



**An Investigation of the Extent and Causes of Vertical
Gender Segregation in Irish Small to Medium Enterprises
(SMEs)**

Aisling Gartland

Submitted for the award of Master of Business

Institute of Technology Carlow

June 2019

Supervisors: Dr. Fiona Burke & Mr. Dominic Burke

Abstract

Vertical gender segregation occurs where there is an overrepresentation of one gender at the lower status positions and an underrepresentation of that same gender in the higher status positions. Globally women are underrepresented at senior corporate decision making levels. Statistics published by the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) in 2017 highlight that women occupy just 17.3 per cent of President, Board Member and Employee Representative positions on Boards of Directors in Irish businesses. This underrepresentation of women within these top corporate positions has generated vast volumes of research over the past four decades, with significant attention given to identifying both the causes and possible solutions to this vertical gender segregation of women.

However, this prior research on the lack of women in senior corporate decision-making roles has focused on large organisations with over 250 employees with minimal reference to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The SME sector is of huge economic importance both to the EU as a whole and Ireland itself. In Ireland 99 per cent of enterprises may be classified as SMEs and the sector is responsible for generating over 70 per cent of the job creation in the Irish labour market. However, due to vast differences in both human and financial capital and the policies and procedures between large organisations and SMEs the prior research conducted on large organisations may not accurately represent the experiences of over 70 per cent of the Irish workforce employed by SMEs.

The purpose of this research study is to address this research gap by examining vertical gender segregation at managerial decision making levels of Irish SMEs. This study adopts a mixed methods methodological approach conducted over three phases of investigation. First, the causes and the extent of the vertical gender segregation of women in the top corporate decision making positions were identified from previous research. Secondly, a headcount measure was calculated to establish the extent of the gender imbalance at senior decision making levels in the Irish SME sector using data on 136 of the top financial performing SMEs in Ireland as identified in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies in Ireland 2017 list. Finally, data was gathered from 133 surveys administered to employees, junior and senior managers, owners and directors of Irish

SMEs to examine if the causes of vertical gender segregation identified in the prior research on large organisations were also present in Irish SMEs.

Results showed significant gender imbalance exists at top decision-making positions of Irish SMEs, with women occupying just 14 per cent of President, Board Member and Employee Representative positions on the Boards of Directors of the Irish SMEs. Findings from the survey identified that gender stereotyping with regard to the level of commitment and investments made by women into their education and career in conjunction with continual conflict between home life and workplace responsibilities due to a lack of workplace flexibility may substantially impact the career progression of women.

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to acknowledge IT Carlow for supporting this project under the President's Research Fellowship Award. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors Dr. Fiona Burke and Mr. Dominic Burke for their unwavering support and encouragement. I am truly grateful for all their guidance throughout this project. I would also like to acknowledge Mr. Martin Meagher, Head of Department of Business, and all in the Department of Business for their continued support.

I would like to express my thanks to all who participated in this study. I especially would like to thank Dr. Joseph Collins, Head of Faculty Lifelong Learning, and the individual class lectures for their co-operation in granting me access to administer the survey to the Lifelong Learning students.

A special thanks to my fellow postgraduate students, especially Cynthia, Karolyn and Michelle, for their inspiration in completing this project.

Finally, I would like to express my profound thanks to my family, in particular my Mum and Lauren, for their endless personal support and encouragement.

Contents

Abstract.....	i
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Contents.....	iv
List of Tables.....	x
List of Figures.....	xviii
List of Abbreviations	xxii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Research Aims.....	2
1.3 Structure of the Thesis	2
1.4 Conclusion.....	3
CHAPTER 2 EQUALITY, PARITY OF OPPORTUNITY AND MEANINGFUL WORK.....	4
2.1 Introduction.....	4
2.2 Equality and Parity of Opportunity in Labour	4
2.2.1 Parity of Opportunity and Meaningful Work	5
2.2.2 Gender Inequalities in Labour	6
2.3 Gender Equality in Labour Policy Responses	8
2.3.1 European Union Policy	8
2.3.2 Irish Policy	9
2.4 Conclusion	13
CHAPTER 3 LITERATURE REVIEW	14
3.1 Introduction	14
3.2 Defining Vertical Gender Segregation	14
3.3 Measuring Vertical Gender Segregation	16
3.3.1 Measurement of Vertical Gender Segregation in Ireland.....	18
3.4 Causes of Vertical Gender Segregation	22
3.4.1 Neo-Classical Economic Theories of Human Capital and Rational Choice Theory	32
3.4.2 Organisational Structures and the Structure of Work	40

3.4.3	Cultural Causes of Vertical Gender Segregation	46
3.5	Vertical Gender Segregation and SMEs.....	56
3.5.1	Defining Small to Medium Enterprises	56
3.5.2	Economic Importance of SMEs.....	57
3.5.3	Gender Equality Research and SMEs.....	57
3.6	Literature on Solutions to Vertical Gender Segregation	58
3.6.1	Equality of Outcomes	59
3.6.1.1	Mandatory Gender Quotas	59
3.6.1.2	Voluntary Gender Quotas and Targets	66
3.6.2	Equality of Opportunity	67
3.6.2.1	Behavioural Design	68
3.6.2.2	Flexible Working Practices	71
3.7	Conclusion	78
CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY.....		80
4.1	Introduction	80
4.2	Research Aims	80
4.3	Paradigm Rationale	81
4.3.1	Ontology	81
4.3.2	Epistemology	83
4.3.3	Paradigm	84
4.4	Methodological Approach and Design	85
4.4.1	Methodological Approach	85
4.4.2	Methodological Design	86
4.5	Secondary Research	90
4.5.1	Stage One – Literature Review	91
4.5.2	Stage Two – Measurement of Vertical Gender Segregation in Irish SMEs .	92
4.5.2.1	Stage One – Percentage of Men and Women in Decision Making Positions of Top Financially Performing Companies in Ireland in 2017.....	93
4.5.2.2	Stage Two – Percentage of Men and Women in Decision Making Positions of a cross-section of Irish SMEs	94

4.5.3	Website Content Analysis	96
5.4.3.1	Reliability	97
4.6	Primary Research.....	97
4.6.1	Self-Completion Survey.....	97
4.6.2	Survey Design	97
4.6.2.1	Questionnaire Design – Section A	98
4.6.2.2	Questionnaire Design – Section B.....	98
4.6.2.3	Questionnaire Design – Section C	99
4.6.2.4	Questionnaire Design – Section D	100
4.6.2.5	Questionnaire Design – Section E	101
4.6.2.6	Questionnaire Design – Section F	101
4.6.3	Sample Participants	101
4.6.4	Survey Analysis	105
4.6.4.1	Qualtrics Survey Analysis	105
4.6.4.2	Lifelong Learning Survey Analysis.....	108
4.7	Quality Criteria	114
4.7.1	Reliability	115
4.7.2	Replication	115
4.7.3	Validity	115
4.7.3.1	Generalisability	118
4.8	Ethical Considerations	118
4.9	Limitations	119
4.10	Conclusion	120
CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS		121
5.1	Introduction	121
5.2	Stage A – Headcount	121
5.2.1	Stage One Headcount of Foreign and Domestic Owned Companies	121
5.2.1.1	Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Ownership	122
5.2.1.2	Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector	125

5.2.1.3	Comparison of the Gender Balance in Irish Companies with a Male President and a Female President	127
5.2.2	Stage Two Headcount of Irish Owned SMEs	130
5.2.2.1	Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision-Making Positions within the Irish SME Sector	131
5.2.2.2	Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision-Making Positions by SME Industrial Sector	131
5.2.2.3	Comparison of the Gender Balance in Irish SME Companies with a Male President and a Female President	133
5.3	Stage B – Website Content Analysis.....	135
5.3.1	Website Content Analysis for Total Sample.....	135
5.3.2	Website Content Analysis by Industrial Sector	135
5.3.3	Inter Rater Reliability.....	136
5.4	Stage C – Survey	137
5.4.1	Group One – Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 Irish SME Organisations.....	138
5.4.1.1	Demographic Analysis of Survey Participants.....	138
5.4.1.1.1	Gender, Age and Relationship Classification of Participants	138
5.4.1.1.2	Analysis of Organisational Positions held by the Participants	139
5.4.1.1.3	Classification of SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector	139
5.4.1.2	Survey Analysis of Sections B-F.....	140
5.4.1.2.1	Educational Capital and Professional Development of Participants	141
5.4.1.2.2	Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role	144
5.4.1.2.3	Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Work Practices	157
5.4.1.2.4	The Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisational Culture on Employees	163
5.4.1.2.5	Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring equal Opportunities for all Employees.....	167
5.4.2	Group Three – Life Long Learning Students	169
5.4.2.1	Demographic Analysis of Survey Participants	170

5.4.2.1.1	Gender, Age and Relationship Classification of Participants.....	171
5.4.2.1.2	Analysis of Organisational Positions held by the participants in the SMEs.....	172
5.4.2.1.3	Classification of SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector	176
5.4.2.2	Survey Analysis of Sections B-F	181
5.4.2.2.1	Educational Capital and Professional Development of Participants	182
5.4.2.2.2	Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role	189
5.4.2.2.3	Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Work Practices	214
5.4.2.2.4	The Gendered Difference in the Impact of Organisational Culture on Employees	222
5.4.2.2.5	Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees	232
5.5	Conclusion	241
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION		242
6.1	Introduction	242
6.2	Discussion of the Headcount Measurement of Gender Imbalance at Decision Making Levels	242
6.3	Website Content Analysis	246
6.4	Survey	247
6.4.1	Neo-Classical Economic Theories of Human Capital and Rational Choice...	247
6.4.2	Organisational Structures and the Structure of Work	251
6.4.3	Cultural Cause of Vertical Gender Segregation	263
6.5	Conclusion.....	267
CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION		268
7.1	Introduction	268
7.2	Summary of Research Study	268
7.3	Contribution to Knowledge	269
7.4	Limitations of this Research Study	270
7.5	Recommendations	270

7.6	Recommendations for Future Research	272
7.7	Conclusion	272
	Bibliography	273
	Appendix 1: Measurement of Men and Women in Decision Making Positons of Top Financially Performing Companies in Ireland in 2017.....	301
	Appendix 2: Irish SMEs Website Content Analysis	371
	Appendix 3: Survey One	381
	Appendix 4: Survey Two	398
	Appendix 5: Application Form for Ethical Clearance	416
	Appendix 6: Invitation E-mail for Survey Participant	434

List of Tables

Table 2.1: European Union Action Programmes on Equal Opportunities 1982-2000 (European Commission, 2017).....	11
Table 2.2: European Union Action Programmes on Equal Opportunities 2001-2019 (European Commission, 2017).....	12
Table 3.1: Indexes for Measurement of Occupational Gender Segregation (Blackburn, 2012).....	20
Table 3.2: Blackburn, Jarman and Soltanen’s (1993) Basic Segregation Table (Blackburn, 2012)...	21
Table 3.3: Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in the USA and Canada.....	27
Table 3.4: Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in Australia.....	28
Table 3.5: Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in European States.....	29
Table 3.6: Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in the UK.....	30
Table 3.7: Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in Ireland.....	31
Table 3.8: Hofstede’s Five Dimensions of National Cultures (Brown, 1998, p. 44)	54
Table 4.1: Research Designs (adapted from Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 53).....	87
Table 4.2: Research Strategies (adapted from Grey, 2017, p. 30).....	88
Table 4.3: Forms of Research (adapted from Grey, 2017, p. 36).....	88
Table 4.4: Industry Sectors in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017.....	93
Table 4.5: Corporate Decision Making Positions (EIGE, 2018).....	94
Table 4.6: SME Categories (European Commission, 2018).....	95
Table 4.7: Industry Sectors in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017.....	95
Table 4.8: Business Programmes and Registered Student Numbers of the Department of Lifelong Learning Institute of Technology Carlow.....	104
Table 4.9: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis of Survey - Section A.....	105

Table 4.10: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Educational Capital and Professional Development of Employees.....	106
Table 4.11: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role.....	107
Table 4.12: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Workplace Practices.....	107
Table 4.13: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on the Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisation Culture on Employees.....	107
Table 4.14: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees.....	108
Table 4.15: Example of Survey Numerical Coding.....	108
Table 4.16: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis of Survey - Section A.....	109
Table 4.17: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Educational Capital and Professional Development of Employees.....	111
Table 4.18: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role.....	112
Table 4.19 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Workplace Practices.....	113
Table 4.20: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on the Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisation Culture on Employees.....	113
Table 4.21: Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees.....	114
Table 4.22: Examination of the Validity of Research Tools (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 99).....	116
Table 4.23: Examination of the Validity of the Quantitative Outcomes (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 100).....	117
Table 5.1: Number of Irish and Foreign Owned Companies by Industrial Sector.....	122
Table 5.2: Number of Jointly Owned Companies by Industrial Sector.....	122
Table 5.3: Gender Breakdown of Domestically Owned Companies by Industrial Sector.....	123

Table 5.4: Gender Breakdown of Foreign Owned Companies by Industrial Sector.....	124
Table 5.5: Gender Breakdown of Jointly Owned Companies by Industrial Sector.....	125
Table 5.6: Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector: Irish and Foreign Owned Companies.....	126
Table 5.7: Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector: Jointly Owned Companies.....	127
Table 5.8: Number of Irish Owned Companies with a Female President by Industrial Sector.....	127
Table 5.9: Male Board President and Female Board President Comparison.....	128
Table 5.10: Companies with a Male Board President across all 20 Industrial Sectors.....	128
Table 5.11: Companies with a Female Board President across 13 Industrial Sectors.....	129
Table 5.12: Companies with a Male Board President across 13 Industrial Sectors.....	129
Table 5.13: Number of Irish SMEs by Industrial Sector.....	130
Table 5.14: Gender Breakdown of Irish SME Companies by Industrial Sector.....	131
Table 5.15: Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision Making Position in Irish SMEs.....	132
Table 5.16: Number of Irish SMEs with a Female President by Industrial Sector.....	133
Table 5.17: Male Board President and Female Board President Comparison.....	133
Table 5.18: Irish SME Companies with a Male Board President across all 15 Industrial Sectors....	134
Table 5.19: Irish SME Companies with a Female Board President across 6 Industrial Sectors.....	134
Table 5.20: Irish SME Companies with a Male Board President across 6 Industrial Sectors.....	134
Table 5.21: Website Content Analysis by Industrial Sector.....	136
Table 5.22: Inter Rater Reliability Test for Website Content Analysis.....	137

Table 5.23: Participants Organisational Position.....	139
Table 5.24: SME Organisations per Industrial Sector.....	139
Table 5.25: SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector.....	140
Table 5.26: Gender of Participants Occupying Management Positions by Industrial Sector.....	140
Table 5.27: Educational Capital Analysis for Total Survey Participants and by Gender.....	141
Table 5.28: Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Size.....	142
Table 5.29: Statements on Educational Investment and Education Fields.....	142
Table 5.30: Possible Considerations When Deciding to Engage in Training and Development Opportunities.....	143
Table 5.31: Consideration 1 Analysis.....	144
Table 5.32: Consideration 2 Analysis.....	144
Table 5.33: Consideration 3 Analysis.....	144
Table 5.34: Statements on the Visibility of Gender Equality at an Organisational and Industry Level.....	145
Table 5.35: Societal View and Favours Male over Female Managers.....	150
Table 5.36: Possible Considerations When Deciding to Apply for Promotion.....	150
Table 5.37: Consideration 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	151
Table 5.38: Consideration 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	151
Table 5.39: Consideration 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	152
Table 5.40: Consideration 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	152
Table 5.41: Consideration 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	152
Table 5.42: Statements on the Career Progression of Women.....	153

Table 5.43: Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	153
Table 5.44: Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	154
Table 5.45: Statements on the Importance of Gender Equality and the Career Progress of Women.....	155
Table 5.46: Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	155
Table 5.47: Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	156
Table 5.48: Statement 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	156
Table 5.49: Statement 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	157
Table 5.50: Statement 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	157
Table 5.51: Statements on the Flexible Work Practices.....	159
Table 5.52: Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	160
Table 5.53: Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	160
Table 5.54: Statement 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	161
Table 5.55: Statement 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	161
Table 5.56: Statement 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	162
Table 5.57: Statement 6 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	162
Table 5.58: Statement 7 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender.....	163
Table 5.59: Statements on the most Appreciated Organisational Values.....	164
Table 5.60: Organisational Cultures.....	165
Table 5.61: Strategic Approaches.....	166
Table 5.62: Business Programmes and Registered Student Numbers Lifelong Learning Institute of Technology Carlow Included in the Survey.....	170

Table 5.63: Percentage of Male Participants and Female Participants in each of the Five Organisational Positions.....	174
Table 5.64: Age Analysis of the Five Organisational Positions.....	175
Table 5.65: Age and Gender Analysis of the Five Organisational Positions.....	175
Table 5.66: Participants' Length of Tenure by Organisational Position.....	176
Table 5.67: Length of Tender and Gender Analysis of Organisational Positions.....	176
Table 5.68: Analysis of SME Organisations by Size and the Five Organisational Positions.....	177
Table 5.69: SME Organisations per Industrial Sector.....	178
Table 5.70: Gender of Participants per Industrial Sector.....	179
Table 5.71: Analysis of Organisational Positions by Industrial Sector.....	180
Table 5.72: Gender of Participants Occupying Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector.....	181
Table 5.73: Educational Capital Analysis by Participants' Gender (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018).....	182
Table 5.74: Educational Capital Analysis by Participants' Gender (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018).....	183
Table 5.75: Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Position.....	183
Table 5.76: Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Size (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018).....	184
Table 5.77: Statements on Educational Investment and Education Fields.....	184
Table 5.78: Statements 1 Analysis by Educational Capital.....	186
Table 5.79: Statements 2 Analysis by Educational Capital.....	186
Table 5.80: Profession Development Engagement of Participants since Entering the Labour Market by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size.....	187
Table 5.81: Possible Considerations When Deciding to Engage in Training and Development Opportunities.....	189

Table 5.82: Consideration 1 by Gender.....	189
Table 5.83: Consideration 2 Analysis by Gender.....	189
Table 5.84: Consideration 3 Analysis by Gender.....	189
Table 5.85: Gender Equality Policy Analysis by Organisational Position, Organisational Size and Gender of Participant.....	190
Table 5.86: Statements on the Visibility of Gender Equality at an Organisational and Industry Level.....	191
Table 5.87: Characteristics and Number of Participants' Responses.....	194
Table 5.88: Characteristics and Number of Male Participants' Responses.....	195
Table 5.89: Characteristics and Number of Female Participants' Responses.....	196
Table 5.90: Societal View and Favours Male over Female Managers.....	197
Table 5.91: Possible Considerations When Deciding to Apply for Promotion.....	199
Table 5.93: Statements on the Career Progression of Women.....	204
Table 5.94: Statements on the Importance of Gender Equality and the Career Progress of Women.....	208
Table 5.95: Statements on the Flexible Work Practices.....	218
Table 5.96: Statements on the most Appreciated Organisational Values.....	223
Table 5.97: Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Gender.....	224
Table 5.98: Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Organisational Size.....	224
Table 5.99: Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Organisational Position.....	224
Table 5.100: Organisational Cultures.....	225
Table 5.101: Workplace Culture by Gender.....	226

Table 5.102: Workplace Culture by Organisational Size.....	226
Table 5.103: Workplace Culture by Organisational Position.....	226
Table 5.104: Strategic Approaches.....	227
Table 5.105: Strategic Approach by Gender.....	228
Table 5.106: Strategic Approach by Organisation Size.....	228
Table 5.107: Strategic Approach by Organisational Position.....	228
Table 5.108: Responsibility for Ensuring Equal Opportunities by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size.....	233
Table 5.109: Ensuring Equal Opportunities Should be a Major Consideration by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size.....	234
Table 5.110: Percentage Breakdown of Participants Preference with regards to the use of Targets or Quotas by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size.....	235
Table 5.111 Percentage Breakdown of Participants Views of Policy Granting State Support as a Reward by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size.....	236

List of Figures

Figure 4.1: Hierarchal and Deterministic Order of Central Factors (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 28).....	81
Figure 4.2: Literature Review Keyword Search Process.....	91
Figure 5.1: Statement 1 Analysis.....	145
Figure 5.2: Statement 1 Analysis by Gender.....	146
Figure 5.3: Statement 2 Analysis.....	146
Figure 5.4: Statement 2 Analysis by Gender.....	147
Figure 5.5: Statement 3 Analysis.....	147
Figure 5.6: Statement 3 Analysis by Gender.....	148
Figure 5.7: Characteristic Analysis of Total Participants Responses.....	148
Figure 5.8: Characteristic Analysis for Male Participants Responses.....	149
Figure 5.9: Characteristic Analysis for Female Participants Responses.....	149
Figure 5.10: Availability of Flexible Work Practices in Participants' Organisations.....	158
Figure 5.11: Most Appreciated Values in Participants' Organisations.....	164
Figure 5.12: Workplace Cultures in Participants' Organisations.....	165
Figure 5.13: Strategic Approach of Participants' Organisations.....	166
Figure 5.14: Gender Analysis of Participants.....	171
Figure 5.15: Age Analysis of Participants.....	172
Figure 5.16: Analysis of the Five Organisations Positions of Participants.....	173
Figure 5.17: Gender Analysis of the Participants Organisational Position in the SMEs.....	174

Figure 5.18: Gender Analysis of Statement 1.....	185
Figure 5.19: Gender Analysis of Statement 2.....	185
Figure 5.20: Statement 1 Analysis.....	191
Figure 5.21: Statement 1 Analysis by Gender.....	192
Figure 5.22: Statement 2 Analysis.....	192
Figure 5.23 Statement 2 Analysis by Gender.....	193
Figure 5.24: Statement 2 Analysis.....	193
Figure 5.25: Statement 3 Analysis by Gender.....	194
Figure 5.26: Characteristic Analysis of Total Participants' Responses.....	195
Figure 5.27: Characteristic Analysis of Male Participants' Reponses.....	196
Figure 5.28: Characteristic Analysis of Female Participants' Reponses.....	197
Figure 5.29: Statement 1 Analysis.....	198
Figure 5.30: Statement 1 Analysis by Gender.....	198
Figure 5.31: Consideration 1 Analysis.....	199
Figure 5.32: Consideration 1 Analysis by Gender.....	200
Figure 5.33: Consideration 2 Analysis.....	200
Figure 5.34: Consideration 2 Analysis by Gender.....	201
Figure 5.35: Consideration 3 Analysis.....	201
Figure 5.36: Consideration 3 Analysis by Gender.....	202
Figure 5.37: Consideration 4 Analysis.....	202

Figure 5.38: Consideration 4 Analysis by Gender.....	203
Figure 5.39: Consideration 5 Analysis.....	203
Figure 5.40: Consideration 5 Analysis by Gender.....	204
Figure 5.41: Statement 1 Analysis.....	205
Figure 5.42: Statement 1 Gendered Difference in Responses.....	205
Figure 5.43: Statement 2 Analysis.....	206
Figure 5.44: Statement 2 Gendered Difference in Responses.....	206
Figure 5.45: Statement 1 Analysis.....	209
Figure 5.46: Statement 1 Gendered Difference in Responses.....	209
Figure 5.47: Statement 2 Analysis.....	210
Figure 5.48: Statement 2 Gendered Differences in Responses.....	210
Figure 5.49: Statement 3 Analysis.....	211
Figure 5.50: Gender Differences in Responses.....	211
Figure 5.51: Statement 4 Analysis.....	212
Figure 5.52: Statement 4 Gendered Differences in Responses.....	212
Figure 5.53: Statement 5 Analysis.....	213
Figure 5.54: Statement 5 Gendered Differences in Responses.....	213
Figure 5.55: Statement 6 Analysis.....	214
Figure 5.56: Statement 6 Gendered Differences in Responses.....	214
Figure 5.57: Availability of Flexible Work Practices in Participants' Organisations.....	215

Figure 5.58: Breakdown of Occupational Roles of Those Participants Unaware of Availability of Flexible Work Practices to Management Staff.....	217
Figure 5.59: Gendered Responses to Statement 1.....	219
Figure 5.60: Gendered Responses to Statement 2.....	219
Figure 5.61: Gendered Responses to Statement 3.....	220
Figure 5.62: Gendered Responses to Statement 4.....	220
Figure 5.63: Gendered Responses to Statement 5.....	221
Figure 5.64: Gendered Responses to Statement 6.....	221
Figure 5.65: Gendered Responses to Statement 7.....	222
Figure 5.66: Most Appreciated Values in Participants' Organisations.....	223
Figure 5.67: Workplace Cultures in Participants' Organisations.....	225
Figure 5.68: Strategic Approach of Participants' Organisations.....	227

List of Abbreviations

CAMIS	Cambridge Social Interaction and Stratification Scale
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CSO	Central Statistics Office
EEA	European Economic Area
EIGE	European Institute of Gender Equality
EOWA	Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency
ESRI	Economic and Social Research Institute
EU	European Union
FTSE	Financial Times Stock Exchange
IMI	Irish Management Institute
ISME	Irish SME Association
ITC	Institute of Technology Carlow
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
SID	Social Interaction Distance
SME	Small to Medium-Sized Enterprise
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Historically occupational gender segregation as a labour market outcome and in particular vertical gender segregation where there is an underrepresentation of women in senior corporate decision making positions has gained much academic attention (Schein, 1973; Schein 1975; Kanter, 1977; Garland and Price, 1977; Terborg, 1977; Larwood and Wood, 1977; Schein, 1985; Purcell, 1988; Preston, 1999; Rutherford, 2001; Knudsen 2009; Cross, 2010; Bohnet, 2016; Cross, Linehan and Murphy, 2017; Einarsdottir, Christiansen and Kristjansdottir, 2018). One main argument that has been consistently made with regard to vertical gender segregation across studies is the hypothesis that as the number of women in the labour force increased over time so too would the number of women progressing to senior corporate decision making positions (Blackburn, Brooks and Jarman, 2002; Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017).

Yet despite women now working outside the home in numbers unseen before they appear to be stuck in those junior or middle management positions and vertical gender segregation continues (Blackburn et al., 2002; Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017). In 2018 there were 78,000 more women engaged in either full or part-time employment in Ireland than in 2014 (Bray, 2019). However, statistics produced by the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) for Ireland found that in 2018 only 15.8 per cent of CEO, executive and non-executive positions were held by women. Additionally, EIGE found that in 2018 only 18.1 per cent of Presidents, board members and employee board representatives in Ireland were women (EIGE, 2019). Indeed, the main hypothesis of this thesis is that vertical gender segregation exists in the Irish SME sector and that certain identifiable causes are contributing to its persistence.

The majority of the academic literature on the causes of vertical gender segregation is undertaken on large organisations with over 250 employees. Little attention is accorded to SMEs and particularly to Irish SMEs (Woodhams and Lupton, 2006: MacKeith, Cook and Williams, 2010; Cegarra-Leiva, Sanchez-Vidal and Cegarra-Navarro, 2012: Stumbitz, Lewis and Rouse, 2018). SMEs are of significant economic importance both to the EU as a whole and to the Irish economy. The SME sector

accounts for approximately 99 per cent of enterprises in Ireland and is responsible for generating over 70 per cent of the job creation in the Irish labour market (Cagarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Eurostat, 2018;).

It has been proposed that this deficiency in SME research is derived from the inference that they are not as significant as larger organisations and should learn from, and adopt the practices of larger organisations (Cassell, 2002; Psychogios, Szamosi, Prouska and Brewster, 2016;). However, there are multiple differences between the labour resources, HRM practices and availability of capital between SMEs and larger organisations. Such differences may prevent research conducted on larger organisations adequately explaining the practices and experiences of SMEs with regard to vertical gender segregation (Cagarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016; Stumbiz et al., 2018). Subsequently, it is the objective of this research study to contribute to this under-researched area by presenting an investigation of the extent and causes of vertical gender segregation in Irish SMEs.

1.2 Research Aims

Specifically, this research study aims:

- i.** To measure the extent of vertical gender segregation at decision making levels in a cross-section of 136 of Ireland's Top Financial Performing SMEs.
- ii.** To identify and evaluate the primary causes of vertical gender segregation by conducting an extensive literature review in the field.
- iii.** To evaluate the extent to which these identified causes from the academic literature are present in a purposive sample of Irish SMEs by administering a questionnaire to 136 Irish SMEs.
- iv.** To make recommendations on vertical gender segregation in relation to the Irish SME sector to reduce gender imbalance at decision making levels in the future.

These aims were undertaken through employing the following structure.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

There are seven chapters in this thesis. Chapter one introduces the research hypothesis and identifies the main aims of the thesis. Justification for the investigation and an overview of the individual chapters is also provided.

Chapter Two of this thesis presents a background and context to the topics of equality, parity of opportunity and meaningful work. The chapter also examines the issue of gender equality in labour and the subsequent policy responses at both a national and European Union level.

In Chapter Three a review of the academic literature is undertaken. Vertical gender segregation is defined and discussions pertaining to its measurement are presented. The proposed causes and solutions of vertical gender segregation are discussed. The chapter also presents the limited literature with regard to vertical gender segregation in SMEs.

Chapter Four details the methodological approach and design used in this research study. It outlines the ontological and epistemological positions of the researcher. The chapter provides a description of the data collection techniques, the choice of research method and the design of the questionnaire. The choice of methodology is justified and anticipated problems are identified and possible solutions to avoid these are suggested. Finally, the chapter offers a discussion of the ethical considerations in conducting this research study and the limitations of the findings arising from it.

Chapter Five details the findings of both the primary and secondary research results found in this research study. Results from the headcount analysis, website content analysis and questionnaires are presented.

In chapter Six an interpretation and discussion of the findings from Chapter Five are presented and comparisons are made to results from previous studies.

Finally, Chapter Seven presents the conclusions from the research findings, recommendations, areas for further research and limitations to this research.

1.4 Conclusion

This chapter has laid the foundations for this research study by introducing the concept of vertical gender segregation and the lack of research on this area in SMEs, and

particularly, with regards to the Irish SME sector. Based on this background the research aims of the thesis were outlined in *Section 1.2*. Finally, an outline of the seven chapters was presented in *Section 1.3*.

CHAPTER 2 EQUALITY, PARITY OF OPPORTUNITY AND MEANINGFUL WORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins, in Section 2.2, by discussing equality and parity of opportunity in labour. The link between parity of opportunity and meaningful work is examined and the existence of gender inequalities in labour is considered. In Section 2.3 the policy responses to gender inequalities in labour at both a national and European Union level are examined.

2.2 Equality and Parity of Opportunity in Labour

The discussions encompassing the topic of equality have become divisive ones. There is little consensus amongst authors in regard to what is considered equitable and how equality should be achieved (Fraser, 1995; Sayer, 2009:2011). Equality, as a concept is complex, it is not all-encompassing. While equality for an individual, or group, may be attained in one area observation can determine that, for them, inequality prevails in other areas. Equality cannot exist independently but rather it is an intricate, interwoven, phenomenon of society. It is firstly confined within the wider bounds of society and beyond this, within context and environment (Dworkin, 1981; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2007).

There are constructs which are employed in a society with the objective of attaining what that society has accepted equality to be, for example the cultural norms and the social protection supports available. Further to this, the application of these constructs will influence societies, and the individual's perception of their validity, why does one person receive social protection supports over another? (Tilly, 1998; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Sayer, 2009:2011). The arguments surrounding the attainment of equality centre on the deliberation of distributive equity, how to fairly allocate resources, versus contributive equity, with due consideration given to the individual's capabilities in the distribution of resources. Substantial emphasis is granted in these arguments to the mistaken beliefs and the culminating discriminations originating from these mistaken beliefs, which are reinforced by the political and societal

constructions employed with the aspiration of achieving equality (Tilly, 1998; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Sayer, 2009:2011).

Discussion surrounding distributional equality contends that individuals are treated equally in the just allocation of resources within society (Dworkin, 1981). However, it is in the use of the concept of 'just allocation' that the opportunity for inequalities to emerge arises (Fraser, 1995; Sayer, 2009). The argument merits a twofold discussion; whether each individual should, irrespective of circumstance, receive the same, and to what extent should the ability and opportunity to contribute be factored into the 'just allocation' of resources. Sayer (2009) reiterates that to engage in distributional practices in isolation, without giving due consideration to the individual's contributive rights, will result in inequalities. This supports the arguments of Gomberg (2007) and Murphy (1993) who purport that equality in labour is unattainable without the embracement of contributive equity.

2.2.1 Parity of Opportunity and Meaningful Work

This contributive equity, according to Gomberg (2007) and Murphy (1993), in the context of labour, is concerned with the recognition of an individual's capabilities and the parity of opportunity. Sayer (2009) contends that recognition and parity of opportunity are of immense significance. He argues that what an individual does in their life may have as much consequence as what they get (Sayer, 2009). This assertion is supported in the theory of 'meaningful work' and the concept that work can be a direct source from which an individual derives their sense of identity. Meaningful work, it is purported, can allow for the organic evolution of a sense of purpose and feelings of belonging (Rosso, Dekas and Wrzesniewski, 2010; Michaelson, Pratt, Grant and Dunn, 2012).

The dialogue on this theory, however, surrounds the interpretation of what explicitly 'meaningful work' is (Rosso et al., 2010). Authors have engaged numerous definitions of the term varying from the generalised consensus in regards to the values, beliefs and attitudes to work (Brief and Nord, 1990; Ros, Schwartz and Surkiss, 1999) to a more individualised interpretation formulated by personal experiences which are distorted by social and cultural underpinnings (Wrzesniewski, Dutton and Debebe, 2003). Gomberg (2007) asserts that there can be no parity of opportunity in relation to

‘meaningful work’, irrespective of differential interpretations, if the availability of what an individual considers ‘meaningful work’ is scarce.

Subsequently, there is a need for recognition of the subjective nature in defining ‘meaningful work’. Recognition must be granted to the varying attitudes and beliefs individuals possess in relation to the varying types of work available; domestic duties, volunteering and unpaid community work may be considered by one individual as ‘meaningful work’ yet by another as those duties a person engages in outside of the traditional concept of paid work. Furthermore, Gomberg (2007) argues that no parity of opportunity in the attainment of ‘meaningful work’ can be achieved if the individual is not granted the opportunity for self-development.

2.2.2 Gender Inequalities in Labour

Regardless of the individualist meanings of ‘meaningful work’ there must be recognition of the individual’s right to participate in the work which is meaningful to them. Sayer (2009) furthers this argument propounding that the continual absence of recognition for unpaid domestic labour, in conjunction with its continual un-equal division amongst the genders, is cumulating in restrictions on women in achieving parity of opportunity in regard to self-development and in securing what they hold to be ‘meaningful work’. Fraser (1995) purports that the debate is further obscured by the complex sources from which inequalities develop. There are, she argues, two distinct structures from which inequalities in labour arise, especially in regard to gender bias; political-economic structures, such as the division between paid and unpaid labour or the gendered image of job functions, and cultural structures, for example the existence of the differing and accepted norms such as the stereotypical traits assigned to the different genders in society. It is in the overlapping of the resulting inequalities arising from these two distinct structures which causes conflict in their resolution (Fraser, 1995).

The argument could be made that, while the cultural structures will produce individual inequalities, the major inequalities existing in labour are, for the most part, resultant from established political-economic structures (Fraser, 1995). If this were true it would stand, therefore, that a policy of distributional equity alone could be employed as a viable consideration in the eradication of these inequalities (Taylor, 1992; Fraser,

1995). The employment of affirmative action policies, such as gender quotas, would, in theory, eradicate gender imbalance in a numerical sense.

However, while distributional equity would enable the unjust consequences resulting from the inequalities to be negated, such as the under-representation of women in management positions, it would not, argues Skjeie and Teigen (2005), dismantle the established structures which generated the initial inequalities. The forced placement of women within organisational functions in which they have been traditionally under-represented through legislative action would, they argue, achieve little in addressing the barriers which initially prevented their participation. Furthermore, any broader analysis of inequalities in labour identifies that they are generated from decidedly more complex issues than just political-economic structures (Fraser, 1995).

Inequalities in labour are a product of cultural structures in as much as they are resultant from political-economic structures (Fraser, 1995; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005). Fraser (1995) highlights cultural sexism norms which have enabled development of privileges associated with masculine traits while subsequently disparaging those traits which are considered feminine. This cultural sexism influence is evident in the gendered division of functions within an organisation. The gender stereotypes, for example, which have created the assumption that masculine traits are more suitable for the senior managerial positions, while women and their more 'feelings' centered approach to management are more suited to people oriented management positions, such as those found in Human Resources (Kanter, 1977; Mensi-Klarback, 2014). Subsequently, gender discrimination is, Fraser (1995) argues, a bivalent collective requiring both redistribution and recognition redress. The challenge, therefore, is the development of a resolution process which is capable of encompassing the duality of causes. Furthermore, the challenge requires the development of a resolution process which will not only redress the inequalities but also transform the structures which originally generated them (Fraser 1995; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005).

It is in the approaches to facilitate the requirement of recognition redress, undertaken with the objective of attaining equality, in which further inequalities often manifest (Fraser, 1995; Tilly, 1998; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Sayer, 2009:2011). Recognition redress has become central to the debate surrounding equality. The discussion places emphasis on the obstacles encountered in terms of reconciling the concept of

recognising a group as a collective entity while subsequently deconstructing perceptions of differences to assure equality (Fraser, 1995; Bohnet, 2016). Essentially, the eradication of long held beliefs of ‘differences’ in relation to individuals with the aim to achieve equality will naturally be in conflict with the concept of recognition, which is used to grant a special status or ‘difference’ to a group.

The most prevalent inequality in labour, since the evolution of the organised corporation at the beginning of the twentieth century, is the gendered image of work (Kanter, 1977; Fraser, 1995; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Sayer, 2009; Bohnet, 2016). It is this gendered image of work which has facilitated the emergence of the gendered division of labour and permitted it to establish itself rigidly within the organisational structure (Kanter, 1977; Fraser, 1995). Fraser (1995) contends that inequalities related to gender in labour emerge by virtue of both political-economic structures and cultural structures and, as such, are capable of producing both economic maldistribution, such as the unpaid domestic labour which is a form of economic exploitation, and cultural misrecognition in the using of stereotypes to understand an individual within a social group.

Discussion encompassing the design and implementation of such redress is divisive (Fraser, 1995; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Senden, 2014). Debate surrounds the concern of how best to employ redistributive policies denouncing gender differentiation with an objective of abolishing gender discrimination while simultaneously engaging in recognitional policies engaged to valorise gender distinctions (Fraser, 1995; Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Senden, 2014). This continual discord in agreement surrounding the most appropriate redress for gender inequalities has delayed resolution and the need for appropriate structures to attain gender equality in labour remains (Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Senden, 2014).

2.3 Gender Equality in Labour Policy Responses

In the Irish context, programmes and policies adopted with the objective of achieving gender equality in labour are derived from both national and supranational bodies. At the supranational level gender equality policies are generated by the European Union (EU). At a national level gender equality and related topics are under the remit of the Department of Justice and Equality (Gender Equality in Ireland, 2017).

2.3.1 European Union Policy

Gender policies within the European Union developed at an incremental pace over the past four decades (Hoskyns, 2000). The policies implemented by the EU for the years 1982-2000 and 2001-2019 are displayed in *Table 2.1* and *Table 2.2*. Initially treated as an economic concern in the creation of the common market, gender equality gradually began to emerge as part of the European Union's social dimension (Ostner, 2000). However, those earlier gender equality policies, introduced at a supranational level by the European Union, were only policies which were compatible with the EU policy of 'negative integration': the elimination of any barrier which restricts the free movement of goods, services or factors of production (Ostner, 2000).

During the 1990s a new approach involving 'gender mainstreaming' became the main focus of EU gender policies. Gender mainstreaming, as an EU policy consideration, involves the continued consideration of the gendered differences between men and women in all aspects of policy-making, at every institutional level, throughout all of the EU member states (EIGE, 2018). This developed further in the early 2000s into a dual approach by the EU to gender equality. This involved a complementary approach between gender mainstreaming and other, more specific, policies with the aim of achieving gender equality at senior management and Boardroom level (EIGE, 2018).

2.3.2 Irish Policy

Ireland has experienced significant changes over the past decades with regard to the role of women within the labour market (Cross, 2010; Russell, McGinnity and O'Connell, 2017). The participation of women in the labour force has increased from 28 per cent in 1971 to 45.6 per cent in 2017 (CSO, 2018; Cross, 2010). Subsequently, due to external pressures arising from membership of the EU and changing social attitudes Ireland has gone through a period of substantial legislative transformation since the 1970s (Finnegan and Wiles, 2005; Lyons, 2014; Russell et al, 2017).

Reports published during the early 1970s by the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) and the Statistical and Social Inquiry Society of Ireland (SISSI) made numerous recommendations for achieving greater equality for women in the Irish labour force (Russell et al., 2017). Among these recommendations were firstly the removal of the marriage bar requiring women in the civil service and public services posts to resign their position upon marriage. Secondly, recommendation was made for

reforms to the tax system and thirdly for there to be recognition of the unpaid labour provided by women (Russell et al., 2017).

Subsequently, a significant legislative overhaul in an attempt to address gender inequalities in labour and to facilitate greater participation of women in the labour force began in the 1970s (Finnegan and Wiles, 2005; Russell et al., 2017). This overhaul included the removal of the marriage bar in 1973 and the introduction in 1974 of the Anti-Discrimination (Pay) Act (1974) prohibiting any inequalities in pay and ensured equal pay for work of equal value. The 1970s also saw the introduction of both the Employment Equality Act (1977-2018) which incorporated the requirement of equal pay for work of equal value found in the Anti-Discrimination (Pay) Act (1974) and the Unfair Dismissals Act (1977-2015). The Employment Equality Act (1977-2018) provided that no discrimination based on gender with regard to recruitment and promotion could occur. While the Unfair Dismissals Act (1977-2015) provided new protections against dismissal with regard to pregnancy (Finnegan and Wiles, 2005; Russell et al. 2017).

Legislative changes surrounding maternity leave occurred in 1981. Prior to 1981 a maternity allowance was paid to insured workers but it was not a protected leave. Following the changes in 1981 paid maternity leave was introduced in the form of social welfare payments. Maternity leave was now also a protected leave meaning that any termination notice received from an employer during the leave was void. Additionally, a women had the right to return to their position, or a suitable alternative position, once the leave ended (Finnegan and Wiles, 2005; Russell et al. 2017).

The 1980s also saw a period of significant tax reform in Ireland. Previously married women were experiencing a tax penalty in comparison with unmarried women. To eliminate this penalty tax rate bands and allowances were doubled for married couples (Finnegan and Wiles, 2005; Russell et al. 2017). The individualisation of taxation was introduced with Budget 2000 which reduced the scope for the transferring of tax bands between married couples and granted women greater financial independence and control over their income (Russell et al., 2017).

Table 2.1

European Union Action Programmes on Equal Opportunities 1982-2000 (European Commission, 2017)

Action Programme	Years	Actions
Equal Opportunities for Women	1982-1985	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Activation of Article 119 of Treaty of Rome: equal pay for men and women. - Adoption of 3 directives on equal treatment of men and women in the workplace: 1: in social security; 2: for self-employed women and women in agriculture; 3: in parental leave. All member states were required to adopt/amend existing legislation to incorporate these directives. - An emphasis was placed on achieving gender equality. While positive action for women was permitted, it was not encouraged. - Specific measures and guidelines were included in the Social Fund regarding training for female workers.
Equal Opportunities for Women	1986-1990	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The needs of a broader range of women included and attention given to the unpaid domestic work carried out by women. - Focus on training and education of women. - Focus on the sharing of family responsibilities and childcare.
Equal Opportunities for Women	1991-1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -New emphasis placed on ‘gender mainstreaming’ and the socioeconomic context. - Emphasis placed on improving the status of women in society. - Focus placed on addressing 3 issues encountered by women in the labour force: 1: sexual harassment; 2: protection of pregnancy and maternity; 3: childcare. - Recognition granted to the barriers encountered by women in attaining ‘good’ employment.
Equal Opportunities for Women and Men	1996-2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -‘Gender mainstreaming’ becomes the main principle of the action programme. - Attention was placed on the need for the identification of the role the EU and its institutions had in relation to achieving equality. -Emphasis placed on the need for policy to facilitate the reconciliation of family responsibilities of both men and women in the labour force.

Table 2.2

European Union Action Programmes on Equal Opportunities 2001-2019 (European Commission, 2017)

Action Programme	Years	Actions
Strategy on Gender Equality	2001-2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Established a framework for providing ‘gender mainstreaming’ in all EU activities along with: - Promoting gender equality in economic life. - Promoting equal participation and representation. - Promoting the changing of gender roles and stereotypes.
Roadmap for Equality Between Men and Women	2006-2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Continued the adoption of a ‘gender mainstreaming’ approach, along with: - promoting the economic independence for men and women. - promoting the reconciliation of private and professional life. - promoting equal representation in decision making. - promoting the elimination of gender stereotypes.
Strategy for Equality Between Men and Women	2010-2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -promoting economic independence for women and men -achieving equality in decision making -ensuring equal pay for work of equal value
Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality	2016-2019	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -promoting the equal economic independence of women and men -reducing the gender pay, earnings and pension gaps between men and women -achieving equality in decision making -integrating a gender equality perspective into all EU activities and policies

2.4 Conclusion

In conclusion this chapter has discussed what equality and parity of opportunity in labour entails and the link between parity of opportunity and meaningful work has been examined. The existence of gender inequalities in labour and the policies responses at both national and EU levels have also been discussed.

Chapter 3 shall expand further on the topic of gender inequalities in labour providing a review of the literature concerning the gender imbalance found at the decision making levels of organisations.

CHAPTER 3 LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins, in Section 3.2, by building a definition of vertical gender segregation, the term offered in the literature to describe the gender imbalance found at the decision making levels. Section 3.3 examines how vertical gender segregation is measured within the literature. The various indexes developed, and employed, by researchers in the measurement of vertical gender segregation are shown. An overview of the existing gender imbalance at decision-making levels found within organisations in Ireland shall also be provided in this section. In Section 3.4 the barriers encountered by women at decision-making levels, as identified through four decades of research, are acknowledged and the three main causes of vertical gender segregation propounded in the literature are discussed. Section 3.5 discusses the literature regarding vertical gender segregation and small to medium sized enterprises. Finally, Section 3.6 discusses the literature on possible solutions to vertical gender segregation.

3.2 Defining Vertical Gender Segregation

At a broad level there exists a consensus in the literature defining occupational gender segregation as involving the allocation of specific and separate roles within the labour force to men and women (Emerek, 2008; Burchell, Hardy, Rubery and Smith, 2014; Kossek, Su and Wu, 2017; Keane, Russell and Smyth, 2017). It is said to be evident by the concentration of one gender in a particular sector of employment which is out of proportion with their total level of participation within the labour force (Preston, 1999; Barry and Sherlock, 2008; Keane et al, 2017).

This gendered segregation of labour is not a manifestation of the modern labour market and has existed in some form for centuries (Preston, 1999). There has always been, as documented in studies by Estevez-Abe, (2006) and Blackburn et al., (2002), a history of gendered occupations. However, those original gendered occupations, such as mining or the most basic of manual labour, have diminished significantly throughout the twentieth century. Yet the modern industrialised occupations which followed have again displayed the same pattern of gendered segregation which has given rise to the distinction between horizontal and vertical gender segregation (Cross and Linehan, 2006; Emerek, 2008).

Horizontal gender segregation is the under or over-representation of one gender in some sections of the economy. The over-representation of women found in primary level education and the over-representation of men found in the construction industry are two such examples of horizontal gender segregation. Vertical gender segregation is the under-representation of one gender in high-status functions and the over-representation of that same gender in the low-status functions; for example, the ongoing gender imbalance found in the top decision-making positions within the corporate world (Emerek, 2008; Burchell et al., 2014; Joyce and Walker, 2015; Kossek et al., 2017; Keane et al, 2017). Charles (2003) argues that both horizontal and vertical gender segregation are the result of two deep-rooted ideological beliefs; gender essentialism and male primacy.

Horizontal gender segregation is a manifestation of the first belief, gender essentialism. It results from the widely held societal belief that women are more competent than men at those occupations which involve a more nurturing and social role (Charles, 2003; Estevez-Abe, 2006; Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). Vertical gender segregation emerges from the second belief, male primacy (Charles, 2003). It is derived from the gender stereotyping associated with those higher status roles; the ‘think manager, think male’ phenomenon (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Charles, 2003; Schein 2007; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Heilman, 2012; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Brescoll, 2016). As a result, for women the continual existence of occupational gender segregation has generated both economic and personal disadvantages (Skjeie and Teigen, 2005; Estevez-Abe, 2006; Gomberg, 2007)

Estevez-Abe (2006) purports, while acknowledging that achieving gender equality involves more than just achieving economic parity, that the continual grounding of women in the junior and middle management functions is placing women at an economic disadvantage. Furthermore, it impacts on their sense of purpose and their ability for self-development (Gomberg, 2007). In their discussion of gender balance within the different societal arenas Skjeie and Teigen (2005) argue that gender equality as a right is twofold; a right to freedom and autonomy and the right to parity of participation.

Occupational gender segregation removes these rights. Firstly, by erasing their right to freedom and autonomy by preventing women, and indeed men, from choosing any

occupation regardless of gender and secondly, vertical gender segregation prevents the possibility of any parity of participation existing for women through the continual under-representation of women at the higher levels of the management function (Skjeie and Teigen, 2005). Throughout the second half of the twentieth century there was one main consistent, and logical, argument made in relation to occupational gender segregation, and in particular to vertical gender segregation, and its possible eradication. This was that as the number of women in employment increased it would naturally follow that the number of women progressing into the management function, those higher status roles, would also increase (Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017).

Women now work outside the home in numbers unseen before (Blackburn et al., 2002; Cross and Linehan 2006; Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017). In 2017 there were 1.08 million women in the Irish workforce, representing 45.6 per cent of the overall total Irish workforce. (CSO, 2018). Yet despite their increasing numbers, as the findings of Cross and Linehan's (2006) analysis of the Irish high-tech sector highlighted, women appear to be 'stuck' in those junior or middle management functions and vertical gender segregation continues.

3.3 Measuring Vertical Gender Segregation

Occupational gender segregation is a persistent phenomenon which has a major role in gender inequality (Emerek, 2008; Barry and Sherlock, 2008; Burchell et al., 2014; Kossek et al, 2017). While the extent of the separation within the labour forces may be exhibited in measurements of occupational gender segregation there is no agreement amongst researchers on which methodological approach is the most appropriate (Blackburn, 2012; Burchell et al., 2014). The majority of research undertaken with the objective of measuring occupational gender segregation typically engages in the use of various indexes, with seven indexes appearing most frequently (Emerek, 2008; Blackburn, 2012; Burchell et al., 2014).

The seven main indexes employed in the measurement of occupational gender segregation by researchers are illustrated in *Table 3.1*. These seven segregation measurements may be expressed in terms of their relation to Blackburn, Jarman and Soltanen's (1993) Basic Segregation Table. The Basic Segregation Table is demonstrated in *Table 3.2* and defines 'female' occupations as those in which there is found a higher concentration of female workers when compared to the overall female

proportion in the labour force (Blackburn, 2012). Of these seven the most widely used index in measuring occupational gender segregation is the Index of Dissimilarity (Blackburn, 2012). There is, however, a general acceptance amongst researchers that each of the indexes has limitations. These limitations result from issues such as the ratio of men and women in the labour force not being a symmetrical 50:50 and the varying numbers of the total labour force employed in the different occupations being measured. Thus, it is purported that there exists no one index which is fully satisfactory in the measurement of occupational gender segregation (Emerek, 2008; Blackburn, 2012).

In addition to these seven main indexes a simple numerical measurement may be compiled by the employment of a simple headcount. An example of one such measurement being the European Institute of Gender Equality's (EIGE) gender statistics. The EIGE's gender statistics database contains data on women in decision-making positions from 35 European countries; the 28 European Union (EU) member states, the 4 candidate countries and the 3 European Economic Area (EEA) countries. The EIGE conduct a headcount of women employed in key decision-making positions in the largest public listed companies, to a maximum of 50 companies per country (EIGE, 2018).

However, Blackburn (2012) argues that to gain a true understanding of any occupational gender segregation the orthogonal dimensions must be considered in relation to inequality. He further argues that distinctions should be made, in any measurement of occupational gender segregation, between concentration and segregation (Blackburn, 2012). Horizontal gender segregation measurements highlight the difference in gender dispersion within occupations without any measurement of inequality and is, therefore, a measurement of concentration. Vertical gender segregation measurements have the capacity to include measurements beyond a simple numerical measurement. It may also be used to place an emphasis on the inequalities which are resulting from the existence of vertical gender segregation. The most ubiquitous of these inequalities being inequalities in income and stratification (Charles, 2003; Blackburn, 2012). Measurements including such emphasis may be produced in the utilisation of Social Interaction Distance (SID) scales such as the Cambridge Social Interaction and Stratification Scale (CAMSIS). Using occupational groupings as its basic unit, CAMSIS allows for a measurement of the inequalities

arising from vertical gender segregation (Lambert and Prandy, 2012; Blackburn, 2012).

3.3.1 Measurement of Vertical Gender Segregation in Ireland

The level of participation by women within the Irish labour force has increased significantly during the past 30 years (Kirrane, Taylor and Horan, 2016; Cross et al., 2017). The 1971 female labour force participation rate of just 28 per cent (Cross, 2010) had increased to 51.5 per cent by 2016 (CSO, 2016). In 2017 women accounted for over 1.08 million of the 2.37 million total Irish workforce (CSO, 2018).

However, despite this increase, Kirrane et al. (2016) argue that career and promotional opportunities for women have continually displayed inequalities. Commissioned by The 30% Club¹, their report, in which they employed the headcount measurement method on organisations with over 150 employees from the Irish Times Top 1000 companies list, highlights that while there has been an increase women are still significantly outnumbered by men in those key decision-making positions (Kirrane et al., 2016). A phenomenon replicated across the EU, where female board membership is on average just 13.7 per cent (Cross et al., 2017).

Central Statistics Office (CSO) (2016) statistics found that women make up 45.1 per cent of the total labour force in Ireland. However, the findings of Kirrane et al.'s 2016 report highlight that while women hold 40 per cent of the lower level management roles just 17 per cent of Chief Executive Officer (CEO) positions in Ireland were held by women. Furthermore, the report found that across all sectors of industry in Ireland, regardless of organisation type, women were less likely to be found in management roles in comparison to men (Kirrane et al., 2016).

Similarly, statistics produced by the EIGE for Ireland, using their previous discussed methodology, found that in 2017 only 11.2 per cent of CEO, executive and non-executive positions were held by women. Additionally, EIGE found that in 2017 only 17.3 per cent of Presidents, board members and employee board representatives in

¹ The 30% Club is a campaign which launched in the UK in 2010 with a goal of achieving a minimum representation of women of 30 per cent on FTSE-100 Boards of Directors. The campaign has expanded globally and ten chapters currently exist outside the UK. The Irish chapter officially launched in January 2015 with a goal of achieving greater representation of women at all levels of Irish business (The 30% Club, 2015).

Ireland were women (EIGE, 2018). In the following *Section 3.4* the causes of vertical gender segregation are discussed.

Table 3.1 Indexes for Measurement of Occupational Gender Segregation (Blackburn, 2012)

Type of Index	Author(s)	Formula
Index of Dissimilarity	Duncan and Duncan (1955)	$ID = \sum_1^n F_i/F - M_i/M $
The WE Index	OECD (1980:1985)	$WE = \sum F_i/F - M_i/M $
The Sex Ratio	Hakim (1981)	$SR = \frac{F_f/N_f}{F/N} - \frac{F_m/N_m}{F/N}$
Standardised Sex Ratio SR	Blackburn, Siltanen and Jarman (1995); Siltanen (1990)	$SR = D_r$
The IP Index	Karmel and MacLauchlan (1988)	$IP = \frac{1}{N} \sum M_i - \frac{M}{N} (M_i + F_i) $
Marginal Matching Measure (MM)	Blackburn and March (1991)	$MM = 1/2 \left[\sum_1^p (F_i/F - M_i/M - F_i/F) \right]$
Gini Coefficient (G)	Silber (1989;1992); Lampard (1994)	$G = \sum_{i=2}^n \left\{ \sum_1^{i-1} F_t/F \sum_1^i M_t/M - \sum_1^i F_t/F \sum_1^{i-1} M_t/M \right\}$
Women in Decision-Making	EIGE (2006)	Headcount

n = total number of occupations

M = total number of men in the labour force

F = total number of women in labour force

F_f = number of females in ‘female’ occupations

N_i = number of workers in occupation i

M_i = total number of men in a single occupation i

F_i = total number of women in a single occupation i

M_f = number of males in ‘female’ occupations

N = total numbers of workers, male and female, in the labour force ($F + M$)

M_m = number of males in ‘male’ occupations

F_m = number of females in ‘male’ occupations

Table 3.2 Blackburn, Jarman and Soltanen's (1993) Basic Segregation Table (Blackburn, 2012)

	Women	Men	
'Female' Occupations	F_f	M_f	N_f
'Male' Occupations	F_m	M_m	N_m
	F	M	N

N = total numbers of workers, male and female, in the labour force ($F + M$)

F = total number of women in labour force

M = total number of men in the labour force

F_m = number of females in 'male' occupations

F_f = number of females in 'female' occupations

M_m = number of males in 'male' occupations

M_f = number of males in 'female' occupations

3.4 Causes of Vertical Gender Segregation

Occupational gender segregation, particularly the vertical gender segregation found within the management function, is a subject which has been gaining academic attention since the early 1970s (Schein, 1973; Schein 1975; Kanter, 1977; Garland and Price, 1977; Terborg, 1977; Larwood and Wood, 1977) and this research has continued unabated to the present day (Schein, 1985; Purcell, 1988; Preston, 1999; Rutherford, 2001; Knudsen 2009; Cross, 2010; Bohnet, 2016; Cross et al., 2017; Einarsdottir et al., 2018). *Tables 3.3-3.7* illustrate eighteen such research studies of vertical gender segregation displayed by geographical location. Additionally, the respective methodologies used in each study, the barriers identified in the studies encountered by women in management and explanations for vertical gender segregation are also displayed.

The studies highlighted in *Tables 3.3-3.7* were embarked upon in various geographical locations, including the USA, Canada, Australia, numerous European States, the UK and Ireland, over a period of forty-one years, from 1977 to 2018. Of these eighteen research studies three are longitudinal studies conducted by Kanter (1977), Wood (2009) and Schafer et al. (2015). Each of these longitudinal studies was embarked upon in a different geographical location; Kanter's (1977) study was based in the USA, Wood's (2009) study in Australia and Schafer et al. (2015) utilised data from 12 European States. Furthermore, each of these three studies encapsulate different time periods; Kanter's (1977) research was completed over a five year period during the 1970s, Wood's (2009) ten year study spanned from 1996 to 2006 and Schafer et al.'s (2015) research utilised data from four consecutive European Social Surveys, from 2002 to 2008. However, despite these variations in geographical location and time period the barriers experienced by women in management identified overtime, for the most part, identical.

Kanter's (1977) research cumulated in the identification of several barriers which impeded women in their advancement through the management function including the gender stereotyping of the role of manager, work/family conflicts, gendered variations of rewards and promotional procedures, a patriarchal nature to organisations and the existence of a biological advantage. Similarly, Wood (2009) identified that the gender stereotyping of the role and the gendered culture of the organisation were resulting in

barriers for women in management. Moreover, she found that gendered variations in reward and promotional procedures, and, informal management networks from which female managers were excluded from, were all negatively impacting on the career aspirations of women. Schafer et al. (2015) found similar barriers to both Kanter (1977) and Wood (2009), these were the barriers arising from the gendered nature of the organisational structure and the gendered culture existing within the organisation. Furthermore, they found that the social view of the responsibilities of women within the home and work/home conflicts were creating barriers for women in management (Schafer et al., 2015). The remaining fifteen studies illustrated in *Tables 3.3-3.7* demonstrate similar findings in relation to the barriers encountered and experienced by women in management.

As with the three previously discussed longitudinal studies the findings of the remaining fifteen studies vary little irrespective of geographical location or time period. Additionally, the research design utilised by researchers also resulted in little variation in results. Wicks and Bradshaw (1999) conducting their research in Canada, used surveys of both male and female employees to identify that the gendered culture of an organisation and the gendered variations in reward and promotion procedures are presenting as barriers to women in management. While Knudsen (2009) in their Norwegian study identified through the use of surveying a sample of 2195 individuals (with 455 females and 1740 males) that work/family conflicts and the gender nature of the organisational structure of the organisation were negatively impacting on female managers. Australian studies undertaken by North-Samardzic and Taksa (2011) and Fitzsimmons, Callan and Paulsen (2014) identified similar barriers. Fitzsimmons et al. (2014) found through interviews with a purposeful gender balanced sample of thirty male and thirty female CEOs that gendered patterns in the accumulation of career relevant experience was presenting as a barrier to women entering senior management. North-Samardzic and Taksa (2011) conducted an instrumental case study on the Australian branch of an international financial services organisation. This involved using a three pronged approach in their research. Firstly, they conducted an analysis of documents submitted to Australia's Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency (EOWA) for the years 2003, 2004 and 2005. Secondly, interviews were conducted with sixteen female managers from two departments within the bank; eleven female managers from Markets and Banking and five female managers from

Consumer Banking. Finally, further in-depth interviews were conducted with the same sixteen female managers following analysis of the answers provided in the first round of interviews.

The findings of their study highlighted that the gendered nature of the organisational structure, its policies and culture were inhibiting women in their progression through management. Similarly, Einarsdottier et al. (2018) in their Islandic study used in-depth semi-structured interviews with eleven female middle-managers to identify that the stereotyping of the management role, the existences of gendered cultures and networks which exclude women and a lack of flexibility were all influencing the advancement of women from middle to senior management.

This research is consistent with Irish studies conducted by Cross and Linehan (2006), Cross (2010) and Cross et al. (2017) which found, through in-depth interviews with samples of Irish female managers, that work/home conflicts, organisational structures, policies and procedures and informal networks all ensued in barriers for women in management. The Irish Management Institute's (IMI) 2017 study, undertaken in conjunction with global campaign platform The 30% club, conducted a focus group with fifty Irish female senior managers. Their findings, consistent with the three other Irish studies, highlighted that organisational structures, policies and procedures and the importance of networking were creating barriers to women succeeding in management.

Similarly, when undertaking a case study approach of thirteen organisations based in Ireland and Europe, Murphy and Doherty (2009) again derived similar findings to the previously discussed Irish studies. Their research involved eight organisations located in Ireland and five organisations from outside Ireland, each from a different European country; Finland, the UK, Portugal, Greece and Italy. They conducted semi-structured interviews with all of the senior managers in the eight Irish organisations and with half of the senior managers in each of the five European organisations. The barriers identified by Murphy and Doherty (2009) in their study were work/home conflicts and the 'long hour' culture associated with the role of manager. Correspondingly, UK studies conducted by Rutherford (2001), Lewis (2001) and Kornberger, Carter and Ross-Smith (2010) also undertook a case study research approach.

Both Lewis (2001) and Kronberger et al. (2010) completed case studies on a single organisation; Lewis (2001) on a local Council and Kronberger et al. (2010) on one of the big four accounting firms. Rutherford's (2001) study involved two organisations; one from the aviation sector and one from the financial sector. Lewis's (2001) research involved conducting interviews with both male and female employees who were on either a part-time or reduced hour contract along with union representatives, the principle personnel director and members of the senior management team. Rutherford (2001) utilised both questionnaires and interviews in her research. For the aviation organisation twenty-four interviews were conducted with managers, eight of whom were male and sixteen female. There were ninety-seven responses to the research questionnaire. With the financial sector organisation she undertook twenty interviews with managers, seven male and thirteen female, and had fifty-eight responses to the questionnaire.

Kornberger et al.'s (2010) research involved thirteen interviews with managers and directors from five different departments and four interviews with partners and senior HR staff who worked closely with managers. Additionally, during the course of their research they spent a hundred hours shadowing managers and directors within the organisation. All of the three discussed case studies similarly found that work/home conflicts, organisational structures and culture, informal networks and the gendered nature of policies and procedures all accumulated to barriers for women in management. The studies illustrated in *Tables 3.3-3.7* elucidate that following decades of research, and despite the significant increases in the number of women in the labour force, there appears to be considerable resemblance in the barriers encountered by women in the 1970s and the barriers women experienced in the succeeding decades.

The accumulation of research over these decades has shown no one single cause for the continued existence of vertical gender segregation (Emerek, 2008; Barry and Sherlock, 2008). Those key barriers identified by researchers throughout the decades, as exhibited in *Tables 3.3-3.7*, are as follows; firstly, the gender stereotyping of the management role both within the organisation and outside in the wider societal context has led to a biological advantage for men. Secondly, that work/family conflicts arising from the long hour culture associated with the management role and the different income roles between some men and women along with both the patriarchal nature and the gendered culture which may have developed and continue to exist within some

organisations are resulting in barriers to women entering management. Thirdly, the gendered variations in the policies and procedures adopted by the organisation and, in particular, the gender variations in relation to the hiring, promotion and reward policies and procedures operating within the organisation are impacting on the progression of women in management.

While there is agreement amongst researchers that there exists no one single cause for the existence of vertical gender segregation, the debate instead focuses on the possible explanations for its continued existence and why the barriers encountered by women continue unchanged. The explanations offered by researchers for this continuation of the vertical gender segregation of women within the management functions are varied (Kanter, 1977; Blackburn et al., 2002; Estevez-Abe, 2006, Schafer et al., 2015).

Within the multiple discussions propounded by theorists there are three main theories, or explanations, which researchers use to explain gendered occupational segregation and in particular the vertical segregation of women; neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice theories, structural theories based on occupational and organisational structures and finally, cultural theories which consider the impact of cultural norms on occupational and, in particular, vertical gender segregation (Kanter, 1977; Blackburn et al., 2002; Estevez-Abe, 2006, Schafer et al., 2015).

Table 3.3 Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in the USA and Canada

Year	Author(s)	Methodology	Sample Size	Country	Explanation	Barriers Identified
2007	Schein	Conceptual paper reviewing authors work from the 1970s contrasting with the situation of female managers in the decades following her original research.		U.S.A.	Rational Choice Structural	- Gender stereotyping of the role of manager. - How work is structured and its inflexibility - Home/family conflicts -Organisational policy and procedures in relation to hiring and promotion.
1999	Wicks & Bradshaw	2 Stages involving surveying a selection of organisations from various industries. Stage 1: Survey of 1 member from each organisation. Stage 2: Each original participant asked to have 5 males and 5 females from their organisation complete a survey.	Stage 1: 27 Stage 2: 362	Canada	Cultural	-Gendered culture of organisation. - Gendered variations of reward and promotional procedures.
1977	Kanter	Longitudinal study over a 5 year period utilising surveys, interviews and group discussions.	50,000 Total Employees – 16% female	U.S.A.	Human Capital & Rational Choice Structural Cultural	- Gender stereotyping of manager role. - Biological advantage. - Work/family conflicts. - Patriarchal nature of organisation. -Gendered variations of reward and promotional procedures.

Table 3.4 Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in Australia

Year	Author(s)	Methodology	Sample Size	Explanation	Barriers Identified
2014	Fitzsimmons, Callan and Paulsen	Investigation of the appointment of CEOs. Followed by interviews with male and female CEOs.	30 Male 30 Female	Cultural	-Gendered patterns in the accumulation of career relevant experience
2011	North-Samardzic & Taksa	Instrumental case study on the Australian branch of an international financial services organisation conducted in 3 stages . Stage 1: Analysis of documents submitted to the EOWA in 2003, 2004, 2005. The information compiled from this was used to inform the survey used in the next stage. Stage 2: Interviews conducted with female managers from two departments: Markets & Banking and Consumer Banking. Stage 3: Further in-depth interviews following analysis of the answers provided in stage 2.	Stage 2: 16 (11 from Markets and Banking, 5 from Consumer Banking) Stage 3: 16 (as above)	Structural Cultural	- Gendered nature of the organisational structure. - Gendered nature of policies within the organisation. -Gendered culture of organisation.
2009	Wood	Cohort study over a 10 year period conducted in 3 stages . Stage 1: Surveyed middle managers of 24 well known large Australian organisations. Stage 2: Telephone interviews with sample from the original participants. Stage 3: Face-to-face in-depth interviews with a selection of managers from stages 1 & 2. A comparative analysis of the career aspirations between male and female managers was conducted.	Stage 1 – 507 Stage 2 – 30 Stage 3 – 16 (6 female/ 10 male)	Rational Choice Cultural	- Gender stereotyping of the role of manager. -Gendered culture of organisation. - Gendered variations of reward and promotional procedures. - The informal networks involved in the role of manager which female managers found themselves excluded from.

Table 3.5 Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in European States

Year	Author(s)	Methodology	Sample Size	Country	Explanation	Barriers Identified
2018	Einardsottir, Christiansen & Kristjansdottir	Semi-structured in-depth interviews with female middle managers in companies with between 50 and 1,100 employees.	11 (female middle-managers)	Iceland		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Stereotyping of management position. - Gendered culture of organisation. - Lack of flexibility. - Networks which exclude women.
2015	Schafer, Tucci & Gottshall	Longitudinal study utilising data from the European Social Survey (2002, 2004, 2006 and 2008) from 12 European countries involving managers aged 25-72.	6,981 (2185 female)	U.K Spain Portugal France Belgium Netherlands Switzerland Germany Finland Norway Denmark Sweden	Human Capital & Rational Choice Structural Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Work/home conflicts - Societal view of the responsibilities of women within the home. - Gendered nature of the organisational structure. -Gendered culture of organisation.
2011	Murphy & Doherty	Case study of an organisation based in Ireland and in Europe. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all senior managers in Ireland and with half of the managers in the European operations.	8 (Ireland) 5 (Europe)	Ireland (Finland, U.K., Portugal, Greece, Italy)	Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Work/home conflicts - ‘Long hours’ culture associated with the role of manager.
2009	Knudsen	Survey of full-time managers who are either married or living with a partner aged between 30-60 years.	2195 (455 female/1740 male)	Norway	Structural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Work/family conflicts. - Gendered nature of the organisational structure.

Table 3.6 Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in the UK

Year	Author(s)	Methodology	Sample Size	Explanation	Barriers Identified
2010	Kornberge, Carter & Ross-Smith	Case study of one of the big four accounting firms. Research involved semi-structured interviews with managers and directors from 5 different departments. Interviews were also conducted with the partners and senior staff from HR who worked closely with the managers. Additionally, 100 hours were spent shadowing managers and directors.	13 (managers and directors.) 4 (partners and HR staff)	Cultural	- The image held within the organisation of 'flexitime'. - Gendered nature of policies within the organisation.
2001	Lewis	Case study involving a public sector organisation: A Council. Interviews with male and female employees on part-time/reduced hour contracts, union representatives, principle personnel director and members of the senior management team.		Cultural	- 'Long hours' culture associated with the role of manager. - The image held within the organisation of 'flexitime'. - Work/family conflicts.
2001	Rutherford	Case study involving two organisations: An Airline and an Investment Bank.	Airline – 24 interviews with managers (8 male/16 female) - 97 questionnaires Bank – 20 interviews with managers (7male/13 female) - 58 questionnaires	Cultural	- 'Long hours' culture associated with the role of manager. - Norms and values held both within the organisation and wider society in relation to the role of manager. - The informal networks involved in the role of manager which female managers found themselves excluded from. - The language used within the organisation.
2000	Simpson	2 Stages utilising questionnaires and interviews female managers established from the alumni of 11 business schools. Stage 1: Questionnaire (option provide for participant to provide contact details if agreeable to participate in stage 2) Stage 2: 1/3 of stage 1 participants provided contact details. A selection was chosen from these based on geographical proximity.	Stage 1 – 90 Stage 2 – 16	Structural Cultural	- Existence of the 'men's club'. - Impact of societal views or role of manager and view of women as primary care giver in the home. - Patriarchal nature of organisation - 'Minority status' of females within management function. - Sense of 'fit' female managers felt within organisation.

Table 3.7 Studies of Vertical Gender Segregation in Ireland

Year	Author(s)	Methodology	Sample Size	Explanation	Barriers Identified
2017	IMI and The 30% Club	Focus group of senior Irish female managers	50	Structural Cultural	-Organisational policy and procedures in relation to hiring and promotion. - The informal networks involved in the role of manager which female managers found themselves excluded from. - Lack of flexibility in relation to how work is structured
2017	Cross, Linehan & Murphy	In-depth interviews of middle-level female managers across a broad spectrum of industries.	30	Structural Cultural	-Work/home conflicts - 'Long hours' culture associated with the role of manager. - Lack of flexibility in relation to how work is structured
2010	Cross	In-depth interviews of middle-level female managers across a broad spectrum of industries.	30	Human Capital & Rational Choice Structural Cultural	-Work/home conflicts - 'Long hours' culture associated with the role of manager. - Lack of flexibility in relation to how work is structured - The informal networks involved in the role of manager which female managers found themselves excluded from. - A 'visibility' requirement associated with the role of manager which female managers felt was impossible for them to meet due to family commitments.
2006	Cross & Linehan	In-depth interviews with female junior or middle managers in the Irish High-Tech Sector	20	Human Capital & Rational Choice Structural Cultural	-Organisational policy and procedures in relation to hiring and promotion. - Societal view of the responsibilities of women within the home. - The informal networks involved in the role of manager which female managers found themselves excluded from. - A self-imposed 'glass ceiling' by female managers in relation to proffering themselves for promotion.

3.4.1 Neo-Classical Economic Theories of Human Capital and Rational Choice Theory

The concept of human capital refers to the qualifications, skills and experience an individual possesses. The human capital explanation for vertical gender segregation introduces the concept that women, in terms of human capital, are inferior to their male counterparts – thus, vertical gender segregation is a reflection of this (Blackburn et al, 2002; Hossain and Tisdell, 2005; Dhakal and Nawaz, 2009; Ahmed and McGillivray, 2015). Becker (1985) in his empirically based research used data collected from a national sample of US households to argue that the traditional uneven division of the domestic household duties, which has long existed between men and women, has had significant implications on the extent to which women have invested in their education and the quantity of time women have available to dedicate to the external labour market.

In this research Becker (1985) was building on his previous body of work including his 1965 theoretical analysis of the economics of the household, ‘A Theory of the Allocation of Time’, from which his ‘Model of Household Specialisation’ evolved. Becker (1965) had proposed earlier analytical formulae for the study of both the production of commodities and the allocation of time within households. Becker (1965) introduced the concept that members of a household may specialise in the production of certain commodities relative to their potential output capabilities in relation to the production of that commodity. Essentially within the household economy, the allocation of time to be spent on the production of a commodity, for example, childcare and other domestic duties, tends to be done in way which allowed for the most efficient and productive outcome (Becker, 1985). In theory women are viewed as having a biological advantage in relation to any care orientated work. This has resulted in women historically being the ones within the household economy who specialised in childcare and domestic duties (Becker 1985; Murray, 2000; Folbre, 2012; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). Subsequently, any time which is allocated to childcare or domestic duties within the household economy would result in a reduction in the time available to spend within the market economy growing potential human capital (Becker, 1985).

Becker's (1985) human capital theory as an explanation for the existence of vertical gender segregation, therefore, rests on the argument that the position of women, as the primary executor of childcare and domestic duties, has resulted in their potential human capital returns, to both their qualifications and skills, and to their level of experience, being significantly reduced. An argument which may, in the earlier decades of the twentieth century, have had some merit but as Kanter (1977) observed, in her five year study at the 'Industrial Supply Corporation' (Indsco) during the 1970s, the educational and experience levels possessed by female employees were not a primary consideration in performance appraisals.

Kanter's (1977) research, conducted utilising surveys, interviews and group discussions, uncovered clear occupational segregation by gender. Women were segregated into the clerical functions of the organisation where their performance was judged not on their skills or experience but instead on their loyalty and attitude. The position, or status, a female employee in a clerical position was afforded was based on the position or status, of her direct, usually male, boss. Furthermore, the duties of the secretary were not clearly defined in any organisation wide unified job description; they ranged, Kanter (1977) discovered, from standard clerical functions, such as typing, to more domestic duties, such as coffee making and cleaning. The skills and experience required for each individual female secretary would, therefore, differ with each secretarial role within the corporation. This resulted in those secretaries who were considered to be at the highest level within the clerical ranks, the executive secretaries, often having fewer and more obsolete skills than those secretaries in the lower clerical positions (Kanter, 1977).

Essentially Becker's (1985) argument that a lack of education and experience could explain why women are occupationally segregated, especially vertically, can readily be countered with the observations which Kanter (1977) had made almost ten years previously; that the level of education and experience of women was not a primary consideration of employers. Additionally, Becker's (1985) theory is further countered by changes which have occurred in the level of educational investments made by women in the succeeding decades. These changes are evident in the tertiary education statistics produced by the European Union (2017) in relation to the gender distribution of participation within tertiary education. In 2016 women accounted for 54.1% of those undertaking tertiary education; 53.2% at undergraduate level, 57.1% at master

level and 47.8% at doctoral level (Eurostat, 2017). As Bronson (2014) highlights while historically more than 90% of college graduates in those high-earning degrees were male this began to change significantly during the 1970s and 1980s. Bohnet (2016) stresses that since the mid-1980s in the United States, over half of bachelor degree holders are women. Education in the United States, Blau and Kahn (2017) argue, has experienced a reversal of the gender gap. A mirror of the situation within the European Union member states, as demonstrated by the aforementioned statistics. Indeed, the European Union's statistics reveal that 57.6% of those undertaking studies in the Social Sciences, including journalism, and, business and law, in 2016 were women (Eurostat, 2018).

However, despite the statistical data on the changes in the of level educational investments made by women and the observations presented by Kanter (1977) the human capital theory explanation for the existence of occupational gender segregation persists (Anker, 1997; Tam, 1997; Waldfogel, 1997:1998; Kay and Hagan, 1998; Hakim, 2000; Currie and Moretti, 2003; Correll, Benard and Paik., 2007; Manning and Swaffield, 2008; Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Hossain and Tisdell, 2005; Dhakal and Nawaz, 2009; Ahmed and McGillivray, 2015; Weeden, Cha and Bucca, 2016; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). This may be due the stereotypical perceptions and expectations experienced by different groups (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Heilman, 2012; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Brescoll, 2016).

These stereotypical perceptions and expectations can result in preconceived notions of the attributes possessed by both women and men and the roles assigned to each gender resulting in the existence of a 'stereotype threat' (Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). A 'stereotype threat' may be defined as "the concrete, real-time threat of being judged and treated poorly in settings where a negative stereotype about one's group applies" (Steele et al., 2002, quoted by Hoyt and Murphy, 2016, p. 388). Thus, it could be argued that it is the stereotypical view that women will possess more domestic and childcare responsibilities which allows Becker's (1985) argument that women have an inferior human capital in comparison to their male colleagues to prevail despite the statistical data proving otherwise (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Heilman, 2012; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Brescoll, 2016; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Kinias and Sim, 2016). Furthermore, it is not only the level of skill possessed by an individual prior to employment which determines their value as human capital; the level of

investment by employers in vocational training of employees will have significant implications on their value as human capital (Estevez- Abe, 2006; Thomas, 2016; Wiswall and Zafar, 2017).

The outcome of Estevez-Abe's (2006) empirical study using United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) data showed significant less investment by employers into the maintaining of existing skills, and the upskilling of female employees in contrast to male employees. Becker (1985) argues that due to the considerable time consuming domestic duties and childcare responsibilities women possess, they have less time to spend investing in their human capital. Furthermore, Becker (1991) argues that, due to their higher level of involvement in domestic duties and child care responsibilities, women have a lower level of commitment to work. As a justification of the lack of investment by employers into their female employees this argument is considerably weak and is based heavily on an assumption; that women are less committed to work than men. It does not account for those women who do not have children, negating the childcare requirement, nor does it account for those households where there is an even contribution by all parties to the domestic duties. Moreover, it is questionable as to whether it is acceptable to assume that those women who do have children are automatically going to be less committed to their work (Purcell, 1988; Blackburn et al., 2002; Wiswall and Zafar, 2017).

The underlying assumptions found in Becker's (1965:1985:1991) argument that women are less committed to work due to domestic and childcare responsibilities, may arise from what is referred to as a 'statistical discrimination' (Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Bohnet, 2016; Duguet et al., 2017). Statistical discrimination may be defined as "...when the actual or assumed statistical properties of a group are applied to anyone belonging to that group" (Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014, p. 1380) or when "people base their assessment of an individual person on group averages" (Bohnet, 2016, p. 31). In the context of Becker's (1965:1985:1991) argument the assumption that women will act as the primary care-giver to any children and will hold the majority share of any domestic responsibilities involves the statistical discrimination that while this may be true for the some of the group it is not true for each individual woman within the group.

Bohnet (2016) highlights that statistical discriminations are applied intuitively and are used as an aid in situations where the party engaging in statistical discrimination may not have enough relevant information about the characteristics of the individual to whom it is being applied. Furthermore, Kanter (1977) witnessed that this supposition in regard to the conflict of commitment women experience concerning their work and home life was a readily used excuse by employers to justify their lack of investment in female employees. She observed that this question of commitment created a paradoxical situation for the women employed by 'Indsco'; unmarried women, or those women without a family, were denied the opportunity for promotion due to the possibility of their getting married or having children. Married women, or those women who had children, were also denied the opportunity for promotion due to the belief in the existence of a conflict of commitment (Kanter, 1977).

These observations by Kanter (1977) demonstrate the application by managers at 'Indsco' of a statistical discrimination which resulted in women being penalised based purely on biological characteristics. Those women who had children were penalised due to assumptions held by those in management. A group characteristic was applied to all women irrespective of the independent, individual opinions of each member of that group towards work and family. Similarly, those women who did not have children found themselves likewise statistically discriminated where the statistical average of their group was applied to all members in that group (Kanter, 1977; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Bohnet, 2016).

Blackburn et al. (2002), in their contextual paper on the popular explanations for occupational gender segregation, further question the validity of the statement that women are less committed to their work. In doing so they cite Joshi and Paci's (1998) findings that no relationship exists between gender, in particular the pay differences between the genders, and productivity levels. In their rejection of the lack of commitment to work on the part of female employees, Blackburn et al. (2002) do offer the theory that while women may be just as committed to their work as their male colleagues it may be that they are less interested in attaining promotion than men. Kanter (1977), Cross (2010) and Fritz and van Knippenberg (2017) all propound a different consideration of this matter; the lack of supposed interest held by women in attaining promotion can be explained due to the correlation between the belief in what is attainable and the low aspirations held by the women. Essentially, women are less

likely to proffer themselves when promotional opportunities arise if they hold the belief that they will not be fairly considered for the position; they make what they consider to be the 'rational' choice in the circumstances.

Rational choice theory is grounded in the concept that in any given circumstance individuals will choose to act in the manner which will best serve their interests (Blackburn et al. 2002). As previously discussed, employers often choose not to invest in enhancing the skills of their female employees due to their mistaken belief, known as statistical discrimination, that women lack commitment to their work. Essentially employers make what they perceive to be the rational choice and chose not to invest in the career development of women (Kalleberg, 2000:2011; Correll et al., 2007; Glauber, 2008; Weeden et al., 2016; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016; Thomas, 2016; Wiswall and Zafar, 2017). Similarly, women will choose not to pursue promotion as they hold the belief that advancement is unattainable for them (Cross and Linehan, 2006; Schein, 2007; Wood, 2009; Knudsen, 2009; Cross, 2010). This assertion is supported by Cross's (2010) research on the barriers encountered by women as they advance through the management function, during which she conducted in-depth interviews with female managers across a large section of Irish industries.

In her research, Cross (2010) identified that women encountered both individual and organisational barriers in their promotional aspirations. The individual barriers identified were varying in severity depending on both the career stage the participant was in and the life cycle stage her family was in (Cross, 2010). The major individual barrier identified was the existence of work/home conflicts and the impact having children had on the careers of the participants. The organisational barriers Cross (2010) identified included the long-hour culture associated with the role of manager and the lack of flexibility in how the role was structured. There exists, Cross (2010) highlights, a relationship between the individual barriers and the organisational barriers; the organisational barriers add to the individual barriers and influence the decision participants made in relation to pursuing further promotion within the management function.

Cross's (2010) research identified two significant considerations female managers held in regard to pursuing further promotion; the belief in the possibility of actually attaining the promotion itself and, furthermore, the belief, should they be successful

in gaining the promotion, in the existence of full organisational support in their new management position. These results mirror the findings of earlier explorations of this phenomenon, utilizing empirical evidence from the Irish high-tech sector, where it was observed that women were creating a self-imposed 'glass-ceiling'; women were forming a self-imposed barrier to progression through their individual beliefs in the unattainability of promotion, thus preventing any promotional possibilities (Cross and Linehan, 2006).

The implications that the implicit beliefs women hold about the possibility of attaining promotion are further expanded upon in Schein's (2007) contextual paper revisiting her earlier 1970s work on the implications of gender stereotyping, and the supposed ideal male orientated characteristics which a manager should possess, has on the progression of women in the management function. Schein (2007) argues that the normative assumptions applied to the management position with regard to gender are negatively impacting on the successful integration of women into all levels of the management function; both by the organisation and by women themselves. Schein's (2007) findings are further supported by the longitudinal study implemented by Wood (2009) utilizing qualitative data from six female managers in Australia. Wood (2009) executed a comparative analysis of the career aspirations between male and female managers. Throughout her analysis Wood (2009) observed that the gender stereotypical attitudes to the management function was resulting in the under-representation of women in management.

