research in terms of its ontology, epistemology

and methodology. Therefore, it is a flexible research paradigm which can be implemented as the philosophical underpinning of qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods research. Pragmatism was not considered as a suitable paradigm for this research. Although this research used mixed methods, which included a questionnaire and quantitative methods of analysis, greater emphasis was placed in the interview data and in thematic analysis of the interviews and the documentary data collected. Hence, the paradigm adopted and emphasized is more interpretivistic than positivistic.

The five main (Creswell 1994, 1995; Collis and Hussey 2009) research assumptions associated with positivism and interpretivism are discussed below:

5.3.1 Epistemological assumption

The accepted knowledge constituted in a field of study is the primary concern of the epistemology of research. Therefore, an epistemological assumption focuses on what is accepted as a valid knowledge. This examines the relationship between the researcher and the subject of the research. Positivists regard only observable and measurable phenomena as valid knowledge. Therefore, they advocate the methods applied in the natural sciences to study social reality and beyond (Bryman 2008). Conversely, interpretivists interact with what is being researched and involves in participative enquiry to construct their own perception of valid knowledge.

The interpretivist paradigm adopted in the current research on gender diversity at the senior managerial levels of organizations dictates an epistemological position which

requires a minimal distance between the researcher and the research. For example, the researcher engaged with the research participants while conducting interviews and also interpreted the interview findings. Therefore, the knowledge obtained was subjective to interpretation. This is different to positive epistemological assumption where objective knowledge obtained through observation and calculation is regarded as valid.

5.3.2 Ontological assumption

The ontology of a research is concerned with the nature of reality. Therefore, it raises questions about the assumptions the researcher possess on how the world functions and their belief in a particular view. The two aspects of ontology discussed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) are objectivism and subjectivism. The objectivism aspects of ontology are adopted by positivists. Positivists believe that there is only one reality which is separate from the researcher. However, interpretivists believe in the subjectivism aspects of ontology. Interpretivists assume that social reality is socially constructed and subjective. Therefore, the researcher is not independent of the research.

The objective aspect of ontology is likely to be less important to management researchers (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2012). This is because managers are likely to attach their own individual meaning to a specific task and how the task should be performed. The current research on facilitating the promotion of women managers to senior management roles is akin to the subjective view. As a result, the interpretivist paradigm embraced in the current research calls for an ontological

stance that necessitates multiple methods to be implemented in the search for reality as this research is underpinned by the premise that reality is socially constructed and subjective.

5.3.3 Axiological assumption

The term axiology refers to the role of values. Axiological assumption in research is concerned with the role of values in research. The role of the researcher's value is of incredible importance at all stages of the research for obtaining credible research results (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2012). Those who are involved in positivist research believe that the process of research is value free (Collis and Hussey 2009). Positivist axiological assumptions are more often undertaken in the natural sciences research. Positivists see themselves as independent of their research and they look at the phenomena that they are investigating as objects. The main interest of the positivist researcher lies in the relationship between the objects they are examining. They consider that the objects were extant before they began to take an interest in them. Further, they presume that their research does not affect the objects of their study. A positivist axiological assumption is less common in social sciences. This is because social sciences discipline is concerned with the behaviour and activities of people.

Interpretivists believe that all researchers have values, regardless of it being made explicit or not. The values contribute to the determination of facts and draw interpretations from them. It is a common belief among interpretivists that the researcher is involved in the research. As the current research is in the area of social

sciences, the axiological assumption made in this research is that the research is value laden and the researcher is actively involved in the research. This again supports the choice of adopting an interpretivist paradigm in the research process.

5.3.4 Rhetorical assumption

The language used in writing up the various stages of the research starting from research proposal to the final version of the completed thesis is at the core of rhetorical assumption (Collis and Hussey 2009). The paradigm under which a particular research is conducted determines the nature of the language used to write up the research – up to a certain extent. In a positivist research, it is common to implement a formal writing style. However, there are no strict preferred writing styles in interpretivist research. As the current research is aimed to benefit organisations in managing gender diversity and the research is being conducted from a business school, a formal, business language is used in writing up the research.

5.3.5 Methodological assumption

A methodological assumption guides the process of the research. Methodology is concerned with the researcher's use of various techniques to conduct the research (Easter-by-Smith *et al*, 2008). Pure positivists choose to engage in experiment and survey methods in their research. In contrast, interpretivists engage in the exploration of pure subjectivity. Therefore, multiple methods are applied by them to gain different perceptions of a problem. The current research engages both quantitative and qualitative methods in the study.

5.4 THEORY AND RESEARCH

Theory provides the social researcher with a rationale for the research that is being conducted and a framework to understand the social phenomena and interpret the research findings (Bryman 2008). According to Whetten (1989) theories are composed of four elements that are related to the questions of ‘what’, ‘how’, ‘why’ and ‘who’, ‘where’ and ‘when’. Theories can be broadly categorised as ‘grand theories’ and ‘theories of the middle range’ (Merton 1967). Social research is typically guided by the middle-range theories. Middle-range theories are theories that are based on empirical enquiry. Bryman (2008) argues that the scope for middle-range theories is limited. A limited aspect of social life is represented by middle-range theories.

The collection and analysis of data in research is influenced by theory. The relationship between theory and research is also determined by the nature of theory or research. The relationship between theory and research is explained by the inductive and deductive approaches to research.

5.4.1 Deductive and inductive research

In deductive research, a conceptual and theoretical structure is first developed by the researcher and then tested (Collis and Hussey, 2009). According to Saunders, Lewis and Thronhill (2012) deductive reasoning in research occurs when the researcher derives conclusions from a set of premises. The premises are the hypotheses and theories that are deduced by the researcher through literature research. These are then

subjected to empirical scrutiny or tests to obtain results. Hence, the process of data collection is driven by the theories and hypotheses derived.

Inductive research is the reverse of deductive research. In inductive research, the data is collected first and then theories are developed based on the data collected. According to Collis and Hussey (2009, p. 8), “inductive research is a study in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality”.

The current study on gender diversity in senior organisational levels adopts a deductive approach to research. A deductive approach fits the aim of the research which is to facilitate the career progression of female managers to senior management roles. Generally believed ideas, concepts, laws, principles and theories are known to form the foundation of a deductive approach (Knox 2004). These foundations assist in the development of hypotheses to be tested. Figure 5.1 illustrates the deductive approach to research.

A list of six sequential steps through which deductive research approaches progress is provided by Blaikie (2010). The first step is the proposition of tentative hypothesis or a set of hypotheses to form a theory. The next step involves carrying out a literature search with the view of constructing testable propositions or hypotheses. The third step is to examine the hypotheses and the logic of the arguments that shaped them. This comprises of conducting a critical literature review to compare the arguments shaping the hypotheses with existing theories. The result of this confirms if the hypotheses developed is likely to advance existing knowledge.

Figure 5-1: The process of deduction



Source: Bryman 2008, p. 10

If it is confirmed only then the rest of the steps are carried out. The fourth step is the collection and analyses of relevant data to test the hypotheses. The fifth step is to either accept or reject the hypotheses developed or to modify them and restart the process, based on the results of the data analyses. The final and sixth step is the confirmation of the contribution made to the existing knowledge or revision of theory as termed by (see Bryman 2008).

The first three steps of Blaikie's (2010) process of deductive research approach are slightly different from Bryman's (2008) process. The current research adopted both Blaikie's (2010) and Bryman's (2008) processes. A thorough literature review was first conducted to review the existing theories and to identify the gaps in existing literature. It was followed by the development of research hypotheses. Then empirical data was collected to test the hypotheses. The hypotheses were confirmed or rejected based on the findings from the data collected. The final step was the revision of existing theories by emphasising on the contribution to knowledge made by the research.

5.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of a research design is to provide a framework for data collection and analysis. After identifying the research paradigm and developing the research assumptions, it is necessary to determine the appropriate methodology and methods for collecting and analysing data. A few of the main methodologies or research designs that are used in social sciences are listed in Table 5.1. Some of them can be adapted for use under either of the two research paradigms.

This research can be closely identified with the feminist, gender and ethnicity studies, seen under the interpretivism paradigm on Table 5.1. Feminist studies are employed in research investigation with the aim of attaining an understanding of a particular phenomenon from the viewpoint of women's role in society compared to men. Feminist perspectives at a methodological level challenge the "traditional

research paradigm from the point of view of the politics and ideology of women’s movement” (Coolican 1992, p.27).

Table 5-1: Methodologies associated with the main paradigms

Positivism ←—————→ Interpretivism	
Experimental studies	Hermeneutics
Surveys(using primary or secondary data)	Ethnography
Cross-sectional studies	Participative enquiry
Longitudinal studies	Action research
	Case studies
	Grounded theory
	Feminist, gender and ethnicity studies

Source: Collis and Hussey (2009, p.74)

Therefore, they challenge the traditional methods of generating knowledge and the views of the world reflected by such knowledge source. The three principles laid out by Hyde (1994) for using a feminist perspective are: the main source of knowledge is the experiences of women; women are benefitted by the research; and the researcher is engrossed in or empathises with the world being studied. However, in gender studies, the experiences of both men and women are taken into account. The term “gender studies” came to light in the 1980s and 1990s. Its advocates described it as a shift towards a focus on gender relations instead of a singular focus on the analysis of women (Lykke 2010). Moreover, the experience of different ethnic groups in the society is the focus of ethnicity studies.

Feminist, gender and ethnicity studies can be closely related to the current study. The hypotheses laid out in this research were tested based on the experiences of male and female senior level managers. The findings of this research will benefit the career progression of women with ethnic minority and non-minority background. The researcher as a woman empathises with the world of female career progression that is being studied. Therefore, a feminist, gender and ethnicity studies can be justified for implementation in this research. According to Collis and Hussey (2009), adopting a combination of feminist perspective and another methodology is possible in research.

5.6 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Research strategy comprises of quantitative and qualitative research strategies. This section outlines and justifies the research strategies implemented in this research.

5.6.1 Quantitative and Qualitative research strategies

The merits of quantitative and qualitative research approaches have been discussed by many researchers (Miles and Huberman 1994; Cavaye 1996; Darke, Shanks and Broadbent 1998; Leedy and Ormrod 2001; Bryman 2008). According to Bryman (2008), quantitative and qualitative research lies at the core of research strategy. There are three main areas of fundamental differences between the two approaches. The first, of the three main areas, is principal orientation of the role of theory in relation to research. While the quantitative strategy is based on deductive approach, the qualitative strategy is based on inductive research. The second area is epistemological orientation. The epistemological orientation of quantitative research

strategy adopted the rules of the natural sciences model and its positivism paradigm. The epistemological orientation of qualitative research strategy is interpretivism. The third and final area of difference is the ontological orientation. Objectivism is the ontological orientation for quantitative strategy. Objectivism views social reality as external and objective. Conversely, constructionism is the ontological orientation for qualitative strategy. In constructionism, social reality is created by individuals and thus it is shifting constantly with each newly created social reality.

The fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies are illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5-2: The fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Principal orientation of the role of theory in relation to research	Deductive: testing of theory	Inductive: generation of theory
Epistemological orientation	Natural science model, in particular positivism	Interpretivism
Ontological orientation	Objectivism	Constructionism

Source: Bryman (2008, p.22)

Although the quantitative and qualitative research strategies are the two most common types of research strategies implemented in the process of research, there is a third strategy which combines both qualitative and quantitative methods. It is known as the mixed methods. The following section elaborates on the mixed methods research strategy.

5.6.2 Mixed methods research strategy

Mixed methods research incorporates both quantitative and qualitative research in a single research study. In the first issue of the widely cited, *Journal of Mixed Methods Research (JMMR)*, mixed methods research is defined as, “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or program of inquiry” (Tashakkori and Creswell 2007, p. 4). Implementing a mixed methods research strategy has several advantages (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). Firstly, the most common argument is, mixed methods counterpoises the disadvantages of both qualitative and quantitative research. Secondly, applying a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in research studies provides more evidence to the study. It also broadens the researcher’s choice of data collection methods. Thirdly, mixed methods research helps in critical answering of questions that might be difficult to answer by using a single method only. Fourthly, mixed methods research encourages the use of multiple paradigms, instead of advocating the underpinning of a particular method to a particular paradigm. Lastly, it has also been described as “practical” (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, p. 13) as a mixed methods allows the researcher, the discretion, to use all the methods necessary to address a research problem. However, this list of advantages is not exhaustive.

Despite having several advantages, the use of mixed methods research has some limitations. Applying a mixed methods research requires skills. The researcher needs to be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative research techniques before embarking on a mixed methods research study. Moreover, even if the researcher

possess the basic skills required for conducting a mixed methods research, mixed methods researches are likely to be very time consuming. Therefore, it should be thoroughly considered whether there is sufficient time available to collect and analyse the two different data types. Furthermore, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) have pointed out that mixed methods research is a relatively new research approach. Therefore, it might be difficult to convince everybody of the merits of mixed methods research.

The current research engages a mixed methods research strategy. As a result, both quantitative and qualitative data will be collected and analysed in the process of the research study. Mixed methods research strategy is implemented through triangulation. Adoption of a triangulation method in research aids in the reduction of bias that may be present in the research. Triangulation moderates the bias that may be present in the sources of data, research methods and research investigator (Jick 1979). Triangulation is, “the use of two or more independent sources of data or data-collection methods within one study in order to help ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you” (Saunders 2012, p. 683). The potential elements of triangulation in research studies have been analysed into four main types by Easterby-Smith, Thrope and Lowe (1991). The first one is triangulation of theories, where a theory adopted from one discipline is implemented to explain an occurrence in another discipline. Next is data triangulation. Data triangulation involves the collection of data at different times or from different sources in order to study a phenomenon. Then there is investigator triangulation, in which case, the data on a particular phenomenon is collected independently by several researchers and the

results compared. The last of the four is methodological triangulation. It is the use of more than one method to collect and/or to analyse data. The use of one single paradigm is essential in the application of methodological triangulation.

In the current research on gender diversity in senior management levels, the empirical data was collected through questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews. Secondary data was also collected from the organisation's documents. Therefore, methodological triangulation is implemented in the research. Similarly, theory triangulation is also used in the current research. This is because some of the hypotheses developed are based around the theories of social capital and mentoring which are concepts originating from sociology. Therefore, this research will merge theories of sociology, business studies and psychology to a certain extent.

5.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection is of utmost importance in all research studies. Data are generally of two types, which are primary data and secondary data. The origin of secondary data is already existing sources like publications and data bases. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) classified secondary data into three main types. They are documentary data, survey based data and data compiled from multiple sources. Documentary secondary data include texts from webpages and administrative and public records, among others. In research, it is common to use documentary data in conjunction with primary data collected. This research collected documentary data from the organisation studied to establish the research problem.

Primary data are data obtained from original sources such as the researcher's own surveys, experiments, interviews (Collis and Hussey 2009). It was essential to collect primary data to test the research hypotheses developed in this research. From now onwards the term "data" will refer to primary data as this research is largely based on primary data. The mixed methods research strategy implemented in this study required both quantitative and qualitative data to be collected. Quantitative data were collected through the use of questionnaires, while qualitative data were collected through the use of semi-structured interviews.

The type of questionnaire used was a self-administered questionnaire (Bryman 2008; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2012), whereby, the research participants respond to questions by self-completing a questionnaire survey. Self-completion or self-administered questionnaires and structured interviews are similar modes of data collection. Therefore, the advantages of implementing self-completion questionnaires over structured interviews need to be emphasized. Bryman (2008, p.217), identified the following advantages of self-completion questionnaires. First of all, self-completion questionnaires are economical and quicker to administer. It is also convenient for the respondents as it allows them to complete it at their own pace. However, self-completion questionnaires also have some disadvantages. Therefore, qualitative data was collected in order to mitigate the disadvantages of using the questionnaires alone.

Qualitative data were collected through the use of semi-structured interviews with a sample from the research population who consented to be interviewed. In the semi-

structured interviews, an interview guide or schedule was carried by the researcher. The interview guide consisted of a list of questions or a list of topic areas to be covered. However, the researcher had the freedom to pick up on responses made by the interviewees and ask questions that were not originally included in the interview guide. Therefore, questions were unlikely to follow the exact same order as outlined in the interview guide. Overall, all the questions prepared in the interview guide were asked and similar wording was used by the researcher in all the interviews.

The following two sections elaborate on research population and research sample of this research.

5.7.1 Research Population

When collecting primary data in a research study, a research population needs to be identified. Collis and Hussey (2009, p. 338), defined the term population in a research context as “a precisely defined body of people or objects under consideration for statistical purposes”. A much simpler definition is provided by Bryman (2008, p.697), which is, “the universe of units from which a sample is to be selected”. Bryman’s (2008) definition of population will be adopted by this research because this researcher does not agree with Collis and Hussey’s (2009) view of statistical purposes in the definition of population. This researcher believes that a population is considered in a research for both quantitative and qualitative purposes.

In order to test the research hypotheses developed for this research, primary data collection was of utmost necessity. Therefore a large public service organisation -

with a reputation for employing a large number of ethnically diverse female employees - was chosen for the conduct of the empirical part of the research. The data were collected from the NHS Tayside in Scotland. The research population comprised of the senior level managers. The nature of this research dictated the choice of senior level managers. Since the research is on gender diversity at the senior management levels, only the senior managers could make the most meaningful contribution to the research. In line with the gender studies methodology, both male and female senior-level employees were included in the research population. The research population of the senior level employees were identified from the total pool of employees by coding their salary band as it was not possible to identify them by the amount of managerial decision making responsibility undertaken. All senior managers were identified based on their pay scale. Therefore, employees in the top two salary bands, which were in bands 8 and 9, were selected to take part in the research. The pay system of the NHS has three pay spines or series of pay bands. One of the series is for the employees in the remit of Doctors' and Dentists', one for employees who are under the extended remit of the pay review body for nursing and other health professionals, and the last one is for other NHS staff who are directly employed but it excludes the most senior managers. The employees in the remit of Doctors' and Dentists' were not included in this research as this research focussed on managers.

5.7.2 Research Sample

Identification of the method of data collection and research population is followed by the identification of research sample in the process of any field research in the social

sciences discipline (Bryman 2008). A sample is required to be selected from the identified population. Sampling techniques can be broadly categorised as probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is also known as representative sampling. It is more commonly associated with survey research strategies (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2012). Survey research strategies require the researcher to make interpretations about the entire population from the sample in order to answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. Probability sampling is not only applicable in quantitative research, it may be also used in qualitative research (e.g. Rafaeli et al. 1997). Probability sampling is not advisable when the research population is fifty or less (Henry 1990). However, the research population was over fifty in this current research. Hence, it was possible to use probability sampling. Nevertheless, as questionnaire survey data was collected from one organisation only, instead of using probability sampling a survey questionnaire was sent to the entire research population. Hence, non-probability sampling was used to conduct the questionnaire survey. The type of non-probability sampling technique that closely resembles this sampling technique is purposive sampling. Saunder, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) state that a purposive sample requires the researcher to use their own judgement in selecting samples that are most suitable in answering the research question and research objectives. The current research has identified all senior level managers as the appropriate research sample for the questionnaire survey. This is because the research aims to develop existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career progression of women to senior management roles.

Similarly, the samples for conducting an in-depth, semi-structured interview was also selected using non-probability sampling. The types of non-probability sampling techniques that are applied to select the samples to conduct the interviews were snowball sampling, self-selection sampling and convenience sampling. Snowball sampling and self-selection sampling falls under the broad category of volunteer sampling. Snowball sampling comprises of making contact with one or two sample cases from the population for collecting data and requesting them to identify further potential respondents for data collection. Then, again, asking the new respondents to identify even more new potential respondents. The process stops either when the sample size is satisfactory or when there are no new cases. The disadvantages of snowball sampling identified by Saunder, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) include the difficulty in making the initial contact. There is also a chance of bias as respondents are likely to recommend other potential respondents who are similar to themselves. This creates a sample which is homogeneous and undesirable (Lee 1993).

