

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

MASTER'S THESIS

**FEMALE PROGRESSION TO MANAGERIAL POSITIONS IN THE
TELECOMMUNICATION INDUSTRY IN MACEDONIA**

Ljubljana, September 2016

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AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

It has been shown that equal or even higher managerial experience and professional education do not seem to lead women to senior management positions to the same extent as in the case of men (Ogenyi & Victoria, 2004). While, according to Davy (2008), the overall position of women has improved in the first decade of the 21st century, executive and senior managerial positions are still predominantly reserved for men. The survey conducted by Grant Thornton (2013) underpins this statement by finding that 40% of the companies around the world do not have women in senior management positions.

Furthermore, Lyness and Heiman (2006) argue that women are represented mostly in the junior and the middle management positions in the UK and the USA; nonetheless, there is a certain lack of their representation in the senior positions. It has been confirmed by Lopez-Carlos and Zahidi (2005) that a very small portion of women has been promoted to senior positions. In addition, when discussing the issue of female managerial progression, Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009) note that it has been of great interest to many researchers, many of whom mostly claim that for many ambitious women, family responsibilities have been the greatest obstacle while climbing up the career ladder.

According to the study conducted by the World Economic Forum, the gender gap is the smallest in the Northern European Countries such as Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Iceland, as well as New Zealand (Greig, Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2006). One would be surprised that some of the most advanced countries such as the USA, the UK, and Australia did not find their place in the leading countries in terms of the gender gap. However, one should note that this is only a relative ranking of the countries, but none of them has actually reached gender equality. The same authors argue that it is even more obvious when the gender gap in the decision making power is assessed.

The purpose of this thesis is to increase our overall understanding on the female progression barriers in Macedonia. Therefore, the main goal of this thesis is to assess which barriers as regards women career progression in the telecommunication industry in Macedonia exist, and, in addition, to evaluate whether the situation has improved in the recent period. The main idea will be to, via a survey, ask respondents to answer questions related to their views on barriers suggested by theoretical literature. To be precise, the respondents will provide their assessment by ranking the order of importance of each of the following barriers:

- Glass ceiling effect (prejudices towards women, etc.);
- Organisational barriers in terms of career development (adequateness of mentoring, career planning, and talent development opportunities);
- Family responsibility (the effect of job on the work-life balance and the importance of flexibility of job design). With this, additional goals of the thesis are to:

- Conduct a literature review on the barriers women face while climbing the corporate ladder, and
- Identify potential recommendations for the improvement of the female progression opportunities.

Therefore, the research question is: What kind of barriers affect the progression of women to the managerial positions in the telecommunication industry in Macedonia?

This goal will be achieved by meeting the following research objectives:

- RQ1: Which barriers are the most important in the perception of female employees in the telecommunication sector (among the theoretical ones as follows: opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers, and limited opportunity to socialize)?
- RQ2: What is the perception of the progression opportunities of the females in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia?

This study seeks to address the gap pertaining to the knowledge that is perceived with regard to barriers hindering the female progression in Macedonia. Actually, overall, very few studies on gender equality have been conducted in Macedonia, and the very few were rather focused on the equality at the country level (Kazandziska et al. 2012) or on the legal and political aspects of gender equality and the governmental efforts to establish it (Raleva & Dimitrijevska, 2013). In contrast, the present study aims to create an understanding of the barriers women face while climbing up the career ladder. The telecommunication industry is chosen because it is one of the strongest industries in the country, and because it consists of private equity companies only.

This study was conducted based on the quantitative approach and will collect data via a survey. The data were collected using the questionnaire designed to gather sufficient number of observations for a statistical analysis. That is to say, the final sample size used for the research was 63 female respondents. The survey consists of a number of questions, starting with the main demographic and the professional experience questions, followed by the questions designed to specifically identify the belief of the female employees in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia regarding certain barriers for their progression towards the senior positions already identified in literature. The survey was conducted within the three biggest Macedonian telecommunication companies (Makedonski Telekom AD Skopje, ONE, and VIP), which represent almost 99% of the total market share and have the largest number of employees in this sector.

Thus, the employees from all levels in the corporate hierarchy were surveyed. The intention was to add a variety of information coming from both, the ones who have reached managerial positions, and the ones who are still working to attain it. Only female employees were targeted, since this study focuses on career progression barriers faced by women, whereas men are not of interest in this study. The female respondents were asked

about the current trends in the industry and what basic change they would like to see in the telecommunication sector and their companies that would offer them a better chance for progression. The data obtained in this survey was recorded and analysed by way of the SPSS software package.