These observations of both Schein (2007) and Wood (2009) were again mirrored in the findings of Von Hippel, Sekaquaptewa and McFarlane's (2015) research into the impact gender stereotyping has on women in the Australian financial sector. In a survey of 512 women it was discovered that gender stereotyping was negatively impacting the professional identity of the participants and resulting in the women being less likely to recommend their field to other women (Von Hippel et al., 2015). Similarly, Kinias and Sim (2016) observed through two field experiments the importance the implicit beliefs held by the women themselves on the possibility of promotion attainability had on their career progression.

These six studies highlight that it is not that women are not as interested in attaining promotion as their male colleagues, as Blackburn et al. (2002) purport, but rather that

there exist barriers which have created the assumption that they lack this interest (Cross and Linehan, 2006; Schein, 2007; Wood, 2009; Cross, 2010; Von Hippel et al., 2015; Kinias and Sim, 2016). The findings of Cross and Linehan (2006) and Cross (2010) coupled with those of Schein (2007), Wood (2009), Von Hippel et al. (2015) and Kinias and Sim (2016) emphasise again the significance of 'stereotype threat'. As previously discussed, Hoyt and Murphy (2016) highlight the impact preconceived notions of the attributes possessed by both women and men may have on the roles assigned to each gender. They argue that there exist preconceived notions surrounding the role of manager and that people intuitively measure those in that role against these (Hoyt and Murphy, 2016).

Bohnet (2016) highlights that many stereotypes are far from accurate and that others have lost any accuracy they may had over the years but despite this they continue to remain in existence. She further argues that not only do individuals fail to change, or update, stereotypes but that any preconceived notions associated with these stereotypes are continually influenced by the most salient members of the group (Bohnet, 2016). She further emphasises that the characteristics of those more salient members of any group may become the expected characteristics assigned to the whole group (Bohnet, 2016). This may lead to individuals making biased assumptions about all members of a particular group based on the representative characteristics of the most salient members rather than the average characteristics of the whole group, an occurrence known as 'the representativeness heuristic' (Kahneman, 2011; Bohnet, 2016).

Women are underrepresented in management, resulting in men being the most salient members of that group (Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). As previously discussed, Schein (2007), Wood (2009) Von Hippel et al. (2015) and Kinias and Sim (2016) identified that the stereotypes associated with the role of manager have negatively impacted on the career aspirations of women. This in conjunction with Cross and Linehan's (2006) and Cross (2010) findings on the importance of an intrinsic believe that promotion is possible demonstrate the impact that an established stereotype may have on the choices an individual makes (Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Bohnet, 2016; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). Therefore, while rational choice theory might somewhat clarify the extent to which the intrinsic beliefs held by women with regard to the attainability of promotion acts as a barrier to parity of opportunity for women it is questionable in the

extent to which it explains the continual vertical gender segregation of women within the management function. Furthermore, it could be argued that the attitudes and beliefs held by women in relation to promotional aspirations are natural human responses to their experiences of blocked opportunities due to statistical discrimination, ongoing stereotype threat and continual penalisation due to biological characteristics (Kanter, 1977; Blackburn et al., 2002). Responses which men, Kanter (1977) argues, would similarly possess in experiencing the same lack of opportunity.

3.4.2 Organisational Structures and the Structure of Work

It has been proposed that a more suitable explanation for the vertical gender segregation of women in the management function is the direct influence that the organisational structure and the structure of the work itself has on the career trajectory and promotional opportunities for women (Kanter, 1977; Cross, 2010; Fritz and Van Knippenberg, 2017). Kanter's (1977) observations at 'Indsco' allowed her to formulate the conclusion that women were excluded from the management system. The organisation did not support women in their promotional aspirations due to its lack of flexibility. As discussed in *Section 3.4.1* Cross (2010) similarly identified the existence of organisational barriers which were inhibiting the career aspirations of the women who participated in her study. These included the long-hour culture associated with the role of manager and the lack of flexibility in how the role was structured (Cross, 2010). Fritz and Van Knippenberg (2017) argue that as career aspiration is a precursor to any career advancement the negative organisational influences experienced by an employee will have a detrimental impact on their career trajectory.

Fritz and Van Knippenberg's (2017) argument was previously observed by Knudsen (2009) in his survey of male and female managers across the Norwegian business sector where he found that the lack of flexibility within organisations was negatively impacting on women. He identified that it took longer for women to achieve a promotion in comparison to their male colleagues due to the lack of flexibility surrounding how work duties were to be performed. He observed that this lack of flexibility was resulting in work/home-life conflicts for women (Knudsen, 2009). These findings of Knudsen (2009) are further evident in the well documented phenomena known as the 'child salary penalty', which is experienced by women, and the 'child salary premium' experienced by men (Budig and England, 2001; Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Killewald, 2012; Bohnet, 2016; Weeden et al, 2016;).

Research has found that women in the US earn on average 5 per cent less (per child) per hour than those women who do not have children (Budig and England, 2001; Staff and Mortimer, 2012). Furthermore, research has also shown that during the interview process employers are less likely to call back women who have children for further interview (Correll et al., 2007; Staff and Mortimer, 2012). In contrast, research into the ‘child salary penalty’ and ‘child salary premium’ phenomena has also found that in the US becoming a father is linked with a wage increase of between 3-10 per cent, with married fathers experiencing a greater increase than unmarried ones (Gaubert, 2008; Hodges and Budig, 2010; Killewald, 2012).

Pal and Waldfogel (2016), in their longitudinal study on the gender pay gap involving data from the Current Population Survey 1968-2014, highlight that there are three main explanations offered for the existence of the ‘child salary penalty’ experienced by women with children which are drawn mainly from Becker’s (1985) human capital theory. Firstly, Becker’s (1965) model of household specialisation is propounded as a possible explanation. It emphasises that, as discussed in *Section 3.4.1*, women’s perceived biological advantage in childcare duties has led to mothers dedicating more time to those duties rather than growing their human capital. Thus reducing their earning capacity (Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). Secondly, the argument is made that women with children are more likely to choose less traditional, more family friendly types of work, such as part-time work. Subsequently, engaging in this less traditional type of work will limit a woman’s ability to invest in their human capital and therefore, again reduce their earning capacity (Pal and Waldfogel, 2016; Weeden et al., 2016).

In addition to the two human capital based explanations for the ‘child salary penalty’ Pal and Waldfogel (2016) further discuss a third proposed explanation. This is that there exists a stereotype based bias held by employers in relation to the level of competency and commitment women with children have in relation to their work (Correll et al., 2007; Glauber, 2008; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016; Weeden et al., 2016). However, while this explanation exists separately to the two previously discussed human capital explanations it is arguably intrinsically linked to them. Kalleberg (2000:2011) advocates that the changing trends which emerged in working hours, for example part-time or temporary work, since the 1970s have had significant implications on the expectations employers and organisations have of the hours certain

groups of employees are willing to work. Traditionally, more women with children were likely to be found in part-time positions than those women without children or men (Kalleberg, 2000:2011; Correll et al., 2007). Correll et al. (2007) discovered in their analysis of experimental and audit data that employers possess a biased view towards motherhood. Motherhood, they found, is held to be a characteristic of devalued status in relation to work resulting in biased evaluations in terms of the levels of competency and commitment women with children possess towards their work (Correll et al., 2007).

Contrasting with these views held by employers towards mothers Correll et al. (2007) found that characteristics applied to fatherhood involved not only that fathers had both greater competency and commitment but also a greater overall ability to do their job. Fathers, they found, were more likely to receive a starting salary which was considerably higher than the recommended average in comparison to similarly qualified childless men (Correll et al., 2007). Consequently, in contrast to the negative stereotypical traits associated with motherhood, fatherhood, in terms of employment, is viewed by employers as a positive trait (Correll et al., 2007; Glauber, 2008; Hodges and Budig, 2010). This has led to the existence of a stereotype threat which has influenced the expectations surrounding the work capabilities and performance of women with children (Correll and Ridgeway, 2003; Hodges and Budig, 2010).

Moreover, Kanter (1977) observed that the gendered nature of the organisation, a patriarchal nature, was further leading to the segregation of women. A nature that Simpson (2000), Schein (2007) and Adapa, Rindfleisch and Sheridan (2016) all found still exists decades after Kanter's (1977) original study. The existing structure of an organisation and how the work itself is structured within that organisation will profoundly impact on the progression of women in the management function, as these existing structures will define what happens with the organisation in the future (Burke and Vinnicombe, 2006). Furthermore, Schein (2007) highlights that it is the gendered stereotyping of the structure of work, particularly in how the role of manager should be performed, that has created barriers to women entering the management function. This creates obstacles in achieving success beyond the middle management levels for a considerable quantity of those women who have gained entrance into the management function (Schein, 2007). It is the norms and expectations surrounding the role of a manager which create these barriers (Schein, 2007).

Hoyt and Murphy (2016) emphasise the role implicit leadership theories have in how people evaluate actual and potential leaders. Implicit leadership theories encapsulate the intuitive and preconceived beliefs that people hold surrounding what it means to be a leader, including what personality characteristics, behaviour and gender the ideal leader should possess (Forsyth and Nye, 2008; Junker and van Dick, 2014; Carnes, Houghon and Ellison, 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). Rudman and Phelan (2008) accentuate that, due to implicit leadership theories, in order to be perceived as suitable leaders women must disavow traditional feminine stereotypes and engage in counterstereotypical behaviour presenting themselves as the atypical woman. However, they argue that in doing so women subsequently experience negative reactions, a backlash effect, which may present as a barrier to their career progression (Rudman, 1998; Rudman and Fairchild, 2004; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Hoyt and Murphy, 2006). Additionally, they acknowledge that while men may also a backlash effect for disavowing traditional masculine stereotypes it is rarely a requirement for any career advancement (Rudman and Phelan, 2008). The norms and expectations surrounding the role of manager resulting from implicit leadership theories, therefore, present as more of a barrier for women than for men.

Kanter (1977) further contends that the existence of any patriarchal nature to the organisational structure will present as an additional barrier to women in their career progression. She asserts that a gendered structure will emerge from this which will influence the organisational fit of women. She highlights that her observations at 'Indsco' aided her in the conclusion that the homogeneity which existed historically amongst male managers has generated a closed circle around the management structure (Richard et al., 2004; Van der Steen, 2010). This closed circle, Kanter (1977) alleges, created difficulty amongst male managers in sharing power with their female colleagues when they began their entrance into the management functions. Blau's (1977) 'Theory of Heterogeneity', further supports Kanter (1977) in this observation. Blau (1977) argues that within groups communication is more prevalent among those homogeneous members. This phenomenon, Kanter (1977) contends, originated from the early positions women held within the organisational structure; the significantly gender defined secretarial role; a role existing within its own hierarchy and reward system. Schein (2007) supports this view, arguing that the patriarchal assumption that masculine traits are a requisite for any successful manager is a significant barrier to

women in seeking promotion into the management function. Furthermore, she contends that any eradication of this widely held assumption must begin with the adjustment of promotional criteria to incorporate the various different approaches which may be employed by individuals in their performance of the management role (Schein, 2007; Forsyth and Nye, 2008; Junker and van Dick, 2014; Carnes et al., 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). Additionally, Kanter (1977) argues that the numerical distribution of men and women throughout the organisation will not only produce the intrinsic beliefs that women possess with regard to promotional possibilities but it will also have significance in what is actually happening in the organisation in this regard.

Essentially, a male dominance at all levels of the management function is going to reduce the possibility of any significant quantity of women being promoted and will have significance on the experiences of those women who are positioned within management (Kanter, 1977). Simpson (2000) studied this hypothesis by surveying ninety female managers and conducting in-depth interviews with sixteen of the original ninety managers. The aim of the research was to explore what significance the numerical distribution of men and women at the different management levels of the organisation held for the female managers. She found that the gender mix existing within the management levels will not only have a significant impact on the extent of progression women achieved throughout those levels but will also impact on the barriers to progression they face and their overall sense of fit within the organisation (Simpson, 2000).

Furthermore, research by Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey (2012), examining data from 20,000 private sector firms for the years 1990-2003, established that those firms with an above average share of female managers at the top management levels also displayed higher shares of female managers at middle levels of management. Simpson (2000) propounds, therefore, that the greater the patriarchal nature existing throughout the management levels the more significant the barriers to progression encountered by the women. This is further supported by Palmer and Bosch (2017) who emphasise the role that the gender of those in senior management, such as the CEO, has in the production of gendered patterns in promotion. They posit that the 'similar-to-me paradigm' existing within social identity theory is responsible for this (Goldberg, 2005; Palmer and Bosch, 2017). Social identity theory argues that an individual will evaluate those in whom they recognise similarities to themselves more favourable than

those in whom they recognise differences in order to maintain a consistent favourable self-identity (Gaertner and Dovidio, 2000; Golberg, 2005). This allows, Palmer and Bosch (2017) argue, for gender inequalities to become embedded in the organisational structure.

In addition to this, Cross (2010), highlights that the lack of flexibility in how the role of manager should be performed has generated additional barriers for women entering and progressing in the role. This lack of flexibility is arising, in part, from the long working hours necessity associated with the role of manager. The necessity for long working hours has become an accepted expectation of those in the management role (Cross, 2010). Skinner, Cathcart and Pocock (2016) emphasise there exists a norm, a traditional masculine ideal within organisations of valuing those workers who are willing and capable of prioritising work over other commitment, such as childcare (Albion, 2004; Pocock, Charlesworth and Chapman, 2013). Knudsen (2009) highlights this lack of flexibility in the expectations surrounding the role of manager is proving detrimental to those women who have family duties external to their work life. Additionally, Schein (2007) questions if it is the historical dominance of men within the management functions which has led to the development of a structure which, through prevailing stereotype based biases, essentially excludes women.

North-Samardzic and Taksa (2011) further question the influence of historically derived perceptions surrounding the management role and the levels of commitment and capability possessed by women have had. They expand on this further, arguing that until the responsibility of family duties is recognised as a one held by both male and female managers there will be no change to the status quo. Essentially until the role of a manager is recognised as one which is capable of performance regardless of family circumstances there will be little success in achieving change; specifically, until it is recognised by male managers that family duties are not just female duties change is unattainable (North-Samardzic and Taksa, 2011). The onus in achieving this North-Samardzic and Taksa (2011) argue, is on the organisation and a possible approach to rectifying this is to treat male and female employees equally in terms of flexibility.

In consideration of the discussed gendered structures explanation, Blackburn et al. (2002) argue that as a proposed explanation it is one which removes all agency from women. It renders them powerless affording all the power to men. Once true perhaps

but not an accurate representation of men and women today. They argue that if the patriarchal nature of an organisation was truly an explanation for vertical gender segregation then its influence should be evident in all manners of occupational segregation (Blackburn et al., 2002). Essentially, while not denying the existence of patriarchy within the management function, Blackburn et al. (2002), contend that if it existed to the extent purported in this explanation then there would be a male dominance in all attractive occupations. This, they argue, is not the reality as men are dispersed throughout all types of labour not just those attractive, high status positions (Blackburn et al, 2002). However, this argument by Blackburn et al. (2002) relies heavily on an assumption; that all men are equal under patriarchy. Thus all men would have an equal opportunity to attain the more attractive occupations (Dworkin, 1981; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2007). This is not the reality of patriarchy. The existence of a patriarchal structure would allow certain men greater opportunities over women, not all men (Dworkin, 1981; Wilkinson and Pickett, 2007).

Blackburn's et al. (2002) argument is that women today do possess agency, agency which is secured by legislation. Yet despite this the existence of a patriarchal structure has been identified (Kanter, 1977; Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Van der Steen, 2010). Perhaps similarly to the human capital and rational choice theories being products of vertical segregation rather than an explanation for it, the gendered structures of both the organisation and the management role are products of vertical segregation rather than an explanation for its existence. Furthermore, perhaps it is the existence of vertical gender segregation which allows the continuation of the inflexibility surrounding the management role and enables for any patriarchal structure in an organisation to continue (Blackburn et al., 2002).

3.4.3 Cultural Causes of Vertical Gender Segregation

A third propounded theory is that vertical gender segregation is the product of culture. According to the Longman New Universal Dictionary (1982, p. 238) culture may be defined as “the socially transmitted pattern of human behaviour that includes thought, speech, action, institutions and artefacts” and “the customary beliefs, social forms etc. of a racial, religious or social group”. Ridgeway (2009) argues that to facilitate interaction between the individual members of any society there exists a need for the development of shared common knowledge between those members. This common knowledge is the cultural knowledge upon which society operates (Ridgeway, 2007;

Ridgeway and England, 2007; Ridgeway, 2009; Walker, Webster and Bianchi, 2011). Individuals use this cultural knowledge to categorise and define themselves and others in order to understand both the expected and likely behaviour of individuals in a given situation (Ridgeway, 2007; Ridgeway, 2009). As discussed in *Section 3.4.1* these categorisations can result in both stereotypes and biases towards those to whom they are applied (Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Duguet, du Parquet and Petit, 2017).

The categorisations which form cultural knowledge are generated by focusing on the differences between individuals; someone is categorised as a member of one group because they do not fit into another group; i.e. if a person is not male then they must be female (Ridgeway, 2009). This allows for the placing of individuals into particular categories or groups enabling a shared cultural knowledge of how the members of that group are expected to act (Ridgeway, 2009; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Duguet et al., 2017; Bohnet, 2016;). Bohnet (2016) notes that this enables the development of heuristics allowing individuals to process information quickly in any given situation. However, she emphasises that these heuristics may often be inaccurate (Bohnet, 2016). Eliot (2009) argues that awareness of cultural knowledge begins from birth onwards. An individual's cultural knowledge, therefore, is well developed and deep rooted before even reaching majority (Eliot, 2009; Kemper, 2011; Hofstede, 2015).

It is this categorisation process from which stereotypes arise. Once an individual is identified as belonging to a particular category the cultural knowledge surrounding that category is automatically applied to that individual (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Ridgeway 2009). Ridgeway and Correll (2004) argue that as all members of a society are aware of the expected behaviours, the stereotypes, aligned with any category of which they are a member they will expect to be judged by them, irrespective of their own beliefs regarding the stereotypes. This results in the individual giving considerable consideration to these stereotypes in their own behaviour and actions. Consequently, this has resulted in shared cultural knowledge producing the rules surrounding the expected and accepted behaviour in a society (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Ridgeway, 2009).

Ridgeway (2009) posits that gender is one of the primary frames around which cultural knowledge is formed. She argues that the cultural knowledge with regard to gender is

derived from focusing on the presumed differences between how the genders are likely to react in a certain situation (Ridgeway, 2009). Gender stereotypes arise, therefore, from the beliefs society hold about the average man and woman (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick and Xu, 2002; Eagly and Karau, 2002; Ridgeway, 2009). Descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotypes contain the culturally held perceptions, the societal norms, of what men and women are like and what they should be like (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Eagly, Beall and Sternberg, 2005; Heilman and Parks-Stamm, 2007; Heilman, 2012). Once the gender of an individual has been established these beliefs tend to be automatically applied (Bohnet, 2016; Bordalo, Coffman, Gennaioli and Shliefer, 2016).

However, using differences to form cultural knowledge does not necessarily imply an inequality will result. For instance, a cultural knowledge of the presumed differences between how men and women react in certain circumstances does not automatically mean that one of the genders reactions will be viewed more favourably than the other; i.e. it is not automatic that the presumed male or female reaction in a certain situation is the more desired or appropriate one. It only when a higher level of status is granted to the characteristics of either the presumed male or female reaction over the other, such as favouring the presumed male reaction in leadership situations, that inequalities result (Fiske et al., 2002; Forsyth and Nye, 2008; Ridgeway, 2009; Junker and van Dick, 2014; Carnes et al., 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016).

Consequently, Kemper (2011) argues that there exists within each society a status-power dynamic. The shared cultural knowledge within a society results in individuals conferring status upon others both freely and involuntarily. Hofstede (2015) further expands this concept by arguing that inside a society there exists a desire within each individual to acquire as much status as possible, while subsequently avoiding the power of others. He further highlights that much of this power is associated with, and derived from, established social roles and the shared common knowledge surrounding those roles (Hofstede, 2015). These recognised roles such a wife, mother, police officer or teacher and the institutions in which these roles are usually established, such as marriage, schools or the justice system allows for the removal of any ambiguity as to whom, and what roles, status should freely be awarded. Furthermore, it clarifies the level of status which is to be granted to each role (Walker et al., 2011; Kemper, 2011; Hofstede, 2015).

These established social roles, with their recognised status and power, are what have become known as the authority roles (Hofstede, 2015). These recognised authority roles will differ from society to society and Hofstede (2015) argues that the culture of any given society could be considered as defining rules of the status-power dynamic. Walker et al. (2011) further emphasise that these rules are not only culturally defined but they may also change over time within a culture. Consequently, the distinctions in culture between nations will result in national variations of these rules. These national variations in the status-power dynamic rules will result in variations in the cultural knowledge of what is to be considered an authority role and the status and power to be granted to that role (Hofstede, 2015).

Hofstede (1991) argues that the difference in national cultures may be categorised into five dimensions as displayed in *Table 3.8*. These five dimensions are power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and Confucian dynamism (Hofstede, 1991). Utilising data collected from surveying IBM Worldwide employees Hofstede, (1991) demonstrates that the values and attitudes of managers towards various situations will differ from culture to culture. He argues that in more masculine societies the gender roles are more clearly defined with men viewed as decisive and assertive and women as modest and tender (Hofstede, 1991). These gendered roles are the manifestations of the cultural knowledge of what men and women are, and should be, like. Should an individual be found in a role contrary to their culturally assigned gendered role they no longer fit the societal mental model of what the ideal man or women should be. In essence they are violating the social norm (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Eagly et al., 2005, Heilman & Parks-Stamm, 2007; Bohnet, 2016)

It is these individual cultural views and understandings which will differ in each national culture, that influence the cultural type which develops within the organisation (Hofstede, 1991; Mensi-Klarbach, 2014). Rutherford (2001), in her contextual paper on gender and organisational culture, highlights that an organisation does not exist within a vacuum. It is susceptible to influence from society and its own historical roots. Itzin (1995) and Maddock (1999) both agree with this and emphasise that the obstacles encountered by women, such as vertical gender segregation, within an organisation are reinforced by the established organisational culture. Furthermore, they accentuate that the established organisational culture found internally in an

organisation will be linked to the wider societal culture (Itzin, 1995; Maddock, 1999). How gender is represented and viewed in the wider society, on public boards and in government for example, will influence the collective views held by a society towards the management role. Therefore, the obstacles encountered by women internally in the organisation are linked to the obstacles they encounter in society (Mensi-Klarbach, 2014; Hesmondhalgh and Baker 2015).

The cultural implications on the continued existence of vertical gender segregation, therefore, are twofold: the wider societal culture and the organisational culture. Essentially the ideas, customs and behaviours both inside the organisation and outside it stems from the wider external environment within which the organisation is situated (Rutherford, 2001; Hesmondhalgh and Baker, 2015). Accordingly, Mensi-Klarbach (2014), offers a proposed framework for conducting research on gender topics in management, arguing that as organisations and their culture are influenced by the societal environment in which they are located it is, therefore, unwise to analyse them separately.

However, despite considerable volumes of writings focusing on the topic of organisational culture, there is no universally accepted definition of what the components of organisational culture are. Brown (1998) highlights that the chosen definition of organisational culture a researcher adopts will have considerable implications on how they study it. For the purpose of this research a combination of Schein's (1985) and Rutherford's (2001) definitions will be utilised. Schein (1985) suggests that organisational culture involves the basic normative assumptions held by the members of the organisation that will lead to them acting and thinking in a certain way. Additionally, Rutherford (2001, p. 373) defines organisational culture as "...the symbols, beliefs and patterns of behaviour of organisational members".

For the purpose of this research, therefore, organisational culture will be defined as the established and accepted beliefs and behaviours of those people within the organisation. Consequently, organisational culture has the capacity to both include and exclude people, or groups, within the organisation (Rutherford, 2001). Furthermore, as the organisational culture essentially embodies the accepted beliefs and behaviours of the people within that organisation it can provide a sense of security, and act as a defence, from the unknown. Subsequently, this can result in attachment to the existing

organisational culture and, therefore, any attempts to modify the culture of an organisation can be greeted with significant resistance (Rutherford, 2001). Consequently, with regard to the vertical gender segregation of women within management the organisational culture can have a significant impact.

How the role and function of a manager is viewed culturally within the organisation will influence the fit of women within that function and role (Kanter, 1977; Mensi-Klarbach, 2014; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). Brown (1998) reiterates that as the organisational culture is created by the people within the organisation it will be heavily influenced by the views held within the wider society from which those people originate. As discussed in *Section 3.4.2* implicit leadership theories have a significant part in defining how the management role is viewed by the wider society. Consequently, the societal view of the management role will help form the cultural view of women and the management role within the organisation (Forsyth and Nye, 2008; Junker and van Dick, 2014; Carnes et. al, 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016).

The tenacity of the influence of societal held views of the management role is evident in Cross and Linehan's (2006) study of the Irish high-tech sector. As a new emerging industrial sector, they argue, that the historical gender roles observed in established industries should be absent. Cross and Linehan (2006) argue that as a new industry it was in a prime position to provide a genderless organisational culture, where both men and women would be afforded parity of opportunity and participation throughout the management function. This failed to materialise, however, and the widely held societal views became the industry views (Cross and Linehan, 2006).

Historically the management role was linked, by those early theorists such as Taylor, Bernard, Weber and Mayo, with what was described as masculine traits. This, as Kanter (1977) emphasised, became the accepted belief held by the wider society and, thus formed part of the culture within the organisation. These supposed masculine traits formed the stereotypical underpinnings of implicit leadership theories. As discussed in *Section 3.4.2* women who, in order to be perceived as suitable leaders, engage in counterstereotypical behaviour may experience a backlash effect which will negatively impact on their career progression (Rudman, 1998; Rudman and Fairchild, 2004; Hoyt and Murphy, 2006; Rudman and Phelan, 2008). Bohnet (2016) refers to this phenomenon as an agency penalty. She highlights that what is often perceived

within the organisation as self-confidence and entrepreneurship in men is viewed as self-promotion and arrogance in women (Bohnet, 2016).

Bohnet (2016) further highlights the importance of potential biases can have on career progression. Azmat and Petrongolo (2014) in their discussion of the contribution of field and lab experiments to gender and labour market research, emphasise that discrimination against both women and men exists within organisations. They argue that this is particularly evident in those positions associated with, and dominated by, a specific gender. Furthermore, even in those organisations who have made conscious efforts to increase gender diversity at entry level there still exists a gender gap in the top decision making positions (Blau and De Varo, 2007; Bohnet, 2016). Bohnet (2016) posits that this gendered promotional gap may be the result of the cultural views of the gender roles. Inesi and Cable's (2015) study involving the evaluation processes of the U.S. military discovered the existence of a 'gendered hierarch threat'. Those women whose overall performance rated strong were penalised by male evaluators for violating the gender norms. Contrastingly, when evaluated by female evaluators no such phenomenon was evident (Inesi and Cable, 2015).

Subsequently, inquiry into cultural theories as a possible explanation for the continual vertical gender segregation of women offers the possibility of both the previously discussed theories in *Section 3.4.1* and *Section 3.4.2* not existing as independent explanations. They may instead exist as an interwoven elements of cultural theories. With regard to Becker's (1985; 1991) human capital theory it is arguably embroiled in the cultural knowledge surrounding the gender roles (Blackburn et al, 2002; Ridgeway, 2009; North-Samardzic and Taksa, 2011; Ahmed and McGillivray 2015). As the organisational culture is created by the people within the organisation this cultural knowledge has been adopted from the outside environment into the organisational culture (Brown, 1998; Rutherford, 2001).

Furthermore, if the culture within the organisation is one which supports the statistical discrimination that women are less committed to their work than their male colleagues it could offer a possible explanation for the significant difference in investment made by employers into their female employees in comparison to their male employees (Estevez-Abe, 2006; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Thomas, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Wiswall and Zafar, 2017; Duguet et al., 2017;).

Furthermore, the gendered nature of the organisation which Kanter (1977), Simpson (2000) and Schein (2007) all observed and the role implicit leadership theories play in how leaders are evaluated could again be said to be intrinsically linked to cultural knowledge (Schein, 2007; Ridgeway, 2009; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). These assumptions will form part of the organisational culture which, consequently, will influence the impression female managers will have of their promotional prospects (Cross and Linehan, 2006; Cross, 2010).

As discussed in *Section 3.4.1* Cross (2010) identified two significant considerations female managers hold in regard to pursuing further promotion which is also linked to organisational culture. The gender stereotypical attitudes established in the organisational culture, stemming from those found in society, influence the promotional aspirations held by female managers (Forsyth and Nye, 2008; Wood, 2009; Hoyt and Murphy 2016). This cultural knowledge resonates throughout the structure of the organisation and, subsequently, in how the work performed in that organisation is structured (Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey, 2012; Mensi-Klarbach, 2014).

As an explanation for the existence of the vertical gender segregation of women within management, cultural theories would appear to have some credence. The cultural knowledge of gender will be amalgamated into the organisation's view of gender through the organisational culture. If the cultural knowledge within a society does not support women within leadership roles, then the vertical segregation of women will occur (Ridgeway, 2009). The gender views found in the beliefs and behaviours within the organisational culture are constantly reaffirmed through the processes, practices and actions occurring in the daily operations (Mensi-Klarbach, 2014). Thus, gender views become ingrained in all aspects of the organisation. This level of incorporation, coupled with the general resistance to any attempt to modify or change the culture, results in incremental improvements to the level of parity of opportunity for women. Improvements which are often lagging behind those improvements found in wider society (Rutherford, 2001; Mensi-Klarbach, 2014).

Table 3.8 Hofstede's Five Dimensions of National Cultures (Brown, 1998, p. 44)

Dimension	Explanation	Country Example	Country Example
Power Distance	<p>- Refers to the level of acceptance by the less powerful members of organisations within a country that power is distributed unequally.</p> <p>- <u>Low power distance countries</u>: inequalities are minimised, decentralisation is common, examples of privilege and status are less evident and consultation at all levels is expected</p> <p>- <u>High power distance countries</u>: inequalities are considered desirable, little consultation between subordinates and superiors, and evident differentials in salary and privileges between superiors and subordinates.</p>	<p><u>Low power distance</u></p> <p>Ireland</p> <p>Austria</p> <p>Denmark</p> <p>Sweden</p>	<p><u>High power distance</u></p> <p>Malaysia</p> <p>Mexico</p> <p>Panama</p> <p>Philippines</p>
Individualism/Collectivism	<p>-Refers to the level to which individual independence or social cohesion dominate.</p> <p>- <u>Individualistic societies</u>: individual expected to care for themselves (and immediate family), societal ties between individuals loose and employment contracts are based on mutual benefit.</p> <p>- <u>Collective societies</u>: people are members of strong 'groups' who, in exchange for unquestioning loyalty, protect them and employment contracts are viewed in more moral terms.</p>	<p><u>Individualistic societies</u></p> <p>UK</p> <p>USA</p> <p>Canada</p> <p>Australia</p>	<p><u>Collective societies</u></p> <p>Panama</p> <p>Guatemala</p> <p>Colombia</p> <p>Indonesia</p>

Masculinity/Femininity	<p>-Refers to the extent to which social gender roles are clearly defined</p> <p>- <u>Masculine societies</u>: clear gender roles with managers expected to be assertive with emphasis placed on competition amongst co-workers.</p> <p>- <u>Feminine societies</u>: gender roles overlap with a focus on equality, compromise and negotiation.</p>	<p><u>Masculine societies</u></p> <p>Austria</p> <p>Japan</p> <p>Italy</p> <p>Mexico</p>	<p><u>Feminine societies</u></p> <p>Sweden</p> <p>Denmark</p> <p>Norway</p> <p>Finland</p>
Uncertainty Avoidance	<p>-Refers to the level of uncertainty members of a society experience when uncertain, or unfamiliar, situations are encountered.</p> <p>- <u>Low uncertainty avoidance</u>: high tolerance of unfamiliar situations, innovation is encouraged and people are motivated by achievement.</p> <p>- <u>High uncertainty avoidance</u>: existence of a fear of the unfamiliar, innovation is resisted and people are motivated by security.</p>	<p><u>Low uncertainty avoidance</u></p> <p>UK</p> <p>Sweden</p> <p>Denmark</p> <p>Singapore</p>	<p><u>High uncertainty avoidance</u></p> <p>Greece</p> <p>Portugal</p> <p>Japan</p> <p>Belgium</p>
Confucian Dynamism	<p>-Refers to whether short-termism or long-termism is dominant in people's life.</p> <p>- <u>Short-termism</u>: emphasis is placed on obligations arising from social, or status, obligations and holding a high respect for traditions.</p> <p>- <u>Long-termism</u>: limits are placed on the respect given to social status and flexibility towards traditions is granted.</p>	<p><u>Short-termism</u></p> <p>UK</p> <p>Canada</p> <p>Pakistan</p> <p>Philippines</p>	<p><u>Long-termism</u></p> <p>Japan</p> <p>China</p> <p>Hong-Kong</p> <p>South Korea</p>

3.5 Vertical Gender Segregation and SMEs

The argument has been made that the gender inequalities discussed in *Section 3.4.1* resulting in vertical gender segregation should not be as prevalent in small to medium sized enterprises (SMEs) as they are in larger organisations. Viewed traditionally as having a more informal, family-feeling working environment it is contended that SMEs are the perfect setting for equal opportunity practices to thrive. (Lavorie, 2004; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; Ram, Edwards and Jones, 2007; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012 Stumbitz et al., 2018). Due to the absence of a rigid hierarchical management structure in favour of a more informal management approach closer working relationships have been observed in SMEs. Theoretically, it is argued this should enable greater flexibility in employment practices. Thus, presenting greater career progression opportunities for all. However, there is a distinct lack of empirical evidence to support these assumptions. (Cassell, Nadin, Gray and Clegg, 2002; Lavoie, 2004; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Stumbitz et al., 2018).

3.5.1 Defining Small to Medium Enterprises

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2005) defines small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) as "... non-subsidary, independent firms which employ fewer than a given number of employees". The upper limit of this given number of employees varies from country to country. The European Union (EU) designates the upper limit as 250 employees while other countries have a lower limit of 200. The United States has a higher limit of 500 employees (OECD, 2005). An enterprise is designated as small if it has fewer than 50 employees, while a micro-enterprise will have at most 10 employees (OECD, 2005).

Along with employee numbers financial assets may also be used to categorise a firm as an SME (OECD, 2005). The EU sets the financial ceilings for those firms located within each of the member states. To be categorised as a medium-sized enterprise a firm's turnover should not exceed €50 million, while the turnover of a small-sized enterprise should not exceed €10 million. The turnover of a micro-size enterprise should not exceed €2 million (OECD, 2005).

For the purpose of this thesis an organisation will be categorised as an SME based on employee numbers following the European Union's established limits as previously discussed.

3.5.2 Economic Importance of SMEs

Within the European Union (EU) as a whole, and to each of its member states individually, the SME sector is one which is of significant economic importance (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Cegarra-Navarro, Sanchez-Vidal and Cegarra-Leiva, 2016; Eurostat, 2018). Approximately 99 per cent of enterprises within the EU may be defined as an SME. They account for just over 66 per cent of job creation in the labour market generating approximately 56 per cent of value added (European Commission, 2017). Similarly, in Ireland the SME sector accounts for approximately 99 per cent of enterprises and is responsible for over 70 per cent of job creation in the Irish labour market. However, the value added is lower than the EU average accounting for about 36 per cent (European Commission, 2017).

Statistics from the European Commission (2017) identify approximately 250,143 firms in Ireland as SMEs employing 927, 759 persons and generating €66.1 billion value added. A total of 138 companies included in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 were Irish owned SMEs (Irish Times, 2017). The SME sector is independently represented in Ireland by the Irish SME Association (ISME), a not-for-profit association with over 10,500 SME members (ISME, 2018).

3.5.3 Gender Equality Research and SMEs

Despite the continual importance of SMEs as a major source of job creation globally there is a scarcity in the research devoted to the experiences of employees within SMEs with regard to vertical gender segregation (Cassell et al, 2002; Lavoie, 2004; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Stumbitz et al., 2018). Kirrane et al., (2016), for example, in their report *Women in Management – the Leadership Pipeline* specifically excluded those organisation with fewer than 150 employees. However, where studies have been undertaken on SMEs with regard to gender equality researchers have acknowledged that once the nature of the study became known the level of corporation and engagement from SMEs diminished resulting in low response rates from possible participants (Woodham and Lupton, 2006; McKeith et. al, 2010).

Additionally, it has been proposed that this deficiency in SME specific research is derived from the inference that SMEs are not as significant as larger firms and that they should learn from, and adopt, the practices of larger firms (Hendry et al., 1995; Cassell, 2002; Psychogios et al., 2016). Yet researchers argue that this assumption that the research conducted on larger firms is transferrable to SMEs is a flawed one (Cassels et al., 2002; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016; Stumbitz et al., 2018). There are distinct differences, it is argued, in the labour resources, HRM practices and availability of capital between SMEs and larger firms. These differences generate the unique key characteristics of the SME preventing research on larger firms from adequately explaining practices within SMEs (Cassels et al., 2002; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016; Stumbitz et al., 2018).

3.6 Literature on Solutions to Vertical Gender Segregation

As discussed in *Section 3.2* throughout the second half of the twentieth century there was one main consistent and logical argument made in the literature in relation to vertical gender segregation and its possible eradication. This argument postulated that as the number of women in employment increased it would naturally follow that the number of women progressing into management, particular those higher status decision making positions, would also increase (Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017). This would reduce vertical gender segregation. However, despite the increased participation of women in the labour force this projected increase of women in the main decision making positions has failed to materialise (Cross, 2010; Pande and Ford, 2011; Kalysh, Kulik and Perera, 2016; Cross et al., 2017). This has resulted in the conclusion that it is unlikely that any change to vertical gender segregation will occur organically (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016; Gabaldon et al., 2016).

Consequently, various solutions have been proposed with the objective of alleviating vertical gender segregation. These solutions can be divided into those which are concerned with ‘equality of outcomes’ and those concerned with ‘equality of opportunities’ (Pande and Forde, 2011; Seierstad and Opsahal, 2011; Nielsen and Tvarno, 2012; Gabaldon, Anca, Mateos de Cabo and Gimeno, 2016). Solutions focused on ‘equality of outcomes’ involve the use of hard measures such as mandatory quotas and targets to tackle gender inequality (Seirestad and Opsahal,

2011). Those solutions concerned with achieving ‘equality of opportunities’ aim to stimulate demand for women in the top decision making positions rather than forcing women into these positions through legislation. This may involve a focus on providing opportunities for women to continually invest in their human capital thus ensuring they have the necessary skills for senior management roles. Similarly, ‘equality of opportunity’ approaches may be used to simulate the involvement of women within areas where they are generally under-represented such as in the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects. ‘Equality of opportunity’ initiatives usually involve soft law approaches such as behavioural design with the objective of eradicating the stereotypes surrounding women and the use of work-life practices to provide greater opportunity for women to progress in their careers. (Pande and Forde, 2011; Nielse and Tvarnø, 2012). These proposed solutions shall be discussed in *Sections 3.6.1 and 3.6.2*.

3.6.1 Equality of Outcomes

Gabaldon et al. (2016) in their discussion of vertical gender segregation from a demand and supply perspective argue that it results from a demand led problem. They contend that this has led to the introduction of ‘equality of outcomes’ policies. The objective of these policies is to raise the number of women in decision making positions through the manipulation of the hiring and promotional policies of organisations. This may involve the introduction of mandatory gender quotas or voluntary gender quotas or targets (Gabaldon et al., 2016).

3.6.1.1 Mandatory Gender Quotas

The most common ‘equalities of outcomes’ approach being adopted is the introduction of the legislative mandatory gender quota. Since early 2000s this approach has been introduced across several jurisdictions but not Ireland (Meier, 2014; Gabaldon et al., 2016). Terjesen and Sealy (2016, p. 25) define the usage of mandatory quotas to tackle vertical gender segregation as a “radical change agenda”. They emphasise that based on social identity theory it is not until a ‘critical mass’ of approximately 30 per cent of each gender has been reached that any substantial change to a group dynamic can occur (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). Essentially, if the appointment of women to the Board of Directors of any organisation is to have any substantive impact then they need to constitute at least 30 per cent of that boards make-up (Konrad et al., 2008; Joecks et al, 2012; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

However, there are ethical considerations in the use of mandatory quotas to achieve this which have resulted in significant disagreement as to their suitability as a solution for gender inequality (Pande and Forde, 2011; Gopalan and Watson, 2015; Holst and Kirsch, 2015; Szydlo, 2015 Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

The use of mandatory gender quotes as a solution to vertical gender segregation in business is a relatively new approach (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011). For example, Norway was the first country in the world where its government forced private businesses in 2003 to ensure that they had a gender balance in their boardrooms. Despite thirty years of employment initiatives having achieved a female employment rate almost equal to that of the male employment rate only 10 per cent of Board Directors in Norway at this time were female. To address this the Norwegian Government added an amendment to the Public Limited Companies Act requiring that the board of directors of all companies bound by the Act to be gender balanced (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011; Pande and Ford, 2011; Ahern and Dittmar, 2012; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

The amendment was greeted by strenuous opposition from Norwegian private sector businesses (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). Following consultation and dialogue with those groups impacted by the amendment it was agreed that if the companies voluntarily complied and achieved gender balance by July 2005 the amendment would be withdrawn. However, by this agreed date the number of female directors had only increased by 6 per cent to 16 per cent (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011). In response to this the Norwegian Government, in 2006, introduced a law making it mandatory for all public limited companies to achieve a gender balance of at least 40 per cent of each gender on their boards within a two year period. Those companies who failed to achieve this would be faced with dissolution and de-listing from the Oslo Stock Exchange. By 2008 the number of female directors in all of the listed Norwegian companies had increased to 40 per cent (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011; Carroll, 2014; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

Following the example of Norway numerous other countries have adopted an 'equalities of outcomes' approach and introduced quotas to address the underrepresentation of women in the main decision making positions (Ahern and Dittmar, 2012; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). Various models of gender quotas have

been used by the different countries. Spain, for example, introduced in 2007 a 40 per cent quota to be met by 2015 for all public listed companies with over 250 employees. However, unlike Norway, where non-complying companies would be dissolved or de-listed, Spain choose not to directly penalise those non-complying companies similarly. Instead those non-complying companies would be impacted upon when tendering for state contracts (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

Numerous other examples exist. One being Iceland who adopted a 40 per cent quota for firms with more than 50 employees in 2010 (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). Italy, in 2011, imposed a 20 per cent quota with the threat of fines and the loss of office for directors of those companies who fail to comply (Brogi, 2013; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). Both India and the United Arab Emirates, in 2012 and 2013 respectively, introduced a quota requiring that at least one female director be on each corporate board. However, neither country have strong reporting, nor enforcement, practices in place (Trejesen and Sealy, 2016). In addition to these countries others, such as Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany and Israel, have also introduced variations of quotas (Trejesen and Sealy, 2016; Noland et al, 2016). Overall, globally the number of countries adopting the quota approach is growing annually (Trejesen and Sealy, 2016).

Trejesen and Sealy (2016) highlight that while governments use different models of quotas there exists similarity in the overall reactions by individuals and organisations to their introduction. While some are in favour of the use of mandatory quotas others are strongly opposed. They further emphasise that this has resulted in strong arguments both for and against the use of mandatory quotas in attaining gender balance (Trejesen and Sealy, 2016). Seierstad and Opsahl (2011) explain that quotas are a form of affirmative action with the objective of increasing equality among specific groups. They caution, however, that governments often see equality as simply equal representation between different groups. They further caution that equality is much more multifaceted than this and may be measured across a wide spectrum of measures (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011). It is from this issue that arguments for and against the use of mandatory quotas arises (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011; Pande and Ford, 2011; Trehesen and Sealy, 2016).

In their analysis of the impact the adoption of quotas may have on female leadership Pande and Ford (2011) propose that the use of mandatory quotas may be evaluated from both an equity and efficiency viewpoint. From an equity perspective they proffer that quotas may improve both the descriptive and substantive representation of female managers (Pande and Ford, 2011). Descriptive representation may be defined as "...the extent to which a representative resembles those being represented" (Pitkin, 1967 as cited by Pande and Ford, 2011, p. 11). They argue that mandatory quotas enable women to avoid discrimination through mandating that specific positions be reserved for women. Additionally, they allow for a more equitable representation of women where previously gender barriers in the labour market, such as penalisation due to career interruptions from maternity leave, prevented women attaining those top leadership positions (Pande and Ford, 2011)

Substantive representation may be defined as "...representatives acting in the interest of the represented, in a manner responsive to them" (Pitkin, 1967 as cited by Pande and Ford, 2011, p.11). Pande and Ford (2011) outline the growing body of research which demonstrates that men and women differ in their policy choices (Pande, 2003; Niederle and Vesterlund, 2007; Miller, 2008; Matsa and Miller, 2013). They emphasise that any lack of female leaders may directly result in the interests of women being underrepresented in any policy decisions. Therefore, having mandatory quotas to ensure sufficient female representation may prevent this from occurring (Pande and Ford, 2011).

However, in the argument against mandatory quotas from the equity perspective Pande and Ford (2011) detail how the use of any gender quota may result in the 'crowding-out' of other oppressed groups. They emphasise that allotting specific positions for women will result in fewer positions being available for other underrepresented groups. Furthermore, they highlight that mandatory gender quotas may also have a negative affect for men (Pande and Ford, 2011).

In evaluating mandatory quotas from an efficiency perspective Pande and Ford (2011) highlight that if the lack of women in decision making positions is resulting from discrimination then mandatory quotas may be the correct approach. They argue that mandatory quotas requiring that certain roles be held for women may allow for any biases and stereotypes to be overcome in the short term. Consequently, having

women in these roles may allow for the cultural knowledge generating these biases and stereotypes to be changed in the long term (Pande and Ford, 2011).

Furthermore, Pande and Ford (2011) emphasise the positive externalities which may result from the use of mandatory gender quotas. They proffer that any failures in the market with regard to leadership selection may be corrected through the use of gender quotas. They argue that having women visible in the top decision making positions may allow for a role model effect encouraging other women to aspire for these positions. Consequently, women who previously underinvested in their human capital due to their belief that these top positions were unattainable for them may now be encouraged to invest more in their education and career (Pande and Forde, 2011).

However, in arguing against mandatory quotas from an efficiency perspective Pande and Ford (2011) caution that the use of mandatory gender quotas can generate a demand for female leaders which cannot be adequately met. They highlight that the previous lack of opportunity for women in management has resulted in a paucity of experienced female leaders. Therefore, in order to meet mandatory gender quotas organisations may be required to promote inexperienced, underqualified women resulting in inefficient leadership (Pande and Ford, 2011).

Additionally, Pande and Ford (2011) draw attention to the negative externalities which may result from mandatory gender quotas. They argue that rather than encouraging women to invest in their human capital mandatory quotas may have the opposite effect. If specific positions are required to be held for women then any incentive to invest in human capital may be reduced (Pande and Ford, 2011). Furthermore, they highlight the possibility of mandatory quotas generating a backlash effect for women due to them entering previous male dominated positions. As Rudman and Phelan (2008) demonstrate individuals who are found in counterstereotypical positions may experience a backlash effect impeding their success in the position. Consequently, Pande and Ford (2011) argue mandatory quotas may result in women being stereotypically cast as less qualified for the position they hold and viewed as having only attained this position due to the mandatory quota.

In addition to the equity and efficiency arguments Seierstad and Opsahl (2011) discuss the argument offered by those governments who have introduced quotas. They highlight that governments often introduce gender quotas on the grounds of justice and utility (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011). The justice argument encompasses the creation of a fairer and more equal society with equality between the sexes and the even distribution of power. However, as previously discussed Seierstad and Opsahl (2011) caution that the discussion of achieving equality needs to acknowledge that equality is a multifaceted concept with various measurement parameters. What is viewed as equality by one group may be considered an inequality by another (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011).

Mandatory gender quotas from a utility perspective involves ensuring that there is no wastage of any valuable human resources. This demands the use of the entire labour force and ensuring that full advantage is taken of the talents and capabilities of both genders (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011). In advocating for mandatory quotas on utility grounds Seierstad and Opsahl (2011) suggest that governments are evoking the business case argument. The business case argument involves the concept that diversity at the top management levels will have a positive financial impact on an organisation (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011; Noland, Moran and Kotschwar, 2016).

The results of Noland et al.'s (2016) global survey of almost 22,000 companies suggest that the presence of women in the top decision making positions may have a positive impact on a company's performance. They also found no significant evidence demonstrating any performance differences between those companies from countries who have implemented mandatory gender quotas and those from countries without such quotas (Noland et al., 2016). However, studies by Ahern and Dittmar (2012) and Matsa and Miller (2013) on Norwegian companies following the introduction of mandatory quotas both found negative impacts on companies arising from the quotas.

Ahern and Dittmar (2012) examined the effect the introduction of the Norwegian mandatory quota had on the stock value of those companies affected by it. They evaluated 248 public listed companies for the years spanning 2001-2009 and found that in the immediate aftermath of the announcement of the law there was a large negative impact on the stock value of those companies affected by the quota.

Furthermore, their study also highlighted that the quota requirement had resulted in younger less experienced women being appointed to the board of directors and increases in leverage and acquisitions. Additionally, they found that in the immediate aftermath of the introduction of quotas there was an overall deterioration in the affected companies operating performance (Ahern and Dittmar, 2012).

Matsa and Miller (2013) conducted a comparison of the financial data from the Norwegian public listed companies impacted by the mandatory quota and a matched sample of non-listed Norwegian companies. Also included in the comparison were listed and non-listed companies in other Nordic countries. For their study a sample of 104 Norwegian public listed companies, excluding banks, financial institutions and petroleum companies, for the years 2003-2009 was compiled. To conduct the comparison a panel consisting of five of the closest companies for each of the public listed companies in the three comparison groups was identified. This resulted in a final sample of 1,103 distinct firms comprising of Norwegian private companies, public and non-listed companies from other Nordic countries and the 104 Norwegian public listed companies (Matsa and Miller, 2013).

Matsa and Miller (2013) following their analysis found that in all the firms, those affected and unaffected by the mandatory quotas, were similar in their non-labour costs and revenue. It was in the employment policies of the companies that the differences emerged. They found that those companies affected by the mandatory quota carried out fewer employee layoffs. This resulted in a higher relative labour cost leading to an overall reduction in the company's short-run profits (Matsa and Miller, 2013).

Contrasting to these two studies is Noland et al.'s (2016) study involving a statistical analysis of 21,980 companies from 91 countries. The data was collected from the 2014 Reuters profiles of the companies. As previously stated they found that the presence of women at top management levels may increase a company's performance and found no significant performance differences between companies in countries with, or without, mandatory quotas (Noland et al., 2016). However, Noland et al. (2016) acknowledge a shortcoming of their study is that the analysis limited to a single year, 2014. They caution that any effect mandatory quotas may have might not have been discerned in the study due to this limitation (Noland et al., 2016).

Terjesen and Sealy (2016) emphasise that as the social view towards women in leadership has begun to change there has been external pressure for this to be reflected in the boardroom. Mandatory quotas may be viewed by legislators as an opportunity to address the homogeneity which has historically existed within the top decision making positions (Joecks, Pull and Vetter, 2012; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). However, Terjesen and Sealy (2016) argue that for any such legislative action to be more than a symbolic change and have actual substantive results then appointment of women to the top decision making positions needs to be more than simply compliance on behalf of the organisations. They posit that this has resulted in some countries not introducing mandatory quotas but instead adopting a method of using a voluntary quotas or targets with an accountability approach (Terjesen and Sealy, 2016).

3.6.1.2 Voluntary Gender Quotas and Targets

Terjesen and Sealy (2016) draw attention to the approach adopted by the UK in tackling vertical gender segregation. In 2011 the results of an independent review, led by Lord Davies, 'Women on Boards' was published. The report details the underrepresentation of women in the top decision making positions in the largest UK companies and outlined recommendations for addressing this (Davies, 2011). The report highlighted that in 2010 only 12.5 per cent of the board members of FTSE 100 companies were women. Furthermore, the report describes how this is only an increase of 3.1 per cent from 2004 when 9.4 per cent of board members were women and underlines how if this rate of change was to continue it would take more than seventy years to achieve gender balance on the boards of these companies (Davies, 2011).

Davies (2011), in the report, draws attention to the various mandatory quotas which have been adopted by other countries but following consultation with the various FTSE companies it was recommended that a different approach be adopted in the UK. It was agreed that all the FTSE 100 companies would aim to reach a target of 25 per cent female representation on their boards by 2015 and the FTSE 350 companies would have to publish what percentage of female board members they would aim to have on their Board of Directors by the same year (Davies, 2011). Additionally, all public listed companies would publish annually the number of women on their boards, in senior management positions and the total number of

female employees in their company. Those companies with all male boards, a lack of women in senior management and an unbalanced number of total female employees would be required to explain the underrepresentation of women in their organisation (Davies, 2011).

Similarly, The 30% Club is an organisation who places an emphasis on the potential effect that voluntary targets may have in terms of eliminating vertical gender segregation (The 30% Club, 2015). Drawing on the previously discussed theory of critical mass arising from 'social identity theory' The 30% Club's campaign aims to enact sustainable change to the gender diversity of Boards of Directors (The 30% Club, 2015; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016). In their opposition to the introduction of mandatory quotas they argue that the use of agreed targets allows for a business led change resulting in a more enduring and extensive transformation in the formation of Board of Directors. This business led change will then allow for an organic reform to the hiring and promotional policies of organisations allowing for gender diversity to flourish at all levels of the organisation (The 30% Club, 2015).

Success through the use of targets can be seen in the follow up review report of Davies, Morgan, Neville-Rolfe and Richards (2015). They reported that by October 2015 the FTSE 100 companies had surpassed the original agreed upon target with female board representation found to be 26.1 per cent. Subsequently, it was recommended that a new target of 33 per cent female representation for all the FTSE 350 companies by 2020 be adopted (Davies et al., 2015). However, Murphy (2017), reporting in the Financial Times, describes how the momentum seen in the initial years following the 2011 report has recently stalled. She highlights that there was no change in the percentage of women making up executive committees within the FTSE 350 companies from 2016 to 2017 (Murphy, 2017). A possible explanation for this stagnation, Murphy (2017) proposes, may be the reduction in focus from the UK Government on achieving gender equality following the results of the Brexit referendum. This stagnation following a monitoring slowdown by the UK Government highlights the importance of continual monitoring in any such voluntary approach to targets in achieving gender equality (Bohnet, 2016).

3.6.2 Equality of Opportunity

Bohnet (2016) emphasises that gender equality should not just be a numbers game. She argues that the selection process for membership to any Board of Directors and how the decision-making power is delegated among those member is equally, if not more, important than the gender percentages (Bohnet, 2016). As discussed in *Sections 3.4.1-3.4.3* stereotypes encompassing both gender and the role of managers and the inflexibility surrounding the role can serve as barriers to the career progression of women into top management positions (Budig and England, 2001; ;Rudman and Glick, 2001; Blau and De Varo, 2007; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Heilman, 2012; Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Killewald, 2012; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Inesi and Cable, 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Brescoll, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Weeden et al, 2016; Duguet et al., 2017). Subsequently, the use of ‘equality of opportunity’ approaches aim to remove these stereotypes and address this inflexibility through initiatives such as behavioural design and flexible working practices.

3.6.2.1 Behavioural Design

Behavioural design is presented as a possible solution to this through the de-biasing of organisations enabling the removal of the biases and stereotypes encountered by many women (Bohnet, 2016). The biased perceptions and expectations leading to the ‘stereotypes threats’, ‘statistical discriminations’, ‘representativeness heuristics’ and ‘agency penalties’ discussed in *Sections 3.4.1-3.4.3* are deep-rooted intrinsic elements of the organisation (Budig and England, 2001; Rudman and Glick, 2001; Blau and De Varo, 2007; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Heilman, 2012; Staff and Mortimer, 2012; Killewald, 2012; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Inesi and Cable, 2015; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Brescoll, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Weeden et al, 2016; Duguet et al., 2017). They are as discussed in *Section 3.4.3*, derived from the shared cultural knowledge held by the individuals who form the organisation (Eliot, 2009; Kemper, 2011; Hofstede, 2015). This results in the de-biasing of any organisation being a complex undertaking (Bohnet, 2016).

The most common global approach taken by organisations to eliminate biases and eradicate stereotypical thinking is the utilisation of diversity training programmes (Bohnet, 2016). However, despite the vast investments made by organisations into these programmes there is little evidence that they actually work (Kray et al., 2001;

Hansen, 2003; Paluck and Green, 2009; Bohnet, 2016). Research has demonstrated that while bias awareness programmes such as diversity training can highlight to the individual the biases which may be applied to them, they often discount themselves as capable of possessing similar biases towards others (Kray et al, 2001; Kim, 2003; Apfelbaum et al, 2008; Bohnet, 2016).

Additionally, Bohnet (2016) cautions that awareness programmes which are specifically designed to raise awareness surrounding issues such as gender or race inequities often result in making gender or race more salient and therefore emphasising differences. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that participating in awareness programmes may lead to the participant engaging in ‘moral licensing’. This occurs when in response to having done something good people do more of something bad (Effron et al., 2009; Castilla and Benard, 2010; Chiou et al., 2011; Bohnet, 2016). Effron et al. (2009) demonstrate an example of ‘moral licensing’ in their study following the 2008 United States Presidential election. They found that some of the white voters who endorsed Barack Obama for President were more likely, following the election, to discriminate against African-Americans (Effron, Cameron and Monin, 2009).

Subsequently, Bohnet (2016) posits that diversity training with a focus on raising awareness of biases alone is insufficient in changing the individual beliefs from which the biases are derived. She argues that to achieve success diversity programmes need to provide individuals with the tools to enable them to make unbiased decisions and change what is the accepted behaviour of the organisation. Furthermore, she emphasises that training programmes should not just inform the individual on what they need to do to enact change but should also provide them with the necessary support to ensure success (Bohnet, 2016).

Highlighting Paluck’s (2009) research in post-genocide Rwanda, Bohnet (2016) argues that diversity programmes should incorporate training to change behaviour in conjunction with raising awareness. Paluck’s (2009) study involved analysing the impact a year-long educational radio soap opera had on the individual prejudices held by the Rwandan listeners. It was discovered that no impact had been made on the listener’s individual beliefs yet significant behavioural changes by the same individuals were observed. Following the year-long radio programme individuals

were found to be more open to inter-marriages between tribes and more willing to facilitate discussion among tribes. It appeared that the behaviour of the listeners was aligned with what was considered socially acceptable behaviour irrespective of their individual beliefs (Paluck, 2009).

Paluck's (2009) research demonstrates that individuals are more inclined to adapt their behaviour if they are aware that most others are already doing it; they will follow the herd. They learn that certain behaviours have become social norms (Bohnet, 2016). This human tendency towards herding behaviour grants the possibility of converting descriptive norms, the actions and behaviour of many, into prescriptive norms, the accepted and expected actions and behaviour within a society or group (Schultz et al., 2007; Bohnet, 2016). A tool which may be utilised by organisations to aid them in designing the behaviour which they have deemed acceptable within their organisation (Bohnet, 2016).

Therefore, it may also be theorised that some form of public accountability may also be a tool which can be used to reduce the impact of biases and influence the behaviour of individuals (Sunstein 1996; Paluck, 2009; Bohnet, 2016). As discussed in *Section 3.5.1* public accountability placed on the organisation itself has been utilised somewhat successfully in the U.K. to address the gender imbalance on corporate boards of FTSE companies. Similar accountability placed on the individual can be used to reduce biases and eliminate stereotypical thinking (Kalev et al., 2006; Bohnet, 2016). Individuals tasked with evaluating others have been found to rely less on stereotypes and be more conscious of possible biases if they know that they will be required to explain their decisions to others afterwards (Kruglanski and Freund, 1983; Lerner and Tetlock, 1999; Paluck and Green, 2009; Bohnet, 2016).

However, Bohnet (2016) highlights that the use of accountability as a tool for evoking behavioural change involves two main limitations. Firstly, it has been found to have a much greater chance of success if the person is aware beforehand that they will be held accountable. The objective of accountability in this context is to be a pro-active tool to enable the individual to diminish the influence their own biases may have during an evaluation process. Any lack of prior knowledge of the accountability requirement may result in a defensive reaction where the person

justifies and rationalises their decision removing this opportunity for any behavioural change (Kruglanski and Freund, 1983; Paluck and Green, 2009; Bohnet, 2016).

Secondly, ideally the views of those to whom accountability is owed should not be known to the individual beforehand. It is argued that this would remove any potential for superficial conformity (Bohnet, 2016). An individual might be more inclined to conduct themselves in the manner they believe the person, or persons, to whom they are accountable requires if they have prior knowledge of their views. Thus, preventing any real and substantive change to any underlying biases from occurring (Kruglanski and Freund, 1983; Paluck and Green, 2009; Bohnet, 2016). However, Bohnet (2016) concedes that while theoretically sound this will rarely be ideal, or indeed possible to achieve, in most organisational settings.

In consideration of the research and literature on the use of behavioural design as a solution to vertical gender the argument in its favour appears to be a compelling one but only if it is utilised appropriately. As discussed awareness training alone has been found to have little impact on eliminating biases and curtailing stereotypes. Any such training also needs to provide the tools and support necessary to ensure success (Kalev, Dobbin and Kelly, 2006; Paluck and Green, 2009; Bohnet, 2016).

3.6.2.2 Flexible Working Practices

A third proposed solution to vertical gender segregation and for addressing the underrepresentation of women in the labour market is through organisational engagement in the ‘equality of opportunities’ approach of flexible working practices. It is the objective of these practices to facilitate the creation a work-family balance (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Straub, 2007; Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Kalysh et al, 2016; Chung, 2018). A work-family balance may be defined as “the degree to which an individual is able to simultaneously balance the temporal, emotional, and behavioural demands of both paid work and family responsibilities” (Hill et al., 2001, quoted by Lyness and Kropf, 2005, p. 34). The European Commission in their 2017 proposal for a Directive on Work Life Balance for Parents and Carers specifically state that the proposal:

...aims at addressing women's under-representation in employment and support their career progression through improved conditions to reconcile their working and private duties (European Commission, 2017, S1).

Therefore, in proposing engagement with flexible work practices the argument is being made that women will have the opportunity to maintain their careers and avail of progression opportunities due to achieving a greater balance between work and family responsibilities (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Kalysh et al, 2016; Straub, 2007; Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Chung, 2018)

Prior research in this area has demonstrated that the benefits from engaging in flexible working practices may be experienced by both the organisation and the employee (Rogier and Padgett, 2004; Breaugh and Frye, 2008; Butts and Casper, 2012; Taneja et al., 2012 Kalysh et al., 2016). Those organisations who engage in work-life practices have experienced increased productivity and innovation in conjunction with decreased employee absenteeism and staff turnover (Rogier and Padgett, 2004; Taneja et al., 2012). For the employee, research has demonstrated that those employees who have the opportunity to avail of flexible working practices exhibit more loyalty and attachment to their organisation. Furthermore, they experience reduced work-family conflicts in contrast to those in similar roles without the option of availing of such practices (Breaugh and Frye, 2008; Butts and Casper, 2012; Beham et al., 2014).

Lyness and Kropf (2005) highlight that achieving any gender equality in employment opportunities is unlikely if the need for a balance between work and family responsibilities is not recognised and supported both within organisations and the wider society. However, research has demonstrated that the overall level of recognition and support for flexible working practices is intrinsically linked to a country's national level of gender equality (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Powell et al., 2009; Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011; Beham et al., 2014).

Dreher (2003) hypothesises that there exists a relationship between the value placed on women within an organisation and the importance granted to flexible working practices within that organisation. He argues that this relationship may be explained by both resource dependency theory and institutional theory (Dreher, 2003). Resource dependency theory proposes that those organisations which are more dependent on female employees, as those in more gender equal societies would be, are more likely to adapt their human resource policies to address the needs of women. While institutional theory envisages that organisations will adapt their policies to fit

with the societal culture in which they are located. Therefore, those organisations located in countries which possess greater gender equality are more likely to adapt their human resource policies to reflect this (Derher, 2003; Lyness and Kropf, 2005). Dreher's (2003) theory on the role the value awarded to women has on the success of flexible working practices is supported in the findings of studies conducted by Lyness and Kropf (2005), Powell et al. (2009), Abendroth and den Dulk (2011), Behman et al (2014) and Kalush et al. (2016).

In studying this hypothesis within a European context Lyness and Kropf (2005) surveyed 505 managers and professionals from twenty European countries. Using the United Nations Gender Development Index Scores of National Gender Equality for these twenty countries they aimed to determine if any potential relationship existed between a country's level of national gender equality and the availability and success of any work-life practices (Lyness and Kropf, 2005). The study was designed to examine this potential relationship using three levels of analysis; level of national gender equality, level of organisational support for work-life balance and the individual characteristics which could impact on a manager's work-family balance (Lyness and Kropf, 2005).

The findings of their study suggested that there is a linkage between the overall level of gender equality within a nation and the availability and support given to organisations with work-life practices (Lyness and Kropf, 2005). Those countries which scored better in their level of national gender equality were found to embrace work-life practices to greater extent than those countries found on the lower end of the gender equality scale. Furthermore, those organisations within the higher scoring countries exhibited a more supportive culture to all their employees, both male and female, availing of work-life practices (Lyness and Kropf, 2005).

Additionally, Lyness and Kropf (2005) observed that the level of gender equality existing within a country can influence any multinational organisation choosing to locate into that country. They observed marked differences existing in organisations with regard to the existence and support given to work-life practices between the home country headquarters and the host country operations (Lyness and Kropf, 2005). Furthermore, they argue that such is the influence of the national attitude to gender equality and work-life practices that irrespective of the main organisational

view of such policies it is the views of the country into which it locates which will triumph (Lyness and Kropf, 2005).

Similarly, in their discussion on the influence that societal and national culture may have on work-life practices Powell et al. (2009) argue that the norms and values with regard to family responsibilities and the existence of any specific gender roles in the delegation of these responsibilities will naturally influence attitudes towards the importance of work-life practices. They contend that this prevailing attitude within a nation will dictate the level of government investment in such policies. Furthermore, they argue it can have, as similarly observed by Lyness and Kropf (2005), significant implications for those multinational organisations when globalising into other countries (Powell, Francesco and Ling, 2009).

Abendroth and den Dulk (2011) again highlight the implications of the societal and national culture on the success of any work-life practices. In their investigation into the implications and relevance of the support received from both the state and the organisation in the successful implementation of work-life policies they surveyed 7867 service-sector workers in eight European countries (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011). They found that the differences in the level of government support between the countries had significant implications on the effectiveness of any policies. Furthermore, they found that the national consensus on just whom responsibility fell to ensure individuals could achieve a standard of work-life balance had additional implications on the success of any policies (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011).

It was observed that in those countries where ensuring a work-life balance is viewed as the private responsibility of individual organisations employees were less inclined to avail of any such flexible working practices (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011). They argue this resulted from the lack of state supported policies such as, for example, adequate maternity, paternity and parental leave and the lack of state subsidised services such as childcare provisions (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011). In contrast, it was found that those countries, such as Sweden and the Netherlands, who view the creation of a work-life balance for their citizens as both a state and organisational responsibility have achieved far greater success in this area (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011).

Additionally, Beham, Drobnic and Prag (2014) highlight that those more gender equal countries who view generating a work-life balance as a dual state and organisation responsibility were more inclined to offer a wider variety of work-life policies to workers. They emphasise that the level of state support offered directly influences the level of organisational support and subsequently directly influences the up-take of such policies by employees (Beham et al., 2014).

Using a hierarchical multiple regression, Kalysh et al. (2016), analysed the relationship between the number of women in management in the years 2010, 2012 and 2014 and the utilisation within the labour force of flexible working practices for the years 2002-2006. They found that while a positive relationship does exist between the proportion of women in management and the use of work-life practices it occurs only after an eight-year lag (Kalysh et al., 2016). Additionally, it was found that this positive relationship was somewhat dependent on the gendered structure of the organisation (Kalysh et al., 2016).

Those organisations which were male dominated in top management did not demonstrate the same positive effect on the career progression of female employees from flexible working practices that the more gender balanced organisations did (Kalysh et al., 2016). Daverth, Hyde and Cassell (2016) similarly found that differences surrounding the use of flexible working practices could be linked to the gendered structure of the organisation. Using a case study approach they observed two separate organisations in Ireland; one with a male-dominated management structure and one gender balanced at middle management but still male dominated at the top levels. They observed that in the male dominated organisation not only was there little up-take of work-life practices by employees but there was also little knowledge amongst managers as to what flexible working practices and policies the organisation actually had in place (Daverth et al., 2016).

Kalysh et al. (2016) argue that this marked difference in the success of flexible working practices arises from the stereotypes surrounding the different genders and the roles associated with them. Highlighting that these stereotypes may be more salient in those male dominated organisations, they argue that this may result in any flexible working practices primarily being marketed towards female employees. Thus, generating the belief that women need additional help to advance into

management (Kalysh et al., 2016). In situations such as this the use of flexible working practices as a solution to vertical gender segregation can actually have the opposite affect and instead generate a stereotype threat for women influencing both their career aspirations and progression (Kalysh et al., 2016).

Additionally, in examining the impact of flexible working practices within smaller organisations and SMEs, Maxwell, Rankine, Bell and MacVicar (2007) highlight the high levels of influence managers in these smaller organisations will have in how successfully flexible working practices are implemented. They found that the resource differences between larger and smaller organisations may result in a less formal and structured approach to any such practices within smaller organisations (Maxwell et al., 2007). They observed that while the smaller organisations are less likely to have formal policies on flexible working practices this did allow for a more 'ad hoc' approach enabling for developing of practices which directly aligned with the needs of the individual employee (Maxwell et al., 2007). However, they caution that the 'ad hoc' approach found in smaller organisations is reliant on the attitude of managers, without any formal policies in place they have the ability to facilitate or impede the use of any flexible working practices (Maxwell et al., 2007).

Dex and Scheibl (2001) had previously observed similar findings to Maxwell et al. (2007) in their comparative study of flexible working practices in SMEs and larger organisations in the UK. They had also observed a more 'ad hoc' approach to flexible working practices in the SMEs in comparison to the larger organisations who were more inclined to have formal policies in place. This, they argued, allowed managers a greater extent of control on what practices could be used and whom they could be used by (Dex and Scheibl, 2001). They also found that a 'lack of resources argument' was often employed by managers as a reason for refusing a request for flexible working practices and that SMEs were more inclined to generate a culture where the responsibility for any flexibility was placed on the employees rather than the organisation. This was achieved through the creation of a culture where employees were encouraged to cover for their colleagues should they need time off, thus removing any involvement from the organisation itself (Dex and Scheibl, 2001).

Subsequently, it can be argued that the availability of any formalised flexible working practices will be linked to the size of an organisation (Kotey and Sharma, 2016;

Kotey, 2017). Furthermore, Kotey (2017) emphasises that the type of organisation will also influence the availability of flexible working practices in smaller organisations. Those organisations whose strategy is reliant on their human capital are more likely to offer flexible working practices than those whose strategy is cost focused (Kotey, 2017). However, Kotey and Sharma (2016), highlight that as an organisation grows the availability of flexible working practices also appears to expand arising, they argue, from the need to retain and attract human capital.

Furthermore, research on the success of flexible working practices also places emphasis on the negative association often held by individuals towards the impact that availing of these practices may have on their career progression. It is argued that employees often fear that if they avail of such practices they are creating the impression that the demands of their work and their own career progression are not their priority; that there is a stigma attached to the use of flexible working practices for caring purposes (Burke, 2006; Dikkers et al., 2007; Munsch, 2016; Daverth et al., 2016; Chung, 2018; Chung and Van der Lippe, 2018). It has been found that those who avail of part-time or flexible working hours are often offered fewer training opportunities than those on more traditional hours. Additionally, part-time work is often view as detrimental to promotional prospects and as incompatible with the higher management roles (Kirby and Krone, 2002; Daverth et al., 2016;).

Additionally, it has been argued that the stigma attached to the use of flexible working practices has a gendered nature which may potentially reinforce the traditional gender roles both with regard to the labour market and in the home (Chung, 2018; Chung and Van der Lippe, 2018). This occurs in the differences in why men and women are expected to avail of flexible working practices. Women are expected to request and avail of such practices to enable them to manage both work and home duties. Men are expected to avail of them to increase their performance at work. Specifically, women are believed to be more likely to avail of flexible working practices for caring purposes, while men are believed to avail of them for work purposes. Thus, generating the image of women not possessing the level of commitment to their career as men (Chung and Van der Lippe, 2018).

Subsequently, if the use of flexible work practices is to have a significant impact on vertical gender segregation and increase the proportion of women in top management

then it gendered nature needs to be addressed. Any use of the practices for caring purposes needs to be marketed to, and availed of by, both male and female employees (Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Skinner et al., 2016; Thebaud and Pedulla, 2016). Additionally, the influential role of management and the role external government support may play in the uptake and success of flexible work practices needs to be acknowledged (Dex and Scheibl, 2001; Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Maxwell, 2007; Powell et al., 2009; Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011; Pocock et al., 2013; Beham et al., 2014).

3.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has discussed vertical gender segregation and the various measurement techniques which researchers may employ to ascertain the extent of the gender imbalance within the management function. Additionally, it has been highlighted how researchers, utilising various methodological approaches such as longitudinal observations, case studies, surveys and interviews, have identified the main barriers encountered by women within the management function. The discussion in this chapter has also emphasised the continued prevalence of vertical gender segregation through the past four decades, irrespective of geographical location. Furthermore, the discussion also submits a review of three of the main explanations, or theories, found in the literature for the continued existence of vertical gender segregation and of the three main solutions proposed for addressing vertical gender segregation. Subsequently, it has become evident by the review of the literature undertaken in this chapter that not only has vertical gender segregation continued during the past four decades but also that there has been little change in the actual barriers women are experiencing within the management function.

However, little attention has been granted in the literature to examining the experiences of those working in SMEs. It has been argued that as the characteristics of the SME are distinctly different from those of larger organisations the findings from studies conducted on the latter cannot be applied to SMEs (Cassels et al., 2002; Stumbitz et al., 2008; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016).

Thus, it is proposed that this research will address this observed gap in the on-going research on vertical gender segregation and the barriers encountered by women

within the management function. Chapter 4 shall expand further on this research objective, elaborating on the research methods used in this research study with their theoretical and philosophical underpinnings.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins, in Section 4.2, by outlining the aims of this research study. Section 4.3 discusses the researcher's ontological and epistemological position and the research paradigm resulting from these philosophical positions. Section 4.4 outlines the methodological approach and design of the study including the strategy and tools to be utilised to achieve the research aims. In Section 4.5 the steps taken in conducting the secondary research for this study are presented. In Section 4.5.1 the literature review methodology is presented. In Section 4.5.2 the measurement of the gender imbalance at the decision making levels of Irish Small to Medium Enterprises is discussed and in Section 4.5.3 the approach taken in the website content analysis is presented. Section 4.6 outlines the steps taken in conducting and analysing the primary research. In Section 4.7 an evaluation of the quality of this research study is conducted with regard to reliability, replication and validity. Section 4.8 discusses the ethical considerations granted in undertaking this research study. Finally, in Section 4.9 the limitations of the findings of this research study are discussed.

4.2 Research Aims

The purpose of this research study is to investigate the extent and causes of vertical gender segregation in Irish Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs).

The study specifically aims:

- i.** To measure the extent of vertical gender segregation at decision making levels in a cross-section of 136 of Ireland's Top Financial Performing SMEs.
- ii.** To identify and evaluate the primary causes of vertical gender segregation by conducting an extensive literature review in the field.
- iii.** To evaluate the extent to which these identified causes from the academic literature are present in a purposive sample of Irish SMEs by administering a questionnaire to 136 Irish SMEs.
- iv.** To make recommendations on vertical gender segregation in relation to the Irish SME sector to reduce gender imbalance at decision making levels in the future.

To achieve these research aims an appropriate methodological design and approach is required. For any research study the methodological design and approach taken will be derived from the researcher’s philosophical views and, thus, due consideration must be granted to this before any methodological design and approach is adopted (Sarantakos, 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

4.3 Paradigm Rationale

Sarantakos (2013) posits that all social research is steered by three central factors; ontology, epistemology and methodology. These three factors exist in an established hierarchal and deterministic order, as displayed in *Figure 4.1*. Each factor has a role in constructing the succeeding factor and in prescribing the various research designs and research instruments to be used in a particular research study (Sarantakos, 2013).

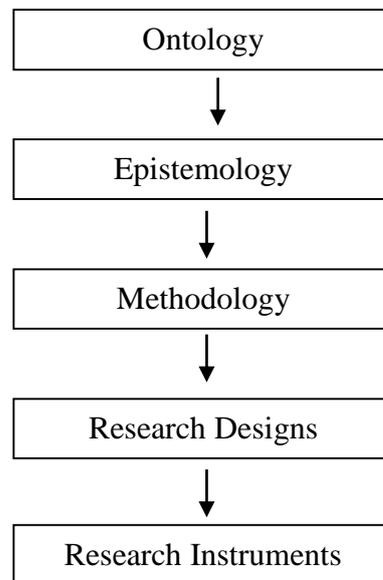


Figure 4.1 Hierarchal and Deterministic Order of Central Factors (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 28)

4.3.1 Ontology

Ontology may be defined as ‘as a theory of the nature of social entities’ (Bryman, 2008, p. 696) or as ‘the philosophical study of being in general, or of what applies neutrally to everything that is real’ (Simons, ‘Ontology’, 2017). Fundamentally, ontology is concerned with the individual’s own philosophical concept of what actually exists and what does not. Bryman and Bell (2015) highlight that within the social science disciplines ontology involves the nature of social entities. They emphasise that the question involved is whether these entities exist externally to

social actors or if they are constructs arising from the actions and observations of social actors. Does reality exist independently of the individual or is reality constructed by the individual? (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

These two contrasting positions are commonly identified as objectivism/realism and constructionism (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Sarantakos, 2013; Cameron and Price, 2009). The objectivist/realist ontological position entails the belief that social entities, such as culture, exist beyond the influence of the individual, they are independent. Subsequently, a culture is an independent social entity which will impose its constraints and restrictions upon its members (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Contrasting this is the constructivist ontological position which involves the belief that social entities, culture for example, are not only products of social actors but that they are in a state of constant revision and change as the social actors interact with it. Essentially, culture is not an independent entity with an established rule set but is rather an emerging reality which is in a constant state of change as people adapt it to aid in their understanding of their current situation (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

There exists, the researcher believes, limited 'truths' in the world, laws for example, but the reality in which individuals subsist is constructed from their own interactions with these 'truths'. The world with its laws, exists but within this world subsists the individual's reality which will emerge from their own interactions with those laws and others (Crotty, 1998). Cupchik (2001) identifies three parallel worlds which exist; the physical world, in which exists animate and inanimate objects, a societal world and a personal world in which exists the 'self'. Therefore, it is the individual who creates their own reality and what actually exists for them. Subsequently, the reality in which the individual subsists, their world of 'self', may be acutely contrasting to the normative view held by the societal world.

Bryman and Bell (2015) interpret this as culture, for example, not being an external reality which forces itself upon us but rather that it is a reality which individuals construct and continually reconstruct. They further highlight that tools used to decipher the natural and societal world, such as the categories assigned, for example masculinity and femininity, are products of the societal world and the world of self. Thus, they are not actually existing objects (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Specifically, the male, with the XY chromosomes, and the female, with the XX chromosomes,

exist, they are a 'truth'. However, the specific characteristics which are assigned as accompanying both of those chromosomal sets are societal and individual constructs (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

Consequently, it is the belief of the researcher that business research should, as far as is practicably possible, grant due diligence not only to the existing objects but also to the social world and the world of self. Consideration should not only be given to the 'truths' but also to the tools which society employ during, and the constructs resulting from, its interaction with these 'truths'. Furthermore, consideration should also be granted to individual's interactions with the 'truths', and the reality which this individual will construct from those interactions (Cameron and Price, 2009). Therefore, for the purpose of this research study a constructivist ontological position was taken.

4.3.2 Epistemology

As Sarantakos (2013) highlights the ontological position adopted in a research study will have significant implications on the epistemological position of the researcher. If ontology is concerned with that which is considered to actually exist, specifically what is a 'truth' to the individual, epistemology is concerned with what is considered to be valid knowledge, explicitly what makes knowledge a 'truth' (Cameron and Price, 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2015). One's epistemological view shall, therefore, dictate what to them is to be considered a 'truth' and where this 'truth' is to be sought during the research process (Sarantakos, 2013). It is essentially 'how we know what we know' (Crotty, 1998, p. 8).

Crotty (1998) notes, while acknowledging that they each have many variants, there are three main epistemological positions. Firstly, the objectivist position which holds that there exists an absolute 'truth' which occurs independently of any external social actors. Secondly, the subjectivist position, that there exists no absolute 'truth' but rather 'truth' is imposed by the social actors. Finally, the constructivist position which holds that while 'truth' is not an independent entity it is also not solely created by the individual. It is instead constructed by individual social actors as they interact with the world and each other (Crotty, 2010).

It is the epistemological view of the researcher that limited 'truth' exists and that it is the relationships of individuals with these 'truths' which construct the knowledge.

It is by observing and researching both the physical ‘truth’, for example laws, and the relationship the individual and society has with these laws that knowledge may be discovered (Crotty, 1998; Sarantakos, 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015). Therefore, for the purpose of this research study a constructivist epistemological position shall be taken.

4.3.3 Paradigm

Sarantakos (2013) explains a paradigm as the philosophical views, or stance, which will inform the methodological design and approach to be taken in a research study. The research paradigm chosen will be informed by the underlying assumptions arising from the ontological and epistemological position of a researcher on what knowledge is and how it is generated (Crotty, 1998). There are many various paradigms under which research may be conducted including positivism, interpretivism, subjectivism, critical inquiry and feminism (Crotty, 1998; Punch, 2014; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

Tuli (2010) highlights that a constructivist ontological and epistemological position can often, but not always, result in an interpretivism paradigm. This is due to a belief that knowledge and ‘truth’ can only be gained and understood by observing and interpreting the experiences of individuals as they interact with each other and the wider world (Tuli, 2010). An interpretivist approach to research Crotty (1998, p. 67) states “...looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world”.

In the context of studies on gender inequalities another paradigm which needs consideration is the feminist paradigm. Broadly feminist research can be described as examining the social conditions of women in a male dominated, patriarchal society (Crotty, 1998; Sarantakos, 2013). Sarantakos (2013, p. 68) expands this further explaining that feminist research involves ‘...the study of the ways in which gender is associated with and influences the concept of knowledge’. It is the view of feminism that women are an ‘...oppressed social class’ (Grey, 2017, p. 29) and ‘...that men and women differ in their perceptions of life due to their social status’ (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 66). Subsequently feminist research is, according to Sarantakos (2013, p. 66), ‘...research on women, by women and for women’.

While this research study is exploring vertical gender segregation in the context of Irish SMEs it is doing so through the views of both male and female employees, managers, owners and directors. It is the view of the researcher that as women in an organisation, and the vertical gender segregation which they may experience, do not exist in a vacuum isolated from their male colleagues there is value in also exploring the views of males in Irish SMEs. Therefore, the assumptions derived from the researcher's ontological and epistemological views have resulted in an interpretivism paradigm of enquiry being utilised for this research study. The knowledge and truth of the vertical gender segregation at decision making levels in Irish SMEs can only be gained by investigating and interpreting the experiences of those individuals, both female and male, who have either encountered it or who have interacted with those who have (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

4.4 Methodological Approach and Design

The methodological approach and design chosen for any study will generate the framework for the approach to be undertaken in the collection and analysis of the data (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The approach and design selected for a study will be derived from the chosen paradigm of enquiry (Grey, 2017).

4.4.1 Methodological Approach

The theoretical approach to be taken in a study will emerge from the epistemological and ontological views of the researcher. Thus, the paradigm of enquiry being utilised will determine the methodological approach which is to be taken (Sarantakos, 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015; Grey, 2017). Additionally, it will determine the researcher's stance on whether research begins with theory or if research should generate theory. Expressly, if a deductive or inductive process is to be taken with the study (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Grey, 2017). A deductive strategy involves generating a hypothesis from what is already known about a topic and then subjecting that hypothesis to inquiry to either prove or disprove it (Bryman and Bell, 2015). With an inductive approach the emphasis is on the generation of theories through the collection and analysis of data (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

The overarching objective of this research study is to investigate if the vertical gender segregation found at the decision making positions of larger organisation may also be found in a cross-section of Irish SMEs. Additionally, this study aims to examine

if the primary causes of this gender imbalance in larger organisations, as discussed in *Chapter 3*, is also resulting in any identified gender imbalances in the decision making levels of Irish SMEs. To achieve this data must be gathered to establish the extent of the vertical gender segregation in a cross-section of Irish SMEs and exploration must be undertaken to identify if the primary causes of the gender imbalance in larger organisations may also be resulting in any identified gender imbalance in Irish SMEs.