Convenience sampling comprises of selecting sample cases because they are available easily or are most convenient. In the current research, in order to maximise the number of interviews and obtain representative data, samples from the research population that are conveniently available are also interviewed. The majority of the interviewees were selected through a self-selection sampling procedure. Self-selection is another method of volunteer sampling technique. It occurs when individuals are given the opportunity to express their desire to take part in the research. Therefore the need for people to participate in the research is required to be publicised. It could be done through advertising in appropriate media or simply by

asking people to take part. Data is then collected from those who respond. In the current research, at the end of the questionnaire there was an option to tick a box to voluntarily express consent to be contacted for an interview. Those who ticked the box were asked to provide their email address and telephone number so that they can be contacted for an interview. The respondents who ticked that box and provided their email address and telephone number were contacted for interviews.

5.7.3 Questionnaire Design

The word questionnaire can be used as a general term to comprise all methods of data collection that seek responses to the same set of questions from individuals in a predetermined set of order (deVaus 2002). The appropriate designing of a questionnaire is of utmost importance as it largely determines the validity and reliability of data collected and the response rate achieved (Gillham 2000; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2012). The validity of a questionnaire refers to the questionnaire's ability to generate accurate data to measure the concepts that the researcher is interested in investigating. Reliability refers to the questionnaire's consistency in collecting desired data.

According to Bourque and Clark (1994), when designing individual questions for a questionnaire, it is a common practice among the researchers to either adopt questions used in other similar research questionnaires, or adapt questions used in other similar researches or develop their own questions. In this current research, the questionnaire was divided into six main sections. The questions in the section on demographic characteristics were mostly adopted from a questionnaire that was

required to be completed by those who registered to the annual Scottish Graduate School of Social Science 2013 – organised by Edinburgh University. The questions in the sections on equality and diversity, gender diversity and promotion, and the role of human resource management were mostly developed by the researcher. The questions on the remaining two sections on mentoring and social capital were mostly adapted from questionnaires used in research by Feeney and Bozeman (2008) in the USA. Their questionnaire was obtained by contacting the researchers and requesting them for it.

A vast majority of the questions in the questionnaire used in this research were closed-ended questions (Fink 2009) or forced-choice questions (deVaus 2002). Closed-ended questions provide the respondent with a number of alternative answers to choose from. The main advantages of closed ended questions to the respondents and the researcher are: 1) it is easier and quicker for the respondents to answer closed-ended questions; and 2) it is also easier for the researcher to compare responses as they are predetermined (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2012). However, the benefits become marginal (Foody 1994) if the responses cannot be easily interpreted.

A total of five out of the six sections of the questionnaire included rating scale questions that collected the respondents' opinion or perceptions using a five-point Likert Scale (Likert 1932). The five points ranged between, 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'neutral', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree'.

Section 1 of the questionnaire was titled, 'Equality and Diversity'. There were ten statements in the section seeking the respondents' views on the equality and diversity practices in the organisation. Section 2 was on, 'Gender Diversity and Promotion'. At the start of the section, the word Gender was defined as the social connotation of being a 'man' or a 'woman' (Game and Pringle 1984). The section consisted of seven statements on gender diversity and promotion to senior managerial roles. The respondents had to rate the statements on the five point Likert scale exactly like in the first section and as mentioned previously. Section 3 sought the respondents' perception on the effectiveness of mentoring on career progression. A definition of mentoring was provided at the beginning of the section. It was defined as, 'the process where a more experienced person supports the personal and professional growth of a less experienced person'. The first seven questions of the section were multiple choice questions where the respondents had to indicate whether they had been mentored or not and answer some specific questions about their mentoring experience. The following eight questions of section three were rating scale statements on mentoring which sought to determine the usefulness of mentoring on female career progression. Section 4 was on social capital. The definition of social capital that was provided at the beginning of the section was, 'the social relations developed with influential people that could potentially facilitate career development and/or career progression'. Again, similar to section three, the first six questions of the section were multiple choice questions asking the respondents whether they meet any of their managers socially. The following nine questions of the section were Likert Scale statements. Section 5 sought to explore the role of human resource management in facilitating mentorship opportunities and social capital building

opportunities. It consisted of a total of eight questions. Among them, five of the questions were Likert Scale rating questions. The final section, which was on Section 6, recorded the demographic characteristics of the questionnaire respondents.

5.7.4 The Pilot Study of the Questionnaire

Pilot testing allows the validity of the questionnaire to be assessed. It also permits the researcher to measure the reliability of the data that will be collected by the questionnaires. Bryman (2008, p. 247) described pilot studies as, “particularly crucial” in research that employs a self-completion questionnaire. This is because a large number of questionnaires are sent out at once and if any problems become apparent after the questionnaires are sent out, it would result in a large wastage. Pilot studies help in identifying any problems in the questionnaire and in revising any unclear areas or questions that the respondents might find confusing - before the questionnaires are sent out to the targeted research population.

In the current study, a pilot study was carried out before finalising the questionnaire. The content validity of the questionnaire was established by obtaining feedback from the research supervisor. The questionnaire was then emailed to all academic members of staff in the Dundee Business School and a few academic members of the School of Social and Health Sciences at Abertay University for piloting. The academic members of staff from the School of Social and Health Sciences were selected via snowball sampling. Atkinson and Flint (2004, p.1) defined snowball sampling as “a technique for gathering research subjects through the identification of an initial subject who is used to provide the names of other actors”. The initial

contact at the School of Social and Health Sciences was a Lecturer of Sociology. A total of 8 responses were obtained from the two Schools, along with comments and suggestions.

The respondents of the pilot study felt that the question asking the respondents to give the number of their dependent children was not relevant. Therefore, this question was taken out of the questionnaire. The pilot study also revealed that the first three questions in the section on the role of Human Resource Management required a “don’t know” option. Consequently, this option was added to the questionnaire.

One of the respondents in the pilot study commented that the questionnaire would be more relevant to be sent to the junior-level managers. However, this comment was not taken on board because the overall result of the pilot study indicated that the junior managers are less familiar with the concept, implication and importance of mentorship and social capital in the organisation compared to the senior managers. Moreover, the senior managers and the middle-managers of an organisation are the ones who are closely involved in managing diversity in their organisations (Gilbert, Stead and Ivancevich 1990; Cornelius, Gooch and Todd 2000). Therefore, they are the participants with the most experience to reflect on issues around managing diversity. As a result, it was concluded that the questionnaire was more suited to the originally targeted research population of senior-managers.

5.7.5 Interview Design and pilot study

The interview was designed to be administered just after the completion of the questionnaire data collection. Therefore, the final section of the questionnaire asked the respondents whether they would agree to be interviewed. Meanwhile, after sending out the questionnaires, an interview schedule was prepared by the researcher and approved by the research supervisor. A pilot study was carried out to adjust the interview schedule. It was also revised whenever it was deemed to be necessary throughout the conduct of all the interviews. Although the interview guide covered a list of questions on fairly specific topics, the framework of the interview was quite open as it was semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interview method was selected for interviewing the participants because of the flexible nature of the method which offers a scope of spontaneity in enabling the respondents to express their views and experiences. Simultaneously, it also ensures a certain level of structure and focus throughout the process of interview (Arksey and Knight 1999; Tatli 2011). Questions out-with the interview guide was asked whenever it was deemed to be necessary to probe for further information. At the same time, the interview questions were not always asked exactly in the same order as in the interview guide. For example, the participants sometimes answered some of the questions before they were asked and sometimes questions were asked to them where it fitted. However, the interviewees were asked all the questions from the interview guide and the questions were worded to all the interviewees in a similar manner.

5.7.6 The process of data collection

All the research data were collected from NHS Tayside between October 2013 and December 2013. In order to facilitate data collection, NHS Tayside had issued the researcher with an honorary employment contract along with the employment Terms and Conditions at the end of September 2013. In order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents, the questionnaire data were collected via the survey monkey platform. The secondary data collected from the organisation included some employee statistics on percentage of female employees from salary band 5 to 9 and their ethnicities. This information was already available in the organisation.

5.7.6.1 Questionnaire data collection

At the beginning of October 2013, the researcher was given the names of 660 employees of NHS Tayside who were in salary bands 8A, 8B, 8C, 8D and 9. The researcher's first task was to find their email addresses from the organisation's intranet so that the survey monkey link to the questionnaire could be sent to them via email. It was possible to find 639 email addresses out of the 660 names. This is because some of the individuals listed on the original list had retired or were in secondments. After finding the email addresses, it was decided that the Equality and Diversity Manager would send out the emails with the Survey Monkey link to the questionnaire to all the identified people on the researcher's behalf. The reason behind this decision was the fact that the employees were familiar with the Equality and Diversity Manager and therefore they were more likely to respond to a

questionnaire survey sent by someone from the organisation that they know than by somebody who they do not know at all.

An email with the questionnaire link was first sent out to the 639 individuals identified on the 15th of October 2013. The email also contained a cover letter from the researcher, which introduced the researcher and the research and guaranteed confidentiality. There was also a joint letter from the Director of Human Resources and the Employee Director requesting co-operation on the research (see Appendix C). The email was received by a total of 633 people. A reminder email requesting the completion of the questionnaire was sent out on 23rd October 2013. The third and final reminder was sent out on the 30th of October 2013. Finally, a total of 257 questionnaire responses were received giving a response rate of 40.6%. However, out of the 257 responses, a total of 242 were complete. This gave a final response rate of 38.23%.

In December 2013, all the questionnaire responses were downloaded, coded and manually entered into IBM's SPSS software package for analysis.

5.7.6.2 Interview data collection

Before conducting the original interviews, the interview schedule was approved by the research supervisor. Also, a pilot interview was conducted with one of the female members of academic staff at the DBS to obtain feedback on interview techniques. All the interviewees were questionnaire respondents who voluntarily expressed their interest in being interviewed. The number of questionnaire respondents who

indicated their willingness to be interviewed was 27 in total. Emails were sent to all 27 of the potential interviewees, thanking them for completing the questionnaire and showing an interest in being interviewed. All of them were emailed with a request for an interview (see Appendix I). The email had an interview information file attached. The information file provided the details of the research, an indication of the content of the interview, the interview period, the estimated length of the interviews and requested for suitable interview dates from them (see Appendix J). A response with an interview date was obtained from 16 people. They were made aware that the interviews will be recorded and might be transcribed by a professional transcriber and were given the option to object to recording the interview and transcribing it by a third party. There were no objections received. Finally, it was possible to interview 13 individuals. The interviews lasted between 40 minutes to 1 hour and 40 minutes. The interviewees were guaranteed anonymity and strictest confidentiality and it was maintained at all times.

The 13 in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted between 12th November 2013 and 12th December 2013. They were conducted in various health-care organisations in the Tayside region which are under NHS Tayside. Out of the 13 interviewees, 10 were female and 3 were male. The age of the interviewees ranged from 34 years to 61 years and the ethnicities represented are British, Scottish, Irish, Indian, German, Middle-eastern and mixed background. All the employees were employed within the remits of the top two salary bands of the organisation, namely Band 8 and Band 9. Table 5.3 illustrates some of the demographic attributes of the interviewees.

Table 5-3: Demographic attributes of the interviewees

Interviewee Number	Gender	Ethnicity	Age	Role	Length of Service
1	Female	Indian	49	Manager	19 years
2	Female	British	49	Manager	27 years
3	Male	Mixed Background	53	Head of Department	20 years
4	Female	Scottish	48	Nurse Consultant	22 years
5	Female	German	40	Team Leader	6 years
6	Male	Scottish	49	Manager	21.5 years
7	Female	Scottish	61	Head of Department	10.5 years
8	Female	Scottish	57	Principal Clinical Pharmacist	11 years
9	Female	Irish	57	Principal Radiographer	25.5 years
10	Female	Scottish	49	Team Leader	27 years
11	Male	Iraqi	61	Head of Department	10 years
12	Female	Scottish	38	Service Co-ordinator	16 years
13	Female	Scottish	34	Clinical Psychologist	10 years

Source: Compiled by the researcher from the interview data

In order to protect the identity of the interview respondents, the detailed role of the interviewees are not provided on the Table. Length of service indicates the number of years that the individual worked for the particular NHS Board researched. The themes covered in the interview are similar to the ones covered in the questionnaire, namely: equality and diversity; gender diversity; mentoring and social capital (see Appendix K).

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of the data collected involved quantitative method and qualitative methods. The questionnaire data collected were mostly numeric data which were coded and entered into IBM's SPSS software package for quantitative data analysis. While entering the Likert scale responses on the software, the following codes were used; Strongly Agree = 5, Agree = 4, Neutral =3, Disagree = 2 and Strongly Disagree = 1.

The recorded interviews were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative data analysis to identify the key themes arising from the textual data and analysing those themes descriptively.

5.8.1 Quantitative data analysis

First of all, the internal reliability of the questionnaire was tested using Cronbach's Alpha Test. Cronbach's Alpha test was carried out to check the reliability of the four main sections of the questionnaire. All sections resulted in an Alpha coefficient of

over 0.70. There were two items in section two that gave a score below 0.70. The two items were reversed and finally a coefficient of above 0.80 was obtained in that section. Table 5.5 shows the results of the reliability tests carried out on each section of the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha value of over 0.7 confirms the reliability of the scales used in all four sections of the questionnaire. According to Pallant (2013), values over 0.7 are acceptable whereas values over 0.8 are reliable.

Table 5-4: Reliability coefficient of the questionnaire

Sections	Cronbach's Alpha
Section 1: Equality and Diversity	0.764
Section 2: Gender Diversity and Promotion	0.808
Section 3: Mentoring	0.758
Section 4: Social Capital	0.853

Source: Compiled by the researcher from the Cronbach's Alpha test of the questionnaire data

Next, descriptive statistics were utilised to analyse the demographic profile of the questionnaire respondents and to calculate the frequency, mean, median, standard deviation of the Likert scale responses. Then, all four hypotheses were statistically tested using the SPSS software. The statistical tools that were used to test the hypotheses were Pearson's Correlation Test, Independent Samples Test, Binomial Test and Spearman's Correlation Test. One-tailed significance test such as Spearman's Correlation Test was used when the data indicated a strong correlation between the two variables under consideration.

5.8.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data collected were analysed through document analysis and thematic analysis. All documents collected from the organisation for the purpose of this research were analysed through document analysis. This was done through interpreting the contents of the documents. According to Bowen (2009, p.27), “document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic (computer-based and internet-transmitted)”. The documents analysed in this research were electronic. Some of the documents such as the ones in Appendix A and B and the percentage of females employed in Band 5 to Band 9 and their ethnicities, as presented in Table 2-2, were requested by the researcher from the organisation and were subsequently emailed to her. Other documents, such as NHS Agenda for Change (AfC) and the employee handbook, were downloaded from the internet. Thematic analysis was employed in analysing the documents collected. The documents were read and re-read to identify data that matches the key themes of this research. The data obtained as a result were then interpreted by the researcher and used in the research.

The interviews were transcribed for analysis by a professional transcriber between December 2013 and January 2014. The transcribed interview data were analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is the most commonly used data analysis method in qualitative research (Guest, MacQueen and Namey 2012). The key themes arising from the topics of equality and diversity practices of the organisation, gender diversity and career progression of females, the role of mentoring in the career progression of females and the role of social capital in women’s career progression

were extracted from the transcribed interviews and then interpreted by the researcher. Thematic analysis requires extensive involvement and interpretation by the researcher of the key themes identified. Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2012, p.10) stated that, “Thematic analyses move beyond counting explicit words or phrases and focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data, that is, themes”. The analysed qualitative data were used to support the results of the hypotheses tested and the research findings.

5.9 RESEARCH ETHICS

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), research ethics is a critical part of research design. Ethical concerns emerge in several stages of the process of conducting the research. The stages include the research design, research planning, seeking access to organisations and individuals to collect data, collecting data, analysing data, managing data and reporting the findings of the data. The research design and research strategies must be formulated to ensure that there is no risk of causing embarrassment, pain, harm or any other foreseeable disadvantage to people. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p. 226) defined research ethics as, “the standards of behaviour that guide your conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of your work, or are affected by it.”

Bryman (2008) emphasised the importance of being aware of the ethical principles and the ethical concerns that typically arise in social research. Diener and Crandall (1978) divided ethical principal in social research into four main areas. The four areas are: possible harm to participants, possible lack of informed consent, possible

invasion of privacy and possible deception. A list of ethical principles that researchers need to be aware of is provided by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.230). The list is derived from ethical codes, guidelines and statements of practice of various internationally recognised research associations and societies. The principles included in the list are: integrity and objectivity of the researcher; respect for others; avoidance of harm; privacy of those taking part; voluntary nature of participation and right to withdraw; informed consent of those taking part; ensuring confidentiality of data and maintenance of anonymity of those taking part, responsibility in the analysis of data and reporting of findings; compliance in the management of data; and ensuring safety of the researcher.

The current research complies with all the ethical principles outlined above. Before seeking access to an external organisation for data collection, an ethical approval was obtained from the DBS Research Ethics Committee to conduct the research according to the University of Abertay's code of ethics in research.

The questionnaire and the interview schedule were designed to avoid any emotional and psychological harm to research participants. Some of the questions in the questionnaire that the participants might feel uneasy to answer, such as their sexuality, had a 'prefer not to say' option. The research questionnaire that was sent to the research participants clearly mentioned the voluntary nature of participation and the right to withdraw, informed consent of participants, participant confidentiality and anonymity. The same was also ensured to the participants who consented to be interviewed. Moreover, the research organisation was ensured that

the organisation will not be named in any publications based on the findings of the research, without the organisation's prior consent. Strict compliance with Data Protection Act 1998 was maintained all throughout the research. All the raw data collected during the research was solely used by the researcher for an aggregate analysis. The data was stored in a secure place and it will be destroyed after two years of the completion of this research.

5.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a detailed explanation and justification of the methodology implemented to carry out the research. It started with an explanation of the research paradigm which guides the conduct of all research. Then the paradigm adopted in this research was explained and justified. The research paradigm which guided the conduct of this research is interpretivism. Although the research implemented hypothesis testing, which is closely associated with positivism paradigm, this study cannot be described as a positivist research as it is not purely based on quantitative data. Next, the philosophical assumptions, research approach, research design and research strategy that underpinned the conduct of this research were discussed with detailed rationale behind the chosen research design and research strategy. Mixed methods research strategy was implemented in this research. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were implemented. The data collection instruments used includes close-ended questionnaires and in-depth semi-structured interviews. Data were collected from the senior managers in salary bands 8 and 9, employed by NHS Tayside. A total of 242 valid questionnaires were returned by the research participants and 13 semi-structured interviews were conducted. A pilot

study was conducted before embarking on the final data collection process. The quantitative data collected was statistically analysed using the SPSS software package and the qualitative data was analysed thematically. The final section described the importance of ethics in research and the ethical considerations undertaken in this research. In conclusion, the methodology chapter provided a detailed, in-depth account of the research methodology implemented in this research and rationale behind the chosen methodology. The next chapter presents the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings from the analysis of the data collected through the use of questionnaires and interviews conducted at the NHS Tayside. The analysis of data from 242 valid questionnaire responses are presented in the form of means and standard deviations based on 5-point Likert scale. Nearly 74% of the valid questionnaire responses were received from female respondents. Also, the interview findings presented are from the 13 interviews conducted with the 10 female and 3 male interviewees. Therefore, the majority of the participants of this research were of the female gender. This chapter is divided into five sections.

The first section presents the demographic profile of the respondents. The profile is based on the demographic characteristics that are described in the Equality Act 2010, which provides a list of ‘protected characteristics’. The list of protected characteristics in the Act, comprises of age, disability, gender reassignment, marriage and civil partnership, pregnancy and maternity, race, religion and belief, sex and sexual orientation. This section shows that there were not enough data on protected characteristics, other than gender, to pursue them further in terms of data analysis.

The second section presents the findings in relation to the first hypothesis on the perception of the effectiveness of equality and diversity practices among the senior

managers. The third section presents the findings in relation to the second hypothesis on the perception of gender diversity and promotion. The results of data analysis in relation to the third hypothesis are presented in the fourth section which is on gender and the effects of mentoring on promotion to senior managerial levels. The final section presents the finding in relation to the fourth and final hypothesis on gender and the effects of social capital on promotion to senior managerial levels. Finally, the chapter ends with a conclusion of the main findings of this study.

6.2 RESPONDENTS' PROFILES

Among the total of 242 questionnaire responses, 179 were returned by females. This gives a female response rate of 73.97%, while the male response rate was 25.62%. There was only 1 respondent who identified themselves as gender reassigned. Table 6.1 below shows the ethnicity of the questionnaire respondents. A total of 175 respondents identified themselves as Scottish, 52 identified themselves as British and 7 as Irish. There were 5 respondents of mixed origin and there was only 1 respondent who was of Indian ethnic origin.