Having a full understanding and being aware of the obstacles women face while climbing the corporate ladder is the pre-condition for the development of actions that would help to further improve the position of women in the corporate world. Therefore, achieving the established goal through a number of objectives outlined above, one can expect the development of very narrowly defined policies for the human resource departments of the telecommunication companies in Macedonia.

This dissertation will be divided into five main segments. After the introduction, the literature review will be presented. The main purpose of this chapter is to depict the main theories that will be used as a theoretical framework for the research. For this purpose, the role congruity theory developed by Eagly and Karau (2002) will be further explained. In addition, the main empirical findings from the previous research will have the aim to set the expectations that might be found in the study. Also, this chapter will point out some of the main issues regarding female progression, as well as why one should be concerned thereabout. The paper also includes a brief overview of the “case for diversity”. Namely, business, ethical, and legal issues related to female progression will be elaborated as well. The definitions and considerations of the gender studies will be further explained with the focus on the telecommunication industry in the country of Macedonia. Finally, some main barriers for female progression will be outlined.

The third chapter will consist of methodology considerations, thus presenting the main methods and approaches used in the study with brief theoretical justifications elaborating the taken approach. In addition, a presentation of the companies that will be in the focus and the design of the questionnaire developed for measuring female progression barriers will be included. Lastly, some main ethical concerns arising from this study will be addressed. The overall purpose of this chapter is to inform the reader about every aspect of the study.

The fourth chapter is also the main chapter of this thesis, since it will present the findings from the data gained from the questionnaire. As such, it will depict the basic characteristics of the sample on the female barriers perception in the industry and draw up the concluding considerations found in the research.

This dissertation will be finalized in the concluding part by presenting, once more, the main concepts and theoretical frameworks used in the research. The main findings will be depicted and contrasted with the existing theoretical and empirical findings in this area. It will also give an overview on how the objectives of this thesis are met with the research

conducted. This chapter will include some basic limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, and implications for the telecommunication sector.

1 GENERAL DISCUSSION ON THE FEMALE PROGRESSION ISSUES

In this segment, some of the general considerations regarding female progression will be depicted. Namely, in this part the main focus will be on the questions such as: why should one be concerned with this issue; elaborating on the costs and benefits of some discriminatory practices in the private companies. In addition, this segment will depict the main theory that will be a guide in this thesis, and that is the role congruity theory. The issue of gender inequality has received a growing interest in the recent theoretical literature. It has, also, received significant attention in popular literature, which is best personified by Grey's (1993) bestselling book for over three years "Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus".

However, in the scientific discourse, there has been much debate over these issues, primarily due to some difficulties and divergence among the authors over some of the basic concepts regarding the issue, such as: conceptualizing gender, evaluating the impact of diversity and discrimination, and outlining the main barriers that exist in practice. The growing concerns of debaters in this area were elevated to the higher levels of many countries' policies because some developed countries have started implementing gender quotas in their higher level management. For these reasons, the purpose of this chapter is both to outline the main discourse in the theoretical literature as well as to support it by a number of empirical findings. Therefore, this chapter will consist of few main segments including the following: the costs of discrimination; the theoretical framework for the research based on the role congruity theory; gender and its considerations in the telecommunication sector; and, lastly, addressing the main barriers identified as thwarting female progression opportunities.

1.1 Costs of Discrimination

One of the interesting questions regarding the gender gap is why one should be concerned with it at all. There is a lot of debate going on about the impact of diversity in the workplace because it is difficult to prove any significant causality between the two. While Ferreira (2009) argues that in some cases a greater diversity in the workplace is associated with better performance, some authors argue that the causality goes in the opposite direction. To be exact, better performance may influence the company officials to take additional risks and introduce a greater diversity (Ferreira, 2010). Some of the empirical and theoretical contribution in the field will be presented further in the text. In fact, there are three main issues that should be considered when addressing diversity: the impact on

business performance, the ethical concerns of diversity (or non-diversity), and the legal concerns.

It seems that there is a lot of evidence suggesting that the introduction of diversity in the workplace and in the boardrooms would enhance the business performance of the company. Robinson and Dechant (1997) offered several points when explaining why this might be the case. One of the starting points is a better understanding of the marketplace the company is serving. In order to support this thesis, Robinson and Dechant (1997) offered an example of the company *Maybelline*, which introduced a new, diverse management team. Having in mind they were primarily targeting Afro-Americans, what the new management of the company perceived is that the company didn't understand the potential market at all. By employing a greater diversity in the work force and enabling the company to get closer to its customers, the company benefited by increasing the market share to 44%, resulting both in a better performance as well as a higher profit for the company.