Subsequently, investigation using the primary causes of gender imbalance in the decision making levels of larger organisations as theoretically identified in *Chapter 3* will be used to examine if these causes are also present in a sample of Irish SMEs. Therefore, the methodological approach to be undertaken in this research shall be a deductive approach (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The interpretivism paradigm of enquiry derived from the researcher's philosophical views necessitates that this data may only be gained from those individuals who have experienced or interacted with the gender imbalance and the methodological design chosen should be reflective of this.

4.4.2 Methodological Design

The philosophical views of the researcher, and therefore the paradigm of enquiry, will also determine the methodological design and research tools utilised in a study (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Grey, 2017).

Bryman and Bell (2015) highlight five research designs which may be undertaken in a study. These are displayed in *Table 4.1*.

Table 4.1 Research Designs (adapted from Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 53)

Research Design	Approach
Experimental	An experimental design may involve either a laboratory experiment or a field experiment. Laboratory experimentation is conducted within a controlled environment. Field experimentation will involve a real life setting. Traditionally experimental design will involve a treatment group and a control group.
Cross-Sectional	A cross-sectional design involves the collection of data on more than one variable at a single point in time. The aim is to collect either quantitative or quantifiable data which may be examined to detect patterns of association through the use of a self-completion questionnaire or structured interview. While not traditionally viewed as an approach taken in qualitative research it is possible for a cross-sectional approach to involve some qualitative elements, particularly in business research.
Longitudinal	A longitudinal design is undertaken with the aim of mapping change through a period of time. Similar to the cross-sectional design a self-completion questionnaire or structure interview is conducted. However, with a longitudinal design the sample is surveyed at least once more at a later time.
Case Study	A case study design allows for intensive investigation of, for example, a single organisation, a single location, a person or a single event. However, more than one case may be involved to allow for contrasting and comparing of findings.
Comparative	A comparative design involves using identical methods on at least two contrasting cases. The most commonly seen examples of the comparative design are the cross-cultural or the cross-national studies.

The chosen methodological design will influence the research strategy and tools to be utilised in conducting the study. Grey (2017) discusses five research strategies and four forms of research to which these strategies may be applied, as displayed in *Tables 4.2-4.3*. The design, strategy and form of research to be availed of to undertake a study will consequently determine the research tools to be employed in completing the study; whether it is to be quantitative or qualitative. (Sarantakos 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015; Grey, 2017).

Table 4.2 Research Strategies (adapted from Grey, 2017, p. 30)

Research Strategy	Strategy
Experimental and Quasi-Experimental	Used in deductive studies involving hypothesis testing, an experimental and quasi-experimental strategy is a more traditional strategy.
Phenomenological	A phenomenological strategy involves unstructured methods of data collection where the researcher is usually immersed in the subject's own environment.
Analytical Survey	The analytical survey strategy is deductive in nature involving a highly structured approach to hypothesis testing.
Action Research	With a focus on promoting change within organisations an action research strategy usually involves close collaboration between the researcher and the participant. This strategy may involve both qualitative and quantitative methods. It may also be deductive or inductive in nature.
Heuristic Inquiry	A heuristic inquiry strategy involves open-ended inquiry into a problem where the researcher is immersed in the real-life situation to experience the problem first-hand.

Table 4.3 Forms of Research (adapted from Grey, 2017, p. 36)

Research Form	Explanation
Exploratory Studies	Exploratory studies aim to explore and question what is happening. This form of research can be of significance when there is little previous knowledge on the topic. Following initial exploratory study an explanatory or interpretive study may be undertaken.
Descriptive Studies	Descriptive studies aim to capture a naturally happening phenomenon without seeking to explain why it is happening.
Explanatory Studies	Explanatory studies aim to explain and expand on descriptive data. They may be qualitative, quantitative or a mix of both qualitative and quantitative in nature.
Interpretive Studies	Interpretive studies aim to explore the experiences of people and their individual views of those experiences.

While traditionally quantitative methods have been more associated with the objectivist epistemology and qualitative with a subjectivist or constructivist epistemology it is possible for a research study to integrate the use of both. This is known as the mixed-method approach (Sarantakos, 2013; Punch, 2014; Bryman and Bell, 2015). Sarantakos (2013) highlights that mixing the methods does not alter the fundamental structure of the individual methodological approaches. He emphasises

the techniques employed with each methodology individually remain unchanged when they are used together in a mix-method approach (Sarantakos, 2013).

Bryman and Bell (2015) distinguish between the various mixed method designs highlighting four main ones which may be employed during the research process. Firstly, there is the convergent parallel design which involves the simultaneous collection of qualitative and quantitative data of equal importance. Secondly, the exploratory sequential design which involves collecting qualitative data prior to quantitative data and thirdly, the explanatory sequential design involving the collecting of quantitative data and then using qualitative data to explain the quantitative findings. Finally, there is the embedded design which may have either qualitative or quantitative data as the priority but will draw from the other approach in the context of the research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

To facilitate enquiry into the first aim a measurement of the extent of the vertical gender segregation at the decision making levels of a cross-section of Irish SMEs was required. Previous measurements of the gender make-up at decision making levels in Ireland was conducted by the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) but did not include SMEs (EIGE, 2018). While research conducted by Kirrmae et al., (2016) only included those organisations with more than 150 employees. Therefore, an initial exploratory study using a quantitative approach was needed to measure the extent of the gender imbalance with regard to Irish SMEs. Following the previously employed approaches of both Kirrmae et al. (2016) and EIGE (2018) a headcount measurement was deemed to be the most appropriate approach for achieving this.

In addition to the measurement of vertical gender segregation at the decision making levels of a cross-section of Irish SMEs the decision was taken to conduct a content analysis on the public websites of the Irish SMEs included in the headcount to assess the attention granted by the Irish SME organisations to gender equality.

As discussed previously the existence of vertical gender segregation in SMEs is an under-researched area (Cassell et al, 2002; Lavoie, 2004; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Stumbitz et al., 2018). Therefore, to facilitate investigation into the second and third aims it was necessary that any approach adopted would allow for a preliminary exploration of the topic

through the collection of as great a volume of data as possible. This would generate an overview as to what was happening in the Irish SME sector with regard to vertical gender segregation. Additionally, investigation into the second and third aims, in consideration of the researcher's philosophical position, would need to capture the experiences of those employed in Irish SMEs.

Therefore, for the preliminary exploration of vertical gender segregation in Irish SMEs the quantitative tool of a self-completion survey was adopted. This approach follows the methodological approach taken in the limited previous research involving SMEs and the previous research conducted on larger organisations (Kanter, 1977; Wicks and Bradshaw, 1999; Simpson, 2000; Cassell et al., 2002; Knudsen, 2009; Wood, 2009; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; Wynarczyk, 2007; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016;). Adopting this approach, it is believed, would enable the collection of data on multiple variables simultaneously from participants best placed for exploring vertical gender segregation in Irish SMEs. Furthermore, it was one which was believed would be as representative as possible of experiences of those employed within SMEs.

Subsequently, the methodological approach and design taken in this research study is a deductive one involving an analytical survey strategy using a cross-sectional mixed methods explanatory sequential design. It involves initial exploratory investigation involving quantitative data, the headcount and website content analysis to determine if vertical gender segregation existed in the decision making levels of a cross-section of Irish SMEs and the attention granted by the Irish SME organisations included in the headcount to gender equality on their public digital platforms. The quantitative data resulting from both these enquiries were then expanded upon further using the survey which was constructed using the primary causes of gender imbalance identified in *Chapter 3*. Therefore, the methodological approach and design of this research study would involve the use of both secondary and primary research.

4.5 Secondary Research

The secondary research undertaken in this study involved three stages. Stage one involved a review of the literature surrounding the topic of gender imbalance at the decision making levels, known as vertical gender segregation. The second stage

involved a measurement of vertical gender segregation in a cross-section of Irish SMEs and the final stage involved a content analysis of the websites of those Irish SME organisations included in the measurement.

4.5.1 Stage One - Literature Review

A narrative review of the literature was undertaken. This involved using the search function in Google Scholar to search for keywords. An initial search using the phrase ‘gender equality in management’ generated over 1,220,000 results. Additional keywords were then used to narrow the results. The process involved in the search is presented in *Figure 4.2*.

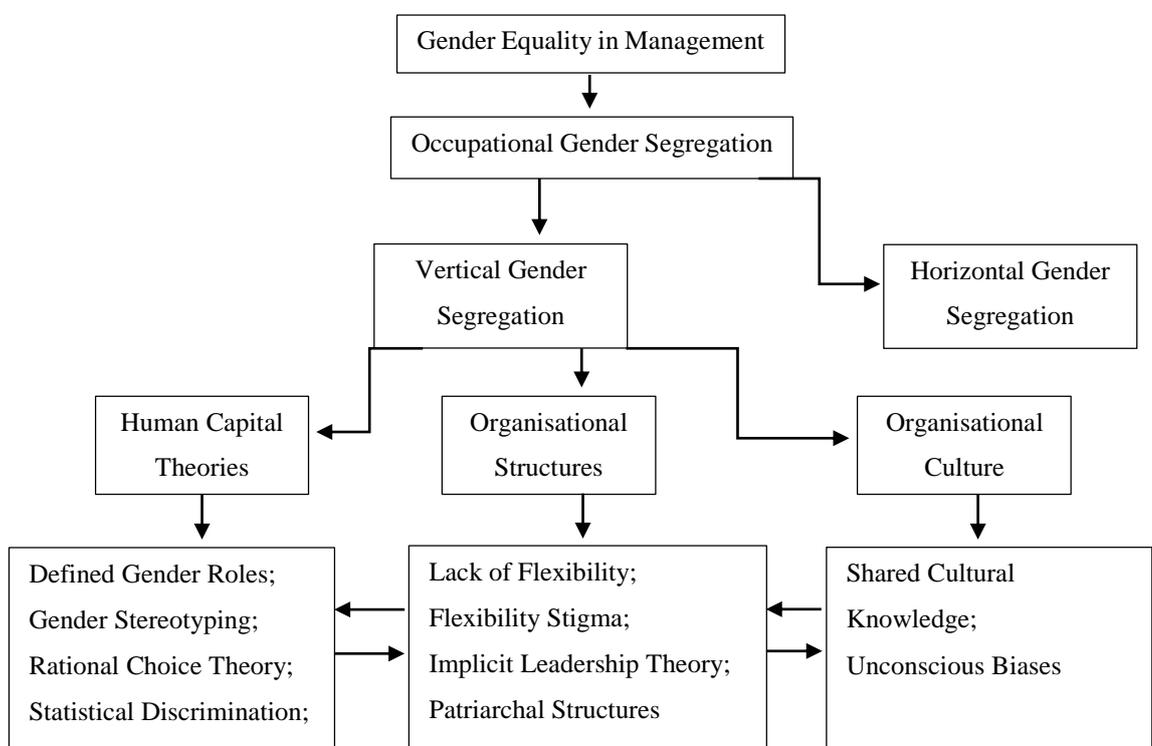


Figure 4.2 Literature Review Keyword Search Process

This process enabled the examination of the previous research completed on the topic of occupational gender imbalance and vertical gender segregation allowing for the identification of the main themes surrounding vertical gender segregation; namely human capital and rational choice theories, hierarchal gender distribution, implicit leadership theory and gender biases, workplace flexibility stigma, the impact of organisational culture on the organisational fit of women and the enduring stereotypes surrounding the gender roles. Additionally, the literature review allowed

for the discovery of the research designs and methodological approaches used by other researchers in their investigations.

4.5.2 Stage Two - Measurement of Vertical Gender Segregation in Irish SMEs

An aim of this research study was to determine the level of vertical gender segregation in the top decision making levels in a cross-section of Irish SMEs. In order to ascertain the percentage of men and women found at decision making levels in the Irish SMEs, a headcount was conducted. This approach was adopted following inquiry into the various measurement techniques available for calculating the levels of gender imbalance in various occupational situations. It was decided that the measurement technique, a headcount, employed by both the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) and Kirrane et al. (2016) would be used for this research study to ensure consistency to previous studies and to facilitate comparative analysis.

The sampling frame chosen was the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017. Produced annually the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies list is a database of the top financially performing companies located in Ireland. Their performance is ranked on the latest statutory filing by the companies in April of the year in question. Therefore, the 2017 list is based on the filing made by the companies in April 2017 (Irish Times, 2018). This sampling frame was chosen to align with the approach taken in Kirrane et al.'s (2016) study of women in management where they used those companies with over 150 employees included in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies List 2016. Although the list is titled as containing 1000 companies the Irish Times exclude a number of companies who either do not have any Irish employees or where a duplication may occur when a parent company and a subsidiary file separate accounts. This results in a final list comprised of 920 companies, both domestic and foreign owned (Irish Times, 2018). In their final list the Irish Times designate each company to an industrial sector. However, they do not detail in their methodology what classification code they use to designate the companies into these sectors and no reply was received by the researcher following an email to the Irish Times seeking clarification on this.

The headcount to establish the extent of gender imbalance in the decision making positions was conducted in two stages.

4.5.2.1 Stage One – Percentage of Men and Women in Decision Making Positions of Top Financially Performing Companies in Ireland in 2017

For Stage One a census of the population was conducted. The listed companies were divided into their different industrial sectors as designated by the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies database in Microsoft Excel. This amounted to 20 different sectors as displayed in *Table 4.4*.

Table 4.4 Industrial Sectors in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017

Sector	Number of Companies	Sector	Number of Companies
Construction	76	Agribusiness	53
Pharma	67	Resources	28
Technology	114	Services	3
Manufacturing	79	Communication	16
Energy	54	Financial Services	29
Transport	78	Tourism	23
Food & Drink	72	Media & Marketing	25
Health	48	Non-Profit	6
Retailing	99	Property	5
Professional Services	42	Education	3

The companies were then further divided by ownership, into either domestic owned or foreign owned. A dummy variable was created to distinguish between the two types of ownership. A value of 1 was allocated to Irish owned companies with a value of 0 otherwise. Ownership status was derived from either the company profile provided by the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies Database or from the company's own website. The methodological frameworks employed by the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE) was followed where corporate decision making positions have been identified since 2013 as follows; President and Board Members including Employee Representatives as described in *Table 4.5*.

Table 4.5 Corporate Decision Making Positions (EIGE, 2018)

Position	Explanation
President	Highest Ranking (or chairperson of highest ranking body)
Board Members (non-executive directors, executive directors, senior executives and employee representatives)	1 level below CEO (or chairperson of highest ranking body but still members of that ranking body)

The measurement approach employed was the Women in Decision Making Index developed by the EIGE (2018) and discussed in *Chapter 3*. This approach involved conducting a headcount of the men and women in each of the previously mentioned decision making positions. The individuals in each of the positions were found using a number of sources including the Irish Times Top 1000 database, the company’s own website, MarketLine database, the Irish companies and director database SoloCheck, Bloomberg, and Reuters. The total numbers of men and women was calculated for each grouping. This data is presented in Appendix 1. This total was then displayed in a percentage form.

4.5.2.2 Stage Two – Percentage of Men and Women in Decision Making Positions of a cross-section of Irish SMEs

In Stage Two the percentage of men and women found at decision making levels in a cross-section of Irish SMEs was established using the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies List 2017. Again this sampling frame was chosen to align with the approach taken in Kirrane et al.’s (2016) study of women in management where they used those companies with over 150 employees included in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies List 2016. Additionally, the Irish SME companies included in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies list would be companies who were financially strong and with longer experience of operations. Thus, allowing them the opportunity to grant consideration to gender equality issues. All foreign owned organisations were excluded. Furthermore, for the purpose of this research non-profit making organisations on the list were excluded. This was due to the different nature in business policies and practices which may be found in non-profit making organisations and the possibility of a number of staff working on a volunteer basis. After the exclusion of both foreign owned and the non-profit organisations there were

338 Irish owned companies in total. The European Commission defines a company as a SME using two factors; staff headcount and either turnover or balance sheet total as displayed in *Table 4.6* (European Commission, 2018). From the remaining 338 Irish owned companies from the original 920 companies on Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list, 136 companies were categorised as SMEs.

Table 4.6 SME Categories (European Commission, 2018)

Company Category	Staff Headcount	Turnover	or	Balance Sheet Total
Medium	< 250	≤ €50 million		≤ €43
Small	< 50	≤ €10 million		≤ €10
Micro	< 10	≤ €2 million		≤ €2

The 136 Irish SME companies were divided into their different industrial sectors as designated by the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 database. This amounted to 15 different sectors as displayed in *Table 4.7*.

Table 4.7 Industry Sectors in the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017

Sector	Total Number of Irish Companies	Number of Irish SMEs	Sector	Total Number of Irish Companies	Number of Irish SMEs
Construction	52	28	Professional Services	11	4
Pharma	10	5	Agribusiness	47	17
Technology	9	8	Services	1	0
Manufacturing	18	11	Communications	3	0
Energy	25	8	Resources	19	6
Transport	22	10	Financial Services	9	5
Food & Drink	25	6	Tourism	5	1
Health	19	3	Media & Marketing	18	4
Retailing	45	20			

As with Stage One the measurement approach employed was the Women in Decision Making Index developed by the EIGE (2018). Again this approach involved conducting a headcount of the men and women in each of the previously identified decision making positions present in *Table 4.4* within the SMEs. Similar to Stage One, the individuals in each of the positions were found using a number of sources including the Irish Times Top 1000 database, the company's own website,

MarketLine database, the Irish companies and directors database SoloCheck, Bloomberg, and Reuters. Using Microsoft Excel the total numbers of men and women was calculated for each grouping and is presented in Appendix 1. This total was then displayed in a percentage form.

4.5.3 Website Content Analysis

To examine the attention granted to gender equality by the Irish SME organisations included in the headcount on their public digital platforms a content analysis using the SME organisations' websites was undertaken. Robson (2002) highlights that such analysis is a non-reactive unobtrusive measure in that the artefact being used for the analysis, the company website for example, is not affected in any way due to the researcher using it. Thus, any existing data contained in the artefact may have the potential to provide information as to the views and practices of its creator (Robson, 2002). However, both Robson (2002) and Denscombe (2003) caution that in the use of such artefacts in a research study it should be remembered that they may not always present an objective picture of what is actually happening. The inclusion of gender equality considerations on a company website does not necessarily imply that this is reflected in the day to day company operations (Robson, 2002; Denscombe, 2003).

The 136 Irish SME organisations from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 listing that was included in the initial measurement of men and women in decision making positions was used for the content analysis. Of the 136 SME organisations four had no website in the public domain resulting in a total sample of 132 SME organisations. A deductive approach was taken using four specific predetermined key-words and phrases; 'gender equality', 'diversity', 'inclusion' and 'equal opportunities employer'. The key words and phrases were searched for under three separate sections on each of the SME organisation websites; 'about us', 'careers' or 'policies'. The companies were placed in their industrial sectors as previously identified in *Section 4.5.2* using Microsoft Excel. When a key-word and/or phrase was found on a company's website in any of the three sections the company was allotted a score of one. When all the websites for each company in an industry sector had been examined the total for that sector was calculated and is presented in Appendix 2. This total was then displaced in a percentage form.

4.5.3.1 Reliability

An inter rater reliability test was conducted to establish the reliability of the researcher's findings from the website content analysis. The use of an inter rater reliability test allows for the comparison of consistency in observation (Robson, 2002; Grey, 2017). A random sample of fourteen websites from the original 132 SME company websites included in the content analysis were chosen by another independent researcher to measure the degree of consistency in the observations between the two researchers. Following the approach adopted in the original content analysis the key words and phrases, 'gender equality', 'diversity', 'inclusion' and 'equal opportunities employer', were searched for under three separate sections on each of the SME organisation websites; 'about us', 'careers' or 'policies'.

4.6 Primary Research

A gap in previous research has resulted in a lack of prior knowledge on the experiences of those employed in Irish SMEs with regard to vertical gender segregation. Following the methodological approach utilised in the previous, although limited, research studies on SMEs a quantitative research design involving a self-completion survey was adopted for this research study (Cassell et al., 2002; Woodhams and Lupton, 2006; Wynarczyk, 2007; MacKeith et al., 2010; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Psychogios et al., 2016).

4.6.1 Self-Completion Survey

A survey, also known as a self-administered or self-completion questionnaire, is a method of data collection from which data is compiled through written questioning (Sarantakos, 2013). Grey (2017) highlights that there are two main categories of surveys; analytical surveys and descriptive surveys. Analytical surveys are usually deductive in nature with a focus on testing a theory. Descriptive surveys usually involve an inductive approach to measure what is happening and may be used to identify the extent and nature of a problem (Grey, 2017). For this research study an analytical survey was used.

4.6.2 Survey Design

An analytical survey comprising of 47 questions was developed following the identification and analysis of the main themes surrounding vertical gender

segregation found within the literature. These were as follows, the human capital and rational choice theories, hierarchal gender distribution, implicit leadership theory and gender biases, workplace flexibility stigma, the impact of organisational culture on the organisational fit of women and the enduring stereotypes surrounding the gender roles. For the purpose of this study gender related barriers were solely based on male and female gender barriers. Following the example of Kirrane et al., (2016) this study did not examine any additional barriers arising from gender identity issues. To establish their gender the participants were asked to choose from three options; male, female and other. The survey may be found in Appendix 3 of this thesis.

A pilot survey was conducted on a male and female manager in an organisation with over 250 employees and on three females and one male who are currently, or had been previously, employed in management positions in Irish SMEs. The aim of the pilot survey was to establish if the questions included had adequately addressed the aims of this research study and to find the approximate time it would take participants to complete the survey (Sarantakos, 2013). Resulting from the feedback of the pilot survey participants offered two corrections to the questionnaire. Corrections were made and the survey was then uploaded to the computer aided quantitative data analysis software package Qualtrics.

The survey was divided into six sections (A-F), each designed to explore and generate knowledge relating to a specific theme identified in the review of the literature.

4.6.2.1 Questionnaire Design - Section A

This section was designed to capture the background information of the participants though establishing their gender, age and relationship status. To establish gender the participants were asked to choose from three options; male, female and other. Furthermore, this section also established their position in the organisation, tenure within the organisation and the contract nature of their organisational position in terms of being on a full or a part-time basis.

4.6.2.2 Questionnaire Design - Section B

Drawing on the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and the rational choice explanation for the existence of vertical gender segregation Section B was designed with a focus on capturing the level of qualifications, skills and experience

possessed by the participants. The objective was to address Becker's (1965;1985;1991) argument that vertical gender segregation is a reflection of differences between the level of investment made by men and women into their human capital endowments.

Furthermore, this section of the survey aimed to establish if there exists any difference between the level of investment made by the organisation into their male and female employees in terms of training and development. Prior research on vertical gender segregation has found evidence of employers investing less in the development of their female employees in comparison to their male employees. This has been found to arise from beliefs held by employers with regard to a conflict existing for women in balancing family responsibilities and work responsibilities (Estevez-Abe, 2006). Consequently, the argument has been made that women, with regard to employer investment, experience a biological disadvantage (Kanter, 1977; Bohnet, 2016). This in turn has been found to impact on the choices women make with regard to their own level of investment into their human capital (Blackburn et al., 2002; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014). Subsequently, Section B aims to capture the participants' personal opinion on the benefits of training and development and the motivations behind their decision to avail, or not to avail, of any such training and development.

4.6.2.3 Questionnaire Design - Section C

The first five questions of Section C aim to establish the gender distribution found in the management of the participants' organisation. It is argued in the literature that the gender mix and distribution of men and women within an organisation's management structure may act as a significant barrier to the career progression of women (Kanter, 1977; Simpson 2000; Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey, 2017).

This section also aims to capture if there are any biases arising from implicit leadership theory in the organisation (Kanter, 1977; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). The objective is to establish if any such biases are influencing the characteristics the participant believes a manager should possess and if they believe those characteristics are more likely to be found in male or female managers. Additionally, this section aims to identify any impact these biases may have on a participants' decision to seek promotion in their organisation.

Furthermore, Section C aims to capture the level of training, if any, participants received in conducting interviews and the importance of being aware of their own unconscious biases. It further aims to identify their overall knowledge on any gender equality policies their organisation may possess and their personal impression of the importance placed by their organisation on gender equality. The literature highlights that gender biases found in social identity theory can influence the hiring and promotional policies of an organisation. Thus, resulting in gender inequalities becoming embedded in the organisational structure. Section C aims to capture if this is the situation within Irish SMEs (Goldberg, 2005; Palmer and Bosch, 2017).

4.6.2.4 Questionnaire Design - Section D

The focus of Section D is to examine the impact, if any, a lack of flexibility surrounding how the role management is to be performed can have on the career progression of women (Knudsen, 2009; Fritz and Van Knippenbrg, 2017). Research has demonstrated that women with children experience a disadvantage with regard to interview call-backs and promotion possibilities arising from biases concerning their level of competency and commitment to their work (Correll et al., 2007; Glauber, 2008; Weeden et al, 2016; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). Subsequently, Section D examines the degree of flexibility offered by the participants' organisation.

Furthermore, Section D hopes to capture the attitude held by the participant towards those who use flexible work practices and their belief of how their organisation views those employees who avail of them. The literature proposes that the use of flexible work practices might offer a solution to vertical gender segregation (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Straub, 2007; Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Kalysh et al, 2016). Lyness and Kropf (2005) argue that achieving gender equality is unlikely if a balance between work and life is not achieved. However, it is argued that those employees who avail of flexible work practices may experience a 'flexibility stigma' generating additional barriers to their career progression (Chung, 2018). The literature also hypothesised that there is a relationship between the value placed on women by an organisation and the importance that organisation places on aiding its employees in achieving a work-life balance (Dreher, 2003). Subsequently, it is the norms and beliefs held within an organisation as to who flexible work practices are for which influences their uptake and their success within that organisation (Kalysh et al., 2016).

4.6.2.5 Questionnaire Design - Section E

Section E focus on organisational culture, which has been demonstrated to have the capacity to both include and exclude people, or groups, within an organisation (Rutherford, 2001). The organisational culture will essentially embody the accepted beliefs and behaviours of the people within that organisation. Subsequently, how the role of manager is viewed within an organisation will influence the fit of women within the role (Kanter, 1977; Rutherford, 2001; Mensi-Klarbach, 2014; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016;). In consideration of this Section E was designed with the aim of capturing the influence that organisational culture has on vertical gender segregation through exploring the different values appreciated within the organisation and the strategic importance granted to these values by the organisation.

4.6.2.6 Questionnaire Design - Section F

A common theme observed throughout the review of the literature concerning vertical gender segregation was the significance of unconscious biases and stereotypes. The unconscious biases possessed by individuals and the wide spread use of stereotyping has been found to be of huge consequence to the career aspirations of women. Similarly, they have been observed to have significant influence on their career progression opportunities (Rudman and Glick, 2001; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Heilman, 2012; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Brescoll, 2016; Bohnet, 2016). In consideration of this Section F was designed to capture participants' individual views and opinions on the observed gender imbalance in management. Additionally, Section F offered the participant the opportunity to present their own thoughts on what they believe could help alleviate the current gender imbalance found in management.

4.6.3 Sample Participants

Following the methodological approach adopted in previous research conducted on SMEs a purposive sample was used for this study (Cassell et al, 2002; Woodham and Lupton, 2006; Psychogios et al., 2016). The 136 Irish SME organisations from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list were invited to complete the survey. This would allow for the participation of Irish SMEs of different sizes and from different sectors enabling the identification of the primary causes for gender imbalance at decision making levels. Furthermore, it would aid in the evaluation of the extent these identified causes are reinforced by existing policy and business culture.

All 136 organisations were initially contacted by telephone on the 30th and 31st July 2018. Out of the 136 SME organisations 24 responded that they had a company policy of not participating in surveys. This resulted in an actual sample size of 112 participants. E-mail addresses for a manager in the remaining 112 companies were obtained. All companies were e-mailed an information letter about the study containing a hyperlink to the survey on Qualtrics on the 31st July 2018. Five of the initial 112 companies responded to the survey. In order to improve this response rate the remaining 107 companies were contacted again between the 14th to the 20th September 2018, with follow-up e-mails being sent one week later between the 24th to the 26th September 2018. However, there was no further response from any of the remaining 107 companies.

Following this high non-response rate from the initial sample an additional purposive sample was identified. The Irish SME Association (ISME), who have a membership of over 10,500 Irish SMEs, were contacted on the 17th September 2018 to ascertain if they were willing to disseminate the survey to their members. Again this sample choice would allow for the participation of Irish SMEs of different sizes and from different sectors to examine the causes of the gender imbalance and the extent, if any, that business culture and policies were reinforcing these identified causes. ISME agreed to include the link to the Qualtrics survey in the December 2018 edition of their electronic newsletter which was received by all their members on 30th November 2018. However, ISME cautioned that the responses from the SMEs, if any, would be minimal. They highlighted that there is a reluctance on the part of SMEs to engage in research, with SMEs often citing time constraints as preventing them from doing so. There were no responses to the survey from ISME member SMEs.

In addition to both the 136 Irish SMEs and the members of ISME the decision was taken to contact a branch of Network Ireland, a support organisation for female entrepreneurs and SME owners, to invite members to participate in the study (Network Ireland, 2018a). The Kildare branch of the organisation was chosen as it is one of the larger branches of the organisation, established more than 16 years ago with currently over 80 members (Network Ireland, 2018b). The President of the Kildare branch was contacted on the 18th September, 2018. However due to the researcher's non-membership of Network Ireland, and citing time constraints on

behalf of members, the invitation to participate in the study was declined by the President.

The lack of engagement by Irish SMEs experienced by the researcher mirrors that experienced by MacKeith et al., (2010). In their study of the attitudes and approaches of Australian SMEs to gender equality they observed that gaining access to SMEs with regard to gender equality issues was ‘...particularly difficult’ stating that ‘...there is little doubt that when the term gender pay equity was raised the level of cooperation diminished’ (MacKeith et. al., 2010, p. 8). Similarly, Woodhams and Lupton (2006) in their study of gender based equal opportunity in UK SMEs highlight the need for establishing ways to encourage SMEs to engage with the equality agenda and research. They suggest that those SME organisations likely to participate in such research are more inclined to be those who are already engaging with gender equality within their organisation (Woodhams and Lupton, 2006).

Following this lack of engagement from Irish SMEs an additional non-probability, purposive sample of participants was chosen. This sample consisted of individuals who work, or have worked, in the Irish SME sector and are currently attending evening, flexible and part-time programmes in various business disciplines through the Faculty of Lifelong Learning in the Institute of Technology Carlow (ITC). The Faculty of Lifelong Learning in ITC was chosen as it is the largest provider of flexible and part-time programmes in Ireland and therefore, it was believed would provide access to the greatest number of potential participants. The Head of the Faculty of Lifelong Learning at ITC, Joseph Collins, communicated in October 2018 that:

Over the past five years the number of part-time learners at Institute of Technology Carlow has increased significantly and now accounts for approximately 48% of the total learner numbers at the Institute (8375 students in 2017/18 of which 4,000 are Lifelong learners). This marks the Institute as the leading provider of flexible and lifelong learning in the State. The Faculty currently provides programmes leading to Masters, Postgraduate Diploma, Honours Degree, Higher Degree, Higher Certificate, Minor and Special Purpose Awards across a wide range of discipline areas in a number of IT Carlow campuses, including those at Carlow, Wexford and Wicklow where the majority of students study on major full programmes.

The business discipline programmes were chosen as it was advised from Lifelong Learning that these programmes would contain the greatest number of individuals who currently, or previously, were employees or owners of SMEs. It was decided

that students would be asked to complete the survey during class time. Upon receiving approval from the lecture of each class the researcher delivered an oral presentation to the students outlining the research study. Those students who were currently, or previously had been, either an employee, owner, manager or director of an Irish SME were asked to complete the survey. There was a total of 217 students registered in the selected programmes of which 133 met the qualifying criteria for participation in the survey. All of the 133 students decided to complete the survey resulting in a response rate of 100 per cent. The participants were asked to complete a questionnaire as detailed in Appendix 4. This would allow for the participation of owners, managers, directors and employees of Irish SMEs from different sectors and of different sizes nationwide to examine the primary causes of gender imbalance at decision making levels. The programmes and the registered number of students for each programme along with the date on which they participated in the survey are displayed in *Table 4.8*.

Table 4.8 Business Programmes and Registered Student Numbers of the Department of Lifelong Learning Institute of Technology Carlow

Programme	Registered Student Numbers	Number of Participants	Survey Delivery Date
Master of Business Supply Chain	37	21	16/10/2018
Master of Business	9	9	16/10/2018
Diploma in Management Effectiveness and Practice	17	14	17/10/2018
Masters Business Administration	12	10	18/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Business Tourism Marketing	9	9	22/10/2018
Higher Diploma International Financial Services	21	8	22/10/2018
Certificate in Purchasing Strategy, Quality Management and Lean Six Sigma	34	20	22/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Global Logistics and Supply Chain Management	34	18	23/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Business (Management) and Year 3 Level 8 Business	27	21	23/10/2018
Year 4 Level 8 Business	17	3	23/10/2018

4.6.4 Survey Analysis

The analysis of the data arising from the survey was undertaken manually in Microsoft Excel. A detailed description of the analysis of both the Qualtrics survey and the Lifelong Learning survey are provided below.

4.6.4.1 Qualtrics Survey Analysis

All of the 112 Irish SME organisations were e-mailed an information letter about the study containing a hyperlink to the survey on Qualtrics. The five participants survey responses were exported from Qualtrics into Microsoft Excel and were analysed using bivariate and multivariate analysis as detailed below.

Section A of the survey was designed to capture the background demographics of the participants using gender, age and marital status variables in conjunction with questions to establish their position in the organisation and the length of tenure in the organisation. Section A also aimed to determine if the organisation was a micro, small or medium-size enterprise and in which industrial sector that organisation was based. Analysis on the background demographics of the participants began by extracting a percentage value for all the possible participant responses to the variables gender, age, marital status, organisational position, length of tenure, organisation size, and industrial sector. To expand upon this further analysis of each of the variable was conducted by using bivariate and multivariate analysis as detailed in *Table 4.9*.

Table 4.9 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis of Survey - Section A

Variable	Organisational Position	Organisational Size	Industrial Sector
Gender	✓		✓
Age	✓		
Length of Tenure	✓		
Organisational Position		✓	✓
Gender & Age	✓		
Gender & Length of Tenure	✓		
Gender & Organisational Position			✓

The questions contained in sections B-F focused on five main categories; the educational capital and professional development of the participants, gender biases surrounding the management role, the availability and perceptions of flexible work practices, the gender differences in the impact the organisational culture may have for employees and finally the participants' individual views on gender equality and the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for all employees. The analysis was conducted under these five categories using questions from across all six sections of the survey. To begin analysis was conducted to extract a percentage value for all the possible participant responses to each of the individual questions. Following this, to expand further, analysis was conducted using bivariate and multivariate analysis as detailed in *Tables 4.10- 4.14*.

Table 4.10 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Educational Capital and Professional Development of Employees

Variable	Educational Capital	Statement	Professional Development	Training Offered
Gender	✓	✓	✓	
Organisation Size	✓		✓	✓
Organisational Position				✓

Table 4.11 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role

Variable	Gender Equality Policy	Statements	Characteristics	Considerations when Deciding to apply for Promotion
Gender	✓	✓	✓	✓
Organisation Size				
Organisational Size & Organisational Position		✓		

Table 4.12 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Workplace Practices

Variable	Statements
Gender	✓

Table 4.13 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on the Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisation Culture on Employees

Variable	Culture Contributes to Gender Inequalities
Gender	✓

Table 4.14 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees

Variable	Responsibility	Government Support
Gender	✓	✓

The survey also contained four open-ended questions which permitted the participants the opportunity to express their own opinion. The participants’ responses to each of the four questions are presented in *Section 5.4. of Chapter 5.*

4.6.4.2 Lifelong Learning Survey Analysis

As a hard copy of the survey was distributed to the participants from Lifelong Learning it was necessary for each of the 133 surveys to be coded and entered manually into Microsoft Excel. A numerical code for each possible answer was devised for 39 of the 49 questions contained in the survey, an example of which is presented in *Table 4.15.*

Table 4.15 Example of Survey Numerical Coding

Q. 1 In terms of your current (or your previous employment are/were you:	
Answer	Variable
No answer	0
An employee of the organisation	1
An owner of the organisation	2
A junior manager	3
A senior manager	4
A director	5

For six of the questions the participants were asked to supply specific information, such as their job title for example, which was entered into the Microsoft Excel

workbook as written by the participant. The remaining four questions were open-ended questions which permitted the participants the opportunity to express their own opinion. These four questions were analysed qualitatively using themes derived from the literature review which will be discussed in detail later in this section. Analysis of the survey, which contained six sections, involved both sectional and cross-sectional examination.

Section A of the survey was designed to capture the background demographics of the participants using gender, age and marital status variables in conjunction with questions to establish their position in the organisation and the length of tenure in the organisation. Section A also aimed to determine if the organisation was a micro, small or medium-size enterprise and in what industry sector that organisation was based. Analysis on the background demographics of the participants began by extracting a percentage value for all the possible participant responses to the variables gender, age, marital status, organisational position, length of tenure, organisation size, and industry sector. To expand upon this further analysis of each of the variable was conducted by using bivariate and multivariate analysis as detailed in *Table 4.16*.

Table 4.16 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis of Survey - Section A

Variable	Organisational Position	Organisational Size	Industrial Sector
Gender	✓		✓
Age	✓		
Length of Tenure	✓		
Organisational Position		✓	✓
Gender & Age	✓		
Gender & Length of Tenure	✓		
Gender & Organisational Position			✓

The questions contained in sections B-F focused on five main categories; the educational capital and professional development of the participants, gender biases surrounding the management role, the availability and perceptions of flexible work practices, the gender differences in the impact the organisational culture may have for employees and finally the participants' individual views on gender equality and

the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for all employees. The analysis was conducted under these five categories using questions from across all six sections of the survey. Analysis was conducted to extract a percentage value for all the possible participant responses to each of the individual questions. Following this, analysis was conducted using bivariate and multivariate analysis as detailed in *Tables 4.17- 4.21*.

Table 4.17 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Educational Capital and Professional Development of Employees

Variable	Educational Capital	Statements	Professional Development	Training Offered	Availed of Training	Benefited from Training	Considerations when Deciding to Avail of Training
Gender	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Organisation Size	✓			✓			
Organisational Position	✓			✓			✓
Educational Capital		✓					
Caring Responsibilities			✓				
Organisation Size & Organisational Position			✓		✓	✓	
Gender & Organisational Position					✓		
Gender & Caring Responsibilities			✓				

Table 4.18 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role

Variable	Gender Equality Policy	Statements	Characteristics	Considerations when Deciding to apply for Promotion	Required to Conduct Interviews
Gender	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Organisation Size					✓
Organisational Position			✓		
Aware of Written Job Descriptions					✓
Caring Responsibilities				✓	
Gender, Organisation Size & Organisational Position	✓				
Organisational Size & Organisational Position		✓			

Table 4.19 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Workplace Practices

Variable	Availability of Workplace Flexibility	Availability of Workplace Flexibility to Management	Statements
Gender			✓
Organisation Size	✓	✓	
Organisational Position	✓	✓	
Organisational Size & Organisational Position			✓

Table 4.20 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on the Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisation Culture on Employees

Variable	Values	Cultures	Strategic Approaches	Culture Contributes to Gender Inequalities
Gender	✓	✓	✓	✓
Organisation Size	✓	✓	✓	✓
Organisational Position	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 4.21 Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis on Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees

Variable	Major Consideration	Responsibility	Government Support	Voluntary Targets or Mandatory Quotas
Gender	✓	✓	✓	✓
Gender, Organisational Size & Organisational Position	✓	✓	✓	✓

The four open-ended questions, which permitted the participants the opportunity to express their own opinion, were analysed deductively using themes derived from the literature review in *Chapter 3*. Themes derived from overall theme relating to the section of the survey in which that question was located, and which were previously discussed in *Chapter 3*, were initially used to categorise the responses of the participants. Upon analysis of the participants’ responses a further review of the relevant literature in *Chapter 3* was conducted. Each theme was then further divided into sub-themes and the participants’ responses were again categorised under the aligning sub- themes. Any participant response which did not align with the established themes was placed in an ‘other comments’ column. Each of the four questions were analysed separately and are presented in *Section 5.4 of Chapter 5*.

4.7 Quality Criteria

Bryman and Bell (2015) highlight that there are three leading criteria in the evaluation of business and management research. Firstly, reliability; are the results of the research study repeatable? Secondly, replication; is the research study capable of replication by another researcher? Finally, validity; are the conclusions of the study a true reflection of the outcomes and can they be generalised beyond that specific study? (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The application of these three criteria for this study is conducted below.

4.7.1 Reliability

For the measurement of men and women in the decision making positions of companies in Ireland and in Irish SMEs the sample frame chosen was the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies in Ireland 2017. The measurement was conducted on those companies during the months of October and November of 2017. While the findings resulting from that measurement may have been correct at that time it cannot be claimed that no change to that measurement has not occurred since. The measurement was a headcount of those occupying the Board of Directors positions. Any change to the gender composition of the Board of Directors since October and November of 2017, such as the retirement of a member who has been replaced by a member of a different gender, would result in a repeat of the measurement yielding different results.

The survey aimed to examine if the barriers to the main decision making positions experienced by women in the larger organisations also existed in Irish SMEs. The small sample size and the subjective nature of these barriers gives rise to the possibility of a repeated study yielding different results depending on the sample frame chosen for the study.

4.7.2 Replication

Bryman and Bell (2015, p.64) state replication ‘...is likely to be present in most cross-sectional research to the degree that the research spells out procedures...’. Every effort has been made by the researcher to be transparent in the description of the procedures involved in selecting the sampling frames, the design of any research tools and the analysis of data for this study. Therefore, it is believed that this study is capable of replication.

4.7.3 Validity

Bryman and Bell (2015) highlight that the validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions resulting from a study. To ensure validity Sarantakos (2013, p. 99) emphasises that any research tool used in a study should ‘...measure what it is supposed to measure’ and that any measurement should be ‘...accurate and precise’. He further expands stating that the validity of any research tool is ensured by examining its ‘...relevance, precision and accuracy’ (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 99). An

examination of the validity of the research tools used in this study is presented in *Table 4.22*.

Table 4.22 Examination of the Validity of Research Tools (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 99)

Measurement	Explanation	Analysis – Headcount	Analysis – Survey
Relevance	Exists when the research tool measures just what it is supposed to measure.	The headcount measures just the number of men and women in the decision making positions in top financially performing organisations, including SMEs, in 2017.	Using the barriers identified in the literature review the survey just measures if these identified barriers exist in the Irish SMEs included in the survey.
Precision	Exists when the research tool has the ability to measure the true whole value of the item in question.	The headcount is concerned with counting the number of male and females occupying decision making positions and therefore has the ability to measure the true whole value.	The nature of the barriers identified in the literature is that they may exist in many forms. The survey can measure if the barrier exists in the opinion of the participant but it is not capable of measuring the whole value of that barrier.
Accuracy	Exists when the research tool is capable of giving a precise measurement in the smallest possible measure.	The headcount measures those in the decision making positions in the smallest possible measure.	The survey measures the participants' responses in the smallest possible measure.

Sarantakos (2013) identifies two ways of testing the validity of quantitative outcomes; empirical validation and theoretical validation. With empirical validation outcomes may be said to have concurrent validity or predictive validity. Concurrent validity is said to exist if the findings are supported by already existing empirical evidence. While predictive validity exists where findings support predictions concerning the research topic (Sarantakos, 2013). Theoretical validation is used to test the validity of quantitative outcomes when it is difficult, or impossible, to confirm empirical validation. There are different types of theoretical validation which may be used to examine the validity of any outcomes. Firstly, face validity, where validity is examined on the theoretical standards and principles of that research topic.

Secondly, content validity, where all possible dimensions of the research topic can be said to have been covered in the course of the study. Finally, construct validity, which is concerned with ensuring the validity of the theoretical measurements in the study; that the study is actually measuring the theory it is claiming to measure. An examination of the quantitative outcomes of this research study are presented in *Table 4.23*.

Table 4.23 Examination of the Validity of the Quantitative Outcomes (adapted from Sarantakos, 2013, p. 100)

Validation	Analysis –Headcount	Analysis – Survey
Empirical Validation: Concurrent Validity	While the sample size used for the headcount was small, 920 for the initial headcount and 136 for the Irish SME headcount, the finding that there is a gender imbalance at the decision making levels of companies in Ireland are supported by existing empirical evidence produced by both EIGE (2018) and Kirrane et. al. (2016).	While surveys have been employed in previous studies on this research topic the participants have been from larger organisations. There is no empirical evidence from other Irish studies on SMEs to support the findings of this study.
Theoretical Validation: Face Validity		The survey approach taken in this study followed the theoretical standards and principles established in previous research of this topic.
Content Validity		This study was concerned with only male and female gender inequalities and did not address any other dimensions associated with these inequalities.
Construct Validity		The survey was designed from the theory examined in the literature review and therefore measures only the theory it claims to measure.

Sarantakos (2013) highlights that ensuring validity in qualitative outcomes is concerned with assuring that appropriate methods of data collection and analysis were adopted for the study. Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 65) state that in cross-sectional

studies validity may be said to exist when ‘...the sample from which data are collected has been randomly selected’ highlighting that when non-random sampling is used ‘...validity becomes questionable’. While non-random sampling was employed in this study the participants were all from the Irish SME sector and every effort has been made to ensure that the findings presented in this thesis are accurate. Where conclusions have been made from the participants’ responses to open ended questions supporting quotations have been supplied.

4.7.3.1 Generalisability

Sarantakos (2013, p. 113) explains generalisability means generalising any findings ‘...beyond the boundaries of the research sample’ highlighting that generalisation ‘...reflects the extent to which a study is able to generalize its findings from the sample to the whole population’. Subsequently, generalisation is linked to the representativeness of the sample with regard to the whole population. The findings of this study cannot be generalised to a whole population and no attempt is being made to imply the findings of this study are representative of the Irish SME sector as a whole or of the perspectives of all those who are employed within it. This study presents findings on the level of vertical gender segregation based only on those companies included in the headcount in October and November 2017. Furthermore, while the findings are representative of the perspectives of those Irish SME employees, managers, owners and directors who participated in the survey, it can in no way be claimed that they are representative of all those in the Irish SME sector.

4.8 Ethical Considerations

The primary research conducted in this study was undertaken in complete accordance with the Institute of Technology Carlow’s (ITC) Research Involving Human Participants Ethical Guidelines. Prior to the commencement of the primary research an application was made to ITC’s Ethics Committee for ethical clearance to proceed with the study. The application form for ethical clearance, which may be found in Appendix 4, was concerned with ensuring that the study would be conducted giving due consideration to the collection, use, management and storage of any data. Furthermore, this research study has been conducted based the application form requirement that the four main pillars of ethical research, respect for human dignity, voluntary informed consent, minimising risk of harm and protecting privacy and

confidentiality, be followed. Ethical clearance to proceed with the primary research was granted by the ITC's Ethics Committee on the 9th April 2018.

4.9 Limitations

The findings of this research present an exploration of a cross-section of Irish SMEs with regard to the themes surrounding vertical gender segregation identified through the study of larger organisations. While the findings are an accurate representation of the samples included in the study and therefore, have relevance for further research in this area they are limited with regard to intersectionality, time frames and sample frames.

As discussed in *Chapter 2* discussions encompassing the topic of equality have become divisive ones and achieving equality in one area may result in creating inequalities in another. The issue of intersectionality, where an individual may be a member of more than one oppressed group, being a transgender woman for example, further complicates equality issues. This study is limited to only examining male and females and does not include any examination of the impact gender identity issues may have on vertical gender segregation.

As highlighted in *Section 4.7.1* the measurement of men and women in the decision making positions was conducted on the companies during the months of October and November of 2017. The findings resulting from that measurement are correct for that time frame but are limited in so far as it cannot be claimed there has been no change in individuals occupying those positions since. Subsequently, it cannot be claimed that a repeat of the measurement using the same 2017 list would not yield different results.

The sample frame chosen for the measurement of vertical gender segregation was the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies list 2017. As discussed in *Section 4.5.2* the list is comprised of the top performing companies in Ireland and therefore their operational situation cannot be said to be representative of all companies in Ireland. This is particularly true for the Irish SMEs whose strong financial performance may allow them the opportunity to grant more consideration to gender equality issues.

Similarly, the sample frames included in the findings of the survey have limitations. The responses from the Irish SMEs from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies list

2017 again are from managers based in strong financially performing companies. The participants from the Lifelong Learning sample frame, while including employees, managers, owners and directors of Irish SMEs, due to its small size cannot be said to be inclusive of all perspectives of all those in the Irish SME sector.

4.10 Conclusion

In conclusion this chapter outline the methodological approach to be undertaken in this research study. To begin the aims of this research study were outlined and the paradigm rational was discussed. Following this, the methodological approach and design of the research study, involving both primary and secondary research, was presented and discussed. This was followed by a discussion of both the quality criteria and ethical considerations with regard to this research study. Finally, the limitations of the research study are presented and discussed. Chapter 5 shall present the findings of both the primary and secondary research discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter begins, in Section 5.2, by presenting the findings of the headcount comprising of organisations from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list. Section 5.2.1 outlines the findings of stage one of the headcount on foreign and domestic owned companies, while Section 5.2.2 outlines the findings of stage two of the headcount on Irish owned SMEs. In Section 5.3 the findings of the website content analysis conducted on those Irish SMEs included in stage two of the headcount. Finally, Section 5.4 presents the findings of the analytical survey. Section 5.4.1 presents the findings of group one, the Irish owned SMEs from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list. Section 5.4.2 presents the findings from group three, current and former SME employees, managers, owners and directors attending evening, flexible and part-time academic programmes in various business discipline areas in the Faculty of Lifelong Learning in the Institute of Technology Carlow.

5.2 Stage A – Headcount

Comprising of organisations from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list the headcount was conducted in two stages.

5.2.1 Stage One Headcount of Foreign and Domestic Owned Companies

Stage one involved a census of the population utilising all 920 companies. Each of the 920 companies were subdivided by industrial sector as designated by the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies database. They were then further separated into foreign owned companies and domestic owned companies. Three separate ratio analysis were generated from the data. The first was an overall ratio of the men and women at the top decision making positions by ownership for foreign, domestic and jointly owned companies located in Ireland. The second was the ratio of men and women at the top decision-making positions by industrial sectors and by ownership. Finally, the third was a comparison for the Irish owned companies between the ratio of men and women at the top decision-making positions between those companies who had a male President on their Board of Directors and those with a female President.

5.2.1.1 Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Ownership

When divided by ownership 347 of the 920 companies were domestically owned and 568 were foreign owned. Five companies were jointly owned, both Irish and foreign. Two of the jointly owned companies were joint ventures at their inception and three became jointly owned through mergers. All five of the jointly owned companies have headquarters based in Ireland through which their Irish operations are managed. The numerical breakdown by sector and ownership is displayed in *Tables 5.1-5.2*. A separate headcount was conducted on the 347 Irish owned companies, the 568 foreign owned companies and the five jointly owned companies.

Table 5.1 Number of Irish and Foreign Owned Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Irish Owned Companies	No. of Foreign Owned Companies	Industrial Sector	No. of Irish Owned Companies	No. of Foreign Owned Companies
Construction	52	24	Agribusiness	47	6
Pharma	10	57	Resources	19	8
Technology	9	105	Services	1	1
Manufacturing	18	61	Communications	3	13
Energy	25	28	Financial Services	9	20
Transport	22	56	Tourism	5	17
Food & Drink	25	47	Media & Marketing	18	7
Health	19	29	Non-Profit	6	0
Retailing	45	53	Property	0	5
Professional Services	11	31	Education	3	0
Total	236	491	Total	111	77
Total: 915 Companies					

Table 5.2 Number of Jointly Owned Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Joint Ownership Companies
Tourism	1
Agribusiness	1
Manufacturing	1
Transport	1
Services	1
Total	5

The results of the headcount on the domestic owned companies found 2,224 individuals occupying the top decision-making positions. Of those 2,224 individuals 1,799 were identified as male and 425 as female. This gives a gender ratio at the top

decision-making positions for the Irish owned companies of 80.9 per cent male and 19.1 per cent female. The numerical breakdown of men and women by sector is displayed in *Table 5.3*.

Table 5.3 Gender Breakdown of Domestically Owned Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Construction	299	27
Pharma	42	8
Technology	60	8
Manufacturing	82	16
Energy	142	42
Transport	101	26
Food & Drink	142	29
Health	146	61
Retailing	207	35
Professional Services	39	11
Agribusiness	237	33
Resources	72	19
Services	2	2
Communications	17	8
Financial Services	60	17
Tourism	28	4
Media & Marketing	63	27
Non-Profit	41	34
Property	0	0
Education	19	18
Total	1799	425
	80.9%	19.1%

The results of the headcount on the foreign owned companies found 4,481 individuals occupying the top decision-making positions. Of those 4,481 individual 3,540 were identified as male and 941 as female. This gives a gender ratio at the top decision-making positions for the foreign owned companies of 79 per cent male and 21 per cent female. The numerical breakdown of men and women by sector is displayed in *Table 5.4*.

Table 5.4 Gender Breakdown of Foreign Owned Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Construction	141	21
Pharma	424	111
Technology	835	169
Manufacturing	404	105
Energy	182	51
Transport	312	71
Food & Drink	195	97
Health	156	60
Retailing	253	89
Professional Services	172	55
Agribusiness	50	10
Resources	68	15
Services	7	1
Communications	83	22
Financial Services	135	26
Tourism	37	13
Media & Marketing	60	16
Non-Profit	0	0
Property	26	9
Education	0	0
Total	3540	941
	79%	21%

The results of the headcount on the jointly owned companies found 57 individuals occupying the top decision-making positions. Of those 57 individual 48 were identified as male and 9 as female. This gives a gender ratio at the top decision-making positions for the jointly owned companies of 84.2 per cent male and 15.8 per cent female. The numerical breakdown of men and women by sector is displayed in *Table 5.5*.

Table 5.5 Gender Breakdown of Jointly Owned Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Tourism	8	2
Agribusiness	16	1
Manufacturing	10	3
Transport	6	1
Services	8	2
Total	48	9
	84.2%	15.8%

5.2.1.2 Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector

The gender ratios of top decision-making positions by industrial sector of both Irish owned and foreign owned companies are displayed in *Table 5.6*. The gender ratios of top decision-making positions by sector of jointly owned companies are displayed in *Table 5.7*. The most gender balanced sector for the Irish owned firms was the services sector with a 50 per cent male to 50 per cent female gender balance. This was followed by the education and non-profit sectors with gender balances of 51.4 per cent male to 48.6 per cent female and 54.7 per cent male to 45.3 per cent female respectively. The communications sector showed a gender balance of 68 per cent male to 32 per cent female. While the media and marketing sector had a 70 per cent male to 30 per cent female gender balance. In comparison, in the services sector for foreign owned companies, there was a gender balance of 87.5 per cent male to 12.5 per cent female and the communications one of 78.9 per cent male to 21.1 per cent female. The service sector for the jointly owned companies displayed a gender balance of 80 per cent male to 20 per cent female.

The sector found to have the highest level of gender imbalance for the Irish owned firms was the construction sector with a gender ratio of 91.7 per cent male and 8.3 per cent female. This was followed by the technology sector with 88.2 per cent male to 11.8 per cent female. The agribusiness and the tourism sectors followed with gender ratios of 87.8 per cent male to 11.8 per cent female and 87.5 per cent male to 12.5 per cent female respectively. In comparison the gender ratios for the foreign owned companies in the same sectors were 87 per cent male to 13 per cent female for the construction sector and 83.2 per cent male to 20.7 per cent female for the technology sector. The agribusiness and tourism sectors for foreign owned

companies had gender ratios of 83.3 per cent male to 16.7 per cent female and 74 per cent male to 26 per cent female respectively. The jointly owned companies for the agribusiness sector had a gender ratio of 94.1:5.8 per cent. The gender ratio found in the tourism sector for the jointly owned companies was 80:20 per cent.

Table 5.6 Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector: Irish and Foreign Owned Companies

Industrial Sector		Irish Owned Companies	Foreign Owned Companies
Construction	Men	91.7%	87%
	Women	8.3%	13%
Pharma	Men	84%	79.3%
	Women	16.0%	20.7%
Technology	Men	88.2%	83.2%
	Women	11.8%	16.8%
Manufacturing	Men	83.7%	79.4%
	Women	11.8%	20.6%
Energy	Men	77.1%	78.1%
	Women	22.9%	21.9%
Transport	Men	79.5%	79.5%
	Women	20.5%	20.5%
Food & Drink	Men	83%	74.4%
	Women	17%	25.6%
Health	Men	70.5%	72.2%
	Women	29.5%	27.8%
Retailing	Men	84.3%	74%
	Women	15.7%	26%
Professional Services	Men	78%	75.8%
	Women	22%	24.2%
Agribusiness	Men	87.8%	83.3%
	Women	12.2%	16.7%
Resources	Men	79.1%	81.9%
	Women	20.9%	18.1%
Services	Men	50%	87.5%
	Women	50%	12.5%
Communications	Men	68%	79%
	Women	32%	21%
Financial Services	Men	77.9%	83.9%
	Women	22.1%	16.1%
Tourism	Men	87.5%	74%
	Women	12.5%	26%
Media & Marketing	Men	70%	78.9%
	Women	30%	21.1%
Non-Profit	Men	54.7%	N/A
	Women	45.3%	N/A
Property	Men	N/A	74.3%
	Women	N/A	25.7%
Education	Men	51.4%	N/A
	Women	48.6%	N/A

Table 5.7 Gender Ratio of Top Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector: Jointly Owned Companies

Industrial Sector		Jointly Owned Companies
Tourism	Men	80%
	Women	20%
Agribusiness	Men	94.1%
	Women	5.8%
Manufacturing	Men	76.9%
	Women	23.1%
Transport	Men	85.7%
	Women	14.3%
Service	Men	80%
	Women	20%

5.2.1.3 Comparison of the Gender Balance in Irish Companies with a Male President and a Female President

From the 920 companies on the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies List 347 were Irish owned. Of those 347 companies 25 had female Board Presidents with the remaining 322 companies having male Board Presidents. These 25 companies were found across 13 of the 20 industrial sectors as displayed in *Table 5.8*. Comparatively, all of the 20 industrial sectors included in the headcount contained companies with a male Board President.

Table 5.8 Number of Irish Owned Companies with a Female President by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Companies with Female President
Pharma	1
Technology	1
Manufacturing	1
Energy	5
Transport	1
Health	1
Retailing	1
Professional Services	4
Agribusiness	2
Resources	2
Financial Services	1
Media & Marketing	4
Non-Profit	1
Total	25

Following the removal of those companies with a female Board President the gender ratio of those holding the top decision-making positions was found to be 83 per cent male to 17 per cent female. For the 13 sectors with companies who a female Board President the gender ratio was 62 per cent male and 38 per cent female. In comparison for those same 13 sectors in companies with male Board Presidents the gender ratio was 82 per cent male and 18 per cent female. The gender ratio comparison between companies with male Board Presidents and female Board Presidents are displayed in *Tables 5.9 – 5.12*.

Table 5.9 Male Board President and Female Board President Comparison

President	Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector	Male %	Female %
Male President	All Sectors	1666	344	83%	17%
Female President	13 Sectors	133	81	62%	38%
Male President	13 Sectors	1159	256	82%	18%

Table 5.10 Companies with a Male Board President across all 20 Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Construction	299	27
Pharma	39	5
Technology	55	7
Manufacturing	78	15
Energy	102	22
Transport	96	24
Food & Drink	142	29
Health	139	59
Retailing	192	27
Professional Services	38	10
Agribusiness	229	24
Resources	65	14
Services	2	2
Communications	17	8
Financial Services	54	11
Tourism	28	4
Media & Marketing	35	10
Non-Profit	37	28
Property	0	0
Education	19	18
Total	1666	344
	83%	17%

Table 5.11 Companies with a Female Board President across 13 Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Pharma	3	3
Technology	5	1
Manufacturing	4	1
Energy	40	20
Transport	5	2
Health	7	2
Retailing	15	8
Professional Services	1	1
Agribusiness	8	9
Resources	7	5
Financial Services	6	6
Media & Marketing	28	17
Non-Profit	4	6
Total	133	81
	62%	38%

Table 5.12 Companies with a Male Board President across 13 Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Pharma	39	5
Technology	55	7
Manufacturing	78	15
Energy	102	22
Transport	96	24
Health	139	59
Retailing	192	27
Professional Services	38	10
Agribusiness	229	24
Resources	65	14
Financial Services	54	11
Media & Marketing	35	10
Non-Profit	37	28
Total	1159	256
	82%	18%

5.2.2 Stage Two Headcount of Irish Owned SMEs

For Stage Two all foreign owned organisations were excluded. Furthermore, for the purpose of this research non-profit making organisations on the list were also excluded. After the exclusion of both foreign owned and the non-profit making organisations there were 338 Irish owned companies in total. From the remaining 338 Irish owned companies from the original 920 companies on Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list, 136 companies were categorised as SMEs. These companies were located in 15 industrial sectors as displayed in *Table 5.13*.

Table 5.13 Number of Irish SMEs by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Irish SMEs per Industrial Sector
Construction	28
Pharma	5
Technology	8
Manufacturing	11
Energy	8
Transport	10
Food & Drink	6
Health	3
Retailing	20
Professional Services	4
Agribusiness	17
Resources	6
Financial Services	5
Tourism	1
Media & Marketing	4
Total	136

Three separate analysis were generated by the data. The first was an overall ratio of the men and women at the top decision-making positions within the Irish SME sector. The second was the ratio of men and women at the top decision-making positions within the Irish SME sector for each of the 15 industry sectors. Finally, the third was a comparison between the ratio of men and women at the top decision-making

positions between those companies who had a male President on their Board of Directors and those with a female President.

5.2.2.1 Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision-Making Positions within the Irish SME Sector

The headcount on the 136 qualifying companies identified 784 individuals occupying those top decision-making positions within Irish SMEs. Of those 784 individuals 674 were identified as male and 110 as female. This gives a gender ratio at the top decision-making positions for the Irish SME sector of 86 per cent male and 14 per cent female. The numerical breakdown of men and women by industrial sector is displayed in *Table 5.14*.

Table 5.14 Gender Breakdown of Irish SME Companies by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Construction	140	10
Pharma	20	1
Technology	55	7
Manufacturing	48	11
Energy	36	10
Transport	40	6
Food & Drink	24	5
Health	20	4
Retailing	87	11
Professional Services	14	3
Agribusiness	91	14
Resources	18	6
Financial Services	37	9
Tourism	10	0
Media & Marketing	34	13
Total	674	110
	86%	14%

5.2.2.2 Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision-Making Positions by SME Industrial Sector

The gender ratios of top decision-making positions by industrial sector for the cross section of Irish SMEs are displayed in *Table 5.15*. None of the industrial sectors were found to have a gender balance at their decision making levels. The industrial sector with the least gender imbalance was the media and marketing industrial sector with a gender ratio of 72.8 per cent male to 27.7 per cent female. This was followed by

the resources and energy industrial sectors with gender ratios of 75 per cent male to 25 per cent female and 78.3 per cent male to 21.7 per cent female respectively. The industrial sector found to have the highest level of gender imbalance was the tourism sector with a 100 per cent males holding the top decision-making positions. This was followed by the pharmaceutical and the construction sectors followed with a gender ratio of 95.2 per cent male to 4.8 per cent female and 93.3 per cent male to 6.7 per cent female respectively.

Table 5.15 Ratio of Men and Women at the Top Decision Making Position in Irish SMEs

Industrial Sector		SME Companies
Construction	Men	93.3%
	Women	6.7%
Pharma	Men	95.2%
	Women	4.8%
Technology	Men	88.7%
	Women	11.3%
Manufacturing	Men	81.3%
	Women	18.7%
Energy	Men	78.3%
	Women	21.7%
Transport	Men	87%
	Women	13%
Food & Drink	Men	82.8%
	Women	17.2%
Health	Men	83.3%
	Women	16.7%
Retailing	Men	88.8%
	Women	11.2%
Professional Services	Men	82.4%
	Women	17.6%
Agribusiness	Men	85.8%
	Women	14.2%
Resources	Men	75%
	Women	25%
Financial Services	Men	80.4%
	Women	19.6%
Tourism	Men	100%
	Women	0%
Media & Marketing	Men	72.3%
	Women	27.7%

5.2.2.3 Comparison of the Gender Balance in Irish SME Companies with a Male President and a Female President

A total of nine SME companies from the original 136 Irish SME companies were found to have a female president on their Board of Directors. Those nine companies were found across six of the SME industry sectors as displayed in *Table 5.16*. All of the 15 SME industrial sectors had companies with male presidents.

Table 5.16 Number of Irish SMEs with a Female President by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of Companies with Female President
Manufacturing	1
Retailing	2
Agribusiness	2
Resources	1
Financial Services	2
Media & Marketing	1
Total	9

Following the removal of those companies with a female Board President the gender ratio of those holding the top decision-making positions was found to be 88 per cent male to 12 per cent female. For the six industrial sectors with companies who had a female Board President the gender ratio was 61 per cent male and 39 per cent female. In comparison for those same 13 industrial sectors in companies with male Board Presidents the gender ratio was 87 per cent male and 13 per cent female. The gender ratio comparison between companies with male Board Presidents and female Board Presidents are presented in *Tables 5.17 – 5.20*.

Table 5.17 Male Board President and Female Board President Comparison

President	Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector	Men %	Women %
Male President	All Sectors	637	86	88%	12%
Female President	6 Sectors (Table 5.16)	38	24	61%	39%
Male President	6 Sectors (Table 5.16)	278	40	87%	13%

Table 5.18 Irish SME Companies with a Male Board President across all 15

Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Construction	140	10
Pharma	20	1
Technology	55	7
Manufacturing	45	10
Energy	36	10
Transport	40	6
Food & Drink	24	5
Health	20	4
Retailing	80	8
Professional Services	14	3
Agribusiness	89	10
Resources	16	5
Financial Services	31	3
Tourism	10	0
Media & Marketing	17	4
Total	637	86
	88%	12%

Table 5.19 Irish SME Companies with a Female Board President across 6

Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Manufacturing	4	1
Retailing	7	3
Agribusiness	2	4
Resources	2	1
Financial Services	6	6
Media & Marketing	17	9
Total	38	24
	61%	39%

Table 5.20 Irish SME Companies with a Male Board President across 6

Industrial Sectors

Industrial Sector	No. of Men per Industrial Sector	No. of Women per Industrial Sector
Manufacturing	45	10
Retailing	80	8
Agribusiness	89	10
Resources	16	5
Financial Services	31	3
Media & Marketing	17	4
Total	278	40
	87%	13%

5.3 Stage B – Website Content Analysis

To examine how the awareness of equality, and in particular gender equality, is reflected by Irish SMEs through their public digital profile a content analysis using the company websites of a purposive sample of 136 SME organisations was undertaken. This sample, from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list, had been included in the initial measurement of men and women in decision-making positions in Stage One. A deductive approach was taken using four specific predetermined key-words and phrases; ‘gender equality’, ‘diversity’, ‘inclusion’ and ‘equal opportunities employer’. The key words and phrases were searched for under three separate sections on each of the SME organisation websites; ‘about us’, ‘careers’ or ‘policies’. Of the 136 SME organisations four had no website in the public domain resulting in a total sample of 132 SME organisations.

5.3.1 Website Content Analysis for Total Sample

From the content analysis of the websites for all 132 Irish SME organisations with websites in the public domain 3.8 per cent (n=5) contained the phrase ‘gender equality’. The key word ‘diversity’ was found 13.6 per cent (n=18) of the websites while ‘inclusion’ was found on 7.6 per cent (n=10) of the websites. Of the 132 Irish SME organisations 17.4 per cent (n=23) specifically state on their websites that they are ‘equal opportunities employers’. Of the 132 Irish SME organisations websites 3 per cent (n=4) were found to contain all four specific key words and phrases.

5.3.2 Website Content Analysis by Industrial Sector

Following from the analysis for the total sample an additional separate analysis was completed for each of the fifteen industrial sectors. This analysis identified that the four specific key words and phrases were not found for any Irish SMEs in the Agribusiness industrial sector. All four of the key words and phrases were found on one website in the Pharma and one website in the Food and Drink industrial sectors and on two of the websites in the Construction sector. The breakdown for all fifteen sectors is displayed in *Table 5.21*.

Table 5.21 Website Content Analysis by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	Key Word								
	Gender Equality		Diversity		Inclusion		Equal Opportunities Employer		
	%	n=	%	n=	%	n=	%	n=	
Construction	7.1%	2	25%	7	14.3%	4	28.6%	8	
Pharma	25%	1	25%	1	25%	1	25%	1	
Technology			25%	2	25%	1	37.5%	3	
Manufacturing			9.1%	1			18.2%	2	
Energy			12.5%	1	12.5%	1	12.5%	1	
Transport			10%	1	10%	1			
Food & Drink	25%	1	25%	1	25%	1	25%	1	
Health	33.3%	1	33.3%	1	33.3%	1	33.3%	1	
Retailing			5%	1			10%	2	
Professional Services			25%	1					
Agribusiness									
Resources							20%	1	
Financial Services			20%	1			20%	1	
Tourism							100%	1	
Media & Marketing							25%	1	

5.3.3 Inter Rater Reliability

An inter rater reliability test was conducted to establish the reliability of the researchers (R1) findings from the website content analysis. A random sample of fourteen websites from the original 132 SME company websites included in the content analysis were chosen by another independent researcher (R2) to measure the degree of consistency in the observations between the two researchers. Following the approach adopted in the original content analysis the key words and phrases, ‘gender equality’, ‘diversity’, ‘inclusion’ and ‘equal opportunities employer’, were searched for under three separate sections on each of the SME organisation websites; ‘about us’, ‘careers’ or ‘policies’. There was agreement between the researchers on all fourteen of the SME websites as displayed in *Table 5.22*. This resulted in a percentage agreement of 100 per cent giving a Pearson’s Value ICC of 1.

Table 5.22 Inter Rater Reliability Test for Website Content Analysis

Industrial Sector	Key Word							
	Gender Equality		Diversity		Inclusion		Equal Opportunities Employer	
	R 1	R 2	R 1	R 2	R 1	R 2	R 1	R 2
n=								
Construction	2		100%	100%	50%	50%	50%	50%
Pharma	1		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Technology	1		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Manufacturing	1		100%	100%				
Energy	1		100%	100%	100%	100%		
Transport	1		100%	100%	100%	100%		
Food & Drink	1	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Health	1		100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Retailing	1						100%	100%
Professional Services	1		100%	100%				
Agribusiness	1							
Tourism	1						100%	100%
Media & Marketing	1						100%	100%

5.4 Stage C – Survey

Following the identification and analysis of the main themes surrounding vertical gender segregation in the literature review of *Chapter 3* an analytical survey was designed, piloted and administered to three separate groups of participants. These three separate groups of participants, as discussed in *Section 4.6.3 of Chapter 4*, consisted of 136 of the top performing Irish SME organisations in 2017, the Irish small to medium enterprises who are members of ISME and a non-probability purposive sample of participants of SME employees, managers, owners or directors currently attending evening, flexible and part-time academic programmes in various business discipline areas through the Faculty of Lifelong Learning in the Institute of Technology Carlow. There was no participation in the survey by the second group, the members of ISME. The responses of those who participated in the survey from groups one and three are presented below.

5.4.1 Group One – Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 Irish SME Organisations

The first group of participants involved a purposive sample consisting of the 136 Irish SME organisations from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies 2017 list. From the 136 SME organisations contacted 24 responded that they had a company policy of not participating in surveys resulting in an actual sample size of 112 Irish SME participants. The SME organisations were contacted by e-mail with a follow-up reminder e-mail sent six weeks later. Of the 112 Irish SME organisations in the sample five choose to participate in the survey, resulting in a response rate of 4.5 per cent. Analysis of the survey, which contained six sections, involved both sectional and cross-sectional examination.

5.4.1.1 Demographic Analysis of Survey Participants

Section A was designed to capture the demographic background information of the participants using gender, age and marital status variables. This was in conjunction with questions to establish their position in the organisation and the length of time they were employed in the Irish SME organisation. Furthermore, Section A aimed to determine if the organisation was a micro, small or medium-size enterprise through establishing the approximate number of employees in the Irish SME organisation and what industrial sector that SME organisation was based. The demographical analysis of the participants is presented below.

5.4.1.1.1 Gender, Age and Relationship Classification of Participants

The gender of the total participants (n=5) was identified as 60 per cent (n=3) male, 20 per cent (n=1) female and 20 per cent (n=1) other. To capture the approximate ages of the participants the survey provided five categories of ages for the participants to choose from; 18-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-44 years, 45-54 years and 55-64 years. The age breakdown of the total participants (n=5) was as follows; 25-34 years 20 per cent (n=1), 35-44 years 20 per cent (n=1) and 45-54 years 60 per cent (n=3). Finally, to establish the relationship status of the participants the survey provided six possible relationship statuses for participants to choose from; single, married, separated, divorced, co-habituating and widowed. Upon analysis it was found that the relationship statuses of the total participants (n=133) was categorised as follows;

single 20 per cent (n=1), married 40 per cent (n=2), divorced 20 per cent (n=2) and co-habituating 20 per cent (n=1).

5.4.1.1.2 Analysis of Organisational Positions held by the Participants in the SMEs

To establish the roles held by the participants in their SME organisation they were asked to specify their job title in their organisation. The responses of the total participants (n=5) are presented in *Table 5.23*, along with the gender, age and length of tenure of each of the individual participants.

Table 5.23 Participants Organisational Position

Organisational Position	n=	% of Participants	Gender of Participant	Age of Participant	Length of Tenure
HR Manager	1	20%	Female	25-34 years	Less than one year
Management Accountant	1	20%	Male	45-54 years	10 years plus
Senior Commercial Sales Manager	1	20%	Other	45-54 years	10 years plus
Marketing Manager	1	20%	Male	45-54 years	10 years plus
General Manager	1	20%	Male	35-44 years	10 years plus

5.4.1.1.3 Classification of SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector

To establish both the organisational size of the Irish SME organisation and the industrial sector in which that Irish SME was situated participants were asked to identify the name of their organisation. This was then cross referenced with the data compiled to complete the headcount to extract both the industrial sector in which the SME organisation was situated and the size of the Irish SME organisation, using employee numbers. The results of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.24-5.25*.

Table 5.24 SME Organisations per Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	n=	%
Construction	1	20%
Retailing	1	20%
Agribusiness	2	40%
Energy	1	20%

Table 5.25 SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector

No. of Employees	Construction (n=1)	Retailing (n=1)	Agribusiness (n=2)	Energy (n=1)
>10 Employees				
11-50 Employees			50%	
51-250 Employees	100%	100%	50%	100%

Finally, the gender of those participants who identified their gender (n=4) occupying the management positions in each of the three identified industrial sectors in which they are employed was analysed and is presented in *Table 5.26*.

Table 5.26 Gender of Participants Occupying Management Positions by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	Gender	No of Participants	Per Cent
Construction	Male		
	Female	1	100%
Retailing	Male	1	100%
	Female		
Agribusiness	Male	2	100%
	Female		

5.4.1.2 Survey Analysis of Sections B-F

As discussed in *Chapter 4 Section 4.6.2* the remaining five sections B-F aimed to capture if the main themes surrounding vertical gender segregation identified within the literature, gender stereotyping, lack of flexibility and work/life balance, a gendered or patriarchal nature to the structure of the organisation and informal male networks, also existed within the Irish SMEs included in the survey. The survey questions in sections B-F focused on five main categories; the educational capital and professional development of the participants, gender biases surrounding the management role, the availability and perceptions of flexible work practices, the gender differences in the impact the organisational culture may have for employees and finally the participants' individual views on gender equality and the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for all employees. The findings from the survey with regard to these five categories are presented below.

5.4.1.2.1 Educational Capital and Professional Development of Participants

The survey contained questions addressing both the participants' level of education and the further training and development opportunities offered by their organisations with the objective of establishing the level of investment made by both the individual participants and by the organisations in which they worked into their education and professional development. Additionally, the survey addressed possible considerations the individual participants may possess when deciding to avail of any training or development opportunities offered by their organisation.

The educational capital breakdown for the total participants (n=5) and of those participants who identified their gender (n=4) is displayed in *Table 5.27*.

Table 5.27 Educational Capital Analysis for Total Survey Participants and by Gender (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	No. of Participants	Per Cent	% Male (n=3)	% Female (n=1)
NFQ Level 4 & 5				
NFQ Level 6	1	20%	100%	
NFQ Level 7				
NFQ Level 8	2	40%	50%	50%
NFQ Level 9				
NFQ Level 10				
Professional Qualifications	1	20%	100%	
Other	1	20%		

To allow for further exploration of the educational capital held by the participants the various education levels were also analysed using the size of the organisations. The findings of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.28*.

Table 5.28 Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Size (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	Organisational Size	
	11 – 50 Employees (n=1)	51-250 Employees (n=4)
NFQ Level 4 & 5		
NFQ Level 6	100%	
NFQ Level 7		
NFQ Level 8		50%
NFQ Level 9		
NFQ Level 10		
Professional Qualifications		25%
Other		25%

The survey presented participants with a statement about the level of investment made by women in their education. The participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement by ticking the appropriate response from a choice of four; strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. The statement is detailed in *Table 5.29*.

Table 5.29 Statements on Educational Investment and Education Fields

Statement 1: Women due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.

The gendered differences in the responses of the participants (n=4) to this statements were as follows. In response to the statement that childcare or other domestic duties have resulted in women investing less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market 100 per cent (n=1) of the total female respondents strongly disagreed with the statement and 33.3 per cent (n=1) of the total male respondents (n=3) disagreed with the statement. While 66.7 per cent (n=2) of the total male participants (n=3) agreed with the statement.

Further to establishing the level of education held by the participants the survey also aimed to capture any professional development undertaken by the participants and their experiences of this process. Of the total participants (n=5) 60 per cent (n=3) had undertaken some professional development since entering the labour force, while 40

per cent (n=2) stated that they had not. When analysed using the participants gender (n=4) 100 per cent (n=3) of males and no females had engaged in some professional development.

To expand on this further the size of the SME organisation in which the participants who had engaged in professional development were based was analysed. It was found that 100 per cent (n=3) of those who had engaged in professional development were based in SME organisations with between 51-250 employees.

The participants were then asked if the current organisation in which they were employed offered any training or development opportunities to employees. From the total sample group (n=5) 60 per cent (n=3) offered training or development opportunities while 40 per cent (n=2) did not.

Further to this, participants were asked that if their organisation did offer any training or development opportunities had they availed of them. Of the 3 participants who answered positively 100 per cent (n=3) had availed of the training or development opportunities. When asked if they believed if availing of these training and development opportunities had aided them in their career progression 100 per cent (n=3) of the 3 participants responded that they believed it had aided them in their career progression.

Finally, the participants who had availed of further training and development were then asked to rank by level of importance three possible considerations a person may hold when making the decision to engage in training and development opportunities. These three considerations are detailed in *Table 5.30*. The analysis of each consideration are presented in *Tables 5.31-5.33*.

Table 5.30 Possible Considerations When Deciding to Engage in Training and Development Opportunities

Consideration 1: Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career.
Consideration 2: Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training
Consideration 3: The clarity and ease of the process to apply for training/development opportunities

Table 5.31 Consideration 1 Analysis

Consideration 1: Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important (n=1)	Very Important (n=2)
Participants (n=3)			33.3%	66.7%

Table 5.32 Consideration 2 Analysis

Consideration 2: Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training				
	No Importance	Little Importance (n=1)	Important (n=2)	Very Important
Participants(n=3)		33.3%	66.7%	

Table 5.33 Consideration 3 Analysis

Consideration 3: Clarity and ease in applying for training/development				
	No Importance	Little Importance (n=1)	Important	Very Important (n=2)
Participants (n=3)		33.3%		66.7%

5.4.1.2.2 Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role

To identify the existence of any possible gender biases surrounding the management role the survey contained questions addressing gender equality policies and the personality characteristics often applied to managers. Additionally, the survey addressed possible considerations an individual may possess when deciding to apply for a promotion and if the participants' role in their organisation contain the responsibility for conducting interviews.

When asked if their organisation had a gender equality policy 60 per cent (n=3) of the total participants (n=5) affirmed that it did replied that their organisation did not have a gender equality policy. While 40 per cent (n=2) were unaware if there was any formal gender equality policy in their organisation. Of those respondents who were unaware if there was a gender equality policy 100 per cent (n=2) were male.

To explore the visibility of gender equality within the participants organisation and the industry sector in which their organisation is based they were presented with three

statements and asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with them. These three statements are presented in *Table 5.34*

Table 5.34 Statements on the Visibility of Gender Equality at an Organisational and Industry Level

Statement 1: My organisation places an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.

Statement 2: Both men and women are visible in management roles within my organisation.

Statement 3: Both men and women are visible in management roles in the industry sector in which my organisation is based.

The participants' responses to each statement were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=5). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=4) or female (n=1). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.1-5.6*.