Table 6.2 presents the age distribution of the gender reassigned and male and female respondents. The majority of the respondents were in the 45-54 age group. This could be because the data was collected only from the senior managers of the organization who were in the top two salary bands. In total, there were 111 respondents in the 45-54 age group with 78 females and 33 males. The age group with the least number of respondents was 64+, which had only 1 male and no female respondents. Table 6.2 presents the age distribution of the gender reassigned and

male and female respondents.

Table 6-1: Ethnicity of the respondents

	Gender			Total
	Gender Reassigned	Male	Female	
Ethnicity Scottish	0	35	140	175
Irish	0	3	4	7
British	1	19	32	52
Indian	0	1	0	1
Mixed background	0	3	2	5
Other	0	1	1	2
Total	1	62	179	242

Table 6-2: Respondents' gender and age

	Age					Total
	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	64+	
Gender Gender Reassigned	0	1	0	0	0	1
Male	2	9	33	17	1	62
Female	10	57	78	34	0	179
Total	12	67	111	51	1	242

Table 6.3 presents the findings of the data collected in relation to the respondents' sexual orientation. It can be seen from Table 6.3 below, that out of the 242 questionnaire respondents, 225 identified themselves as heterosexuals. There were only 2 respondents who identified themselves as homosexuals. One of them was a man and the other was a woman. Also, 12 respondents indicated that they preferred not to disclose their sexual orientation, whereas 2 respondents did not answer the question at all.

Table 6-3: Sexual orientation of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Did not answer	2	.8	.8	.8
Gay man	1	.4	.4	1.2
Gay woman	1	.4	.4	1.7
Heterosexual	225	93.0	93.0	94.6
Other	1	.4	.4	95.0
Prefer not to say	12	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	242	100.0	100.0	

It can be seen from Table 6.4 below that a total of 166 of the respondents were married, 2 were in civil union, 12 divorced, 23 had a partner, 18 were single, 5 were widowed and 12 preferred not to disclose, while 4 completely skipped the question.

The number of respondents who had dependent children was almost equal to the number of respondents without any dependent children. There were 112 respondents with dependent children while only a marginally larger number of 117 respondents' who stated that they had no dependent children. Among the 178 females who answered the question, 89 had no dependent children, whereas 81 had dependent children, 8 of the female respondents indicated that they preferred not to disclose whether they had any dependent children or not.

Table 6-4: Marital status of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Did not answer	4	1.7	1.7	1.7
Married	166	68.6	68.6	70.2
In a civil union	2	.8	.8	71.1
Divorced	12	5.0	5.0	76.0
Partner	23	9.5	9.5	85.5
Single	18	7.4	7.4	93.0
Widowed	5	2.1	2.1	95.0
Prefer not to say	12	5.0	5.0	100.0
Total	242	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.5 shows the number of questionnaire respondents with dependent children.

Table 6-5: Respondents' with dependent children

	Dependent Children				Total
	Did not answer	No	Yes	Prefer not to say	
Gender Reassigned	0	0	1	0	1
Male	2	28	30	2	62
Female	1	89	81	8	179
Total	3	117	112	10	242

Table 6-6: Religious beliefs of the respondents

Gender	Religion						Total
	Did not answer	Christian	Hindu	None	Prefer not to say	Other	
Gender Reassigned	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Male	2	37	1	18	4	0	62
Female	0	108	0	58	12	1	179
Total	2	145	1	77	16	1	242

Table 6.6 shows that a large majority of the respondents were of Christian beliefs, as a total of 145 people identified themselves as Christians. A total of 77 respondents indicated that they had no religious beliefs. Only one person identified themselves as Hindu and one indicated that they belonged to other religious group. Also, 16 respondents preferred not to disclose their religion, whereas 2 respondents completely skipped the question. None of the respondents identified themselves either as a Muslim or as a Jew.

Disability is one of the important characteristic identified by the Equality Act 2010.

Table 6.7 presents the data obtained on disability.

Table 6-7: Disability

		Disability			Total
		Did not answer	No	Yes	
Gender	Gender Reassigned	0	1	0	1
	Male	0	57	5	62
	Female	1	166	12	179
Total		1	224	17	242

It can be seen from Table 6.7 that a total of 17 respondents disclosed that they had a disability. Among those 17 respondents, 5 were male and 12 were female. Only one female respondent did not answer the question. The rest of the respondents of the questionnaire indicated that they did not have a disability.

This section presented the demographic characteristics of the questionnaire respondents, with an emphasis on the characteristics that are relevant to this research and are identified as protected characteristics by the Equality Act 2010. The next section presents the findings of the second section of the questionnaire which collected data on equality and diversity practices in the organisation.

6.3 PERCEPTIONS OF EQUALITY AND DIVERSITY PRACTICES

This section presents the results of the questionnaire respondents' perceptions on equality and diversity practices within the NHS Board studied. This includes their perception of the effectiveness of the equality policy that is currently in place as a result of the Equality Act 2010.

It can be seen from Table 6.8, that a total of 99 female (55.3%) and 34 male (54.8%) respondents 'agreed' to the statement that, "*My organisation treats all its employees equally*". The statement was disagreed by 4 male (6.5%) and 19 female (10.6%) respondents. These results show that although most of the senior employees believed that they had been treated equally by the organization, a small percentage of them felt that they were discriminated against. The interview findings confirmed this result. For example, a senior nurse commented that: "I still feel that there is a slight difference between the ways that people are perceived within the organisation. I think there has been a shift over time and I think as time goes on there is a change but there is still a difference, I think, within the organisation" (Interviewee 4, Female).

The comment illustrates that some senior employees believe that the organization does not always treat everyone equal. However, inequality was more common in the past than it is now. The female senior nurse also added that: "I still don't think it [equality and diversity] is something that we live and breathe and that we understand" (Interviewee 4, Female).

Table 6-8: Employees' perception of equality and diversity practices within the organisation

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.	My organisation treats all its employees equally	3.94	3.74	0.81	0.84	22.6	14.5	54.8	55.3	16.1	19.6	6.5	10.6	0.0	0.0
2.	My organisation emphasises on equal opportunities for all its employees	4.13	3.93	0.71	0.75	30.6	19.6	53.2	59.2	14.5	16.2	1.6	5.0	0.0	0.0
3.	The equality policies in place are effective in creating equal opportunities for all	3.84	3.74	0.73	0.80	16.1	14.5	54.8	52.0	25.8	26.8	3.2	6.1	0.0	0.6

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
4.	I have noticed changes in the organisation that were brought about as a result of the Equality Act 2010	3.37	3.12	0.81	0.73	9.7	1.7	29.0	27.4	50.0	53.6	11.3	16.2	0.0	1.1
5.	I have personally benefitted from the equality policies and practices of the organisation	2.77	2.80	0.66	0.65	0.0	1.1	8.1	6.7	66.1	66.5	21.0	22.9	4.8	2.8
6.	The equality policies and practices are making the organisation more diverse	3.42	3.25	0.62	0.70	0.0	2.8	48.4	31.8	45.2	53.1	6.5	12.3	0.0	0.0

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
7.	Diversity at all levels is evident in the organisation	3.29	3.22	0.84	0.83	3.2	2.2	41.9	39.1	37.1	39.7	16.1	16.8	1.6	2.2
8.	Diversity is well managed by the organisation	3.50	3.50	0.74	0.67	6.5	3.9	45.2	47.5	40.3	43.6	8.1	4.5	0.0	0.6
9.	The organisation could do more to reap the benefits of a diverse workforce	3.40	3.40	0.66	0.71	1.6	4.5	45.2	39.1	45.2	49.2	8.1	6.7	0.0	0.6
10	I am aware that gender is one of the protected characteristics of the Equality Act 2010	4.0	4.2	0.78	0.76	29.0	28.5	58.1	58.1	6.5	8.9	6.5	3.9	0.0	0.6

Nevertheless, the current organizational effort to treat everyone equally was revealed through the response of a female senior clinical psychologist who said: “I think it’s [equality and diversity] certainly much higher up in the agenda than it used to be” (Interviewee 13, Female).

Another senior male team leader’s response is very similar to the comment made by Interviewee 13. He stated: “I think they [the organisation] take[s] it seriously” (Interviewee 6, Male).

The majority of the respondents agreed to the statement “*My organisation emphasises on equal opportunities for all its employees*”, with 33 males (53.2%) and 106 females (59.2%) indicating their agreement. There were 35 (19.6%) strong agreements from the female respondents and 19 (30.6%) strong agreements from the male respondents. Again a small percentage of male and female respondents disagreed with the statement. However, the overall higher percentage of agreement to this statement, compared to the first statement, could mean that although the organisation is emphasising on equal opportunity for all its employees, it has not yet been fully successful in treating all its employees equally.

It can be seen from Table 6.8 that the majority of the respondents agreed to the third statement, “*The equality policies in place are effective in creating equal opportunities for all*”, with 34 males (54.8%) and 93 females (52%). However, there were a small percentage of disagreements and there was even some sign of strong disagreements. This result is confirmed by the interview data. For example, one

senior male employee, who was the head of a department, elaborated on statement three during the interview by saying that: “We have policies on everything; millions of them...some of them are there just to tick the box. There is no manager that has read all of those policies...I don’t personally believe there is a real commitment to them (the policies)” (Interviewee 3, Male).

Similarly, a female senior manager mentioned that although the policies are good, sometimes individuals within the organisation are reluctant to understand and implement them. She explained by stating: “I think we have got very good policies in place because our policies are well written and they are impact assessed for any of the protected characteristics under the equalities legislation but, then it’s about what do people actually understand about those policies and how do they implement them, how do they use them and sometimes people use them well, very well and sometimes they just don’t, they don’t understand it” (Interviewee 1, Female).

The above comments made by the male head of department and the female senior manager explain why some of the questionnaire respondents disagreed to the statement, “*The equality policies in place are effective in creating equal opportunities for all*”. Moreover, the responses given to statement four, “*I have noticed changes in the organisation that were brought about as a result of the Equality Act 2010*” indicate that the majority of the respondents were not sure if there were any significant changes to the organisation as a result of the Equality Act 2010. A similar response was obtained from statement five, which shows that a vast

majority of the respondents were uncertain about whether they had personally benefitted from the equality policies and practices of the organization.

In response to the statement, *“The equality policies and practices are making the organisation more diverse”*, a majority (53.1%) of the females indicated that they were neutral. By contrast, the majority of the male respondents (48.4%) indicated that they agreed to the statement. This is because the majority of the male respondents were white males from non-ethnic minority backgrounds, as was seen in Table 6.1, and therefore they are not directly affected by the equality policies and practices.

Statement seven received a consistent response from the respondents of both sexes. The majority of the male and female respondents either agreed or they were indifferent about whether diversity was evident at all levels of the organisation. The table shows a very similar result to the next statement which was, *“Diversity is well managed by the organization”*. However, the interview responses to the question relating to this statement were varied and interesting. For example, one senior female network manager said: “Well equality and diversity is prominent, and seems to be something that this organisation is very keen to promote (Interviewee 2, Female).

It can be seen from the generic statement made by the female network manager that she was trying to avoid replying directly to whether diversity is managed well or not. Her response clearly implies that, although the organization is very keen to promote equality and diversity they were not managing it very well. In contrast to the female

network manager, a male head of a department directly expressed his opinion on the topic by saying: “I don’t think it’s (the organisation) terribly good at it (equality and diversity) but that’s a slightly different thing. I think there’s a genuine intention to be as inclusive and diverse as can be however, it (the organisation) is still very conservative ...and I don’t think it’s (the organisation) as open minded as it (the organisation) thinks it (the organisation) is. But I think that the intention is there. ...I think there is an inbuilt negative thing in there which goes against the intentions to promote equality and diversity within the organisation but at the same time I think there’s an intention to do that (promote equality and diversity)” (Interviewee 3, Male).

Another female manager also mentioned that she believed that the organization still had a lot to do to be able to manage diversity well. “I think, equality and diversity for the organisation is important, but I’m not quite sure if everybody understands what they mean by equality and diversity. I think the organisation’s understanding of equality is fair but I think there is a lot more work that can be done around it.” (Interviewee 1, Female).

The respondents either agreed or were indifferent about whether the organization could do more to reap the benefits of a diverse workforce. Interestingly, there were some disagreements to statement ten from Table 6.8, which means that some senior employees were completely unaware of the fact that gender is one of the protected characteristics of the Equality Act 2010.

In relation to the above analysis the first hypothesis, **H₁**: “*There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation*”, was tested statistically by using two variables. The first variable was the respondents’ perception of the degree of emphasis on equal opportunities placed by the organisation, and the second variable was the respondents’ perception of whether diversity is evident at all levels of the organisation. The hypothesis was tested using Pearson’s Correlation test. The result of the test is presented in Table 6.9 below.

Table 6-9: Pearson's correlation test for hypothesis 1

H1: *There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation*

		Q2	Q7
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	242	242
Q7	Pearson Correlation	.392**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	242	242

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From Table 6.9, it can be seen that the sample correlation coefficient, $r = 0.392$. Since the corresponding p-value is 0.000 which is less than 0.01, the null hypothesis,

H₀1: “*There is no positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation*”, can be rejected. Therefore, the test result shows that there is a significant correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Hence, the alternative hypothesis, H₁: *There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation* is accepted.

6.4 PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER DIVERSITY AND PROMOTION AMONG THE EMPLOYEES IN SENIOR POSITIONS

The second section of the questionnaire was designed to obtain information on the perception of gender diversity among the senior employees of the organisation. Table 6.10 summarises the responses to the statements of the section.

As shown in Table 6.10, the first statement was, “*All employees are equally treated in my organisation regardless of gender*”. A majority of the respondents of both sexes have agreed to the statement. However, a small percentage of the respondents did not feel that all employees were equally treated in the organization regardless of their gender. The responses of the second statement in Table 6.10 were similar to the first one. This is because the second statement is very similar to the first statement. During the interviews when the interviewees were asked if they had experienced difficulty in career progression because of their gender, one senior female manager who is from an ethnic minority background said: “I don’t think its gender. I think the ethnicity might possibly play a part in it [in making career progression difficult]” (Interviewee 1, Female).

The response from the senior female manager supports the findings of statement two where a majority (60.3%) of female respondents had agreed to the statement, “*I have never felt discriminated in this organisation because of my gender*”. Another senior female manager who had originally joined the NHS as a nurse mentioned that she had felt discriminated because of her gender over two decades ago when she was a charge nurse. She stated: “I think back in the early, unenlightened years, yes [I had felt discriminated because of my gender], I had my first child and I wanted to come back part-time and I was a charge nurse at that point, and I really had to persuade the then male manager that charge nurses could work part-time and he allowed me to come back for a year on part-time and then said I had to go back to full time. That wouldn’t happen now” (Interviewee 2, Female).

Overall, the interview findings were similar to the questionnaire findings with most of the respondents agreeing that they had never felt discriminated because of their gender in recent times.

Remarkably more males than females agreed to the third statement: “*My organisation is gender diverse at all levels*”. Unsurprisingly, the disagreements to this statement were mostly received from females as can be seen on Table 6.10. This shows that gender diversity is socially constructed and males view it differently to females. This finding is similar to the studies that Ridgeway (1991) referred to, which showed that people believe that it is more worthy to be a male than a female. It seemed that the male participants of this study believed that the low female representation at the senior levels is not worthy to be considered. When asked about

gender diversity during the interview, a female principal radiographer who worked in the organisation for 25.5 years replied that: “At one time my profession was very female dominated, but the majority of the senior posts were male, very few males were going in but they always ended up in senior posts partly because women were taking time out and going on maternity leave and had gaps in their career” (Interviewee 9, Female).

The response made by interviewee nine indicates that the organisation was not gender diverse at all levels in the past. However, interviewee one believes that it is still not gender diverse at all levels at present. She said: “Although the majority of the employees in the organisation are females...when you are the higher up in the organisation I think the balance is either, there might be a slight more percentage of males or there will be an equal percentage of males and females but in comparison to the whole gender diversity of the organisation it is not reflected at a higher level. I don't think it's reflected at a higher level ... We have got 80% of females in the organisation but... when you get to the senior levels, what you will find is that there is probably more men, even though there's only 20% men in the organisation. What you'll find is more men at that senior management levels” (Interviewee 1, Female).

Moreover, a female network manager stated: “Now, I have sometimes wondered [why] senior management [in the NHS] tend to be men, I have noticed and I have had a few [male managers], I have had my fingers burned in the past and it is very, I think it is very male orientated and that's partly why I wouldn't want to get to

dizzying heights of [very] senior management in NHS Tayside. I don't really like the way they operate" (Interviewee 2, Female).

Similar to most females, some males also believed that the organisation is not gender diverse at all levels. For instance, one male head of a department stated that: "Given how much the organisation as a whole is female dominated you would expect more [females] and particularly at the more senior levels but that's [the senior levels are] very much [dominated by] the classic alpha male characteristics and the selfish driven characteristics which are seen as being more male. I think it is unfortunate and I think that is actually something which goes against women having true equal opportunities. There are no actual barriers, [to gender diversity at the senior levels]. I think they [barriers] are there culturally. So, a lot of the more stable ones [females] get to a certain point and then don't get any further [due to the absence of alpha male characteristics]. That's my view from just having seen it for many many years that's all" (Interviewee 3, Male).

A majority of the questionnaire respondents disagreed that it is difficult for females to progress to senior management positions as can be seen from the findings of statement four in Table 6.10. This could mean that although the organization is not gender diverse at all levels, the employees believe that it is not impossible to achieve gender diversity. This is supported by the following statement made by Interviewee 7 who is a female head of a department. She stated: "I think the chief executive has always been a man while I've been here but who knows, the deputy chief executive

Table 6-10: Perception of gender diversity and promotion

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.	All employees are equally treated in my organisation regardless of gender	3.92	3.67	0.91	0.87	22.6	13.4	59.7	52.5	6.5	22.3	9.7	11.2	1.6	0.6
2.	I have never felt discriminated in this organisation because of my gender	4.23	3.93	0.78	0.88	37.1	22.3	53.2	60.3	6.5	7.3	1.6	8.4	1.6	1.7
3.	My organisation is gender diverse at all levels	3.68	3.36	0.78	0.90	11.3	8.4	53.2	39.1	27.4	34.1	8.1	17.3	0.0	1.1
4.	In my organisation it is difficult for females to progress to senior managerial positions	1.76	2.32	0.84	0.81	1.6	0.6	1.6	10.1	11.3	20.7	41.9	58.7	43.5	10.1

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
5.	Females are equally represented along with males at the senior managerial positions of my organisation	3.94	3.55	0.92	0.94	22.6	10.1	59.7	54.7	11.3	16.8	1.6	16.8	4.8	1.7
6.	Females from ethnic minority backgrounds are equally represented at all levels of my organisation	2.89	2.74	0.73	0.89	0.0	3.4	19.4	13.4	51.6	43.0	27.4	34.1	1.6	6.1
7.	Females from ethnic minority backgrounds are more likely to face hurdles in obtaining promotions	2.47	2.62	0.80	0.72	0.0	0.0	9.7	8.9	37.1	49.2	43.5	36.9	9.7	5.0

and the operations manager are both women. So I have never been aware at senior levels or at other levels of there been an inequality. It seems to me that people have been assessed on their ability and experience rather than insisting well it has to be a man who is in that position. I expect I am quite unusual being head of my department and being a woman but I was appointed out of a large number of candidates” (Interviewee 7, Female). Interestingly, Interviewee 7 was the head of a small ancillary department with no strategic roles.

A female nurse consultant described the characteristics of the few females who managed to achieve major senior roles in the organisation. She said. “I think it is interesting that three of the major women within our organisation have no family. You know they are career and business minded and actually their roles have changed from the professional background that they have come from. So they have not maintained whatever career they started in, they have gone more of into business mode type roles rather than the professional career type roles. So yes, I think within certain professions within the organisation, if you want to stay within your professional role where you have trained, from a nursing point of view, I think you have to come away from your sort of career or your professional values to move into that other part of your career.” (Interviewee 4, Female).