Likewise, Baumgarden et al (2007) noted that about 70% of all purchases on the market place are done by women. Furthermore, having in mind that the consumers are diverse, it might be sensible to include diversity in the boardrooms and in the company in order to understand the market more profoundly (Baumgarden et al, 2007). However, this is not the only benefit: as Smith et al (2006) argue, greater diversity may enhance the overall image of the company, at the same time encouraging the customers to perceive the company as a market leader and engage with it. Furthermore, this would result in a better performance of the company, and, ultimately, in a higher shareholder value.

In addition, the second reasons why Robinson and Dechant (1997) noted that diversity is good is how to solve various abilities and promote innovations. The authors argue that different abilities tend to vary with the age and the demographic characteristics of the managers. Hence, a diverse management of the organization should encompass different beliefs, attitudes, and cognitive abilities in order to be able to lead to a higher volume and increase the quality of innovative ideas and perspectives. This is due to the fact that heterogeneous groups of people should be able to easier and better reach creative solutions through discussions and their multifarious background knowledge.

Robinson and Dechant (1997) further argue that a diverse leadership in an organization should foster better effectiveness of leadership and bring about creation of global effective relationships. This is the result of smaller chances that a heterogeneous group is going to be prejudiced, hence allowing for a better reasoning. Ferreira (2010) supports this view by noting that a diverse workplace should effectively lead to better judgments because of less groupthink and conformity within diverse groups, which may eventually lead to better decision-making processes.

By way of illustration, Hart (1991) explained a research concerning the policy fiascos of a small group of people. Specifically, in such a study, one of the greatest threats to the board is that “homogenous” means conformity, since the members of the board would be subject to the vulnerability of groupthink and, consequently, seek to minimize conflicts by not putting forward any opposing views (Hart, 1991). Hart (1991) additionally argues that people who are susceptible to groupthink would try to suppress their personal doubts and follow the majority thinking of the group. Since they value the group more and possibly are afraid not to be eliminated from the group, they will offer no significant value by including diverse and different views (Hart, 1991). This is one of the main reasons why less diversity might be very bad for companies, and why groupthink may be very dangerous. Therefore, this might be the case for including more women in the boards and positions of decision making.

As Prihatiningtias (2012) argues, there is evidence suggesting that women tend to lead and think differently, which would as a result minimize groupthink in the organizations. Smith et al (2006) further argue that the act of employing diversity in the company’s boards would positively impact the lower levels in the company. This is due to the encouragement of the minorities or some suppressed groups in an organization (or society) would get, which will ultimately lead to a higher pool of candidates for the potential leadership positions.

In addition to the business case of diversity, there are also concerns about the ethics of the issue. The social justice in theory means that everyone should have equal rights, and everyone should be equally protected, regardless of their affiliation with a certain group (Da Silva, Jarkovska & Esteban, 2012). In the last few decades, social justice was incorporated in the political agenda of many political parties in the democratic societies, and the gender issue was addressed in many of them, primarily due to the pressure of the feminist movements (Da Silva, Jarkovska & Esteban, 2012).

Tyler et al (1997) argue that equality should imply that the individuals are perceived fairly. Therefore, the ratio of inputs (share of individuals contesting for a job/position) would be equal to the ratio of outputs (share of individuals getting the job). Consequently, from the pool of the equal number of males and females applying for the same position, on average, they should have the same outcome. However, according to Baumgarden et al (2007), it seems that the empirical studies provided strong evidence that minorities and females are less promoted, usually they face the glass ceiling and are paid less for the same job than men. Hence, this is in a stark contrast to the social justice premise. By way of illustration, although Sweden is perceived as a country with a considerable degree of visible democratic processes and equal rights, according to SA (2013), there are more men carrying the name Johan in the senior positions than all women combined. A similar case is observed in the USA, where men named John, Robert, James, and William comprise more board members than all women combined (Think Progress, 2015).

Besides the business and ethical concerns regarding the gender equality and the diversity in the workplace, there are also **legal issues** related to the subject. In many countries, gender quotas were introduced in order to provide more employment possibilities for women. This rule was introduced in the countries such as the United Kingdom, Norway, France, Germany (Da Silva, Jarkovska & Esteban, 2012), where in some cases (Norway), there is a stipulation that at least 40% of the total board members should be women. In some other countries in Europe (such as the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, and even Sweden), these stipulations were not included until the EU Parliament voted to introduce this law and such directives (Da Silva, Jarkovska & Esteban, 2012).