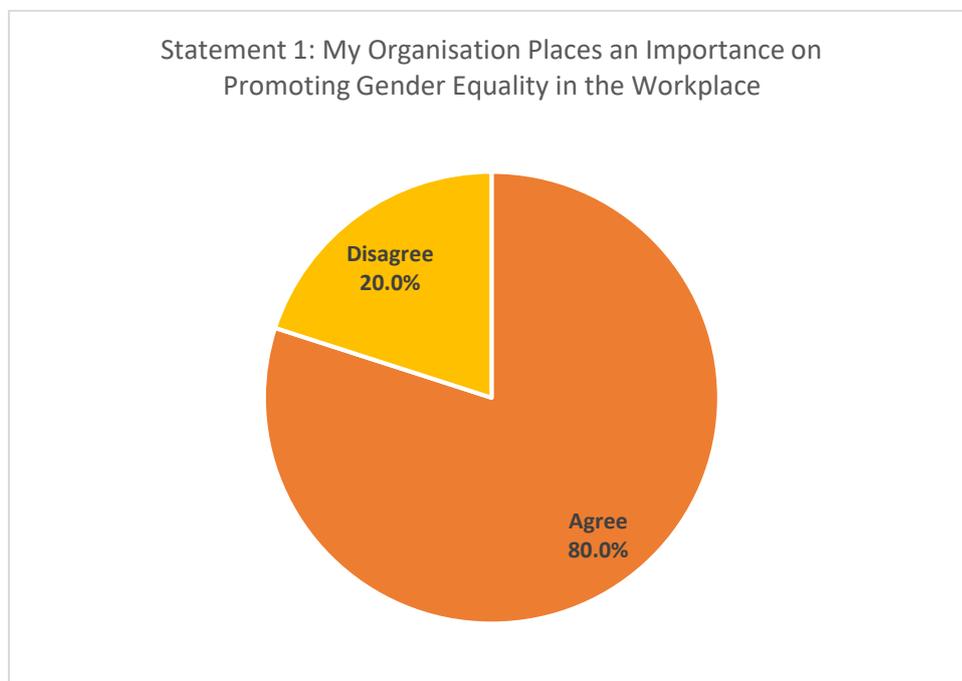


Figure 5.1 Statement 1 Analysis

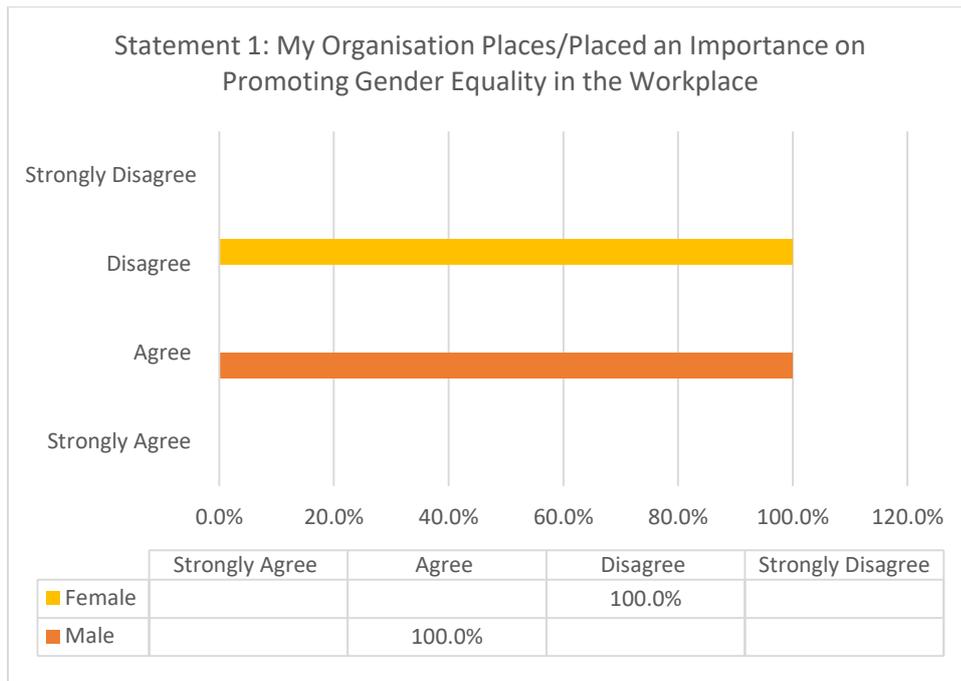


Figure 5.2 Statement 1 Analysis by Gender

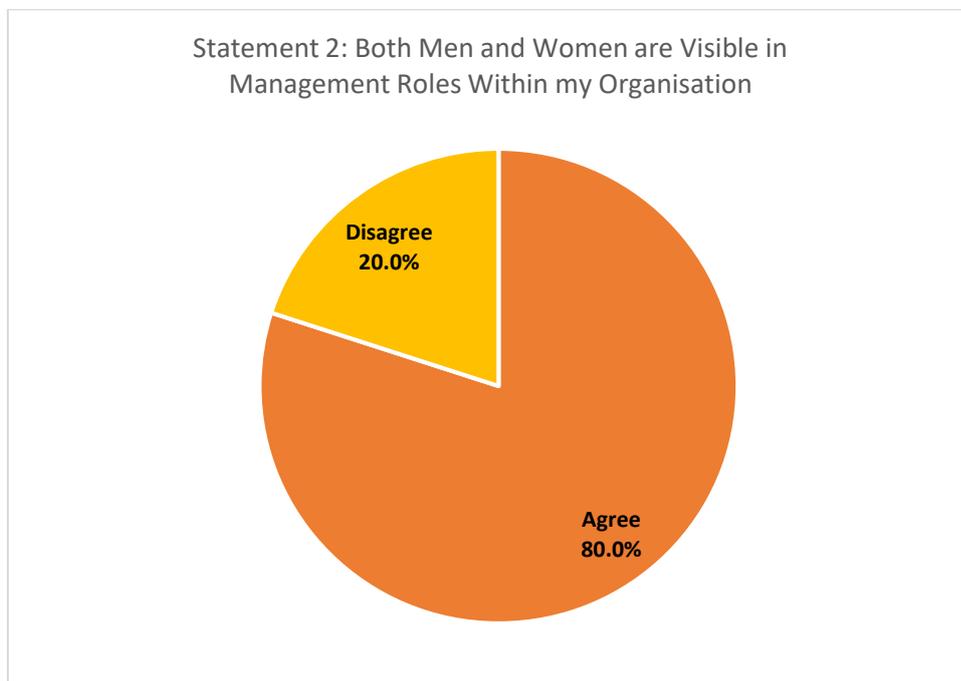


Figure 5.3 Statement 2 Analysis

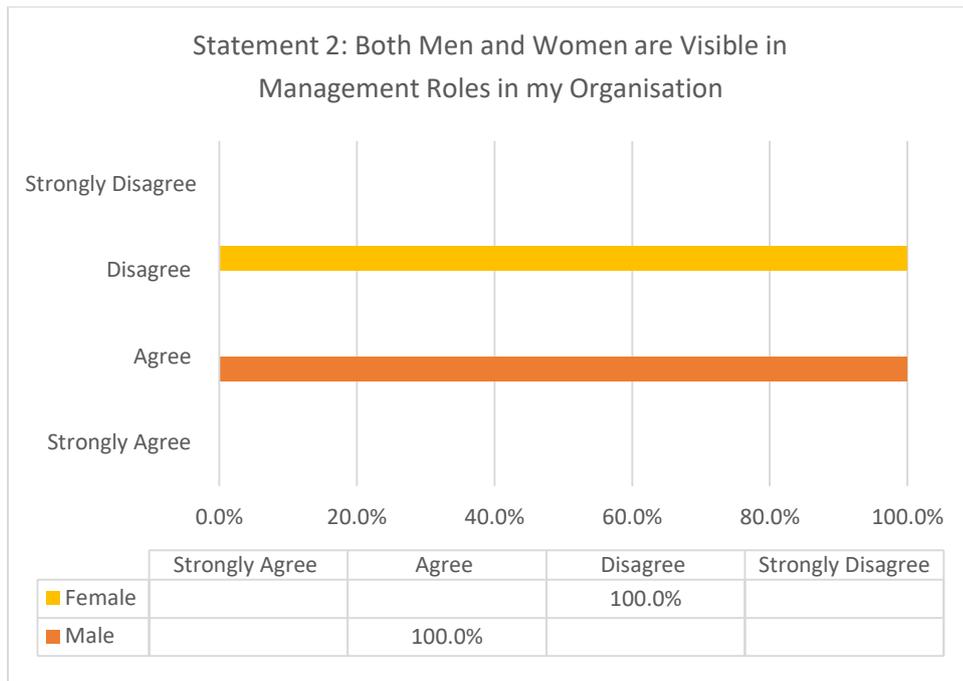


Figure 5.4 Statement 2 Analysis by Gender

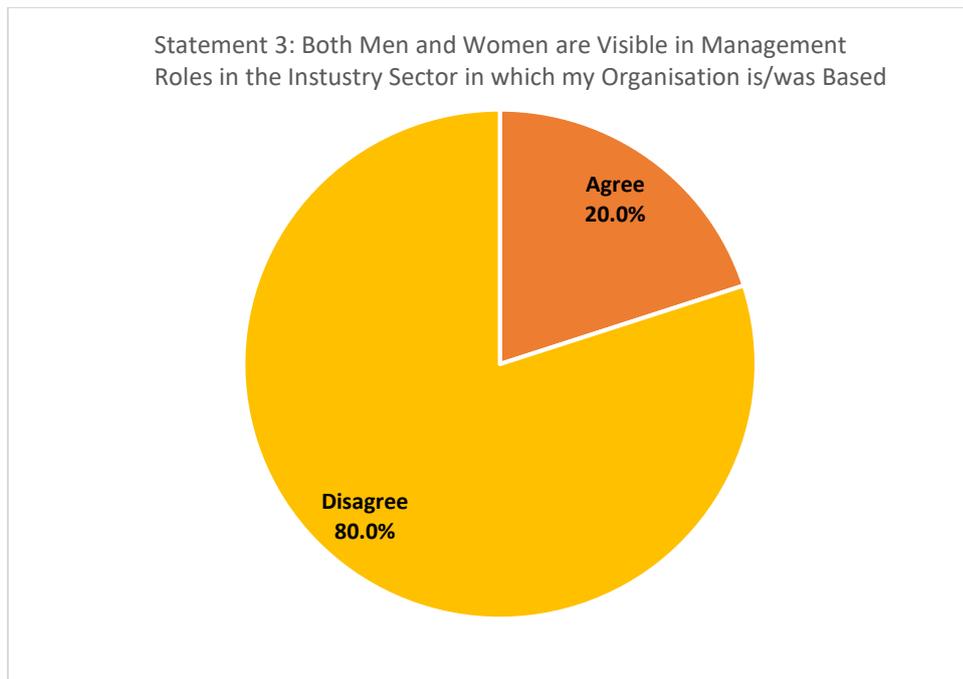


Figure 5.5 Statement 3 Analysis

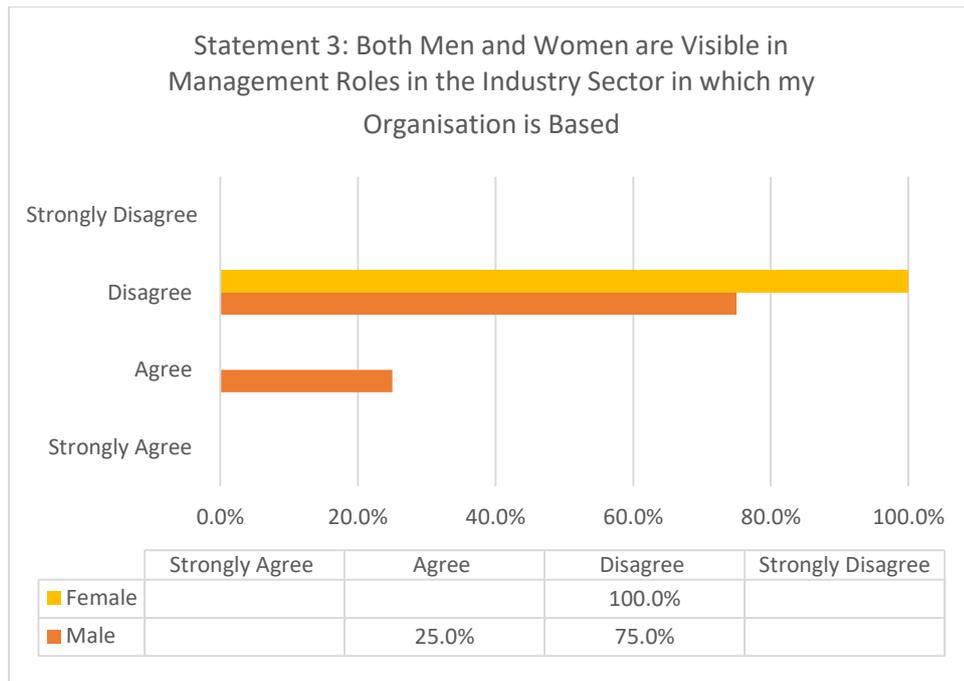


Figure 5.6 Statement 3 Analysis by Gender

The survey present participants with a list of characteristics which may often be applied to those in management positions. The participants were asked to identify if they believed if these characteristics were more likely to be associated with a male or female manager or with both. The responses of the total participants (n=5) for each of the characteristics are displayed in *Figure 5.7*

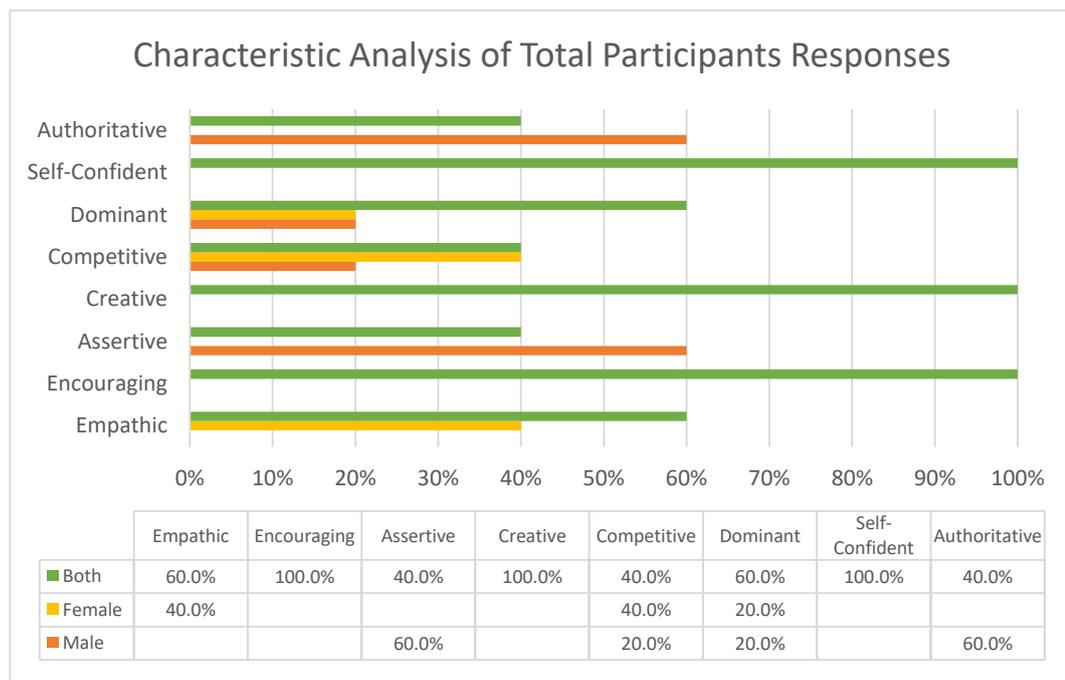


Figure 5.7 Characteristic Analysis of Total Participants Responses

To expand on this further the responses of the participants to each of the characteristics were then segregated by gender and a separate analysis by gender was compiled. The responses of the male (n=4) and female (n=1) participants are displayed in *Figures 5.8-5.9*.

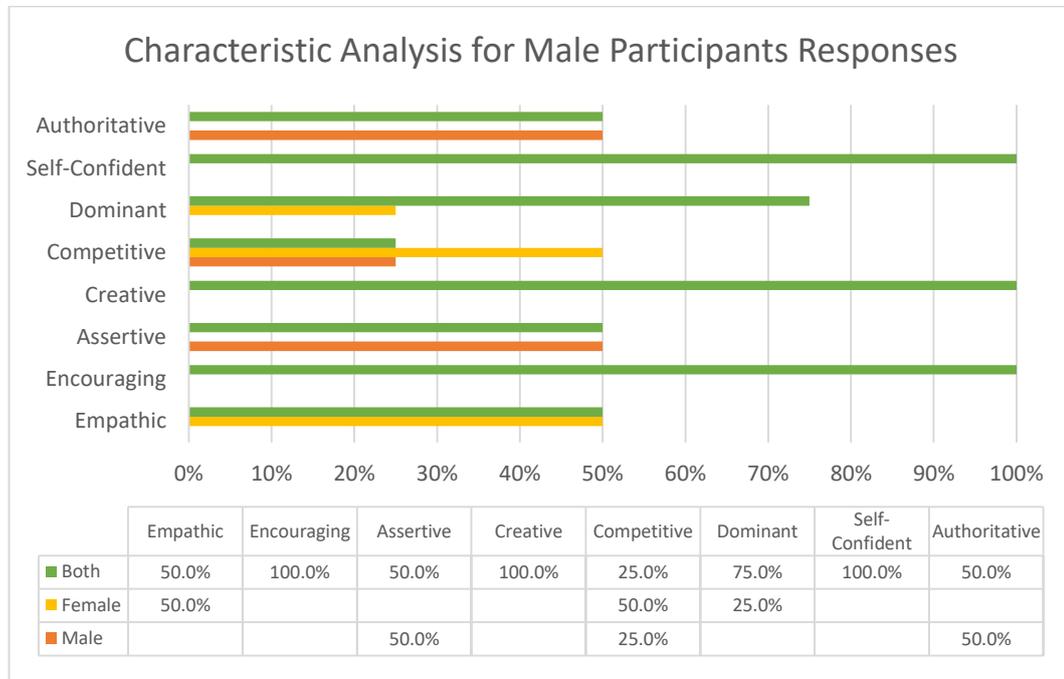


Figure 5.8 Characteristic Analysis for Male Participants Responses

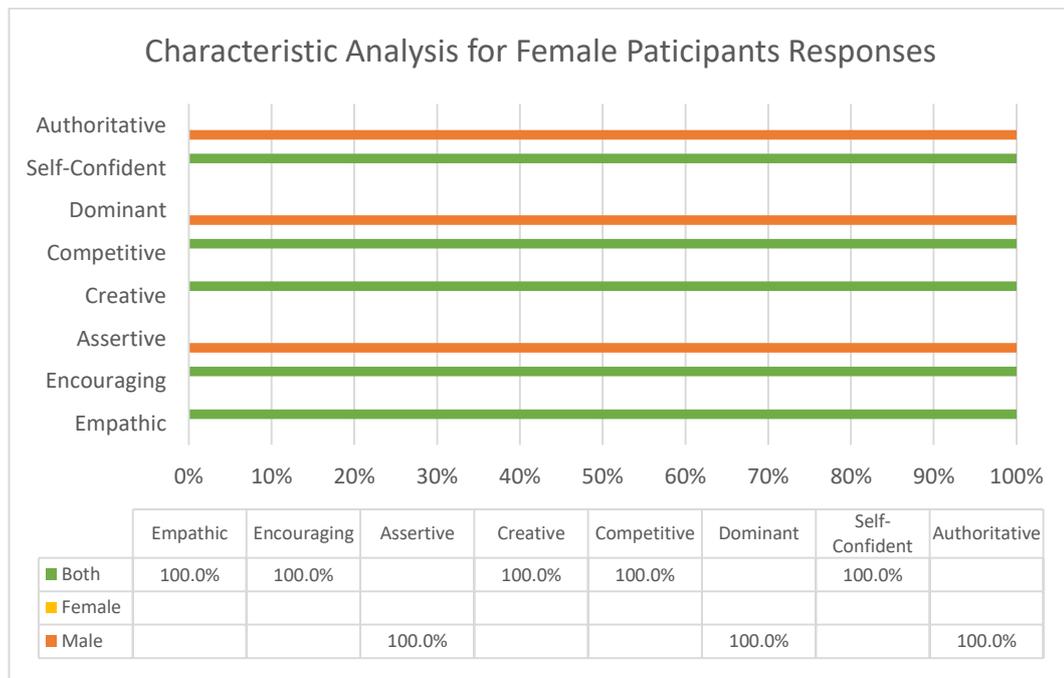


Figure 5.9 Characteristic Analysis for Female Participants Responses

Further to this, participants were asked to rank their level of agreement or disagreement with a statement about how the views held by society on the ideal gender and personality characteristics may favour male managers over female managers. The statement is presented in *Table 5.35*.

Table 5.35 Societal View and Favouring Male over Female Managers

Statement 1: The view held by society of what personality characteristics, behaviour and gender a manager/leader should possess favours male managers/leaders over female managers/leaders.

Of the total participants (n=5) 80 per cent (n=4) disagreed with the statement, while 20 per cent (n=1) agreed. Further analysis found, using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=3) or female (n=1), that those participants who disagreed with the statement were male, while the participant who agreed with the statement was female.

The survey presented five possible considerations a person may hold when making the decision to apply for a promotion. The participants were asked to rank by order of importance the influence these considerations may hold for them personally when making the decision to apply for a promotion. The five considerations are displayed in *Table 5.36*.

Table 5.36 Possible Considerations When Deciding to Apply for Promotion

Consideration 1: The compatibility of the responsibilities of the new position with existing home/family commitments.

Consideration 2: The working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours are structured (e.g. set starting/finishing times, ability to work from home).

Consideration 3: The gender of the person who previously held that position.

Consideration 4: The gender of those in similar positions in the organisation.

Consideration 5: The level of encouragement and support received from your manager/organisation to apply for the promotion.

The participants' responses to each consideration were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=5) followed by analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=3) or female (n=1). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Tables 5.37-5.41*

Table 5.37 Consideration 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Consideration 1: The compatibility of the responsibilities of the new position with existing home/family commitments.				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
Total Participants (n=5)		20%		80%
Male Participants (n=3)		33.3%		66.7%
Female Participants (n=1)				100%
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.38 Consideration 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Consideration 2: The working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours are structured (e.g. set starting/finishing times, ability to work from home).				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
Total Participants (n=5)			40%	60%
Male Participants (n=3)			33.3%	66.7%
Female Participants (n=1)				100%
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.39 Consideration 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Consideration 3: The gender of the person who previously held that position.				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
Total Participants (n=5)	80%	20%		
Male Participants (n=3)	100%			
Female Participants (n=1)	100%			
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.40 Consideration 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Consideration 4: The gender of those in similar positions in the organisation.				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
Total Participants (n=5)	80%	20%		
Male Participants (n=3)	100%			
Female Participants (n=1)	100%			
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.41 Consideration 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Consideration 5: The level of encouragement and support received from your manager/organisation to apply for the promotion.				
	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
Total Participants (n=5)		40%	40%	20%
Male Participants (n=3)		33.3%	66.7%	
Female Participants (n=1)				100%
Non-Gender Specific Participant (N=1)		100%		

Further to these five possible considerations the survey also presented two statements regarding the career progression of women which participants were asked to rank their level of agreement with. The two statements are presented in *Table 5.42*. The participants' responses to each consideration were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=5) followed by analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=3) or female (n=1). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Tables 5.43-5.44*

Table 5.42 Statements on the Career Progression of Women

Statement 1: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their career as their male colleagues.

Statement 2: The gender of those already holding management positions in an organisation (i.e. if all or almost all existing managers are male) may negatively impact on the opportunities for women to progress within that organisation.

Table 5.43 Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 1: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their career as their male colleagues.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total				
Participants (n=5)		60%	20%	20%
Male				
Participants (n=3)		100%		
Female				
Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender				
Specified Participant (n=1)				100%

Table 5.44 Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Statement 2: The gender of those already holding management positions in an organisation (i.e. if all or almost all existing managers are male) may negatively impact on the opportunities for women to progress within that organisation.				
Total Participants (n=5)		60%	40%	
Male Participants (n=3)		66.7%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)			100%	

The survey asked participants to identify if they were aware as to whether their organisation had written job descriptions for each role detailing the exact skills and abilities the person occupying that role should possess. Of the total participants (n=5) 80 per cent (n=4) affirmed that their organisation was in possession of such job descriptions. The remaining participant responded that there were no job descriptions in their organisation.

The participants were then asked to identify if they were required in their role within their organisation to conduct interviews with new candidates to fill vacant positions or with current employees seeking promotion. Of the total participants (n=5) 100 per cent responded that they were required to conduct interviews in their organisation. The participants were then asked to identify if they had received any training before conducting any interviews. All of the participants responded that they had received no training from their organisations in conducting interviews.

Finally, the level of agreement by the participants to five statements on the importance of gender equality and the career progression of women was analysed. The six statements are displayed in *Table 5.45*.

Table 5.45 Statements on the Importance of Gender Equality and the Career Progress of Women

Statement 1: As a manager I personally place an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.
Statement 2: I believe in my role of manager I have always treated other employees equally based on their merits irrespective of their gender.
Statement 3: Women with children are less capable and committed to their work than those women without children and men.
Statement 4: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.
Statement 5: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their careers as their male colleagues.

The participants' responses to the five statements were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=5) followed by analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=3) or female (n=1). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Tables 5.46-5.50*.

Table 5.46 Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 1: As a manager I personally place an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)		60%	40%	
Male Participants (n=3)		66.7%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)			100%	

Table 5.47 Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 2: I believe in my role of manager I have always treated other employees equally based on their merits irrespective of their gender.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)	20%	60%	20%	
Male Participants (n=3)	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.48 Statement 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 3: Women with children are less capable and committed to their work than those women without children and men.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)			100%	
Male Participants (n=3)			100%	
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)			100%	

Table 5.49 Statement 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 4: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)		20%	60%	20%
Male Participants (n=3)		33.3%	33.3%	33.3%
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)			100%	

Table 5.50 Statement 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 5: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their careers as their male colleagues.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)		20%	60%	20%
Male Participants (n=3)		33.3%	33.3%	33.3%
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specified Participant (n=1)			100%	

5.4.1.2.3 Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Work Practices

To establish the level of flexible work practices, if any, offered by the participants' organisations the survey contained questions addressing the level of flexibility surrounding working hours offered by the various organisations. Additionally, the survey aimed to capture the attitudes and perceptions held by the participants towards working with those who availed of flexible work practices.

The survey provided four types of flexible work practices and asked participants to identify if any were available to them in their organisation. They were also provided with a fifth option of ‘other flexibility offered by organisation’. The responses from the total participants (n=5) for each of the five options are displayed in *Figure 5.10*.

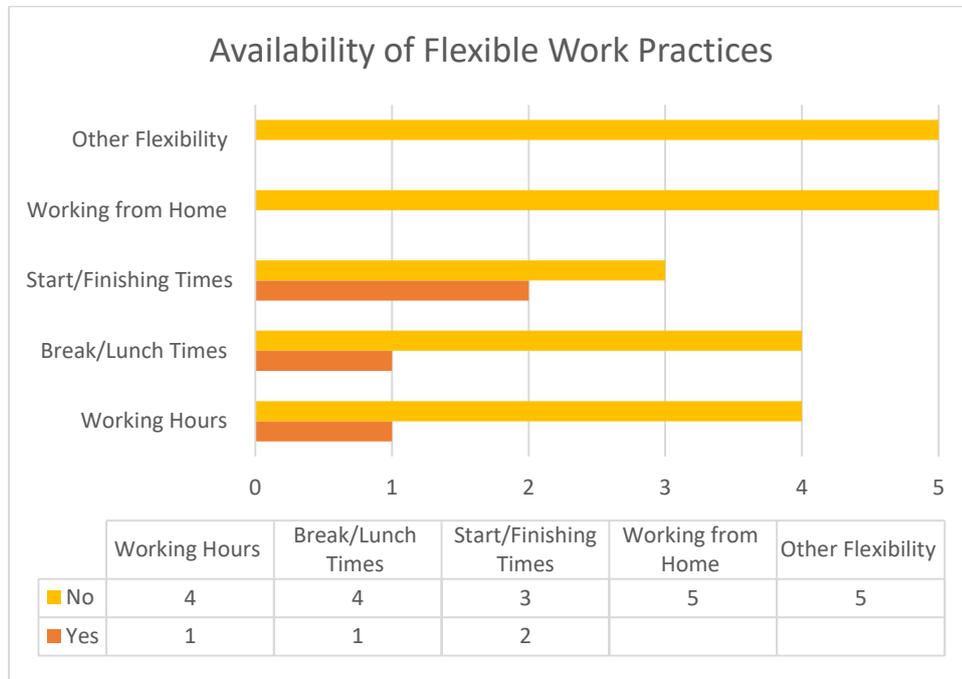


Figure 5.10 Availability of Flexible Work Practices in Participants’ Organisations

Additionally, the participants were given the opportunity to describe any flexible work practices in greater detail allowing them to expand further on the flexibility offer by their organisations. The responses of the participants (N=2) who choose to expand further on the flexibility offered by their organisation were as follows:

Construction industry is difficult to find balance with operating sites and office staff supporting sites discretion is practiced in terms of flexibility offered by organisation.

I as manager allow staff to work between 8am and 6pm as long as 39 hours a week are done and two staff are present at all times.

The survey additionally asked participants to identify if their organisation offered flexible work practices to management staff. Of those participants who responded (n=4) 50 per cent (n=2) stated that their organisation did offer flexible work practices to their management staff. While 25 per cent (n=1) responded that their organisation

did not with the remaining 25 per cent (n=1) being unaware if flexible work practice were available to management staff.

Finally, to capture the attitudes held by the participants towards availing of flexible work practices themselves and the perceptions they held towards others who availed of them the participants were asked to rank their level of agreement with seven statements. The seven statements are displayed in *Table 5.51*.

Table 5.51 Statements on the Flexible Work Practices

Statement 1: I feel it is important to have a balance between work and life.

Statement 2: In general, it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work with the responsibilities of family/personal life.

Statement 3: I would feel comfortable approaching my employers about availing of a flexible work arrangement for myself.

Statement 4: I believe using a flexible workplace arrangement (e.g. part-time schedule) would not jeopardise my chances of promotion.

Statement 5: Within my organisation those employees using flexible working arrangements (e.g. part-time/shorter working day) are/were viewed as not carrying the same workload as those who do not have flexible working arrangements.

Statement 6: I believe having employees on my team using flexible working arrangements would/did increase my own work load.

Statement 7: I believe those employees with children are/were afforded greater flexibility in the workplace than those without.

The participants' responses to the seven statements were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=5) followed by analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=3) or female (n=1). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Tables 5.52-5.58*.

Table 5.52 Statement 1 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 1: I feel it is important to have a balance between work and life.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)	100%			
Male Participants (n=3)	100%			
Female Participants (n=1)	100%			
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)	100%			

Table 5.53 Statement 2 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 2: In general, it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work with the responsibilities of family/personal life.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)	20%	60%	20%	
Male Participants (n=3)	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)				

Table 5.54 Statement 3 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 3: I would feel comfortable approaching my employers about availing of a flexible work arrangement for myself.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)		60%	40%	
Male Participants (n=3)		66.7%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)			100%	

Table 5.55 Statement 4 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 4: I believe using a flexible workplace arrangement (e.g. part-time schedule) would not jeopardise my chances of promotion.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)		20%	80%	
Male Participants (n=3)			100%	
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.56 Statement 5 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Statement 5: Within my organisation those employees using flexible working arrangements (e.g. part-time/shorter working day) are/were viewed as not carrying the same workload as those who do not have flexible working arrangements.				
Total Participants (n=5)			100%	
Male Participants (n=3)			100%	
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)			100%	

Table 5.57 Statement 6 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Statement 6: I believe having employees on my team using flexible working arrangements would/did increase my own work load.				
Total Participants (n=5)		60%	40%	
Male Participants (n=3)		66.7%	33.3%	
Female Participants (n=1)			100%	
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)		100%		

Table 5.58 Statement 7 Analysis by Total Participants and by Gender

Statement 7: I believe those employees with children are/were afforded greater flexibility in the workplace than those without.				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Total Participants (n=5)	20%	60%	20%	
Male Participants (n=3)	33.3%	66.7%		
Female Participants (n=1)		100%		
Non-Gender Specific Participant (n=1)			100%	

5.4.2.2.4 The Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisational Culture on Employees

To examine the culture of the participants' organisations the survey contained questions surrounding the values most appreciated within their organisation, the type of workplace culture which existed in their organisation and the strategic approach adopted by their organisation. Further to this the participants were questioned as to whether they believed the culture existing within an organisation could contribute to gender inequality existing in that organisation.

To establish the values most appreciated within the participants' organisations the survey presented a list of seven values from which participants were asked to choose those which were granted importance in their individual organisations. The seven values are detailed in *Table 5.59*. The responses of the participants were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each value.

Table 5.59 Statements on the most Appreciated Organisational Values

Value 1: Uniformity: following the established way of doing things.

Value 2: Innovation: generating new ideas and developing new ways of doing things.

Value 3: Efficiency: achieving the best results in the most efficient way possible.

Value 4: Loyalty: the organisation is the number one priority.

Value 5: Collaboration: the ability work in a team is prioritised over the individual.

Value 6: Individualism: the uniqueness of each employee is recognised.

Value 7: Competitiveness: a high level of ambition and drive is crucial in all employees.

The response of the total participants (n=5) for each of the seven values are displayed in *Figure 5.11*

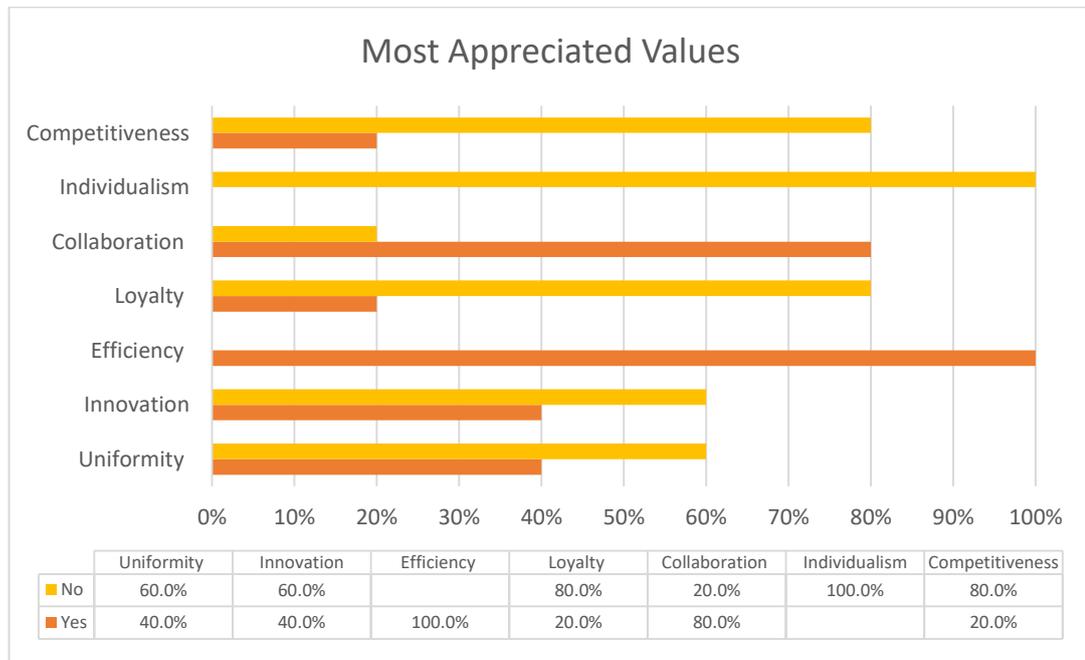


Figure 5.11 Most Appreciated Values in Participants' Organisations

To explore the workplace culture which existed within the participants' organisations the survey presented a list of four types of organisational cultures from which participants were asked to choose those which they believed best described the workplace culture found within their individual organisations. The four organisational cultures are detailed in *Table 5.60*. The responses of the participants (n=5) were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each value as presented in *Figure 5.12*.

Table 5.60 Organisational Cultures

Culture 1: Team-orientated: Informal atmosphere within the organisation where everyone works together to achieve success.

Culture 2: Entrepreneurial: People are willing to take chances and new ideas are embraced by the organisation. Those employees who take risks go furthest within the organisation.

Culture 3: Results Orientated: Focus is on achieving desired results set by the organisation. There is a high level of competitiveness amongst employees.

Culture 4: Bureaucratic: There is a structured way of doing things within the organisation and movement away from this is not encouraged.

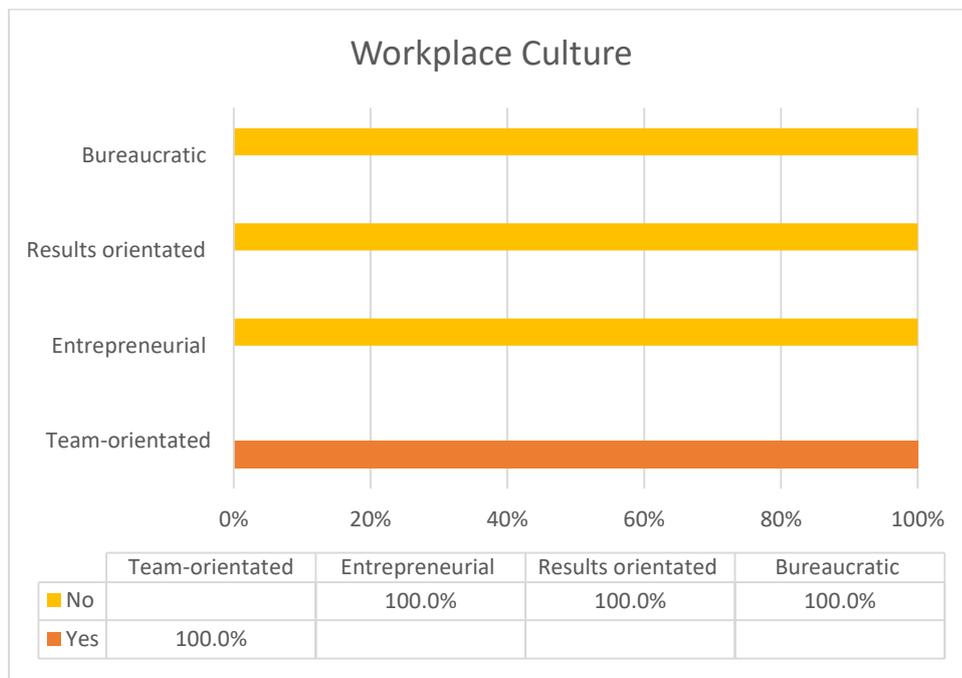


Figure 5.12 Workplace Cultures in Participants' Organisations

Finally, to establish the strategic approach adopted by the participants' organisations the survey presented a list of four types of strategic approaches from which participants were asked to choose those which they believed best described the approach adopted by their individual organisations. The four strategic approaches adopted are detailed in *Table 5.61*. The responses of the participants (n=5) were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each strategic approach as presented in *Figure 5.13*.

Table 5.61 Strategic Approaches

Approach 1: Emphasis is placed on employee development through the provision of training opportunities.

Approach 2: Emphasis is placed on embracing new ideas and new ways of doing things.

Approach 3: Emphasis is placed on meeting targets.

Approach 4: Emphasis is placed on ensuring efficiency and control is maintained at all times.



Figure 5.13 Strategic Approach of Participants' Organisations

The survey also asked participants if they believed the culture existing within an organisation could contribute to gender inequality existing in that organisation. Of the total participants (n=5) 80 per cent (n=4) responded that they believed that the culture found within an organisation could contribute to gender inequalities existing in that organisation. While 20 per cent (n=1) responded that they did not believe this to be true. Of those participants who responded that they believed the culture can contribute to gender inequalities and identified their gender (n=4) 75 per cent (n=3) were male and 25 per cent (n=1) were female. Of the four participants who responded that they believed the culture existing within an organisation could contribute to gender inequalities existing in that organisation 75 per cent (n=3) were from organisations with between 51 and 250 employees while 25 per cent (n=1) were based in organisations with between 11 and 50 employees.

5.4.2.2.4 Participants' Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees

Finally, the survey aimed to capture the participants' individual views on gender equality and the importance of ensure equal opportunities for all employees through posing four questions; whose responsibility it was to ensure equal opportunities for all employees, if they preferred voluntary targets or mandatory quotas, if they believed achieving gender balance should be a major consideration of all SMEs in the future and if they supported the idea of state support for those SMEs who made a conscious effort to promote women into management.

Participants were asked if they believed if it was the responsibility of the government, of the individual organisation or of both to ensuring that both men and women have equal opportunities in the workplace. Of the total participants (n=5) 20 per cent (n=1) stated they believed that it was the responsibility of the individual organisation and 80 per cent (n=4) believed that it was the responsibility of both the government and of the individual organisation. The responses of the participants who identified their gender (n=4) were analysed finding that 100 per cent (n=3) of the male respondents and 100 per cent (n=1) of the female respondents believed it to be the responsibility of both.

Participants were also asked if they believed that ensuring equal opportunities for both male and female employees, particularly with regard to promotion, should be a

major consideration for SMEs as they grow. Of the total participants (n=5) 100 per cent agreed that it should be a major consideration for SMEs as they grow.

Additionally, participants were asked what their opinion was on the introduction of mandatory quotas as a possible solution for the gender imbalance found in management positions. Of those participants who responded (n=3) all were male and their responses were as follows:

I feel this would not be the right solution for gender imbalance and could just place women in roles to satisfy quota, rather than focusing on the right candidate with the right skills for the job regardless of gender.

Not a good idea. Creates a situation where a quota trumps ability. Don't think this is the correct way to address the issue.

Don't agree. If a man or woman is good enough for the job they should get it. Why should a man or woman get the job only to balance quota when someone else is better?

Finally, participants were asked if they were in favour of the introduction of government policy providing state support as a reward to those SME organisations who promoted women into senior management. Of those participants who responded (n=3) 66.7 per cent (n=2) were in favour of the introduction of such a policy. While 33.3 per cent (n=1) stated they would not be in favour of a policy providing state support as a reward. The gender breakdown of two participants who were in favour of such a measure was one male and one female. While the participant not in favour was male.

Additionally, participants were asked what they believe was causing the gender imbalance in senior management and on Boards of Directors. Two of the participants, one male and one female, responded to the question. The response of the male participant was:

Well I can only speak of the Agri Business as I have been in that for 19 years and the reason most managers and Directors are male is because 80% of agribusiness people are male.

The female participants' response was:

The traditional male oriented industries have tended to stay male oriented. Why? I don't know the exact answer to that. Various socio barriers to entry most probably but this is perpetuating the status quo.

Finally, participants were asked if they had any thoughts on what could be done to achieve a greater gender balance in senior management and on Boards of Directors. One female participant responded stating:

Remove the stigma around women especially driven women of child bearing age and provide positive solutions and incentives to encourage women to go for those senior roles or encourage return to work schemes/programmes.

5.4.2 Group Three – Life Long Learning Students

The third group of participants involved a non-probability purposive sample of both current and former SME employees, managers, owners and directors attending evening, flexible and part-time academic programmes in various business discipline areas in the Faculty of Lifelong Learning in the Institute of Technology Carlow (ITC). As discussed in *Section 4.6.3 of Chapter 4* the Faculty of Lifelong Learning in ITC was chosen as it is the largest provider of flexible and part-time programmes in Ireland and therefore, it was believed would provide access to the greatest number of potential participants. The ten business programmes included in the survey, the number of registered students on each programme along with the number of survey participants from each business programme and the date the survey was completed are displayed in *Table 5.62*.

Table 5.62 Business Programmes and Registered Student Numbers Lifelong Learning Institute of Technology Carlow Included in the Survey

Programme	Registered Student Numbers	Number of Qualifying Participants	Survey Delivery Date
Master of Business Supply Chain	37	21	16/10/2018
Master of Business	9	9	16/10/2018
Diploma in Management Effectiveness and Practice	17	14	17/10/2018
Master Business Administration	12	10	18/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Business Tourism Marketing	9	9	22/10/2018
Higher Diploma International Financial Services	21	8	22/10/2018
Certificate in Purchasing Strategy, Quality Management and Lean Six Sigma	34	20	22/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Global Logistics and Supply Chain Management	34	18	23/10/2018
Higher Diploma in Business (Management) and Year 3 Level 8 Business	27	21	23/10/2018
Year 4 Level 8 Business	17	3	23/10/2018

Following an oral presentation by the researcher on the research topic those students who were currently, or previously had been, either an employee, owner or director of an SME were asked to complete the survey as detailed in Appendix 3. The total number of registered students across the ten business programmes was 217 students of which 133 students met the qualifying criteria for participation in the survey. All of the 133 students chose to complete the survey resulting in a response rate of 100 per cent. Analysis of the survey, which contained six sections, involved both sectional and cross-sectional examination.

5.4.2.1 Demographic Analysis of Survey Participants

Section A was designed to capture the demographic background information of the participants using gender, age and marital status variables. This was in conjunction with questions to establish their position in the organisation and the length of time they were employed in the Irish SME organisation. Furthermore, Section A aimed to

determine if the organisation was a micro, small or medium-size enterprise through establishing the approximate number of employees in the Irish SME organisation and what industrial sector that SME organisation was based in. The demographical analysis of the participants is presented below.

5.4.2.1.1 Gender, Age and Relationship Classification of Participants

The gender of the total participants (n=133) as shown in *Figure 5.14* was identified as 49.6 per cent (n=66) male, 48.1 per cent (n=64) female and 2.3 per cent (n=3) other.

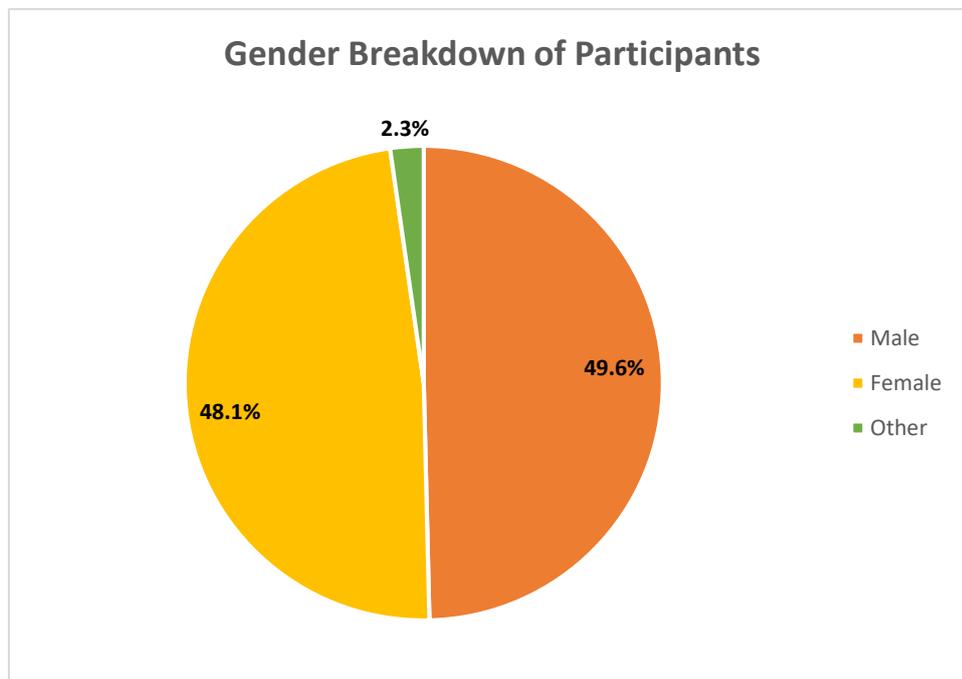


Figure 5.14 Gender Analysis of Participants

To capture the approximate ages of the participants the survey provided five categories of ages for the participants to choose from; 18-24 years, 25-34 years, 35-44 years, 45-54 years and 55-64 years. As displayed in *Figure 5.15* the age breakdown of the total participants (n=133) was as follows; 18-24 years 15 per cent (n=20), 25-34 years 27.1 per cent (n=36), 35-44 years 32.3 per cent (n=43), 45-54 years 22.6 per cent (n=30) and 55-64 years 3 per cent (n=4).

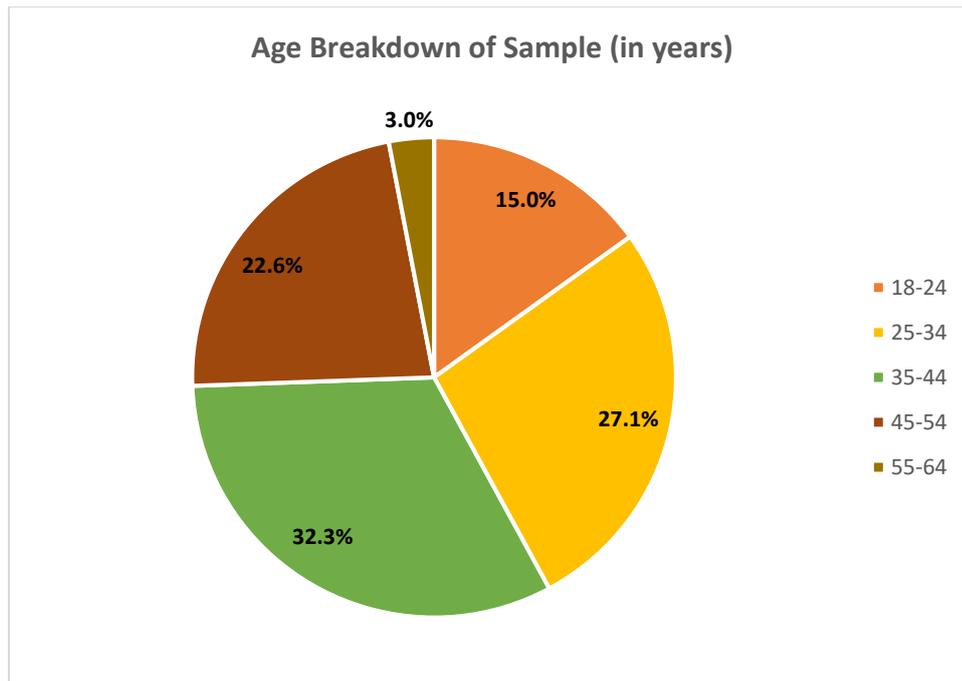


Figure 5.15 Age Analysis of Participants

Additionally, to establish the relationship status of the participants the survey provided six possible relationship statuses for participants to choose from; single, married, separated, divorced, co-habituating and widowed. Upon analysis it was found that the relationship statuses of the total participants (n=133) was categorised as follows; single 32.3 per cent (n=43), married 53.5 per cent (n=71), separated 2.3 per cent (n=3), divorced 1.5 per cent (n=2), co-habituating 9.8 per cent (n=13) and widowed 0.8 per cent (n=1).

5.4.2.1.2 Analysis of Organisational Positions held by the Participants in the SMEs

To establish the roles held by the participants in their SME organisation they were asked to choose between five different organisational positions; employee, owner, junior manager, senior manager and director. Of the total participants (n=133) 45.9 per cent (n=61) were SME employees, 5.3 per cent (n=7) were SME owners, 27 per cent (n=36) were junior managers in SMEs, 18 per cent (n=24) were senior managers in SMEs and 3.8 per cent (n=5) were directors of SMEs as displayed in *Figure 5.16*.

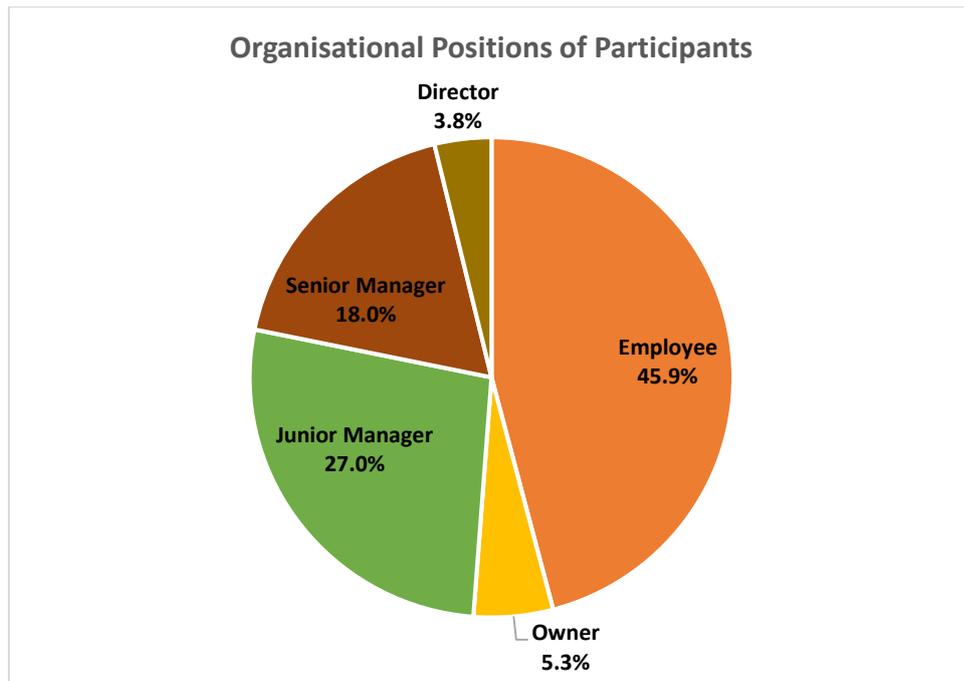


Figure 5.16 Analysis of the Five Organisations Positions of Participants

To expand further on the demographic of those participants found within each of the five employee positions additional analysis exploring the gender and age of those in each organisational position in the SMEs was undertaken. A gender analysis of the five organisational positions utilising the responses of those participants who identified as either male or female (n=130) and excluding those who identified as other (n=3) is displayed in *Figure 5.17*.

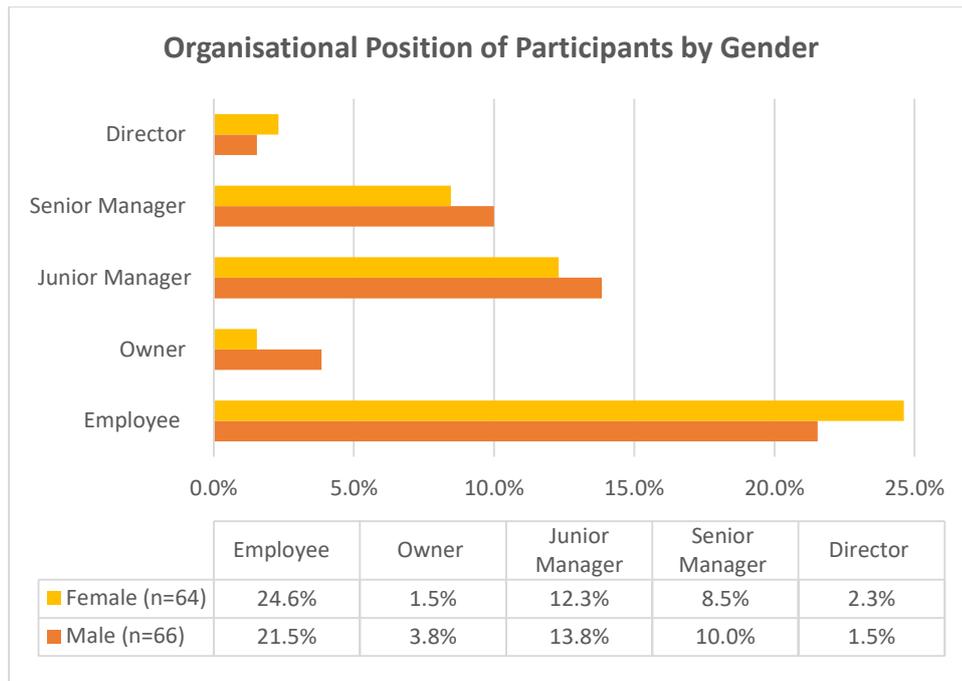


Figure 5.17 Gender Analysis of the Participants Organisational Position in the SMEs

Additional separate individual analysis was undertaken on the total male participants and female participants. The aim was to quantify the percentage value of the total male participants and the total female participants in each of the five organisational positions and is presented in *Table 5.63*.

Table 5.63 Percentage of Male Participants and Female Participants in the each of the Five Organisational Positions

Gender	Organisational Position	Per Cent
Male (n=66)	Employee	42.4%
	Owner	7.6%
	Junior Manager	27.3%
	Senior Manager	19.7%
	Director	3.0%
Female (n=64)	Employee	50.0%
	Owner	3.1%
	Junior Manager	25.0%
	Senior Manager	17.2%
	Director	4.7%

To establish the age range of the participants occupying the five different organisational positions the responses of the total survey participants (n=133) was analysed and is displayed in *Table 5.64*.

Table 5.64 Age Analysis of the Five Organisational Positions

Organisational Positions	Age (In Years)				
	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
Employee (n=61)	26.2%	31.1%	19.7%	18.0%	4.9%
Owner (n=7)			28.6%	71.4%	
Junior Manager (n=36)	11.1%	30.6%	44.4%	13.9%	
Senior Manager (n=24)		20.8%	54.2%	25.0%	
Director (n=5)			20.0%	60.0%	0.8%

Further to this an analysis of the five organisational positions to identify the number of participants occupying each role through combining both the age and gender variables was undertaken. This was completed utilising the responses of those participants who identified as either male or female (n=130) and is displayed in *Table 5.65*.

Table 5.65 Age and Gender Analysis of the Five Organisational Positions

Gender	Organisational Position	18-24 Years	25-34 Years	35-44 Years	45-54 Years	55-64 Years
Male (n=66)	Employee	13.6%	13.6%	4.5%	9.1%	1.5%
	Owner			3.0%	4.5%	
	Junior Manager	1.5%	6.1%	12.1%	7.6%	
	Senior Manager		4.5%	7.6%	7.6%	
	Director				1.5%	1.5%
Female (n=64)	Employee	9.4%	15.6%	14.1%	7.8%	3.1%
	Owner				3.1%	
	Junior Manager	4.7%	10.9%	9.4%		
	Senior Manager		3.1%	12.5%	1.6%	
	Director		1.6%		3.1%	

Additional analysis on the five organisational positions occupied by the survey participants was conducted to identify the length of tenure each of the participants (n=133) had in their organisation. Participants were asked to choose from four time

frames and the number of participants for each of the five occupational positions was then extracted, as displayed in *Table 5.66*.

Table 5.66 Participants' Length of Tenure by Organisational Position

Occupational Position	Length of Tenure			
	Less than 1 year	1-5 years	6-10 years	10 years plus
Employee (n=61)	19.7%	50.8%	14.8%	14.8%
Owner (n=7)		14.3%	28.6%	57.1%
Junior Manager (n=36)	11.1%	55.6%	19.4%	13.9%
Senior Manager (n=24)	12.5%	50.0%	8.3%	29.2%
Director (n=5)		20.0%	40.0%	40.0%

The length of tenure held by the participants in each of the five occupational roles was then expanded upon further through isolating the gender of those occupying the five organisational roles (n=130). The results of which are presented in *Table 5.67*.

Table 5.67 Length of Tender and Gender Analysis of Organisational Positions

Organisational Position	Gender	n=	Length of Tenure			
			Less than 1 year	1-5 years	6-10 years	10 years plus
Employee	Male	28	28.6%	39.3%	14.3%	17.9%
	Female	32	12.5%	59.4%	15.6%	12.5%
Owner	Male	5		20.0%	20.0%	60.0%
	Female	2			50.0%	50.0%
Junior Manager	Male	18	11.1%	50.0%	22.2%	16.7%
	Female	16	12.5%	68.8%	12.5%	6.3%
Senior Manager	Male	13	23.1%	46.2%		30.8%
	Female	11		54.5%		45.5%
Director	Male	2			50.0%	50%
	Female	3		33.3%	33.3%	33.3%

5.4.2.1.3 Classification of SME Organisations by Size and Industrial Sector

To establish if the participants' SME organisation could be classified as a micro, small or medium-sized enterprise they were asked to identify if their organisation has less than 10 employees, between 11 and 50 employees or between 51 and 251 employees. Analysis found that of the total participants (n=133) 24 per cent (n=32) were employed by micro enterprises with less than 10 employees, 30 per cent (n=40) were employed in small enterprises with between 11 and 50 employees and 46 per

cent (n=61) were employed in medium enterprises with between 51 and 250 employees. Following this, additional analysis combining both the organisational size and the five organisational positions was undertaken to develop the demographical profile of the participants further. The findings of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.68*.

Table 5.68 Analysis of SME Organisations by Size and the Five Organisational Positions

Organisational Position	n=	Organisation Size		
		>10 employees	11-50 employees	51-250 employees
Employee	61	19.7%	37.7%	42.6%
Owner	7	71.4%	28.6%	
Junior Manager	36	25.0%	22.2%	52.8%
Senior Manager	24	16.7%	29.2%	54.2%
Director	5	40.0%		60.0%

Finally, to identify the industry sector in which the organisations were located the participants were asked to choose from a list of sectors consisting of fourteen industrial sectors derived from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies in Ireland 2017 list. In addition to the fourteen industrial sectors the option to choose other was given should the participants' SME organisation not fit into any of the named industrial sectors. All but one of the industrial sectors, energy, was selected by at least one participant. The number of SME organisations per sector for the total participants (n=133) are displayed in *Table 5.69*.

Table 5.69 SME Organisations per Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	No. of SME Organisations per Industrial Sector	Per Cent
Construction	11	8.3%
Pharma	5	3.8%
Manufacturing	20	15.0%
Transport	5	3.8%
Food & Drink	14	10.5%
Tourism	5	3.8%
Health	6	4.5%
Retailing	11	8.3%
Professional Services	6	4.5%
Agribusiness	4	3.0%
Resources	1	0.8%
Financial Services	14	10.5%
Media & Marketing	3	2.3%
Other	28	21.1%

The gender of the participants located in each of the industry sectors was then isolated utilising the responses of those participants who identified as either male or female (n=130) and excluding those participants who identified as other (n=3). The findings of this are presented in *Table 5.70*.

Table 5.70 Gender of Participants per Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	Gender	No. of Participants	Per Cent
Construction	Male	7	63.6%
	Female	4	36.4%
Pharma	Male	2	40.0%
	Female	3	60.0%
Manufacturing	Male	15	75.0%
	Female	5	25.0%
Transport	Male	4	80.0%
	Female	1	20.0%
Food & Drink	Male	9	64.3%
	Female	5	35.7%
Tourism	Male	1	20.0%
	Female	4	80.0%
Health	Male		
	Female	6	100.0%
Retailing	Male	3	27.3%
	Female	8	72.7%
Professional Services	Male	3	50.0%
	Female	3	50.0%
Agribusiness	Male	1	25.0%
	Female	3	75.0%
Resources	Male		
	Female	1	100.0%
Financial Services	Male	7	50.0%
	Female	7	50.0%
Media & Marketing	Male	1	33.3%
	Female	2	66.7%
Other	Male	13	52.0%
	Female	12	48.0%

Additional analysis on this data was undertaken examining the organisational positions held the total participants (n=133) for each of the industrial sectors in *Table 5.69* and is presented below in *Table 5.71*.

Table 5.71 Analysis of Organisational Positions by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	Organisational Positions					
	n=	Employee	Owner	Junior Manager	Senior Manager	Director
Construction	11	45.5%	9.1%	27.3%	18.2%	
Pharma	5	40.0%		60.0%		
Manufacturing	20	55.0%		35.0%	5.0%	5.0%
Transport	5			40.0%	40.0%	20.0%
Food & Drink	14	28.6%	7.1%	28.6%	28.6%	7.1%
Tourism	5	40.0%		40.0%	20.0%	
Health	6	66.7%		16.7%	16.7%	
Retailing	11	54.5%	18.2%	18.2%	9.1%	
Professional Services	6	50.0%		16.7%	33.3%	
Agribusiness	4	50.0%		50.0%		
Resources	1	100.0%				
Financial Services	14	57.1%		14.3%	28.6%	
Media & Marketing	3	33.3%		33.3%		33.3%
Other	28	42.9%	10.7%	21.4%	21.4%	3.6%

Following from this analysis the organisational role of employee (n=61) and those participants who identified their gender as other (n=3) were excluded. The gender of those participants occupying each of the remaining four decision-making organisational positions (n=69) was then isolated and is presented in *Table 5.72*.

Table 5.72 Gender of Participants Occupying Decision-Making Positions by Industrial Sector

Industrial Sector	n=	Gender	Owner	Junior Manager	Senior Manger	Director
Construction	6	Male	16.7%	16.7%		
		Female		33.3%	33.3%	
Pharma	3	Male		66.7%		
		Female		33.3%		
Manufacturing	9	Male		66.7%	11.1%	11.1%
		Female		11.1%		
Transport	5	Male		20.0%	20.0%	20.0%
		Female		20.0%	20.0%	
Food & Drink	10	Male	10.0%	30.0%	40.0%	
		Female		10.0%		10.0%
Tourism	3	Male				
		Female		66.7%	33.3%	
Health	2	Male				
		Female		50.0%	50.0%	
Retailing	5	Male	20.0%		20.0%	
		Female	20.0%	40.0%		
Professional Services	3	Male			33.3%	
		Female		33.3%	33.3%	
Agribusiness	2	Male		50.0%		
		Female		50.0%		
Financial Services	6	Male		33.3%	16.7%	
		Female			50%	
Media & Marketing	2	Male				
		Female		50.0%		50.0%
Other	14	Male	14.3%	14.3%	28.6%	
		Female	7.1%	14.3%	14.3%	7.1%

Following the extraction of the demographical profile of the participants a cross sectional analysis of the remaining five categories was undertaken.

5.4.2.2 Survey Analysis of Sections B-F

As discussed in *Chapter 4 Section 4.6.2* the remaining five sections B-F aimed to capture if the main themes surrounding vertical gender segregation identified within the literature, gender stereotyping, lack of flexibility and work/life balance, a gendered or patriarchal nature to the structure of the organisation and informal male networks, also existed within the Irish SMEs included in the survey. The survey questions in sections B-F focused on five main categories; the educational capital

and professional development of the participants, gender biases surrounding the management role, the availability and perceptions of flexible work practices, the gender differences in the impact the organisational culture may have for employees and finally the participants' individual views on gender equality and the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for all employees. The findings from the survey with regard to these five categories are presented below.

5.4.2.2.1 Educational Capital and Professional Development of Participants

The survey aimed to establish the level of investment made by both the individual participants and by the organisations in which they worked into their educational and professional development. Therefore, the survey contained questions addressing both the participants' level of education and the further training and development opportunities offered by their organisations. Additionally, the survey addressed possible considerations the individual participants may possess when deciding to avail of any training or development opportunities offered by their organisation.

The educational capital breakdown for the total participants (n=133) is presented in *Table 5.73* and analysis of the educational capital of those participants who identified their gender (n=130) is displayed in *Table 5.74*.

Table 5.73 Educational Capital Analysis for Total Survey Participants (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	No. of Participants	Per Cent
NFQ Level 4 & 5	15	11.3%
NFQ Level 6	25	18.8%
NFQ Level 7	25	18.8%
NFQ Level 8	44	33.1%
NFQ Level 9	13	9.8%
NFQ Level 10	1	0.8%
Professional Qualifications	5	3.8%
Other	5	3.8%

Table 5.74 Educational Capital Analysis by Participants' Gender (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	No. of Male Participants	Per Cent	No. of Female Participants	Per Cent
NFQ Level 4 & 5	5	7.6%	10	15.6%
NFQ Level 6	8	12.1%	14	21.9%
NFQ Level 7	15	22.7%	10	15.6%
NFQ Level 8	24	36.4%	20	31.3%
NFQ Level 9	7	10.6%	6	9.4%
NFQ Level 10	1	1.5%		
Professional Qualifications	3	4.5%	2	3.1%
Other	3	4.5%	2	3.1%

To allow for further exploration of the educational capital held by the participants the various education levels were also analysed using both the occupational roles held by the participants (n=133) and the size of the organisations. The findings of both these analyses are displayed in *Tables 5.75-5.76*.

Table 5.75 Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Position (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	Employee (n=61)	Owner (n=7)	Junior Manager (N=36)	Senior Manager (n=24)	Director (n=5)
NFQ Level 4 & 5	11.5%	14.3%	13.9%	4.2%	20.0%
NFQ Level 6	21.3%	14.3%	22.2%	12.5%	
NFQ Level 7	18.0%	14.3%	27.8%	8.3%	20.0%
NFQ Level 8	42.6%	57.1%	19.4%	41.7%	
NFQ Level 9	9.8%		11.1%	8.3%	20.0%
NFQ Level 10					20.0%
Professional Qualifications	1.6%			16.7%	
Other			5.6%	8.3%	20.0%

Table 5.76 Educational Capital Analysis by Organisational Size (National Framework of Qualifications, 2018)

Educational Level	Organisational Size		
	>10 Employees (n=32)	11 – 50 Employees (n=40)	51-250 Employees (n=61)
NFQ Level 4 & 5	18.8%	5.0%	11.5%
NFQ Level 6	15.6%	27.5%	14.8%
NFQ Level 7	21.9%	20.0%	16.4%
NFQ Level 8	31.3%	22.5%	41.0%
NFQ Level 9	9.4%	12.5%	8.2%
NFQ Level 10			1.6%
Professional Qualifications		7.5%	3.3%
Other	3.1%	5.0%	3.3%

The survey presented participants with two statements about the level of investment made by women in their education and the educational fields women are more inclined to be found in. The participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement by ticking the appropriate response from a choice of four; strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. The two statements are detailed in *Table 5.77*.

Table 5.77 Statements on Educational Investment and Education Fields

Statement 1: Women due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.

Statement 2: Women compared to men are more educated in the softer HR field compared to the financial field.

The gendered differences in the responses of the participants (n=130) to these two statements and the response differences per educational capital possessed by the respondents was as follows. In response to statement 1 that childcare or other domestic duties have resulted in women investing less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market 65.7 per cent (n=42) of the total female respondents (n=64) either strongly agreed or agreed. While 60.6 per cent (n=40) of the total male respondents (n=66) either strongly agreed or agreed with statement 1. In response to statement 2 on the existence of a greater concentration of women pursuing education

in particular fields 62.5 per cent (n=40) of the total female respondents (n=64) strongly agreed or agreed. While 54.5 per cent (n=36) of total male respondents (n=66) either strongly agreed or agreed with statement 2. The detailed analysis of the participants' responses is displayed in *Figures 5.18-5.19*.

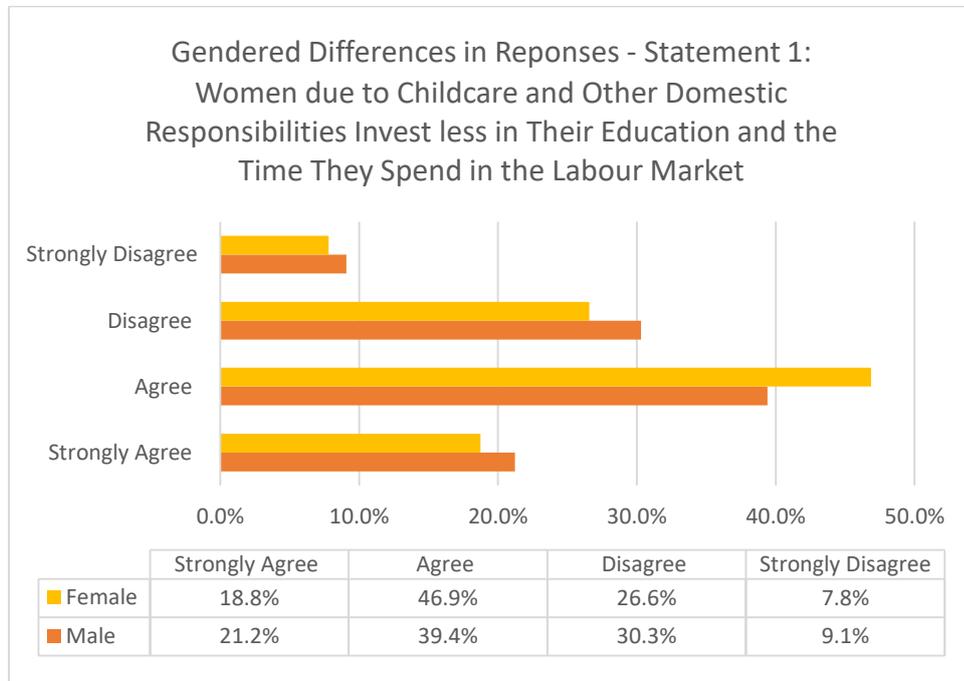


Figure 5.18 Gender Analysis of Statement 1

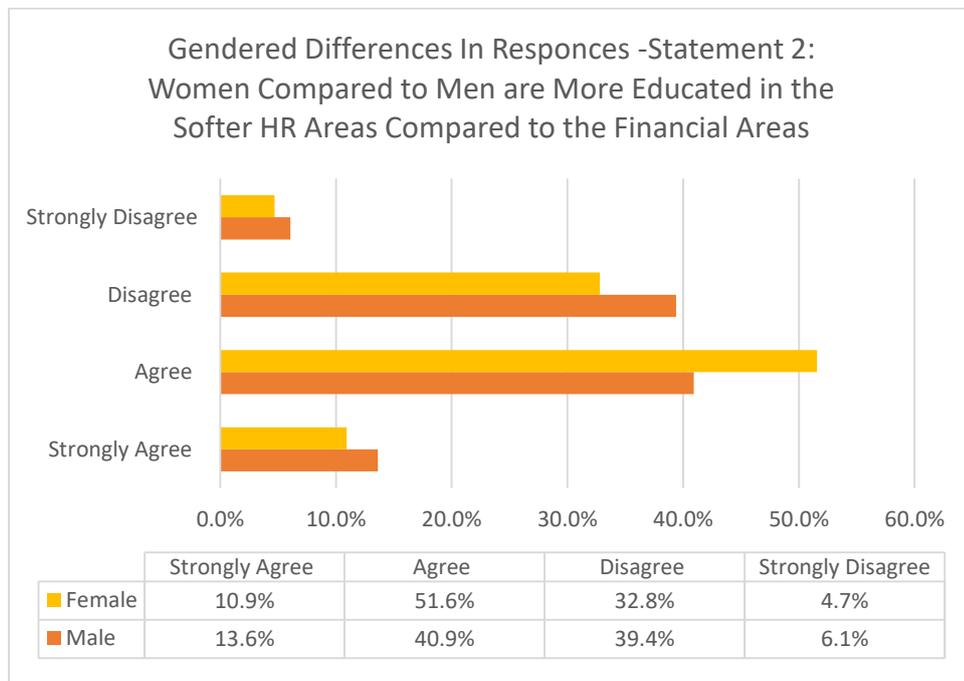


Figure 5.19 Gender Analysis of Statement 2

The different responses of the total participants (n=133) when analysed using the level of education variable are displayed in *Tables 5.78-5.79*.

Table 5.78 Statements 1 Analysis by Educational Capital

Educational Level	Statement 1: Women due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
NFQ Level 4 & 5 (n=15)	26.7%	33.3%	33.3%	6.7%
NFQ Level 6 (n=25)	16.0%	56.0%	16.0%	12.0%
NFQ Level 7 (n=25)	20.0%	44.0%	32.0%	4.0%
NFQ Level 8 (n=44)	18.2%	36.4%	34.1%	11.4%
NFQ Level 9 (n=13)	7.7%	46.2%	30.8%	15.4%
NFQ Level 10 (n=1)	100.0%			
Professional Qualifications (n=5)		40.0%	40.0%	20.0%
Other (n=5)	60.0%	40.0%		

Table 5.79 Statements 2 Analysis by Educational Capital

Educational Level	Statement 2: Women compared to men are more educated in the softer HR field compared to the financial field			
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
NFQ Level 4 & 5 (n=15)	13.3%	40.0%	40.0%	20.0%
NFQ Level 6 (n=25)	12.0%	40.0%	40.0%	8.0%
NFQ Level 7 (n=25)	8.0%	56.0%	36.0%	
NFQ Level 8 (n=44)	18.2%	36.4%	38.6%	6.8%
NFQ Level 9 (n=13)	7.7%	53.8%	38.5%	
NFQ Level 10 (n=1)			100.0%	
Professional Qualifications (n=5)		60.0%		40.0%
Other (n=5)		80.0%	20.0%	

Further to establishing the level of education held by the participants the survey also aimed to capture any professional development undertaken by the participants and their experiences of this process. Of the total participants (n=133) 78.2 per cent (n=104) had undertaken some professional development since entering the labour force prior to commencing their current studies, while 21.2 per cent (n=29) stated that they had not. When analysed using the participants gender (n=130) 78.8 per cent (n=50) of males and 78.1 per cent (n=43) of females had engaged in some professional development.

To expand on this further the organisational position held by both the male and female participants (n=130) and the size of the organisation in which they were employed was included in the analysis. The results of this analysis is displayed in *Table 5.80*

Table 5.80 Professional Development Engagement of Participants since Entering the Labour Market by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size

Organisational Position	Engaged in Professional Development	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees		11-50 Employees		51-250 Employees	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Employee	Yes	5	3	6	11	8	10
	No	2	2	3	3	4	3
Owner	Yes	2	1	2			
	No	1	1				
Junior Manager	Yes	1	7	5	2	9	5
	No	1			1	2	1
Senior Manager	Yes	0	3	4	3	8	4
	No	1					1
Director	Yes		2			2	1
	No						

An additional analysis on the participants' engagement in professional development since entering the labour market was then conducted using their responses to the question on whether they possessed any caring responsibilities for either children, older parents or other dependent family members. Of the total participants (n=133) 61.7 per cent (n=82) identified as possessing caring responsibilities. Of these 82 participants 71.9 per cent (n=59) responded that they had engaged in professional development since entering the labour market.

This was analysed further to establish if there was any gendered difference in the responses. Of the 82 participants 79 identified their gender in the survey. The gender breakdown of those participants with caring responsibilities was 51.9 per cent (n=41) male and 48.1 per cent (n=38) female. Analysis established that of the 41 males 80.5

per cent (n=33) and 76.3 per cent (n=29) of the 38 females had engaged in some professional development since entering the labour market.

The participants were then asked if the current organisation in which they were employed offered any training or development opportunities to employees. From the total sample group (n=133) 69.9 per cent (n=93) offered training or development opportunities while 22.6 per cent (n=30) did not. Additionally, 7.5 per cent of participants (n=10) answered that they were unaware if their organisation offered any training or development opportunities.

Further to this, participants were asked that if their organisation did offer any training or development opportunities had they availed of them. Of the 93 participants who answered positively 82.8 per cent (n=77) had availed of the training or development opportunities. The gender breakdown of those 77 participants was 55.8 per cent (n=43) male and 44.2 per cent (n=34) female.

When asked if they believed if availing of these training and development opportunities had aided them in their career progression 72.7 per cent (n=56) of the 77 participants responded that they believed it had aided them in their career progression. Of those 56 participants who believed that availing of the training and development opportunities had aided their career progression 53.6 per cent (n=30) were male and 46.4 per cent (n=26) were female.

Finally, the participants who had availed of further training and development were then asked to rank by level of importance three possible considerations a person may hold when making the decision to engage in training and development opportunities. These three considerations are detailed in *Table 5.81*. Of the 77 participants who had availed of further training and development 76 chose to rank the three considerations. The analysis of their responses are detailed in *Tables 5.82-5.84*.

Table 5.81 Possible Considerations When Deciding to Engage in Training and Development Opportunities

Consideration 1: Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career.

Consideration 2: Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training.

Consideration 3: The clarity and ease of the process to apply for training/development opportunities.

Table 5.82 Consideration 1 by Gender

Consideration 1: Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career

Gender	No Importance (n=1)	Little Importance (n=4)	Important (n=37)	Very Important (n=34)
Male		2.6%	27.6%	25.0%
Female	1.3%	2.6%	19.7%	21.1%

Table 5.83 Consideration 2 Analysis by Gender

Consideration 2: Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training

Gender	No Importance (n=7)	Little Importance (n=9)	Important (n=45)	Very Important (n=15)
Male	5.3%	6.6%	34.2%	9.2%
Female	3.9%	5.3%	25.0%	10.5%

Table 5.84 Consideration 3 Analysis by Gender

Consideration 3: Clarity and ease in applying for training/development

Gender	No Importance (n=4)	Little Importance (n=17)	Important (n=34)	Very Important (n=21)
Male	1.3%	13.2%	25.0%	15.8%
Female	3.9%	9.2%	19.7%	11.8%

5.4.2.2.2 Gender Biases Surrounding the Management Role

To identify the existence of any possible gender biases surrounding the management role the survey contained questions addressing gender equality policies and the

personality characteristics often applied to managers. Additionally, the survey addressed possible considerations an individual may possess when deciding to apply for a promotion and if the participants' role in their organisation contain the responsibility for conducting interviews.

When asked if their organisation had a gender equality policy 31.6 per cent (n=42) of the total participants (n=133) affirmed that it did. While 36.1 per cent (n=48) replied that their organisation did not have a gender equality policy. The remaining 32.3 per cent (n=43) were unaware if there was any formal gender equality policy in their organisation. Of those respondents who were unaware if there was a gender equality policy 44.2 per cent (n=19) were male and 55.8 per cent (n=24) were female.

To expand further on the overall knowledge of the participants surrounding the existence of any gender equality policy being held by their organisation the data was analysed by organisational role, size and the gender of the participants for those who had identified as either male or female (n=130). The findings of this analysis are displayed in *Table 5.85*.

Table 5.85 Gender Equality Policy Analysis by Organisational Position, Organisational Size and Gender of Participant

Organisational Position	Equality Policy	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees (n=32)		11-50 Employees (n=39)		51-250 Employees (n=59)	
		Male (n=13)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=20)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=33)	Female (n=26)
Employee (n=60)	Yes	7.7%	15.8%	5.0%	5.3%	15.2%	15.4%
	No	46.2%	10.5%	20.0%	36.8%	3.0%	23.1%
	Unaware			20.0%	31.6%	18.2%	23.1%
Owner (n=7)	Yes						
	No	23.1%	10.5%				
	Unaware			10.0%			
Junior Manager (n=34)	Yes		5.3%	5.0%		24.2%	3.8%
	No	7.7%	26.3%	5.0%	5.3%	3.0%	3.8%
	Unaware	7.7%	11.1%	15.0%	5.3%	6.1%	19.2%
Senior Manager (n=24)	Yes		5.3%	15.0%	5.3%	24.2%	3.8%
	No	7.7%	10.5%		10.5%		3.8%
	Unaware			5.0%			11.5%
Director (n=5)	Yes					3.0%	3.8%
	No		10.5%			3.0%	
	Unaware						

To explore the visibility of gender equality within the participants’ organisation and the industrial sector in which their organisation is based they were presented with three statements and asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with them. These three statements are presented in *Table 5.86*

Table 5.86 Statements on the Visibility of Gender Equality at an Organisational and Industry Level

Statement 1: My organisation places/placed an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.

Statement 2: Both men and women are/were visible in management roles within my organisation.

Statement 3: Both men and women are/were visible in management roles in the industrial sector in which my organisation is/was based.

The participants’ responses to each statement were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=133). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=66) or female (n=64). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.20-5.25*.