In relation to statement four of Table 6.10, when the interviewees were asked whether there is a glass ceiling in the organisation, which makes it difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels, some interviewees hinted that they believe that the glass ceiling is still present within the organisation in hindering

women's career progression. For instance a male team leader stated: "I'm not saying there isn't a glass ceiling in the organisation. I always look when people say there's a glass ceiling. In any organisation, there's a glass ceiling." (Interviewee 6, Male).

A female senior manager summarised her view on whether the glass ceiling is still prevalent by stating: "The glass ceiling is there and there is a few women that can manage to reach it but not many" (Interviewee 9, Female).

Therefore, in relation to the analysis provided above, the second hypothesis: **H₂: Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males**, was statistically tested by carrying out an independent samples t-test, using the statement, "*In my organisation, it is difficult for females to progress to senior managerial positions*", as the dependent variable and gender as the independent variable. The results of the test are shown in Table 6.11 below. The number, '14', on the second row of the first column of the table represents the dependent variable.

It can be seen from Table 6.11 that since the significance value (Sig.) on the second column of the test output table is > 0.05 , the "Equal variances assumed" row on the table will be interpreted. The test statistic value $t = -4.685$ and the corresponding p-value = 0.000. This represents a significance level of < 0.01 . Therefore, there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of males and females, with females believing that, "in my organisation it is difficult for females to progress to senior management roles".

There is sufficient evidence from the sample to support the research hypothesis **H₂**: *Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males* and to reject the the null hypothesis **H₀₂**: *Females do not find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males*.

Table 6-11: Independent samples test for hypothesis 2

H₂: Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
14.	.036	.850	-	239	.000	-.56596	.12079	-.80391	-.32801
			4.685	102.78	.000	-.56596	.12307	-.81004	-.32187
			-	7					

6.5 GENDER AND THE EFFECTS OF MENTORING ON PROMOTION TO SENIOR MANAGERIAL LEVELS

It can be seen from Table 6.12 below that a total of 162 (66.9%) questionnaire respondents indicated that they had never been mentored. Among them 116 were females and 45 were males, which are 64.8% and 72.6% of the total female and male respondents, respectively. When asked if the mentoring relationship had helped in their career progression, 35 females (19.6% of the total female respondents) and 11 males (17.7% of the total male respondents) responded in the affirmative. Out of the respondents who were mentored, 56 females (31.3% of total female respondents) and 17 males (27.4% of the total male respondents) indicated that they had benefitted

from the mentoring relationship, as seen from Table 6.13.

Table 6-12: Responses to the question indicating whether the respondents had been mentored

			Gender			Total
			Gender Reassigned	Male	Female	
Q18	No	Count	1	45	116	162
		% within Gender	100.0%	72.6%	64.8%	66.9%
	Yes	Count	0	17	63	80
		% within Gender	0.0%	27.4%	35.2%	33.1%
Total	Count	1	62	179	242	
	% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 6-13: Benefit obtained from the mentoring relationship

			Gender			Total
			Gender Reassigned	Male	Female	
Q22	Not Applicable	Count	1	45	118	164
		% within Gender	100.0%	72.6%	65.9%	67.8%
	No	Count	0	0	5	5
		% within Gender	0.0%	0.0%	2.8%	2.1%
	Yes	Count	0	17	56	73
		% within Gender	0.0%	27.4%	31.3%	30.2%
	Total	Count	1	62	179	242
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

When asked if the mentoring relationship had helped the respondents in their career progression, 35 females (19.6% of the total female respondents) and 11 males (17.7% of the total male respondents) responded in the affirmative. The results are shown in Table 6.14. Finally, among the questionnaire respondents, 119 females (66.5%) and 44 males (71%) indicated that they never had the role of a mentor themselves. Only 60 females (33.5%) and 18 males (29%) had been a mentor. Table 6-14 shows career progression as a result of being mentored.

Table 6-14: Career progression as a result of being mentored

			Gender			Total
			Gender Reassigned	Male	Female	
Q23	Not Applicable	Count	1	45	118	164
		% within Gender	100.0%	72.6%	65.9%	67.8%
	No	Count	0	6	26	32
		% within Gender	0.0%	9.7%	14.5%	13.2%
	Yes	Count	0	11	35	46
		% within Gender	0.0%	17.7%	19.6%	19.0%
Total		Count	1	62	179	242
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note: The total number of females counts as 61 instead of 63 because 2 of the females mentored answered, 'Not Applicable' as they felt that the mentoring they received was not related to career progression

In order to understand how mentorship was perceived by the senior employees, a series of Likert scale statements on mentoring were used, as can be seen from Table 6.15. It can be seen from Table 6.15 that a total of 94 female (52.5%) and 42 male

(67.7%) employees were in agreement with the first statement, which stated that *“mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people in the organisation”*, while, one male respondent (1.6%) and 12 female respondents (6.7%) disagreed to the statement. This indicates that the majority of the senior employees of the NHS were aware of the benefits of mentorship. However, it can be noted that a greater percentage of the male senior employees recognise the benefit of mentoring compared to the percentage of female senior employees. Very similar responses were given to the second statement, that *“mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people outside the organisation”*, with a greater percentage of males (62.9%) agreeing compared to females (49.2%). The interview response obtained from one of the senior female managers might explain why fewer percentages of females agreed to the first two statements. She said: “I have been mentored, and I have been mentored by somebody very senior and it was a male. I think mentoring is a very good way of you (the mentee) recognising your (the mentee’s) abilities and how you (the mentee) actually portray them. I don’t think I use my mentoring effectively because it didn’t help me with my career progression but maybe because I didn’t use the mentoring I was being given in a proactive way, or then maybe I did, because now I do sit on the board, albeit it’s a charity and I’m sitting as a board member there, it’s actually helping me to develop my career in other way.”

(Interviewee 1, Female).

Table 6-15: Perception of the role of mentoring in career progression

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.	Mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people in the organisation	3.73	3.60	0.66	0.78	4.8	8.4	67.7	52.5	24.2	31.3	1.6	6.7	1.6	1.1
2.	Mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people outside the organisation	3.68	3.50	0.67	0.76	4.8	5.6	62.9	49.2	29.0	35.8	1.6	8.9	1.6	0.6
3.	Access to mentorship could potentially help in the career progression of an employee	3.94	3.81	0.60	0.70	14.5	11.7	64.5	62.0	21.0	22.3	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.6

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
4.	Female employees are likely to obtain career benefits from mentorship opportunities	3.42	3.31	0.90	0.74	9.7	5.6	35.5	30.2	46.8	55.3	3.2	7.8	4.8	1.1
5.	Access to mentorship can enhance gender diversity at the senior managerial positions	3.27	3.18	0.63	0.72	3.2	2.2	25.8	26.8	67.7	60.3	1.6	7.8	1.6	2.8
6.	A mentor can help an employee deal with “office politics”	3.76	3.66	0.56	0.74	4.8	7.3	67.7	59.2	25.8	26.3	1.6	6.7	0.0	0.6
7.	Overall, a mentor can contribute a great deal to the career success of an employee	3.80	3.69	0.60	0.73	9.7	10.6	61.3	52.5	29.0	33.5	0.0	2.2	0.0	1.1

This response demonstrates that although she believed that mentoring is useful in aiding one's career progression, she was not very sure if being mentored had actually helped her in her career progression. However, she was the only one who appeared to be slightly doubtful.

A large number of male (64.5%) and female (62%) respondents agreed to the third statement on Table 6.15. This means that both male and female senior employees were well aware of the potential benefits of mentoring with regards to career progression. However, no males disagreed with the statement that, "*access to mentorship could potentially help in the career progression of an employee*", while a very small percentage of females (3.4%) did not agree.

When asked whether access to mentorship could potentially help in the career progression of an employee, a senior female network manager agreed that mentoring is useful for female career progression and she herself had benefitted from being mentored. She said: "I have found it useful and I know that people I have managed have found it useful so I have mentored people and I have been mentored and I think it is a really good way of helping women..." (Interviewee 2, Female).

The results of statement four on Table 6.15 does not give a clear indication of whether the majority of the senior employees firmly believe that, "*female employees are likely to obtain career benefits from mentorship opportunities*". However, during the interviews, all the interviewees agreed that mentorship opportunities were beneficial to the careers of the female employees. In order to illustrate this view, one

male head of a department stated: “Undoubtedly yes...the mentor or coach can actually use the experience they’ve had which is normally at a senior level, and to put it into the context better (to help the mentee in their career)” (Interviewee 3, Male).

Moreover, a female team leader with 27 years of work experience with the NHS replied by saying: “I think it [being mentored] could play an enormous role [in women’s career progression]” (Interviewee 10, Female).

Another female service co-ordinator with 16 years of work experience stated that: “I think it’s [mentoring] a really useful tool (in female career progression) and I think that mentoring is really helpful. I think I certainly wouldn’t be precious about it at all, if people want to look out-with the service to be mentored, either professionally or managerially, I think to do some shadowing of people’s roles gives you an insight into what people do” (Interviewee 12, Female).

Statement five on Table 6.15, sought the opinion of the senior employees on the relationship between access to mentorship and gender diversity at the senior managerial positions. The responses presented an unclear view as most of the respondents indicated that they were neutral to the statement. A majority of the respondents believed that “a mentor can help an employee deal with “office politics” as can be seen from the findings of statement six on Table 6.15. Similarly, a large percentage of respondents recognised that a mentor can make a significant contribution to the career success of an employee, as they agreed to statement seven.

Overall, the section presents the data obtained on the perception of the senior employees on gender, ethnicity and the effects of mentoring on promotion to senior managerial levels.

The third research hypothesis, **H₃**: “*There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females*”, was reworded to derive a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis from it. Therefore the null hypothesis was, **H₀₃**: *There is no positive relationship between mentorship and female career progression*, and the alternative hypothesis was, **H₁₃**: *There is a positive relationship between mentorship and female career progression*.

A binomial test was carried out to test the hypothesis. The result of the test is presented in Tables 6.16 and 6.17. In Tables 6.16 and 6.17, Q18 refers to the question which asked the respondents whether they ever had a mentor and Q23 refers to the question which asked them whether the mentoring relationship had helped them in their career progression. A total of 61 female respondents indicated that they were mentored. From Tables 6.16 and 6.17, it is seen that among females mentored a larger number indicated that it had helped them in their career progression, 35 females said ‘Yes’ to Q23 and only 26 females said ‘No’. The significance level of >0.01 confirms that there is sufficient evidence in the sample to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. This confirms the research hypothesis **H₃**: “*There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females*”.

Table 6-16: Binomial test for hypothesis 3

H₃: There is a positive relationship between mentorship and the career progression of females

	Category	N	Observed Prop.	Test Prop.	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	
Q18	Group 1	Yes	26	1.00	.50	.000
	Total		26	1.00		
Q23	Group 1	No	26	1.00	.50	.000
	Total		26	1.00		

a. Q23 = No

Table 6-17: Binomial test for hypothesis 3

H₃: There is a positive relationship between mentorship and the career progression of females

	Category	N	Observed Prop.	Test Prop.	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	
Q18	Group 1	Yes	35	1.00	.50	.000
	Total		35	1.00		
Q23	Group 1	Yes	35	1.00	.50	.000
	Total		35	1.00		

a. Q23 = Yes

The next section of the questionnaire collected data on the perception of the senior level male and female employees on social capital and its effects on female career progression.

6.6 GENDER AND THE EFFECTS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL ON PROMOTION TO SENIOR MANAGERIAL LEVELS

In the questionnaire, the section on social capital started with a brief description of the key terms used in the section. A definition of the phrase ‘social capital’ was provided at the beginning of this section. The definition of social capital provided was, “the social relations developed with influential people that could potentially facilitate career development and/or career progression”. It was stated that the term ‘manager’ in the section referred to influential managers who could potentially influence one’s career progression or career success.

The first question of the section asked the respondents whether they met any of their managers socially. Interestingly, a majority of the questionnaire respondents denied to meeting their managers socially. A total of 174 respondents (71.9%) answered negatively to the question. Only 53 female respondents (29.6%) and 13 male respondents (21%) indicated that they met their managers socially outside work. In order to determine the commonly practised methods of meeting managers socially, the next question asked how they usually met their managers socially. In response, only one male respondent (1.6%) indicated that he played golf with his manager. This amounts to 7.7% of the males who met their managers socially. Moreover, 18 female respondents (10.1%) and five male respondents (8.1%) indicated that they went out for social drinks with their manager. This totals to 34% of females and 38.5% of males out of the total female and male respondents who had indicated that they met their managers socially outside work. Meeting up for meals was a method

indicated by 23 female (12.9%) and three male (4.8%) respondents, which is 43.4% and 23.1% of the female and male respondents who met their managers socially. Finally, seven female (3.9%) and one male (1.6%) respondent indicated that they had met their managers socially through networking groups. This accounts for 13.2% and 7.7% of the female and male respondents who met their managers socially.

Next, the respondents were asked about the frequency of their social meetings with their managers. The frequency of the meetings indicated was very low. For example, only four female respondents (2.2%) and none of the male respondents indicated that they met their managers socially once a week. 'More than once a week' was selected by only one male respondent (1.6%) and no female respondents. Meeting 'once a month' was selected by 16 female respondents (8.9%) and three male respondents (4.8%). The 'other' option was selected by 36 female respondents (20.1%) and 9 male respondents (14.5%), indicating that the frequency of their social meetings with their managers was other than 'once a week', 'more than once a week', or 'once a month'.

The subsequent question in the questionnaire asked the respondents who had previously indicated to meeting their managers socially, whether they thought that their social contact with influential people within their organisation was beneficial to their career. Very few responses were obtained to this question. Among the individuals who responded, 26 females (14.6%) and six males (9.7%) answered, "Yes", while 30 females (16.9%) and seven males (11.3%) answered, "No". The following question asked them whether they think social contact with influential

people *outside* their organisation could be beneficial to their career. Again, the overall number of responses obtained was very low. The number of female respondents answering “Yes” to the question was slightly higher than the total number of female respondents answering “Yes” to the previous question. A total of 30 female respondents (16.8%) answered “Yes” to the question and 26 female respondents (14.5%) answered, “No”. Conversely, the total number of male respondents agreeing and disagreeing that influential people from outside the organisation could be beneficial to their career remained exactly the same as in the previous question. The overall low number of responses obtained to questions on social capital could mean that the senior employees are reluctant to discuss their social capital accumulation practices. The cause for this reluctance may be explained by the comments made during the interviews. For instance, a male manager with 21.5 years of work experience at the NHS stated: “There are rumours here, that certain people go to a certain pub on a Friday night and they are the ones that get on. That’s wrong, I think, totally wrong” (Interviewee 6, Male).

A similar statement was made by a female manager with 19 years of experience of working with the NHS. She said: “If you are associated with the chief exec or the chairman then it is more likely you are going to go up the career ladder much more quickly and that’s a given and we see it and its happening, it happens in our organisation, it happens in every organisation, and that’s a sad thing when that happens because what we are doing is not promoting the right people what we are doing is promoting on who you know and not what you know” (Interviewee 1, Female).

It can be inferred from the interview responses that many employees within the organisation did not view the notion of social capital positively. There were some concerns expressed over the idea of social capital as some senior employees were inclined to believe that social capital is about being ‘too’ friendly to one’s superior to gain unfair advantages, such as being unfairly promoted to a role that one is not qualified to undertake. Here is another response made by a female service coordinator, illustrating the view that individuals outside the social network were likely to view social capital negatively: “I think, certainly you can sometimes see people’s career progression and it’s been through who they work with, how influential they are, that can open up opportunities for them so I think it does, I’m not saying that that’s always seen as a positive thing if you’re on the outside of that, but yes you can absolutely see how that works, if you have contact with people who are more influential then yeah, there are opportunities there.” (Interviewee 12, Female).

Hence, from the above interview findings, it can be concluded that the low rate of questionnaire responses to questions about how the respondents engaged in building social capital were the result of the fact that social capital was not always positively viewed by the organisation.

To find out whether the individuals who met their managers socially had obtained any career benefits they were asked, “*Did you ever receive career guidance in your social meetings with influential managers?*”. The responses obtained show that, among the questionnaire respondents who met their managers socially, 15 females (8.4% of the total number of female respondents) and four male respondents (6.5%

of the total number of male respondents) had admitted to receiving career guidance in their social meetings with influential managers.

The next questions in the section on social capital were a series of statements about the role of social capital in career progression. They aimed to obtain the respondents' perception of the significance of social capital in an individual's career success. The statements are presented in Table 6.17 which shows that a majority of the senior employees (45.9% in total) agree to the view that engaging in building social capital can benefit them in their career progression. Among them were 78 females (43.6% the total number of females) and 32 males (51.6% of the total number of males). However, the statement was disagreed to by 28 females (15.6%) and six males (9.7%). The overall view that social capital is beneficial to career progression was also reflected in the interview responses. Although one interviewee had previously pointed out that there was a danger of gaining unfair advantages through one's social network, she admitted that she had been engaged in networking and she thought that it was important for employees to progress their career. She said: "...and I do a lot of networking myself, I think it is important for anybody if they want to progress their career." (Interviewee 1, Female).

The importance of building social capital was elaborated by a female network manager when she said: "if you want to get on, then you really do need to have a few key people who you can contact whether it is for mentoring or for advice, and people who will vouch for you, who you know you can trust to give you good references or people who you can go to saying I'm interested in this job, what do you think, you

know that kind of thing. So I think social networking is very important.”
(Interviewee 2, Female).

Statement two on Table 6.18, sought the respondents’ perception on the necessity of social capital for career success. However, most of the senior managers were indifferent to whether social capital was essential to their career success or not. The majority of the male and female respondents indicated that they had known about people whose career benefitted from socialising with influential people. This shows that building social capital is related to career progression.

In response to statement five on Table 6.18, only a small percentage of individuals (19.4% males and 22.3% females) indicated that they obtained information about upcoming career progression opportunities from their social networks. Similarly, not many respondents agreed to statements six and seven which support their views on the contribution of their social networks on their career. Many of the respondents felt that their social network(s) did not make a significant contribution to their career success. Statement seven was disagreed by 75 females (41.9%) and 27 males (43.5%). Finally, a majority of the respondents were neutral to statement eight, which sought the respondents view on whether female employees may benefit their career by forming social networks. It was agreed by 53 females (29.6%) and 17 males (27.4%) and strongly agreed by one male (1.6%) and 6 females (3.4%). However, a significant number (46.7%) of the respondents were neutral to the statement.

The views of the questionnaire respondents were supported by the interviewees' responses to the question on building social capital through networking. For example a senior female nurse revealed that although she was keen on building social capital through networking, sometimes she was left out of such opportunities due to the peculiar nature of the hours at which they were held. She explained: "There's been a series of what they call breakfast senior management events and it's been run by our chief executive and it is supposed to be open to managers within the organisation who want to get tips and to find out how different pieces of improvement work, or managerial skills and things, and they are really interesting topics and you know you can see the type of people who would be invited to that and who would make a massive huge effort to go there. They (the meetings) are at 7.30 - 8 o'clock in the morning and for somebody like me who's got a child to get to school, I'm never going to be in a position to be able to attend. It would have to be a major effort in order for me to go to something like that. But what I am certain about is, there will be a number of people who will try very, very hard to make sure that they are seen at these events and make the effort to go to that to these type of activities. I'm sure there are friendships and things that come out of these supposedly informal kind of events for progression but, for me, you know you're excluded immediately. You've got a child who's got to go to school." (Interviewee 4, Female).