1.2 Arguments for the Costs of Diversity

Up to this point, the benefits of diversity were addressed. They mainly pertain to a better performance of the companies, as well as legal and ethical issues. However, employing diversity in an organization can be also associated with certain costs resulting in the decline of the company's overall performance, which can consequently de-motivate the decision makers in the company to undertake this road at all. One such comprehensive review of the costs of diversity in some companies' boards is depicted by Ferreira (2010).

Among the most prominent costs of diversity is insufficient communication and a potential for conflicts. That is to say, it seems that both sociology and management literature suggest that this might be the case. In the first theoretical perspective, Zander (1979) argues that there is evidence of similarity with regard to demographic characteristics and attraction. In addition, Lau and Murnighan (1998) coined the term *faultiness* that represents, "hypothetical dividing lines that may split a group into subgroups based on one or more attributes". Thus, it seems that demographic differences may introduce difficulties in establishing good communication among the members of the board. Smith et al (2006) support this view by implying that difficulties in establishing good communication may result in a time consuming decision making process, which suggests that heterogeneous boards may be less effective than homogenous boards.

According to Ferreira (2010), the second issue that might arise as a problem in diverse boards is choosing the executives with little or inadequate experience. Namely, if the leadership is chosen based on the gender or some other demographic characteristics, it may be that other, more important characteristics could be neglected (Ferreira, 2010). This may lead to the appointment of disproportionately young women managers that lack experience, which leads to inexperienced and less effective boards. Lastly, Ferreira (2010) points out that diversity may give rise to the problem of the conflict of interests and agenda pushing. By way of illustration, if the leadership is appointed on the short number of credentials, then those directors may be inclined to favour some parties, which, in fact, would entail a lower performance of the company as a whole.

In brief, there are three main costs and negative effects related to the inclusion of diversity in the boards of directors and the leadership position of the companies: worse communication; inadequate experience of directors; and a conflict of interests and agenda pushing. However, although it might seem that diversity has its own downsides, the overall benefits in terms of a better economic performance as well as major ethical and legal issues significantly outweigh these negative effects.

1.3 Theoretical Framework – Role Congruity Theory

Traditionally, the leadership positions in business, politics, and other realms of society have been predominately held by males. Although there is a rising trend of accessibility to higher positions for women, they still tend to remain at such positions in lower numbers, which was described by the concept of “glass ceiling” (Baxter & Wright, 2000). This low number of women at managerial positions was explained by different reasons, such as family obligations (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999) or different traits of women that preclude them from achieving success at the higher level positions (Browne, 1999). However, these theories seem to be insufficient to explain the whole story of the gender inequality. For this reason, Eagly and Karau (2002) proposed role congruity theory of the masculinity of management. The starting premise of this theory is the existence of prejudice, which, according to Eagly and Karau (2002, p.574), refers to people’s perception of the, “characteristic of members of a social group and the requirements of the social roles that group members occupy or aspire to occupy”.

Therefore, they exist when some people embrace the view and the stereotype about certain social groups, in this case women, and their traits and attributes. On the other hand, the same group perceives that the roles in the society (such as leadership positions) should have some inherited characteristics that are necessary for success. When these roles are congruent with the stereotypes of a certain social group in the eyes of the perceiver, the result is that the perceiver would not question and further evaluate the potential occupant of the role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that prejudice against the traits of women result in incongruity due to a wrong perception of the women’s characteristics and the features a leader should possess.

In order to identify the beliefs of the people towards men and women, this theory recalls the gender role construction. The next chapter will address this issue and social roles further, however, in this segment some of the main attributes of the social roles will be depicted. According to Biddle (1979), social roles are based on the social expectations about the persons that occupy specific positions, while gender roles are beliefs about the attributes of men and women.

Therefore, the social role theory includes two types of norms: descriptive norms and injunctive norms. The descriptive norms refer to the expectations of what specific

members of the group do, while the injunctive norms refer to the expectations of what specific members of the group should ideally do. Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that the descriptive norms are synonymous with stereotypes, while the injunctive norms do not necessarily represent stereotypes. Gender roles include both of these expectations, e.g., both the descriptive and the injunctive norms. Thus, according to the theory of social roles, there is a correspondence between the dispositions of people and their actions, that is, gender roles originate from the perception of the intrinsic qualities of both men and women and the activities they usually perform.

Although role congruity theory is grounded in the social role theory, primarily due to its treatment of gender roles, it transcends this theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) because it connects the gender roles and other similar ones, such as the leadership role. Thus, the prejudice against females in the leadership positions stems from the dissimilarity of expectations as regards to the typical leaders and female roles. Namely, perceivers have different beliefs about women and leaders, while they have similar opinions of the roles of leaders and men. These prejudiced perceptions were recorded in empirical literature.