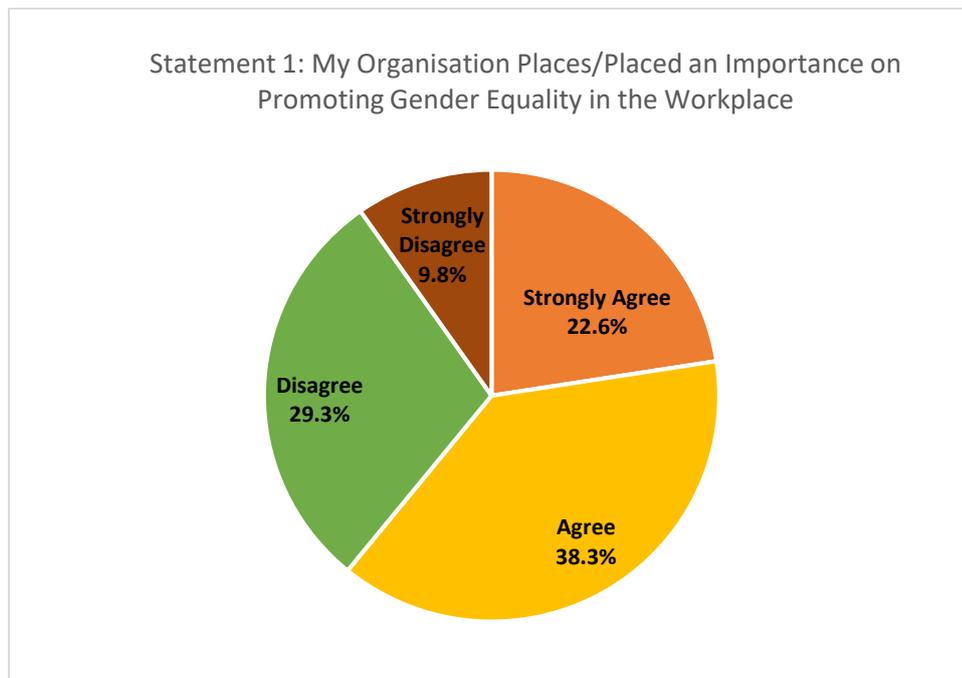


Figure 5.20 Statement 1 Analysis

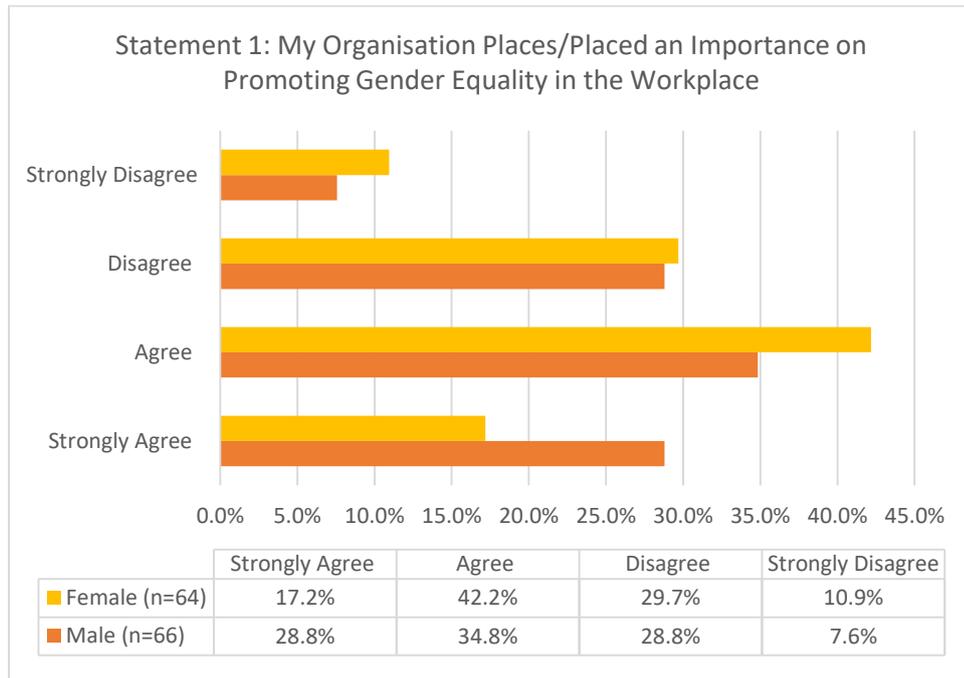


Figure 5.21 Statement 1 Analysis by Gender

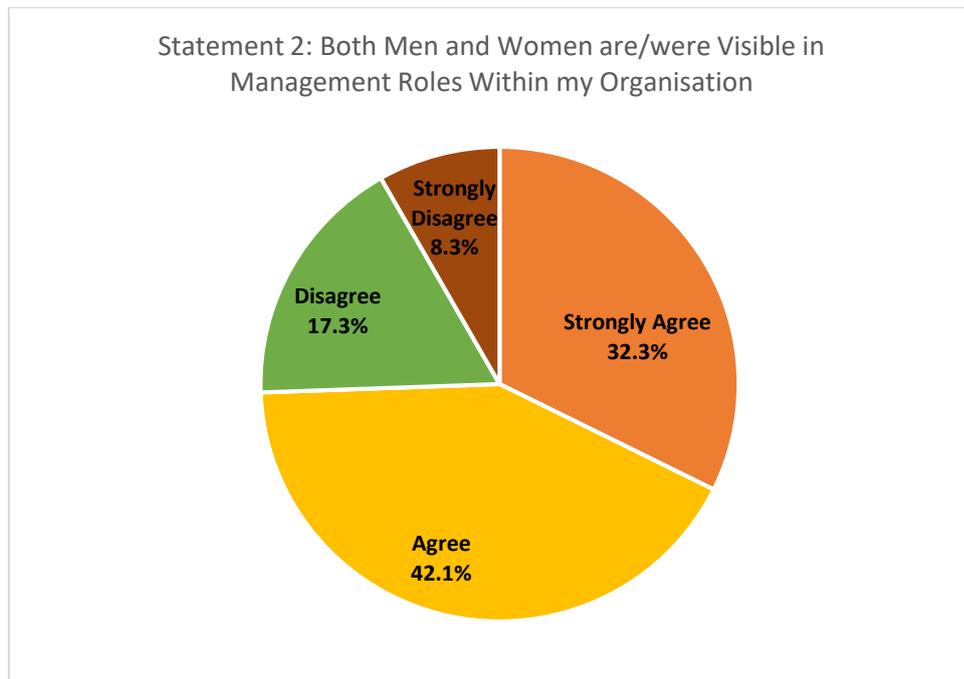


Figure 5.22 Statement 2 Analysis

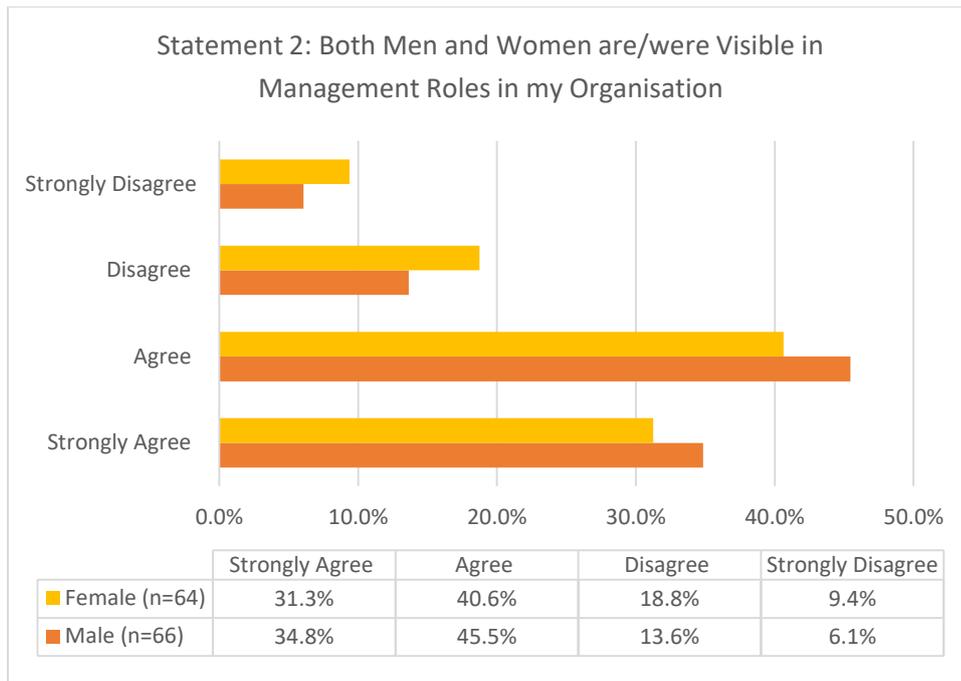


Figure 5.23 Statement 2 Analysis by Gender

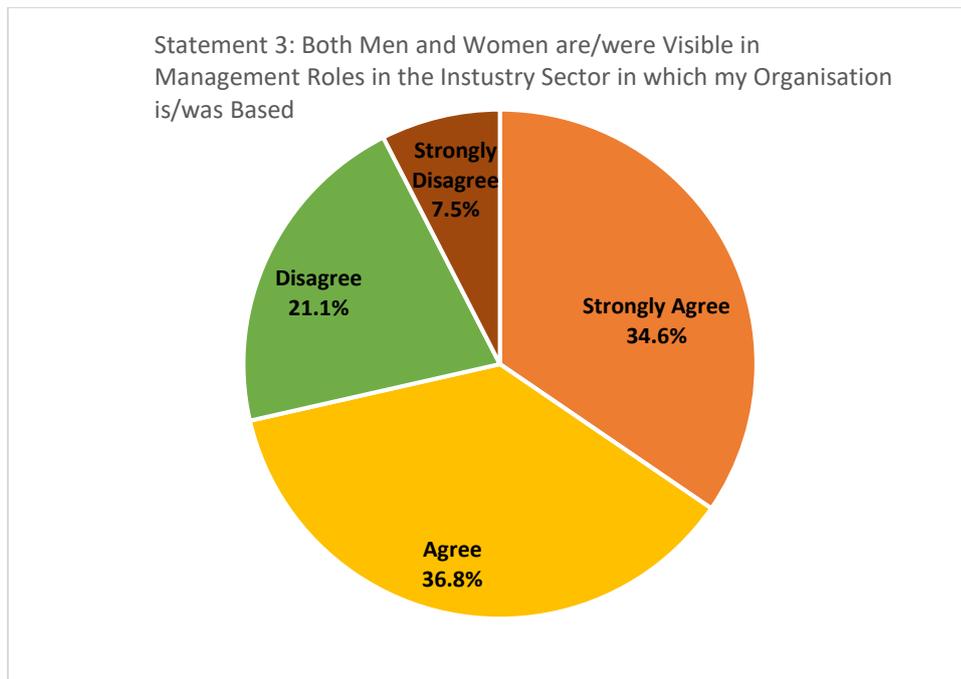


Figure 5.24 Statement 3 Analysis

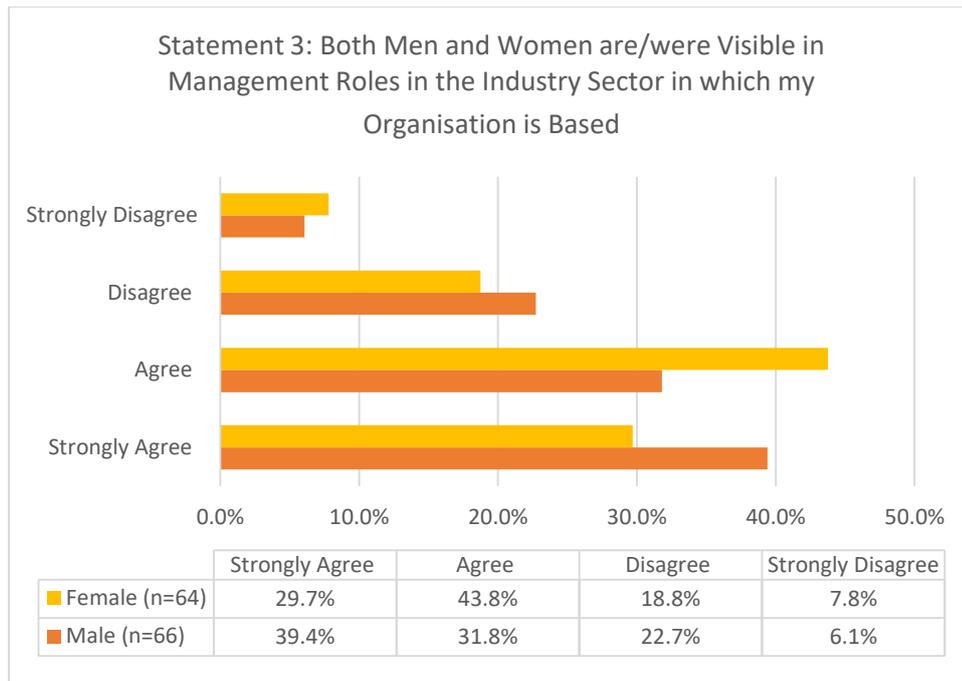


Figure 5.25 Statement 3 Analysis by Gender

The survey presented participants with a list of characteristics which may often be applied to those in management positions. The participants were asked to identify if they believed these characteristics were more likely to be associated with a male or female manager or with both. This list of characteristics and the total responses for each characteristic are displayed in *Table 5.87* and the responses of the participants for each characteristic are displayed in *Figure 5.26*.

Table 5.87 Characteristics and Number of Participants' Responses

Characteristic	Non Response	Total Responses
Empathic	4	129
Encouraging	4	129
Assertive	2	131
Creative	2	131
Competitive	2	131
Dominant	2	131
Self-Confident	3	130
Authoritative	3	130

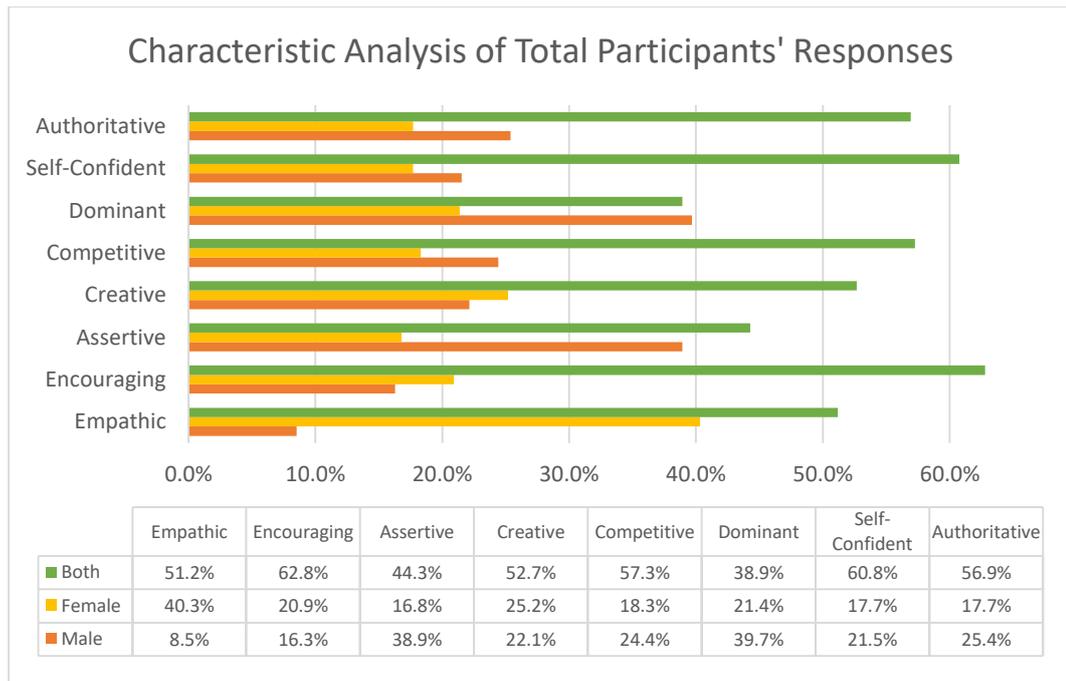


Figure 5.26 Characteristic Analysis of Total Participants' Responses

To expand on this further the responses of the participants to each of the characteristics were then segregated by gender and a separate analysis by gender was compiled. The total responses for each characteristic by male and female participants are displayed in *Tables 5.88-5.89* and the responses of the participants are displayed in *Figures 5.27-5.28*.

Table 5.88 Characteristics and Number of Male Participants' Responses

Characteristic	Non Response	Total Responses
Empathic	3	63
Encouraging	3	63
Assertive	2	64
Creative	2	64
Competitive	2	64
Dominant	2	64
Self-Confident	2	64
Authoritative	3	63

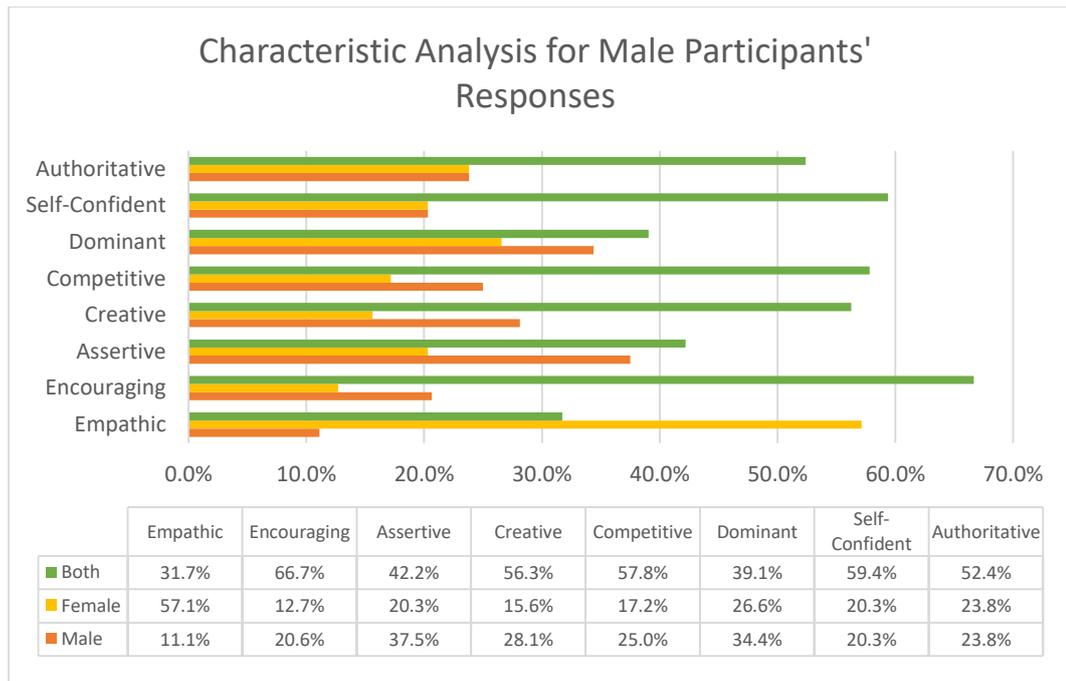


Figure 5.27 Characteristic Analysis of Male Participants' Responses

Table 5.89 Characteristics and Number of Female Participants' Responses

Characteristic	Non Response	Total Responses
Empathic	1	63
Encouraging	1	63
Assertive		64
Creative		64
Competitive		64
Dominant		64
Self-Confident		64
Authoritative		64

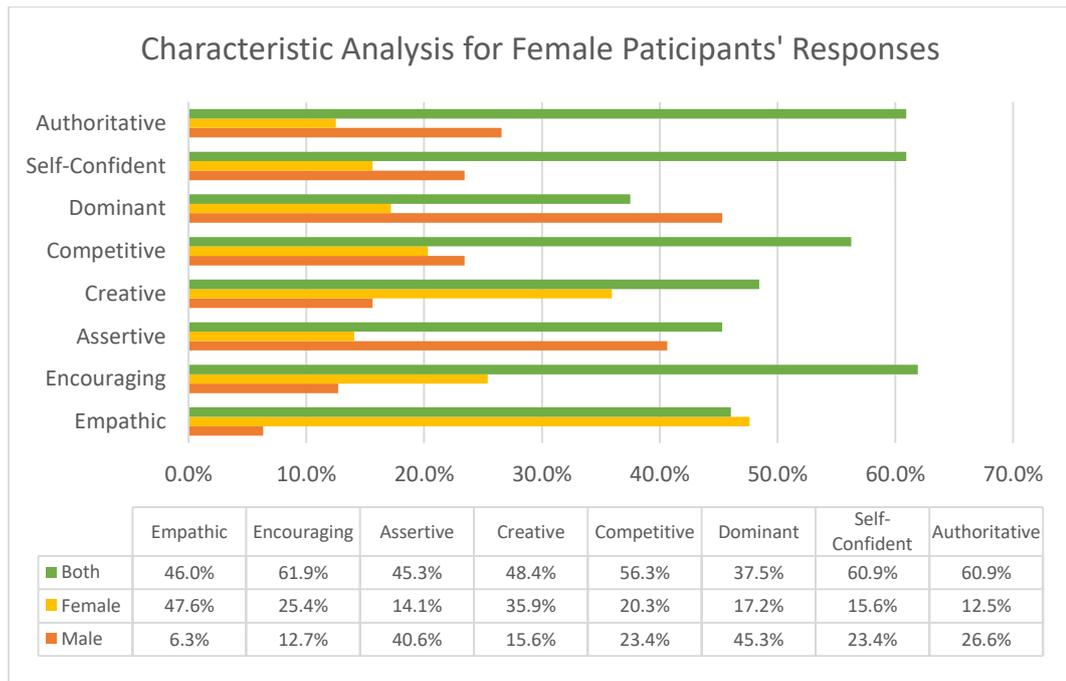


Figure 5.28 Characteristic Analysis of Female Participants' Responses

Further to this, participants were asked to rank their level of agreement or disagreement with a statement about how the views held by society on the ideal gender and personality characteristics may favour male managers over female managers. The statement is presented in *Table 5.90*.

Table 5.90 Societal View and Favours Male over Female Managers

Statement 1: The view held by society of what personality characteristics, behaviour and gender a manager/leader should possess favours male managers/leaders over female managers/leaders.

The participants' responses to the statement were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=133). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=66) or female (n=64). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.29-5.30*.

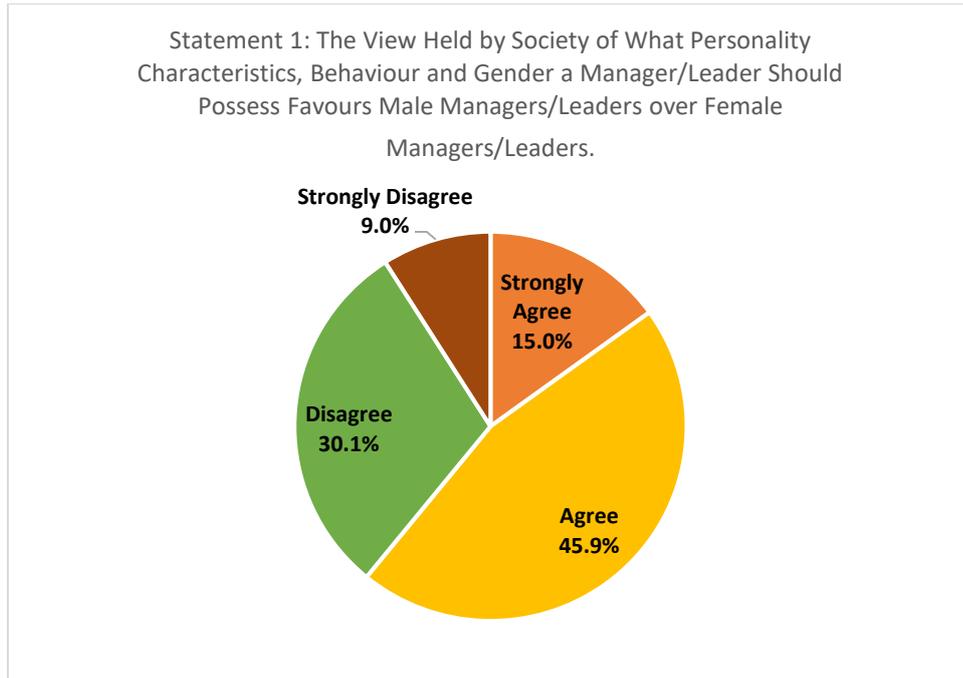


Figure 5.29 Statement 1 Analysis

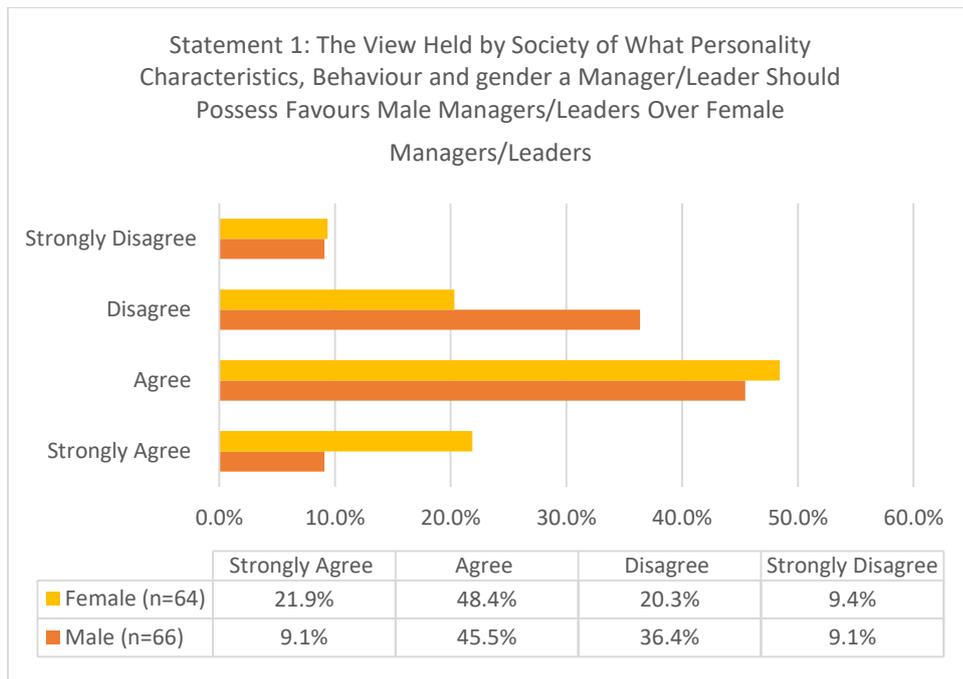


Figure 5.30 Statement 1 Analysis by Gender

The survey presented five possible considerations a person may hold when making the decision to apply for a promotion. The participants were asked to rank by order of importance the influence these considerations may hold for them personally when

making the decision to apply for a promotion. The five considerations are displayed in *Table 5.91*.

Table 5.91 Possible Considerations When Deciding to Apply for Promotion

Consideration 1: The compatibility of the responsibilities of the new position with existing home/family commitments.

Consideration 2: The working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours are structured (e.g. set starting/finishing times, ability to work from home).

Consideration 3: The gender of the person who previously held that position.

Consideration 4: The gender of those in similar positions in the organisation.

Consideration 5: The level of encouragement and support received from your manager/organisation to apply for the promotion.

The participants' responses to each consideration were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=133). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=66) or female (n=64). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.31-5.40*

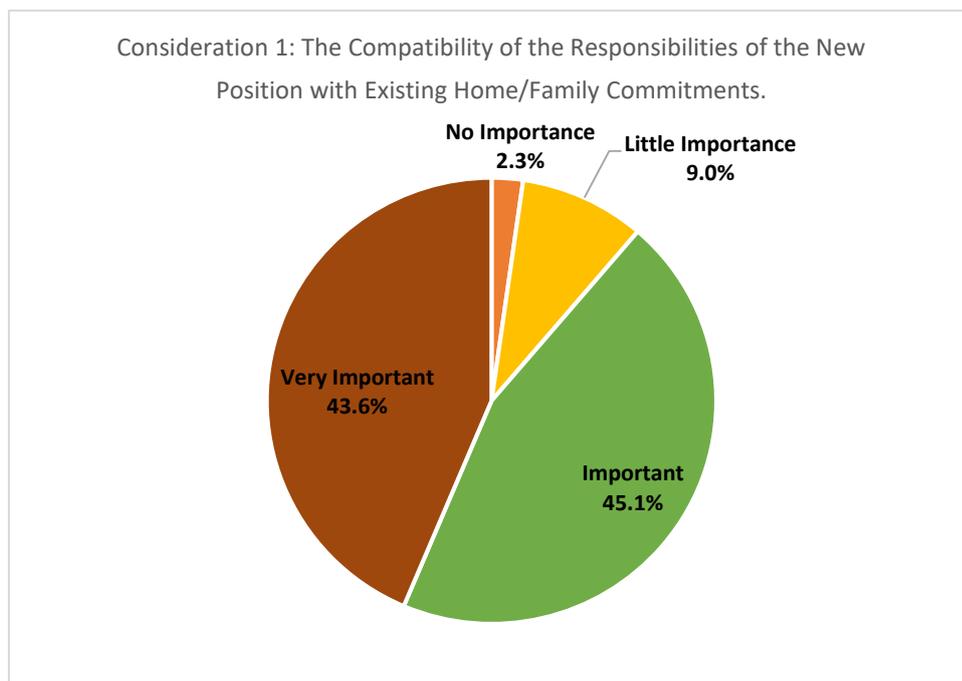


Figure 5.31 Consideration 1 Analysis

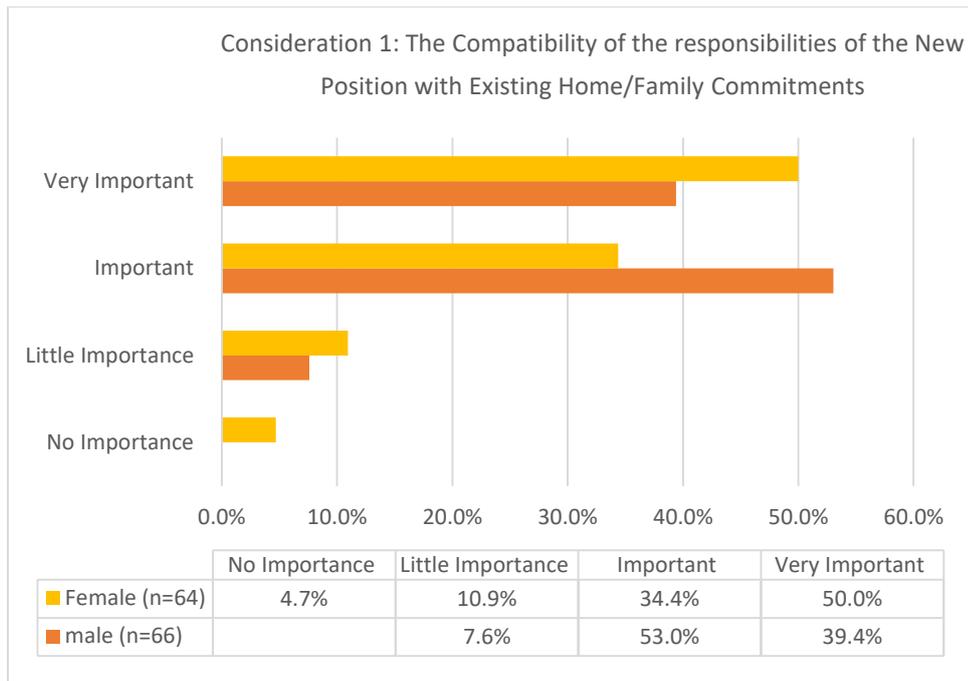


Figure 5.32 Consideration 1 Analysis by Gender

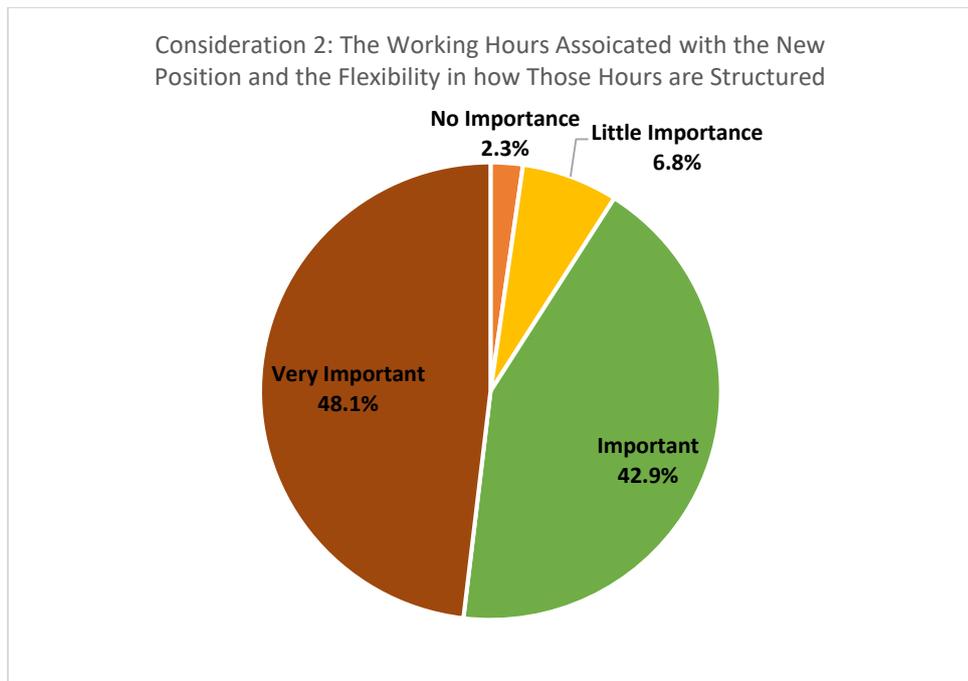


Figure 5.33 Consideration 2 Analysis

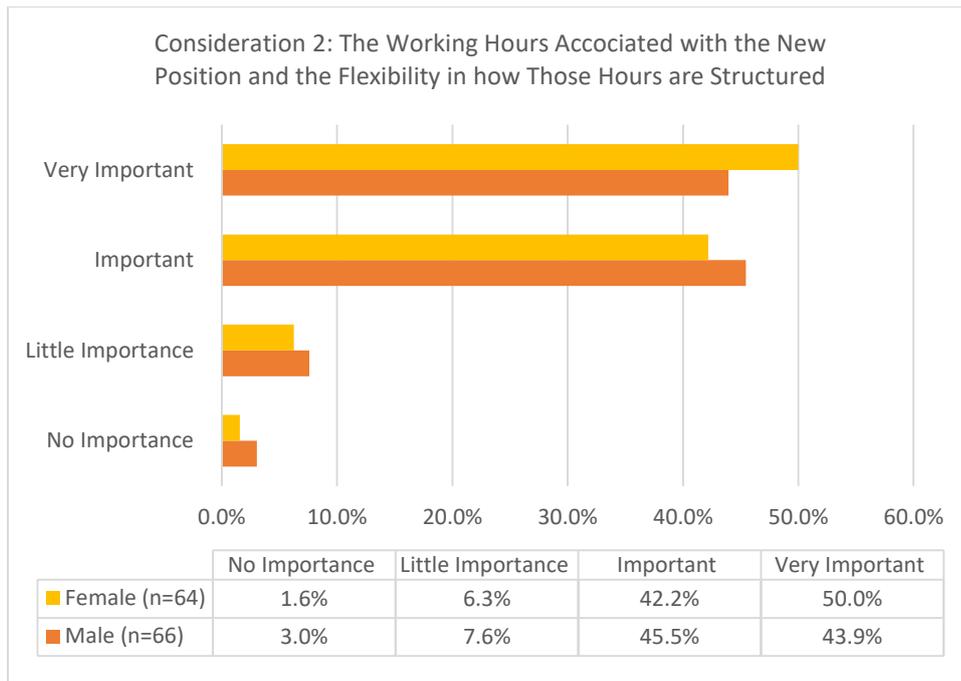


Figure 5.34 Consideration 2 Analysis by Gender

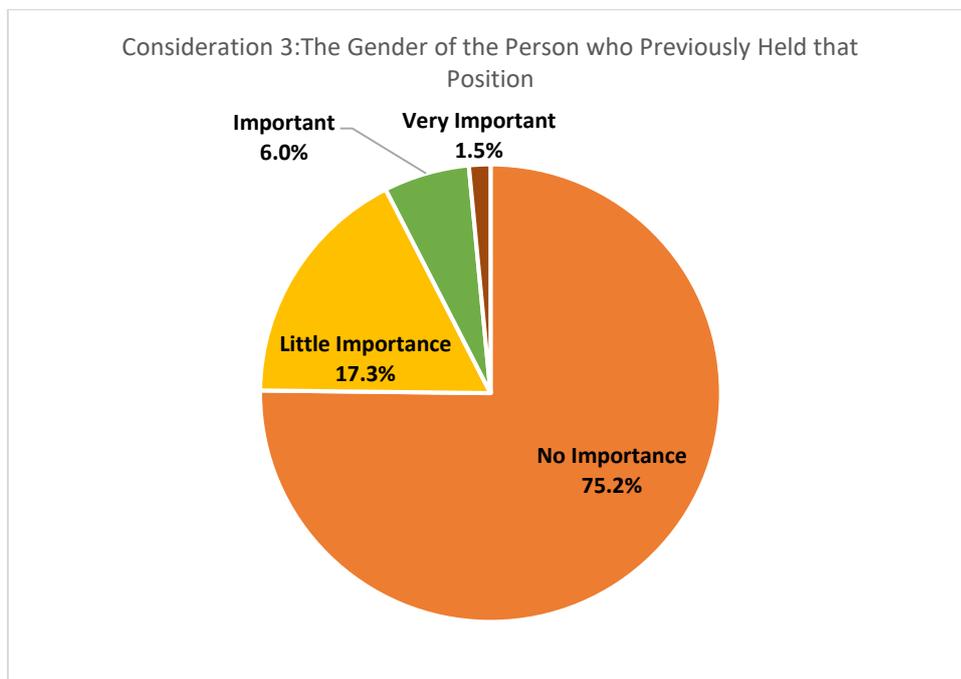


Figure 5.35 Consideration 3 Analysis

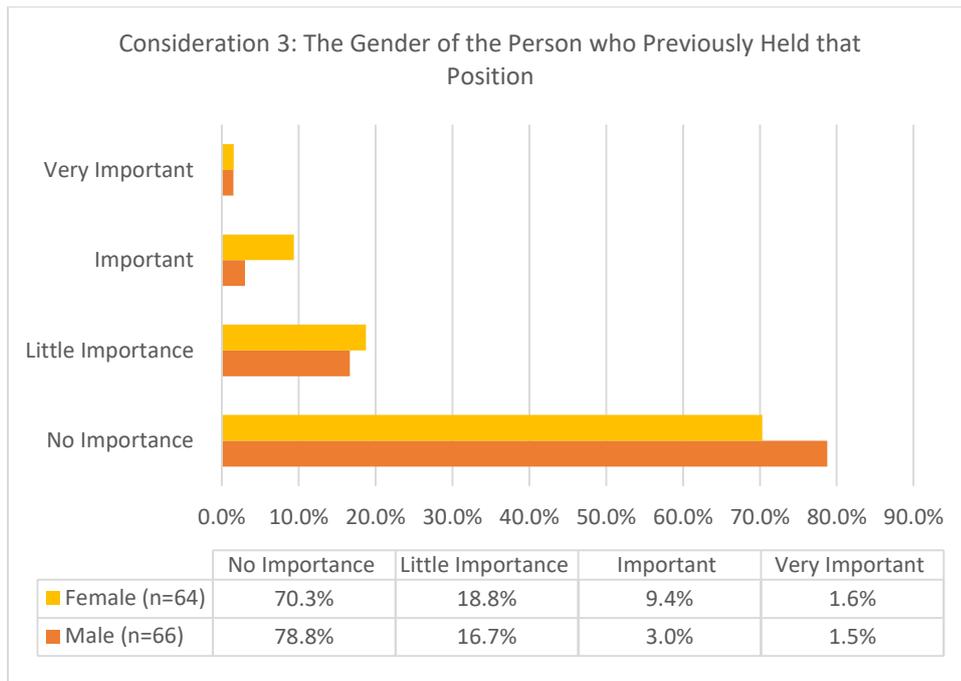


Figure 5.36 Consideration 3 Analysis by Gender

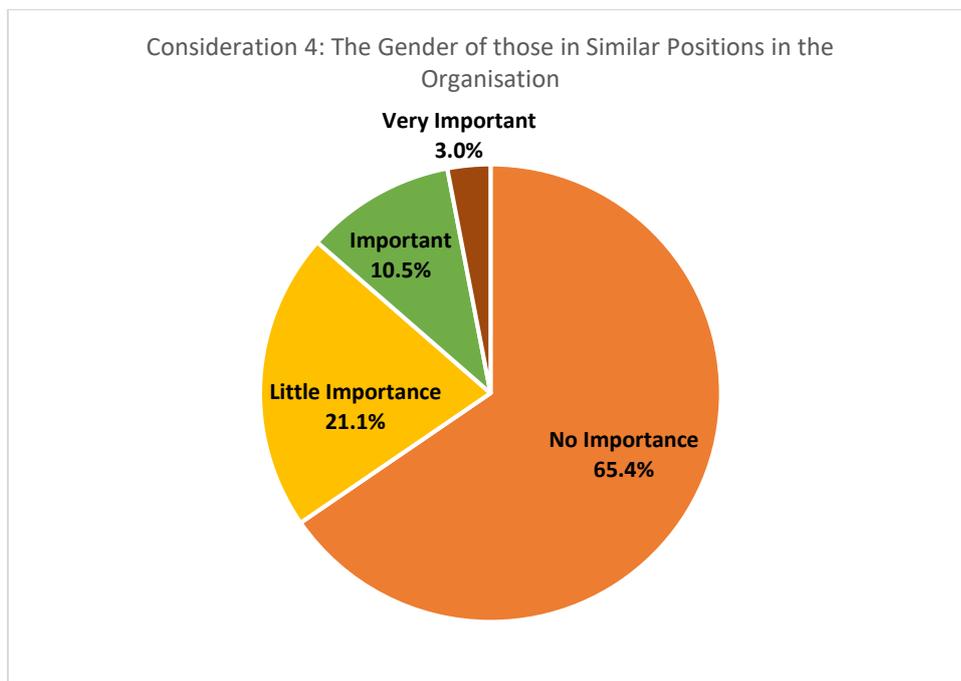


Figure 5.37 Consideration 4 Analysis

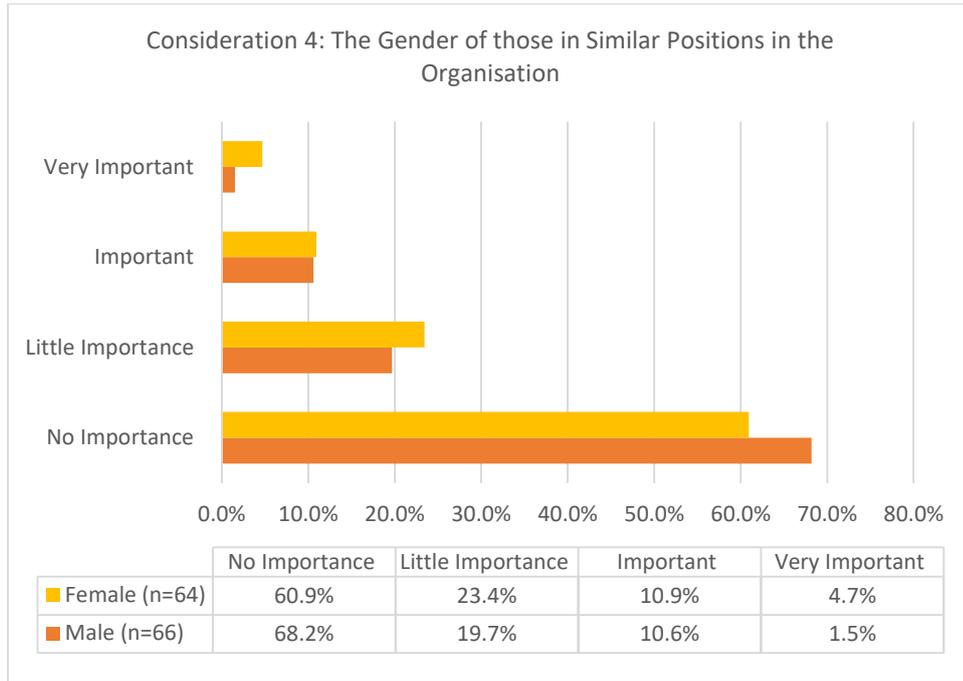


Figure 5.38 Consideration 4 Analysis by Gender

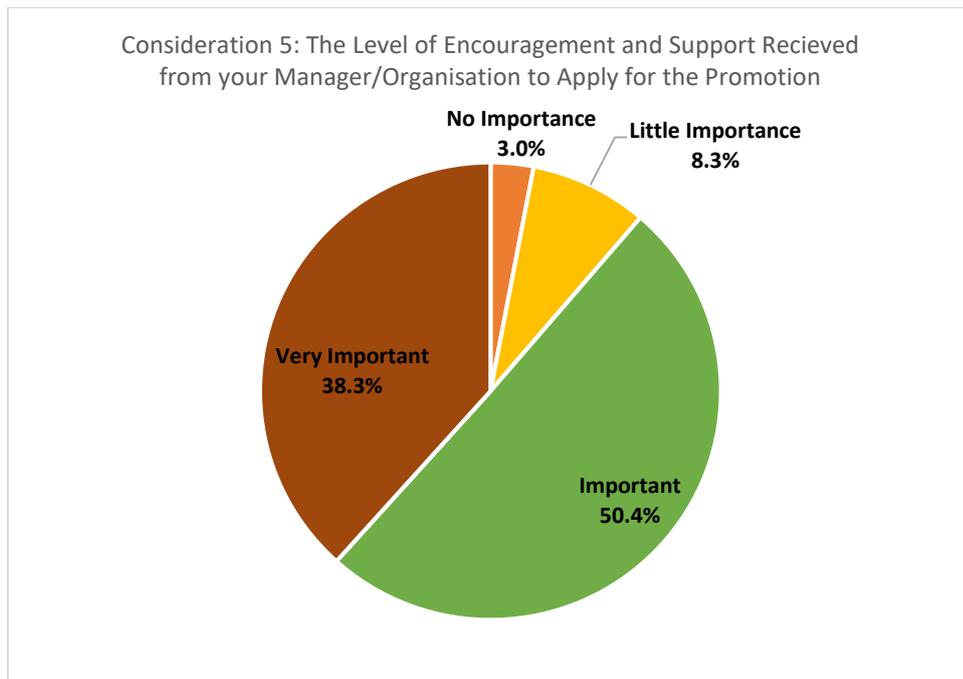


Figure 5.39 Consideration 5 Analysis

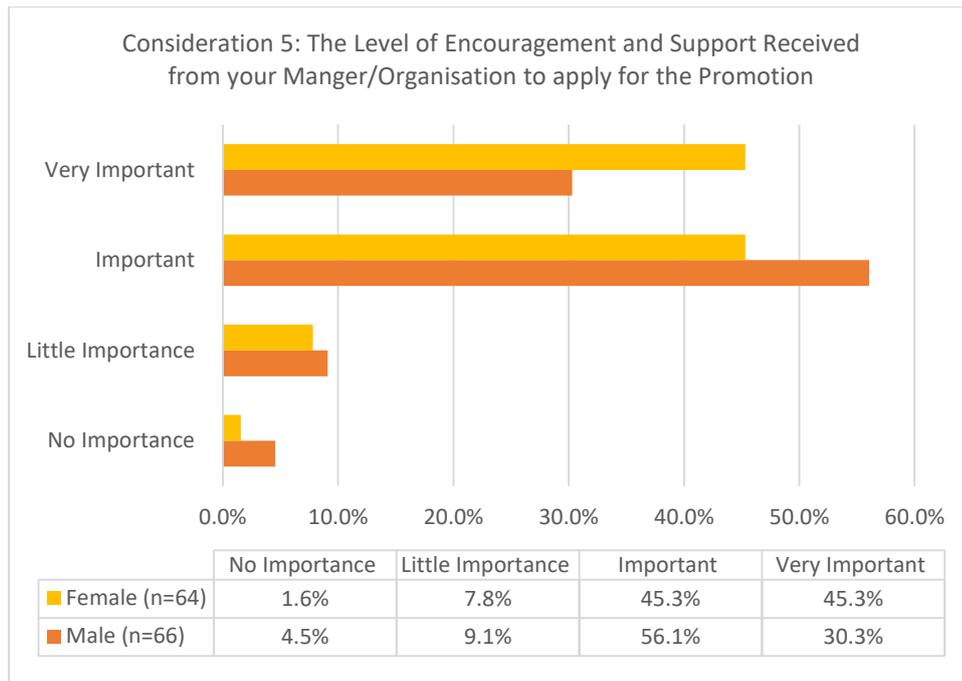


Figure 5.40 Consideration 5 Analysis by Gender

Further to these five possible considerations the survey also presented two statements regarding the career progression of women which participants were asked to rank their level of agreement with. The two statements are presented in *Table 5.93*. The participants' responses to the statements were analysed firstly using the total responses (n=133). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=66) or female (n=64). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.41-5.44*.

Table 5.93 Statements on the Career Progression of Women

Statement 1: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their career as their male colleagues.

Statement 2: The gender of those already holding management positions in an organisation (i.e. if all or almost all existing managers are male) may negatively impact on the opportunities for women to progress within that organisation.

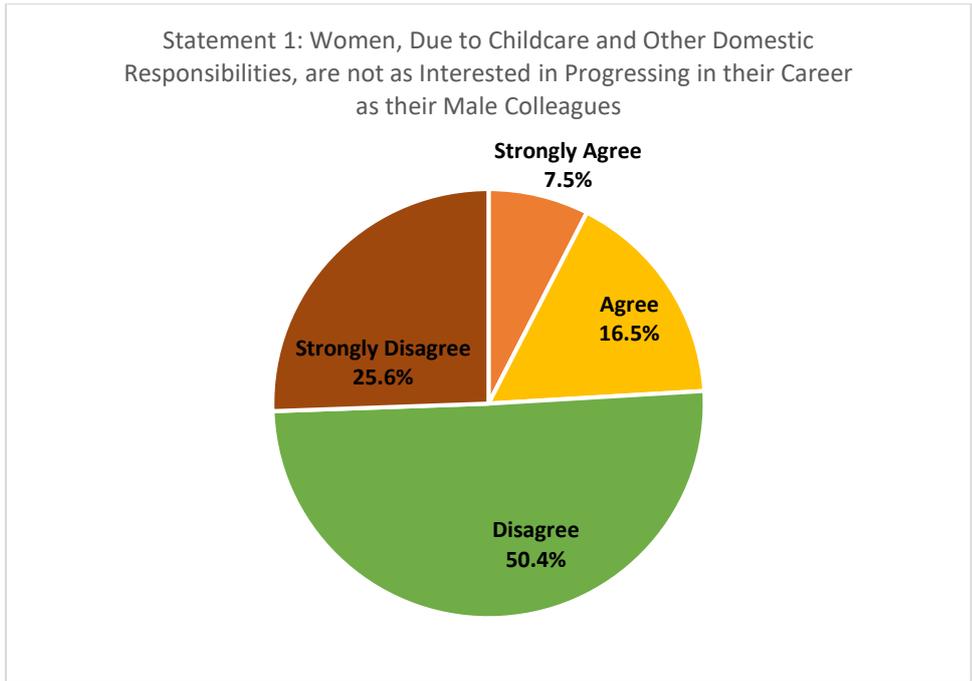


Figure 5.41 Statement 1 Analysis

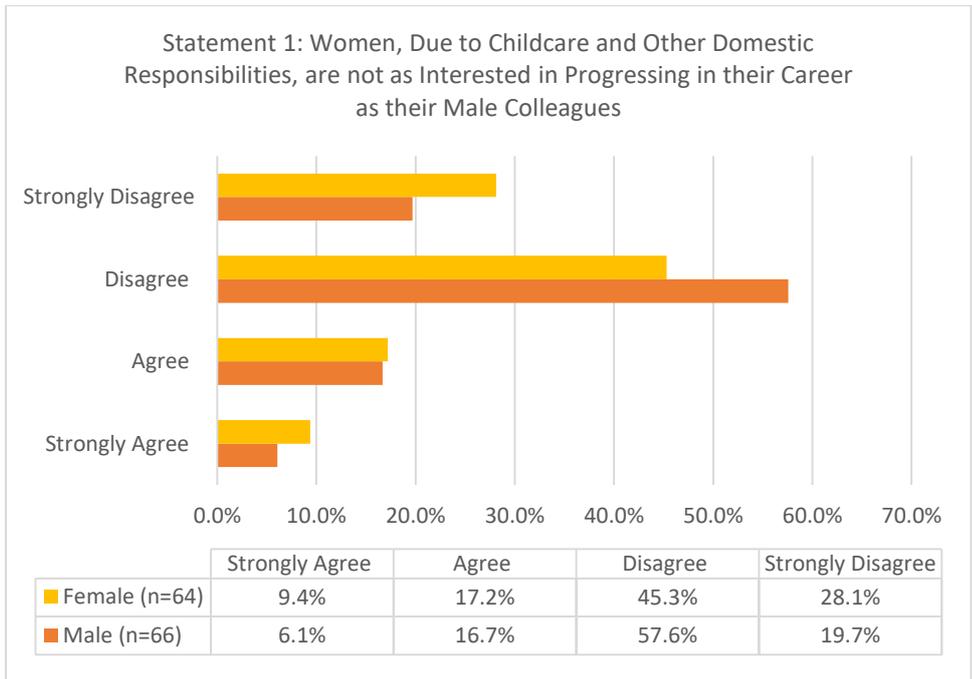


Figure 5.42 Statement 1 Gendered Difference in Responses

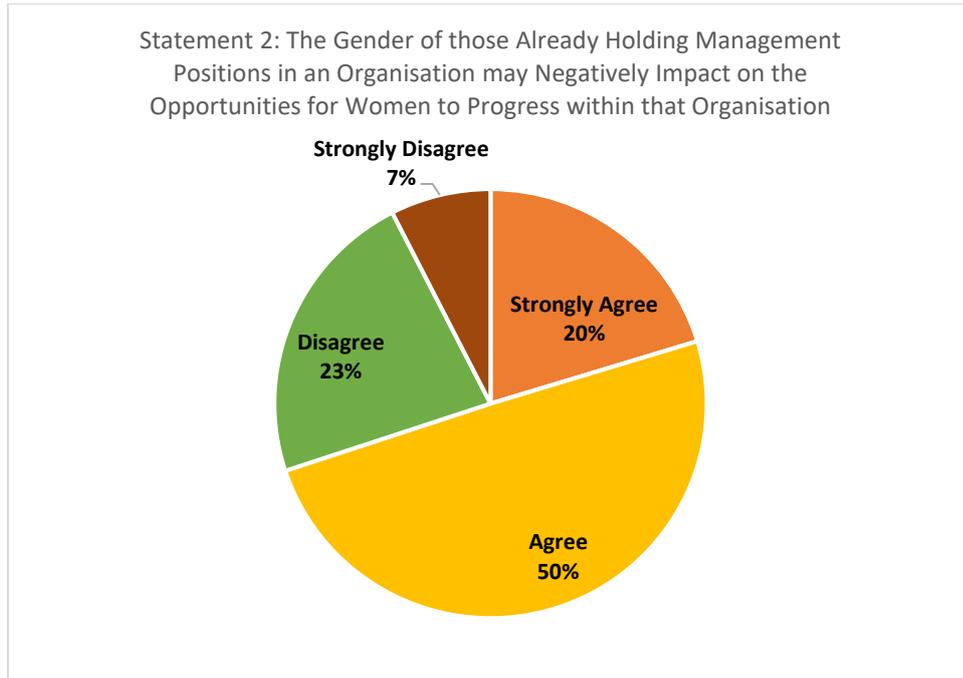


Figure 5.43 Statement 2 Analysis

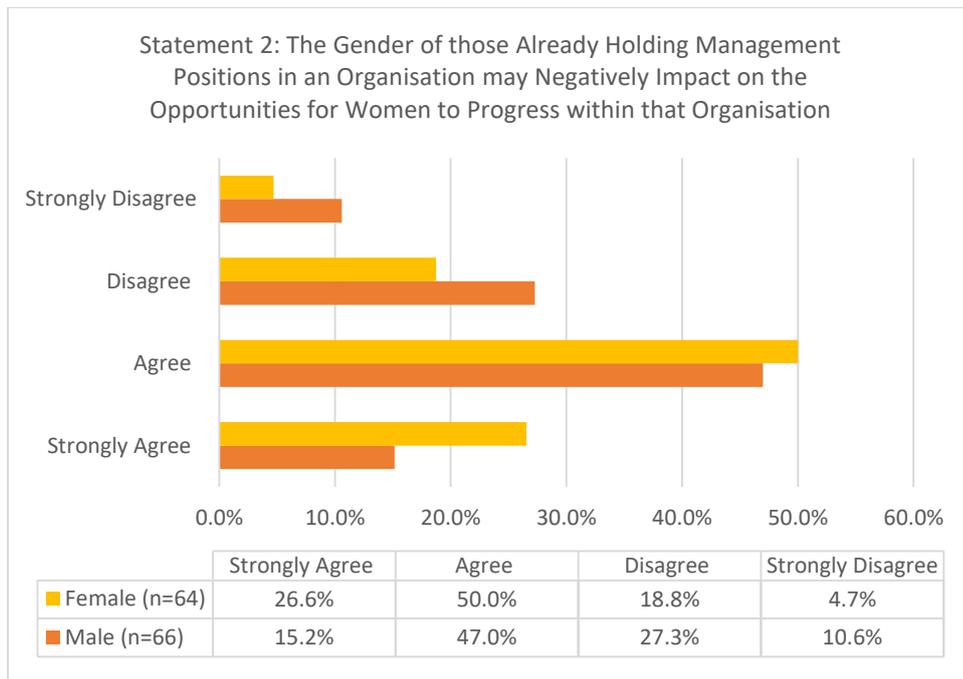


Figure 5.44 Statement 2 Gendered Difference in Responses

The survey asked participants to identify if they were aware if their organisation had written job descriptions for each role detailing the exact skills and abilities the person occupying that role should possess. Of the total participants (n=133) 66.9 per cent

(n=89) affirmed that their organisation was in possession of such job descriptions. Of the remaining participants 21.8 per cent (n=29) responded that there were no such job descriptions in their organisation. While 11.3 per cent (n=15) were unaware if there were any written job descriptions in their organisation.

The participants were then asked to identify if they were required in their role within their organisation to conduct interviews with new candidates to fill vacant positions or with current employees seeking promotion. Of the total participants (n=133) 52.6 per cent (n=70) responded that they were required to conduct interviews in their organisation. These participants were then asked to identify if they had received any training before conducting any interviews. Of those participants who responded (n=65) 38.5 per cent (n=25) stated that they had received training while 57.1 per cent (n=40) stated they had not.

To expand upon this further analysis was then undertaken on to identify if those who were required to conduct interviews were aware if their organisation had any written job descriptions. Of those participants who conduct interviews (n=70) 77.1 per cent (n=54) affirmed the existence of written job descriptions in their organisations while 17.2 per cent (n=12) stated that there no written job descriptions. The remaining 5.7 per cent (n=4) were unaware if there were any written job descriptions in their organisation.

Finally, the level of agreement to six statements on the importance of gender equality and the career progression of women by those participants required to conduct interviews was analysed. The six statements are displayed in *Table 5.94*.

Table 5.94 Statements on the Importance of Gender Equality and the Career Progress of Women

Statement 1: I personally place an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.

Statement 2: Gender balance across management levels is important in the SME sector.

Statement 3: I believe I have always treated other employees equally based on their merits irrespective of their gender.

Statement 4: Women with children are less capable and committed to their work than those women without children and men.

Statement 5: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.

Statement 6: Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their careers as their male colleagues.

The participants' responses the statements were analysed firstly using the total responses of those who are required to conduct interviews (n=70). This was followed by a separate analysis using the responses of those participants who identified as either male (n=34) or female (n=36). The results of the analysis are displayed in *Figures 5.45-5.56*.

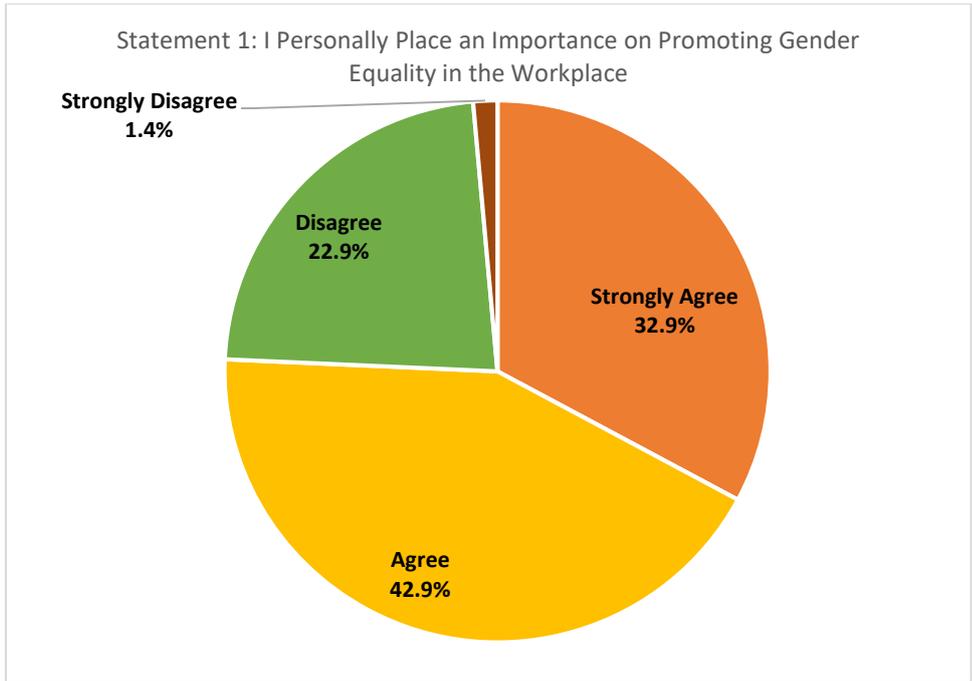


Figure 5.45 Statement 1 Analysis

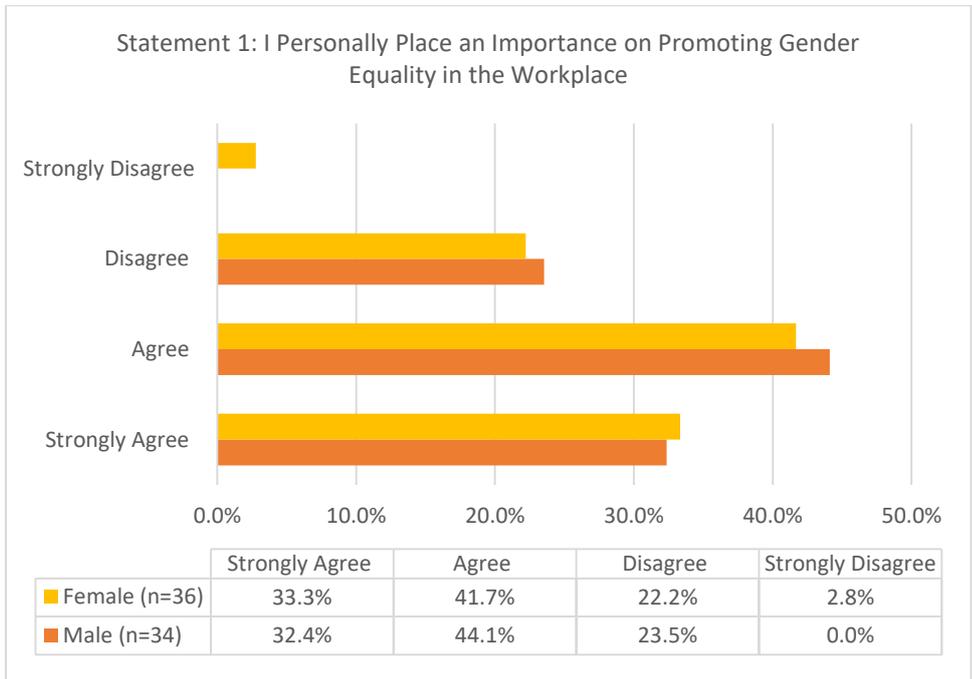


Figure 5.46 Statement 1 Gendered Difference in Responses

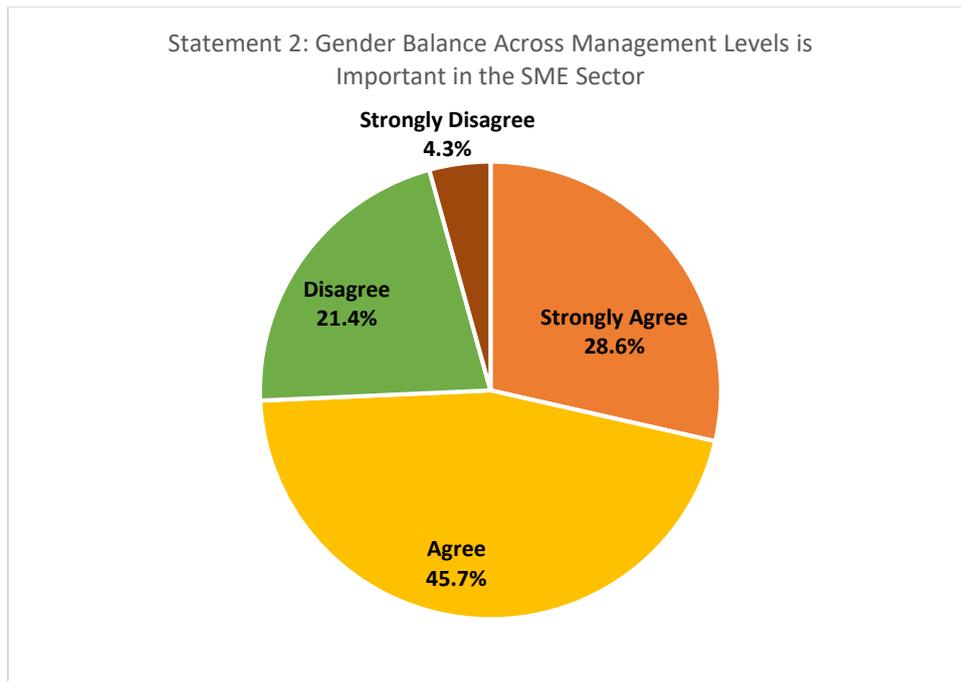


Figure 5.47 Statement 2 Analysis

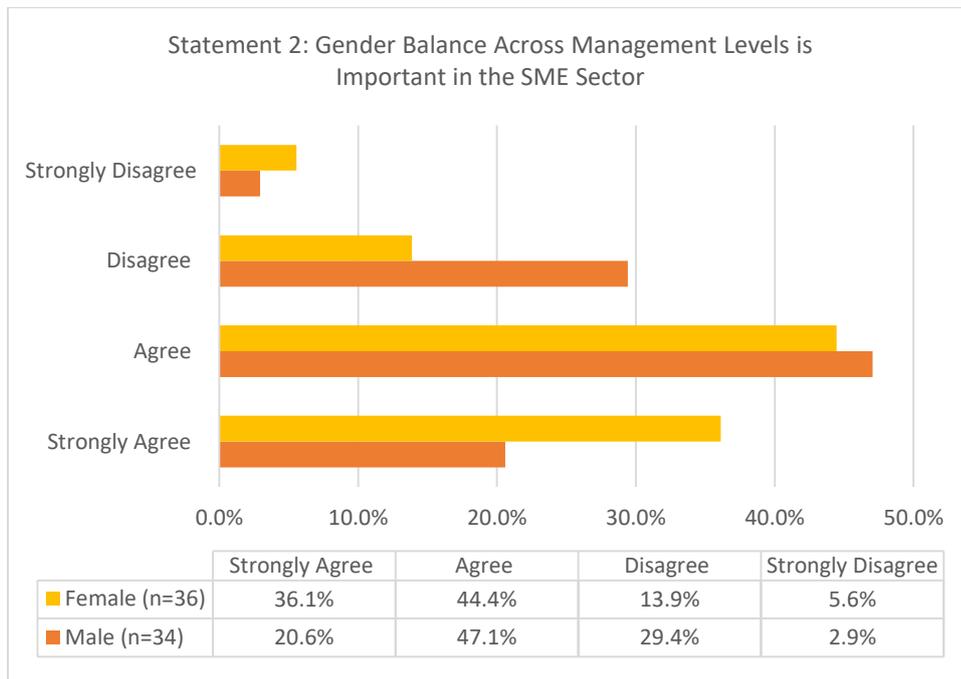


Figure 5.48 Statement 2 Gendered Differences in Responses

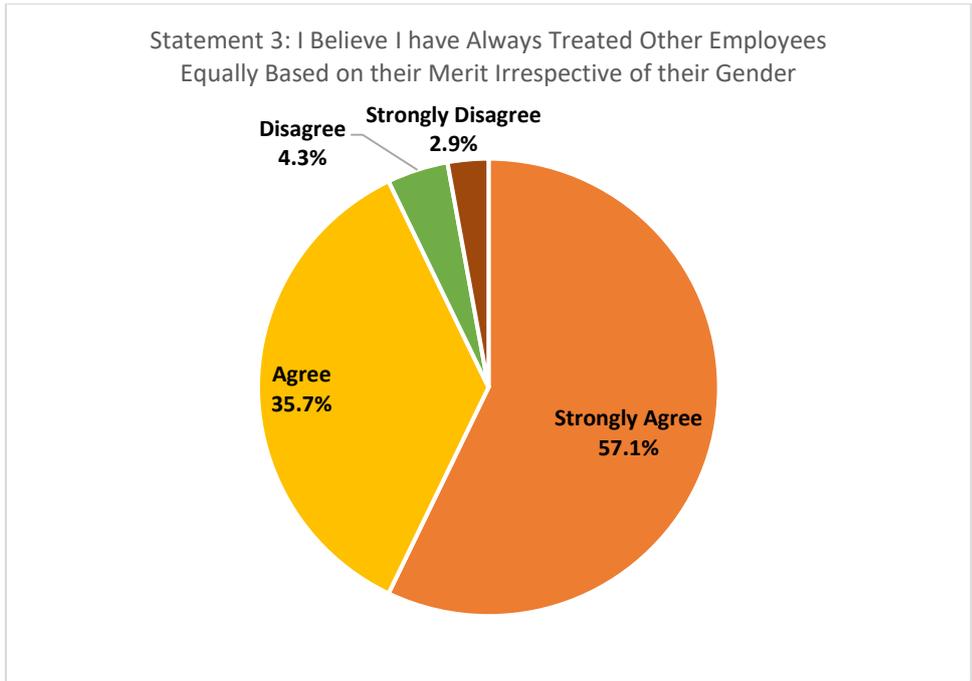


Figure 5.49 Statement 3 Analysis

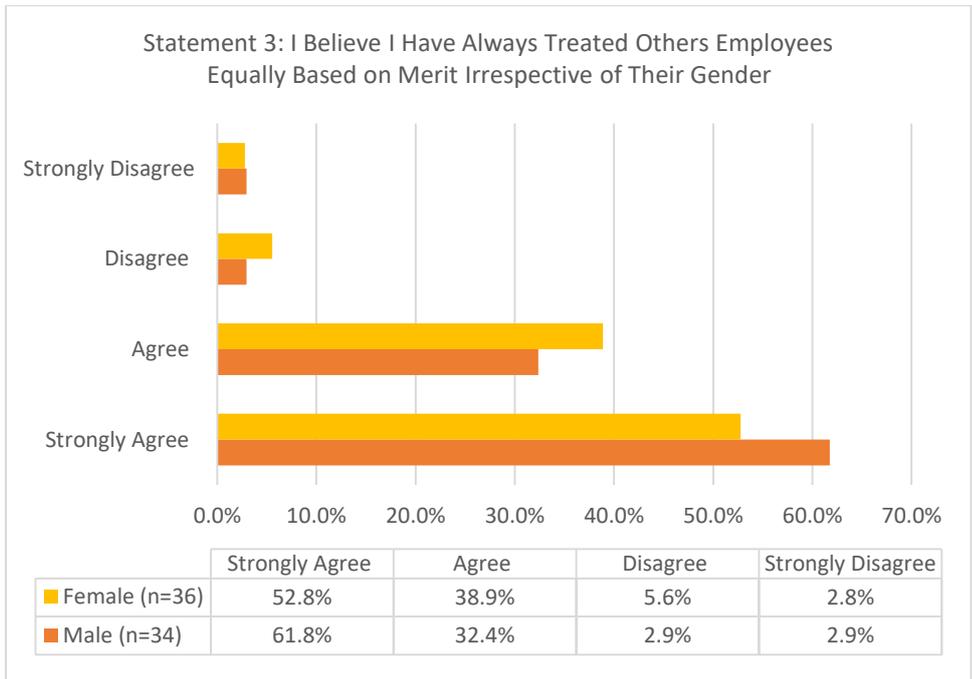


Figure 5.50 Gender Differences in Responses

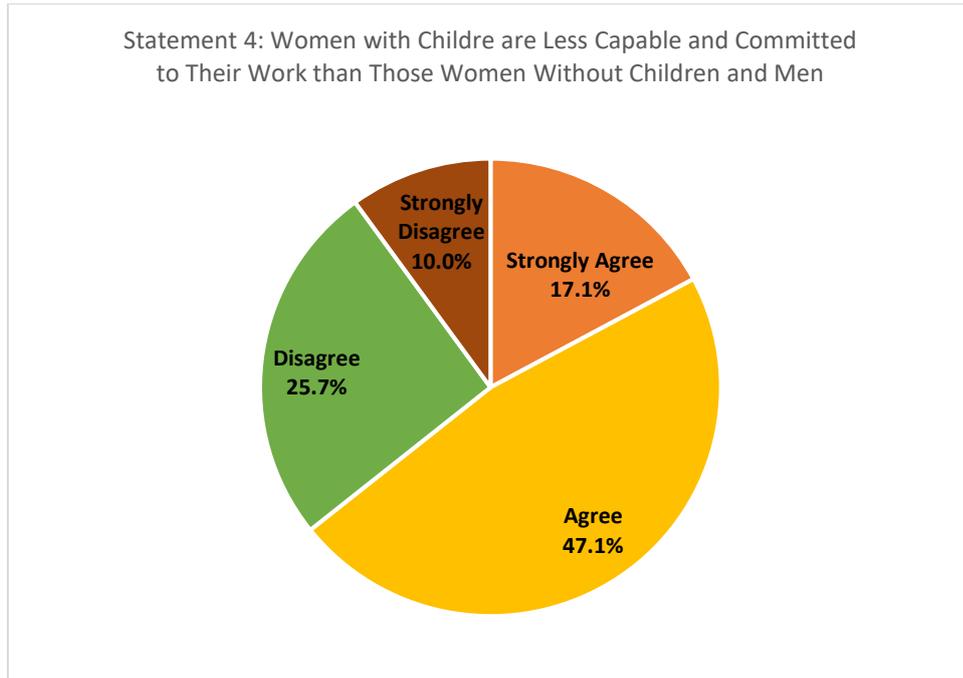


Figure 5.51 Statement 4 Analysis

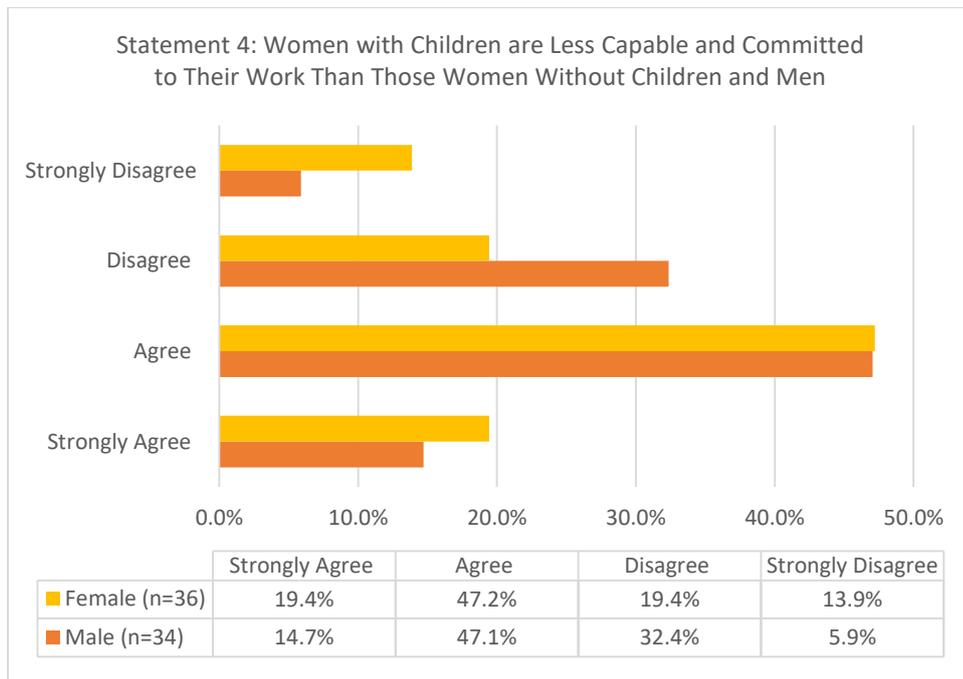


Figure 5.52 Statement 4 Gendered Differences in Responses

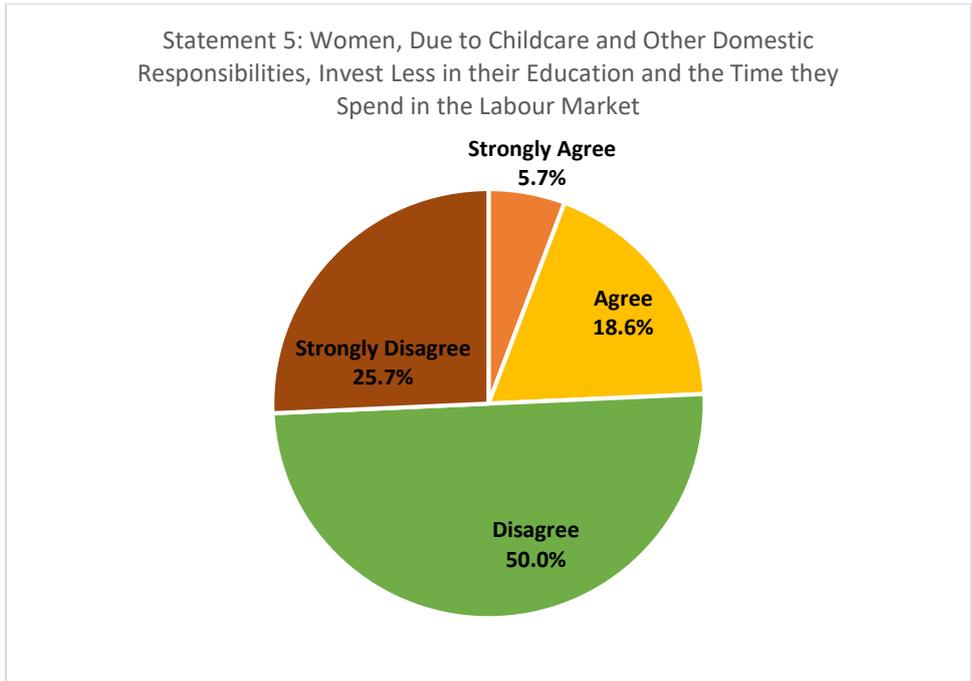


Figure 5.53 Statement 5 Analysis

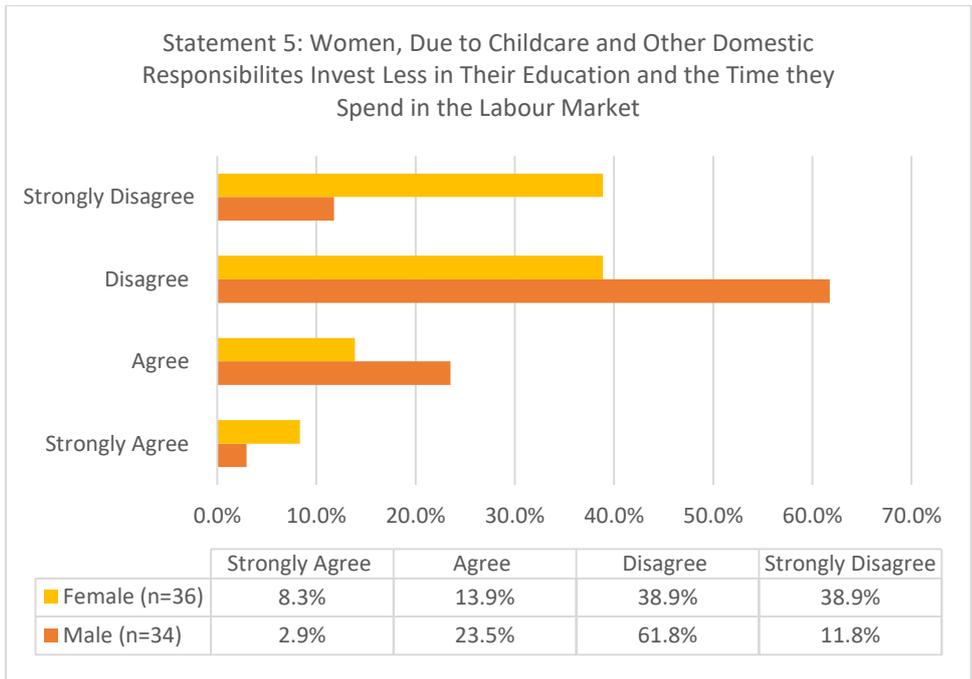


Figure 5.54 Statement 5 Gendered Differences in Responses

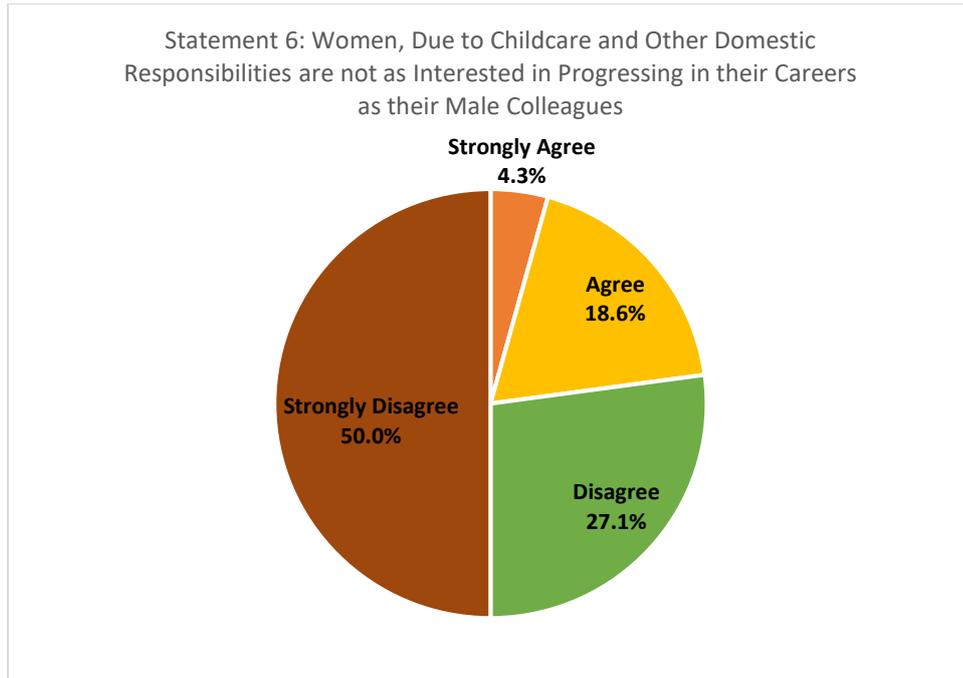


Figure 5.55 Statement 6 Analysis

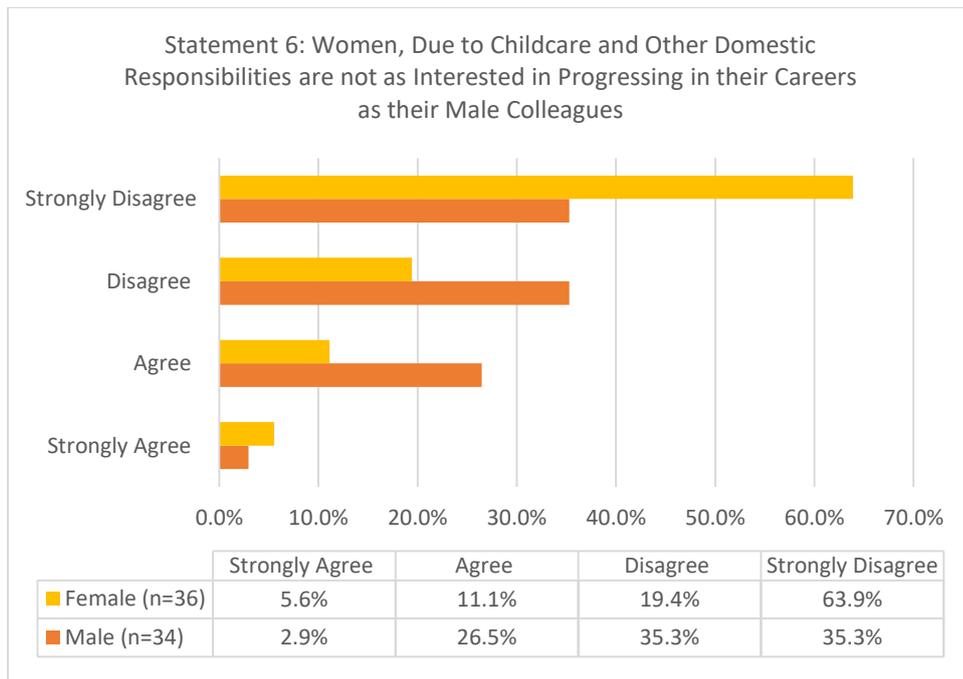


Figure 5.56 Statement 6 Gendered Differences in Responses

5.4.2.2.3 Availability and Perceptions of Flexible Work Practices

To establish the level of flexible work practices, if any, offered by the participants' organisations the survey contained questions addressing the level of flexibility

surrounding working hours offered by the various organisations. Additionally, the survey aimed to capture the attitudes and perceptions held by the participants towards working with those who availed of flexible work practices.

The survey provided four types of flexible work practices and asked participants to identify if any were available to them in their organisation. They were also provided with a fifth option of ‘other flexibility offered by organisation’. The responses from the total participants (n=133) for each of the five options are displayed in *Figure 5.57*.

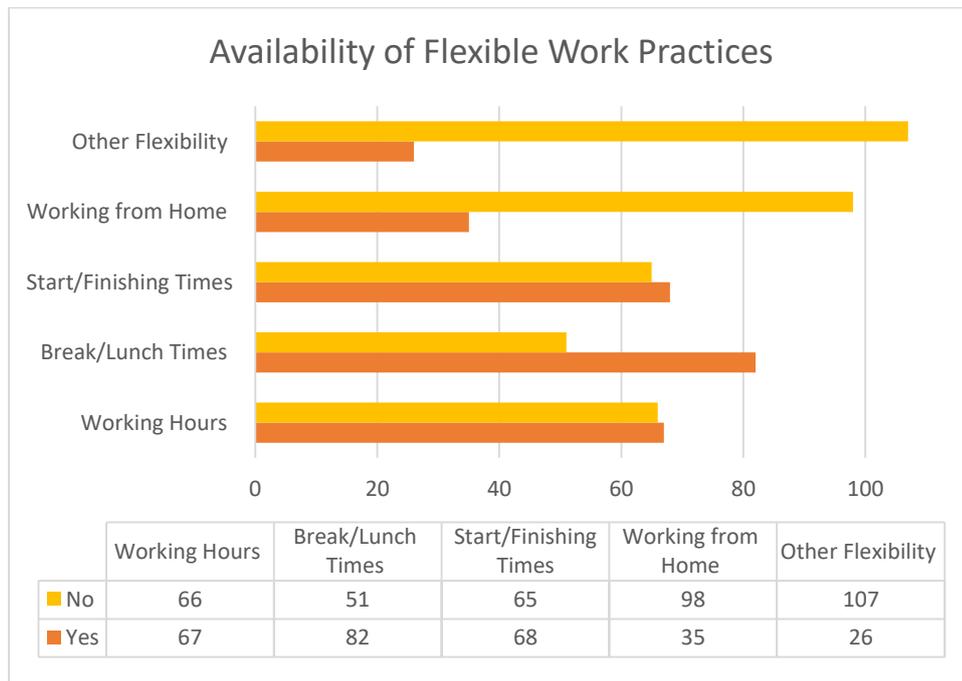


Figure 5.57 Availability of Flexible Work Practices in Participants’ Organisations

Additionally, the participants were given the opportunity describe any flexible work practices in greater detail allowing them to expand further on the flexibility offered by their organisations. The responses of the participants who chose to expand further on the flexibility offered by their organisation (N=74) were then thematically analysed. This analysis identified that the main objective of the flexible work practices offered by the organisations was to facilitate the individual employee to varying degrees in combining their work commitments with other commitments. Some of the participants identified that upon commencing study their organisation would facilitate this external commitment through allowing them to restructure their work schedule:

As a student they let me choose what days I worked based on my timetable.

Working around college hours – still have to complete certain amount of hours each week.

Due to this course I asked for rearranging hours to make my schedule more effective.

Participants also stated that should an external circumstance, such as one-off appointments, require the need to occasionally finish earlier their organisation would facilitate this though allowing them to work that time back:

If I need to finish early could start early or make up for it another day.

Pending circumstances, we may offer changing start/finish times if requested.

I could start an hour earlier if I need an hour off or needed to finish earlier.

No problems with hospital times, can start earlier to finish earlier.

The individual personal circumstances of participants was another area identified by some participants in which their organisations facilitated them through the use of flexible work practices:

Family commitments – allow staff to adjust hours if they need to be collected – very understanding if family member is unwell.

Working around appointments or other events is never an issue.

I can work around children/school times when required. My working hours were changed at my request when children started school.

Finally, some participants identified that their organisations were flexible in so far as there were no set break times so as to allow employees to set their own customised break schedule:

In my position I can decide when I take breaks, usually stick to same times but if it's very busy I go later or earlier depending on meetings.

Laid back approach, no defined breaks.

No fixed break times. Breaks were taken when you felt you needed one.

Additionally, the survey asked participants to identify if their organisation offered flexible work practices to management staff. Of those participants who responded (n=129) 55.8 per cent (n=72) stated that their organisation did offer flexible work practices to their management staff. While 17.1 per cent (n=22) responded that their organisation did not. The remaining 27.1 per cent (n=35) were unaware if flexible work practice were available to management staff.

To expand further on those participants who were unaware if flexible work practices were offered to management staff the occupational roles of the 35 participants was identified. The breakdown of the occupational roles of the 35 participants is displayed in *Figure 5.58*.