Table 6-18: Role of social capital in career progression

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.	Building social capital can help me with my career progression	3.48	3.32	0.72	0.82	3.2	3.4	51.6	43.6	35.5	37.4	9.7	15.6	0.0	0.0
2.	Social capital is essential for career success	2.90	2.95	0.90	0.87	3.2	3.9	22.6	21.8	38.7	41.3	32.3	31.3	3.2	1.7
3.	I know of people whose career benefited from socialising with influential people	3.66	3.74	0.79	0.90	9.7	17.9	56.5	50.3	24.2	21.2	9.7	9.5	0.0	1.1
4.	My social network (s) helped introduce me to influential people outside this organisation	3.00	2.77	0.87	0.98	3.2	3.9	24.2	19.6	45.2	33.5	24.2	35.2	3.2	7.8

	Statements	Mean		Standard Deviation		Strongly Agree (%)		Agree (%)		Neutral (%)		Disagree (%)		Strongly Disagree (%)	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
5.	My social network (s) informed me of upcoming career progression/development opportunities	2.90	2.70	0.88	0.94	3.2	1.1	19.4	22.3	46.8	31.3	25.8	36.9	4.8	8.4
6.	My social network (s) recommended me for important job openings or promotions in the past	2.51	2.46	0.90	0.94	1.6	1.1	11.3	13.4	35.5	30.7	40.3	40.2	11.3	14.5
7.	Overall, my social network (s) has contributed a great deal to my success in the organisation	2.48	2.39	0.84	0.94	1.6	2.8	8.1	7.3	37.1	31.8	43.5	41.9	9.7	16.2
8.	Female employees may benefit their career by forming social networks	3.16	3.08	0.73	0.88	1.6	3.4	27.4	29.6	59.7	41.9	8.1	21.8	3.2	3.4

In relation to the analysis of data on social capital and career progression of female employees, the fourth hypothesis, **H₄**: “*There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and the career progression of females*”, has been tested by applying a Spearman’s correlation test. The independent variable was the total score of Question 40 to Question 46 from section 4 of the questionnaire. All these questions measured the respondents’ degree of agreement with the utility of social capital in career progression. The dependent variable was Q14 from section 2 on female career progression.

It can be seen from Table 6.19, that the sample correlation coefficient $r_s = 0.137$. Since the corresponding p-value = 0.016, the null hypothesis can be rejected and the alternative hypothesis can be accepted. The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 6-19: Correlations test for hypothesis 4

H₄: Access to social capital is positively related to the career progression of females

			T_Q40ToQ47	Q14
Spearman's rho	T_Q40ToQ47	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.137*
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.016
		N	242	242
	Q14	Correlation Coefficient	.137*	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.016	.
		N	242	242

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

There is sufficient evidence from the sample to support the research hypothesis that, there is a positive correlation between access to social capital and female career progression. Therefore, **H₄**: *“There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and the career progression of females”* is confirmed.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented an analysis of all the findings of the data obtained from 242 questionnaire respondents and the interviews with 13 managers in the organisation studied. The majority of the respondents were females (in total, 179 questionnaire respondents and 10 interview participants). Also, the majority of the senior employees who responded to the questionnaire were of Scottish ethnic origin and were in the 55-64 age group.

The chapter grouped the findings of the data collected into four major areas. The first one is equality and diversity. The section on equality and diversity presented the data regarding the perception of equality and diversity practices within the organisation. The major findings of this section revealed that, the organisation is currently placing a significant emphasis on equality and diversity. Moreover, the organisation is striving to manage diversity well because it has not been fully successful in treating all its employees equally and in flourishing a diverse organisation. Although there are various policies in place to ensure equality and diversity, their effectiveness has been questioned. In general, the senior employees who participated in this research indicated that the organisation still has a long way to go to be successful in establishing a well-maintained, equal and diverse organisation. The data obtained on

equality and diversity was utilised to test the first research hypothesis, *H₁: There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation*. The results of the Pearson's Correlation Test carried out to test this hypothesis led to the acceptance of the hypothesis. This confirms that there is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Therefore, it means that if equal opportunities policies and practices are well implemented by an organisation, they will result in an organisation where diversity is well-managed and vice-versa. This will allow the organisation to reap the benefits of a diverse organisation.

The second area explored through data collection is the perception of gender diversity and promotion among the senior employees. The key findings from the questionnaire are: first, the majority of senior employees are not even aware of the fact that gender is one of the protected characteristics of the Equality Act 2010. Second, although a majority of the respondents believed that all employees were treated equally regardless of their gender, there were some disagreements. Moreover, more male compared to female employees believed that the organisation was gender diverse at all levels. Third, although there were a few exceptions, a majority of the female respondents agreed that they had never felt discriminated because of their gender. Similarly, a large percentage of females also believed that it was not particularly difficult for females to progress to senior managerial positions. Fourth, all female employees do not agree that they have never felt discriminated or had not found it difficult to progress their career. They believed that the glass ceiling was in operation in the organisation and was hindering female career progression although

some females had managed to break through the glass-ceiling. Therefore, the second hypothesis, *H₂: Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males*, was tested using an Independent Samples Test. It was accepted confirming that females find it more difficult to progress to senior managerial roles compared to their male counterparts.

The third area of findings presented in this chapter is the role of mentoring in female career progression. The key questionnaire and interview findings on mentoring revealed that most of the respondents agree that mentoring could play a major role in enabling females to progress to senior managerial roles. However, there was some evidence of uncertainty regarding the role of mentoring. The hypothesis on mentoring was, *H₃: There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females*. The results of the binomial test carried out to test the hypothesis led to its acceptance. This confirmed that access to mentoring is likely to promote the career progression of females.

The fourth and final area investigated in this study is the role of social capital in female career progression. It has been found that social capital can play a key role in one's career. However, it appeared to be a controversial topic in the NHS organisation studied. Social capital had been unfairly utilised to obtain career benefits in the past, but the respondents were well-aware of the career benefits of engaging in social capital building activities. The fourth and final hypothesis was, *H₄: There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and the career*

progression of females. This hypothesis was accepted by the result of the Spearman's Correlation Test.

In summary, the findings revealed that there is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Although the NHS Tayside is trying to promote equality and diversity, it had not been fully successful at it. Moreover, the employees believe that it is more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels compared to males. The findings also revealed that access to mentoring and social capital can be utilised as key tools to enable females to progress their careers to senior managerial levels. These findings will be discussed in the next chapter in relation to the literature reviewed earlier.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a discussion of the research findings presented in chapter five. The findings are discussed in relation to literature reviewed in chapters three and four and in the context of the NHS in Scotland. All the findings that are discussed in this chapter were obtained from the data collected from senior managerial levels of NHS Tayside. Although the senior management is heavily dominated by men, a large majority of the respondents were females. This makes the findings obtained for discussion very unique and interesting.

This chapter is divided into four main areas of discussion. The first area is about the relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity and the equality and diversity practices of the NHS. The second area is about gender diversity at the senior levels of the NHS. The third is on the influence of mentoring on gender diversity at the senior organisational levels, and the fourth area is about the influence of social capital on gender diversity at the senior organisational levels. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key points and their theoretical and practical implications.

7.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES AND MANAGING DIVERSITY

The findings of the data collected in relation to hypothesis one, “*there is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation*”, tested in the previous chapter, confirmed that there is a positive relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. This means that equal opportunities and managing diversity are not two separate processes; instead, the former is linked to the latter. This is despite the fact that equal opportunities and managing diversity are underpinned by different philosophies. While equal opportunities is based on the principles of social justice, managing diversity is centred around the business case for diversity argument. On the one hand, the concept of equal opportunity traditionally reflects a moral concern for social justice and aims to obliterate discrimination, on the other hand, managing diversity aims to create an inclusive culture where everyone feels valued and organisations profit from having a diverse workforce. Nonetheless, equal opportunities policies and practices within the organisation lead to the enhancement of managing diversity. The previous studies conducted on equal opportunities and managing diversity did not engage in empirical methods to test whether there is an actual relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. However, there were insinuations made by scholars that there might be a connection between the two. The finding of the first hypothesis is in line with Kirton and Greene’s (2005, p.2) suggestion that, “traditional equal opportunities issues cannot be divorced from the broader issues included within managing diversity”. They indicated that equal opportunity policies

and practices are essential in an organisation in order to manage diversity and to reap the benefits of a diverse workforce. Nevertheless, Kirton and Greene's (2005) suggestion was not confirmed through empirical evidence. Silvestri (2015) reinforces the view of Kirton and Greene (2005) by identifying the changes to the equality laws over the years as the drivers of diversity. Then again, it was a mere observation as there was no research involved to test this. It has been argued that equal opportunities legislation alone is not adequate in managing diversity. A CIPD research by Leighton (2004), contested the effectiveness of legislation as a driver for diversity. Similarly, Mulholland, Ozbilgin and Worman (2006), in another CIPD research report argued that during their time of research, although the gender and race equality law had existed for over three decades, there was very little improvement in the gender and race diversity of senior employees in organisations. However, the impact of the Equality Act 2010 was immense. It proved that a contemporary, single legal framework with clear and streamlined laws is effective in tackling many different types of discrimination in organisations.

Therefore, it has become clear that when used effectively, equal opportunities can directly influence the management of diversity in an organisation. In order to obtain the benefits of a diverse workforce, an organisation can implement equal opportunities practices such as positive action. Positive action refers to the practice of selecting the minority candidate when two equally qualified candidates apply for a job and one of them is from a minority group. Thus, equal opportunities practices could directly lead to diversity in an organisation. For example, Simpson (2000) in her research on gender diversity and organisational culture cited the example of an

NHS Trust in England which had achieved a gender diverse workforce through stringent application of equal opportunities policies. Equal opportunities policies provided the females in the organisation with an equal chance to be appointed to a senior managerial role regardless of their gender. This in turn resulted in a diverse workforce in terms of gender. Nevertheless, equal opportunity is not only driven by legislation. The findings of this research agree with the conceptual models of managing diversity by Kandola and Fullerton (1998), Nishii and Ozbilgin (2007), Shen et al. (2009) and Guillaume et al. (2014) that were reviewed in chapter three, which all showed that senior management's commitment to diversity is essential for managing diversity. Similar to managing diversity, equal opportunities require senior management commitment, individual employee commitment and understanding, as well as moral and economic justifications. In the example of Simpson's (2000) research that was provided earlier, it was possible to manage diversity through equal opportunities policies because of the senior managers' strong commitment to gender diversity management.

The findings of the first hypothesis disagrees with McDougall's (1996) suggestion that managing diversity is an alternative to equal opportunities and the difference between the two terms could be based purely on the different names used to describe them. It also disagrees with McDougall's (1996) proposition that equal opportunities and managing diversity represents stages in the evolutionary process where equal opportunities is the first stage and managing diversity is the second stage. Moreover, the findings are not in agreement with Wilson and Iles (1996) argument that equal opportunities is the old paradigm and managing diversity is the new paradigm. On

the contrary to such propositions, this research finding suggests that equal opportunities and managing diversity are interrelated. Equal opportunities policies and practices assist an organisation in becoming diverse at all levels and in valuing and managing diversity well. When diversity is well managed, the composition of the employees in the organisation reflects the composition of the diverse population of the society in which the organisation operates. This ultimately enables organisations to reap the benefits of a diverse workforce. The benefits of a diverse workforce include, increased competitive advantage of the organisation in the marketplace, greater innovation, enhanced organisational effectiveness, improved productivity and greater profitability.

Moreover, this study has found that equal opportunities policies and practices would certainly help the NHS to manage diversity. One of the key challenges to implementing equal opportunities policies in the organisation studied was to convince employees of the importance of diversity. The research participants believed that everyone in the organisation did not have a clear understanding of equality and diversity and most individuals view the equal opportunities policies as a mere tick-box exercise. This indicates that it is essential for the organisation to engage in successfully mainstreaming equality and diversity. This echoes with one of the findings of Lawrence (2000), whose study of equal opportunities officers within the UK found that mainstreaming policies is an effective approach to implementing equal opportunities policies. Mainstreaming equality is a requirement of the current Equality Act 2010. The process allows for equality to be embedded in organisational systems, functions and culture. It simply refers to integrating equality into the day-to-

day operations of an organisation. However, the dangers of mainstreaming were also highlighted. One of the dangers of mainstreaming is that, equal opportunities could become another core element of the HRM functions such as recruitment and selection or performance appraisal and thus lose its critical importance (Lawrence 2000). It seems that this may well have been the case in the organisation studied. The NHS Board researched had mainstreamed equality and diversity in their organisation in compliance of the Equality Act 2010. This could provide a possible explanation as to why some individuals within the organisation do not understand the importance of equality and diversity. Also, there are a number of reasons which could explain why all employees do not see equality and diversity as important. Firstly, it could be because of the possible reason that the mainstreaming process was not successful. Secondly, equality and diversity may have lost its critical edge in the organisation due to mainstreaming. Thirdly, there could be a lack of clear understanding of the importance of managing diversity among the employees. Fourthly, individuals within the organisation could be resistant to equal opportunities and managing diversity. Nevertheless, this has to be resolved. In order for the organisation to fully benefit from a diverse workforce, it is essential that an inclusive workplace culture is created within the organisation where everyone has a clear understanding of the critical importance of equal opportunities and managing diversity. The next section discusses the findings related to gender diversity at the senior management levels.

7.3 GENDER DIVERSITY AT THE SENIOR LEVELS OF THE NHS

The second hypothesis of this thesis tested whether females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males. It was confirmed that there

is a belief that it is more difficult for female to progress to senior management roles compared to their male counterparts. The females who participated in this research had partially broken the glass-ceiling as they were all employed in the two top salary bands of the NHS, namely salary Band 8A to 8D and Band 9. However, they felt that it was more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial roles compared to their male counterparts. Previous researches (see Rudman and Glick 2001; Servon and Vissor, 2011; Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes 2012; Bevan and Learmonth, 2013) on the area of gender diversity in senior managerial positions have investigated the various reasons why women might find it difficult to progress to senior management. They also quoted statistical evidence on women's underrepresentation at top managerial positions and explored what may help women to progress to senior positions in organisations. However, none of these studies tested whether both male and female employees of organisations actually believe that females experience more difficulty in their career progression compared to their male counterparts. The findings related to the second hypothesis is similar to that of Eagly and Carli (2007) who argued that women's access to senior positions is limited despite achieving notable progress in the workplace. The current study also revealed that the NHS Board researched is not gender diverse at all levels, although the public sector organizations have been responding to external calls to achieving gender diversity within the workforce over the past decade (Silvestri 2015).

Moreover, this research findings support LaPierre and Zimmerman's (2012) study, involving women health care managers which revealed that women were less likely to be promoted to senior management positions. Among the women managers who

had participated in their study, one-third had reported perceived gender discrimination. Since the study had controlled for individual, family-level and organizational characteristics, the difficulty in female career progression could only be explained by the presence of glass-ceiling. However, this argument is contradictory to the findings of Taylor et al. (2009) who concluded from their study of 7012 NHS doctors that women's slow career progression compared to men was largely because of their choice to work part-time. They argued that although there is no direct discrimination against women, there might be indirect discrimination in the form of lack of part-time work. Nevertheless, some of their findings also support the result of hypothesis two as they found that women's career progression was slower than men and even women who worked full-time were under-represented in surgical specialities and general practice.

The result of the second hypothesis also supports Acker's (1990) theory of gendered organisation which argued that gender inequality is ingrained into the structure of work organisations. One of the reasons why the NHS employees studied in this research indicated that it is more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial roles compared to males could be because of the gendered organisational structure of the NHS. Although the large number of females employed by the NHS makes it appear like a female friendly organisation from the outside, predominance of men in the senior managerial role suggests otherwise. It is possible that the NHS unconsciously values the characteristics of the male gender for senior positions. Furthermore, the confirmation of the second hypothesis reinforces Ross-Smith and Huppertz's (2010) view that management is not a feminized occupation as it is

difficult for females to progress upwards in managerial careers. The greater difficulty faced by women compared to men in progressing their career to senior managerial levels could also be attributed to the prevalence of the glass ceiling in the NHS or it could be because of the women's preference to work part-time and prioritise their families thus losing valuable work experience. Prioritising family and part-time work also render females into being unable to provide the time-based commitment necessary for career progression.

In relation to the second hypothesis, this study has found that the gender balance at the board level of the organisation studied, which is the most senior level, is almost 50-50. This is because the appointments at that level are made by the public appointments commissioner who has been actively trying to encourage more diversity at the board level. Moreover, gender diversity on the board level has been driven by the recent publicity caused by the annual Women on Boards report which was first published by Lord Davies of Abersoch in 2011. This annual report monitors the progress in the percentage of women on the FTSE 100 Boards. When the report was first published in 2011, the FTSE 100 Boards studied had only 12.5% women. It was recommended by the report that the Boards must set a target to increase this percentage to 25% by 2015. Although the report highlights the progress in the percentage of women in FTSE 100 Boards, the media publicity caused by it had put pressure on boards of all different types of organisations to push towards gender balance. This study has found that the organization studied in this research could be merely projecting an illusion that it manages gender diversity well as women appear to be well represented at the most senior level. However, the reality is far from the

illusion because in the case of the NHS Board studied, the 50% board representation of women is not a fair representation or reflection of the whole organisation. The main reason why 50% is not a good representation of females in the organisation is because women comprise of about 80% of the total employees of the organisation. Therefore, it could be confirmed that women are not represented in equal proportion at all levels of management within the organisation, which further strengthens the possibility that the glass ceiling is still prevalent in the NHS. Moreover, it can also be concluded that the NHS Board studied is no different to the corporate Boards in the UK where the increase in female representation at the most senior level compared to other levels of management was recently driven by the annual Women on Boards Report. Despite the prime focus of the Women on Board report being the FTSE 100 companies, it seems that the NHS is being cautious to avoid inadvertent negative image regarding female representation at the Board level. In the past, the female representation at the Board level was less than 50%. The past four years of the publication of the annual report has driven up the number of females on board or executive levels. Therefore, it partially contradicts the findings of Ryan et al. (2011) who in their research had cited Catalyst (2009), and the European Commission's (2005) report that there is an increase in women's representation in lower management levels with a noticeable underrepresentation of women at the senior levels of the management hierarchy. The current study revealed that although women are still significantly underrepresented in the senior levels of the managerial hierarchy, their representation at the top most level is increasing.

This study also found that the few women who tend to break through the glass ceiling to achieve the top-level jobs are the ones who project masculine traits and have no families. They displayed the characteristics that Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes (2012, p. 81) identified as the male features, such as “confident, tough, dominant, assertive, instrumental, controlling, self-sufficient, ambitious, aggressive, forceful, independent, competitive and prone to act like a leader”. Overall, the findings related to the second hypothesis support the glass-ceiling map by Isaac, Kaatz and Carnes (2012) presented in chapter three. The study found that the ambitious females who break through the glass ceiling either consciously or sub-consciously start to believe that it is important to possess male characteristics in order to fulfil their ambitions. This finding also agrees with the findings of Francesco and Hakel (1981), McConnell and Fazio (1996), Rudman and Glick (2001) and Bongiorno, Bain and David (2014). Their studies found that women who display male characteristics achieve career progression more successfully compared to women who do not show such characteristics. The reason why male characteristics are more valued for managerial career progression could be explained by the ‘think manager-think male’ (TMTM) association which Ryan et al. (2011) described as one’s innate belief that a good manager cannot be associated with a female. Again, Acker’s (1990) theory of gendered organisation also explains why females find it necessary to project male characteristics in order to be successful. The gendered nature of work organizations and management lead women to start believing that career success could be achieved by adopting the male characteristics.

The finding that successful females have no family responsibilities echoes Mason and Goulden's (2004) findings that successful women are less likely to take up family responsibilities and the rate of divorce is higher among them. This finding also reflects the current social trend in the UK, where the divorce rate is increasing and gradually more females are entering full-time work than ever before.

7.4 THE INFLUENCE OF MENTORING ON GENDER DIVERSITY AT THE SENIOR ORGANISATIONAL LEVELS

The third hypothesis tested whether access to mentorship is likely to promote the career progression of females. The result of the test revealed that there is a relationship between access to mentorship and female career progression. This finding is in line with the results of studies (see Kram and Isabella 1985; Tharenou 1997; Allen et al. 2004; Briggs, Jaramillo and Weeks 2011; Durbin and Tomilson 2014) which show that mentoring is directly linked to career development and career advancement. For example, Durbin and Tomilson (2014) from their study of female part-time managers in the public, private and non-profit organisations found that the lack of mentoring negatively affected female career progression. The difference between Durbin and Tomilson's (2014) study and the current study is that, this study was conducted with both male and female senior employees of the NHS who were on full-time employment. Mentoring has been particularly associated with female career progression (Maxwell 2009; Woolnough and Fielden 2014). For example, Woolnough and Fielden (2014) conducted a longitudinal qualitative study among female mental health nurses and found that mentoring and career development

programmes that had been designed to foster diversity had a key role to play in the career development of nurses in the healthcare industry. The result of the fourth hypothesis disagrees with Tharenou's (1999) argument that there is no clear relationship between mentoring and the career advancement of women to senior management positions.