Thus, Schein (1973) asked both female and male managers to depict the potential characteristics and traits of men, women, and middle managers. This study shows a significantly higher congruence of the perceptions of men and middle managers than women and middle managers, suggesting that men with their attributes of ambition, objectiveness, aggressiveness, self-confidence, and the ability to lead demonstrate the characteristics desired of managers. This study was replicated in a number of countries (Heilman et al, 1989), industries (Rosenwasser & Dean, 1989), and other different settings, demonstrating endurance of the masculine perception of leadership.

According to Eagly and Karau (2002), role congruity theory assumes that prejudice can take two forms:

- Due to the perception that men are equipped with a larger number of leadership ability traits, it entails a less favourable evaluation of women, and
- Less favourable evaluation of women in leadership positions, and their behaviour as it is perceived that such behaviour is less desirable for this group of people.

The form (a) emerges because of the descriptive norms of the gender roles. This is owed to the previously discussed perception of the characteristics of women that seem to differ from the characteristics desired in a leader. The form (b) appears as a result of the injunctive norms of the gender roles. Namely, it suggests that people have certain beliefs on how women should behave. If women violate these widespread perceptions and beliefs, they should be negatively evaluated, since they fail to exhibit communal behavioural patterns even though they might be good in their jobs, in other words, positively evaluated for their performance as leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Thus, women are constrained by two dimensions: a confirmation of the gender roles and the requirements regarding the leadership roles, thus, meeting one dimension would consequently lead to a failure in another. Ultimately, these prejudices manifest themselves in two ways: women can have fewer opportunities to access leadership roles and/or encounter more obstacles in the corporate ladder. Fewer opportunities stem from the tendency of people to assign fewer leadership skills to women, while the obstacles can arise because of the prejudices against the behaviour of women and their not leader-typical behaviour.

This theory was further evaluated via the study of Buckmaster (2004). He introduced the number of contextual variables that explain how the lesser evaluation of female leaders and prejudices towards them emerge. These variables consist of the following: the degree of incongruity between the leadership and the gender role, the sex of the perceiver, the level in the corporate hierarchy at which the congruity occurs, the cultural setting in which it occurs, and how confident women are in the management and the leadership roles.

However, this theory is also subject to criticism. Thus Klenke (1996) rejected the inherent dualism of the theory and the worldview/perception of gender. The author argues that throughout history, there have been other important factors that should be addressed in the discourse on leadership. Namely, Klenke (1996) noted that the roles and the leadership behavioural patterns are usually defined by the internal regulations and rules within an organization. Therefore, one needs to address and investigate the broader context within which the potential and presumed gender discrimination occurs. Other authors disagree that the leadership traits are genetically masculine. Namely, Rosener (1995) and Helgesen (1990) argue that women are more inclined to be leaders as they are intrinsically encouraged by their femininity and emphasis on cooperation and equality, rather than competition and supervisor and subordinate strict hierarchy. In addition, the recent study of Koenig et al (2011) suggests that leadership traits are not exclusively masculine. Namely, in their meta-analysis, they argued that “leadership now, more than in the past, appears to incorporate more feminine relational qualities, such as sensitivity, warmth, and understanding” (Koenig et al, 2011, p. 634).

2 DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIFIC BARRIERS FOR FEMALE PROGRESSION

2.1 Gender Perception in the Telecommunication Industry

If one aspires to fully comprehend the position of women or men in certain companies, it is important to understand the social role and the social identity they take on. Namely, people are born with a specific sex and sexual characteristics; however, gender affiliation is contingent on the broader environment. Having in mind previous discussion, people’s social identity can be influenced by their gender. In order to be able to address the issues of

positions of women and men in the workplace, gender and main gender definitions will be firstly investigated. Some of the earliest gender studies did not define it differently from sex (Connell, 2009; Davis et al, 2006).

However, Stoller (1968) argued that there is a need to distinguish gender from sex. Hence, while a person is born with a specific sex, for example female, Connell (2009) argues that femininity can only be acquired through one's social life. West and Zimmerman (1987) introduced the notion of treating gender as something that is established in interactions and based on the socially accepted ways of conduct for different genders. Therefore, they made a distinction between the biological category sex and the behavioural and social aspects of the individual - gender. In the view of West and Zimmerman (1987), gender is defined as a degree to which the person is feminine or masculine within the established framework of the social expectations.