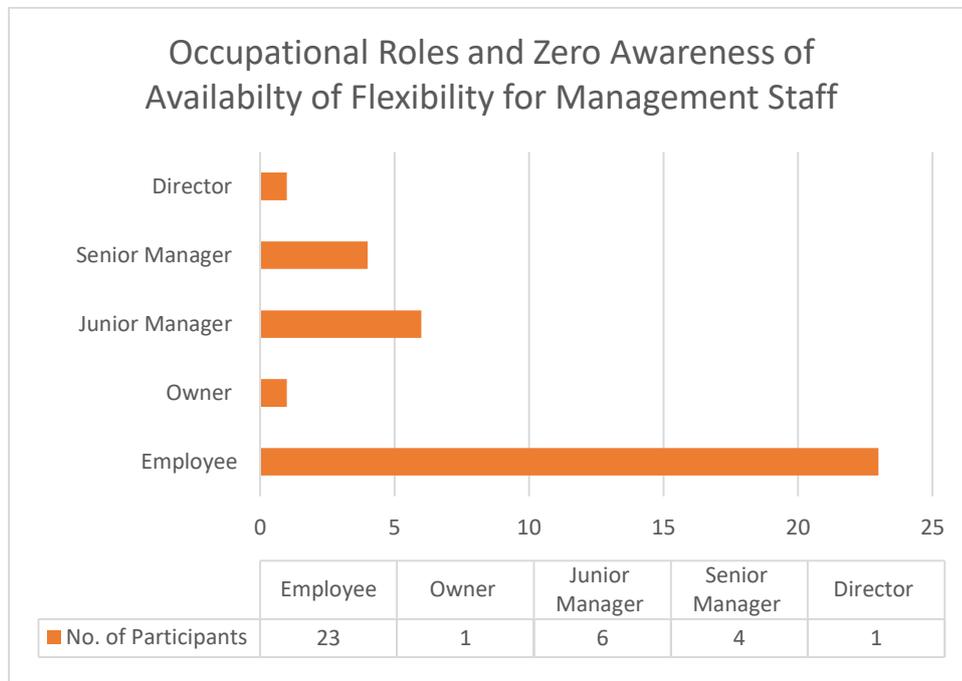


Figure 5.58 Breakdown of Occupational Roles of Those Participants Unaware of Availability of Flexible Work Practices to Management Staff

Finally, to capture the attitudes held by the participants towards availing of flexible work practices themselves and the perceptions they held towards others who availed of them the participants were asked to rank their level of agreement with seven statements. The seven statements are displayed in *Table 5.95*.

Table 5.95 Statements on the Flexible Work Practices

Statement 1: I feel it is important to have a balance between work and life.

Statement 2: In general, it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work with the responsibilities of family/personal life.

Statement 3: I would feel comfortable approaching my employers about availing of a flexible work arrangement for myself.

Statement 4: I believe using a flexible workplace arrangement (e.g. part-time schedule) would not jeopardise my chances of promotion.

Statement 5: Within my organisation those employees using flexible working arrangements (e.g. part-time/shorter working day) are/were viewed as not carrying the same workload as those who do not have flexible working arrangements.

Statement 6: I believe having employees on my team using flexible working arrangements would/did increase my own work load.

Statement 7: I believe those employees with children are/were afforded greater flexibility in the workplace than those without.

The responses by gender of the total participants (n=133) for statements 1 and 2 are displayed in *Figures 5.59-5.60*. The responses by gender of those participants who responded to statement 3 (n=132), statement 4 (n=131), statement 5 (n=127), statement 6 (n=129) and statement 7 (n=131) are displayed in *Figure 5.61- 5.65*.

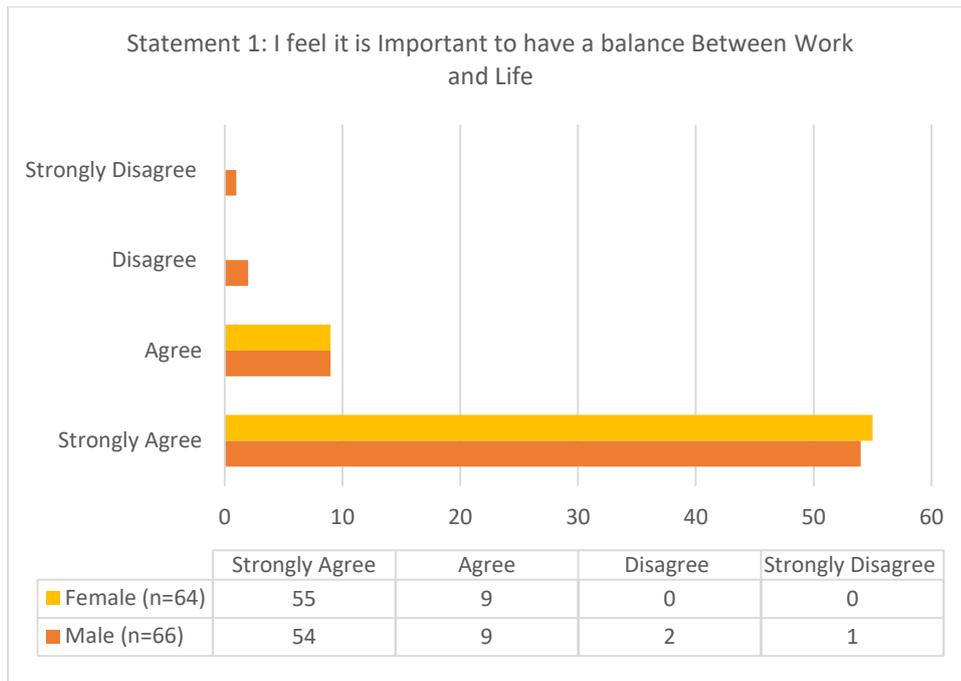


Figure 5.59 Gendered Responses to Statement 1

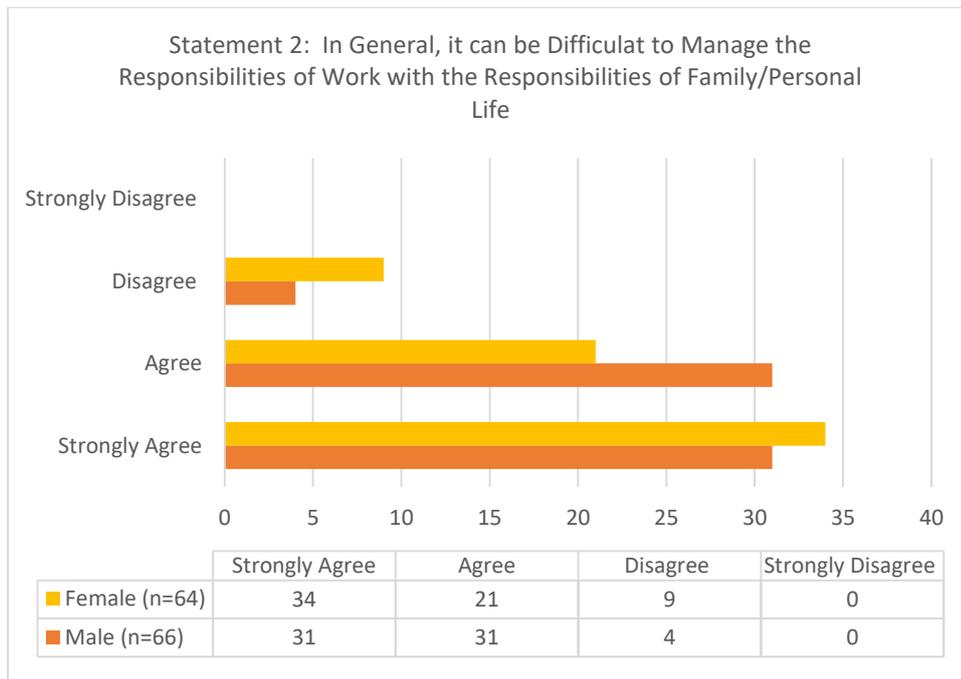


Figure 5.60 Gendered Responses to Statement 2

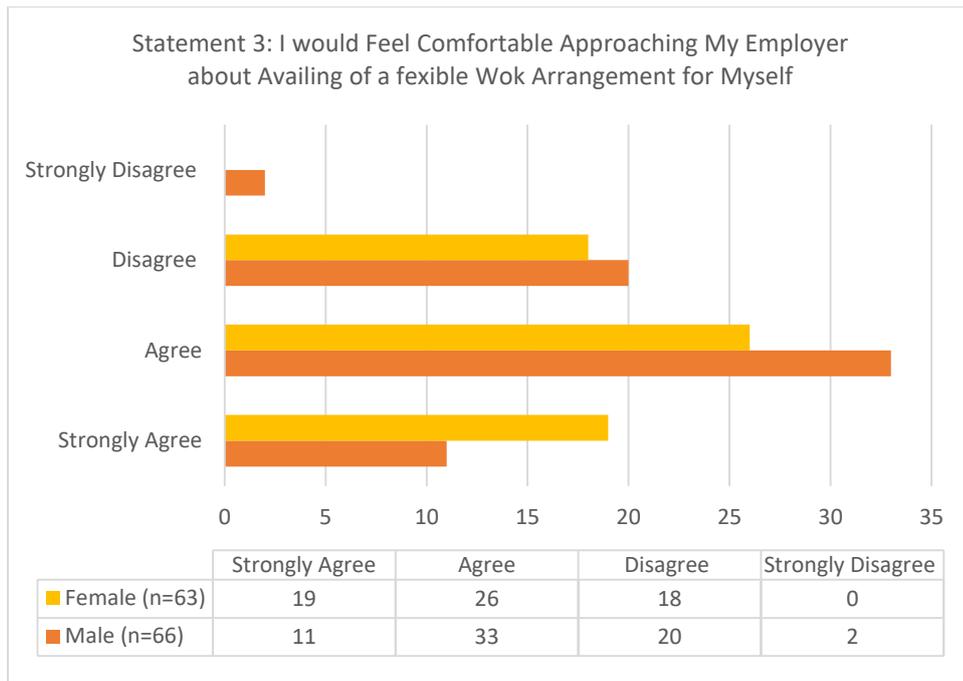


Figure 5.61 Gendered Responses to Statement 3

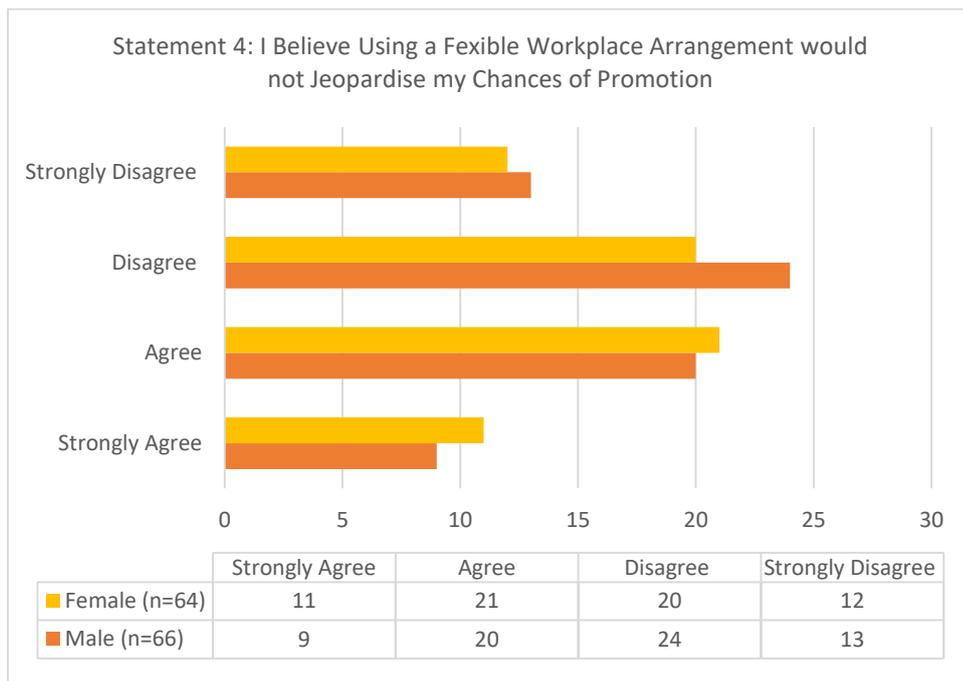


Figure 5.62 Gendered Responses to Statement 4

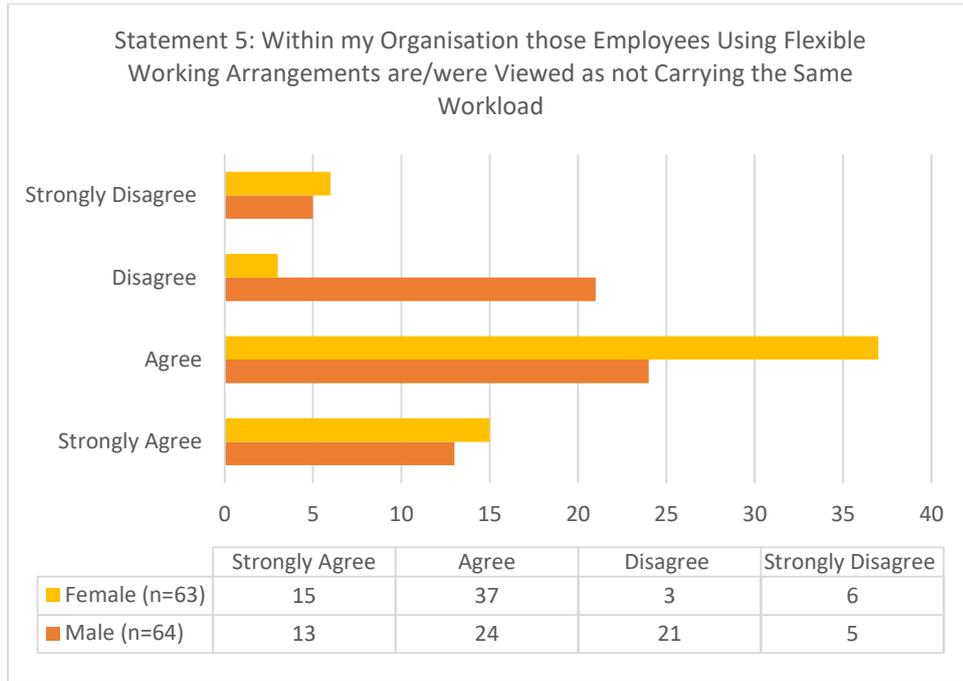


Figure 5.63 Gendered Responses to Statement 5

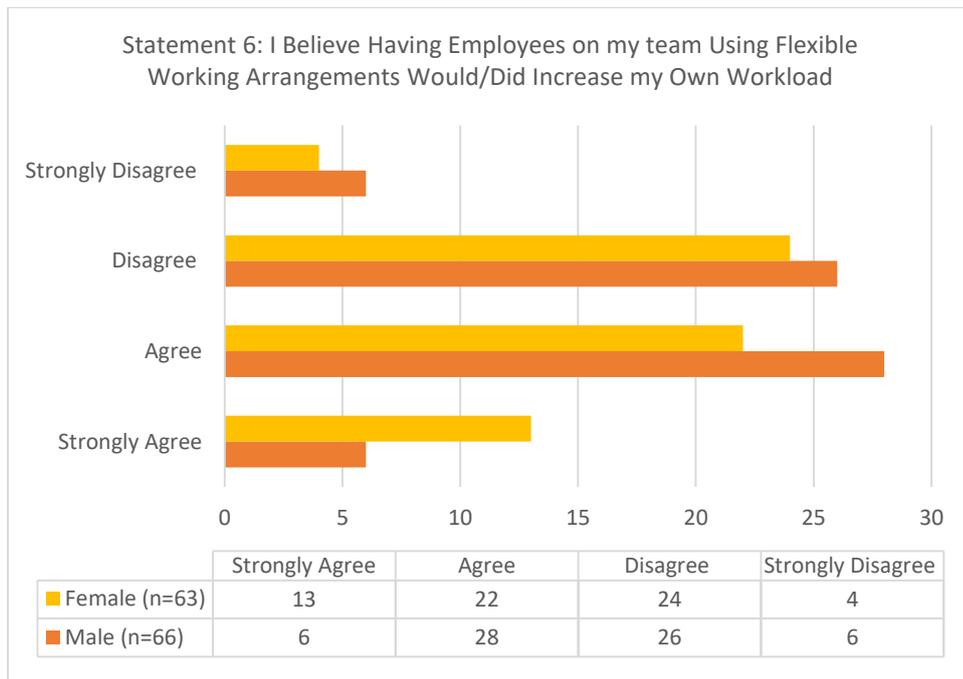


Figure 5.64 Gendered Responses to Statement 6

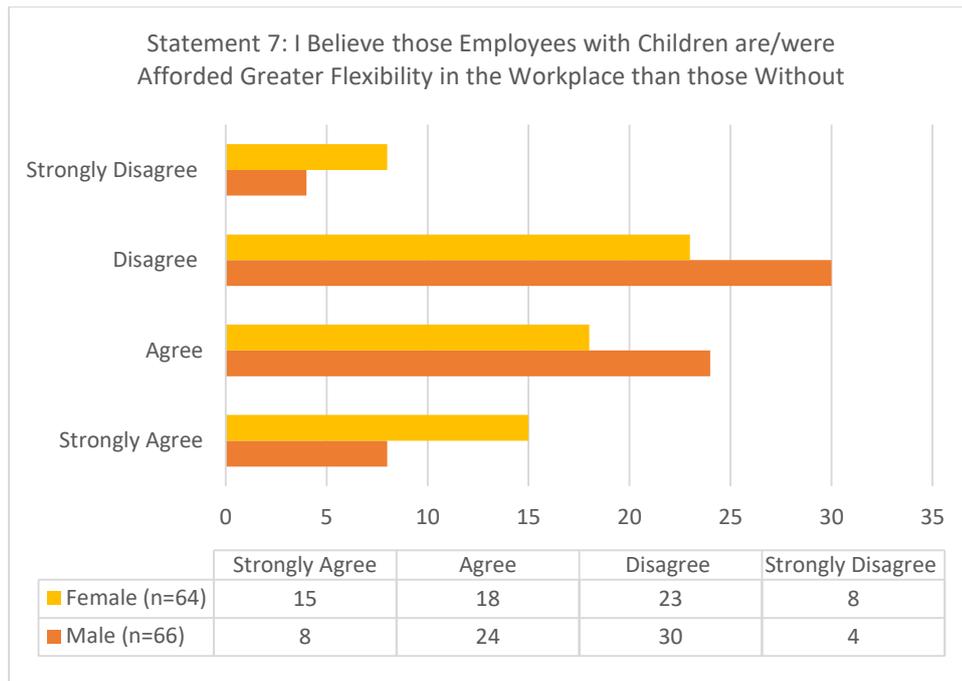


Figure 5.65 Gendered Responses to Statement 7

5.4.2.2.4 The Gendered Differences in the Impact of Organisational Culture on Employees

To examine the culture of the participants' organisations the survey contained questions surrounding the values most appreciated within their organisation, the type of workplace culture which existed in their organisation and the strategic approach adopted by their organisation. Further to this the participants were questioned as to whether they believed the culture existing within an organisation could contribute to gender inequality existing in that organisation.

To establish the values most appreciated within the participants organisations the survey presented a list of seven values from which participants were asked to choose those which were granted importance in their individual organisations. The seven values are detailed in *Table 5.96*. The responses of the participants were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each value.

Table 5.96 Statements on the most Appreciated Organisational Values

Value 1: Uniformity: following the established way of doing things.

Value 2: Innovation: generating new ideas and developing new ways of doing things.

Value 3: Efficiency: achieving the best results in the most efficient way possible.

Value 4: Loyalty: the organisation is the number one priority.

Value 5: Collaboration: the ability work in a team is prioritised over the individual.

Value 6: Individualism: the uniqueness of each employee is recognised.

Value 7: Competitiveness: a high level of ambition and drive is crucial in all employees.

The response of the total participants (n=133) for each of the seven values are displayed in *Figure 5.66*.

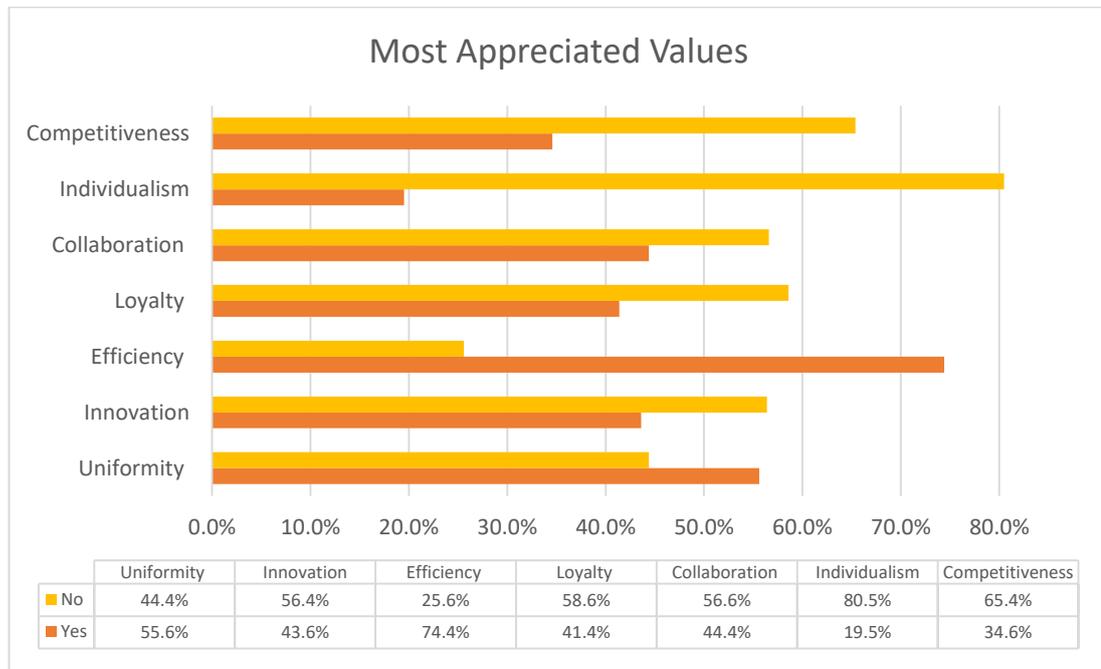


Figure 5.66 Most Appreciated Values in Participants' Organisations

Additional analysis to determine the impact the gender of the participant, the size of the organisation and the participants' organisational position had on what values were identified as most appreciated was also conducted and is presented in *Tables 5.97-5.99*.

Table 5.97 Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Gender

	Uniformity	Innovation	Efficiency	Loyalty	Collaboration	Individualism	Competitiveness
Male (n=66)	56.1%	40.9%	75.8%	37.9%	47.0%	21.2%	34.8%
Female (n=64)	53.2%	48.4%	71.9%	47.0%	42.1%	18.8%	36.0%

Table 5.98 Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Organisational Size

	Uniformity	Innovation	Efficiency	Loyalty	Collaboration	Individualism	Competitiveness
> 10 Employees (n=32)	53.1%	46.9%	75.0%	50.0%	28.1%	15.6%	28.1%
11-50 Employees (n=40)	57.5%	30.0%	27.5%	37.5%	42.5%	7.5%	42.5%
51-250 Employees (n=61)	55.7%	50.8%	24.6%	39.3%	54.1%	29.5%	54.1%

Table 5.99 Most Appreciated Organisational Values by Organisational Position

	Uniformity	Innovation	Efficiency	Loyalty	Collaboration	Individualism	Competitiveness
Employee (n=61)	29.5%	16.4%	37.7%	21.3%	23.0%	8.2%	13.1%
Owner (n=7)	57.1%	57.1%	71.4%	28.6%	42.9%	28.6%	28.6%
Junior Manager (n=36)	58.3%	50.0%	69.4%	41.7%	41.7%	22.2%	44.4%
Senior Manager (n=24)	41.7%	54.2%	66.7%	50.0%	50.0%	16.7%	37.5%
Director (n=5)	20.0%	40.0%	100.0%	40.0%	40.0%	20.0%	40.0%

To explore the workplace culture which existed within the participants' organisations the survey presented a list of four types of organisational cultures from which participants were asked to choose those which they believed best described the workplace culture found within their individual organisations. The four organisational cultures are detailed in *Table 5.100*. The responses of the participants

(n=133) were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each value as presented in *Figure 5.67*.

Table 5.100 Organisational Cultures

Culture 1: Team-orientated: Informal atmosphere within the organisation where everyone works together to achieve success.

Culture 2: Entrepreneurial: People are willing to take chances and new ideas are embraced by the organisation. Those employees who take risks go furthest within the organisation.

Culture 3: Results Orientated: Focus is on achieving desired results set by the organisation. There is a high level of competitiveness amongst employees.

Culture 4: Bureaucratic: There is a structured way of doing things within the organisation and movement away from this is not encouraged.

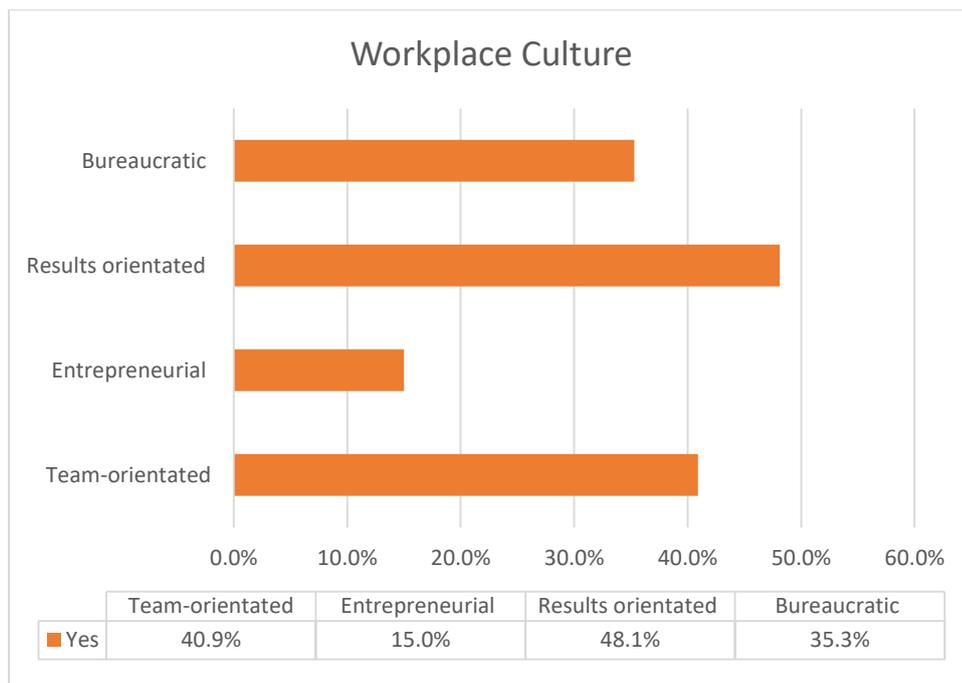


Figure 5.67 Workplace Cultures in Participants' Organisations

Again additional analysis to determine the impact the gender of the participant, the size of the organisation and the participants organisational position had on what workplace culture they believed existed within their organisation was also conducted and is presented in *Tables 5.101-5.103*.

Table 5.101 Workplace Culture by Gender

	Team-orientated	Entrepreneurial	Results orientated	Bureaucratic
Male (n=66)	42.4%	10.6%	57.6%	31.8%
Female (n=64)	39.1%	18.8%	39.4%	40.6%

Table 5.102 Workplace Culture by Organisational Size

	Team-Orientated	Entrepreneurial	Results Orientated	Bureaucratic
> 10 Employees (n=32)	43.8%	31.3%	18.8%	25.0%
11-50 Employees (n=40)	35.0%	10.0%	55.0%	40.0%
51-250 Employees (n=61)	42.6%	9.8%	59.0%	37.7%

Table 5.103 Workplace Culture by Organisational Position

	Team-orientated	Entrepreneurial	Results Orientated	Bureaucratic
Employee (n=61)	36.1%	14.8%	47.5%	19.7%
Owner (n=7)	71.4%	28.6%	42.9%	
Junior Manager (n=36)	33.3%	16.7%	47.2%	13.9%
Senior Manager (n=24)	45.8%	8.3%	41.7%	8.3%
Director (n=5)	60.0%	20.0%	80.0%	20.0%

Finally, to establish the strategic approach adopted by the participants' organisations the survey presented a list of four types of strategic approaches from which participants were asked to choose those which they believed best described the approach adopted by their individual organisations. The four strategic approaches adopted are detailed in *Table 5.104*. The responses of the participants (n=133) were analysed to generate a total positive and negative response for each strategic approach as presented in *Figure 5.68*.

Table 5.104 Strategic Approaches

Approach 1: Emphasis is placed on employee development through the provision of training opportunities.

Approach 2: Emphasis is placed on embracing new ideas and new ways of doing things.

Approach 3: Emphasis is placed on meeting targets.

Approach 4: Emphasis is placed on ensuring efficiency and control is maintained at all times.



Figure 5.68 Strategic Approach of Participants' Organisations

Additional analysis to determine the impact the gender of the participant, the size of the organisation and the participants organisational position had on what strategic approach they believed best described the approach adopted by their organisation was also conducted and is presented in *Tables 5.105-5.107*.

Table 5.105 Strategic Approach by Gender

	Employee Development	New Ideas	Meeting Targets	Efficiency
Male (n=66)	16.7%	19.7%	66.7%	34.8%
Female (n=64)	25.0%	23.4%	48.4%	60.9%

Table 5.106 Strategic Approach by Organisation Size

	Employee Development	New Ideas	Meeting Targets	Efficiency
> 10 Employees (n=32)	21.9%	21.9%	43.8%	34.4%
11-50 Employees (n=40)	17.5%	12.5%	62.5%	45.0%
51-250 Employees (n=61)	21.3%	26.2%	63.9%	54.1%

Table 5.107 Strategic Approach by Organisational Position

	Employee Development	New Ideas	Meeting Targets	Efficiency
Employee (n=61)	19.7%	18.0%	62.3%	47.5%
Owner (n=7)	28.6%	14.3%	42.9%	14.3%
Junior Manager (n=36)	16.7%	19.4%	58.3%	52.8%
Senior Manager (n=24)	25.0%	33.3%	45.8%	41.7%
Director (n=5)	20.0%	20.0%	80.0%	40.0%

The survey also asked participants if they believed the culture existing within an organisation could contribute to gender inequality existing in that organisation. Of the responding participants (n=129) 68.4 per cent (n=91) responded that they believed that the culture found within an organisation could contribute to gender inequalities existing in that organisation. While 28.6 per cent (n=38) responded that they did not believe this to be true. Of those participants who responded that they believed the culture can contribute to gender inequalities and identified their gender (n=90) 50 per cent (n=45) were male and 50 per cent (n=45) were female. Therefore, 68 per cent of male participants (n=66) and 70.3 per cent of female participants (n=64) responded that they believed that the culture found within an organisation can result in gender inequalities existing in that organisation. Of those 91 participants 26.4 per cent (n=24) were from organisations with less than ten employees, 30.8 per

cent (n=28) were based in organisations with between 11 and 50 employees and 42.8 per cent (n=39) were from organisations with between 51 and 250 employees. Additionally, of the total responding participants (n=91) 46.2 per cent (n=42) were employees, 5.5 per cent (n=5) were owners, 24.2 per cent (n=22) were junior managers, 19.8 per cent (n=18) were senior managers and 4.4 per cent (n=4) were directors.

The survey also granted those participants who said they believed the culture found within an organisation could contribute to gender inequalities existing in that organisation the opportunity to elaborate further on this. Of the 91 participants who responded that they believed the culture can contribute to gender inequalities 69 choose to elaborate further on this belief. The participants highlight gendered stereotyping, beliefs around flexible working practices, a patriarchal nature to the organisation and the existence of informal male networks to be the main cultural issues contributing to gender inequalities in their organisations.

A culture of gender stereotyping surrounding the both the type of work and the industry itself was emphasised by participants as contributing to gender inequalities. For example, one female employee stated that her organisation is:

...a factory with lots of machines and mostly male employees are operating these machines, they don't want a female telling them what to do as they assume women don't know about/how to use the machines.

A male junior manager commented:

I think in heavy industry there is still a view that women cannot do the same level of work as a man can.

While a female junior manager in the construction industry detailed their own experiences explaining that:

...many companies still believe that in the construction industry that this is a man's job. That health and safety officers should be men. That only men wear hard hats! This is the culture of the industry.

Further to this, participants highlighted that gender stereotyping resulting in assigning specific roles to men and women and the assumptions arising from those assigned roles were also generating gender inequalities. One female employee explains how in her experience:

...some older companies still have a culture of 'men working women stay at home' which unknowingly transferred throughout the years

While a female director explains:

It is thought that women have children so may not be able to commit to management and have different levels of motivation and priorities.

A female junior manager expands on this in their reply stating:

In recent years women generally are the stay at home parent. Within some companies they may see this as an issue due to them progressing and then having to take leave. In many companies they are not understanding to this as they may see this as time wasting. Training employees to a higher position and then they take leave.

Another female junior manager commented:

Women with children are still viewed as inferior to men. The mother is expected to stay at home if the child is sick. Views of staff getting pregnant/already mothers impacts promotion chances.

While a female senior manager emphasised that gender stereotyping surrounding the assigned roles means that:

...women aged between 28-40 are rarely promoted to senior roles in case they decide to have a family.

The participants highlighted that beliefs and perceptions that women require more flexibility due to home responsibilities can create a culture in which women are viewed by the organisation as unsuitable for management positions. For example, one senior male manager stated:

The company culture can attract and retain or repel or reject employees depending on policies and flexibility on offer. Sometimes low margin businesses view some policies as cost increasing or prohibitive to allow/encourage.

While one male employee commented:

I think my organisation see men as more flexible and less costly i.e. maternity etc.

This negative view of organisations towards the use of flexible working practices was one which participants emphasised as generating a culture of excluding women from certain management positions. One female senior manager highlighted that in her organisation:

Women in management roles in my organisation appear to choose longer hours, log on at night and email team on issues during the day. Many

women with small kids at home have impossible choice and choose leaner roles to be able to collect kids at reasonable hour, be home at night, etc. I think it's a factor senior management take into account - willingness for over-time, go above and beyond to step up a level. So it rules out most females in the role.

While one female junior manager commented:

If flexible hours etc. are not entertained women are less likely to apply for management roles if they would also like a family.

A history of male dominance both in the top decision making positions and in the industrial sector was another factor which participants emphasised as generating cultures which exclude women from these positions. One male senior manager highlighted:

Old style male dominated industries can have macho culture which can exclude females.

While one male employee highlighted that a male dominance at the top can favour men with regard to training and development:

Male environment can lead to more male development than women and salaries reflected higher for men than women.

Additionally, the participants highlighted the impact that this male dominance and the lack of visibility of women can have for women who may wish to advance into management.

One female employee commented:

Usually men already in these roles, women may not want to apply for a role dominated and surrounded by males.

While one male junior manager stated:

Culture sets the examples. By having an all-male management team sets its own example.

A female senior manager commented that for women such organisations may be:

...intimidating if all male.

While a male junior manager highlights that:

...in some traditional male dominated Industries it will nearly always be difficult for a woman to become a manager as women may not be attracted to working in these industries in the first place.

One male employee highlighted that:

...in construction its mostly men, if a woman were to come in others might not like it as they might think it would change how they behave. So the culture would be one which excludes women making it hard for a woman to do well in their company.

Finally, participants highlighted the existence of 'jobs for the boys', where it was more who you knew not what you knew, 'male buddy locker room' culture which again excluded women preventing their advancement into the top positions. For example, one female junior manager emphasised that:

...connections are very important - usually a man can think of another man, a best friend, a friend of a friend.

A female employee also emphasised this stating:

Some Irish businesses still operate on 'who you know' and 'jobs for the boys'. This does not lead to gender equality.

Another female junior manager commented:

I have observed that when it is an all-male senior management team it has a 'buddy' feel. Team outings around golf and women not easily welcomed into the group. I do believe that this is an unconscious bias though.

While one female employee stated:

Certain industries are male dominated i.e. politics, defense forces etc. Women have to feel the need to strive more to be recognised in the male dominated organisations. 'Boys Club' mentality.

Finally, one female owner recalled:

Most companies I have worked for have a boys club mentality with a lot of drinking/golf associated, it would not be something a woman would embrace, particularly if she has children.

5.4.2.2.4 Participants Individual Views on Gender Equality and the Importance of Ensuring Equal Opportunities for All Employees

Finally, the survey aimed to capture the participants' individual views on gender equality and the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for all employees through posing four questions; first whose responsibility it was to ensure equal opportunities for all employees, second if they preferred voluntary targets or mandatory quotas, third if they believed achieving gender balance should be a major

consideration of all SMEs in the future and fourth if they supported the idea of state support for those SMEs who made a conscious effort to promote women into management.

Participants were asked if they believed if it was the responsibility of the government, the individual organisation or of both to ensure that both men and women have equal opportunities in the workplace. Of the total participants (n=133) 5.3 per cent (n=7) stated they believed that it was the responsibility of the government, 18.8 per cent (n=25) that it was the responsibility of the individual organisation and 75.9 per cent (n=101) believed that it was the responsibility of both the government and the individual organisation. To expand on this further the responses of the participants who identified their gender (n=130) were analysed by gender, organisational position and organisational size. The findings of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.108*.

Table 5.108 Responsibility for Ensuring Equal Opportunities by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size

Answer	Organisational Position	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees		11-50 Employees		51-250 Employees	
		Male (n=13)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=20)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=33)	Female (n=26)
Government	Employee	15.4%	5.3%				7.7%
	Owner						
	Junior Manager						7.7%
	Senior Manager	7.7%	5.3%				
	Director						
Individual Organisation	Employee			10.0%	10.5%	9.1%	3.8%
	Owner	7.7%					
	Junior Manager	7.7%	10.5%	10.0%		9.1%	7.7%
	Senior Manager					15.2%	3.8%
	Director						
Both	Employee	38.5%	21.1%	35.0%	57.9%	27.3%	42.3%
	Owner	15.4%	10.5%	10.0%			
	Junior Manager	7.7%	26.3%	15.0%	15.8%	24.2%	7.7%
	Senior Manager		10.5%	20.0%	15.8%	9.1%	15.4%
	Director		10.5%			6.1%	3.8%

Participants were also asked if they believed that ensuring equal opportunities for both male and female employees, particularly with regard to promotion, should be a major consideration for SMEs as they grow. Of those participants who responded (n=131) 88.7 per cent (n=118) agreed that it should be a major consideration and 9.8

per cent (n=13) responded that it should not. To expand further on the responses of the participants who identified their gender (n=128) they were analysed by gender, organisational position and organisational size. The results of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.109*.

Table 5.109 Ensuring Equal Opportunities Should be a Major Consideration by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size

Response	Organisational Position	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees		11-50 Employees		51-250 Employees	
		Male (n=13)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=20)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=32)	Female (n=25)
Yes	Employee	53.8%	21.1%	40.0%	63.2%	34.4%	44.0%
	Owner	23.1%	10.5%	5.0%			
	Junior Manager	15.4%	36.8%	15.0%	15.8%	31.3%	24.0%
	Senior Manager	7.7%	10.5%	15.0%	15.8%	21.9%	16.0%
	Director		10.5%			6.3%	3.8%
No	Employee		5.3%	5.0%	5.3%	3.1%	8.0%
	Owner			5.0%			
	Junior Manager			10.0%			
	Senior Manager		5.3%	5.0%		3.1%	4.0%
	Director						

Additionally, participants were asked if they preferred the use of voluntary targets or mandatory quotas as a means of ensuring gender equality in management. Of those participants who responded (n=118) 72.9 per cent (n=86) preferred the use of voluntary targets. While 27.1 per cent (n=24) stated they preferred the use of mandatory quotas. To expand on this further the responses of the participants who identified their gender (n=116) were analysed by gender, organisational position and organisational size. The findings of this analysis are presented in *Table 110*.

Table 5.110 Percentage Breakdown of Participants Preference with regards to the use of Targets or Quotas by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size

Answer	Organisational Position	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees		11-50 Employees		51-250 Employees	
		Male (n=13)	Female (n=17)	Male (n=17)	Female (n=18)	Male (n=29)	Female (n=22)
Voluntary Targets	Employee	46.2%	23.5%	35.3%	44.4%	34.5%	27.3%
	Owner	23.1%	5.9%				
	Junior Manager	7.7%	11.8%	17.6%	11.1%	24.1%	18.2%
	Senior Manager		17.6%	17.6%	11.1%	24.1%	18.2%
	Director		11.8%			3.4%	
Mandatory Quotas	Employee	7.7%		17.6%	22.2%	6.9%	22.7%
	Owner		5.9%	5.9%			
	Junior Manager	7.7%	23.5%	5.9%	5.6%	3.4%	9.1%
	Senior Manager	7.7%			5.6%	3.4%	4.5%
	Director						

Finally, participants were asked if they were in favour of the introduction of government policy providing state support as a reward to those SME organisations who promoted women into senior management. Of those participants who responded (n=129) 65.9 per cent (n=85) were in favour of the introduction of such a policy. While 34.1 per cent (n=44) stated they would not be in favour of a policy providing state support as a reward. To expand on this further the responses of the participants who identified their gender (n=126) were analysed by gender, organisational position and organisational size. The findings of this analysis are presented in *Table 5.111*.

Table 5.111 Percentage Breakdown of Participants Views of Policy Granting State Support as a Reward by Gender, Organisational Position and Organisational Size

Answer	Organisational Position	Organisational Size					
		> 10 Employees		11-50 Employees		51-250 Employees	
		Male (n=13)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=19)	Female (n=19)	Male (n=32)	Female (n=24)
Yes	Employee	23.1%	26.3%	36.8%	57.9%	28.1%	37.5%
	Owner	7.7%	10.5%	5.3%			
	Junior Manager	7.7%	36.8%	5.3%	15.8%	15.6%	20.8%
	Senior Manager	7.7%	10.5%	10.5%	5.3%	12.5%	8.3%
	Director		10.5%				
No	Employee	30.8%		10.5%	10.5%	9.4%	8.3%
	Owner	15.4%		5.3%			
	Junior Manager	7.7%		21.1%		15.6%	8.3%
	Senior Manager		5.3%	5.3%	10.5%	12.5%	12.5%
	Director					6.3%	4.2%

Further to this the participants were asked what their opinion was on the use of mandatory quotas as a possible solution to gender imbalance in management. Those participants opposed to the use of such measures posited that any individual's career advancement should be based on merit. For example, one male employee stated:

I don't think so because I feel talent and interests can take people to management.

While one female senior manager stated that they:

...disagree; depends on the knowledge and skills of the individuals and not their gender.

Another female junior manager stated that the use of such measures was:

...crap. You're either good enough or not. Gender should never be a reason to reserve seats.

While a male director stated:

I do not support quotas - elimination of barriers and meritocracy is the way forward.

Furthermore, the participants argued that women should be encouraged to apply for the roles in management rather than being placed there to make up numbers. One male employee stated:

While I welcome the opportunity for more balanced gender representation. I think quotas are the wrong way to achieve this. I believe in a meritocracy - we must provide the opportunities for females to reach competitive levels at directorship - gender balance all the way to the top, not just at the top.

Similarly, another male employee commented:

Women haven't got the opportunity to learn the management skills so putting them in positions they're not qualified for just for numbers may prove to people who think they can't be senior managers that they are not able. Which isn't fair or true. They just need more opportunities along the way.

While a female employee stated:

I don't think that there should be quotas. I think that women should be encouraged more to become managers.

Finally, some participants felt that the use of such measures discriminated against men. For example, a male junior manager stated:

I disagree as I would view this as a possible discrimination against a man who could be just as capable as the woman in question.

Similarly, another male junior manager commented:

Totally disagree with this. If the individual is the right candidate for the job gender should not play any part. Reverse sexism in play?

While a third male junior manager stated:

This is not valid as it could mean a better candidate may not get the role because of gender.

Those participants who were in favour of the use of mandatory quotas as a solution to gender imbalance in management posited that this would help remove the historical male dominance found within the management structure. For example, one male director commented:

I think this is a good idea as traditionally all these boards would have been men only. It is necessary to have a female perspective on things.

While two female employees commented:

I think this would be a great idea as males would not be able to dominate the management positions.

I agree. I think this gives balance to an organisation and gender equality overall.

Furthermore, the participants commented that the use of quotas may provide opportunities for women to advance in their careers. One female junior manager stated it would be:

...a very welcome development which will give opportunities of progression to women who may have previously been overlooked for the roles.

Two female employees commented:

I would favour these quotas as it would possibly solve the imbalance and give greater opportunities to women and they would feel like these positions would be available to them if they applied.

It's good. Gives the opportunity for women to fulfil management roles.

Additionally, participants were asked what they believe was causing the gender imbalance in senior management and Boards of Directors. Participants highlighted gender stereotyping is a main cause of the gender imbalance, with one female junior manager commenting that:

...chauvinistic men in senior positions feel women are not as capable or too 'emotional'. They may not want to allow women of child bearing age to progress in case they go on maternity leave.

and a male junior manager stating that there are views surrounding:

...traditional home roles, men who give up work to take on domestic roles did/do find it hard to return.

Additionally, conflicts between work and home responsibilities for women was identified by participants as resulting in a gender imbalance. One female junior manager commented that there is a:

...lack of empathy from male counterparts in relation to the greater responsibility held by mothers to try balance home and child welfare with commitment to career.

While two male employees and one male junior manager commented that the gender imbalance was arising out of/due to lack of:

...lack of flexibility.

...flexibility to working hours.

...lack of flexibility in working hours.

Another cause of the gender imbalance identified by the participants was the existence of a patriarchal structure to organisations. For example, two male senior managers commented:

There is a historical bias in companies that male persona was more dominant.

Boards of directors have typically been traditional structures.

While one female junior manager commented:

More often than not its dominated by males.

Finally, participants highlighted informal male networks as other causes of the gender imbalance in senior management and Boards of Directors. One female junior manager commented that:

Males facilitate males.

While two female employees stated that there exists a culture of:

...jobs for the boys culture, less women interested in taking up these roles as they have been tokenistic in many cases up until now

...men's club and traditional culture of male dominance.

Finally, participants were asked if they had any thoughts on what could be done to achieve a greater gender balance in senior management and on Boards of Directors. The participants posited a range of ideas including the introduction of policies, training and a focus on cultural change. One male employee and a male director commented there is a need for:

...greater support from government through laws and guidelines.

...the eliminate/reduce barriers for women through legislation - force big companies to afford more opportunities.

A female junior manager suggested that:

...the introduction of training and development should begin in schools so that both sexes can avail of the same opportunities.

While two male employees highlight the need for:

Courses in leadership.

Upskilling of all staff.

While a male senior manager and junior manager emphasised the need for:

...behavioural and attitude change.

...change of the culture of the organisation to view all employees as equals.

Additionally, participants also emphasised the need for more workplace flexibility and greater childcare provisions. Three male junior managers stated:

More flexibility needs to be shown to women, particularly if they come back from a career break.

Do not impose unreasonable expectations on people and their time.

Flexible work practices.

While two female directors commented:

Flexibility around hours, options to work from home (where feasible), job share (requires structures to ensure fairness).

Make working easier for women. Help with childcare costs so women can afford to work. People need to realise that a woman has a valid opinion and it helps in daily business and adds balance to decisions etc.

While a male senior manager commented:

The government need to make more funds available for childcare and initiatives for organisations to support women.

The participants also commented on the need for more encouragement and focus on merit. Two male junior managers stated:

More needs to be done to encourage women to enter male dominated roles - provide support and grants to aid entry of women into these roles.

Encourage women to work in the required position and incentivise education programs for women in applicable roles with applicable education programmes.

A female owner commented that there is a need for:

...an incentive scheme to encourage and educate women and companies in promoting women.

While four male junior managers commented:

Simply the right candidate for the right job. Gender should not be an issue.

Jobs given to the best candidate based on knowledge and experience and criteria for the position. Be it male or female.

Not aware of any issues. I believe the best person should get the job irrespective of gender.

Best person for the job regardless of gender.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion this chapter presents the findings from both the secondary and primary research undertaken in this study. Firstly, the findings from Stage A, the headcount, are produced. Findings for both foreign and domestic owned companies are presented. This is followed by the findings of Stage Two of the headcount of the Irish owned SMEs from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies in Ireland 2017 list. The findings of Stage B, the website content analysis on those Irish SMEs, are then presented. Finally, the findings of Stage C, the survey administered to both those Irish SMEs from the Irish Times Top 1000 Companies in Ireland 2017 list and the SME employees, junior and senior managers, owners and directors attending business programmes in the faculty of Life Long Learning in ITC are presented. Chapter 6 shall offer a discussion of these findings with regard to previously identified themes from the literature.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter begins, in Section 6.2, by presenting a discussion of the findings of the headcount measurement of the gender imbalance at the decision making levels in those 920 companies included in this study. Following this in Section 6.3 the findings of the website content analysis of the Irish Small to Medium Enterprises are discussed. Finally, Section 6.4 presents a discussion of the findings of the survey under the three main causes identified during the review of the literature in *Chapter 3*. These three main causes were firstly, the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice which are discussed in Section 6.4.1. Secondly, organisational structures and the structure of work which is discussed in Section 6.4.2 and, finally, in Section 6.4.3 the cultural causes of vertical gender segregation are discussed.

6.2 Discussion of the Headcount Measurement of Gender Imbalance at Decision Making Levels

As presented in *Section 5.2.1* women were found to be underrepresented in the top decision making positions in those 920 companies included in this study. Overall women occupied 19.1 per cent of decision making positions in domestically owned companies, 21 per cent in the foreign owned companies and 15.8 per cent in the jointly owned companies. The headcount of the Irish SME organisations also presented in *Section 5.2.2* found evidence of significant vertical gender segregation existing in the 136 Irish SME Organisations. The overall gender imbalance found in the top decision making positions of the Irish SMEs was found to be 86 per cent male to 14 per cent female.

Both the results for the domestic and foreign owned companies are modestly higher, 2.4 and 3.7 percentage points respectively, than the 2017 EIGE statistics discussed in *Section 3.3.1*, which found women to occupy 17.3 per cent of these positions. Similarly, the results are 2.1 and 4 percentage points higher than Kirrane et al.'s (2016) in which 17 per cent of the CEO positions were found to be occupied by women. While the figure for the jointly owned companies was 1.5 percentage points

lower than that produced by EIGE in 2017. The results of the Irish SME organisations was 3.3 percentage points lower than the EIGE 2017 figure generated using only larger organisations. Additionally, the results of the Irish SME organisations were 3 percentage points lower than Kirrane et al.'s (2016) figure generated using organisations with over 150 employees. Overall the findings support the observations of Kirrane et al. (2016) that the report found that in Ireland women were less likely to occupy management roles in comparison to men.

The modest difference in the percentage of women occupying the top decision making positions of just 1.9 percentage points between the domestically and foreign owned companies may be explained with the arguments of both Lyness and Kropf (2005) and Powell et al. (2009). Both argue that, irrespective of the attitudes and policies of a parent organisation, it is the norms and values of any nation into which that organisation globalises which will be reflected in the operations of the subsidiary company (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Powell et al., 2009). The similar levels of gender imbalance observed in both the domestic and foreign owned companies support their arguments demonstrating that the vertical gender segregation found in indigenous Irish organisations has also developed in the subsidiaries of multinational organisations who have globalised into Ireland.

Additionally, while overall the foreign owned companies had the highest percentage of women occupying the top decision making positions investigation of the individual industrial sectors established that the most gender balanced of the industrial sectors were three sectors containing domestically owned companies. These were firstly the services sector with a gender balance of 50 per cent male to 50 per cent female, secondly the education sector with a male to female gender ratio of 51.4 per cent male to 48.6 per cent female and thirdly the non-profit sector with a male to female gender ratio of 54.7 per cent male 45.3 per cent female.

These three sectors being the most gender balanced raises the question as to the role horizontal gender segregation has in the ongoing underrepresentation of women in the top decision making positions. These three industrial sectors are ones which arguably may have a higher concentration of female employees overall. In comparison, those industrial sectors containing domestically owned companies with the lowest percentage of women occupying the top decision making positions,

construction with 8.3 per cent, manufacturing at 11.8 per cent and agribusiness with 12.2 per cent, are industrial sectors with arguably a higher concentration of male employees. This was an observation which was also made by the participants of both survey group respondents. When group one were asked what they believed was causing the gender imbalance in senior management and on Boards of Directors a male participant responded:

Well I can only speak of the Agri Business as I have been in that for 19 years and the reason most managers and Directors are male is because 80% of agribusiness people are male.

Similarly, while responding to a question on the role organizational culture may have in the observed ongoing gender imbalance found at decision making levels, participants from group three highlighted the impact a traditionally male dominance in an industry can have on the gender balance found in management. For example, a male junior manager highlighted that:

...in some traditional male dominated industries it will nearly always be difficult for a woman to become a manager as women may not be attracted to working in these industries in the first place.

Additionally, comparative analysis between those organisations with male Board Presidents and female Board Presidents further highlighted the impact a male dominance can have on the development of vertical gender segregation in that organisation. From the 347 Irish owned companies 25 were found to have a female Board President. The gender ratio of males to females occupying the top decision making positions in those organisations was 62 per cent male to 38 per cent female. In comparison those organisations with male Board Presidents had a gender ratio of 83 per cent male to 17 per cent female.

Similar differences in the level of gender imbalance observed in the top decision making positions between those organisations with female Board Presidents and male Board Presidents was also found during the headcount on the Irish SME organisations. The Irish SME organisations with a female Board president had a gender ratio of 61 per cent male to 39 per cent female. While the Irish SME organisations with male Board Presidents had a gender ratio of 88 per cent male to 12 per cent female.

This clearly demonstrates the impact that male dominance can have on the gender balance found in the top decision making positions and aligns with and supports the observations made in the early research of both Kanter (1977) and Simpson (2000) who found that the numerical distribution of men and women throughout an organisation impacts both the career progression and organisational fit of women. More recent studies by Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey (2012) and Palmer and Bosch (2017) both emphasised the role the gender of those in senior management positions has on the promotional prospects of women. They argue that the historical existence of male dominance within an organisation will produce gendered patterns in promotion which will be reflected in the gender imbalance found in the top positions in that organisation (Kurtulus and Tomaskovi and Devey, 2012; Palmer and Bosch, 2017).

These arguments were also found in the comments of the survey participants. The role the numerical distribution of men and women can have on the organisational fit of women was highlighted by a number of the participants. For example, one female employee commented:

Usually men already in these roles, women may not want to apply for a role dominated and surrounded by males.

While another participant, a male senior manager, commented:

Old style male dominated industries can have macho culture which can exclude females.

A female senior manager also commented on how male dominance can exclude women stating that for a woman such organisations may be "...intimidating if all male".

Subsequently, a possible avenue for further research on the vertical gender segregation found at the decision making levels of business would be to examine the differences between the gender imbalance arising out of a lack of opportunities for women to progress to these top positions and it arising out of horizontal segregation resulting in women being underrepresented across all levels in the industrial sector.

In addition to the headcount finding evidence of the existence of a male dominance in the top decision making positions the responses of the survey participants highlight

the impact that this male dominance has on enabling vertical gender segregation to persist. The website content analysis on the Irish SME organisations in the following section also generates some interesting observations.

6.3 Website Content Analysis

Overall there was a general lack of visible awareness on the part of the Irish SME organisations on their public websites with regard to gender equality, with only 3.8 per cent (n=5) of the 132 websites containing the specific phrase 'gender equality'.

Across the 15 industrial sectors of the Irish SME organisations the construction sector demonstrated the greatest visible awareness of gender equality on their public websites. This sector was found to have the second highest level of gender imbalance, with women occupying just 6.7 per cent of the top decision making positions. As both Robson (2002) and Denscombe (2003) caution using artefacts, such as websites, to perform a content analysis in a research study cannot be said to be an objective picture of what is actually happening with regard to a specific topic. Hence the use by construction SMEs of specific key words and phrases related to gender equality on their websites may demonstrate a surface awareness of the issue but does not necessarily translate to gender equality awareness being of major, or even of minor, consideration in the day to day operations of the construction SMEs.

Therefore, the construction sector demonstrating the greatest visible awareness of gender equality while being a sector exhibiting high levels of gender imbalance may be interrupted in two possible ways. That the construction sector is aware of the underrepresentation of women in not only the top decision making positions within individual organisations but also, as highlighted by the survey participants, the underrepresentation of women employed in the construction sector as a whole. Subsequently, their awareness of gender equality demonstrated on their public websites could be interrupted as an attempt to address the gender imbalance through emphasising their commitment to promoting gender equality within their organisation.

Alternatively, the use of specific key words and phrases relating to the very topical issue of gender equality by the construction SMEs on their websites is simply a reaction to the ongoing conversation surrounding gender equality issues by SMEs

located in an industrial sector with an obvious gender imbalance. There may be no substantive considerations being granted to gender equality issues in the day to day operations of the SMEs. However, further research on both the vertical and horizontal gender segregation in the construction sector is needed before any firm conclusion can be drawn on the awareness and attitudes of the individual SMEs to gender equality.

6.4 Survey

One aim of this research study was to evaluate the extent to which the identified causes of vertical gender segregation as discussed in *Chapter 3* are also present in Irish SMEs. To facilitate this a survey was designed around these previously identified causes. The findings from the survey were presented in *Section 5.4* of *Chapter 5* and shall be discussed below under the three main causes identified during the review of the literature in *Chapter 3*. These three main themes were; first the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice, second organisational structures and the structure of work and third the cultural causes of vertical gender segregation.

6.4.1 Neo-Classical Economic Theories of Human Capital and Rational Choice

Fundamentally, the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice as both a cause and explanation for the existence of vertical gender segregation are rooted in the concept that women, in terms of human capital, are inferior to men and do not possess the same interest in reaching those top decision making positions as their male colleagues (Blackburn et al, 2002; Hossain and Tisdell, 2005; Dhakal and Nawaz, 2009; Ahmed and McGillivray 2015). These assumptions are derived from widely held stereotypical societal beliefs and expectations encompassing the childcare and domestic responsibilities of women. Furthermore, they are derived from the assumed impact of these responsibilities on the level of commitment and investments made by women into both their education and careers (Becker 1985; Murray, 2000; Folbre, 2012; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). These stereotypical assumptions were found to be held by participants from both survey groups. Statements presented in the survey generated interesting responses from participants with regard to the level of commitment and investments made by women into both their education and careers.

All the participants from both group one and group three had invested somewhat in their educational capital, with the majority of participants holding a NFQ level 8 qualification. Additionally, all participants from group three were currently engaged in further educational programmes. Nevertheless, when presented with the broad statement that women due to childcare responsibilities and other domestic duties invested less in their education and time spent in the labour market the majority of participants, 60.5 per cent (n=40) of male participants and 65.7 per cent (n=42) of female participants, from group three agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. The male participants from group one had a similar response with 66.7 per cent (n=2) agreeing with the statement. Conversely, the female participant of group one strongly disagreed with the statement. However, when group three were presented with the additional statement that childcare and domestic responsibilities resulted in women not possessing the same interest in career progression as their male colleagues 77.3 per cent (n=51) of male participants and 73.4 per cent (n=47) of female participants either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement.

Subsequently, it could be argued that these responses establish clear evidence of the existence of stereotypical perceptions and expectations surrounding women and their educational investment. For women this is resulting in what Hoyt and Murphy (2016) refer to as a stereotype threat. The survey participants are demonstrating a strong belief that while women may possess the same interest in progressing in their career as their male colleagues, other responsibilities prevent them from inputting the level of investment required. However, the statement presented in the survey was very broad, it did not specify that women with children invest less due to childcare and domestic responsibilities, just that women invest less due to these responsibilities. Nonetheless, the majority of participants, both male and female, still agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. They are applying a negative stereotype, that domestic and childcare responsibilities result in a conflict in commitment and investment, to all women not just those with children.

Therefore, it could be inferred that those participants in agreement with the statement are engaging in statistical discrimination. They are applying the assumed statistical probability that women have childcare and domestic responsibilities to all women. As Bohnet (2016) highlights statistical discriminations are applied intuitively and are often used by individuals in situations where they lack enough relevant information

about those to whom they are applying it to. Therefore, for female employees this may mean that irrespective of whether or not they have children, and thus possess childcare responsibilities, the stereotypical belief that they do, or eventually they will have children, can have a negative impact on their career opportunities.

The negative impact of this statistical discrimination on the career opportunities of women was observed by Kanter (1977) in her longitudinal study during the 1970s and was, over four decades later, still highlighted by the participants of group three as a significant career barrier encountered by women. For example, a female senior manager highlighted that ‘...women aged between 28-40 are rarely promoted to senior roles in case they decide to have a family’. Expanding on this further a female director explained ‘...it is thought that women have children so may not be able to commit to management and have different levels of motivation and priorities’. Another female senior manager detailed the conflict women with children may face if they want to progress into the top decision making positions and the implications that these conflicts can have on their perceived level of commitment to their careers. She explained that:

Women in management roles in my organisation appear to choose longer hours, log on at night and email team on issues during the day. Many women with small kids at home have an impossible choice and choose leaner roles to be able to collect kids at a reasonable hour, be home at night, etc. I think it's a factor senior management take into account - willingness for over-time, go above and beyond to step up a level. So it rules out most females in the role.

These comments by the participants on employers’ views of motherhood also align with the findings of Correll et al. (2007) and Hodges and Budig (2010) that it is held to be a characteristic of devalued status in relation to work resulting in biased views with the regard to the levels of commitment women with children possess towards their career.

Emphasising the stereotypical nature of these views further was the responses of both the male and female participants to the level of importance they would grant to possible considerations a person may hold when making the decision to apply for a promotion. When asked what level of importance they would grant the consideration on the compatibilities of the responsibilities of the new positions with existing home/family commitments 92.4 per cent (n=61) of male participants and 84.4 per

cent (n=54) of female participants from group three ranked the consideration as important or very important. Additionally, when asked about the working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours were structured 89.4 per cent (n=59) of male participants and 92.2 per cent (n=59) of female participants rated it as an important or very important consideration. Again, similar responses were observed from group one with 100 per cent of female participants (n=1) and 66.7 per cent (n=2) of male participants ranking both considerations very important.

Again these responses and comments from the participants arguably align with the findings of Correll et al. (2007) and Hodges and Budig (2010) that motherhood is viewed as a devaluing characteristic. Despite the majority of the participants from group one and group three, holding the two considerations to be either important or very important it is only women to whom having children, or the possibility that they may have children, which was viewed by the participants as creating a conflict in their level of commitment to their work and career.

Additionally, the high percentage of female respondents from group three who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement highlights the extent to which this stereotype regarding the commitment of women has been accepted and adopted by the women themselves. Ridgeway and Correll (2004) highlight that as individuals we are aware of the stereotypes which may often be applied to any group to which we belong. Therefore, despite our own beliefs regarding any stereotype we will grant significant consideration to it in our actions and behaviours. This suggests, as Cross (2010) has previously found, that women may not only encounter career barriers arising from the stereotypical beliefs of others but may also be generating their own individual barriers. Therefore, as the female manager from group one commented, when asked what could be done to achieve a greater gender balance in senior management and on Boards of Directors, there is a need to:

...remove the stigma around women especially driven women of child bearing age and provide positive solutions and incentives to encourage women to go for those senior roles or encourage return to work schemes/programmes.

However, for any firm conclusion to be realised on these possible individual barriers further research is required. Investigation into the impact the stereotypical views held

towards motherhood, or the possibility of motherhood, is having on the career choices of women is needed.

In summary, there is a well-supported argument in the literature that stereotypical views and beliefs on the level of educational and career commitment possessed by women may generate significant career barriers. (Kanter, 1977; Rudman and Glick, 2001; Cross and Linehan, 2006 Schein, 2007; Rudman and Phelan, 2008; Wood, 2009; Cross, 2010; Heilman, 2012; Bronson, 2014; Dickinson and Oaxaca, 2014; Von Hippel et al., 2015; Brescoll, 2016; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016; Kinias and Sim, 2016; Bohnet, 2016; Fritz and van Knippenverg, 2017; Duguet et al., 2017; Blau and Kahn, 2017;) The primary finding of this study on the Irish SME sector, with regard to the level of commitment and investment by women into their education and careers, aligns with this argument. The overarching theme emerging from the participants' responses is that childcare and domestic responsibilities generate an automatic conflict for women. Their responses also arguably demonstrate that this conflict is applied to all women indiscriminately, regardless of their family status. Conversely, these responsibilities do not appear to be held as generating the same conflict for men. Therefore, until family duties are recognised as not just female duties no substantial change to the gender imbalance is attainable (North-Samardzic and Taksa, 2011).

6.4.2 Organisational Structures and the Structure of Work

Theories surrounding both organisational structures and the structure of work itself as a cause and explanation for vertical gender segregation centre on the suggestion that both may have a significant impact on the career trajectory of women (Kanter, 1977; Simpson, 2000; Schein, 2007; Knudsen, 2009; Cross, 2010; Adapa et al., 2016; Fritz and Van Knippenberg, 2017). The argument is made that women are excluded from the management function (Schein, 2007). Obstacles arising from the existence of a patriarchal nature to the organisational structure in conjunction with a lack of workplace flexibility and support for women in their promotional aspirations have been found to result in women achieving less success beyond middle management levels (Kanter, 1977; Simpson, 2000; Schein, 2007; Knudsen, 2009; Cross, 2010; Adapa et al., 2016; Fritz and Van Knippenberg, 2017;).

As discussed in *Section 6.2* a male dominance at both a wider industrial level and at the senior management level in individual organisations was recognised by the participants in their comments as impacting on the career opportunities of women. Moreover, when presented in the survey with a statement that the gender of those holding management positions in an organisation may negatively impact on the career progression of women within that organisation 60 per cent (n=3), two male participants and the female participant, of group one agreed with the statement. Similarly, 70 per cent (n=93) of group three either agreed or strongly agreed. A gender breakdown of the responses of group three found that 62.2 per cent (n=42) of male participants and 76.6 per cent (n=49) of female participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Additionally, 54.6 per cent (n=36) of male participants and 70.3 per cent (n=45) of female participants from group three agreed or strongly agreed that the views held by society with regard to the characteristics, behaviour and gender a manager should possess favour male managers over female managers. All the male participants of group one (n=3) disagreed with the statement, while the female participant agreed with it.

Interestingly it was the female participants from both groups who were more inclined to hold the view that society favours male managers over female managers and that the gender of those in senior management can have a negative impact on the career opportunities of women. No firm conclusion could possibly be reached on why more female than male participants held the statements to be true without further study. However, a possible explanation might be offered by the findings of other researchers on the impact the gender distribution within an organisation may have on female employees (Kanter, 1977; Simpson, 2000; Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey, 2012; Palmer and Bosch, 2017;). Numerous research studies conducted over the past decades have all linked the overall sense of fit a woman may experience within an organisation to the numerical distribution of men and women within the management levels of that organisation (Kanter, 1977; Simpson, 2000; Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Kurtulus and Tomaskovi-Devey, 2012; Palmer and Bosch, 2017;).

Furthermore, Palmer and Bosch (2017) emphasise that the gender of those in senior management can result in gendered patterns in promotion. Derived from the ‘similar-to-me paradigm’ found in social identity theory their argument centres on the concept

that individuals evaluate those in whom they can recognise similarities to themselves more favourably (Palmer and Bosch, 2017). This has been found to have resulted in a closed circle around the management structure which often excludes women. Thus, impacting on both the quantity of women being promoted and the experiences of those women who are positioned within senior management (Kanter, 1977; Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Van de Steen, 2010;). This closed circle was highlighted by the female participants from group three as contributing to gender inequalities.

Comments from the female participants placed emphasis on the existence of a male network, a jobs for the boys, male buddy locker room culture which they identified as impeding the career advancement of women. For example, comments from two female junior managers highlight the impact that this closed circle can have on career and promotional opportunities for women stating that ‘...connections are very important – usually a man can think of another man, a best friend, a friend of a friend’ and that ‘...males facilitate males’. While two female employees further detailed the impact this exclusionary closed circle has on advancement opportunities for women commenting that:

...some Irish businesses still operate on ‘who you know’ and ‘jobs for the boys’. This does not lead to gender equality.

Certain industries are male dominated i.e. politics, defense forces etc. Women have to feel the need to strive more to be recognised in the male dominated organisations. 'Boys Club' mentality.

Further highlighting how a male dominated management structure can unintentionally exclude women a female junior manager commented that:

I have observed that when it is an all-male senior management team it has a 'buddy' feel. Team outings around golf and women not easily welcomed into the group. I do believe that this is an unconscious bias though.

While a female owner commented on the additional implications that this boy's club mentality may have on those women with children recalling that:

Most companies I have worked for have a boys club mentality with a lot of drinking/golf associated, it would not be something a woman would embrace, particularly if she has children.

These comments from the participants align with the observations made in previous studies. The gendered structures derived from the historical male dominance in

management have resulted in a closed circle surrounding the role from which women may find themselves excluded (Kanter, 1977; Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Van de Steen, 2010;). Subsequently, it is unsurprising that some of the female participants would highlight this as resulting in gender inequalities. Interestingly, these observations on the impact of male networks were made by only the female participants. Therefore, an avenue for possible further research would be to explore the awareness of men of the existence and impact that such networks may have.

The participants' responses identify that the gender composition found within the organisational structure, particularly a male dominance, may have negative implications on the career progression of women. Thus, to redress this a greater balance in the numerical distribution of men and women at all management levels needs to be achieved. A possible solution to achieving this is propounded in the literature. This is through the use of mandatory gender quotas (Pande and Forde, 2011; Meier, 2014; Szydlo, 2015; Holst and Kirsch, 2015; Gopalan and Watson, 2015; Gabaldon et al., 2016; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016;). However, as discussed in *Chapter 3* there is disagreement as to the suitability of mandatory quotas as a solution to vertical gender segregation (Pande and Forde, 2011; Gopalan and Watson, 2015; Holst and Kirsch, 2015; Szydlo, 2015; Terjesen and Sealy, 2016;). This disagreement was also observed when participants were queried on the use of such measures in the Irish SME sector.

The participants from group one were asked for their opinions on the introduction of mandatory quotas with three of the male participants choosing to respond. Their responses were:

I feel this would not be the right solution for gender imbalance and could just place women in roles to satisfy quota, rather than focusing on the right candidate with the right skills for the job regardless of gender.

Not a good idea. Creates a situation where a quota trumps ability. Don't think this is the correct way to address the issue.

Don't agree. If a man or woman is good enough for the job they should get it. Why should a man or woman get the job only to balance quota when someone else is better?

All three of their responses demonstrated not only opposition to the use of such measures but also highlighted their view that attainment of any occupational position should be based on merit.

The participants of group three were asked if they preferred the use of mandatory quotas or voluntary targets as a means of ensuring gender equality in management. Of those participants who responded (n=118) 72.9 per cent (n=86) indicated that they would favour voluntary targets over mandatory targets. Further to this, similar to group one, the participants were asked for their opinions on the introduction of mandatory quotas as a possible solution to any gender imbalance. Again the participants' responses identified a clear belief that career advancement should be based on merit. For example, a female senior manager stated that they '...disagree; depends on the knowledge and skills of the individuals and not their gender'. Similarly, a female junior manager commented that the use of such measures was '...crap. You're either good enough or not. Gender should never be a reason to reserve seats'.

Moreover, the participants' comments also identified a belief that rather than using mandatory quotas to force change women should instead be encouraged to apply for the more senior positions. For example, two male employees commented on the importance of providing opportunities for women to advance into management:

While I welcome the opportunity for more balanced gender representation. I think quotas are the wrong way to achieve this. I believe in a meritocracy - we must provide the opportunities for females to reach competitive levels at directorship - gender balance all the way to the top, not just at the top.

Women haven't got the opportunity to learn the management skills so putting them in positions they're not qualified for just for numbers may prove to people who think they can't be senior managers that they are not able. Which isn't fair or true. They just need more opportunities along the way.

Additionally, the possible discriminatory nature of such measures also received comment, with three male junior managers commenting:

I disagree as I would view this as a possible discrimination against a man who could be just as capable as the woman in question.'

Totally disagree with this. If the individual is the right candidate for the job gender should not play any part. Reverse sexism in play?

This is not valid as it could mean a better candidate may not get the role because of gender.

However, those participants in favour of the use of mandatory quotas highlighted the potential for such measures to remove the historical male dominance in management.

A male director, for example, stated:

I think this is a good idea as traditionally all these boards would have been men only. It is necessary to have a female perspective on things.

While two female employees commented:

I think this would be a great idea as males would not be able to dominate the management positions.

I agree. I think this gives balance to an organisation and gender equality overall.

Furthermore, the participants identified their potential to provide career advancement opportunities for women. One female junior manager commented that the introduction of mandatory quotas would be:

...a very welcome development which will give opportunities of progression to women who may have previously been overlooked for the roles.

Two female employees additionally commented:

I would favour these quotas as it would possibly solve the imbalance and give greater opportunities to women and they would feel like these positions would be available to them if they applied.

It's good. Gives the opportunity for women to fulfil management roles.

Pande and Ford (2011) caution that the use of mandatory quotas may generate the belief that women are only capable of attaining these positions due to the existence of a quota. Overall the participants' responses demonstrated support of this. Many of those opposed to the use of mandatory quotas responded that merit and ability should be the main consideration in any career advancement. That if women want the top decision making roles then they should work hard and achieve them, merit and ability should always trump gender. However, the participants had previously highlighted in the survey that if there is a male dominance in the senior decision making positions

then this may result in career advancement barriers for women. That the closed circle around management is resulting in merit and ability not being enough for women to succeed into these senior positions.

Therefore, a logical argument would be to use a mandatory quota to remove any barriers arising out of a male dominance in senior positions. Nevertheless, this is not how the use of quotas was viewed by the participants. A minority of participants viewed them as a means of providing opportunities for women and a method of redressing the male dominance in senior positions. However, the majority held a more negative view. Instead of a focus on the potential of quotas to remove the historical male dominances often found in the main decision making levels the participants' responses instead emphasises a concern for potential inequalities arising from their use. As Seierstad and Opsahl (2011) caution often an action viewed as an equality measure by one group may be considered an inequality by another.

The attention granted by the participants in their responses to the importance of recognising merit and ability highlights the apprehensions individuals may have on the use of mandatory quotas. That reserving positions only for women has the potential to prohibit the advancement of men in their careers, reducing the value of their own human capital and ability. While for women it reinforces the concept that they only attained their position due to the mandatory quota. Perhaps offering a possible explanation for why participants who have previously identified male dominance as a possible career barrier for women were opposed to a measure which would aid in removing it.

Further to identifying the impact male dominance may have on a woman's career progression, the participants also identified that a lack of flexibility in working hours is a contributor to the gender imbalance. Knudsen (2009), Cross (2010) and Skinner et al. (2016) have all previously found that a lack of workplace flexibility and the value place on the ability to prioritise work over other commitments, such as family responsibilities, may have a detrimental effect on the career progression of women. As discussed in *Section 6.4.1* in terms of commitment to work motherhood is viewed as a devalued characteristic and women are regarded as having an automatic conflict between work and family life (Correll et al., 2007; Hodges and Budig, 2010). Subsequently, the use of flexible working practices is often proposed as a means of

removing gender imbalances through the creation of a work-family balance (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Straub, 2007; Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Kalysh et al, 2016; Chung, 2018).

The participants were queried on the importance of having a balance between work and life. One hundred per cent (n=5) of participants from group one and 95.4 per cent (n=63) of men and 100 per cent (n=64) of women from group three agreed or strongly agreed. Thus, demonstrating an evident desire on the part of the participants to achieve a work/life balance. However, the responses of the participants to the statement that it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work and family/personal life demonstrate that this desire for a work/life balance does not appear to have been achieved by the participants. In group one 66.6 per cent (n=2) of men and 100 per cent (n=1) of women agreed or strongly agreed. While 94 per cent (n=62) of men and 85.9 per cent (n=55) of women from group three again agreed or strongly disagreed. As stated previously the use of flexible work practices are proposed as a way to facilitate the creation of balance between work and life (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Straub, 2007; Kalysh et al, 2016; Pedulla and Thebaud, 2015; Chung, 2018). However, the use and success of any flexible work practices have been found to be linked to perceptions and attitudes held towards the practices themselves and those individuals who avail of them (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2007; Dex and Scheibl, 2011; Chung, 2018).

Previous studies by Dex and Scheibl (2001) and Maxwell et al. (2007) examining the use of flexible work practices in SMEs observed an 'ad hoc' approach in their use. The findings of the survey were consistent with this. Those flexible work practices identified by the participants as being available in their organisations centered on restructuring working hours for individual employees to facilitate external commitments as they arose. This individualistic nature to the use of the flexible work practices results in employees having to approach managers to discuss the restructuring of their working hours without any formalised policies to support their request. Something which Dex and Scheibl (2001) highlight as granting managers a greater extent of control over the use of flexible work practices with regards to both who can avail of them and what type of flexibility is available. This lack of a formalised policy may potentially result in the availability of flexible work practices

depending on both a manager's attitude to their use and towards the individual employee.

Exploring this the participants of the survey were queried on how comfortable they would feel approaching their employers with regard to availing of flexible working practices. Overall participants from both groups indicated they felt comfortable approaching their manager. From group one 66.7 per cent (n=2) of men and 100 per cent (n=1) of women agreed or strongly agreed they would feel comfortable doing so. Similarly, 66.7 per cent (n=44) of men and 70.3 per cent (n=45) from group three agreed or strongly agreed. Perhaps demonstrating that the greater control held by managers identified by Dex and Scheibl (2001) was not a major concern for the participants.

However, as previously discussed the type of flexible work practices identified by the participants as existing in their organisation centered more on facilitating external commitments as they arose on an 'ad hoc' basis. Formalised flexible working arrangements were not highlighted by the participants as existing in their organisations. Thus, the participants may feel comfortable approaching management to arrange a temporary or once off change to work schedules. However, it cannot be concluded that they would feel the same about approaching management to make a more permanent change. Additionally, it cannot be concluded that despite participants stating that they would be comfortable approaching management that they are actually doing so. Both Lyness and Kropf (2005) and Chung (2018) emphasise there can often exist a 'flexibility stigma' which is held against those who avail of these practices. This stigma, they argue, has given rise to beliefs held by individuals surrounding the negative impact availing of flexible working practices may have on their careers (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Chung, 2018).

Subsequently, the participants were asked to rank their level of agreement with two statements. First, participants were asked if they believed using flexible working practices would not jeopardise their chance of promotion. From group one, 100 per cent (n=3) of men and 100 per cent (n=1) of women disagreed with this. While 56.4 per cent (n=37) of men and 64.7 per cent (n=32) of women from group three either disagree or strongly disagree. Thus highlighting, as Lyness and Kropf (2005) and Chung (2018) emphasise, the awareness of the participants of the possible negative

implications on their career progression from availing of flexible working practices. Second, they were asked if those in their organisations who availed of flexible work practices were viewed as not carrying the same workload. In group one 100 per cent (n=5) of the participants disagreed with this. Contrastingly in group three 59.6 per cent (n=37) of men and 90.6 per cent (n=52) of women agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

The reason for the opposing opinions from both groups cannot conclusively be explained from the data generated by this study. One explanation could be the difference in the occupational roles held by the participants in the two groups. While all the participants of group one were managers, the participants in group three were from five different occupational roles; employees, junior and senior managers, owners and directors. It is possible that the opposing responses from the two groups are a reflection of the varying opinions between these different occupational roles. Additionally, the difference in sample size between the two groups could also offer an explanation for the differences in the responses. However, no firm conclusion can be offered without further study. One avenue for further study could involve investigation into possible differences in the individual views held by managers and employees of those availing of flexible working arrangements.

One interesting finding from the responses to the two statements is that the female participants seemed more aware of possible negative consequences attached to availing of these practices. Chung (2018) and Chung and Van der Lippe (2018) suggest that the stigma attached to the use of flexible working practices can have a gendered nature. They argue that the use of such practices has the potential to reinforce traditional gender roles with regards to both the labour market and the home. This arises from the differences in beliefs as to why men and women avail of such practices. Women are believed to avail of flexible work practices to manage both work and home duties. Contrastingly, men are expected to avail of them to increase their work performance (Chung, 2018; Chung and Van der Lippe, 2018). As discussed in *Section 6.4.1* there is an automatic conflict applied to women with regard to work and home life. This results in them being viewed as not possessing the same level of commitment to their work as their male colleagues (Becker 1985; Murray, 2000; Folbre, 2012; Pal and Waldfogel, 2016). Chung and Van der Lippe (2018)

argue that this stereotype about the conflict in commitment held by women can be reinforced by the gendered stigma attached to flexible working practices.

Subsequently, how flexible working practices are viewed will influence the level of impact they may have on eradicating vertical gender segregation. Lyness and Kropf (2005) argue that achieving gender equality in employment is unattainable if the need for a balance between work and family life is not acknowledged and supported. However, if, as Chung (2018) and Chung and Van der Lippe (2018) posit, a gendered difference exists in the beliefs surrounding why an individual may avail of such practices then their potential as an aid in the career progression of women cannot be realised. As previously discussed 90.6 per cent (n=52) of women from group three held the opinion that those in their organisations who availed of flexible work practices were viewed as not carrying the same workload. Additionally, 64.7 per cent (n=32) of women from same group disagreed that availing of them would not jeopardise their chance of promotion. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge the impact that this may have on the up-take of flexible work practices by female employees. If flexible work practices are to have any significant impact on vertical gender segregation then the gender stereotype surrounding their use needs to be addressed.

Overall the survey participants identified that a male dominance at the top levels may be producing gender inequalities which are negatively impacting on the career progression of women. The female participants in particular identified the influence a male dominance may have on their career trajectory. Moreover, they placed an emphasis on the closed circle around management resulting from this male dominance. Schein (2007) posits that this has resulted in women being excluded from the management function. That a male dominance at the top levels of an organisation will consequently favour the career progression of men over women (Schein, 2002).

Subsequently, it is argued that the gender composition of the organisational structure can cause vertical gender segregation. Blackburn et al. (2002) dispute this. They argue that if a male dominant organisational structure was truly an explanation for vertical gender segregation, favouring the career progression of men over women, then there would be a male dominance in all high status positions. This, they argue,

is not the reality of the labour market, highlighting the legislative protection women possess against gender discrimination in the workplace (Blackburn et al., 2002).

Importantly, Blackburn et al. (2002) in their discussion are not disputing the existence of vertical gender segregation but rather they are reasoning that a male dominant organisational structure is not what is causing it. There is a historical nature to this male dominance in the top decision making positions. One which it was believed would organically dissipate as the number of women in the labour market increased (Cross, 2010; Cross et al., 2017). As Blackburn et al. (2002) highlight legislative protection now exists protecting women from gender discrimination in the workplace. There are legal mechanisms which women may follow should they believe they have been discriminated against in their career progression because of their gender. Nonetheless, the negative influences of a male dominant organisational structure was emphasised by the participants of this study and in previous research studies (Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Van der Steen, 2010).

However, when doing so the participants highlighted issues such as gendered patterns in promotions and the existence of male networks as arising from this male dominance. Palmer and Bosch (2017) attribute the negative impact the gender of those in senior management may have on the career progression of women to an unconscious favouritism by male managers towards male colleagues arising out of the 'similar to me paradigm'. Additionally, the male networks, or 'Boys Club' identified by the participants as an exclusionary factor for women in management may also be more of an unconscious action rather than a deliberate attempt to exclude women. Work associated social events were identified as often being orientated towards male interests but as one female junior manager commented that they believed this to be '...an unconscious bias'. Perhaps arising from the historical nature of the male dominance. Where once the majority, if not all, managers in an organisation would have been male and thus any social event would have reflected this. That they continue this way today despite more women being in management might be a reflection of an established way of doing things. A reflection of the culture in that organisation.

Subsequently, Blackburn et al.'s (2002) assertion that that a male dominant organisational structure is not a cause of vertical gender segregation may have some

merit. It may not be the existence of a male dominant structure that is resulting in vertical gender segregation. Instead it may be the culture which has developed over time within the organisation that is the cause. The historical male dominance in management positions has given rise to unconscious biases in the view as to who should occupy those positions (Kanter, 1977 Richard et al., 2004; Schein, 2007; Van de Steen, 2010). Therefore, the barriers women may experience arising from a male dominant organisational structure may be a consequence of a culture which allows these unconscious biases to continue.

6.4.3 Cultural Causes of Vertical Gender Segregation

Culture, as a cause of vertical gender segregation, is derived from the concept that there is a shared cultural knowledge that all individuals use to categorise and define both themselves and others (Ridgeway, 2007; Ridgeway and England, 2007; Ridgeway, 2009; Walker et al., 2011;). This shared cultural knowledge may be found at a national level, a societal level and within individual organisations (Hofstede, 1991; Rutherford, 2001; Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Ridgeway 2009; Hesmondhalgh and Baker, 2015). Subsequently, it has produced the rules an individual should follow with regard to the accepted and expected behaviour within any nation, society or organisation (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Ridgeway, 2009). It is argued that it is this accepted and expected behaviour which has generated gender inequalities resulting in vertical gender segregation (Ridgeway and Correll, 2004; Ridgeway 2009).

With the aim of establishing their views on the role organisational culture may have in producing gender inequalities participants were asked if they believed that the organisational culture in SMEs can contribute to gender inequalities existing in an organisation. In group one 80 per cent (n=4) of the participants stated that they believed this to be true. Out of the total participants (n=133) of group three 129 participants chose to respond to the question, with 68.4 per cent (n=91) responding that they believed this to be true.