The result of hypothesis three also echoes Guy's (2002) view that women's inability to progress to senior management levels is directly related to the absence of mentoring. The fact that the upper management levels are not sufficiently gender diverse in the organisation studied could be due to the shortage of mentoring programmes available to employees. According to Gopee (2011), mentoring is recommended by the UK National Health Service as a method to develop employees for new roles. However the Scottish NHS Board studied did not implement the recommendations for developing employees for managerial roles.

The results of this study showed that only a small percentage of female senior managers were mentored. Interestingly, while all the males mentored had indicated that they had benefitted by being mentored, a small minority of the female respondents mentored (2.8%) had stated that they had not benefitted from it. The reason why a small percentage of female participants indicated that they had not benefitted from being mentored could be a result of the inappropriate utilisation of the mentoring they received. This slightly contradicts Guy (2002) and Woolnough and Fielden (2014) findings that were cited earlier, as it reveals that mentoring is not always useful or directly related to female career progression. The effectiveness of

mentoring relies on the extent to which it is delivered effectively and utilised appropriately by the mentee. This research finding agrees with Maxwell (2009), who concluded that ‘effective, formal mentoring’ received by female employees can be successful in overcoming the career impediments faced by them. The failure to use mentoring effectively could be due to the fact that the mentoring received was not effective. On the contrary, it is also possible that although the mentoring was delivered effectively, the mentee failed to utilise it appropriately. Therefore, effectiveness of mentoring in career progression not only relies on mentor’s ability to deliver it effectively but also on the mentee’s ability to use it effectively. As only a small minority of the female respondents indicated that mentoring had not helped them in their career progression, it was not significant enough to strongly argue that mentoring is not always useful for female career progression. The low percentage only provides some evidence that demonstrates that mentoring might not always be useful, especially if it is not delivered effectively by the mentor or utilised effectively by the mentee. Therefore, it provides some evidence to partially support Tolar’s (2012) argument which described the presence of a mentor as both “help and hindrance” and the absence of a mentor as “both benefit and deficit”. However, in general, a majority of the research participants of this study have indicated that they believed that mentoring was useful for female career progression.

As mentioned earlier, the result of the third hypothesis confirmed that access to mentorship is likely to promote the career progression of females. However, research suggests that women need vigorous support from their mentors in order to be able to progress their careers (Wichert and Steele 2013). Career advice and guidance from

mentors is insufficient in helping women progress their careers. Women need active sponsorship from their mentors to advance their careers. This further explains why a small percentage of female respondents disagreed to having benefitted from being mentored. From Appendix 1 of Appendix B in p.314, it can be seen one of the concerns that was raised during the group supervision session of the pilot mentoring scheme which was briefly introduced in the organisation highlighted the potential risk of networks developed through mentorship. It was noted that those outside the mentor-mentee relationship might perceive that the mentee is being preferentially treated by the mentor.

One of the themes that arose from this study is the importance of mentoring and role models in female career progression to senior management levels. The term role model and mentor are used simultaneously in some research literature (Healy et al. 2012; Steele, Fisman and Davidson 2013; Durbin and Tomilson 2014). This research found that mentoring along with the presence of role models help women to progress their career to senior management roles. This finding supports the research findings of Steele, Fisman and Davidson (2013), which showed that mentoring along with the presence of role models enhances career development. Therefore, in addition to being mentored, it is important to have role models to facilitate women's career progression to senior management levels. The NHS Board studied in this research had only a few female role models at the top most level of the hierarchy as mentioned in the previous section. However, the few women who were in positions to be role models mostly had no families and they displayed male characteristics.

This might deter females with family responsibilities and those females who do not want to lose their feminine identity from viewing them as role models.

Another important factor in facilitating the career progression of females to senior management levels is their access to social capital. The following section discusses the influence of social capital on gender diversity at the senior management levels.

7.5 THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL CAPITAL ON GENDER AT THE SENIOR LEVELS OF THE NHS

This study confirms that there is a positive correlation between access to social capital and female career progression. The result of the fourth and final hypothesis of the thesis showed that access to social capital is positively related to the career progression of females. Social capital has been identified as an influential force in women's career progression (Timberlake 2005; Millar 2007; Kumra and Vinnecomb 2010; Wichert and Steele 2013). According to Wichert and Steele (2013), networking that is focused on one's career is likely to bring significant advantage to women's career progression. It enables women to secure new roles and may facilitate them to share their personal success. Although there are a number of extant researches on the contribution of social capital on female career progression, none of them studied the male and female senior managers of the NHS. This section will discuss the findings of the fourth hypothesis in relation to the existing literature on the effects of social capital in female career progression.

The result of the fourth hypothesis and its related findings agree with the findings of Broadbridge (2010) whose study of senior retail managers in the UK indicated that both men and women benefitted from the accumulation of social capital early-on in their career. The findings on social capital development also confirms Broadbridge's (2010) finding that women are not as skilled as men in accumulating social capital and in using networking techniques strategically for the purpose of career development. It was noted that the female managers studied did not actively engage in their social capital development. This was despite the fact that women were fully aware of the importance of building social capital for career success.

It has also been concluded from this study that males recognise the value of building social capital more than the females. A possible explanation is provided by McDonald (2011), whose research revealed that individuals in white male networks were twice more likely to receive career benefits compared to individuals in female or minority networks.

Although social capital is important for female career progression, the overall results of this study indicate that the employees of Scottish NHS Board studied do not actively engage in building their social capital. This can be attributed to two reasons. The first reason is the past history of nepotism and cronyism in the organisation, which resulted in networking behaviour to be negatively perceived by the employees. It was revealed in this study that one of the previous Chief Executive Officers (CEO) was widely known to have promoted a close relative to a very senior post within the organisation, despite their lack of sufficient experience and qualifications essential

for post. This led the respondents to believe that networking and social capital building activities resulted in ‘unfair’ career advantages for some employees. Narayan and Cassidy (2001) described this phenomenon as the negative impact of social capital. According to Narayan and Cassidy (2001) it occurs in powerful, tightly knit social groups and there are evidences of this negative impact in political and governmental institutions in the third-world countries. The research also revealed that during the tenure of the previous CEO, it was common practice for some employees to meet for social drinks with their managers after work and those who met were the ones who received promotions. This also led employees to view social capital negatively. However, the aforementioned CEO have retired and left the organisation.

The second reason for the lack of engagement in social capital building activities is that women are systematically excluded from networking opportunities. This is due to the fact that the organization fails to consider individual situations while scheduling events. The findings of this study show that female employees who were keen to engage in networking for building social capital, felt excluded from such opportunities because their family responsibilities did not allow them to attend out-of-hour events. This finding is similar to the findings made in a large scale study of female career progression in retailing in UK’s East Midlands region by Foster, Whysall and Harris (2007). They found that females were often excluded from career development opportunities because of the nature of hours at which the events are held. The findings of the current study also agree with Duberley and Cohen (2010) on the argument that women’s careers are negatively affected by their exclusion from

influential networks. The temporal constraint for females to engage in all important networking opportunities due to their gendered private lives found in this research also supports Ozbiligin, Tsouroufli and Smith's (2011) findings. They found that female doctors were excluded from influential career development opportunities because of the constraints they faced in working out of office hours.

Overall, access to social capital is likely to promote female career progression. This is reinforced by scholarly literature arguing the same. Although the organisation studied was still to fully recognise and value the benefits of social capital and to utilise it in a fair manner, there was some understanding of it among the senior employees studied.

To sum up, the findings of the third and fourth hypotheses reinforce the importance of the accumulation of capitals as emphasised by Bourdieu (1977, 1986). It also confirms the importance of mentoring and social capital for career development that was suggested in the strategic HRD model developed by McDonald and Hite (2005).

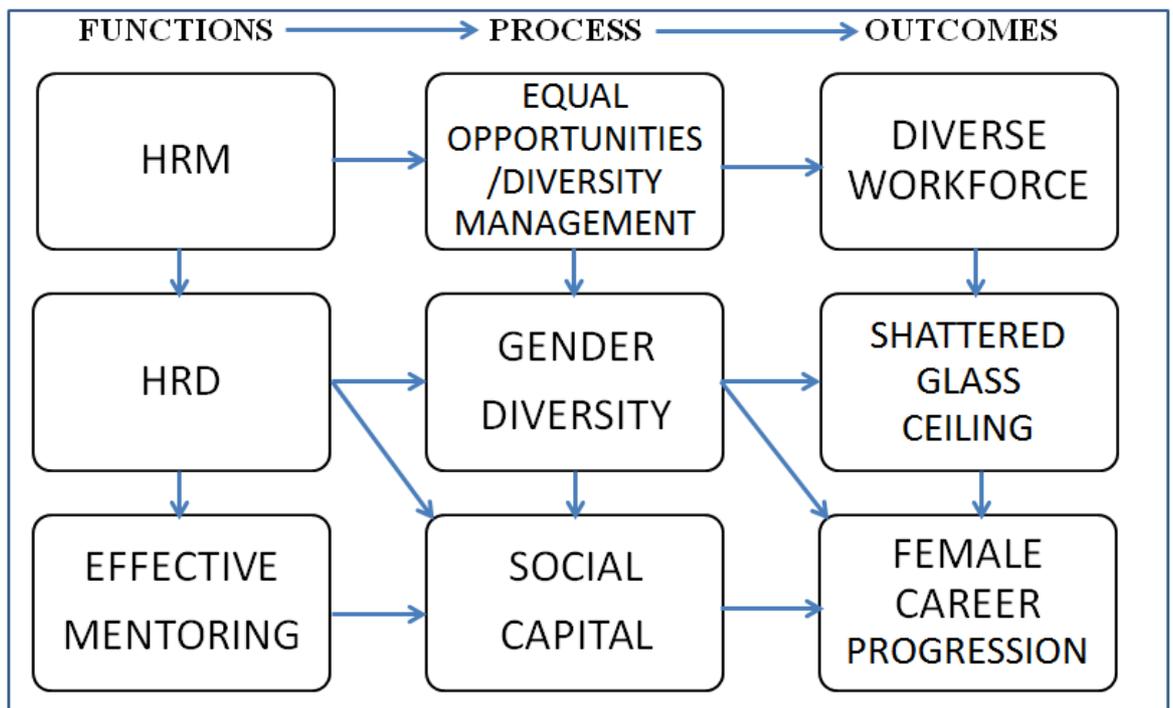
7.6 A MODEL FOR THE USE OF MENTORING AND SOCIAL CAPITAL FOR MANAGING GENDER DIVERSITY

The discussion above led to the development of the following theoretical framework for the use of mentoring and social capital for gender diversity management (see Figure 7.1). The model is based on the theories of human capital and social capital. Mentoring is a key element of human capital development. The model emphasises

the importance of mentoring and social capital in female career progression and in gender diversity management at senior managerial positions. It shows that the HRD practitioners within organisations are in a favourable position to facilitate the access to mentoring and social capital for female career development. However, as stated previously, HRD alone cannot assist in the development of employees' human and social capital. Senior management commitment is instrumental in facilitating access to human and social capital. Moreover, line manager commitment is also essential as they are in the most favourable position to assess employee development needs. The mode in figure 7.1 consists of the functions, processes and the outcomes related to gender diversity management. The boxes and the arrows under the functions show that in an organisational context, the human resource management (HRM) function is responsible for human resource development (HRD) and HRD is primarily responsible for developing employees through the facilitation of mentoring opportunities. However, from the discussion of the findings of this research it has been established that the mere facilitation of mentoring is not sufficient.

It is important to ensure that the mentoring provided and received is effective. In this respect, it is important to emphasise that all mentoring is not effective as is seen from the findings and the discussion of this research. Effective mentoring can be ensured by making sure that there is good match between the mentor and the mentee.

Figure 7-1: A model for gender diversity management



Source: Developed by the researcher based on the analysis of the research findings

Therefore, the mentee should be given the choice to select their own mentor from a list of a number of potential mentors and their biographies presented to them. Simultaneously the mentors should be chosen from a group of well-experienced individuals. They also need to be trained to deliver effective mentoring. Also, in order for mentoring to be beneficial, employees should be given the option to self-select their own mentors from outside the list of mentors selected by the HRD professionals. However, for this to happen, it should be agreed by the chosen mentor. Mentees are likely to be more engaged and better receive the mentoring provided if they choose their own mentors. Effective mentoring received will enable females to obtain the support required for career advancement. Mentors can also help females to

progress their career by acting as their career sponsors, informing them of upcoming job openings and by introducing them to influential individuals within the organisation so that their talents become widely recognised at the senior levels. This will ultimately facilitate career progression and enable the organisation to achieve gender diversity at the senior management levels.

Gender diversity at the senior management levels can also be facilitated by enabling females to develop their social capital. While mentoring is essential for developing the knowledge, skills and expertise required for career progression, building social capital helps to make an individual's potential for success, knowledge, skills, expertise, and interest for career progression known in the organisation. It is widely known that successful male employees of organisations commonly engage in social capital building activities such as playing golf with colleagues during weekends or going out for drinks after work. These activities facilitate informal communications that allow men to share knowledge and make themselves, and most importantly, their talents and strengths known to others. Therefore, when a suitable career advancement opportunity arises, they are regarded as the most appropriate candidate for the post. However, females are usually left out from these all male networks and thus miss out on the opportunity to build their social capital to make their capabilities known. Females are also known to find it difficult to attend meetings with opportunities for networking that are arranged outside office hours. For example, family and childcare responsibilities may prevent women from attending a breakfast meeting held at 7:30am or 8:00am in the morning. HRD professionals can make a contribution in averting female loss of social capital. First of all, they need to be fully

aware of the constraints that hinder women's capacity to build their social capital. Secondly, they can ensure that the meetings that are likely to present good networking opportunities are held at a time of the day that is suitable for all employees and does not exclude any particular groups, such as females with other commitments. Thirdly, HRD practitioners can arrange monthly networking events, where everyone gets an opportunity to attend and socialise. Fourthly, female employees could also be given the option to choose mentors who are well-connected and who can introduce their mentees to influential people within and outside the organisation. This list is not an exhaustive one. HRD professionals can make a significant contribution to helping female employees to develop their social capital that will eventually lead to career development and progression. Finally, HRD's contribution to employee development through facilitating mentoring and social capital development will enhance gender diversity at the senior management levels of organisations. Therefore, it can be concluded that HRD has the potential to contribute to managing diversity and gender diversity in organisations. The ultimate organisational outcomes are a diverse workforce, shattered glass ceiling and female career progression.

7.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the findings of the four key areas that have been investigated in this thesis. They are the relationship between equal opportunity and managing diversity in organisations, gender diversity and female career progression to senior managerial levels, the role of mentorship in female career progression, and the role of social capital in female career progression. It was not possible to analyse and

discuss whether the intersection of gender with other protected characteristics such as ethnicity, age, religion has a greater effect on female career progression and their access to mentorship and social capital, due to the unavailability of sufficient data.

The discussions revealed that the findings of this research mostly support the existing literature in the areas studied. This explains the confirmation of all four hypotheses which were derived from the literature.

First of all, the discussions further supported that equal opportunities policies and practices enhances the management of diversity. In order to benefit from a diverse workforce, organisations must take equal opportunities policies and practices seriously and ensure their proper implementation. Secondly, it was emphasised by the discussion that glass-ceiling is still prevalent in the organisation studied. In this respect, several research findings were discussed which supported the finding that it is more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels compared to males. It has also been concluded that the equal representation of women at the Board level of the research organisation is a sheer illusion which is purely driven by the media attention to women on boards. Therefore, it is not a true reflection of the organisation as a whole. The third significant subject area of this chapter was the importance of mentoring in female career progression. This research study mostly supported the relevant literature reviewed on mentoring. However, it was stressed that for mentoring to influence career progression, it has to be delivered, received and utilised effectively. It has been concluded that access to social capital is instrumental in the career progression of females. Finally, the chapter introduced a

mentoring and social capital model for gender diversity management based on the findings and discussions of the research. The model showed that HRD can contribute to gender diversity management through the facilitation of the development of effective mentoring and social capital building opportunities for females.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a conclusion of the study and makes recommendations based on the discussions of the research findings. Section 8.2 summarises the thesis and provides a conclusion to the study. Section 8.3 revisits the research problem and provides a summary of what was done to meet the research aim and objectives. Then, section 8.4 presents the theoretical and practical contribution of this study to knowledge. Next, section 8.5, provides some recommendations for the NHS in relation to the use of mentoring and social capital in gender diversity management. Since every research is bound by limitations, section 8.6 highlights the limitations of the current research and finally, section 8.7 makes some suggestions for future research.

8.2 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

This study, which is on the role of mentoring and social capital in managing gender diversity at the senior management levels of the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland, addressed the issue of under-representation of females in senior managerial roles. The research focussed on four main areas which are interrelated. They are: the relationship between equality opportunities and managing diversity; difficulty in female career progression; the role of human capital development through mentoring in female career progression; and the role of social capital in female career

progression. In this respect, a thorough literature review was carried out and four research hypotheses were developed based on the gap in the existing literature. In order to test the hypotheses, data were collected from a Scottish NHS Board. The types of data collected included both secondary and primary data. The secondary data included documents on the number of females employed at various salary bands and their ethnicities. The primary data were collected through the use of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews collected from senior level employees. All four research hypotheses were confirmed and it has been concluded that:

1. Equal opportunities and managing diversity are interrelated. Equal opportunities policies and practices lead to the management of diversity in an organisation.
2. Glass ceiling is still prevalent in the NHS as females are not represented in the same proportion at the senior management levels as they are at the junior managerial positions. It was found that females find it more difficult to progress to senior management levels compared to their male counterparts.
3. Developing a female employee's human capital through the process of mentoring is likely to help females break through the glass ceiling and progress to senior managerial positions.

4. Facilitating the access to building social capital could also help females to shatter the glass-ceiling and progress to senior managerial positions.
5. Human resource development practitioners could play a key role in gender diversity management and in helping females to progress to senior managerial levels through facilitation of mentoring and social capital building opportunities.

8.3 REVISITING THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the research was to develop a framework that can develop existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career development and progression of females to senior management roles. In order to fulfil this aim, the following research objectives were set and achieved:

Objective 1: To explore whether there is a relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. The corresponding research question that was formulated to meet this objective was:

- **Question 1:** What is the relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity? A hypothesis was developed to help answer the research question. The hypothesis was:

H1: *There is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity in the organisation.*

The result of the statistical test carried out confirmed the hypothesis. A significant relationship was found between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Therefore, it was established that there is a positive correlation between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Equal opportunities policies and practices help an organisation in diversity management.

Objective 2: To identify whether it is difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels. The research question developed to meet this objective was:

- **Question 2:** What is the difference between male career progression and female career progression to senior managerial positions? In order to answer the research question, the following hypothesis was developed:

H2: *Females find it more difficult to progress to senior management roles compared to males.*

The hypothesis was confirmed based on the result of the statistical test carried out. Further, findings and analyses of the interviews supported the hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that the difference between male and female career progression to senior management positions is underpinned by the greater difficulty faced by women in their career progression compared to their male colleagues. This implies that the glass ceiling is still present in NHS Tayside, hindering female career progression to the senior managerial levels.

Objective 3: To investigate whether access to mentorship is likely to facilitate the career progression of females. Again, a research question was framed to meet this objective. The question was:

- **Question 3:** How does mentoring affect female career progression? This question was answered with the help of the following research hypothesis:

H3: *There is a positive relationship between mentoring and the career progression of females*

The hypothesis was accepted as the results of the test carried out. There was sufficient evidence in the sample to accept the hypothesis. Evidence obtained through interviews also supported the results of the hypothesis. It was found that mentoring would help females to bypass the glass-ceiling and progress to senior managerial levels by developing their cultural and/or human capital.

Objective 4: To analyse whether access to social capital is likely to assist the career progression of females from different ethnic backgrounds. The research question that was formulated to meet this objective was:

- **Question 4:** How important is it for females to have access to social capital for career progression to senior managerial levels? The research hypothesis that facilitated in answering this question was:

H4: *There is a positive relationship between access to social capital and career progression of females*

The hypothesis was accepted confirming that access to social capital is likely to help in the career progression of females. This was further supported by the interviews conducted. Therefore, developing social capital would also help females to break through the glass ceiling and progress to senior managerial positions.