Similarly, Acker (1992) argues that gender is a process in which activities, social structures, and practices are constituted differently for men and differently for women. Therefore, institutions are "gendered" according to the practices, ideologies, processes, images, and the distribution of power in such institutions. The concept of gender as socially created qualities, different by virtue of biological differences, is another definition provided by Brandser (1996). As Gherardi (1994, p.595) noted, "in other words, gender is something we think, something we do, and something we make accountable to others". As such, masculinity or femininity are not the constructs fixed by nature (Connell, 2009). In addition to the notion that gender is something that is chosen in the light of the social accepted behaviour, Marshall (1995) argues that gender corresponds to the roles attributed to people. Based on this, Giddens (2001) noted that through diet and the way people dress, anyone can construct its body to have either female or male characteristics building on the Butler's (1990) arguments that the differences between men and women in the biological sense are only illusory.

Goffman (1977) accepted this idea of gender as something that people do and not what they biologically inherit. Hence, gender may be embedded in the all aspects of life of the individuals and everything they do, including division of labour. As Knights and Tullberg (2012, p.388) noted, "gender is not there to be played out as a set of role expectations: it has to be the performer, and working life is an important arena for this process of doing gender". Conducting a research on gender in organizations, Wilson and Iles (1996) found that gender turned out to be one of the key organizing principles. They argue that it is used to keep some people in check (such as women), limiting diversity and their contribution to the organizations through constraint of the behaviour of the individuals (both men and women). Martin (2006) suggested that gender is an important factor for work and various professions, since many professions have *a priori* embedded notions of gender participation.

Gherardi and Poggio (2001) argue that gender organization studies focus their attention on the acquiring, producing, and reproducing symbols, patterns, and beliefs related to the membership to a specific gender by the individuals in these organizations. These symbols tend to reflect the images of males and females that are socially constructed, specifying the power relations. As Carli (2001) stated, women entering the organizational cultures that are traditionally male dominated usually face a specific set of rules and positions that are traditionally male. Therefore, roles associated with gender in organizations determine how differently individuals will interact and who will be chosen to dominate the group. In addition, if people believe that gender is important, according to Martin (2006), the individuals will tend to behave according to the rules set out for the two genders and will interpret this through their body and verbal actions and interactions.

The importance of gender is traditionally seen in the men dominated organizations, therefore, the leaders should possess certain behavioural archetypes. Among others, McDowell (2010) points out that masculine behaviour is highly rewarded and expected in the workplaces such as banks. He further argues that expected behaviour includes, “horseplay, sexualized banter, loud and aggressive talk, as well as forms of sexual harassment” (McDowell, 2010, p.653). West and Zimmerman (1987) use sport terminology to define such male dominated organizations and professions by using the terminology such as: endurance, strength, and competitive spirit. As Knights and Tullberg (2012) argue, these “Mad Man” settings interpret masculinity as being independent, indestructible, tough, and impregnable. It is further characterized by self-interest margining on selfish behaviour and a strong faith in the free market forces. Thus if one aspires to become a senior manager and climb up the corporate ladder, he needs to ‘conquer’, beat the competition, and control performance in business. Knight and Tullberg (2012) further state that even after acquiring such a position, the individual needs to maintain such a behaviour, since the alternative would be perceived as weakness.

Further, West and Zimmerman (1987) state that in such settings the man is seen as the dominant one, whereas women as the subordinate ones. Notwithstanding that this view is a stereotypical view of managers, it is in line with some recent empirical findings. Namely, Schein (2007) argues that there is a strong inflexibility in the attitude referred to as “think manager – think male” in most developed countries of the world, such as the USA, the UK, Japan, Germany, and China. Schein (2007) conducted a study among university students and reached the conclusion that the majority of the respondents believe that women are less likely to have requisite management characteristics.

Therefore, in summary of the previous discussion, gender is influenced by the culture of the environment, and it is thus, primarily, a social category. Hence, there are certain norms and beliefs in the social settings that define how the members of each gender should behave, and what roles they should adopt. Based on these roles, there are certain stereotypes of leadership styles that each gender should embrace. In fact, there is a large

body of literature suggesting that these stereotypes influence the exact leadership styles individuals adopt, therefore, they are evaluated based on the effectiveness of their adopted style. Phatak et al (2005) define stereotypes and specific perceptions about different genders, ethnic, national, demographic, or organizational issues.