Mensi-Klarbach (2014) and Hoyt and Murphy (2016) stress the important role the organisational culture has on the career trajectory of women within an organisation. It is how the role of a manager is viewed culturally within any organisation which will directly influence the level of success women can attain in these roles (Mensi-

Klarbach, 2014; Hoyt and Murphy, 2016). This was also identified by the participants of this study. Gender stereotypes found within the organisational culture were highlighted by participants as resulting in assigned specific roles for men and women. Something which was highlighted as having significant implications for women in specific industrial sectors which are viewed as being more traditionally male ones, such as the construction sector. This culture of gender stereotyping is resulting in negative attitudes and assumptions towards women occupying management roles in those industrial sectors. For example, one female employee detailed how her organisation is:

...a factory with lots of machines and mostly male employees are operating these machines, they don't want a female telling them what to do as they assume women don't know about/how to use the machines.

Additionally, a male junior manager commented that he felt '... in heavy industry there is still a view that women cannot do the same level of work as a man can'. While a female junior manager in the construction industry emphasised her own experience of gender stereotyping explaining that:

...many companies still believe that in the construction industry that this is a man's job. That health and safety offices should be men. That only men wear hard hats! This is the culture of the industry.

Further highlighting the role organisation culture and gender stereotyping in Irish SMEs have in fostering negative attitudes and assumptions towards women a male employee stressed how:

...in construction it's mostly men, if a woman were to come in others might not like it as they might think it would change how they behave. So the culture would be one which excludes women making it hard for a woman to do well in their company.

Overall the participants demonstrated an awareness of the importance emphasised by Mensi-Klarbach (2014) and Hoyt and Murphy (2016) that the organisational culture has on the career trajectory of women. When queried if they believed that ensuring equal opportunities for all employees should be a major consideration for SMEs as they grow 100 per cent (n=5) of participants in group one agreed. From the responding participants (n=131) of group three 88.7 per cent (n=101) similarly agreed that it should be a major consideration for SMEs as they grow. Enquiry into who the participants believed had responsibility for ensuring equal opportunities in

the workplace found that 80 (n=4) per cent of group one and 75.9 per cent (n=101) of group three held it be the responsibility of both individual organisations and the government.

Subsequently, the majority of participants were aware of the important role the organisational culture has in ensuring gender equality and believed that guaranteeing equal opportunities for all employees is an important issue which is the responsibility of both the individual organisations and the government. However, the lack of engagement by SMEs encountered during this research study raises the question to what extent the views held by the participants of this study are shared in the wider SME sector.

As discussed in *Chapter 4* Woodhams and Lupton, (2006) highlight that SME organisations who chose to participate in gender equality research are more inclined to be those who are already engaging with gender equality in their organisations. The findings of this study align with this with 80 per cent (n=4) of group one and 60.9 per cent (n=81) of group three agreeing or strongly agreeing that their organisation places an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace. It is arguable that their views that gender equality should be a major consideration for SMEs is a reflection of the importance already granted to it by their organisations. Furthermore, when discussing culture as a cause of vertical gender segregation another aspect meriting attention is the possible role it has on two other causes discussed in *Section 6.4.1* and *Section 6.4.2*.

As outlined in *Section 6.4.1* the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice as a cause of vertical gender segregation is derived from the concept that stereotypical assumptions are negatively influencing the career trajectory of women. The stereotypical assumptions found to be held by the participants of this study and in previous studies are conceivably derived and reinforced by the shared cultural knowledge held in a society. The participants' stereotypical views on the educational capital and career commitment possessed by women may be a representation of the shared common cultural knowledge held by the society in which they inhabit.

Moreover, as discussed in *Section 6.4.1*, Ridgeway and Correll (2004) emphasise that the individual's understanding of the shared cultural knowledge held by society can

often influence how we act and behave. Therefore, it can influence the choices we make. Consequently, the individual career barriers that women often generate as identified by Cross (2010) could possibly be said to be resulting from this. The implicit understanding individuals have of the views held by a society on what roles men and women should occupy may be dictating the actions women take with regard to their careers.

Similarly, the organisational structures and the structure of work explanation for vertical gender segregation discussed in *Section 6.4.2* may also be linked to cultural influences. As highlighted previously, Blackburn et al., (2002) question if male dominance at top organisational levels may actually be responsible for causing vertical gender segregation. Instead any male dominance may be explained by the cultural views held on gender specific roles for men and women. This is reflected in the belief held by the majority of female participants from both groups, 100 per cent (n=1) from group one and 70.3 per cent (n=49) from group three, who agreed or strongly agreed that the views held by society favoured male managers over female managers. Moreover, the male networks identified by the participants as acting as an exclusionary factor for female managers may also have cultural links. That these exclusionary factors have continued despite the number of women both in the labour force and in management increasing may be due to the organisational culture supporting their existence.

Additionally, the implications that a lack of flexible working practices can have on women's career progression may be influenced by cultural factors. The participants demonstrated an awareness of possible negative associations in availing of flexible working practices. Dreher (2003) and Lyness and Kropf (2005) argue that availing of flexible working practices in an organisation is intrinsically linked to the national culture. In particular, how gender equality is viewed within the national culture. Subsequently, if a national culture is one which supports and encourages gender equality then the use of flexible working practices to achieve a work/family balance is more positively viewed. If the national culture is one in which defined gender roles exist, then the use of flexible working practices can have more negative connotations for women.

Therefore, the findings highlight the impact that culturally derived stereotypical beliefs and assumptions surrounding gender and occupational roles have on vertical gender segregation. The concept that there is an ideal gender for an occupational role will invariably result in favouring one gender over another in that role. Consequently, if the culture at a national, societal and organisational level does not support women within management then it is inevitable that vertical gender segregation will occur.

6.5 Conclusion

In conclusion this chapter presented a discussion of the findings of this research study. To begin the findings of the headcount measurement of the gender imbalance at the decision making levels of the 920 companies included in this study were discussed. Following this a discussion of the findings of the website content analysis conducted on the 132 Irish Small to Medium Enterprises is presented. Finally, there was a discussion of the findings of the survey under the three main causes identified during the review of the literature in *Chapter 3*; the neo-classical economic theories of human capital and rational choice, organisational structures and the structure of work and the cultural causes of vertical gender segregation. Overall there is evidence that vertical gender segregation exists in the analysis of the Irish SME sector and results concur with the three main causes of vertical gender segregation as presented in *Chapter 3*.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

In this final chapter the researcher aims to summarise this study's main findings on vertical gender segregation in the Irish SME sector. In Section 7.3 an outline of the overall conclusions of this research study and the contribution it has made to knowledge in the area of vertical gender segregation and SMEs is presented. Section 7.4 discusses the limitations of this research study. In section 7.5 the recommendations arising from this study are presented. Finally, Section 7.6 details the recommendations for future research arising out of the findings of this study.

7.2 Summary of Research Study

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the extent and causes of vertical gender segregation in Irish Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs).

The study specifically aimed:

- i.** To measure the extent of vertical gender segregation at decision making levels in a cross-section of 136 of Ireland's Top Financial Performing SMEs.
- ii.** To identify and evaluate the primary causes of vertical gender segregation by conducting an extensive literature review in the field.
- iii.** To evaluate the extent to which these identified causes from the academic literature are present in a purposive sample of Irish SMEs by administering a questionnaire to 136 Irish SMEs.
- iv.** To make recommendations on vertical gender segregation in relation to the Irish SME sector to reduce gender imbalance at decision making levels in the future.

To facilitate enquiry into the first aim a headcount measurement of the extent of the vertical gender segregation at the decision making levels of a cross-section of 136 of the top financially performing Irish SMEs was completed. In addition to this a decision was taken to conduct a content analysis on the public websites of the Irish SMEs included in the headcount to assess the attention granted by the Irish SME organisations to gender equality. For enquiry into the second aim a comprehensive review of the relevant academic literature was undertaken. Following the identification and analysis of the main causal themes surrounding vertical gender

segregation found in the literature an analytical survey was developed. This was administered to a sample of 138 employees, junior and senior managers, owners and directors of Irish SMEs.

7.3 Contribution to Knowledge

The Irish SME sector is of significant importance to the Irish economy. The sector accounts for approximately 99 per cent of enterprises and is responsible for generating over 70 per cent of the job creation in the Irish labour market. It is argued that due to their more informal family-friendly working environments SMEs provide the perfect setting for equal opportunity practices to thrive. Thus, the vertical gender segregation observed in larger organisations should not be as prevalent in SMEs. However, there exists a distinct lack of empirical evidence to support this assumption arising from a gap in research with regard to vertical gender segregation and the SME sector. There are diverse differences between the labour resources, HRM practices and availability of capital between SMEs and larger organisations. These differences may prevent research on larger organisations adequately explaining practices and experiences within SMEs. Thus, arguably generating a need for separate research to be undertaken with regard to SMEs and vertical gender segregation.

This study contributes to this under-researched area by presenting a measurement of vertical gender segregation using a cross-section of Irish SMEs. Additionally, through the use of an analytical survey, it offers an evaluation of the extent to which the career barriers experienced by women in larger organisations are also present in Irish SMEs.

The measurement of the gender balance in the top decision making positions of a cross-section of Irish SMEs found the existence of a significant gender imbalance of 86 per cent male to 14% female. Additionally, the measurement highlights the role horizontal gender segregation may be having in the continued underrepresentation of women in top decision making positions. A website content analysis of those Irish SMEs included in the headcount measurement found that overall there was a lack of visible awareness by the Irish SMEs of gender equality issues on their public websites. Analysis of the survey responses found stereotypical assumptions being held with regard to the level of educational capital and commitment to work possessed by women. Additionally, the participants' responses identified a stigma

associated with the use of flexible working practices and the exclusionary impact of the traditional male dominance in the top decision making positions. It is from these that substantial barriers to the career progression of women into the top decision making positions in Irish SMEs are arising.

7.4 Limitations of this Research Study

The main limitation of this research study was the difficulty in finding SMEs willing to participate in the study on such a sensitive topic. Additionally, time pressures in the sector makes it difficult to find companies willing to participate. Although a significant proportion agreed to provide consent to participate at the initial telephone contact stage few companies completed the questionnaire. To overcome this the study is based on several sources and a purposive sample of SME employees, junior and senior managers, owners and directors from IT Carlow was selected.

7.5 Recommendations

It is recommended that recognition and removal of the identified barriers is the necessary step to alleviating vertical gender segregation in Irish SMEs. On this path, there is a need for greater commitment to engagement by SMEs on this issue. It was noted by ISME that there is a reluctance on the part of SMEs to engage in research, with SMEs often citing time constraints as preventing them from doing so. Additionally, it is recommended that Irish SMEs move towards the development of more formalised flexible working practices to help alleviate the stigma and negative stereotyping associated with the use of such practices.

7.6 Recommendations for Future Research

The findings revealed that measurements of the underrepresentation of women in the top decision making positions using only large organisations may not be accurately depicting the level of gender imbalance in Irish SMEs. The measurement undertaken in this study using a cross-section of Irish SMEs demonstrated a greater level of gender imbalance than equivalent statistics produced by both EIGE (2017) and Kirrane et al., (2016) using larger sized organisations. Therefore, indicating that if any accurate representation of the extent of the gender imbalance at the decision making levels in Irish business is to be produced then the measurements require the inclusion of SMEs.

Additionally, the findings highlight the significant contribution of horizontal gender segregation to the identified gender imbalance at senior levels. The traditional male dominated industrial sectors were the sectors which demonstrated the greatest levels of vertical gender segregation. Furthermore, horizontal segregation was acknowledged by the survey participants as a factor which they believed was contributing to the gender imbalance found in the top decision making positions. Subsequently, future research opportunities arise in examining if vertical gender segregation occurring in certain industrial sectors is arising out of lack of opportunities for women in the individual organisations or is a consequence of horizontal gender segregation occurring in the industrial sector as a whole.

The participants' responses also demonstrated a gendered difference in the level of awareness that the impact of male dominance at the senior levels and the existence of male networks can have on the career trajectory for women. The female participants emphasised both as having an exclusionary impact on the overall fit of women within an organisation. Thus, possibly influencing the choices women make with regard to both promotional and career opportunities. This observation presents an opportunity for further study to examine the biases women may be experiencing arising out of any male networks and the extent to which the existence of these biases is unconscious in nature.

Finally, the survey responses of the participants demonstrated a recognition on their part of the importance of having a balance between work and life. However, it was evident from their responses that there was a lack of formalised flexible working practices available in the participants' SMEs, with an 'ad hoc' approach to their use being taken. Additionally, negative associations with availing of such practices were identified. These appear to be linked to an adverse status being granted to motherhood with regard to the level of career commitment possessed by women. These negative associations have given rise to a stigma being attached to using flexible working practices influencing any decisions women may make in availing of them. Thus, negating the opportunity of flexible working practices to grant more women the opportunity to advance into the top decision making positions. Possible future research could be undertaken to explore the impact of motherhood and the stigma attached to using flexible working practices can have on the career choices made by women.

7.7 Conclusion

Overall this research has highlighted the existence of a significant gender imbalance in the decision making positions of the Irish SMEs included in the research study. Additionally, the website content analysis of those same Irish SMEs found that overall there was a lack of visible awareness of gender equality issues on their public websites. The survey participants' responses identified potential barriers to the career progression of women highlighting that stereotypical assumptions are being held with regard to the level of educational capital and commitment to work possessed by women. Furthermore, the participants' responses acknowledged a stigma associated with the use of flexible working practices and the exclusionary impact the traditional male dominance in the top decision making positions may have. Moreover, this research highlighted the need for greater commitment to engagement by SMEs with gender equality research. Further research on the causes of vertical gender segregation in Irish SMEs could allow Ireland to develop more gender balanced SMEs and become a world leader in guiding SMEs in the proper direction with regards to gender equality at senior decision making levels.

Bibliography

Abendroth, A.K. and Den Dulk, L. (2011). Support for the Work-Life Balance in Europe: The Impact of State, Workplace and Family Support on Work-Life Balance Satisfaction. *Work, Employment and Society*, [online], 25(2), pp.234-256, available: Sage. [accessed: 10 May, 2018]

Adapa, S., Rindfleish, J. and Sheridan, A. (2016). 'Doing Gender' in a Regional Context: Explaining Women's Absence from Senior Roles in Regional Accounting Firms in Australia. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, [online], 35, pp.100-110, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]

Ahern, K.R. and Dittmar, A.K. (2012). The Changing of the Boards: The Impact on Firm Valuation of Mandated Female Board Representation. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online], 127(1), pp.137-197, available: Ebscohost. [accessed: 24 April, 2018]

Ahmed, S. and McGillivray, M. (2015). Human Capital, Discrimination, and the Gender Wage Gap in Bangladesh. *World Development*, [online], 67, pp.506-524, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 11 September, 2017].

Albion, M.J. (2004). A Measure of Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options. *Australian Journal of Management*, [online], 29(2), pp.275-294, available: Gale. [accessed: 12 April, 2018]

Anker, R. (1997). Theories of Occupational Segregation by Sex: An Overview. *International Labour Review*, [online], 136 (3), pp.315-342, available: Cite. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Apfelbaum, E.P., Sommers, S.R. and Norton, M.I. (2008). Seeing Race and Seeming Racist? Evaluating Strategic Colorblindness in Social Interaction. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, [online], 95(4), pp.918-932, available: Research Gate. [accessed 4 September, 2018]

Armstrong, J. and Walby, S. (2012). Gender Quotas in Management Boards. *European Parliament*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 16 July, 2018]

Atkinson, C. and Hall, L. (2009). The Role of Gender in Varying Forms of Flexible Working. *Gender, Work & Organization*, [online], 16(6), pp.650-666, available: EBSCOhost. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]

Auster, E.R. and Prasad, A. (2016). Why Do Women Still Not Make It To The Top? Dominant Organizational Ideologies and Biases by Promotion Committees Limit Opportunities to Destination Positions. *Sex Roles*, [online], 75(5-6), pp.177-196, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 4 July, 2018]

Azmat, G. and Petrongolo, B. (2014). Gender and the Labor Market: What Have We Learned from Field and Lab Experiments? *Labour Economics*, [online], 30, pp.32-40, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 24 April, 2018]

Barry, U. and Sherlock, L. (2008). Gender Segregation in the Labour Market: Roots, Implications and Policy Responses in Ireland. *UCD School of Social Justice Working Papers Series*, 8 (2), pp 1-32, Dublin: University College Dublin.

Becker, G.S. (1965). A Theory of the Allocation of Time. *The Economic Journal*, [online], 75(299), pp.493-517, available: Jstor. [accessed: 3 April, 2018]

Becker, G.S. (1985). Human Capital, Effort, and the Sexual Division of Labor. *Journal of Labor Economics*, [online], 3(1, Part 2), pp S33-S58, available: Jstor. [accessed: 17 November, 2017]

Becker, G.S. (1991). *A Treatise on the Family*, enl. ed. Cambridge Mass: Harvard University Press.

Beham, B., Drobnič, S. and Präg, P. (2014). The Work–Family Interface of Service Sector Workers: A Comparison of Work Resources and Professional Status Across Five European Countries. *Applied Psychology*, [online], 63(1), pp.29-61, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 12 May, 2018]

Bergstø, K. (2013). Women mean business: Why and how Norway legislated gender balance on the boards of listed companies. In: Machold, S., Hansen, K. and Brogi, M. eds., *Getting women on corporate boards: A snowball starting in Norway*, pp.21-23. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

- Blackburn, R.M. (2012). The Measurement of Occupational Segregation and its Component Dimensions. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, [online], 15(3), pp.175-198, available: Routledge. [accessed: 17 November, 2017]
- Blackburn, R.M., Brooks, B. and Jarman, J. (2001). The Vertical Dimension of Occupational Segregation. *Work, Employment and Society*, [online], 15 (3), pp.511-538, available: Research Gate [accessed: 17 November, 2017]
- Blackburn, R.M., Brooks, B. and Jarman, J. (2002). The Vertical Dimension of Occupational Segregation. *Work, Employment and Society*, [online], 15 (3), pp.511-538, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 29 October, 2017]
- Blau, F.D. and DeVaro, J. (2007). New Evidence on Gender Differences in Promotion Rates: An Empirical Analysis of a Sample of New Hires. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, [online], 46(3), pp.511-550, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 24 April, 2018]
- Blau, F.D. and Kahn, L.M. (2017). The Gender Wage Gap: Extent, Trends, and Explanations. *Journal of Economic Literature*, [online], 55(3), pp.789-865, available: Econstor. [accessed 23 January, 2018]
- Blau, P. (1977). *Inequality and Heterogeneity*. New York: Free Press.
- Bohnet, I. (2016). *What Works: Gender Equality by Design*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Bordalo, P., Coffman, K., Gennaioli, N. and Shleifer, A. (2016). Stereotypes. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online], 131(4), pp.1753-1794, available: Ebscohost. [accessed: 21 April, 2018]
- Breaugh, J.A. and Frye, N.K. (2008). Work–Family Conflict: The Importance of Family-Friendly Employment Practices and Family-Supportive Supervisors. *Journal of business and psychology*, [online], 22(4), pp.345-353, available: Ebscohost. [accessed: 9 May, 2018]
- Brescoll, V.L. (2016). Leading with Their Hearts? How Gender Stereotypes of Emotion Lead to Biased Evaluations of Female Leaders. *The Leadership*

Quarterly, [online], 27(3), pp.415-428, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 26 March, 2017]

Brief, AP., & Nord, WR., (1990). Work and Meaning: Definitions and Interpretations. In: AP Brief & WR Nord (Eds.), *Issues in Organization and Management Series. Meanings of Occupational Work: A Collection of Essays*, pp. 1-19. Lexington: Lexington Books.

Brogi, M. (2013). Italy's Lessons Learnt from Norway. In: Machold, S., Hansen, K. and Brogi, M. eds., *Getting women on corporate boards: A snowball starting in Norway*, pp.187-190. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Bronson, M.A. (2014). Degrees are Forever: Marriage, Educational Investment, and Lifecycle Labor Decisions of Men and Women. *Unpublished*, [online], available: Yale.org. [accessed: 16 November, 2017]

Brown, A. (1998). *Organisational Culture*. 2nd ed., London: Pitman Publishing.

Budig, M.J. and England, P. (2001). The Wage Penalty for Motherhood. *American Sociological Review*, [online], 66, pp.204-225, available: Jstor. [accessed: 27 March, 2018]

Burchell, B., Hardy, V., Rubery, J. and Smith, M. (2014). A New Method to Understand Occupational Gender Segregation in European Labour Markets. *European Commission-Directorate-General for Justice*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 22 November, 2017]

Burke, R. (2006). Organizational Culture: A Key to the Success of Work-Life Integration. In: Jones, F., Burke, R. and Westman, M. eds., *Work-Life Balance: A Psychological Perspective*, pp. 235-260. New York: Psychology Press.

Burke, R.J. and Vinnicombe OBE, S. (2006). Supporting Women's Career Advancement. *Women in Management Review*, [online], 21(1), available: Emerald. [accessed: 17 November, 2017]

Butts, M.M., Casper, W.J. and Yang, T.S., 2013. How Important are Work-Family Support Policies? A Meta-Analytic Investigation of Their Effects on Employee Outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, [online], 98(1), pp.1-25, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 9 May, 2018]

Carli, L.L. and Eagly, A.H. (2016). Women Face a Labyrinth: An Examination of Metaphors for Women Leaders. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, [online], 31(8), pp.514-527, available: Emerald. [accessed: 28 March, 2018]

Carnes, A., Houghton, J.D. and Ellison, C.N. (2015). What Matters Most in Leader Selection? The Role of Personality and Implicit Leadership Theories. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, [online], 36(4), pp.360-379, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 10 April, 2018]

Carroll, K. (2014). Norway's Companies Act: A 10-Year Look at Gender-Equality. *Pace International Law Review*, [online], 26 (1), pp.68-78, available: Digital Commons. [accessed: 27 April, 2018]

Cassell, C., Nadin, S., Gray, M. and Clegg, C. (2002). Exploring Human Resource Management Practices in Small and Medium Sized Enterprises. *Personnel Review*, [online], 31(6), pp.671-692, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 September, 2018]

Castilla, E.J. and Benard, S. (2010). The Paradox of Meritocracy in Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, [online] 55(4), pp.543-676, available: Jstor. [accessed: 5 September, 2018]

Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M.E. and Cegarra-Navarro, J.G. (2012). Understanding the Link Between Work Life Balance Practices and Organisational Outcomes in SMEs: The Mediating Effect of a Supportive Culture. *Personnel Review*, [online], 41(3), pp.359-379, available: Emerald. [accessed: 15 May, 2018]

Cegarra-Navarro, J.G., Sánchez-Vidal, M.E. and Cegarra-Leiva, D. (2016). Linking Unlearning with Work–Life Balance: An Initial Empirical Investigation into SMEs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, [online], 54(1), pp.373-391, Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 12 September, 2018]

Charles, M. (2003). Deciphering Sex Segregation: Vertical and Horizontal Inequalities in Ten National Labour Markets. *Acta Sociologica*, [online], 46 (4), pp.267-287, available: Sage. [accessed: 17 November, 2017]

- Chiou, W.B., Yang, C.C. and Wan, C.S. (2011). Ironic Effects of Dietary Supplementation: Illusory Invulnerability Created by Taking Dietary Supplements Licenses Health-Risk Behaviors. *Psychological Science*, [online], 22(8), pp.1081-1086, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 5 September, 2018]
- Chung, H. (2018). Gender, Flexibility Stigma and the Perceived Negative Consequences of Flexible Working in the UK. *Social Indicators Research*, [online], pp.1-25, available: Springer. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Chung, H. and Van der Lippe, T. (2018). Flexible Working, Work–Life Balance, and Gender Equality: Introduction. *Social Indicators Research*, [online], pp.1-17, available: Springer. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Clear, F. and Dickson, K. (2005). Teleworking Practice in Small and Medium-Sized Firms: Management Style and Worker Autonomy. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, [online], 20(3), pp.218-233, available: EBSCOhost. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Correll, S. and Ridgeway, C. (2003). Expectation States Theory. In: Delamater, J. ed., *Handbook for Social Psychology*, pp.29-51. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Correll, S.J., Benard, S. and Paik, I. (2007). Getting a Job: Is There a Motherhood Penalty? *American journal of sociology*, [online], 112(5), pp.1297-1338, available: Jstor. [accessed: 3 April, 2018]
- Cotter, D., Hermsen, J.M. and Vanneman, R. (2011). The End of the Gender Revolution? Gender Role Attitudes from 1977 to 2008. *American Journal of Sociology*, [online], 117(1), pp.259-89, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 15 May, 2018]
- Cross, C. (2010). Barriers to the Executive Suite: Evidence from Ireland. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, [online], 31(2), pp.104-119, available: Emerald. [accessed: 6 September, 2017]
- Cross, C. and Linehan, M. (2006). Barriers to Advancing Female Careers in the High-Tech Sector: Empirical Evidence from Ireland. *Women in Management*

Review, [online] 21(1), pp.28-39, available: Emerald. [accessed: 6 September, 2017]

Cross, C., Linehan, M., and Murphy, C. (2017). The Unintended Consequences of Role-Modelling Behaviour in Female Career Progression. *Personnel Review*, [online], 46(1), pp.86-99, available: Emerald. [accessed: 21 November, 2017]

CSO. (2016). Women and Men in Ireland 2016. *Cso.ie*, [online], available: CSO. [accessed: 23 November, 2017]

CSO. (2018). Labour Force Quarterly Series. *Cso.ie*, [online], available: <http://www.cso.ie/px/pxeirestat/Statire/SelectVarVal/saveselections.asp>. [accessed: 1 January, 2018]

Currie, J. and Moretti, E. (2003). Mother's Education and the Intergenerational Transmission of Human Capital: Evidence from College Openings. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online], 118(4), pp.1495-1532, available: Emerald. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Daverth, G., Hyde, P. and Cassell, C. (2016). Uptake of Organisational Work–Life Balance Opportunities: the Context of Support. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, [online], 27(15), pp.1710-1729, available: Taylor and Francis. [accessed: 15 May, 2018]

Davies, E. (2011). Women on Boards. *Government of the United Kingdom*, [online], available: Gov.uk. [accessed: 2 May, 2018]

Davies, E., Morgan, N., Neville-Rolfe, L. and Richards, M. (2015). Improving Gender Balance on British Boards: Women on Boards Davies Review. *Government of United Kingdom*, [online], available: Gov.uk. [accessed: 2 May, 2018]

Dex, S. and Scheibl, F. (2001). Flexible and Family-Friendly Working Arrangements in UK-based SMEs: Business Cases. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, [online], 39(3), pp.411-431, available: EBSCOhost. [accessed: 5 February, 2019]

Dhakal, T. N. and Nawaz, F. (2009). Strategy for Improving Human Capital in Bangladesh and Nepal: Does it Help for Women Empowerment?: unpublished

pater at: *The Network of Asia-Pacific Schools and Institutes of Public Administration and Governance (NAPSIPAG) Annual Conference*. [online] Malaysia, 11–13 December, available: NAPSIPAG. [accessed: 13 April, 2014].

Dickinson, D.L. and Oaxaca, R.L. (2014). Wages, Employment, and Statistical Discrimination: Evidence from the Laboratory. *Economic Inquiry*, [online], 52(4), pp.1380-1391, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 27 March, 2018]

Dijkers, J.S., Geurts, S.A., Dulk, L.D., Peper, B., Taris, T.W. and Kompier, M.A. (2007). Dimensions of Work–Home Culture and Their Relations With the Use of Work–Home Arrangements and Work–Home Interaction. *Work & Stress*, [online], 21(2), pp.155-172, available: Taylor and Francis. [accessed: 16 May, 2018]

Dreher, G.F. (2003). Breaking the Glass Ceiling: The Effects of Sex Ratios and Work-Life Programs on Female Leadership at the Top. *Human Relations*, [online], 56(5), pp.541-562, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 12 May, 2018]

Duguet, E., du Parquet, L. and Petit, P. (2017). *Hiring Discrimination Against Women: Distinguishing Taste Based Discrimination From Statistical Discrimination*, [online], TEPP WP No. 2017-11, available: TEPP. [accessed: 27 March, 2018]

Dworkin, R. (1981). What is Equality? Part 1: Equality of Welfare. *Philosophy & public affairs*, [online], 10 (3), pp.185-246, available: Jstor. [accessed: 7 November, 2017]

Dworkin, R. (1981). What is Equality? Part 2: Equality of Resources. *Philosophy & Public Affairs*, [online], 10 (4), pp.283-345, available: Jstor. [accessed: 7 November, 2017]

Eagly, A.H. and Karau, S.J. (2002). Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders. *Psychological review*, [online], 109(3), p.573, available: Psychnet. [accessed: 21 April, 2018]

Eagly, A.H., Beall, A.E. and Sternberg, R.J. (2005). *The Psychology of Gender*, 2nd ed., New York: Guilford Press.

Effron, D.A., Cameron, J.S. and Monin, B. (2009). Endorsing Obama Licenses Favoring Whites. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, [online], 45(3), pp.590-593, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 5 September, 2018]

EIGE. (2018). Gender Statistics Database. *Eige.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 10 January, 2018]

EIGE. (2019). Gender Statistics Database. *Eige.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 10 June, 2019]

Einarsdottir, U.D., Christiansen, T.H. and Kristjansdottir, E.S. (2018). “It’s a Man Who Runs the Show”: How Women Middle-Managers Experience Their Professional Position, Opportunities, and Barriers. *SAGE Open*, [online], 8(1), pp.1-18, available: Sage. [accessed: 9 May, 2018]

Eliot, L. (2009). *Brain, Blue Brain: How Small Differences Grow into Troublesome Gaps – and What we Can do About it*. Boston: Mariner Books.

Emerek, R., (2008). *Gender Segregation in the Labour Market: Roots, Implications and Policy Responses in Denmark: Report to European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Unit G. 1*. Publications Office, [online], available: Aalborg University. [accessed: 17 November 2017]

Estevez-Abe, M. (2006). Gendering the Varieties of Capitalism. A Study of Occupational Segregation by Sex in Advanced Industrial Societies. *World Politics*, [online], 59(1), pp.142-175, available: Cambridge University Press. [accessed: 29 October 2017]

European Commission. (2017). 2017 Report on Equality Between Women and Men in the EU. *European Commission*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 24 September, 2017]

European Commission. (2017). 2017 SBA Fact Sheet: Ireland. *Ec.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 4 July, 2018]

European Commission. (2017). Proposal for a Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council on Work-Life Balance for Parents and Carers and

- Repealing Council Directive 2010/18/EU. *Eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content*, [online], available: Eur-Lex. [accessed: 9 February, 2019]
- European Commission. (2018). What is an SME? *Ec.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 13 July, 2018]
- Eurostat. (2018). Statistics on Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises. *Ec.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 4 July, 2018]
- Eurostat. (2018). Tertiary Education Statistics. *Ec.europa.eu*, [online], available: Europa. [accessed: 25 January, 2018]
- Finnegan, R. and Wiles, J. (2005). *Women and Public Policy in Ireland: A Documentary History 1922-1997*. Dublin: Irish Academic Press
- Fiske, S.T., Cuddy, A.J., Glick, P. and Xu, J. (2002). A Model of (Often Mixed) Stereotype Content: Competence and Warmth Respectively Follow From Perceived Status and Competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, [online], 82(6), p.878, [online], available: Psychnet. [accessed: 21 April, 2018]
- Fitzsimmons, T.W., Callan, V.J. and Paulsen, N. (2014). Gender Disparity in the C-Suite: Do Male and Female CEOs Differ in how They Reached the Top? *The Leadership Quarterly*, [online], 25(2), pp.245-266, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 15 September, 2017]
- Folbre, N. (2012). Should Women Care Less? Intrinsic Motivation and Gender Inequality. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, [online], 50(4), pp.597-619, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]
- Forsyth, D.R. and Nye, J.L. (2008). Seeing and Being a Leader: the Perceptual, Cognitive and Interpersonal Roots of Conferred Influence. In: Hoyt, C.L., Goethals, G.R and Forsyth, D.E. eds., *Leadership at the Crossroads: Leadership and Psychology*, pp.116-131. Westport: Praeger.
- Fraser, N. (1995). From Redistribution to Recognition? Dilemmas of Justice in a 'Post-Socialist' Age. *New left review*, [online], 212, pp.68-68, available: Bibliopreta.com. [accessed: 19 September, 2017]

Fritz, C. and van Knippenberg, D. (2017). Gender and Leadership Aspiration: the Impact of Organizational Identification. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, [online], 38(8), pp.1018-1037, available: Emerald. [accessed 21 November, 2017]

Gabalton, P., Anca, C., Mateos de Cabo, R. and Gimeno, R. (2016). Searching for Women on Boards: An Analysis from the Supply and Demand Perspective. *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, [online], 24(3), pp.371-385, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 25 April, 2018]

Gaertner, S.L. and Dovidio, J.F. (2000). *Reducing Intergroup Bias: The Common Ingroup Identity Model*. Philadelphia: Psychology Press.

Gangl, M. and Ziefle, A. (2009). Motherhood, Labor Force Behavior, and Women's Careers: An Empirical Assessment of the Wage Penalty for Motherhood in Britain, Germany, and the United States. *Demography*, [online], 46(2), pp.341-369, available: EBSCOHost. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Garland, H. and Price, K.H. (1977). Attitudes Toward Women in Management and Attributions for Their Success and Failure in a Managerial Position. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, [online] 62(1), pp 29-33, available: Research Gate. [accessed 21 December, 2017]

Gender Equality in Ireland. (2017). National Policy. genderequality.ie/nationalpolicies, [online], available: Genderequality.ie. [accessed: 24 September, 2017]

Gender Equality in Ireland. (2013). Towards Gender Parity in Decision Making in Ireland. genderequality.ie/womenindecisionmaking, [online], available: Genderequality.ie. [accessed: 8 June, 2019]

Gherardi, S. (1995). *Gender, Symbolism and Organisational Culture*. London: Sage.

Glauber, R. (2008). Race and Gender in Families and at Work: The Fatherhood Wage Premium. *Gender & Society*, [online], 22(1), pp.8-30, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 3 April, 2018]

- Goldberg, C.B. (2005). Relational Demography and Similarity-Attraction in Interview Assessments and Subsequent Offer Decisions: Are we Missing Something? *Group & Organization Management*, [online], 30(6), pp.597-624, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 12 April, 2018]
- Gomberg, P. (2007). *How to Make Opportunity Equal*. New York: Wiley Blackwell.
- Gopalan, S. and Watson, K. (2015). An Agency Theoretical Approach to Corporate Board Diversity. *San Diego Law Review*, [online], 52(1), pp.1-66, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]
- Hakim, C. (2000). *Work-Lifestyle Choices in the 21st Century*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hansen, F. (2003). Diversity's Business Case Doesn't Add Up. *Workforce-Costa Mesa*, [online] 82(4), pp.28-33, available: Gale. [accessed: 5 September, 2018]
- Heilman, M.E. (2012). Gender Stereotypes and Workplace Bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, [online], 32, pp.113-135, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 26 March, 2018]
- Heilman, M.E. and Parks-Stamm, E.J. (2007). Gender Stereotypes in the Workplace: Obstacles to Women's Career Progress. In *Social Psychology of Gender*, [online], 24, pp. 47-77, available: Emerald. [accessed: 21 April, 2018]
- Hendry, C., Arthur, M.B. and Jones, A.M. (1995). *Strategy Through People: Adaption and Learning in the Small and Medium Sized Enterprise*. London: Routledge.
- Hesmondhalgh, D. and Baker, S. (2015). Sex, Gender and Work Segregation in the Cultural Industries. *The Sociological Review*, [online], 63(1_suppl), pp.23-36, available: Sage Publications. [accessed: 15 January, 2018]
- Hodges, M.J. and Budig, M.J. (2010). Who Gets the Daddy Bonus? Organizational Hegemonic Masculinity and the Impact of Fatherhood on Earnings. *Gender & Society*, [online], 24(6), pp.717-745, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 3 April, 2018]

Hofstede, G. (1990). *Cultures and Organisations, Software of the Mind*. Maidenhead: McGraw Hill.

Hofstede, G.J. (2015). Culture's Causes: The Next Challenge. *Cross Cultural Management*, [online], 22(4), pp.545-569, available: Emerald. [accessed: 15 January, 2018]

Holst, E. and Kirsch, A. (2015). Executive Board and Supervisory Board Members in Germany's Large Corporations Remain Predominantly Male. *DIW Economic Bulletin*, [online], 5(4), pp.35-47, available: Econstor. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]

Hoskyns, C. (2000). A Study of Four Action Programmes on Equal Opportunities. In: Rossilli, M. ed., *Gender Policies in the European Union*, pp.43-60. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.

Hossain, M.A. and Tisdell, C.A. (2005). Closing the Gender Gap in Bangladesh: Inequality in Education, Employment and Earnings. *International Journal of Social Economics*, [online], 32(5), pp.439-453, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 April, 2014]

Hoyt, C.L. and Murphy, S.E. (2016). Managing to Clear the Air: Stereotype Threat, Women, and Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, [online], 27(3), pp.387-399, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 26 March, 2018]

Inesi, M.E. and Cable, D.M. (2015). When Accomplishments Come Back to Haunt you: The Negative Effect of Competence Signals on Women's Performance Evaluations. *Personnel Psychology*, [online], 68(3), pp.615-657, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 24 April, 2018]

Irish Management Institute. (2017). Women in Leadership. *Imi.ie*, [online], available: IMI. [accessed: 26 March, 2018]

Irish Times (2017). Top 1000 Companies. *top1000.ie*, [online], available: <http://www.top1000.ie/companies>. [accessed: 27 September, 2018]

ISME. (2018). About Us. *isme.ie*, [online], available: <https://isme.ie/about/>. [accessed: 27 September, 2018]

- Itzin, C. (1995). The Gender Culture in Organisations. In: Itzin, C. and Newman, J. eds., *Gender, Culture and Organizational Change: Putting Theory into Practice*, pp.39-63. London: Psychology Press.
- Jenkins, S., Bhanugopan, R. and Lockhart, P. (2016). A Framework for Optimizing Work–Life Balance Practices in Australia: Perceived Options for Employee Support. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, [online], 53(3), pp.112-129, available: EBSCOhost. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Joecks, J., Pull, K. and Vetter, K. (2012). Gender Diversity in the Boardroom and Firm Performance: What Exactly Constitutes a “Critical Mass?” *Journal of Business Ethics*, [online], 118(1), pp.61-72, available: Econstor. [accessed: 1 May, 2018]
- Joshi, H. and Paci, P. (1998). *Unequal Pay for Men and Women: Evidence from the British Birth Cohort Studies*. London: MIT Press.
- Joyce, Y. and Walker, S.P. (2015). Gender Essentialism and Occupational Segregation in Insolvency Practice. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, [online], 40, pp.41-60, available: Science Direct. [accessed 23 January, 2018]
- Junker, N.M. and van Dick, R. (2014). Implicit Theories in Organizational Settings: A Systematic Review and Research Agenda of Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, [online], 25(6), pp.1154-1173, available: Emerald. [accessed: 10 April, 2018]
- Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, Fast and Slow*. London: Penguin.
- Kalev, A., Dobbin, F. and Kelly, E. (2006). Best Practices or Best Guesses? Assessing the Efficacy of Corporate Affirmative Action and Diversity Policies. *American Sociological Review*, [online], 71(4), pp.589-617, available: Sage. [accessed: 10 September, 2018]
- Kalleberg, A.L. (2000). Nonstandard Employment Relations: Part-Time, Temporary and Contract Work. *Annual Review of Sociology*, [online], 26(1), pp.341-365, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 6 April, 2018]

- Kalleberg, A.L. (2011). *Good Jobs, Bad Jobs: The Rise of Polarized and Precarious Employment Systems in the United States, 1970s to 2000s*. New York: Russell Sage Press.
- Kalysh, K., Kulik, C.T. and Perera, S. (2016). Help or Hindrance? Work–Life Practices and Women in Management. *The Leadership Quarterly*, [online], 27(3), pp.504-518, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 7 April, 2018]
- Kanter, R.M. (1977). *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Kay, F.M. and Hagan, J. (1998). Raising the Bar: the Gender Stratification of Law-Firm Capital. *American Sociological Review*, [online] 63 (5), pp.728-743, available: Northwestern University. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]
- Keane, C., Russell, H. and Smyth, E. (2017). *Female Participation Increases and Gender Segregation*, [online], ESRI WP No.564, available: ESRI. [accessed: 22 January, 2018]
- Keenan, L. and McElroy, G. (2017). Who Supports Gender Quotas in Ireland? *Irish Political Studies*, [online], 32(3), pp.382-403, accessed: Taylor and Francis. [accessed 27 April, 2018]
- Kemper, T.D. (2011). *Status, Power and Ritual Interaction: A Relational Reading of Durkheim, Goffman and Collins*. Farnham: Ashgate Publishing.
- Killewald, A. (2012). A Reconsideration of the Fatherhood Premium: Marriage, Coresidence, Biology, and Fathers' Wages. *American Sociological Review*, [online], 78(1), pp.96-116, available: Sage Publications. [accessed: 28 March, 2018]
- Kim, D.Y. (2003). Voluntary Controllability of the Implicit Association Test (IAT). *Social Psychology Quarterly*, [online], 66(1), pp.83-96, available: Jstor. [accessed: 4 September, 2018]
- Kinias, Z. and Sim, J. (2016). Facilitating Women's Success in Business: Interrupting the Process of Stereotype Threat Through Affirmation of Personal Values. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, [online], 101(11), pp.1585-1597, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Kirby, E. and Krone, K. (2002). "The Policy Exists But You Can't Really Use It": Communication and the Structuration of Work-Family Policies. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, [online], 30(1), pp.50-77, available: Routledge. [accessed: 17 May, 2018]

Kirrane, M, Taylor, A.M. and Horan, B. (2016). Women in Management – the Leadership Pipeline 2016. *DCU and The 30% Club*, [online], available: DCU. [accessed: 21 September, 2017]

Knudsen, K. (2009). Striking a Different Balance: Work-Family Conflict for Female and Male Managers in a Scandinavian Context. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, [online], 24(4), pp.252-269, available: Emerald. [accessed 11 September, 2017]

Kogut, B., Colomer, J. and Belinky, M. (2014). Structural Equality at the top of the Corporation: Mandated Quotas for Women Directors. *Strategic Management Journal*, [online], 35(6), pp.891-902, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 25 April, 2018]

Konrad, A.M., Kramer, V. and Erkut, S. (2008). Critical Mass: The Impact of Three or More Women on Corporate Boards. *Organizational Dynamics*, [online], 37(2), pp.145-164, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 1 May, 2018]

Kornberger, M., Carter, C. and Ross-Smith, A. (2010). Changing Gender Domination in a Big Four Accounting Firm: Flexibility, Performance and Client Service in Practice. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, [online], 35(8), pp.775-791, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 25 September, 2017]

Kornberger, M., Carter, C. and Ross-Smith, A. (2010). Changing Gender Domination in a Big Four Accounting Firm: Flexibility, Performance and Client Service in Practice. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, [online], 35(8), pp.775-791, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 25 September, 2017]

Kossek, E.E., Su, R. and Wu, L. (2017). "Opting Out" or "Pushed Out"? Integrating Perspectives on Women's Career Equality for Gender Inclusion and Interventions. *Journal of Management*, [online], 43(1), pp.228-254, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Kotey, B. and Sharma, B. (2016). Predictors of flexible working arrangement provision in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, [online], 27(22), pp.2753-2770, available: Routledge. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]

Kotey, B.A. (2017). Flexible Working Arrangements and Strategic Positions in SMEs. *Personnel Review*, [online], 46(2), pp.355-370, available: Emerald. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]

Kray, L.J., Thompson, L. and Galinsky, A. (2001). Battle of the Sexes: Gender Stereotype Confirmation and Reactance in Negotiations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, [online], 80(6), pp.942-958, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 4 September, 2018]

Kruglanski, A.W. and Freund, T. (1983). The Freezing and Unfreezing of Lay-Inferences: Effects on Impression Primacy, Ethnic Stereotyping, and Numerical Anchoring. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, [online], 19(5), pp.448-468, available: Semantic Scholar. [accessed: 10 September, 2018]

Kurtulus, F.A. and Tomaskovic-Devey, D. (2012). Do Female Top Managers Help Women to Advance? A Panel Study Using EEO-1 Records. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, [online], 639(1), pp.173-197, available: Econstor. [accessed: 11 January, 2018]

Lambert, P.S. and Prandy, K. (2012). CAMSIS: Cambridge Social Interaction and Stratification Scales. *Camsis.stir.ac.uk*, [online], available: CAMSIS. [accessed: 10 January, 2018].

Larwood, L. and Wood, M.M. (1977). *Women in Management*. Lexington: DC Health.

Lavoie, A. (2004). Work-Life Balance and SMEs: Avoiding the “One-Size-Fits-All” Trap. *CFIB Research*, [online], pp.1-13, available: Citeseer. [accessed: 17 May, 2018]

Lerner, J.S. and Tetlock, P.E. (1999). Accounting for the Effects of Accountability. *Psychological Bulletin*, [online], 125(2), pp.255-275, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 10 September, 2018]

Lewis, S. (2001). Restructuring Workplace Cultures: the Ultimate Work-Family Challenge? *Women in management Review*, [online], 16(1), pp.21-29, available: Emerald. [accessed: 11 September, 2017]

Longman. (1982). *Longman New Universal Dictionary*. Norwich: Longman Group Limited.

Lyness, K.S. and Kropf, M.B. (2005). The Relationships of National Gender Equality and Organizational Support with Work-Family Balance: A Study of European Managers. *Human Relations*, [online], 58(1), pp.33-60, available: Sage. [accessed: 8 May, 2018]

Lyons, M. (2014). The Impact of the EU on Equal Pay in Ireland. *CETLS Online Paper Series*, [online], 3(1), pp.1-17, available: Queens University Belfast. [accessed: 15 September, 2017]

MacKeith, S., Cook, S. and Williams, T. (2010). What Business Wants: A Project Assessing SME's Attitudes and Approach to Gender Equity in the Workplace and Female Participation in the Workforce. *Security4Women Report March 2010*, [online], available: Security4Women.org. [accessed: 13 September, 2010]

Maddock, S. (1999). *Challenging Women: Gender, Culture and Organization*. London: Sage.

Manning, A. and Swaffield, J. (2008). The Gender Gap in Early-Career Wage Growth. *The Economic Journal*, [online], 118(530), pp.983-1024, available: Centre for Economic Performance. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Matsa, D.A. and Miller, A.R. (2013). A Female Style in Corporate Leadership? Evidence From Quotas. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, [online], 5(3), pp.136-69, available: American Economic Association. [accessed: 28 April, 2018]

Maxwell, G., Rankine, L., Bell, S. and MacVicar, A. (2007). The Incidence and Impact of Flexible Working Arrangements in Smaller Businesses. *Employee Relations*, [online], 29(2), pp.138-161, available: Emerald. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]

- Meier, P. (2014). Quotas for Advisory Committees, Business and Politics: Just More of the Same? *International Political Science Review*, [online], 35(1), pp.106-118, available: Sage. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]
- Mensi-Klarbach, H. (2014). Gender in Top Management research: Towards a Comprehensive Research Framework. *Management Research Review*, [online], 37(6), pp.538-552, available: Emerald. [accessed: 11 September, 2017]
- Michaelson, C., Pratt, M.G., Grant, A.M. and Dunn, C.P. (2014). Meaningful Work: Connecting Business Ethics and Organization Studies. *Journal of Business Ethics*, [online], 121(1), pp.77-90, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 20 September, 2017]
- Miller, G. (2008). Women's Suffrage, Political Responsiveness, and Child Survival in American History. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online], 123(3), pp.1287-1327, available: Econstor. [accessed: 28 April, 2018]
- Munsch, C.L. (2016). Flexible Work, Flexible Penalties: the Effect of Gender, Childcare, and Type of Request on the Flexibility Bias. *Social Forces*, [online], 94(4), pp.1567-1591, available: EBSCOhost. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Murphy, F. and Doherty, L. (2011). The Experience of Work Life Balance for Irish Senior Managers. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, [online], 30(4), pp.252-277, available: Emerald. [accessed: 8 September, 2017]
- Murphy, H. (2017). Push for Gender Equality Within Big UK Groups Stalls. *ft.com*, [online], available: Financial Times. [accessed: 20 March, 2018]
- Murphy, J. (1993). *The Moral Economy of Labor*. New Haven: Yale.
- Murray, S.B. (2000). Getting Paid in Smiles: The Gendering of Child Care Work. *Symbolic Interaction*, [online], 23(2), pp.135-160, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]
- National Framework of Qualifications. (2018). Irish National Framework of Qualifications (NFQ). *Nfg-qqi.com*, [online], available: <http://www.nfq-qqi.com/>. [accessed: 15 July, 2018]

- Niederle, M. and Vesterlund, L. (2007). Do Women Shy Away From Competition? Do Men Compete Too Much? *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, [online], 122(3), pp.1067-1101, available: Econstor. [accessed: 28 April, 2018]
- Nielsen, R. and Tavarnø C.D. (2012). *Scandinavian Women's Law in the 21st Century*. Copenhagen: Djøf Publishing.
- Noland, M., Moran, T. and Kotschwar, B. (2016). *Is Gender Diversity Profitable? Evidence From a Global Survey*, [online], Paterson Institute for International Economics WP No. 16-3, available: SSRN. [accessed: 27 April, 2018]
- North-Samardzic, A. and Taksa, L. (2011). The Impact of Gender Culture on Women's Career Trajectories: an Australian Case Study. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, [online], 30(3), pp.196-216, available: Emerald. [accessed: 11 September, 2017]
- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). (2005). *Glossary of Statistical Terms: Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs)*, [online], available: <https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=3123>. [accessed: 12 September, 2018]
- Ostner, I. (2000). From Equal Pay to Equal Employability: Four Decades of European Gender Policies. In: Rossilli, M. ed., *Gender Policies in the European Union*, pp.25-42. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.
- Pal, I. and Waldfogel, J. (2016). The Family Gap in Pay: New Evidence for 1967 to 2013. *RSF: The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, [online], 2(4), pp. 104-127, available: RSF. [accessed: 3 April, 2018]
- Palmer, A. and Bosch, A. (2017). What Makes Representation of Executive Women in Business Happen? *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, [online], 36(4), pp.306-320, available: Emerald. [accessed: 12 April, 2018]
- Paluck, E.L. (2009). Reducing Intergroup Prejudice and Conflict Using the Media: a Field Experiment in Rwanda. *Journal of Personality and Social*

Psychology, [online], 96(3), p.574, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 6 September, 2018]

Paluck, E.L. and Green, D.P. (2009). Prejudice Reduction: What Works? A Review and Assessment of Research and Practice. *Annual Review of Psychology*, [online], 60, pp.339-367, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 4 September, 2018]

Pande, R. (2003). Can Mandated Political Representation Increase Policy Influence for Disadvantaged Minorities? Theory and Evidence From India. *American Economic Review*, [online], 93(4), pp.1132-1151, available: Econstor. [accessed: 28 April, 2018]

Pande, R. and Ford, D. (2011). Gender Quotas and Female Leadership: A review. *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development*, [online], available: World Bank. [accessed: 25 April, 2018].

Pande, R. and Ford, D. (2011). Gender Quotas and Female Leadership. *World Development Report 2012*, [online], available: World Bank. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]

Pedulla, D.S. and Thébaud, S. (2015). Can We Finish the Revolution? Gender, Work-Family Ideals, And Institutional Constraint. *American Sociological Review*, [online], 80(1), pp.116-139, available: Sage. [accessed 9 May, 2018]

Pocock, B., Charlesworth, S. and Chapman, J. (2013). Work-Family and Work-Life Pressures in Australia: Advancing Gender Equality in “Good Times”? *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, [online] 33(9/10), pp.594-612, available: Emerald. [accessed: 12 April, 2018]

Powell, G.N., Francesco, A.M. and Ling, Y. (2009). Toward Culture-Sensitive Theories of the Work–Family Interface. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, [online], 30(5), pp.597-616, available: Jstor. [accessed: 10 May, 2018]

Preston, J.A. (1999). Occupational Gender Segregation Trends and Explanations. *The Quarterly Review of Economics and Finance*, [online], 39(5), pp.611-624, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 17 November, 2017]

Psychogios, A., Szamosi, L.T., Prouska, R. and Brewster, C. (2016). A Three-Fold Framework for Understanding HRM Practices in South-Eastern European SMEs. *Employee Relations*, [online], 38(3), pp.310-331, available: Emerald. [accessed: 15 May, 2018]

Purcell, K. (1988). Gender and the Experience of Employment. In: D. Gallie, ed., *Employment in Britain*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Ram, M., Edwards, P. and Jones, T. (2007). Staying Underground: Informal Work, Small Firms, and Employment Regulation in the United Kingdom. *Work and Occupations*, [online], 34(3), pp.318-344, available: Sage. [accessed: 12 September, 2018]

Richard, O.C., Barnett, T., Dwyer, S. and Chadwick, K. (2004). Cultural Diversity in Management, Firm Performance, and the Moderating Role of Entrepreneurial Orientation Dimensions. *Academy of management journal*, [online], 47(2), pp.255-266, available: Jstor. [accessed: 11 April, 2018]

Ridgeway, C.L. (2007) Gender as a Group Process: Implications for the Persistence of Inequality. In: Correll, S.J. ed., *The Social Psychology of Gender*, pp.311-333. New York: Elsevier.

Ridgeway, C.L. (2009). Framed Before We Know It: How Gender Shapes Social Relations. *Gender & society*, [online], 23(2), pp.145-160, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 14 April, 2018]

Ridgeway, C.L. and Correll, S.J. (2004). Unpacking the Gender System: A Theoretical Perspective on Gender Beliefs and Social Relations. *Gender & Society*, [online], 18(4), pp.510-531, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 21 April, 2018]

Ridgeway, C.L. and England, P. (2007). Sociological Approaches to Sex Discrimination in Employment. In: Crosby, F.J., Stockdale, M.S. and Ropp, A.S. eds., *Sex Discrimination in the Workplace: Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, pp.189-211. Oxford: Blackwell.

Rogier, S.A. and Padgett, M.Y., 2004. The Impact of Utilizing a Flexible Work Schedule on the Perceived Career Advancement Potential of Women. *Human*

Resource Development Quarterly, [online], 15(1), pp.89-106, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 9 May, 2015]

Ros, M., Schwartz, S.H. and Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic Individual Values, Work Values, and the Meaning of Work. *Applied psychology*, [online], 48(1), pp.49-71, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 23 September, 2017]

Rosso, B.D., Dekas, K.H. and Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). On the Meaning of Work: A Theoretical Integration and Review. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, [online], 30, pp.91-127, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 20 September, 2017]

Rudman, L.A. (1998). Self-Promotion as a Risk Factor for Women: the Costs and Benefits of Counterstereotypical Impression Management. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, [online], 74(3), p.629, available: Rutgers. [accessed: 10 April, 2018]

Rudman, L.A. and Fairchild, K. (2004). Reactions to Counterstereotypic Behavior: the Role of Backlash in Cultural Stereotype Maintenance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, [online], 87(2), p.157, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 10 April, 2018]

Rudman, L.A. and Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive Gender Stereotypes and Backlash Toward Agentic Women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), pp.743-762, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 26 March, 2018]

Rudman, L.A. and Phelan, J.E. (2008). Backlash Effects for Disconfirming Gender Stereotypes in Organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, [online], 28, pp.61-79, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 26 March, 2018]

Russell, H., McGinnity, F. and O'Connell, P.J. (2017). Gender Equality in the Irish Labour Market 1966-2016: Unfinished Business? *The Economic and Social Review*, [online], 48(4), pp.393-418, available: ESR. [accessed: 15 September, 2018]

Rutherford, S. (2001). Organizational Cultures, Women Managers and Exclusion. *Women in Management Review*, [online], 16(8), pp.371-382, available: Emerald. [accessed: 18 September, 2017]

Sayer, A. (2009). Contributive Justice and Meaningful Work. *Res Publica*, [online], 15(1), pp.1-16, available: Research Gate. [accessed:19 September, 2017]

Sayer, A. (2011). Habitus, Work and Contributive Justice. *Sociology*, [online], 45(1), pp.7-21, available: Sage. [accessed: 19 September, 2017]

Schäfer, A., Tucci, I. and Gottschall, K. (2015). Top down or bottom up? A Cross-National Study of Vertical Occupational Sex Segregation in Twelve European Countries. *Firms, Boards and Gender Quotas: Comparative Perspectives*, [online], pp 3-43, available: Emerald. [accessed: 11 September, 2017]

Schein, E. H. (1985). How Culture Forms, Develops and Changes. In: Kilmann, R.H., Saxton, M.J. and Serpa, R. eds., *Gaining Control of the Corporate Culture*, pp.17-43. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Schein, V.E. (1973). The Relationship Between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, [online], 57(2), pp 95-100, available: Research Gate. [accessed 21 December, 2017]

Schein, V.E. (1975). Relationships Between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics Among Female Managers. *Journal of applied psychology*, [online] 60(3), pp 340-344, available: Research Gate. [accessed 20 December, 2017]

Schein, V.E. (2007). Women in Management: Reflections and Projections. *Women in Management Review*, [online], 22(1), pp.6-18, available: Emerald. [accessed: 8 September, 2017]

Schultz, P.W., Nolan, J.M., Cialdini, R.B., Goldstein, N.J. and Griskevicius, V. (2007). The Constructive, Destructive, and Reconstructive Power of Social Norms. *Psychological Science*, [online], 18(5), pp.429-434, available: Calstate.edu. [accessed: 15 December, 2018]

Seierstad, C. and Opsahl, T. (2011). For the Few Not the Many? The Effects of Affirmative Action on Presence, Prominence, and Social Capital of Women

- Directors in Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, [online], 27(1), pp.44-54, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]
- Senden, L. (2014). The Multiplicity of Regulatory Responses to Remedy the Gender Imbalance on Company Boards. *Utrecht Law Review*, [online], 10, p.51, available: Utrechlawreview.com. [accessed: 23 September, 2017]
- Shehata, N., Salhin, A. and El-Helaly, M. (2017). Board Diversity and Firm Performance: Evidence from the UK SMEs. *Applied Economics*, [online], 49(48), pp.4817-4832, available: Routledge. [accessed: 21 December, 2018]
- Simpson, R. (2000). Gender Mix and Organisational Fit: How Gender Imbalance at Different Levels of the Organisation Impacts on Women Managers. *Women in Management Review*, [online], 15(1), pp.5-18, available: Emerald. [accessed: 8 September, 2017]
- Skinner, N., Cathcart, A. and Pocock, B. (2016). To Ask or Not to Ask? Investigating Workers' Flexibility Requests and the Phenomenon of Discontented Non-Requesters. *Labour & Industry: a Journal of the Social and Economic Relations of Work*, [online], 26(2), pp.103-119, available: Routledge. [accessed: 7 April, 2018]
- Skjeie, H. and Teigen, M. (2005). Political Constructions of Gender Equality: Travelling Towards... a Gender Balanced Society? *Nordic Journal of Women's Studies*, [online], 13(03), pp.187-197, available: Routledge. [accessed: 7 October, 2017]
- Staff, J. and Mortimer, J.T. (2012). Explaining the Motherhood Wage Penalty During the Early Occupational Career. *Demography*, [online], 49(1), pp.1-21, available: Emerald. [accessed: 27 March, 2018]
- Straub, C. (2007). A Comparative Analysis of the Use of Work-Life Balance Practices in Europe: Do Practices Enhance Females' Career Advancement? *Women in Management Review*, [online], 22(4), pp.289-304, available: Emerald. [accessed: 7 October, 2017]
- Stumbitz, B., Lewis, S. and Rouse, J. (2018). Maternity Management in SMEs: a Transdisciplinary Review and Research Agenda. *International Journal of*

- Management Reviews*, [online], 20(2), pp.500-522, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 12 September, 2018]
- Sunstein, C.R. (1996). Social Norms and Social Roles. *Columbia Law Review*, [online], 96(4), pp.903-968, available: Jstor. [accessed: 10 September, 2018]
- Szydło, M. (2015). Gender Equality on the Boards of EU Companies: Between Economic Efficiency, Fundamental Rights and Democratic Legitimation of Economic Governance. *European Law Journal*, [online], 21(1), pp.97-115, available: Wiley Online Library. [accessed: 26 April, 2018]
- Tam, T. (1997). Sex Segregation and Occupational Gender Inequality in the United States: Devaluation or Specialized Training? *American Journal of Sociology*, [online], 102(6), pp.1652-1692, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]
- Taneja, S., Pryor, M.G. and Oyler, J., 2012. Empowerment and Gender Equality: The Retention and Promotion of Women in the Workforce. *The Journal of Business Diversity*, [online], 12(3), pp.43-53, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 9 May, 2018]
- Taylor, C. (1992). *The Ethics of Authenticity*. Cambridge Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Terborg, J.R. (1977). Women in Management: A Research Review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, [online], 62(6), pp 647-664, available: Research Gate. [accessed 20 December, 2017]
- Terjesen, S. and Sealy, R. (2016). Board Gender Quotas: Exploring Ethical Tensions From a Multi-Theoretical Perspective. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, [online], 26(1), pp.23-65, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 25 April, 2018]
- The 30% Club. (2015). 30% Club Growth Through Diversity. *30percentclub.org*, [online], available: 30percentclub. [accessed: 2 August, 2018]
- Thébaud, S. and Pedulla, D.S. (2016). Masculinity and the Stalled Revolution: How Gender Ideologies and Norms Shape Young Men's Responses to Work–Family Policies. *Gender & Society*, [online], 30(4), pp.590-617, available: Sage. [accessed: 9 May, 2018]

Thomas, M. (2016). The Impact of Mandated Maternity Benefits on the Gender Differential in Promotions: Examining the Role of Adverse Selection. *Cornell University ILR School*, [online], available Digital Commons. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Tilly, C. (1998). *Durable Inequality*. California: University of California Press.

Van den Steen, E. (2010). Culture Clash: The Costs and Benefits of Homogeneity. *Management Science*, [online], 56 (10), pp.1718-1738, available: Jstor. [accessed: 11 April, 2018]

Von Hippel, C., Sekaquaptewa, D. and McFarlane, M. (2015). Stereotype Threat Among Women in Finance: Negative Effects on Identity, Workplace Well-Being, and Recruiting. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, [online], 39(3), pp.405-414, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Wajcman, J. (1998). *Managing Like a Man: Women and Men in Corporate Management*. Oxford: Polity Press.

Waldfogel, J. (1997). The Effect of Children on Women's Wages. *American Sociological Review*, [online], 62 (2), pp.209-217, available: Jstor. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Waldfogel, J. (1998). Understanding the " Family Gap" in Pay for Women With Children. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, [online], 12(1), pp.137-156, available: Jstor. [accessed: 13 April, 2018]

Walker, L.S., Webster Jr, M. and Bianchi, A.J. (2011). Testing the Spread of Status Value Theory. *Social Science Research*, [online], 40(6), pp.1652-1663, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 20 April, 2018]

Weeden, K.A., Cha, Y. and Bucca, M. (2016). Long Work Hours, Part-Time Work, and Trends in the Gender Gap in Pay, the Motherhood Wage Penalty, and the Fatherhood Wage Premium. *RSF: The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, [online], 2 (4), pp. 71-102, available: RSF. [accessed: 27 March, 2018]

Wicks, D. and Bradshaw, P., 1999. Gendered Organizational Cultures in Canadian Work Organizations: Implications for Creating an Equitable

Workplace. *Management Decision*, [online], 37(4), pp.372-381, available: Emerald. [accessed: 14 September, 2017]

Wilkinson, R.G. and Pickett, K.E. (2007). The Problems of Relative Deprivation: Why Some Societies do Better Than Others. *Social science & medicine*, [online], 65(9), pp.1965-1978, available: Science Direct. [accessed: 11 September, 2017]

Wiswall, M. and Zafar, B. (2017). Preference for the Workplace, Investment in Human Capital, and Gender. *Staff Report, Federal Reserve Bank of New York*, [online], No 767, available: Econstor. [accessed: 11 January, 2018]

Wood, G.J. (2009). Revisiting Women Managers and Organisational Acceptance. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, [online], 24(8), pp.615-631, available: Emerald. [accessed: 18 September, 2017]

Woodhams, C. and Lupton, B. (2006). Does Size Matter? Gender-Based Equal Opportunity in UK Small and Medium Enterprises. *Women in Management Review*, [online], 21(2), pp.143-169, available: Emerald. [accessed: 10 April, 2018]

Wrzesniewski, A., Dutton, J.E. and Debebe, G. (2003). Interpersonal Sensemaking and the Meaning of Work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, [online], 25, pp.93-135, available: Research Gate. [accessed: 23 September, 2017]

Wynarczyk, P. (2007). Addressing the “Gender Gap” in the Managerial Labour Market: The Case of Scientific Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) in the North East of England. *Management Research News*, [online], 30(12), pp.942-954, available: Emerald. [accessed: 14 September, 2018]

Appendix 1: Measurement of Men and Women in Decision Making Positions of Top Financially Performing Companies in Ireland in 2017

Domestic Owned Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

No	Sector	Men	Women
1	Construction	299	27
2	Pharma	42	8
3	Technology	60	8
4	Manufacturing	82	16
5	Energy	142	42
6	Transport	101	26
7	Food & Drink	142	29
8	Health	146	61
9	Retailing	207	35
10	Professional Services	39	11
11	Agribusiness	237	33
12	Resources	72	19
13	Services	2	2
14	Communications	17	8
15	Financial Services	60	17
16	Tourism	28	4
17	Media & Marketing	63	27
18	Non-Profit	41	34
19	Property		
20	Education	19	18
Total		1799	425
		80.9%	19.1%

**Foreign Owned Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

No	Sector	Men	Women
1	Construction	141	21
2	Pharma	424	111
3	Technology	835	169
4	Manufacturing	404	105
5	Energy	182	51
6	Transport	312	71
7	Food & Drink	195	97
8	Health	156	60
9	Retailing	253	89
10	Professional Services	172	55
11	Agribusiness	50	10
12	Resources	68	15
13	Services	7	1
14	Communications	83	22
15	Financial Services	135	26
16	Tourism	37	13
17	Media & Marketing	60	16
18	Non-Profit		
19	Property	26	9
20	Education		
Total		3540	941
		79%	21%

**Domestic Owned Construction Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
CRH	86778	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Kingspan	10396	1	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Grafton	10000	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Actavo Group	5043	1	M	Men	26
				Women	8
Josar Holdings (Kentech)	2926	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Aventas Group	2625	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Jones Engineering	2400	1	M	Men	9
				Women	0
PM Group	2200	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Graham	1645	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Sisk Group	1303	1	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Mercury Engineering	1225	1	M	Men	12
				Women	1
Road Bridge	1000	1	M	Men	10
				Women	0
Winthrop Engineering	700	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Kilsaran Concrete	600	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Suir Engineering	571	1	M	Men	9
				Women	0
Glennon Brothers	372	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
EPS	353	1	M	Men	10
				Women	1
JJ Rhatigan	328	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Leanord	320	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Sammon Contracting	300	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
John Paul Construction	285	1	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Leo Lynch Engineering Contractors	266	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Shanahan Engineering	255	1	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Apc	247	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Freefoam Plastics	246	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Manley Construction	245	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1

P.J. Hegarty	225	1	M	Men Women	3 0
Designer Group	202	1	M	Men Women	10 1
Wills Bros	198	1	M	Men Women	2 0
Ward & Burke Construction	169	1	M	Men Women	5 0
DPL Group	169	1	M	Men Women	4 1
Walls Group	154	1	M	Men Women	5 0
Coffey Construction	138	1	M	Men Women	5 1
Tegral Building	135	1	M	Men Women	1 0
Collen Construction	124	1	M	Men Women	5 0
Bennett	120	1	M	Men Women	4 0
Obelisk International	118	1	M	Men Women	3 0
Flynn Management & Contractors	111	1	M	Men Women	8 0
Earth Tech	97	1	M	Men Women	4 0
Ecocem	87	1	M	Men Women	4 2
Extraspace Solutions	86	1	M	Men Women	4 0
M & W Group	74	1	M	Men Women	0 0
Clancy Construction	74	1	M	Men Women	4 0
Stewart	70	1	M	Men Women	3 0
Jons Civil Engineering	67	1	M	Men Women	4 0
GMC Utilities	58	1	M	Men Women	2 0
Mac-Interiors	52	1	M	Men Women	1 0
Mythen	49	1	M	Men Women	3 1
Lagan Asphalts	38	1	M	Men Women	7 1
Cairn Homes	38	1	M	Men Women	7 1
Park Developments	30	1	M	Men Women	2 1
Total				Men Women	51 0
				Men Women	248 27
				Men Women	100% 9.8%
				Men Women	90.2% 9.8%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men Women	299 27
				Men Women	91.7% 8.3%

Foreign Owned Construction Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Ingersoll-Rand	45000	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Caterpillar	1779	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Doosan	1771	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Northstone	991	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Kirby Group Engineering	690	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Dornan Engineering	609	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Brett Martin	589	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
RPS	548	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
Bam	542	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Lagan Group	510	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
E & I Engineering Ireland	501	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Ove Arup & Partners	483	0	M	Men	12
				Women	4
McLaughlin & Harvey	427	0	M	Men	11
				Women	0
Saint-Gobain Construction Products	420	0	M	Men	8
				Women	5
Jacobs Engineering	375	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Trench Holdings	332	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
BMD & Co	259	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Abbey	229	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
SIG Trading (Ireland)	191	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Gilbert Ash	153	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Mott MacDonald Ireland	124	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Banagher Precast Concrete	89	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Epsa Ireland	3	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Salini Hydro	2	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Total				Men	116
				Women	21
				Men	84.7%
				Women	15.3%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	87%
				Women	13%

Domestic Owned Pharma Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Medtronic	88520	1	M	Men Women	8
					3
Liberty Medical Services	1798	1	M	Men Women	0
					1
McCabes Pharmacy	500	1	W	Men Women	3
					2
Malin	303	1	M	Men Women	6
					0
Hickey Pharmacies	300	1	M	Men Women	1
					0
Horizon Pharma	176	1	M	Men Women	8
					0
Barclay Chemical	63	1	M	Men Women	3
					0
C&M Vetlink	48	1	M	Men Women	
Phardiag	32	1	M	Men Women	1
					0
National Chemical Company	31	1	M	Men Women	3
					1

Total	Men Women	9	Men Women	33
		1		7
	Men Women	90%	Men Women	82.5%
		10%		17.5%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	42	Men Women	84.0%
		8		16.0%

Foreign Owned Pharma Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Allergan Inc	30000	0	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Perrigo	13300	0	W	Men	8
				Women	1
Icon Plc	12500	0	M	Men	12
				Women	2
Boston Scientific	4650	0	M	Men	7
				Women	4
Pfizer Global Services	3200	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
GSK	1800	0	M	Men	1
				Women	2
Lloyds Pharmacy	1000	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Baxter	1000	0	M	Men	10
				Women	2
Jazz Pharmaceuticals	850	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Eli-Lilly	800	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Alexion Pharmaceuticals	600	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Sanofi Genzyme	557	0	M	Men	8
				Women	4
Trinity Biotech	555	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Bristol-Myers Squibb	550	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Merck Millipore	549	0	M	Men	7
				Women	4
MediCare Pharmacy Group	517	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Helsinn	500	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Teva Pharmaceuticals	500	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
UCB	461	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Novartis Ireland	451	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Bard Shannon	432	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Servier (Ireland)	412	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Sanofi Genzyme	366	0	M	Men	8
				Women	7
Astellas	360	0	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Takeda	324	0	M	Men	14
				Women	1
Pinewood Laboratories	309	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Cahill May Roberts	300	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1

Roche	254	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Gilead Sciences	250	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Telesta Therapeutics	238	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Tech Group	237	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Biomarin	216	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1
FMC	200	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Charles River	160	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Norbook Laboratories	158	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Arbor Pharmaceuticals	145	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Rottapharm	143	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Ranbaxy	121	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Mallinckrodt Pharmaceuticals	120	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Alltech Ireland	118	0	M	Men	12
				Women	2
Abbvie	102	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Ipsen Manufacturing	99	0	M	Men	9
				Women	6
VWR	98	0	M	Men	10
				Women	1
Sigma-Aldrich	97	0	M	Men	11
				Women	1
Bayer	95	0	M	Men	13
				Women	6
Recordati Ireland	60	0	M	Men	8
				Women	4
BD	56	0	M	Men	10
				Women	1
Abbott Laboratories	55	0	M	Men	7
				Women	4
AmCo Ireland	49	0		Men	1
				Women	1
Clonmel Healthcare	46	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Novartis Ringaskiddy	42	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Reckitt Benckiser (RB)	42	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Total				Men	50
				Women	1
				Men	98%
				Women	2%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	374
				Women	110
				Men	79.3%
				Women	20.7%

**Domestic Owned Technology Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Openet	670	1	W	Men Women	5
					0
Datalex	219	1	M	Men Women	6
					0
Fonua	217	1	M	Men Women	3
					1
CMS Distribution	195	1	M	Men Women	14
					1
Globoforce	175	1	M	Men Women	5
					1
Evros Technology Group	173	1	M	Men Women	4
					2
Cross Refrigeration	150	1	M	Men Women	4
					0
Scientific Games	36	1	M	Men Women	10
					2
Microwarehouse	33	1	M	Men Women	1
					0

Total		8	Men Women	52
		1		7
	Men Women	88.9%	Men Women	88.1%
		11.1%		11.9%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	60	Men Women	88.2%
		8		11.8%

Foreign Owned Technology Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Apple Ireland	5000	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Intel Ireland	4100	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
HP Ireland	4000	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
IBM	3000	0	M	Men	11
				Women	3
Google	2824	0	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Skillsoft	2315	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Mentor Graphics	2257	0	M	Men	19
				Women	2
PCH International	2000	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
First Derivatives	1750	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
SAP Business Objects	1700	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Facebook	1500	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Oracle	1471	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Ericsson	1372	0	M	Men	9
				Women	7
Arvato Digital Services	1350	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Linkedin	1200	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Fleetmatics Group	1151	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Analog Devices	1100	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Kainos	1000	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Symantec	893	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Microsoft	781	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Dell Ireland	774	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Fidelity Investments Ireland	766	0	W	Men	7
				Women	0
Amazon Data Services	756	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
eBay	717	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Vmware	661	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Xerox	650	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Capita Managed IT Solutions	611	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
CarTrawler	550	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Dropbox ireland	550	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Convergys	529	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3

Fineos	500	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Blizzard Entertainment	465	0	W	Men	8
				Women	1
Indeed.com	452	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Avaya International	426	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Trend Micro	400	0	W	Men	5
				Women	0
Andor Technology	317	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Electronic Arts	307	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Cisco	300	0	M	Men	6
				Women	4
VCE Technology	285	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Afilias	284	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Yahoo! Ireland	277	0	M	Men	9
				Women	3
Citrix Systems Ireland	265	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Intercom	250	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Xilinx	238	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Ergo	220	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Workday	216	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Fujitsu Ireland	207	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Twitter	200	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Guidewire Software	163	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
ABB	144	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1
BAE Systems Detica	141	0	M	Men	6
				Women	4
Commscope	137	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Hubspot	135	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Digital River	107	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
RedHat	98	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Microfocus	96	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Yelp	92	0	W	Men	6
				Women	1
Amdocs	89	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Maxim Intergrated Products	79	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
M/A-Com Technology Solutions	70	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Quantcast International	68	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Altera	64	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Teradata	64	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1

Huawei Technologies	60	0	W	Men	13
				Women	3
Nuance Communications	59	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Extreme Network	55	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Logmein	55	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Netgear International	50	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
SurveyMonkey Europe	50	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Orange Buisness Services	46	0	W	Men	5
				Women	7
DTS	45	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Logicalis	45	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
QAD Ireland	44	0	W	Men	4
				Women	0
NCR	43	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
NetIQ Europe	33	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
National Instruments	32	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Honeywell Process Solutions	31	0	M	Men	9
				Women	3
Radius Communications	29	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Westcoast	28	0	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Dialogic	28	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
IAC Search&Media	24	0	M	Men	13
				Women	2
QLogic	23	0	W	Men	6
				Women	0
Stratus Technologies	18	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Electrolux	18	0	M	Men	13
				Women	4
Microchip Technology	15	0	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Volex	9	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Zynga	7	0	M	Men	3
				Women	4
Ptc Software	6	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Adobe		0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Cognex		0	M	Men	8
				Women	0

Total	Men	82	Men	570
		Women	8	Women
	Men	91.1%	Men	77.9%
		Women	8.9%	Women

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	835	Men	83.2%
		Women	169	Women

**Domestic Owned Manufacturing Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Munster Joinery	1300	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Creganna Medical	780	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Ei Electronics	720	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
William Cox	600	1	M	Men	8
				Women	0
LotusWorks	560	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Carey Glass	550	1	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Combilift	440	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Zeus Packaging	244	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Tricel	240	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Moyne Roberts	222	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Siemens	213	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
GE Sensing	162	1	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Wright Medical	126	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Waterford Stanley	101	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Gem Plastics	87	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Duggan Steel Group	75	1	W	Men	3
				Women	0
Cash & Carry Kitchens	65	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
A.W. Ennis	45	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0

Total		17	Men	65
	Men Women	1	Women	15
		94.4%	Men	81.3%
	Men Women	5.6%	Women	18.7%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		82	Men	83.7%
	Men Women	16	Women	16.3%

**Foreign Owned Manufacturing Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Eaton Corp	95000	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Glen Dimplex	8500	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Glen Dimplex Group	4977	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Bombardier Aerospace	4000	0	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Segezha Packaging	1284	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Liebherr	829	0	M	Men	1
				Women	4
Essilor	650	0	M	Men	8
				Women	6
Trulife	607	0	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Procter&Gamble	606	0	M	Men	6
				Women	4
Merit Medical	578	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Nypro	463	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Ballina Beverages	450	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
DPS Engineering	433	0	M	Men	12
				Women	2
Celestica Ireland	399	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Wellman International	398	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Element Six	393	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Clearstream Technologies	390	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Alcon	355	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4

Coca Cola Bottling	306	0	M	Men Women	14
					3
Flextronics Cork	300	0	M	Men Women	7
					1
Honeywell Transportation Ireland	291	0	M	Men Women	10
					2
Autolaunch	288	0	M	Men Women	6
					7
Hasbro Ireland	288	0	M	Men Women	6
					5
Sulzer Pump Solutions Ireland	282	0	M	Men Women	6
					1
Cameron	264	0	M	Men Women	9
					1
Kellogg Ireland	215	0	M	Men Women	7
					5
Mirror Controls International	202	0	M	Men Women	4
					0
Penn Engineering	171	0	M	Men Women	8
					0
Borgwarner Tralee	167	0	M	Men Women	8
					1
JFC Manufacturing	163	0	M	Men Women	3
					1
Unilever	160	0	M	Men Women	5
					4
Athlone Extrusions	150	0	M	Men Women	1
					0
Masonite	125	0	M	Men Women	7
					1
Transitions Optical	116	0	M	Men Women	6
					4
Acra Control	116	0	M	Men Women	3
					1
Saica Pack	113	0	M	Men Women	3
					1
BASF	100	0	M	Men Women	6
					1
Lagan Cement	100	0	M	Men Women	10
					0

JTI Ireland	86	0	M	Men	13
				Women	1
Sandvik	70	0	M	Men	8
				Women	4
Renishaw	70	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Amcor	63	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Adhesives Research	56	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Punch Industries	45	0	W	Men	5
				Women	0
3m Ireland	42	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Antalis	39	0	M	Men	3
				Women	4
Phillips Electronics	38	0	M	Men	3
				Women	3
Humax	28	0	M	Men	11
				Women	3
Beko Ireland	20	0	M	Men	10
				Women	1
JLG Holdings	7	0	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Ardagh Glass Sales	2	0	M	Men	10
				Women	0
Alps Electric		0	M	Men	8
				Women	0

Total	Men	51	Men	353
		Women		1
	Men	98.1%	Men	77.2%
		Women		1.9%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	404	Men	79.4%
	Women	105	Women	20.6%

Domestic Owned Energy Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
DCC	10000	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
ESB	7597	1	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Applegreen	2300	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Topaz	1564	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Kenmare Resources	1323	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Esbi Engineering & Facility Management	641	1	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Stafford Group	575	1	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Eirgrid	407	1	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Tedcastle	400	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Ireland Roc	372	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Grant Engineering	320	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Lissan Coal Company	176	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Emo Oil	167	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
FLI Group	134	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Maxol	80	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Morgan Fuels	62	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Topaz Direct	44	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
NTR	34	1	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Morris Oil	26	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
ESB N.I./Electric Ireland	4	1	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Erova	3	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
East Cork Oil		1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Synergen		1	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Coolkeeragh ESB		1	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Nicholl Oils		1	M	Men	1
				Women	0

Total	Men	20	Men	122
		5		Women
	Women	80%	Men	
		20%		Women

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	142	Men	77.1%
		42		Women

**Foreign Owned Energy Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Dragon Oil	1900	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
CG Power Systems	468	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
SSE Airtricity	369	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Viridian	350	0	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Veolia Energy Ireland	310	0	M	Men	12
				Women	6
Calor	284	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Boc Gases Ireland	280	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Schneider Electric	204	0	M	Men	6
				Women	6
Nicholl Fuel Oil	195	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Whitegate Refinery	180	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Aes Ballylumford	158	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Solarwinds	156	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Soni Northern Ireland	129	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Diesel Card International	104	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Sse Generation Ireland/Airtricity	98	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Air Products Ireland	62	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Airtricity N.I.	60	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Nordex Energy Ireland	54	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Energia	42	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Diesel Card Ireland	34	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Vayu	32	0	M	Men	2
				Women	1
MW Ireland	25	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Inver Energy	23	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
Tynagh Energy	12	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Valero Energy Corporation	9	0	M	Men	6
				Women	4

NORA	5	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Scottish Power Renewables		0	M	Men	6
				Women	2

Total	Men	27	Men	155
		Women		0
	Men	100%	Men	75.2%
		Women		0%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	182	Men	78.1%
	Women	51	Women	21.9%

Domestic Owned Transport Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Ryanair	11458	1	M	Men	9
				Women	3
Aer Lingus	3600	1	M	Men	3
				Women	2
DAA	3598	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Dublin Bus	3313	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Irish Rail	2487	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
The Irish Aviation Authority	655	1	W	Men	5
				Women	1
Nolan Transport	500	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Stobart Air	402	1	M	Men	3
				Women	2
Windsor Motors	315	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Armalou	258	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Gowan Group	224	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Motor Services	194	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Harris Hino	150	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Dublin Post Company	140	1	M	Men	8
				Women	5
J.A. Boland & Sons	107	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Johnson & Perrott	105	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Motor Distributors	95	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Denis Mahony Group	88	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Merrion Fleet Management	53	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Western Motors	51	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Aer Rianta	45	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Pat O'Donnell		1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Total				Men	80
				Women	25
				Men	76.2%
				Women	23.8%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	79.5%
				Women	20.5%

**Foreign Owned Transport Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Translink	3828	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Wrightbus	1213	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Charles Hurst Group	1014	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Hertz	925	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Applus+	853	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Valeo Vision	850	0	M	Men	6
				Women	5
Lufthansa	684	0	M	Men	3
				Women	1
DHL Supply Chain	360	0	M	Men	11
				Women	1
P&O	351	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Transdev (Luas)	288	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
UPS	264	0	M	Men	8
				Women	4
DPD	245	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Swissport	237	0	M	Men	10
				Women	0
Europcar	236	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
DB Schenker	222	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Kuehne & Nagel	215	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
ModusLink	211	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
DHL global Forwarding	201	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
TNT	188	0	M	Men	2
				Women	2
DSV Road	170	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
Toyota	150	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Volkswagen Group Ireland	137	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1

Aramex	113	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Irish Car Rentals	110	0	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Geodis Ireland	102	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Nissan Ireland	100	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
General Motors (Opel)	75	0	W	Men	5
				Women	4
Leaseplan	69	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Bridgestone	67	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Ceva Logistics	67	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
DSV	53	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
MSC (Mediterranean Shipping Company)	41	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Ford Ireland	35	0	M	Men	11
				Women	2
Magellan Aviation Group	35	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Renault Ireland	24	0	M	Men	22
				Women	5
Damico Dry	19	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
BMW Ireland	19	0	M	Men	13
				Women	5
XPO Logistics	13	0	M	Men	5
				Women	2
JF Hillebrand	7	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Touax Rail	7	0	M	Men	
				Women	
Starlite Aviation Operations	6	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
High Pool Tankers		0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Syncreon		0	M	Men	8
				Women	0

Total	Men	42	Men	270
		Women		1
	Men	97.7%	Men	79.4%
		Women		2.3%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	312	Men	81.5%
		Women		71

Domestic Owned Food & Drink Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Kerry Group	23000	1	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Greencore	12000	1	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Glan Bia	4794	1	M	Men	17
				Women	1
Fyffes	3000	1	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Fane Valley	2100	1	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Keelings	2000	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
C&C	1735	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Arrow Group	1675	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Sodexo	1607	1	M	Men	7
				Women	6
Abrakebabra	1600	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Tuli Holdings	1405	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Supermacs	1336	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Western Brand Poultry Products	557	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Largo food	500	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Liffey Meats	400	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Bandon Co-Op	283	1	M	Men	13
				Women	2
The Barry Group	240	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Natures Best	221	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Molloy Holdings	117	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Dairy Produce Packers	92	1	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Roadfield Holdings	90	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Barry & Fitzwilliam	65	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
ADM Ireland	15	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Aqua Blue	4	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Green Isle Food		1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Total				Men	25
				Women	0
		Men	100%		
		Women	0%		
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	142
				Women	29
		Men	83%		
		Women	17%		