It can be seen that all the research hypotheses were confirmed by the statistical tests conducted and the interview findings supported the results of the research hypotheses in general. The following section elaborates the contribution of this study to practical and theoretical knowledge.

8.4 CONTRIBUTION TO THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE

The research study contributes to knowledge at two interrelated levels, namely, the theoretical and practical level. The contributions made at these two levels are described below:

8.4.1 Theoretical level

The extensive literature review carried out at the beginning of the research, enabled the researcher to identify gaps in the existing literature and to investigate those areas in order to make a contribution to fulfil the gaps. Therefore, the contribution made at the theoretical level are:

1. Relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity

Previous researches in equality and diversity did not examine the nature or the existence of relationship between equality opportunities and managing diversity. The investigation carried out in this research confirmed that there is a positive relationship between equal opportunities and managing diversity. Therefore the two are related. Equal opportunities policies and practices contribute to the management of diversity. This provides new evidence based knowledge in the literature on equal opportunities and managing diversity.

2. Female career progression

The findings of this research contribute to knowledge by confirming that females find it more difficult to progress their careers compared to males. Although there are statistical evidences to suggest that female career progression to senior management roles is slower compared to men's career progression. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no previous studies had sought the opinions of male and female senior managers in the NHS to understand whether it is more difficult for females to progress to senior managerial levels compared to men.

3. Role of mentoring in female career progression

Although there are previous researches which suggest that mentoring helps females to progress to senior managerial levels, none of those researches were carried out among the senior employees of the NHS in Scotland. Therefore, the findings on the role of mentoring in female career progression further contributed to the current research on the role of mentoring in female career progression in the NHS. In this

regards, it was also found that mentoring along with the presence of role models play a key role in inspiring females for career progression.

4. Effect of role-models in career progression

The research findings confirmed previous researches that the presence of female role-models inspires women towards career progression. However, this research argues that the presence of role-models is not always helpful for female career progression. This is because the life-style choices made by the females who are already in senior positions might be a deterrent to other aspirational females. For example, a successful female's choice to adopt the characteristics that are commonly associated with men or her decision to not have a family might deter females who value feminine qualities and have family responsibilities.

5. Role of social capital in female career progression

The extant research on the role of social capital in female career progression largely ignores the health care services. To the best of the researcher's knowledge there are no researches that were carried out at the NHS in Scotland or the NHS to investigate the role of social capital in female career progression in the senior managerial positions.

8.4.2 Practical Level

The contributions made by the research at a practical level are as follows:

1. Implementation Gap

The research found evidence of perceived ‘implementation gap’ in the organisation’s equality and diversity policies from analysis of the data collected. The existing academic literature (see Jewson and Mason 1986; Cockburn, 1991; Young 1992, Dickens 2005; Colgan et al. 2007) on the Equality and Diversity policy and practise within the UK, refers to the gap that exists between organisational policy and practice as implementation gap. The findings of this current study are similar to the findings of Creegan et al. (2003) and Colgan et al. (2007). Creegan et al. (2003) examined the employee perception of a local authority in the United Kingdom which had implemented Race Equality policies. Whereas, Colgan et al. (2007) in their research interviewed 154 lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) people from 16 “good practice” public, private and voluntary organisations to identify the good organisational practice of equality and diversity and the impact of the Employment Equality (Sexual Orientation) Regulation 2003. In the current research, the ‘implementation gap’ in the organisation researched is evident by the fact that all the statements on the section on Employees’ Perception of Equality and Diversity within the Organisation were disagreed to by at least some of the respondents. For example, 9.5% of the total questionnaire respondents have plainly disagreed to the statement that, “My organisation treats all its employees equally”. This clearly reveals that there are some discontents among the employees and not all the employees within the organisation believe that they are treated equally. Similarly, the statement, “Diversity at all levels is evident in the organisation” was disagreed by a total of 16.5% employees. The responses of the interviewees further reinforced the fact that all senior employees do not believe that the organisation has achieved its aim of

creating an equal and diverse workforce. Therefore it can be confirmed that there is a perceived implementation gap between the equality and diversity policy and practice within the NHS.

2. Human resource management practice

The framework presented at the end of chapter seven will enable human resource practitioners, professionals and policy makers within organisations to understand the importance of mentoring and social capital in female career progression. It will also help them to design programmes that would help in managing gender diversity at the senior management levels. The framework can be implemented by making mentoring and social capital building opportunities available to employees from minority groups such as females. Female employees also need to be made aware of the benefits of taking part in such programmes and encouraged to participate in them. This will ultimately enable the HR managers to make a contribution to gender diversity management as a result of enhanced gender diversity at all levels of the organisation.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE NHS

Diversity management is of critical importance to all organisations. In order to manage diversity successfully, organisations need to be aware of its importance. In this respect, top management commitment to diversity management is imperative. Organisations will not succeed in diversity management without the commitment of their most senior managers. Equality and diversity should be embedded in organisational vision, mission and objectives. In order to help the NHS manage

gender diversity at the senior management levels, the following recommendations are made:

1. Diversity training

Compulsory diversity training should be provided to all employees working for the NHS. The pro-diversity mission, vision and objectives of the organisation should be clearly communicated to all employees. The training should be designed to help everyone working for the organisation to understand and appreciate the critical importance of diversity. It should also inform the employees of the opportunities available and trainings provided by the organisation for their career development and progression. The trainings should be held at least twice a year to emphasise its importance and to keep employees updated.

2. Embedding equality and diversity within the organisational culture

Equality and diversity should be embedded in the organisational culture. The organisation must strive for a culture where diversity is appreciated and valued by all. Instead of viewing equality and diversity as another tick box exercise, the organisational culture must encourage employees to view equality and diversity as an integral part of the organisation.

3. Providing mentoring opportunities

Mentoring facilities for career development and progression need to be made available to all employees. The human resource development practitioners can make a significant contribution in this respect. A diverse pool of experienced senior

employees need to be identified and trained to provide mentoring. The employees should be given the option to choose their own mentor from a list of trained mentors. However, if an individual wishes to be mentored by someone outside the list, the organisation must consider it. Individuals from under-represented groups such as females should be highly encouraged to take part in mentorship programmes. This could be done by clearly communicating the benefits of undertaking the programme.

4. Providing social capital building opportunities

Employees need to be encouraged to develop their social capital. Again, this could be done by the human resource development practitioners. The importance of building social capital needs to be communicated to all employees. Opportunities for building social capital must be made available to all. It must be ensured that no groups of people are excluded from these opportunities. For example, key meetings, which might offer social capital building opportunities, should be held at times that does not exclude females with family responsibilities.

5. Increasing the number of diversity managers

The number of diversity managers who solely focus on researching, designing and delivering diversity management programmes need to be increased. The increased number of diversity managers would assist in effective diversity management. It would exhibit the organisation's commitment to diversity management to its stakeholder. However, all managers need to be committed to diversity.

7. Diversity monitoring

The organisation should publish an annual report auditing the steps taken and progress made in terms of managing diversity. In this respect, the NHS could also form partnerships with other large public and private sector organisations to facilitate knowledge transfer and sharing. This will enable them to learn from the best practice in diversity management across sectors.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research was carried out in one of the 14 NHS health boards in Scotland, therefore, all the findings of the research cannot be fully generalised all across Scotland and the UK. However, the results are likely to be representative of all NHS Boards in Scotland as the structure and processes are similar in all of them. The structure of the NHS trusts in England is different from the NHS boards in Scotland. Secondly, data was collected through self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire consisted of a large number of Likert scale questions. Therefore, the respondents may have responded to those without reading the statements carefully. This could have led to errors in data analysis. Thirdly, unconscious bias of the interviewees might have affected the interview data obtained. Fourthly, it was not possible to extend the research investigation to other NHS Boards in Scotland due to time and financial constraints. Fifthly, intersectionality is an important aspect in understanding managing gender diversity in organisations. However, it was not possible to analyse the effects of intersectionality in the data analysis section in relation to mentoring and social capital due to lack of sufficient data.

8.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The results obtained in this study calls for a number of future researches in related area. Although the research made a significant contribution to knowledge, some areas of the research could be further developed. For example:

1. This research established that access to mentoring could help females in the NHS to progress their careers to senior managerial levels. However, the difference between formal and informal mentoring in career progression was not investigated. Moreover, future researches could also investigate whether the mentor's gender has any effect on female mentoring experience and successive career progression.
2. It would be interesting and insightful to carry out an in-depth research solely focussing on the investigation of whether there are any differences in the career progression of females and females at the intersection of other protected characteristics such as ethnicity, disability and religion.
3. Future researches could be carried out across more NHS Boards in Scotland and the NHS Trusts in England. Then the results could be compared to see the similarities and the differences.
4. Similar researches could be carried out in large private sector organisations and the results compared across different sectors.

5. Future researches could also investigate what other factors facilitate female career progression in order to develop an integrated model of female career progression to senior management levels.

6. Similar studies could be conducted in multinational organisations and in other countries to compare the results across geographic boundaries.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Document on mentoring scheme collected from NHS Tayside

ITEM 5.3



SGC/2010/33
Staff Governance Committee
10 August 2010

DIVERSITY IN LEADERSHIP - MENTORING SCHEME EVALUATION

1. PURPOSE OF THE REPORT

Following the pilot mentoring scheme, an evaluation report has been prepared by an external consultancy with project outcomes and suggested actions for consideration.

2. RECOMMENDATIONS

The Staff Governance Committee are asked :

- To note the content of the report
- To approve the final evaluation report
- To approve the suggested actions and recommendations of the evaluation report

3. CONTRIBUTION TO NHS TAYSIDE'S STRATEGIC AIMS

The mentoring scheme supports NHS Tayside's strategic aims through Valuing People.

Anecdotal evidence suggests leadership effectiveness is enhanced by mentoring as an effective tool for addressing specific diversity issues. Diversity enhances creativity, flexibility and innovation in organisations, providing performance benefits to meet the needs of the patients and public. If NHS Tayside is to provide services to its diverse and ageing population it has to be able to attract and retain staff from the widest available pool.

4. MEASURES FOR IMPROVEMENT

The Diversity in Leadership Mentoring Programme supports the development of leadership skills across the organisation by creating a cohort of staff who are able to competently mentor others, irrespective of their position in the organisation. This supports individual development and increases capability and capacity for leadership at an organisational level.

5. IMPACT ASSESSMENT & INFORMING, ENGAGING & CONSULTING

The pilot was delivered as an inclusion project by ensuring that access to the mentoring programme was available to all staff by giving everyone in the organisation an opportunity to volunteer to participate in it.

All reports are embargoed for reporting or publishing until after the meeting is held

1

Any actions identified will be taken forward by the Equality and Diversity Steering Group whose membership includes key people within the organisation as well as staff side representatives. All equality and diversity initiatives or actions will be equality impact assessed.

6. PATIENT EXPERIENCE

Greater diversity and improved cultural competence within the workplace means staff are able to provide a better service to all its users. It is important to recognise the direct contribution of a well motivated, trained and skilled workforce providing a quality service that is person centred, efficient, timely and equitable.

7. RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Financial

There are no financial implications arising from this report.

Workforce

There are no workforce implications arising from this report.

8. RISK ASSESSMENT

There are legal, political, public and employee-relations risks associated with non compliance with equality legislation. These may lead to claims of discrimination on the grounds of being treated unfairly or less favourably. If found guilty, NHS Tayside would be subject to financial and reputational loss and would not be delivering the Staff Governance Standard.

The risk is managed in accordance with NHS Tayside's risk register. The likelihood is defined as "probable" i.e it could happen but is not a persistent issue. The risk is managed through monitoring employment information and analysing data on a disaggregated basis.

9. LEGAL IMPLICATION

NHS Tayside is required to comply with employment and equality legislation. Non-compliance may lead to enforcement by the Commission for Equality and Human Rights and court action.

10. INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IMPLICATIONS

No direct implications.

11. HEALTH & SAFETY IMPLICATIONS

No direct implications.

12. HEALTHCARE ASSOCIATED INFECTION (HAI)

No direct implications.

All reports are embargoed for reporting or publishing until after the meeting is held

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13. BACKGROUND

13.1 Background to the Mentoring Scheme Pilot:

In 2007 NHS Tayside was one of three Boards chosen by the Scottish Government to pilot a project on Diversity in Leadership Mentoring Scheme.

The mentoring scheme originated from the Diversity in Leadership work stream led by James Barbour, Chief Executive NHS Lothian, the aim of which was to develop actions that would lead to diversity management being mainstreamed across all leadership activity and ultimately lead to improved diversity within senior NHS positions.

The pilot aimed to develop and implement a mentoring programme to provide leadership, career development and mentoring for frontline staff where all talent in NHS Tayside could be nurtured and encouraged to move into developed and enhanced roles as clinicians and leaders. This would then be seen as a key activity to ensure a diverse range of people were given the skills and support to access and pursue development opportunities and/or career progression within NHS Tayside.

The Scottish Government were clear about how we should develop and implement such a mentoring programme and one of the recommendations was to use part of the funding for an external consultancy to help deliver on the project. After a tendering process, Cymbiosis Consultancy were chosen for this work.

13.2 Background to Mentoring:

Mentoring can support and equip mentees with:

- Competence
- Credibility
- Confidence

The mentoring relationship provides support for mentees by:

- Opening doors to challenging assignments.
- Providing access to high level positions therefore sending a message to others about credibility and building confidence within the mentee. This enables and empowers them to take up opportunities which they normally would not.
- Providing crucial career advice.
- Providing powerful sponsorship.
- Providing protection from unfair criticism.

The key to success of cross-cultural mentoring and mentoring across difference is that Mentors who are Senior Managers must also meet their wider responsibilities for promoting equality by:

- Ensuring that the pool of people being considered for promotion and/or key assignments reflects the diversity of the organisation.
- Promoting and taking part in senior management seminars and workshops that address equality and diversity issues.
- Challenging the stereotyped notions of the capabilities of people from particular backgrounds.

All reports are embargoed for reporting or publishing until after the meeting is held

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**Staff Governance Committee
January 2010
Diversity in Leadership Mentoring Scheme**

PURPOSE OF THE REPORT

To provide the Staff Governance Committee with a Interim report highlighting the progress to date with The Mentorship Programme.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Staff Governance Committee take note of the content of this report and authorise a further report on the final stage of evaluation, review and completion of the programme.

MEASURES FOR IMPROVEMENT

The measures for improvement will be identified at the final evaluation and review of the mentoring programme.

The interim report has highlighted the progress to date. The mentors have completed evaluations of the training programme: (Appendix 1)

- More than 75% of the mentors said that the Foundation module on equality and diversity was most useful and identified the key aspects within this training.
- The Mentorship development module has helped the mentors with their personal and professional development.
- Over 80% of the mentors were either 'entirely satisfied' or 'very satisfied' with the training.

The final report and review will help to highlight how this programme has supported the mentors to develop their management skills and in particular managing diversity in the workplace. From the evaluations and interim report it can be seen that many of the mentors were able to apply this knowledge and skill development within their existing roles.

The supervision sessions with the mentors identified key areas for consideration in the mentoring relationship:

- Importance of establishing and maintaining boundaries, professionally and emotionally.
- The effectiveness of using a contract to support the mentoring relationship.
- Issues of confidentiality for both mentors and mentees.
- The importance of networking for mentees, however the potential risks it raises if others perceive this as preferential treatment because of the mentoring relationship.

The final review will include interviews, focus groups and questionnaires with the mentees and mentors. It will also explore the immediate impact of the programme with reference to the original proposal and objectives of the mentoring project.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

Financial

There are no financial implications from this report.

DELEGATION LEVEL

The Director for Workforce has delegated this work to the Associate Director for Workforce.

RISK ASSESSMENT

NHS Tayside Board has a responsibility to ensure compliance with legislation and regulations in relation to equality and diversity. There are legal, political, public and employee relations risk associated with non compliance.

IMPLICATIONS FOR HEALTH

Mentoring will be a key activity to ensure a diverse range of people are equipped to access and pursue development opportunities or career progression within NHS Tayside. Leadership at all levels in NHS Scotland needs to be inclusive of the wider talent pool

If NHS Scotland is to provide services to its diverse and ageing population it has to be able to attract and retain staff from the widest available pool. Diversity enhances creativity, flexibility and innovation in organisations which provides performance benefits to meet the needs of the patients and public.

Anecdotal evidence suggests leadership effectiveness is enhanced by mentoring, it is an effective tool for addressing specific diversity issues including addressing under representation within all the strands of Diversity at senior level.

CONSULTATION, INFORMING, INVOLVING & CONSULTING WITH PUBLIC & STAFF

Equality and diversity work is undertaken in partnership with Staff Side.

EQUALITY & DIVERSITY IMPACT ASSESSMENT

There is no requirement for an Equality Impact Assessment at the moment, however if there are any recommendations or changes proposed from the evaluation and final report, there may be a requirement to carry out an equality impact assessment.

BACKGROUND

Mentoring can support and equip mentees with:

- Competence
- Credibility
- Confidence

There are five ways in which the mentoring relationship provides support for mentees:

- It can open doors to challenging assignments
- It can gain the mentee access to high level positions therefore sending a message to others about credibility and building confidence within the mentee. This enables and empowers them to take up opportunities which they normally would not.
- Provides crucial career advice.
- Mentors become powerful sponsors.
- Provides protection from unfair criticism.

The key to success of cross cultural mentoring and mentoring across difference is that Mentors as part of the senior management/executive team, must also meet their wider responsibilities for promoting equality by:

- Ensuring that the pool of people being considered for promotion and/or key assignments reflects the diversity of the organisation.
- Promoting and taking part in senior management seminars and workshops that address equality and diversity issues.
- Challenging the stereotyped notions of the capabilities of people

from particular backgrounds.

TIMETABLE FOR IMPLEMENTATION AND LEAD OFFICER

The Lead officer is Alex Killick, Director for Workforce,

Santosh Chima

Alex Killick

Equality and Diversity Manager

Director for Workforce

January 2010

January 2010

Janice Torbet

Associate Director for Workforce

January 2010

Appendix 1

Interim Report for NHS Tayside on Mentorship Programme.

The mentorship programme for NHS Tayside has been running now for over six months. The programme is approaching the final stage of evaluation and review. This will begin during January or February, with the final report expected to be completed for submission by the end of February, early March.

This is an interim report highlighting:

- The progress to date which includes:
 - The initial feedback from the mentors on the training they received at the beginning of the programme.
 - Comments and issues being raised for discussion and further investigation for the final report, by mentors during the programme.

Summary of progress to date

- The mentors have completed their training: four days in total.
- The mentees and mentors have been successfully matched
- The mentoring relationships have all successfully agreed their contracts
- All mentors except one, have had a supervision meeting to check their progress
- The mentoring relationships have now been in place successfully for over 6 months and are now implementing their exit strategies.
- Mid-term joint supervision meeting has been held for mentors offering feedback and support to the group of mentors.
- Interim report has been produced ahead of the full review and evaluation being initiated.

Outcomes established so far

At this stage, these relate predominantly to the feedback received immediately from the mentors on the training and development that this programme provided.

Foundation module, diversity and equality:

The following were considered to be the most useful aspects of this module and stated as such by more than 75% of the mentors, these are direct quotes from the evaluations :

- *Stereotypes and prejudices*
- *Opportunity to explore issues, share understanding and discuss!*
- *Diversity sharing beliefs*
- *Definitions of language we commonly use. I realised how difficult it was to clearly define these.*
- *Sharing of ideas and experiences*
- *Case studies starting to link with equality and diversity and mentorship*
- *Session on what harassment means to me and the organisation*
- *Discussions on practical implications of legislation raised in case studies*

Mentorship development modules

These sessions were well received with the following representing some of the comments that were made in the evaluations when asked: how has this module helped their personal and professional development?

- *No previous experience of mentoring, these sessions will help not just in programme but also in day to day interactions with line managed staff.*
- *Continued to heighten self awareness*
- *Raised awareness of the importance of networking and the need to maintain relationships*
- *The opportunity to have time and space to think and make links with different aspects of the programme*
- *Already approaching communications with colleagues differently*
- *This programme has greatly increased my awareness of underlying reasons as to why staff/ mentees may react in certain ways and how to approach these issues.*
- *Give more thought to the situations others can inflict on colleagues*
- *Greater insight into others*
- *Greater awareness of others, their potential thoughts, feelings and beliefs.*

Over 80 % of the mentors were either ‘entirely satisfied’ or ‘very satisfied’ with their training.