Table 1. Connection between the Leaders' Behaviour and the Masculine and the Feminine Stereotypes

Stereotypical feminine behaviour – taking care	Stereotypical masculine behaviour – taking charge
Supporting	Problem-Solving
In a form of assisting and encouraging others	Decision making and analysing in order to resolve issues at work
Rewarding	Influencing Upward
Providing recognition and, when deemed adequate, financial rewards	Affecting higher ranked individuals
Mentoring	Delegating
Focused on the development of careers and skills in the subordinates	Authorizing subordinates to have discretion in their jobs
Networking	
Establishing and creating relationships that might serve to provide information or resources	
Consulting	
Asking advice before making decisions or plans that may affect them	
Team-Building	
Facilitating conflict resolution	
Inspiring	
Motivating others to put forth higher work effort through appeal to emotions or personal example	

Source: Catalyst, *Women “take care,” men “take charge”: Stereotyping of U.S. business leaders exposed*, 2005, p. 10.

Similarly, Eagly and Carli (2003) define stereotypes as expectations held by the individuals about the behaviour of the people that occupy certain positions. By way of example, the stereotypes that exist towards female leaders, according to Eagly and Carli (2003), put this group of people into a disadvantageous position. In the study of Eagly and Karau's (1991), these stereotypes and prejudices exist when people have an entrenched set of beliefs about the characteristics of the particular social group and the roles they should take on. The authors argue that such prejudices may suffice to explain a lower representation of women in the top managerial positions. This is confirmed by the study of

Ragins (1997), who argues that women are generally excluded from the managerial positions due to prejudices and stereotyping.

Typically, people adopt these stereotypes automatically, often without being aware of it. In these stereotypes, as Miner (1965) argues, the manager is seen the same as being a man: both of them need to take charge, make decisions, take disciplinary actions, and be assertive. In addition, Miner (1965) argues that even if there are women managers, they need to adopt behavioural patterns that are masculine. As a solution to overcome these prejudices, Hennig (1971) proposed that women adopt the masculine leadership style. Namely, a number of authors argue that if the female manager wants to progress in her career, she would need to adopt a masculine management style (e.g. Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Merrick, 2002; Korabik, 1990).

Heilman (2001) argues that these stereotypes are a powerful but invisible threat to the female leaders, since they can significantly limit the opportunities for their advancement to the top management positions, especially since women frequently encounter “glass ceiling” (Ridgeway, 1997). Namely, according to Catalyst (2005), women are stereotyped as affectionate, emotional, sympathetic, pleasant, sentimental, whiny, appreciative, friendly, mild, sensitive, and warm. On the other hand, the most prominent male traits include being dominant, active, coarse, aggressive, rational, unemotional, achievement-oriented, ambitious, forceful, self-confident, and tough. They further draw up a list of expected behaviours that man and women ought to exhibit under these gender stereotypes. These are presented in the table 1 further below.

Based on these stereotypes, women are usually perceived as less competent than their male counterparts (Heilman, Block & Martell, 1995). Namely, Heilman et al (1995) used a number of gender studies in order to support their evidence. They suggested that, in case of managerial positions, women are less favourable candidates. This is under the assumptions that the successful managers are described with the attributes such as rationality, competence, and independence, which are predominantly masculine terms, and the same are not used to depict women managers. Even in the cases when the work performance is identical, Heileman (2001) argues that the women’s performance (effort) is perceived as inferior. In addition, as Bass (1990) noted, when the man achieves something, it is often regarded as a result of his abilities, however, in the case of a woman, it is usually attributed to good luck, an easy task, or very hard work she must have put in.

Yet still, a large number of studies in this field found no significant evidence of differences between the male and the female managerial success. Namely, Johnson and Powell (1994) argue that the managerial behaviour of these two groups is not significantly different. In addition, Hyde (2005), too, reports that the meta-analysis he conducted supports the thesis that there is no significant difference between the two genders and their managerial behaviour. Nevertheless, some differences have been found: the distinction lies primarily

in the realm of the work goals, while the managerial styles, performance, and rewards are mostly uniformly distributed (Hyde, 2005).

These findings prompted Carli and Eagly (2001) to note that there is a certain bias in the evaluation of the female leaders. Namely, they argue that in different contexts and settings, women are recognized as less competent for leadership positions, hence, less worthy (Carli & Eagly, 2001). In the study of Ridgeway (1997), the expectation theory was investigated in relation to the gender differences. Namely, it is expected, hence presumed by many, that men are more competent than women, therefore, they have a higher legitimacy to become leaders. This bias is investigated in many different settings, among others in certain military ranks; as Boldry et al (2001) suggest, there is significant bias against women. Both male and female cadets in their study reported that the males have higher leadership abilities. Also, Biernat and Fuegen (2001) investigated the bias against women leaders in the academic settings. Their study suggests that there are substantially harder standards set up when hiring female as opposed to the male applicants. On the other hand, it seems that the male participants did not show any bias related to gender when they were making hiring decisions.