Foreign Owned Food & Drink Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Moy Park	9230	0	W	Men Women	4
					3
Dunbia	3778	0	M	Men Women	7
					0
Compass Catering	2347	0	M	Men Women	8
					2
H&K International	1300	0	M	Men Women	7
					0
Diageo	1100	0	M	Men Women	5
					4
McDonalds	941	0	M	Men Women	8
					3
Pallas	850	0	M	Men Women	9
					2
Mondelez Ireland	681	0	W	Men Women	9
					3
Pepsi Co	600	0	M	Men Women	9
					3
Irish Distillers	600	0	M	Men Women	7
					5
Heineken Ireland	550	0	M	Men Women	6
					3
Coca Cola Bottlers	522	0	M	Men Women	9
					4
Britvic	429	0	M	Men Women	5
					3
Danone	400	0	M	Men Women	7
					7
Dominos Pizza	386	0	M	Men Women	6
					2
Hilton Food & Drink	335	0	M	Men Women	4
					1
Ferrero Ireland	238	0	M	Men Women	4
					0
Marine Harvest	212	0	M	Men Women	5
					4
Napa Valley Food & Drink	170	0	M	Men Women	9
					2
Diageo N.I.	121	0	M	Men Women	5
					4
Lily O'Briens Chocolates	119	0	M	Men Women	10
					1
Mars Food & Drink	102	0	M	Men Women	8
					1
Nestle Ireland	60	0	M	Men Women	8
					5
Greenfields Ireland	31	0	M	Men Women	5
					1
Heinz	17	0	M	Men Women	8
					2
Total					23
					Men Women
					Men
					Women
					Men
					Women
					Men
					Women
					Men
					Women
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives					195
					Men Women
					Men
					Women
					Men
					Women

Domestic Owned Health Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
St. Vicents Healthcare	3744	1	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Rehab	3234	1	M	Men	9
				Women	3
Mater Hospital	2747	1	M	Men	7
				Women	10
Bon Secours	2720	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Irish Wheelchair Association	2253	1	M	Men	7
				Women	6
St. John of God Community Services	2165	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Temple Street Hospital	992	1	M	Men	6
				Women	6
Cope Foundation	920	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Lake Region Medical	830	1	M	Men	7
				Women	2
South Infirmary - Victoria University Hospital	748	1	M	Men	10
				Women	2
Uniphar	681	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Enable Ireland	680	1	M	Men	11
				Women	6
Our Ladys Hospice	528	1	M	Men	8
				Women	5
Saint John of Gods Hospital	447	1	W	Men	7
				Women	1
Cappagh National Orthopaedic Hospital	359	1	M	Men	5
				Women	4
Chanell Pro Vet	350	1	M	Men	3
				Women	3
ArcRoyal	200	1	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Bio-Medical Research	138	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Alere International	124	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1

Total		18	Men	128
	Men Women	1	Women	60
		94.7%	Men	68%
	Men Women	5.3%	Women	32%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		146	Men	70.5%
	Men Women	61	Women	29.5%

Foreign Owned Health Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
UDG Healthcare	8300	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Four Seasons Health Care	4461	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Abbott Laboratories	4000	0	M	Men	7
				Women	4
MSD	1600	0	M	Men	9
				Women	3
McKesson	1100	0	M	Men	4
				Women	3
Bausch & Lomb Ireland	1100	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Stryker	939	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Depuy	850	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
GE Healthcare	600	0	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Laya Healthcare	509	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Benex	450	0	M	Men	8
				Women	4
Teleflex	402	0	M	Men	4
				Women	3
Henkel	363	0	W	Men	7
				Women	9
Quintiles	292	0	M	Men	10
				Women	1
Zimmer Orthopedics	287	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Bunzl	164	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Johnson & Johnson	108	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Shire	100	0	W	Men	8
				Women	3
Natus Nicolet	79	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
B Braun Medical	46	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Tri-supply		0	M	Men	3
				Women	0

Total				Men	19	Men	137
				Women	2		Women
				Men	90.5%	Men	70.3%
				Women	9.5%	Women	29.7%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	156	Men	72.2%
				Women	60	Women	27.8%

**Domestic Owned Retailing Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Musgrave	35000	1	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Dunnes Stores Ireland	14000	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Bwg Group	13000	1	M	Men	15
				Women	2
Smyths	2200	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Easons	1800	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Peter Mark	1600	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Dunnes Stores N.I.	1592	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
National Pen	668	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Elverys	650	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Euro General Retail	615	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Sam McCauley Chemists	528	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Arnotts	515	1	M	Men	13
				Women	2
Homestore+More	482	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Lifestyles Sports	459	1	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Furlong Investments	418	1	M	Men	0
				Women	3
Blarney Wollen Mills	400	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Tender Meats	387	1	M	Men	1
				Women	2
JDM Automotive	336	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Kilkenny Group	259	1	W	Men	1
				Women	1
Power City	238	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Derevoya	209	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Nestor Property	200	1	M	Men	7
				Women	2
John Rushe	181	1	W	Men	2
				Women	0

JCs Supermarket	164	1	M	Men Women	2 1
Roll Up (Gardiner Group)	161	1	M	Men Women	1 0
Cara Pharmacy	150	1	W	Men Women	4 0
Ewl Electric	139	1	M	Men Women	2 0
Fitzpatrick	130	1	M	Men Women	1 0
Kevin O'Leary Group	125	1	M	Men Women	10 0
Stafford Lynch	100	1	M	Men Women	2 2
Joyces Supermarket	100	1	M	Men Women	0 1
Brooks Timber & Building Supplies	93	1	M	Men Women	2 0
Michael Moore Car Sales	89	1	M	Men Women	4 0
Murphy & Gunn	86	1	M	Men Women	1 0
Dubarry	85	1	M	Men Women	5 0
Sheridan Motor Group	81	1	M	Men Women	2 1
Noyeks	72	1	M	Men Women	6 0
McLoughlinsRS	59	1	M	Men Women	4 1
Cavanaghs of Charleville	58	1	M	Men Women	2 0
Origo	54	1	M	Men Women	8 0
Hyundai Cars Ireland	50	1	M	Men Women	2 0
United Hardware	40	1	M	Men Women	5 1
Littlewoods	23	1	W	Men Women	3 1
Caulfield McCarthy Group		1	W	Men Women	4 0
Prime Brands		1	W	Men Women	1 0

Total	Men Women	39	Men Women	168
		6		29
	Men Women	86.7%	Men Women	85.3%
		13.3%		14.7%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	207	Men Women	84.3%
		35		15.7%

Foreign Owned Retailing Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Tesco	14500	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Penneys	4500	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Henderson Group	2998	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Sainsburys	2500	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Marks & Spencer	2300	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Heatons	2000	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Next	1730	0	M	Men	4
				Women	4
Boots	1603	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Debenhams	1508	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Dealz	1500	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
ITX Fasion (Zara)	1338	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
TK Maxx	1123	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Argos	1114	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Specsavers	1000	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Brown Thomas	937	0	M	Men	4
				Women	5
River Island	899	0	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Harvey Norman	860	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Ladbrokes	736	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Carphone Warehouse	729	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
B&Q	586	0	M	Men	4
				Women	4
Ikea	567	0	M	Men	7
				Women	0
Homebase	491	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
H&M	437	0	M	Men	3
				Women	7
Zara	327	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Groupon	106	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Lifes2Good	99	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
4 Aces	78	0	M	Men	15
				Women	2

Kellihers Electrical	54	0	M	Men	4	
				Women	4	
Luxottica	45	0	M	Men	8	
				Women	5	
Bestseller	34	0	M	Men	3	
				Women	1	
P.J. Carroll (BAT Ireland)	33	0	M	Men	8	
				Women	4	
Adidas	15	0	M	Men	11	
				Women	4	
Livisham	14	0	M	Men	8	
				Women	0	
John Player		0	M	Men	7	
				Women	3	
Gamestop		0	M	Men	6	
				Women	2	
Total		Men	Women	35	Men	218
				0	Women	89
		Men	Women	100%	Men	71%
				0%	Women	29%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		Men	Women	253	Men	74%
				89	Women	26%

**Domestic Owned Professional Services Companies: President, Board Members
& Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Noonan services	7125	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Abtran	2000	1	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Version 1	900	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Rigney Dolphin	800	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
CPL	735	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Arthur Cox	700	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Mason Hayes & Curran	500	1	W	Men	1
				Women	0
PFH	237	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Grafton Recruitment	210	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
DK Donohoe	150	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Zamano	11	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0

Total		10		29
	Men		Men	
	Women	1	Women	10
		90.9%	Men	74.4%
	Men	9.1%	Women	25.6%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		39		78%
	Men		Men	
	Women	11	Women	22%

Foreign Owned Professional Services Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Experian	17000	0	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Deloitte	2819	0	M	Men	12
				Women	8
KPMG	2447	0	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Accenture	2200	0	M	Men	6
				Women	4
EY Ireland	2088	0	M	Men	13
				Women	4
Manpower	1137	0	M	Men	8
				Women	5
Grant Thornton	1085	0	M	Men	15
				Women	3
Firstsource Solutions	798	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Salesforce	757	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
G4S Ireland	556	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
BDO	510	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Mercer Ireland	438	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Allen & Overy	400	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Mazars	350	0	M	Men	4
				Women	1
CWS-boco	310	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Leaseplan Information Services	173	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Tower Watson	162	0	W	Men	6
				Women	3
CAE Parc Aviation	67	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Gartner	24	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Conversant Media	6	0	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Schlumberger Information Solutions	4	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3

Total	Men	20	Men	152
		Women		1
	Men	95.2%	Men	73.8%
		Women		4.8%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	172	Men	75.8%
		Women		55

Domestic Owned Agribusiness Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
ABP Food Group	9500	1	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Total Produce	5035	1	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Monaghan Mushrooms	3500	1	M	Men	9
				Women	0
Dawn Meats	3300	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Bord naMona	2000	1	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Ornua	1915	1	M	Men	13
				Women	0
Dairygold	1150	1	M	Men	10
				Women	1
Origin Enterprises Plc	1128	1	W	Men	5
				Women	3
Aurivo	700	1	M	Men	15
				Women	0
Lakeland Dairies	693	1	M	Men	14
				Women	0
McHale	500	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Walsh Mushrooms	380	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Kildare Chilling Co	350	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Sam Dennigan	350	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Donnelly	330	1	M	Men	4
				Women	3
Barryroe Co-Op	275	1	M	Men	13
				Women	1
Donegal Investment Group	252	1	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Boyne Valley	250	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
McCarren Meats	237	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Callan Bacon	229	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Tipperary Co-Op	174	1	M	Men	11
				Women	0
Quinns of Baltinglass	173	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1

Moyvalley Meats	168	1	M	Men Women	1
					0
Lisavaird Co-Op Creameries	143	1	M	Men Women	20
					1
Euro Farm Food & Drink	129	1	M	Men Women	0
					1
Limcor	125	1	M	Men Women	0
					1
Centenary Thurles Co-Op Society	121	1	M	Men Women	17
					2
Drinagh Co-Op	118	1	M	Men Women	12
					1
Agri Health	104	1	M	Men Women	4
					0
Mohan Egg Holdings	90	1	W	Men Women	1
					0
Grennans	84	1	M	Men Women	0
					1
Ballon Meats	77	1	M	Men Women	2
					0
Seskin Investments	60	1	W	Men Women	1
					1
Corby Rock	45	1	M	Men Women	2
					1
Charles R Wynne Foods	33	1	M	Men Women	1
					0
Food-Bridge	13	1	W	Men Women	1
					1

Total	Men	32	Men	205
		Women		4
	Men	88.9%	Men	87.6%
		Women		11.1%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	237	Men	87.8%
		Women		33

**Foreign Owned Agribusiness Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
United Dairy Farmers	1000	0	M	Men	12
				Women	1
Manor Farm	856	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Irish Country Meats	375	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Mash Direct	152	0	W	Men	6
				Women	0
Grassland agro	11	0	W	Men	0
				Women	3
Town of Monaghan Co-Op		0	M	Men	14
				Women	1

Total		4	Men	46
	Men	2		Women
		66.7%	Men	85.2%
	Men	33.3%		Women

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		50	Men	83.3%
	Men	10		Women

**Domestic Owned Resources Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Panda Waste	1600	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Ervia	1401	1	M	Men	7
				Women	2
One 51	1345	1	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Shell & Topaz Aviation	1272	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Tullow Oil	1152	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Coillte	928	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Green Star	675	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Irish Water	495	1	W	Men	5
				Women	3
Corrib Oil	470	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Water Celtic	322	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Greyhound	250	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Circle Oil	97	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Jones Oil	86	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
GP Wood	78	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Vale Oil	30	1	W	Men	2
				Women	0
Repak	27	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Capital Oil Supplies	20	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1

Total	Men	15	Men	57
		Women		2
	Men	88.2%	Men	77%
		Women		11.8%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	72	Men	79.1%
		Women		19

**Foreign Owned Resources Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Northern Ireland Water	1253	0	M	Men	8
				Women	2
Boliden Tara Mines	617	0	M	Men	9
				Women	4
Rusal Aughinish	450	0	M	Men	13
				Women	4
Aughinish Alumina	450	0	M	Men	13
				Women	4
Veolia Water	171	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Petroceltic	133	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Celtic Anglian Water	85	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Lisheen	44	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1

Total		8	Men	60
	Men Women	0	Women	15
		100%	Men	80.0%
	Men Women	0%	Women	20.0%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		68	Men	81.9%
	Men Women	15	Women	18.1%

**Domestic Owned Services Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members		
Boylesports	1497	1	M	Men Women	1		
					2		
Total				Men Women	1		
					0		
				Men Women	100%	Men Women	33.3%
					0%		66.7%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men Women	2		
					2		

**Foreign Owned Services Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Northwest Bookmakers	354	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Total		Men Women	1	Men Women	6
			0		1
		Men Women	100%	Men Women	85.7%
			0%		14.3%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		Men Women	7	Men Women	87.5%
			1		12.5%

**Domestic Owned Communications Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
An Post	9928	1	M	Men	8
				Women	5
Eircom	6000	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Eishtec	1306	1	M	Men	2
				Women	3

Total	Men Women	3	Men Women	14
		0		8
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	63.6%
		0%		36.4%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	17	Men Women	68%
		8		32%

**Foreign Owned Communications Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Vodafone	2000	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Three Ireland	1083	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
KN Network Services	1036	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Sky Ireland	1000	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Virgin Media	734	0	M	Men	6
				Women	1
BT	613	0	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Ding Ireland	203	0	M	Men	4
				Women	0
AOL Global Operations	169	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Imagine Communications	134	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
J2 Global	89	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Verizon Ireland	62	0	M	Men	7
				Women	4
Global Cloud Xchange	1	0	M	Men	4
				Women	3
Total				Men	12
				Women	0
				Men	71
				Women	22
				Men	100%
				Women	0%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	76.3%
				Women	23.7%
				Men	83
				Women	22
				Men	79%
				Women	21%

**Domestic Owned Financial Services Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Cadence	3554	1	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Taxback Group	950	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
ASI Aviation	907	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Sherry Fitzgerald	299	1	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Monex	120	1	M	Men	11
				Women	2
Irish Stock Exchange	120	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Irish National Lottery	90	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Payzone	71	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Housing Finance Agency	11	1	W	Men	6
				Women	5

Total	Men Women	8	Men Women	52
		1		16
	Men Women	88.9%	Men Women	76.5%
		11.1%		23.5%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	60	Men Women	77.9%
		17		22.1%

Foreign Owned Financial Services Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Paypal	2320	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Allstate N.I.	2107	0	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Arvato	1363	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Pramerica	1227	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Pepper Ireland	400	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Aercap Ireland	163	0	M	Men	10
				Women	0
SMBC Aviation Capital	150	0	M	Men	9
				Women	0
Corvil	112	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
ITG Europe	88	0	M	Men	7
				Women	0
First Data	76	0	M	Men	6
				Women	2
Almac Group	50	0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
CIT Aerospace International	35	0	W	Men	8
				Women	4
Virtu Financial	29	0	M	Men	10
				Women	0
Gecas Services	26	0	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Aon Centre for Innovation & Analytics	6	0	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Ecc Leasing Company	3	0	M	Men	9
				Women	1
Aetna Health		0	M	Men	7
				Women	4

Total	Men	16	Men	119
	Women	1	Women	25
	Men	94.1%	Men	82.6%
	Women	5.9%	Women	17.4%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	135	Men	83.9%
	Women	26	Women	16.1%

**Domestic Owned Tourism Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Dalata	3000	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Moran Hotels	1314	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Torski	973	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Staycity Aparthotels	375	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Croke Park Stadium	43	1	M	Men	9
				Women	0

Total	Men	5	Men	23
	Women	0	Women	4
	Men	100%	Men	85.2%
	Women	0%	Women	14.8%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	28	Men	87.5%
	Women	4	Women	12.5%

Foreign Owned Tourism Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Doyles Hotels	1187	0	W	Men	7
				Women	0
Air BnB	500	0	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Hostelworld	241	0	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Club Travel	155	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Crystal Holidays	69	0	M	Men	4
				Women	3
Joe Walsh Tours	39	0	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Travel Counsellors		0	M	Men	6
				Women	3

Total	Men	6	Men	31
		1		12
	Women	85.7%	Women	72.1%
		14.3%		27.9%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	37	Men	74%
		13		26%

**Domestic Owned Media & Marketing Companies: President, Board Members
& Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
RTE	1978	1	W	Men	6
				Women	5
Independent News & Media	1000	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Communicorp	541	1	W	Men	5
				Women	1
The Irish Times	444	1	M	Men	5
				Women	5
Core Media	192	1	W	Men	7
				Women	4
Football Association of Ireland	167	1	M	Men	9
				Women	1
The RDS	100	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
EMDN	51	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
IMRO	51	1	W	Men	10
				Women	3

Total	Men	5	Men	58
	Women	4	Women	23
	Men	55.6%	Men	71.6%
	Women	44.4%	Women	28.4%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	63	Men	70%
	Women	27	Women	30%

**Foreign Owned Media & Marketing Companies: President, Board Members
& Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Premier Conferencing	228	0	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Loyaltybuild	119	0	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Carat Ireland	112	0	M	Men	2
				Women	0
OMD Ireland	69	0	M	Men	3
				Women	2
Irish Daily Star	57	0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Mindshare	51	0	3M 1W	Men	21
				Women	8
Elsevier		0	W	Men	7
				Women	3

Total	Men Women	8	Men Women	52
		2		14
	Men Women	80%	Men Women	78.8%
		20%		21.2%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	60	Men Women	78.9%
		16		21.1%

**Domestic Owned Non-Profit Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Brothers of Charity	3683	1	M	Men	7
				Women	3
Concern	3513	1	M	Men	11
				Women	10
Cheshire Ireland	460	1	M	Men	1
				Women	3
Ability West	367	1	M	Men	7
				Women	4
Goal	299	1	W	Men	4
				Women	5
Pobal	224	1	M	Men	6
				Women	8

Total	Men	5	Men	36
	Women	1		Women
	Men	83.3%	Men	52.2%
	Women	16.7%		Women

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	41	Men	54.7%
	Women	34		Women

**Foreign Owned Property Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Aramark	3958	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
ISS	3058	0	M	Men	5
				Women	3
G4S Secure Solutions	1650	0	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Phonewatch	257	0	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Chubb Ireland	144	0	M	Men	1
				Women	0

Total	Men Women	5	Men Women	21
		0		9
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	70%
		0%		30%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	26	Men Women	74.3%
		9		25.7%

**Domestic Owned Education Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Trinity College Dublin	4077	1	M	Men	9
				Women	12
National College of Ireland	186	1	M	Men	8
				Women	6

Total	Men	2	Men	17
	Women	0	Women	18
	Men	100%	Men	48.6%
	Women	0%	Women	51.4%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	19	Men	51.4%
	Women	18	Women	48.6%

**Joint Ownership Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Smurfit Kappa	45000	1/0	M	Men	9
				Women	3
Irish Continental	310	1/0	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Tmc Dairies	52	1/0	M	Men	15
				Women	1
Paddy Power Betfair	7300	1/0	M	Men	7
				Women	2
Tourism Ireland	144	1/0	F	Men	8
				Women	1

Total	Men	4	Men	44
	Women	1	Women	8
	Men	80%	Men	84.6%
	Women	20%	Women	15.4%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	48	Men	84.2%
	Women	9	Women	15.8%

**Irish Owned SME Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

No.	Sector	Total	Men	Women	% Men	% Women
1	Construction	150	140	10	93.3%	6.7%
2	Pharma	21	20	1	95.2%	4.8%
3	Technology	62	55	7	88.7%	11.3%
4	Manufacturing	59	48	11	81.3%	18.7%
5	Energy	46	36	10	78.3%	21.7%
6	Transport	46	40	6	87%	13%
7	Food & Drink	29	24	5	82.8%	17.2%
8	Health	24	20	4	83.3%	16.7%
9	Retailing	98	87	11	88.8%	11.2%
10	Professional Services	17	14	3	82.4%	17.6%
11	Agribusiness	106	91	15	85.8%	14.2%
12	Resources	24	18	6	75%	25%
13	Financial Services	46	37	9	80.4%	19.6%
14	Tourism	10	10	-	100%	-
15	Media & Marketing	47	34	13	72.3%	27.7%

**Irish Owned SME Construction Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Apc	247	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Freefoam Plastics	246	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Manley Construction	245	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
P.J. Hegarty	225	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Designer Group	202	1	M	Men	10
				Women	1
Wills Bros	198	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Ward & Burke Construction	169	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
DPL Group	169	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Walls Group	154	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Coffey Construction	138	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Tegral Building	135	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Collen Construction	124	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Bennett	120	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Obelisk International	118	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Flynn Management & Contractors	111	1	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Earth Tech	97	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Ecocem	87	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Extraspace Solutions	86	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
M & W Group	74	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Clancy Construction	74	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Stewart	70	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0

Jons Civil Engineering	67	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
GMC Utilities	58	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Mac-Interiors	52	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Mythen	49	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Lagan Asphalts	38	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Cairn Homes	38	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1
Park Developments	30	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Total					
		Men		30	
				Women	
		Men		0	
				Women	
		Men		100%	
				Women	
		Men		0%	
				Women	
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives					
		Men		140	
				Women	
		Men		10	
				Women	

**Irish Owned SME Pharma Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Horizon Pharma	176	1	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Barclay Chemical	63	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
C&M Vetlink	48	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Phardiag	32	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
National Chemical Company	31	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Total				Men	5
				Women	0
				Men	100%
				Women	0%
				Men	15
				Women	1
				Men	93.8%
				Women	6.2%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives				Men	20
				Women	1
				Men	95.2%
				Women	4.8%

**Irish Owned SME Technology Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Datalex	219	1	M	Men	6
				Women	0
Fonua	217	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
CMS Distribution	195	1	M	Men	14
				Women	1
Globoforce	175	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Evros Technology Group	173	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Cross Refrigeration	150	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Scientific Games	36	1	M	Men	10
				Women	2
Microwarehouse	33	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0

Total	Men Women	8	Men Women	47
		0		7
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	82.5%
		0%		17.5%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	55	Men Women	88.7%
		7		11.3%

**Irish Owned SME Manufacturing Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Zeus Packaging	244	1	M	Men	0
				Women	0
Tricel	240	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Moyne Roberts	222	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Siemens	213	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
GE Sensing	162	1	M	Men	10
				Women	4
Wright Medical	126	1	M	Men	5
				Women	2
Waterford Stanley	101	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Gem Plastics	87	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Duggan Steel Group	75	1	W	Men	3
				Women	0
Cash & Carry Kitchens	65	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
A.W. Ennis	45	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0

Total	Men Women	10	Men Women	38
		1		10
	Men Women	90.9%	Men Women	79.2%
		9.1%		20.8%

**Irish Owned SME Energy Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Emo Oil	167	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
FLI Group	134	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Maxol	80	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Morgan Fuels	62	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Topaz Direct	44	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
NTR	34	1	M	Men	5
				Women	3
Morris Oil	26	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Erova	3	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0

Total	Men Women	8	Men Women	28
		0		10
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	73.7%
		0%		26.3%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	36	Men Women	78.3%
		10		21.7%

**Irish Owned SME Transport Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Gowan Group	224	1	M	Men	4
				Women	2
Motor Services	194	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Harris Hino	150	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
J.A. Boland & Sons	107	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Johnson & Perrott	105	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Motor Distributors	95	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Denis Mahony Group	88	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Merrion Fleet Management	53	1	M	Men	1
				Women	1
Western Motors	51	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Aer Rianta	45	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1

Total	Men Women	10	Men Women	30
		0		6
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	83.3%
		0%		16.7%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	40	Men Women	87%
		6		13%

**Irish Owned SME Food and Drink Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
The Barry Group	240	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Natures Best	221	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Dairy Produce Packers	92	1	M	Men	9
				Women	2
Barry & Fitzwilliam	65	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
ADM Ireland	15	1	M	Men	3
				Women	1
Aqua Blue	4	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1

Total	Men Women	6	Men Women	18
		0		5
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	75%
		0%		25%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	24	Men Women	82.8%
		5		17.2%

**Irish Owned SME Health Companies: President, Board Members & Employee
Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
ArcRoyal	200	1	M	Men	8
				Women	3
Bio-Medical Research	138	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Alere International	124	1	M	Men	7
				Women	1

Total	Men Women	3	Men Women	17
		0		4
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	90%
		0%		10%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	20	Men Women	83.3%
		4		16.7%

Irish Owned SME Retailing Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Power City	238	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
JCs Supermarket	164	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Cara Pharmacy	150	1	W	Men	4
				Women	0
Ewl Electric	139	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Fitzpatrick	130	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Kevin O'Leary Group	125	1	M	Men	10
				Women	0
Stafford Lynch	100	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Joyces Supermarket	100	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Brooks Timber & Building Supplies	93	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Michael Moore Car Sales	89	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Murphy & Gunn	86	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Dubarry	85	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Sheridan Motor Group	81	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Noyeks	72	1	M	Men	6
				Women	0
McLoughlinsRS	59	1	M	Men	4
				Women	1
Cavanaghs of Charleville	58	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Origo	54	1	M	Men	8
				Women	0
Hyundai Cars Ireland (Lejaro Ltd)	50	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
United Hardware	40	1	M	Men	5
				Women	1
Littlewoods	23	1	W	Men	3
				Women	1
Total		Men	18	Men	69
			Women		2
		Men	90%	Men	88.5%
			Women		10%
Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives		Men	87	Men	88.8%
			Women		11

**Irish Owned SME Professional Services Companies: President, Board
Members & Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
PFH	237	1	M	Men	6
				Women	1
Grafton Recruitment	210	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
DK Donohoe	150	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Zamano	11	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0

Total	Men	4	Men	10
	Women	0	Women	3
	Men	100%	Men	76.9%
	Women	0%	Women	23.1%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	14	Men	82.4%
	Women	3	Women	17.6%

Irish Owned SME Agribusiness Companies: President, Board Members & Employee Representatives

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
McCarren Meats	237	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Callan Bacon	229	1	M	Men	2
				Women	2
Tipperary Co-Op	174	1	M	Men	11
				Women	0
Quinns of Baltinglass	173	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Moyvalley Meats	168	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Lisavaird Co-Op Creameries	143	1	M	Men	20
				Women	1
Euro Farm Food & Drink	129	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Limcor	125	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Centenary Thurles Co-Op Society	121	1	M	Men	17
				Women	2
Drinagh Co-Op	118	1	M	Men	12
				Women	1
Agri Health	104	1	M	Men	4
				Women	0
Grennans	84	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1
Ballon Meats	77	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Seskin Investments	60	1	W	Men	1
				Women	1
Corby Rock	45	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Charles R Wynne Foods	33	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
Food-Bridge	13	1	W	Men	1
				Women	1

Total	Men	15	Men	76
		2		13
	Men	93.8%	Men	83.5%
	Women	6.2%	Women	16.5%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	91	Men	85.8%
		15		14.2%

**Irish Owned SME Resources Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Circle Oil	97	1	M	Men	2
				Women	0
Jones Oil	86	1	M	Men	1
				Women	0
GP Wood	78	1	M	Men	2
				Women	1
Vale Oil	30	1	W	Men	2
				Women	0
Repak	27	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
Capital Oil Supplies	20	1	M	Men	0
				Women	1

Total	Men Women	5	Men Women	13
		1		5
	Men Women	83.3%	Men Women	72.2%
		16.7%		27.8%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	18	Men Women	75%
		6		25%

**Irish Owned SME Financial Services Companies: President, Board Members
& Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Monex	120	1	M	Men	11
				Women	2
Irish Stock Exchange	120	1	M	Men	8
				Women	1
Irish National Lottery	90	1	M	Men	3
				Women	0
Payzone	71	1	M	Men	5
				Women	0
Housing Finance Agency	11	1	W	Men	6
				Women	5

Total	Men	4	Men	33
		Women		1
	Men	80%	Men	80.5%
		Women		20%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men	37	Men	80.4%
		Women		9

**Irish Owned SME Tourism Companies: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Croke Park Stadium	43	1	M	Men	9
				Women	0

Total	Men Women	1	Men Women	9
		0		0
	Men Women	100%	Men Women	100%
		0%		0%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	10	Men Women	100%
		0		0%

**Irish Owned SME Media and Marketing Companies: President, Board
Members & Employee Representatives**

Company	Employee Numbers	Ownership	President		Members
Core Media	192	1	W	Men	7
				Women	4
Football Association of Ireland	167	1	M	Men	9
				Women	1
The RDS	100	1	M	Men	6
				Women	3
IMRO	51	1	W	Men	10
				Women	3

Total	Men Women	2	Men Women	32
		2		11
	Men Women	50%	Men Women	74.4%
		50%		25.6%

Total President, Board Members & Employee Representatives	Men Women	34	Men Women	72.3%
		13		27.7%

**Irish Owned SMEs with a Male President: President, Board Members &
Employee Representatives**

No	Sector	Men	Women
1	Construction	140	10
2	Pharma	20	1
3	Technology	55	7
4	Manufacturing	45	10
5	Energy	36	10
6	Transport	40	6
7	Food & Drink	24	5
8	Health	20	4
9	Retailing	80	8
10	Professional Services	14	3
11	Agribusiness	89	10
12	Resources	16	5
13	Financial Services	31	3
14	Tourism	10	0
15	Media & Marketing	17	4
Total		637	86
		88.1	11.9

**Irish Owned SMEs with a Female President (6 Sectors): President, Board
Members & Employee Representatives**

No	Sector	Men	Women
4	Manufacturing	4	1
9	Retailing	7	3
11	Agribusiness	2	4
12	Resources	2	1
13	Financial Services	6	6
15	Media & Marketing	17	9
Total		38	24
		61.3	38.7

**Irish Owned SMEs with a Male President (6 Sectors): President, Board
Members & Employee Representatives**

No	Sector	Men	Women
4	Manufacturing	45	10
9	Retailing	80	8
11	Agribusiness	89	10
12	Resources	16	5
13	Financial Services	31	3
15	Media & Marketing	17	4
Total		278	40
		87.4	12.6

Appendix 2: Irish SMEs Website Content Analysis

Website Content Analysis All SME Sectors

Sector	Key Word			
	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
Construction	2	7	4	8
Pharma	1	1	1	1
Technology		2	1	3
Manufacturing		1		2
Energy		1	1	1
Transport		1	1	
Food & Drink	1	1	1	1
Health	1	1	1	1
Retailing		1		2
Professional Services		1		
Agribusiness				
Resources				1
Financial Services		1		1
Tourism				1
Media & Marketing				1
Total	5	18	10	23
	3.8%	13.6%	7.6%	17.4%

Website Content Analysis Inter Rater Reliability

Sector	Key Word							
	Gender Equality		Diversity		Inclusion		Equal Opportunities Employer	
	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Researcher 1	Researcher 2	Researcher 1	Researcher 2
Construction			2	2	1	1	1	1
Pharma			1	1	1	1	1	1
Technology			1	1	1	1	1	1
Manufacturing			1	1				
Energy			1	1	1	1		
Transport			1	1	1	1		
Food & Drink	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Health			1	1	1	1	1	1
Retailing							1	1
Professional Services			1	1				
Agribusiness								
Tourism							1	1
Media & Marketing							1	1

Construction SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
1	Apc	247	(01) 2301843	www.atlanticprojects.com		1		
2	Freefoam Plastics	246	(021) 4966311	www.freefoam.ie				
3	Manley Construction	245	(041) 9823981	www.manleyconstruction.com				1
4	P.J. Hegarty	225	(01)4556270	www.pjhegarty.ie				1
5	Designer Group	202	(01) 8600520	www.designergrp.com				1
6	Wills Bros	198	(01) 6266030	www.willsbros.com				1
7	Ward & Burke Construction	169	(091) 776827	www.wardandburke.com		1		
8	DPL Group	169	(01) 2843494	www.dlp.ie				
9	Walls Group	154	(01) 8673800	www.walls.ie		1		
10	Coffey Construction	138	(091) 844356	www.coffeygroup.com				
11	Tegral Building	135	(059) 8631316	www.tegral.com				
12	Collen Construction	124	(01) 8775411	www.collen.com				1
13	Bennett	120	(044) 9346000	www.bennettconstruction.ie		1	1	1
14	Obelisk International	118	(01) 6854516	www.obelsik.com				
15	Flynn Management & Contractors	111	(01) 8503000	www.flynnmc.com				
16	Earth Tech	97	(01) 4039300	www.aecom.com				
17	Ecocem	87	(01) 6473740	www.ecocem.ie				
18	Extraspace Solutions	86	(01) 4673100	www.extraspacesolutions.com	1	1	1	1
19	M & W Group	74	(01) 6293856	www.mwgroup.net		1	1	
20	Clancy Construction	74	(052) 9152166	www.clancy.ie				
21	Stewart	70	(01) 9011290	www.stewart.ie				
22	Jons Civil Engineering	67	(041) 9823682	www.jonscivil.ie				
23	GMC Utilities	58	(01) 8649800	www.gmcirl.com	1	1	1	1
24	Mac-Interiors	52	(01) 6449650	www.mac-group.com				
25	Mythen	49	(051) 565615	www.mythenconstruction.ie				
26	Lagan Asphalts	38	(01) 8859999	www.lagonasphatgroup.com				
27	Cairn Homes	38	(01) 6964600	www.cairnhomes.com				
28	Park Developments	30	(01) 2136000	www.parkdevelopments.ie				
				Total	2	7	4	8
					7.1%	25.0%	14.3%	28.6%

Pharmaceutical SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
29	Horizon Pharma	176	(01) 4493250	www.horizonpharma.com	1	1	1	1
30	Barclay Chemical	63	(01) 8112900	www.barclay.ie				
31	C&M Vetlink	48	(061) 509800	www.cmv.ie				
32	Phardiag	32	(061) 714044					
33	National Chemical Company	31	(01) 6131400	www.ncc.ie				
				Total	1	1	1	1
					25%	25%	25%	25%

Technology SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
34	Datalex	219	(01) 8063500	www.datalex.com				
35	Fonua	217	(01) 2149223	www.fonua.com		1	1	1
36	CMS Distribution	195	(094) 9374000	www.emsdistribution.com		1		
37	Globoforce	175	(01) 9685700	www.globoforce.com				
38	Evros Technology Group	173	(01) 4396803	www.evros.ie				1
39	Cross Refrigeration	150	(01) 4511915	www.cross-group.org				
40	Scientific Games	36	(090) 6432666	www.scientificgames.com				1
41	Microwarehouse	33	(01) 6160400	www.mwh.ie				
				Total		2	1	3
					0.0%	25.0%	12.5%	37.5%

Manufacturing SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
42	Zeus Packaging	244	(01) 4018900	www.zeuspacking.com				
43	Tricel	240	(064) 6632421	www.tride.ie				
44	Moyne Roberts	222	(049) 4332477	www.moynerobers.com				
45	Siemens	213	(01) 2162000	www.siemens.com/ie		1		
46	GE Sensing	162	(061) 470200	www.ge.com/ie				1
47	Wright Medical	126	(026) 21800	www.wright.com				1
48	Waterford Stanley	101	(051) 302300	www.waterfordstanley.com				
49	Gem Plastics	87	(049) 4331077	www.gemplastics.ie				
50	Duggan Steel Group	75	(056) 7722485	www.steel.ie				
51	Cash & Carry Kitchens	65	1890 929226	www.cashandcarrykitchens.ie				
52	A.W. Ennis	45	(049) 8547588	www.awennis.ie				
				Total		1		2
					0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	1.8%

Energy SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
53	Emo Oil	167	1850 366425	www.emo.ie				1
54	FLI Group	134	(051) 353190	www.fli-group.com		1	1	
55	Maxol	80	(01) 6076800	www.maxol.ie				
56	Morgan Fuels	62	(042) 9380124	www.morganfuels.com				
57	Topaz Direct	44	(01) 2028888	www.circlek.ie				
58	NTR	34	(01) 2063700	www.ntrplc.com				
59	Morris Oil	26	(051) 643317	www.morrisoil.ie				
60	Erova	3	(01) 4744817	www.evraenergy.com				
				Total		1	1	1
					0.0%	12.5%	12.5%	12.5%

Transport SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
61	Gowan Group	224	(01) 2061677	www.gowangroup.ie				
62	Motor Services	194	(01) 4094444	www.mslgroup.ie				
63	Harris Hino	150	(01) 4194500	www.hino.ie				
64	J.A. Boland & Sons	107	(053) 9121188	www.bolandford.ie				
65	Johnson & Perrott	105	(021) 4615220	www.jpmsg.ie				
66	Motor Distributors	95	(01) 4094444	www.mslgroup.ie				
67	Denis Mahony Group	88	(01) 8322701	www.denismahony.ie				
68	Merrion Fleet Management	53	(01) 2061118	www.merrionfleet.ie				
69	Western Motors	51	(091) 709970/ (041) 9898100	www.westernmotors.ie				
70	Aer Rianta	45	(01) 9444056	www.ari.ie		1	1	
				Total		1	1	
					0.0%	10.0%	10.0%	0.0%

Food and Drink SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
71	The Barry Group	240	(022) 30100	www.barrygroup.ie				
72	Natures Best	221	(041) 9877500	www.naturesbest.ie				
73	Dairy Produce Packers	92	(028) 70325500					
74	Barry & Fitzwilliam	65	(01) 6671755	www.bandf.ie				
75	ADM Ireland	15	(01) 6797866	www.adm.com	1	1	1	1
76	Aqua Blue	4	(021) 4847477					
				Total	1	1	1	1
					25.0%	25.0%	25.0%	25.0%

Health SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
77	ArcRoyal	200	(046) 9280100	www.arcroyal.ie				
78	Bio-Medical Research	138	(091) 774300	www.bmr.ie	1		1	
79	Alere International	124	(091) 429900	www.alere.com		1	1	1
				Total	1	1	2	1
					33.3%	33.3%	66.7%	33.3%

Retailing SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
80	Power City	238	(01) 2855733	www.powercity.ie				
81	JCs Supermarket	164	(01) 8402884	www.jcsupermarket.ie				
82	Cara Pharmacy	150	(071) 9822002	www.carapharmacy.ie				
83	Ewl Electric	139	(051) 874901	www.ewl.ie				1
84	Fitzpatrick	130	(045) 5333000	www.fitzpatricksgarages.ie				
85	Kevin O'Leary Group	125	(021) 4503397	www.kevinoleary.ie				
86	Stafford Lynch	100	(01) 8023100	www.staffordlynch.ie				
87	Joyces Supermarket	100	(093) 35471	www.joycessupermarket.ie				
88	Brooks Timber & Building Supplies	93	(01) 4190000	www.brooksgroup.ie				
89	Michael Moore Car Sales	89	(090) 6474620/ (057) 8624102	www.michaelmoorcaresale.ie				
90	Murphy & Gunn	86	(01) 4068600/ (01) 2153300	www.murphyandgunn.com				
91	Dubarry	85	(090) 9642348	www.dubarry.ie				
92	Sheridan Motor Group	81	(051) 334700	www.sheridanwaterford.ie				
93	Noykes	72	(01) 4195700	www.noykes.ie				
94	McLoughlinsRS	59	(01) 8239200	www.mcl.ie				
95	Cavanaghs of Charleville	58	(063) 30300	www.cavanaghs.com				
96	Origo	54	(01) 4666700	www.origo.ie		1		1
97	Hyundai Cars Ireland (Lejaro Ltd)	50	(01) 2405621	www.hyundai.ie				
98	United Hardware	40	(01) 4611800	www.unitedhardware.ie				
99	Littlewoods	23	(01) 8112222	www.littlewoods.ie				
				Total		1		2
					0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	10.0%

Professional Services SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
100	PFH	237	(021) 2303000	www.pfh.ie				
101	Grafton Recruitment	210	(01) 8900190	www.graftonrecruitment.com		1		
102	DK Donohoe (Datapac)	150	(053) 9242555	www.datapac.com				
103	Zamano	11	(01) 5547313	www.zamano.ie				
				Total		1		
					0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Agribusiness SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
104	McCarren Meats	237	(049) 4331500	www.kpac.com				
105	Callan Bacon	229	(056) 7725144	www.callonbacon.com				
106	Tipperary Co-Op	174	(062) 33111	www.tipperary-coop.ie				
107	Quinns of Baltinglass	173	(046) 9551041	www.quinns.ie				
108	Moyvalley Meats	168	(021) 4515830	www.moyvallymeats.ie				
109	Lisavaird Co-Op Creameries	143	(023) 8833334	www.lisavairdco-op.ie				
110	Euro Farm Food & Drink	129	(041) 9880888	www.eurofarmfood.ie				
111	Limcor (Southern Mills)	125	(021) 4317321	www.southernmilling.ie				
112	Centenary Thurles Co-Op Society	121	(0504) 91900	www.centenarythurles.com				
113	Drinagh Co-Op	118	(028) 30800	www.drinagh.com				
114	Agri Health	104	(047) 71800	www.agrihealth.ie				
115	Grennans	84	(057) 9133002	www.grennans.ie				
116	Ballon Meats	77	(059) 9159132	www.ballonmeats.ie				
117	Seskin Investments (Beagleys)	60	(01) 8735833	www.beagleys.ie				
118	Corby Rock	45	(059) 6481266	www.corbyrock.ie				
119	Charles R Wynne Foods	33	(059) 8624106	www.crwynne.ie				
120	Food-Bridge	13	(021) 4515830	www.foodbridge.ie				
				Total				
					0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Resources SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
121	Circle Oil	97	(01) 4670190					
122	Jones Oil	86	(0818) 304050	www.jonesoil.ie				
123	GP Wood	78	(023) 8822500	www.gpwood.ie				
124	Vale Oil	30	(0504) 21811	www.valeoil.ie				
125	Repak	27	(061) 319366	www.repak.ie				1
126	Capital Oil Supplies	20	(01) 8786244	www.capitaloil.ie				
				Total				1
					0%	0%	0%	20%

Financial Services SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
127	Monex	120	(064) 6630650	www.monexfs.com				1
128	Irish Stock Exchange	120	(01) 6174200	www.ise.ie				
129	Irish National Lottery	90	(01) 8364444	www.lottery.ie		1		
130	Payzone	71	(01) 2076000	www.payzone.ie				
131	Housing Finance Agency	11	(01) 8725722	www.hfa.ie				
				Total		1		1
					0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	20.0%

Tourism SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
132	Croke Park Stadium	43	(01) 8192300	www.crokepark.ie				1
				Total				1
					0%	0%	0%	100%

Media and Marketing SME Organisations

No	Company	Employee Numbers	Telephone Number	Website	Gender Equality	Diversity	Inclusion	Equal Opportunities Employer
133	Core Media	192	(01) 6496316	www.onecore.ie				
134	Football Association of Ireland	167	(01) 8999500	www.fai.ie				1
135	The RDS	100	(01) 6680866	www.rds.ie				
136	IMRO	51	(01) 6614844	www.imro.ie				
				Total				1
					0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	25.0%

Appendix 3: Survey One

Survey

Section A

1. Company Name: _____

2. Please specify your job title in the organisation: _____

3. From the options below please indicate how long have you worked in the organisation:

- Less than one year
- 1-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 10 years plus

4. Please indicate if your position in the organisation is:

- Full-time
- Part-time

5. How long have you held your current position in the organisation? _____

6. For each of the following please identify:

• Your gender:

- Male
- Female
- Other – Please Specify _____

- Your age category (in years):
 - 18 – 24
 - 25 – 34
 - 35 – 44
 - 45 – 54
 - 55 – 64
 - 65 and older

- Your relationship status:
 - Single
 - Married
 - Separated
 - Divorced
 - Co-habituating
 - Widowed

Section B

7. Please identify your highest level of academic qualification achieved to date:
- Leaving Certificate (NFQ Level 4 & 5)
 - Third Level Certificate (NFQ Level 6)
 - Third Level Ordinary Degree (NFQ Level 7)
 - Third Level Honours Degree (NFQ Level 8)
 - Third Level Masters Degree (NFQ Level 9)
 - Third Level PhD Qualification (NFQ Level 10)
 - Professional Qualifications (e.g. ACCA, CIMA, EngTech, CEng)

- Other - please identify: _____

8. Since first entering the labour force have you completed any extra training or education to help progress your career?

- Yes
- No

9. If you answered **YES** to Question 8 please identify the nature of this training/education: _____

10. Does your organisation offer any training/development opportunities to employees?

- Yes
- No
- Unaware of any training/development opportunities

11. If you answered **YES** to Question 4 please identify the nature of these training/development opportunities:

- Company specific training (e.g. health & safety training, I.T. training, customer service training)
- Fully-funded external training (e.g. FETAC courses, 3rd level modules/courses)
- Part-funder external training (FETAC courses, 3rd level modules/courses)
- Other – please identify: _____

12. Have you personally availed of any training/development opportunities while employed by the organisation?

- Yes
- No

13. If you answered **YES** to Question 12 please identify:

- the nature of the training/development undertaken:

- whether you believe availing of this training has aided you in your career progression (e.g. aided in achieving promotion, higher earnings):

- Yes

- No

- if **YES** in what way do you believe the training/development has aided your career progression:

- please rank the following statements in terms of the level of importance you granted each when making the decision to undertake

	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
• Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The clarity and ease of the process to apply for training/development opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
the training/development.				

Section C

14. Does your organisation have a Board of Directors?

- Yes

how many: Male Directors _____

Female Directors _____

- No

15. How many managers are there in total in your organisation? _____

16. How many male and female senior managers are there in your organisation?

- Male _____

- Female _____

17. Are there management levels in your organisation (e.g. senior, middle, line manager)?

- Yes

how _____

many:

- No

18. Is the most senior manager in your organisation male or female?

- Male

- Female

19. The following characteristics are often associated with managers. Please indicate whether you believe each characteristic is more likely to be found in a male or female manager or both:

Characteristic	Male	Female	Both
• Showing empathy towards all employees in the organisation regardless of their position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Encouraging employees of whom they are manager to reach their full potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Assertive in demonstrating their position of power.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Creative and innovative in how tasks are to be completed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Competitive with other employees in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Ensures their dominant position in the organisation is recognised at all times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Projects a consistent self-confident image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Exhibits an authoritative role in their interactions with employees of whom they are manager at all times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. Please indicate the level of importance each of the following would have on your decision to apply for a promotion:

	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
• The compatibility of the responsibilities of the new position with existing home/family commitments.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours are structured (e.g. set starting/finishing times, ability to work from home).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of the person who previously held that position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of those in a similar position in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The level of encouragement and support received from your manager/organisation to apply for the promotion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

21. In your position as manager are you required to interview new candidates to fill vacant positions or current employees seeking promotion within your organisation?

- Yes
- No

22. Are there written job descriptions for all the roles/position in your organisation detailing the exact skills and abilities the person in that role should possess?

- Yes
- No
- Not aware of any written job descriptions

23. If you answered **YES** to Question 22 please identify:

- whether you have received any training from your organisation in conducting interviews:

- Yes
- No

- the nature of any training in conducting interviews received from your organisation:
-

24. Does your organisation have a written gender equality policy?

- Yes
- No
- Not aware of any written gender equality policy

25. Please read the following statements and indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking the appropriate response:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• My organisation places an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• As a manager I personally place an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Both men and women are visible in management roles within my organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe I have always been treated equally in my organisation based on my merits irrespective of my gender.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe in my role of manager I have always treated employees equally based on their merits irrespective of their gender.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe my gender has had a positive influence on my career progression.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe my gender makes a difference in determining whether I am promoted.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Both men and women are visible in management roles within the industry sector in which my organisation is based.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section D

26. Do you have caring responsibilities in terms of any of the following:

- Children
- Older parents
- Other dependent family members

27. If you have caring responsibilities for **children** please identify:

- the number of children you have caring responsibilities for: _____

- the type of childcare you have:
 - Full-time childminder
 - Part-time childminder
 - Full-time crèche/nursery
 - Part-time crèche/nursery
 - Family members

28. Does your organisation offer flexibility surrounding any of the following:

- | | Yes | No |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| • Working hours | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Break/lunch times | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Starting/finishing times | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Working from home | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Other flexibility offered by organisation | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

29. If you answered **YES** to any of the options in Question 28 please describe the flexibility offered by your organisation:

30. If there are flexible work-practices available in your organisation are they available to management staff?

- Yes
- No
- Unaware if they are available to management staff

31. Please read the following statements and indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking the appropriate response:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• I feel it is important to have a balance between work and life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• In general it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work with the responsibilities of family/personal life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I would feel comfortable approaching my employers about availing of a flexible work arrangement for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe using a flexible workplace arrangement (e.g. part-time schedule) would not jeopardise my chances of promotion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Within my organisation those employees using flexible working arrangements (e.g. part-time/shorter working day) are viewed as not carrying the same workload as those who do not have flexible working arrangements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe having employees on my team using flexible working arrangements would make my role as manager more difficult and add to my own workload.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- I believe those employees with children are afforded greater flexibility in the workplace than those without.

32. Do you believe that the use of flexible work-practices could possibly facilitate more women taking up management positions?

- Yes
- No

33. In your opinion would your organisation be willing to set-up flexible work-practices to facilitate more women taking up management positions?

- Yes
- No

Section E

34. In your opinion which of the values below are most appreciated within your organisation?

- Uniformity: following the established way of doing things.
- Innovation: generating new ideas and developing new ways of doing things.
- Efficiency: achieving the best results in the most efficient way possible.
- Loyalty: the organisation is the number one priority.
- Collaboration: the ability to work in a team is prioritised over the individual.
- Individualism: the uniqueness of each employee is recognised.
- Competitiveness: a high level of ambition and drive is crucial in all employees.

35. Please indicate which of the statements below you believe best describes the workplace culture of your organisation:

- Team-orientated: Informal atmosphere within the organisation where everyone works together to achieve success.
- Entrepreneurial: People are willing to take chances and new ideas are embraced by the organisation. Those employees who take risks go furthest within the organisation.
- Results orientated: Focus is on achieving desired results set by the organisation. There is a high level of competitiveness amongst employees.
- Bureaucratic: There is a structured way of doing things within the organisation and movement away from this is not encouraged.

36. Please indicate which of the statements below you believe best describes how the role of manager is viewed within your organisation:

- It is the role of a manager to facilitate and nurture employees aiding them to achieve their best possible performance.
- It is the role of a manager to be innovative and take risks to aid in the success and continued growth of the organisation.
- It is the role of a manager to drive competitiveness within the organisation, with a main focus on ensuring desired organisational outcomes are achieved.
- It is the role of a manager to provide stability by ensuring conformity to established structures and procedures within the organisation.

37. Please indicate which of the statements you believe best describes the strategic approach of your organisation:

- Emphasis is placed on employee development through the provision of training opportunities.
- Emphasis is placed on embracing new ideas and new ways of doing things.
- Emphasis is placed on meeting targets.
- Emphasis is placed on ensuring efficiency and control is maintained at all times.

38. Studies have shown that there are fewer women than men found in management roles in organisations in Ireland. Do you think that the culture found within an organisation can contribute to this gender imbalance in anyway?

- Yes
- No

39. If you answered **YES** to question 38 please explain in what ways you believe the culture found in an organisation can contribute to the gender imbalance found in management roles:

Section F

40. Below is a list of some of the most frequently offered explanations for the gender imbalance currently observed in management. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement of each explanation by ticking the appropriate response.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their career as their male colleagues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The lack of flexibility surrounding how the role of manager should be performed (e.g. the long hours involved) has resulted in fewer women in senior management positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Women with children are less capable and committed to their work than those women without children and men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The view held by society of what personality characteristics, behaviour and gender a manager/leader should possess favours male managers/leaders over female managers/leaders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of those already holding management positions in an organisation (i.e. if all or almost all existing managers are male) may negatively impact on the opportunities for women to progress within that organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

41. From your own experience working in management what do you believe is the cause of the gender imbalance observed in senior management and on Boards of Directors?

42. In your opinion whose responsibility is it to ensure that both men and women have equal opportunities in the workplace:

- Government
- Individual Organisations
- Both

43. The introduction of mandatory quotas (i.e. a minimum percentage of board of management/manager positions must be reserved for women) is often proposed as a possible solution for the gender imbalance found in management positions. What is your opinion on this?

44. Do you believe that ensuring equal opportunities for both male and female employees, particularly in relation to promotion, should be a major consideration for all SME organisations as they grow?

- Yes
- No

45. Would you support the introduction of a government policy to provide state support to reward those SME organisations who promote women into senior management?

- Yes
- No

46. From your own experience in management do you have any thoughts on what can be done to achieve a greater gender balance in management in Irish SME organisations?

Thank You For Your Time In Completing This Survey

Appendix 4: Survey Two

Survey

Section A

1. In terms of your current (or your previous employment) are/were you:

- An employee of the organisation
- An owner of the organisation
- A junior manager
- A senior manager
- A director

2. Please select the approximate number of employees in the organisation:

- Less than 10 employees
- 11-50 employees
- 51-250 employees
- More than 251 employees

3. Please specify your current (or most recent) job title in the organisation:

4. Please identify what sector best describes your organisations activities:

- | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| • Construction | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Health | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Pharma | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Retailing | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Manufacturing | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Professional Services | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Energy | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Agribusiness | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Transport | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Resources | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Food & Drink | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Financial Services | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Tourism | <input type="checkbox"/> | • Media & Marketing | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- Other _____

5. From the options below please indicate how long have you worked in your most recent employment:

- Less than one year
- 1-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 10 years plus

6. Please indicate if your position in the organisation is/was:

- Full-time
- Part-time

7. How long have you held your current position in the organisation?

8. For each of the following please identify:

• Your gender:

- Male
- Female
- Other – Please Specify _____

• Your age category (in years):

- 18 – 24
- 25 – 34
- 35 – 44
- 45 – 54
- 55 – 64
- 65 and older

- Your relationship status:

- Single
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced
- Co-habituating
- Widowed

Section B

- 9.** Please identify your highest level of academic qualification achieved to date:

- Leaving Certificate (NFQ Level 4 & 5)
- Third Level Certificate (NFQ Level 6)
- Third Level Ordinary Degree (NFQ Level 7)
- Third Level Honours Degree (NFQ Level 8)
- Third Level Masters Degree (NFQ Level 9)
- Third Level PhD Qualification (NFQ Level 10)
- Professional Qualifications (e.g. ACCA, CIMA, EngTech, CEng)
- Other - please identify: _____

- 10.** Since first entering the labour force have you completed any extra training or education to help progress your career?

- Yes
- No

11. If you answered **YES** to Question 10 please identify the nature of this training/education: _____

12. Does/Did your organisation offer any training/development opportunities to employees?

- Yes
- No
- Unaware of any training/development opportunities

13. If you answered **YES** to Question 12 please identify the nature of these training/development opportunities:

- Company specific training (e.g. health & safety training, I.T. training, customer service training)
- Fully-funded external training (e.g. FETAC courses, 3rd level modules/courses)
- Part-funder external training (FETAC courses, 3rd level modules/courses)
- Other – please identify: _____

14. Have/Did you avail of any training/development opportunities while employed by the organisation?

- Yes
- No

15. If you answered **YES** to Question 14 please identify:

- The nature of the training/development undertaken:

- Do you believe availing of this training has aided you in your career progression (e.g. aided in achieving promotion, higher earnings):

- Yes

- No

- If **YES** in what way do you believe the training/development has aided your career progression:

- Please rank the following statements in terms of the level of importance you granted each when making the decision to undertake the training/development.

	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
• Anticipated future benefit the training/development would have for my career.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Time constraints were a factor for me pursuing further training.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The clarity and ease of the process to apply for training/development opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section C

16. Does/did your organisation have a Board of Directors?

- Yes

Please specify the number of : Male Directors _____

Female Directors _____

- No

17. Are/Were there management levels in your organisation (e.g. senior, middle, line manager)?

- Yes

how many: _____

- No

18. How many managers are/were there in total in your organisation?

19. How many male and female senior managers are/were there in your organisation?

- Male _____

- Female _____

20. Is/Was the most senior manager in your organisation male or female?

- Male

- Female

21. The following characteristics are often associated with managers. Please indicate whether you believe each characteristic is more likely to be associated with a male or female manager or both:

Characteristic	Male	Female	Both
• Showing empathy towards all employees in the organisation regardless of their position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Encouraging subordinate employees to reach their full potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Assertive in demonstrating their position of power.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Creative and innovative in how tasks are to be completed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Competitive with other employees in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Ensures their dominant position in the organisation is recognised at all times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Projects a consistent self-confident image.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Exhibits an authoritative role in their interactions with employees of whom they are manager at all times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Please indicate the level of importance each of the following would have on your decision to apply for a promotion:

	No Importance	Little Importance	Important	Very Important
• The compatibility of the responsibilities of the new position with existing home/family commitments.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The working hours associated with the new position and the flexibility in how those hours are structured (e.g. set starting/finishing times, ability to work from home).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of the person who previously held that position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of those in a similar position in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The level of encouragement and support received from your manager/organisation to apply for the promotion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. Are/Were you in the past required in your role in the organisation to interview new candidates to fill vacant positions or current employees seeking promotion within your organisation?

- Yes
- No

24. Are/Were there written job descriptions for all the roles/position in your organisation detailing the exact skills and abilities the person in that role should possess?

- Yes
- No
- Not aware of any written job descriptions

25. If you answered **YES** to Question 23 please identify:

- Whether you received any training from your organisation in conducting interviews:

- Yes
- No

- The nature of any training in conducting interviews received from your organisation:

26. Does/Did your organisation have a written gender equality policy?

- Yes
- No
- Not aware of any written gender equality policy

27. Please read the following statements and indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking the appropriate response:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• My organisation places/placed an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I personally place an importance on promoting gender equality in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Gender balance across management levels is important in the SME sector.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Both men and women are/were visible in management roles within my organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• There is a growing awareness of the importance of gender balance at management level in the SME sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe I have been/was always treated equally in my organisation based on my merits irrespective of my gender.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe I have always treated other employees equally based on their merits irrespective of their gender.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe my gender has had a positive influence on my career progression.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe my gender makes a difference in determining whether I am promoted.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Both men and women are/were visible in management roles within the industry sector in which my organisation is/was based.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section D

28. Do you have caring responsibilities in terms of any of the following:

- Children
- Older parents
- Other dependent family members

29. If you have caring responsibilities for **children** please identify:

- the number of children you have caring responsibilities for: _____
- the type of childcare you have:
 - Full-time childminder
 - Part-time childminder
 - Full-time crèche/nursery
 - Part-time crèche/nursery
 - Family members

30. Does/Did your organisation offer flexibility surrounding any of the following:

- | | Yes | No |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| • Working hours | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Break/lunch times | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Starting/finishing times | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Working from home | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| • Other flexibility offered by organisation | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

31. If you answered **YES** to any of the options in Question 30 please describe the flexibility offered by your organisation:

32. If there are/were flexible work-practices available in your organisation are they available to management staff?

- Yes
- No
- Unaware if they are available to management staff

33. Please read the following statements and indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by ticking the appropriate response:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• I feel it is important to have a balance between work and life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• In general it can be difficult to manage the responsibilities of work with the responsibilities of family/personal life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I would feel comfortable approaching my employers about availing of a flexible work arrangement for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe using a flexible workplace arrangement (e.g. part-time schedule) would not jeopardise my chances of promotion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Within my organisation those employees using flexible working arrangements (e.g. part-time/shorter working day) are/were viewed as not carrying the same workload as those who do not have flexible working arrangements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• I believe having employees on my team using flexible working arrangements would/did increase my own workload.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- I believe those employees with children are/were afforded greater flexibility in the workplace than those without.

34. Do you believe that the use of flexible work-practices could possibly facilitate more women taking up management positions?

- Yes
- No

35. In your opinion would your organisation be/have been willing to set-up flexible work-practices to facilitate more women taking up management positions?

- Yes
- No

Section E

36. In your opinion which of the values below are/were most appreciated within your organisation?

- Uniformity: following the established way of doing things.
- Innovation: generating new ideas and developing new ways of doing things.
- Efficiency: achieving the best results in the most efficient way possible.
- Loyalty: the organisation is the number one priority.
- Collaboration: the ability to work in a team is prioritised over the individual.
- Individualism: the uniqueness of each employee is recognised.
- Competitiveness: a high level of ambition and drive is crucial in all employees.

37. Please indicate which of the statements below you believe best describes the workplace culture of the organisation:

- Team-orientated: Informal atmosphere within the organisation where everyone works together to achieve success.
- Entrepreneurial: People are willing to take chances and new ideas are embraced by the organisation. Those employees who take risks go furthest within the organisation.
- Results orientated: Focus is on achieving desired results set by the organisation. There is a high level of competitiveness amongst employees.

- Bureaucratic: There is a structured way of doing things within the organisation and movement away from this is not encouraged.

38. Please indicate which of the statements below you believe best describes how the role of manager is/was viewed within the organisation:

- It is the role of a manager to facilitate and nurture employees aiding them to achieve their best possible performance.
- It is the role of a manager to be innovative and take risks to aid in the success and continued growth of the organisation.
- It is the role of a manager to drive competitiveness within the organisation, with a main focus on ensuring desired organisational outcomes are achieved.
- It is the role of a manager to provide stability by ensuring conformity to established structures and procedures within the organisation.

39. Please indicate which of the statements you believe best describes/described the strategic approach of the organisation:

- Emphasis is placed on employee development through the provision of training opportunities.
- Emphasis is placed on embracing new ideas and new ways of doing things.
- Emphasis is placed on meeting targets.
- Emphasis is placed on ensuring efficiency and control is maintained at all times.

40. Studies have shown that there are fewer women than men found in management roles in organisations in Ireland. Do you think that the culture found within an organisation can contribute to this gender imbalance in anyway?

• Yes

• No

41. If you answered **YES** to question 40 please explain in what ways you believe the culture found in an organisation can contribute to the gender imbalance found in management roles:

Section F

42. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement for each statement by ticking the appropriate response.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
• Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, invest less in their education and the time they spend in the labour market.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Women compared to men are more educated in the softer HR field compared to the financial field	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Women, due to childcare and other domestic responsibilities, are not as interested in progressing in their career as their male colleagues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The lack of flexibility surrounding how the role of manager should be performed (e.g. the long hours involved) has resulted in fewer women in senior management positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Women with children are less capable and committed to their work than those women without children and men.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The view held by society of what personality characteristics, behaviour and gender a manager/leader should possess favours male managers/leaders over female managers/leaders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The gender of those already holding management positions in an organisation (i.e. if all or almost all existing managers are male) may negatively impact on the opportunities for women to progress within that organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

43. From your own experiences what do you believe is the cause of the gender imbalance observed in senior management and on Boards of Directors?

44. In your opinion whose responsibility is it to ensure that both men and women have equal opportunities in the workplace:

- Government
- Individual Organisations
- Both

45. The introduction of mandatory quotas (i.e. a minimum percentage of board of management/manager positions must be reserved for women) is often proposed as a possible solution for the gender imbalance found in management positions. What is your opinion on this?

46. Do you prefer the use of:

- Voluntary Targets
- Mandatory Quotas

47. Do you believe that ensuring equal opportunities for both male and female employees, particularly in relation to promotion, should be a major consideration for all SME organisations as they grow?

- Yes
- No

48. Would you support the introduction of a government policy to provide state support to reward those SME organisations who promote women into senior management?

- Yes
- No

49. From your own experience in management do you have any thoughts on what can be done to achieve a greater gender balance in management in Irish SME organisations?

Thank You For Your Time In Completing This Survey

Appendix 5: Application Form for Ethical Clearance



**Application to the IT Carlow Research Ethics Committee for
Ethical Approval of a Research Project involving Human Participants or
samples donated by Human Participants (e.g. tissue or blood samples)
(FORM REC2-L9(R)/ L10)**

Applicants are advised to submit any supporting documentation they may feel is relevant to their research proposal (e.g. sample interview schedules, consent forms, third party licenses or ethical approvals).

A. Applicant Details

A.1 Researcher Details:

Name: Aisling Gartland
Email: aisling.gartland@itcarlow.ie
Telephone: 059 9175976

A.2 Principal Investigator / Research Supervisor(s):

Name: Dr. Fiona Burke
Email: fiona.burke@itcarlow.ie
Telephone: 059 9175331

A.3 Additional Expertise (if applicable)

Name: Dominic Burke
Email: dominic.burke@itcarlow.ie
Telephone: 059 9175330

- A.4** Does this research form part of a programme of study? Yes No
 If yes – please give details

Masters of Business by Research – IT Carlow, President’s Research Fellowship Award.

- A.5** I confirm that I have read and understood the following IT Carlow Policies:

Ethics Policy Yes No

Ethics Procedures and Guidance notes

On completing this form Yes No

Data Protection Policy Yes No

Anti-Plagiarism Policy Yes No

B. Research Proposal

B.1 Title of the proposed research project

An investigation of the causes of gender imbalance at decision making levels of both domestic & foreign owned businesses in Ireland and the extent to which these causes are reinforced by existing policy and business culture.

B.2 To what extent has this topic already been researched and written about (e.g. is there a significant body of existing published work)?

Gender equality within organisations, particularly at the various management levels, is a subject which has been gaining academic attention since the early 1970s. The initial assumption held in the literature was that as the number of women entering the workplace increased overtime, gender imbalance would organically dissipate (Moss- Kanter, 1977; Ely 1994; Simpson, 2000 and Cross 2010). As

this prediction did not materialise it has, therefore, lead to a significant body of research work theorising the possible causes of gender imbalance and why it has failed to organically dissipate overtime (Marshall, 1984; Diamond, 1991; Martin, 1993; Serini, Toth, Wright & Emig, 1998; Wicks & Bradshaw, 1999; Simpson, 2000; Rutherford, 2001; True, 2003; Wood, 2009 and Cross, 2010). Research efforts have focussed on ascertaining the extent and causes of the barriers facing women in what should be a natural progression through the organisational management levels (Simpson 2001; Rutherford, 2001; Lewis, 2001 Cross & Linehan, 2006; Schein, 2007; Straub, 2007; Wood, 2009 and Murphy & Doherty, 2011). Nevertheless, despite clear beneficial grounds for engaging in greater gender balance as documented by the World Bank (2011), Black and Brainerd (2004), Oostendorp (2009) and Pearson (2010) organisations have thus far failed to engage in greater gender balance throughout their management levels (Black & Brainard, 2004; Rees, 2005; Oostendorp, 2009; Treanor & Henry, 2010; Vilke, Raisiene & Simanavicine, 2014 and Ali & Konrad, 2017).

Further to published academic research, there is also substantial material on gender equity and achieving gender balance in the workplace which has been, and continues to be, undertaken by various official bodies. These include reports from the OECD, the EIGE, the World Bank, the IMF and the UN. These reports, most produced annually, examine the statistics and trends relating to women in the workplace. Furthermore, they offer analysis on the economic benefits of achieving gender equity (EU, 2009) and as well as the benefits to the organisation itself (World Bank, 2011).

B.3 From that, describe how this proposed research is contributing to what is known about the topic

Despite several studies namely by the World Bank (2011), Black and Brainerd (2004), Oostendorp (2009) and Pearson (2010), showing tangible and measurable benefits to engaging in greater gender balance, women in Ireland, despite some improvements, continue to be underrepresented in the key decision making positions in companies (DCU 2016). A research report commissioned under the Swedish Presidency of the European Union (EU) in 2009 estimated that if true gender equality were achieved in the European Union, then EU Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has the potential to grow by 27 per cent. The Swedish study estimated that the impact in Ireland could be an increase of 35 per cent in GDP. International studies show that organisations with a good gender-balance in senior leadership positions and on Boards tend to perform better than those who do not (e.g. McKinsey, Catalyst, Credit Suisse, etc). This research, along with others, which has been highlighted by international actors such as the OECD and by the European institutions shows that there are tangible and measurable benefits to better gender-balance including: increased labour productivity; enhanced governance and performance; improved corporate image, both for internal and external customers; higher return on investment; greater ability to attract and retain the best talent; increased workplace innovation; and a reduction in employee turnover.

This study will build on the existing body of national and international literature in this field by examining the extent of Irish gender imbalance at decision making levels in Irish owned versus foreign owned companies, taking into consideration the effects of local policy, prevailing business culture and business practices. There is a gap in the literature exploring differences between indigenous and foreign owned companies.

B.4 Provide a brief description of research (*not more than 200 words in any section*)

a) The aims and objectives

- (i) To measure the extent of gender imbalance at decision making levels in the Irish workforce taking into consideration corporate sector, size and ownership type.
- (ii) To identify and evaluate the primary causes of gender imbalance at decision making levels in the Irish workforce taking into consideration corporate sector, size and ownership particularly differences between Irish owned and foreign owned entities.
- (iii) To evaluate if the causes identified in objective (ii) are reinforced by local policy, prevailing business culture and business practices.
- (iv) To make policy recommendations to alleviate gender imbalance.

b) The research design

(Note: This section can include an overview of methodology research design proposals regarding for example, evaluation and data gathering. In describing the research design, applicants are required to explain the reasoning behind their choice of method)

The main hypothesis of this study is that gender imbalance of employees exists at decision making levels in the Irish workforce. The thesis will investigate the causes of this imbalance using a mixed methods approach predominately based on qualitative methodology.

Five main decision making levels will be examined, four of these have been used in DCU research to produce the Women in Leadership Report 2016. To ensure consistency of findings and facilitate comparisons similar units of analysis will be used. These layers of decision making are as follows:

- i. CEO / Head of Operations in the Republic of Ireland (The highest-ranking individual in the organisation. Bears ultimate responsibility for organisational performance.)
- ii. Executive Director (Is generally one level down from the Ireland CEO. Is generally accountable for the performance and results of a large and strategically important division, business unit or function.)
- iii. Manager Level 1 (Is generally two levels down from the Ireland CEO. Is generally accountable for the performance and results of multiple units or a large functional area, department or region.)
- iv. Manager Level 2 (Is generally three levels down from the Ireland CEO. Generally, manages professional employees and/or supervisors, or supervises technical, business support or production activities.)
- v. Female membership of corporate boards. The research will also include a fifth level focusing on female membership of corporate boards.

A qualitative methodology will be used in the research project. First, questionnaires will be designed and piloted before being administered to a selected sample of Irish Times Top 1000 companies. A content analysis will be conducted to extract the main causes, as identified, of gender imbalance and to document and measure the effects of local policy, business culture and business practices. In addition focus group meetings will be used to identify and evaluate the main causes of gender imbalance.

c) The size and composition of sample

Three samples will be used in this study:

- i. The size of the first sample will be 200 top performing corporations randomly chosen from the 'The Irish Times Top

1000 Companies (2017)' sampling frame. The composition of the sample will be such that 50 percent of companies will be classified as Group I Irish owned and 50 percent Group II foreign owned. Groups I and II will be statistically analysed using SPSS by industry type and size to facilitate comparisons.

- ii. Two separate focus group meetings with a sample of 50 women in each sample will be taken from two business groups (i) Irish Women in Business and (ii) Network Ireland. The focus group meetings will be used to explore the experiences of female managers in Ireland. A content analysis will be conducted on the minutes of both group meetings to evaluate the experiences of female managers in the Irish workplace and to evaluate the role of local business culture and prevailing culture.

d) The method of how participants are expected to be selected, approached and recruited in conducting this proposed research?

(Note: The process of participant selection is required to be outlined clearly. If for example, participants are being contacted through an organisation, e.g. Faculty/Campus, an initial step would be to seek permission from the organisation to approach the participants. Any inclusion or exclusion criteria must also be specified.

- i. Secondary research shall be conducted utilising published statistical data from the European Institute of Gender Equality (EIGE). This data will provide a measurement of the gender imbalance at decision making levels existing in Ireland.
- ii. Where information is not readily available in the EIGE statistical database corporate information will be gathered through the completion of a survey with the aim of providing information on the gender balance of employees at the five previously identified decision-making levels. The companies will be randomly chosen from the 'Irish Times Top 1000 Companies (2017)'. The companies shall initially be invited to participate in the research by letter using the recommended

letter template design in the IT Carlow Policy Statement on Ethics in Research.

- iii. Information shall also be gathered from non-sensitive company documents related to the research such as: equality policy statements, employee handbooks and mission statements. This shall be done with the purpose of ascertaining what policies the company has in place to ensure gender equity and compliance with current discrimination legislation.
- iv. It is intended that the focus groups be organised through collaboration with co-ordinators within both business groups; (i) Irish Women in Business and (ii) Network Ireland. Contact shall be made initially by phone, after which usage will be made of e-mail. Members of both organisations shall be invited to participate in an open meeting to discuss their experiences as women in business.

- e) Describe the procedures that will be adopted to maintain the confidentiality of research subject(s).

In order to ensure the confidentiality of the participants is maintained throughout the research process, compliance with the legal requirements set down in the Data Protection Act 1988-2003, along with any subsequent applicable legislation, will be maintained through the following process:

- Any data relating to the participants shall only be kept for the purpose of this research only.
- The data shall only be available to researcher and the researchers' supervisors as listed in Part A of this application form.
- Each company shall be assigned a code, e.g. company (A) company (B) etc., to preserve their anonymity.
- The name of the company, along with their assigned code shall only appear on one legend database sheet which will be held on a password protected desktop computer located in a locked

office, which is only accessible with a registered card, in The Dargan Centre building in IT Carlow.

- Any information which could potentially lead to the identification of any participant shall not be released to any individual unconnected to the research. However, the researcher shall use the information resulting from the analysis of the data collected in a dissertation and other publications. Any information used in publication will not identify either the company or any individual participants. Any video or audio recordings produced during the research shall not be viewed by anyone unconnected with the research without written permission from the individuals contained in the video/audio recordings.
- All data shall be kept safe and secure. This will be on a password protected desktop computer located in a locked office, which is only accessible with a registered card, in The Dargan Centre building in IT Carlow.
- Data shall not be kept longer than is necessary, i.e. until all relevant/associated outputs have been completed, e.g. thesis, conference papers. This period shall be no longer than five years, unless a further application is made to the ethics committee for an extension to facilitate further studies.
- Data shall be destroyed through a shredder machine and sent to the landfill for disposal.

f) Will any member of the intended group of research subjects, to your knowledge, be involved in other research projects or activities? If so, please give details and explain the nature of the engagement with other projects.

To my knowledge they will not be involved in other research projects.

- g) Describe how the information is gathered, stored, handled and anonymised.

Company

- Each company shall be assigned a code, e.g. company (A) company (B) etc., to preserve their anonymity.
- The name of the company, along with their assigned code shall only appear on one legend database sheet which will be held on a password protected desktop computer located in a locked office, which is only accessible with a registered card, in The Dargan Centre building in IT Carlow.
- Data shall not be kept longer than is necessary, i.e. until all relevant/associated outputs have been completed, e.g. thesis, conference papers. This period shall be no longer than five years, unless a further application is made to the ethics committee for an extension to facilitate further studies.
- Data shall be destroyed through a shredder machine and sent to the landfill for disposal.

Focus Groups

- The names of the participants shall not be used in the focus groups and shall, therefore, not be contained in any transcripts of the discussion.
- Any video or audio recordings produced during the research shall not be viewed by anyone unconnected with the research without written permission from the individuals contained in the video/audio recordings.
- Data shall not be kept longer than is necessary, i.e. until all relevant/associated outputs have been completed, e.g. thesis, conference papers. This period shall be no longer than five years, unless a further application is made to the ethics committee for an extension to facilitate further studies.
- Data shall be destroyed through a shredder machine and sent to the landfill for disposal.

- h) Please state how long participant data is to be retained for before being destroyed and the proposed method of destruction.

- No data shall not be kept longer than is necessary, i.e. until all relevant/associated outputs have been completed, e.g. thesis, conference papers. This period shall be no longer than five years, unless a further application is made to the Institute of Technology Carlow, Ethics Committee, for an extension to facilitate further studies. Data shall be destroyed through a shredder machine and sent to the landfill for disposal.

- i) If your research involves the taking of samples (e.g. blood, tissue etc.), please state clearly exactly how this is to be performed, how those samples will be stored, how and when they will be disposed of.

N/A

- j) Please state whether participants are to be given the opportunity to access the results of the research and how this will be achieved.

All participants shall be given the opportunity to access the findings of this research. All consent forms shall contain the following option:

'Should you require a copy of the findings of this research please provide a contact e-mail or postal address.'

- k) Please state the location(s) the proposed research is to be conducted

The research is being carried out in the Dargan Centre Building at the IT Carlow.

- l) The proposed starting date of research/ study

The research project started on the 4th September 2017 and data collection is expected to start before Summer 2018.

B.5 Has this research proposal received ethical approval from any other body? – if so please provide details.

No ethical approval from any other body has been received.

B.6 Does this proposed research require licensing approval? – if so please provide details of licenses obtained.

The research does not require any other form of Third Party Authority.

B.7 Describe the research procedures as they affect the research subject and any other parties involved.

Companies participating in the quantitative aspect of this research shall be asked to complete a survey. The survey responses shall be kept anonymous. It is expected that participants should be able to complete the survey within 30-40 minutes. Companies shall be asked questions regarding their approach to gender equality and the policies relating to gender equality which exist within that organisation. The survey will be typed as a Microsoft Word document which will allow for responses to be complete by the company and returned by e-mail. It shall be made clear to all participants that their participation is voluntary and they may choose to answer only questions which they feel comfortable answering.

This research shall also utilise focus groups to gain the prospective of female managers in Ireland on the barriers identified in the literature which a women may encounter in their advancement through the management levels. A focus group is a group of people brought together to give their opinions on a particular issue or product (Collins English Dictionary, 2018). No question shall be asked to intentionally cause hurt or upset in any way to any participant. Should participants of the focus group find that the discussion taking place is one which is in any way upsetting to them, or make them feel uncomfortable, they shall be made fully aware that they are under no obligation to continue in the focus group. In the event of any

participant experiencing a negative or emotive response to the issues being discussed during the focus group information in relation to the relevant support groups and government bodies shall be readily available, for example the Irish Human Rights and Equality Commission (IHREC), the Workplace Relations Commission (WRC) and local counselling services. This shall be communicated to all participants both in the consent form and prior to the commencement of the focus group. Furthermore, it shall be made clear to the participants that their participation in the focus group is completely voluntary and they may choose to leave at any time. This shall be communicated to each participant both in the consent form and again before the focus group begins. It is estimated that the focus group shall have a duration of no more than 1 hour. It shall be made clear to all participants that their participation in the focus group shall be anonymous.

B.8 Describe (a) the ethical considerations of this proposal and (b) the steps to be taken to address these.

As the research does not envisage the inclusion of any vulnerable persons it is believed that it, therefore, contains minimal risk to the participants. However, there are four areas which have been identified as possible ethical concerns.

1. Harm to Participants: This could occur through any breach of confidentiality. In response to this the following controls have been put in place.
 - The Institute of Technology Carlow Policy and Procedures on Ethics in Research (2015) code recommendations for business research shall be followed.
 - All reasonable steps shall be taken to ensure confidentiality and anonymity is maintained at all times.
 - Participants shall be consulted throughout the research to ensure that they are conformable with the responses submitted.

- Participants shall be fully aware of their right to withdraw from the research at any point, without any consequence.
 - All consideration and care shall be taken to devise questions which will not intentionally cause any hurt, or embarrassment, to participants.
2. Lack of Informed Consent: Informed consent shall be sought from each participant before any research commences. This shall be achieved by:
- Providing each possible participant with a detailed information sheet outlining the purpose of the research, how the data provided will be processed and assuring them of complete compliance with the Data Protection Act 1988-2003.
 - A separate consent form will be presented to each participant.
 - A period of time will be allowed between the presentation of the information sheet and the seeking of consent to allow the participants' time to consider their involvement in the research.
 - Each participant will be made aware that there is no obligation on them to participate in the research.
3. Invasion of Privacy: All reasonable methods will be taken by the research to ensure that the privacy and confidentiality of the participants is maintained at all times. This shall be achieved by:
- No participant shall be named in any transcript. Codes shall be assigned to each company in replace of the company's name.
 - No information provided by a participant shall be made available to any third party, unless by their expressed request.

- All electronically held data will be will be held on a password protected desktop computer located in a locked office, which is only accessible with a registered card, in The Dargan Centre building in IT Carlow.
4. Deception: The research shall not at any time be presented as something other than what it is.

B.9 Please list the investigators (including assistants) who will conduct the research. Please provide details of their qualifications and experience

There are three investigators (including assistants) involved in the research.

1. Aisling Gartland
 - BBus (hons) Business with Law
 - Currently Masters by Research Student at I.T. Carlow
2. Dr. Fiona Burke
 - PhD, BA
 - Lecturer in the School of Business and Humanities
3. Dominic Burke
 - M.Litt, MA, BA
 - Lecturer in School of Business and Humanities

B.10 Are arrangements for the provision of clinical facilities to handle emergencies necessary? If so, briefly describe the arrangements made.

No such facilities are required.

B.11 Specify whether research subjects include learners or others in a dependent relationship.

No dependent relationship exists.

B.12 Specify whether the research will include primary respondents such as children, individuals with mental health issues, individuals deemed to be of diminished responsibility, individuals with a physical or intellectual disability. If so, please explain the rationale for accessing these subjects for the proposed research. Please indicate alternative measures investigated to avoid the necessity for direct access to these primary respondents.

No such individuals are involved in the research.

B.13 Please confirm that no payment will be made to any research subject

No payment shall be made to any research subject.

B.14 Describe the procedures to be used in obtaining a valid consent from the subject. Please supply a copy of the information sheet provided to the individual subject(s).

Informed consent shall be sought from each participant before any research commences. This shall be achieved by:

- Providing each possible participant with a consent form outlining the purpose of the research, how the data provide will be processed and assuring them of complete compliance with the Data Protection Act 1988-2003.
- A separate consent form will be presented to each participant.
- A period of time will be allowed between the presentation of the information sheet and the seeking of consent to allow the participants' time to consider their involvement in the research.
- Each participant will be made aware that there is not obligation on them to participate in the research.

B.15 Please indicate if there are any cultural, social, gender-based characteristics or sexual orientation, practices or behaviour of the subject(s) which have affected the design of the project or which may affect its outcomes.

This research project aims to examine the causes of vertical gender segregation. The research undertaken shall be in two parts. The first involves the examination of the gender imbalance existing at decision making levels in businesses in Ireland.

Part two of the research project involves focus groups of with a random selection of research participants in order to create a sample of participants for the focus groups two organisations, which all women in business in Ireland have the opportunity to join, were chosen. While every effort has been made to be wholly inclusive, in regard to age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, cultural beliefs and family status, I am aware that I am limited in possible participants to the demographics of the memberships of these organisations. Additionally, I am limited further to the demographics of only those members who chose to consent to participate in the research. Therefore, this research shall only be representative of the experience of female managers in Ireland, in regard to age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, cultural beliefs and family status, of those women who consent to participate.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Researcher

Signed: _____

Date _____

(Principal Investigator Supervisor)

**REVIEWER COMMENT IF APPLICABLE FROM HEAD OF
DEPARTMENT/GROUP/ INSTITUTE/FACULTY/CAMPUS**

Signed: _____ **Date** _____

(Head of Department/Group/CORE/Institute/Faculty/Campus)

Appendix 6: Invitation E-mail for Survey Participation

Dear Sir/Madam,

You are invited to participate in a research study that examines a manager's perspective and experience at decision making levels in SME organisations in Ireland. Your organisation was selected for this study from the Irish Times Top 1000 Performing Irish Companies 2017. This study is being conducted by Aisling Gartland under the supervision of Dr. Fiona Burke and Mr. Dominic Burke, from the Department of Business at the Institute of Technology Carlow. This research will inform a thesis for a Masters of Business by Research. The information collected in this study will provide a more general understanding of the experiences of male and female managers in Irish owned SME organisations.

This survey and all data collected is confidential. No person other than the researchers involved will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study. No individual information about any participant will be disclosed with publication. The questionnaire will take about 15 minutes. Your participation in this study is voluntary. By completing the survey, you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason. It would also be appreciated if you could forward this survey on to other managers in your organisation who you feel may be interested in completing it.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact:

Aisling Gartland,
Dargan Centre,
IT Carlow,
Kilkenny Road,
Carlow.

(059) 9175976

aisling.gartland@itcarlow.ie

Dr. Fiona Burke,
Dept. of Sports, Media & Marketing,
IT Carlow,
Kilkenny Road,
Carlow.

(059) 9175331

fiona.burke@itcarlow.ie

Mr. Dominic Burke,
Dept. of Business,
IT Carlow,
Kilkenny Road,
Carlow.

059) 9175330

dominic.burke@itcarlow.ie

Thank you for your time and your participation in this research study. Your support is greatly appreciated.