A key aspect for further investigation for the final report and review will be how this programme has supported the mentors to develop their management skills and in particular managing diversity in the workplace. As can be seen from the comments above, many of the mentors were able to apply this knowledge and skill development to their existing management roles.

Group supervision session

Key areas that were raised for discussion and learning as a result of the mentorship programme to date:

- I. The importance of establishing and maintaining boundaries, professionally and emotionally.
- II. The effective use of the contract to support the mentorship relationship.
- III. Issue of confidentiality for all parties. Not all mentees were open with their line managers about participating in the programme and who their mentor was.
- IV. Networking, its importance to the mentee, however the potential risks it raises for the mentor and mentee if others perceive preferential treatment is part of the mentorship relationship.

All of the above issues will be further investigated within the final evaluation and review.

The final review will include interviews, focus groups and questionnaires with the mentees and mentors. In addition to the areas highlighted for further discussion the report will explore the immediate impact of this programme, with reference to the original objectives as set out by the commissioners.

Appendix C: Letter from Human Resources Director and Employee Director

Human Resources Directorate
NHS Tayside Headquarters
Ninewells Hospital and Medical School
Dundee
DD1 9SY
Tele: 01382 740773
www.nhstayside.scot.nhs.uk

Date 15/10/13

Your Ref

Our Ref

GD/LS/

Enquiries to

Extension

Direct Line

Email

DOCTORAL THESIS: MANAGING GENDER DIVERSITY IN ORGANISATIONS

Dear Colleague

NHS Tayside is going to be working with a doctoral student on a piece of research for her thesis. The research aim is to develop an integrated framework that can support existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career development of women from ethnic and non-ethnic backgrounds to senior management roles.

I am writing along with the Employee Director to request your co-operation and support with this piece of research work by completing a questionnaire and setting aside time for interviews which the student may want to carry out.

Please see attached information on the research and a link to the questionnaire below.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Abertay>.

Yours sincerely



Director of Human Resources



Employee Director

Working with you for better health and better care
Headquarters: Ninewells Hospital and Medical School,
Dundee, DD1 9SY
Chairman, Mr Sandy Watson OBE DL
Chief Executive, Mr Gerry Marr

Appendix D: First email requesting questionnaire response

Cc: Seraj Saquifa (NHS TAYSIDE); SERAJ, SAQUIFA
Subject: Doctoral Thesis: Managing Gender Diversity in NHS Tayside

Dear Colleague,

NHS Tayside HR Director and Employee Director have committed NHS Tayside Board to be involved in a piece of Doctoral Research work with The University of Abertay, Dundee Business School on Managing Gender Diversity In Organisations.

The research aim is to develop an integrated framework that can support existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career development of women from different ethnic backgrounds to progress within management structures. This work is linked into NHS Tayside's Workforce Equality Outcome 4: Workforce Data Collection and Equality of Opportunity in Employment Policy and Practice

We would appreciate if you could take some time out (about 30 minutes) to complete a questionnaire which can be accessed through the link below or through the attached documents.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Abertay>.

Please also see attached letter from HR Director and Employee Director and also further information attached from the PHD Student.

Regards

██████████ (Equality and Diversity Champion)
Diversity & Inclusion Manager (Chief Executive Department)
NHS Tayside
East Day Home
Kings Cross
Cleington Road
DUNDEE
DD3 8EA
Direct Dial 01382 596950
Ext. 3 ██████████

Appendix E: Reminder email requesting questionnaire response

Cc: [REDACTED]
[REDACTED])
Subject: RE: Doctoral Thesis: Managing Gender Diversity in NHS Tayside.

Dear Colleague,

Firstly, we would like to thank all those who have already completed the Questionnaire

For those who have not got round to completing it yet, a quick reminder from the HR Director and Employee Director to say that we would very much appreciate if you could so before the deadline on 30th October.

The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete.

The more completed questionnaires we get, the more data we have available to meet the research aims and also a better reflection of your views, opinions and thoughts on how NHS Tayside Manages Gender Diversity in the organisation.

Thank you in advance

Regards

[REDACTED] (Equality and Diversity Champion)
Diversity & Inclusion Manager (Chief Executive Department)
NHS Tayside
East Day Home
Kings Cross
Cleington Road
DUNDEE
DD3 8EA
Direct Dial [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

Appendix F: Final reminder requesting questionnaire response

Cc: [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

Subject: RE: Doctoral Thesis: Managing Gender Diversity in NHS Tayside.

Dear Colleague,

A quick email reminder to say that we need to have a minimum of 30% questionnaire returns for the research data.

If you have not completed a questionnaire could I please request that you do so for the research to be meaningful, we have extended the deadline and it takes about 15 minutes to complete.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Abertay>.

Thank you in advance for those who have completed the questionnaire

Regards

[REDACTED] (Equality and Diversity Champion)
Diversity & Inclusion Manager (Chief Executive Department)
NHS Tayside
East Day Home
Kings Cross
Clepington Road
DUNDEE
DD3 8EA
Direct Dial [REDACTED]
Ext. [REDACTED]

Appendix G: Questionnaire cover letter

Dear Managers:

Subject: Research Questionnaire

I am a doctoral student at Dundee Business School, University of Abertay. My research topic is Managing Gender Diversity in Organisations. The research aim is to develop an integrated framework that can support existing organisational practise in order to facilitate the career development of women from ethnic and non-ethnic backgrounds to progress within management structures. You have received this questionnaire because you are in band 8A and above or an executive band.

I would like to kindly request your participation in completing an online questionnaire through Survey Monkey. Please follow the link to view the questionnaire, <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/Abertay>. Your kind cooperation will greatly help me in producing a research outcome that will enable NHS Tayside to partially fulfil NHS Tayside Equality Outcome 4 of the NHS Tayside Mainstreaming Report and Equality Outcomes 2013 – 2017, which aims to identify measures for improvement in equality of opportunity in employment policy and practise.

The survey is completely anonymous. I will not be able to trace any of the respondents. All data will be held with me, the researcher, and will be used for research purposes only. All analyses will be conducted at the aggregate level only.

I have obtained internal support for my research from NHS Tayside. Internal contact within the organisation will be through the HR director, Diversity and Inclusion Manager and Employee Director.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for completing the questionnaire as without your involvement I will not be able to complete either my research or the final stages of my studies.

Yours sincerely,

Saquifa Seraj
Doctoral Student
University of Abertay Dundee

Appendix H: Survey Questionnaire

Questionnaire

1. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Your kind cooperation is sought to volunteer for this research project. This form does not require any names as the research is completely anonymous.

The research seeks information that is linked to gender diversity in your organisation. It is very important that you complete the questionnaire. It will help and support in the development of an integrated framework that can advance existing organisational practices. The framework to be developed, aims to facilitate the career development of women from ethnic and non-ethnic backgrounds to senior management roles.

The research is being carried out by a doctoral student at the University of Abertay's Dundee Business School. All data will be held with the researcher and will be used for research purposes only. All answers will be treated in strict confidence.

Although there is no direct benefit to you by participating and there are no foreseeable risks either, if the organisation decides to adopt the framework there may be some long term benefits.

The survey is for scientific purposes and individual data will not be analysed. All analyses will be conducted at the aggregate level.

It is estimated that the questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. I would be very grateful if you could kindly complete the questionnaire. You are free to withdraw at any time without giving reason. If you have any questions about this research or questionnaire, please contact the researcher or the research supervisor:

Researcher:
Saquifa Seraj
Doctoral Researcher
Dundee Business School
University of Abertay
Bell Street, Dundee
DD1 1HG
Email: [REDACTED]
Tel: [REDACTED]

Research Supervisor:
Prof. Mohamed Branine
Professor of Intl. HRM
Dundee Business School
University of Abertay
Bell Street, Dundee
DD1 1HG
Email: [REDACTED]
Tel: [REDACTED]

If you have read the statement above and consent to participate, please proceed to the next page. If you do not wish to participate, simply stop here. Thank you for your interest.

Questionnaire

2. Section I. Equality and Diversity

I am interested in your views on equality and diversity practices in the organisation. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to the factors below.

*** 1. My organisation treats all its employees equally**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 2. My organisation emphasises on equal opportunities for all its employee**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 3. The equality policies in place are effective in creating equal opportunities for all**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 4. I have noticed changes in the organisation that were brought about as a result of the Equality Act 2010**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 5. I have personally benefited from the equality policies and practices of the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 6. The equality policies and practices are making the organisation more diverse**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 7. Diversity at all levels is evident in the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 8. Diversity is well managed by the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 9. The organisation could do more to reap the benefits of a diverse workforce**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 10. I am aware that gender is one of the protected characteristics of the Equality Act 2010**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

Questionnaire

3. Section II. Gender diversity and promotion

The word gender refers to the social connotation of being a 'man' or a 'woman' (Game and Pringle, 1984). Sex difference, which is being a male or a female, is biological. This section uses the word gender as a synonym of the word, sex.

I am interested in your views on gender diversity in the organisation. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to the factors below.

*** 11. All employees are equally treated in my organisation regardless of gender**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 12. I have never felt discriminated in this organisation because of my gender**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 13. My organisation is gender diverse at all levels**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 14. In my organisation, it is difficult for females to progress to senior managerial positions**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 15. Females are equally represented along with males at the senior managerial positions of my organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 16. Females from ethnic minority backgrounds are equally represented at all levels of my organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

*** 17. Females from ethnic minority backgrounds are more likely to face hurdles in obtaining promotions**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

Questionnaire

4. Section III. Mentoring

Here mentoring is defined as, "the process where a more experienced person supports the personal and professional growth of a less experienced person". Mentoring may include helping another person with improving work skills, understanding the organizational history, providing information about "getting ahead" in the job or profession, and giving personal and/or emotional support.

***18. Have you ever had a mentor ?**

- Yes [If yes, proceed to the next question]
- No [If no, skip to question 25]

Questionnaire

5.

19. Was your mentor a member of your current organisation?

- Yes
 No

20. Please indicate the period in which you were on this mentoring programme:

- < 3 months
 3 months > 6 months
 6 months > 12 months
 Over 1 year

21. Please indicate how your relationship with your mentor began:

- My mentor was assigned to me through a formal programme
 My mentor was more active than I was in initiating an informal mentoring relationship
 I was more active than the mentor in initiating an informal mentoring relationship

Other (please specify)

22. Did you benefit from the mentoring relationship ?

- Yes
 No

23. Did the mentoring relationship help you in your career progression

- Yes
 No

24. What is your mentor's sex?

- Male
 Female

Questionnaire

6.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. Here "influential people" refers to people who could potentially influence your career progression and success.

***25. Mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people in the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***26. Mentors can help their mentees to be introduced to influential people outside the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***27. Access to mentorship could potentially help in the career progression of an employee**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***28. Female employees are likely to obtain career benefits from mentorship opportunities**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***29. Female employees from ethnic minority background are likely to obtain career benefits from mentorship opportunities**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***30. Access to mentors can enhance gender diversity at the senior managerial positions**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***31. A mentor can help an employee deal with "office politics"**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***32. Overall, a mentor can contribute a great deal to the career success of an employee**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

Questionnaire

*33. Have you ever been a mentor ?

Yes

No

Questionnaire

7. Section IV. Social Capital

Here social capital is defined as, 'the social relations developed with influential people that could potentially facilitate career development and/or career progression'. Building social capital may include making friends with influential people within the organisation such as influential senior managers or people outside the organisation who may influence your career success. For example, an influential social link may provide you with good career advice or directly help you in career development or progression by recommending your name when a good opportunity arises.

The term 'manager' in the following questions refers to influential managers who could potentially influence your career progression or success.

***34. Do you socially meet any of your managers?**

- Yes [If yes, proceed to the next question]
- No [If no, skip to question 40]

Questionnaire

8.

35. How do you usually meet your managers socially?

- Playing golf
- Going out for a social drink
- Meeting up for meals
- Network group

Other (please specify)

36. How often do you meet your managers socially?

- Everyday
- Once a week
- More than once a week
- Once a month

Other (please specify)

37. Do you think that your social contact with influential people within the organisation is beneficial to your career?

- Yes
- No

38. Do you think that social contact with influential people outside the organisation could be beneficial to your career?

- Yes
- No

39. Did you ever receive career guidance in your social meetings with influential managers?

- Yes
- No

Questionnaire

9.

I am interested in your views on building social capital. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to the statements below. Here, the influential person with who you may have developed a social relation with is referred to as a 'social network'.

***40. Building social capital can help me with my career progression**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***41. Social capital is essential for career success**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***42. I know of people whose career benefited from socialising with influential people**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***43. My social network (s) helped introduce me to influential people outside this organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***44. My social network (s) informed me of upcoming career progression/development opportunities**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***45. My social network (s) recommended me for important job openings or promotions in the past**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***46. Overall, my social network (s) has contributed a great deal to my success in the organisation**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***47. Female employees may benefit their career by forming social networks**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***48. Females from ethnic minority backgrounds may obtain career benefits through social networks**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

Questionnaire

***49. Developing social networks can be very beneficial to the career success of female employees from ethnic minority backgrounds**

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neutral

Disagree

Strongly Disagree

Questionnaire

10. Section V. Role of Human Resource Management (HRM), which includes Organisa...

***50. Does your organisation offer mentorship opportunities to all its employee?**

- Yes
 No
 Don't know

***51. Does your organisation help to facilitate the identification of employees in need of mentoring?**

- Yes
 No
 Don't know

***52. Does your organisation offer mentorship opportunities to the employees identified - who may benefit from mentoring?**

- Yes
 No
 Don't know

Questionnaire

11.

I am interested in your views on the role of human resource management or human resources (HRM or HR) in facilitating the employees' career progression.

***53. HR can help in facilitating the career development of employees**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***54. Career development leads to career progression**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***55. HR can help in facilitating the development of employee social capital**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***56. HR can help in increasing diversity by providing mentoring facilities**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

***57. HR can help in increasing diversity by providing social capital building facilities**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<input type="radio"/>				

Questionnaire

12. Section VI. Demographic Characteristics

This section asks for diversity information. The information provided here will only be used for research purposes and will be treated confidentially.

***58. Are you:**

- Male
- Female
- Gender Reassigned

***59. What is your age range?**

- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 64+

60. What is your sexual orientation?

- Gay man
- Gay woman
- Bisexual
- Heterosexual
- Other
- Prefer not to say

61. What is your marital status?

- Married
- In a civil union
- Divorced
- Partner
- Single
- Widowed
- Prefer not to say

Questionnaire

62. Do you have any dependent children?

- Yes
 No
 Prefer not to say

63. What is your religion?

- Christian
 Muslim
 Hindu
 Jewish
 None
 Prefer not to say

Other (please specify)

*64. What is your ethnic origin?

- Scottish
 Irish
 British
 Indian
 Pakistani
 Bangladeshi
 Chinese
 African
 Caribbean
 Mixed background

Other (please specify)

Questionnaire

13.

The Equality Act 2010 defines a disabled person as someone who has a physical or mental impairment that has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on his or her ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities. People with HIV, cancer and multiple sclerosis are deemed to be covered by the definition effectively from the point of diagnosis, rather than from the point when the condition has some adverse effect on their ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities.

65. Do you consider that you have a disability?

- Yes [If yes, please proceed to the next question]
- No [If no, skip to next page]

66. Please indicate the nature of your disability by ticking all that apply below:

- Specific learning disability (such as Dyslexia or Dyspraxia)
- Physical impairment or mobility issues (such as difficulty using arms or using a wheelchair or crutches)
- General learning disability (such as Down's Syndrome)
- Deaf or serious hearing impairment
- Cognitive impairment (such as autistic spectrum disorder or resulting from head injury)
- Blind or serious visual impairment
- Long-standing illness or health condition (such as cancer, HIV, diabetes, chronic heart disease or epilepsy)
- Mental health condition (such as depression or schizophrenia)
- Prefer not to say

Other (please specify)

Questionnaire

14.

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is much appreciated.

***67. Please indicate whether you consider your post to include managerial duties:**

- Yes
 No

68. If there is anything else you would like to tell about any of the topics covered by this questionnaire, please do so in the space provided below

***69. I intend to conduct a follow-up interview. Do you agree to be interviewed?**

- Yes
 No

70. If you have answered 'Yes' to the previous question, then if you feel comfortable, please provide your email address and contact telephone number below (it will not be used for any purpose other than to contact your for an interview)

OR, if you wish you may contact me directly by email: 1005572@live.abertay.ac.uk

THANK YOU

Appendix I: Interview Invitation

Dear X,

Thank you very much for completing the research questionnaire and for indicating your willingness to be interviewed. Your support in this research is greatly appreciated.

Please see the attached word document for further information on the interview.

I would be grateful if you could kindly indicate your available dates for the interview by the 8th of November, Friday.

Kindest Regards,
Saquifa

Saquifa Seraj
Doctoral Researcher
Dundee Business School
University of Abertay Dundee

Tel: [REDACTED]

Appendix J: Interview Information

Dear X,

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire and for your kind consent to take part in the interview.

As you know, I am a doctoral researcher in Dundee Business School, University of Abertay Dundee. My research is on managing gender diversity in the managerial positions. I am particularly interested in the role of mentoring and social capital (the social relations developed with influential people that could potentially facilitate career development and/or career progression) in female career development.

The interview is designed to obtain your views and opinions on equality and diversity, career development, mentoring, social capital.

I intend to conduct the interviews between the 18th of November and the 11th of December. All interviews will be treated in the strictest confidence. Interview numbers will be used instead of interviewee names on the interview transcripts. This is to ensure that none of the comments can be traced back to individuals. All interview data obtained will be strictly used by the researcher for research purposes only.

Due to my current teaching commitments, I will not be able to carry out any interviews on Thursdays and Fridays. The interviews are expected to last for an hour or an hour and a half at most. I would be grateful if you could kindly indicate your availabilities for the interview.

Your kind participation will enable me to develop a model that will support NHS Tayside in its diversity management strategy. The outcome of this research will also enable NHS Tayside to partially fulfil NHS Tayside Equality Outcome 4 of the NHS Tayside Mainstreaming Report and Equality Outcomes 2013 – 2017 which aims to identify measures for improvement in equality of opportunity in employment policy and practise.

Finally, your support will facilitate in the successful completion of my doctoral degree. I look forward to hearing from you.

Kindest Regards,

Saquifa Seraj
Doctoral Researcher
Dundee Business School
University of Abertay Dundee
Tel: [REDACTED]

Appendix K: Interview Schedule

Main Themes

Equality and diversity

Gender diversity

Mentoring

- Usefulness of mentoring for females
- Usefulness of mentoring for females with ethnic minority backgrounds.

Social Capital

- Usefulness of social capital for females
- Usefulness of social capital for females with ethnic backgrounds

- 1. How long have you been working for NHS Tayside?**
2. Could you please say something about equality and diversity in the organisation?
- 3. What are your views on gender diversity in your organisation?**
4. What are your views on ethnic diversity in your organisation?
- 5. Have you ever experienced any difficulties in career development because of your gender/ethnicity?**
6. What do you consider to be the main factors facilitating or hindering the career progression of females from ethnic minority background in this organisation?
- 7. Is there a glass-ceiling in this organisation?**
8. In your view, what are the attributes and resources required to develop ones career?
- 9. How effective are the various Equality and Diversity policies and practices to help in managing gender and ethnic diversity?**

Mentoring

- 10. Do you think that mentoring can be an effective tool to enhance women's career?**
11. What role could mentorship play in the career development of women from ethnic minority background?
- 12. How do you identify employees to offer mentorship?**

Social Capital

13. How supportive were your bosses in the development of your career?
- 14. Have you had career sponsors who helped you to progress your career?**
15. What could be done to enhance the career progression of females from ethnic minority backgrounds?
- 16. Do you think that access to social capital in the form of networking groups or events is likely to enhance women's career development?**
17. How effective is it for the career development of women from ethnic minority background?
- 18. If an ambitious friend were to ask your advice on how to gain promotion to senior managerial role within this organisation, what advice would you give them?**

Females/Ethnic minorities:

19. Have you ever experienced any difficulties in career development because of your gender/ethnicity?
- 20. Do you think that there are sufficient policies and procedures in place to facilitate the career development of all employees?**
21. Do you think that there are good promotional opportunities for you in the organisation?