In addition to these findings, there are many studies examining the issues of the female progression in the recent past. Amongst others, Nmecha and Bowen (2015) examined the barriers for female progression and found out that women have a higher work-family conflict than men. In addition, according to their study, stereotyping is also widespread. Similar to the findings in the theoretical literature, Nmecha and Bowen (2015) report that in order to succeed, the females are forced to mimic masculine characteristics and leadership styles. In addition, John (2013) investigates the effect and reasons for the glass ceiling and argues that it is due to a number of reasons; notably, flexible working conditions, or lack of it, according to the findings of John (2013), impair women's prospects of senior positions.

In addition, the author notes that women usually lack self-confidence and self-belief that would lead them to take less risky steps in their career. As a solution to this problem, John (2013) points out that mentorship programs and coaching would be highly beneficial for women, which would bring about a significant change in the higher number of females in the senior positions. Whiting, Gammie, and Herbohn (2015) investigated three possible barriers (stereotypical discrimination, structural obstacles, and employee's preferences) in the progression path of the women in the accountancy firms in Australia, New Zealand, and the UK. They found out that the stereotypical discrimination poses a barrier as partners in accounting firms are generally less willing to control the demands from the competitive environment and, as such, they perceive females as a greater risk for the corporate success, which results in a discriminatory policy against women. Although they found contrasting results regarding the structural obstacles when it came to the size of the firms, they argued that partners do not perceive the obstacles regarding family related responsibilities for

women. Therefore, the work commitment required by many firms is usually incompatible with the responsibilities of active parenthood (Whiting, Gammie & Herbohn, 2015).

While the majority of these studies investigated these issues in developed countries, there are a few studies that addressed the issue of the female progression barriers in the developing world. Irem, Rehman, and Rehman (2016) conducted an investigation on the barriers hindering women in career advancement in Pakistan. Their findings suggest that the females have many barriers in their career path because of domestic and work pressure, social and family commitments, and also gender prejudices and stereotypes. In addition, Enid and Maniraj (2013) report that there is sufficient evidence of the glass ceiling in South Africa. This is mainly due to the situational factors such as gender discrimination, intensive handling of many roles women handle (family and work related responsibilities), and lack of respect from their male colleagues.

2.2 Barriers in Women's Career Paths

During the last 50 years, the legislation in many countries addressing gender inequalities has been growing. Most inequalities come from two sources: the progression opportunities and the payment structure. Before assessing the main barriers for the female progression, these issues will be expounded.

2.2.1 Progression opportunities

It seems that the inequalities between the genders vary at different stages in women's careers. Namely, according to the Higher Education Policy Institute (2009), the discrimination is more pronounced in the senior management positions, while the entry level and the junior management level positions provide about the same opportunities both for men and women. This was confirmed by KPMG (2014); hence, men are 4.5 times more likely to be in the middle and the senior management or leadership positions than women. At the four levels below the executive committee, according to KPMG (2014), there is about 60 to 40 split between male and female representation. This research is conducted for the companies listed as FTSE 100. However, only one level up the ladder, the portion of women significantly drops to about 29%. Additionally, it continues to decline in the upper management positions to about 18% in the next level (second below the executive committee), while the portion of women CEOs is only 11.1% (KPMG, 2014). While there is a significantly higher number of women undergraduate entrants, Times Higher Education (THE, 2013) argues that female faculty members comprise only about 20% of the total number of university professors.

One of the first published reports on the issue of gender inequality in the top positions and corporate boards of directors in the UK is *Davies Report*, drafted by the Department of Business (2011). It revealed that only about 12.5 % of the FTSE 100 boards consist of women, while FTSE 250 have even less female representation, about 7.8%. According to

the Department of Business (2011), about 21% and 50% of the FTSE 100 and FTSE 250 companies have only male members on the boards. Due to this issue, the UK introduced a voluntary quote of 25% for the females on the board of FTSE 350, which seems to have improved the position of women. Namely, in 2014, there was over 20% and 15% women in FTSE 100 and FTSE 250 board of directors respectively (Department of Business, 2014). However, Vinnicombe, Doldor, and Turner (2014) argue that this conceals the real issue and state of the matter. The authors argue that female directors are still significantly less likely to be in the executive positions, since only 20 female directors out of 231 are executives in FTSE 100; also, only 29 out of 310 are executives in FTSE 250 companies. On the other hand, in 2003 Norway introduced the quota of 40% female representation in all boards. Ten years later, there were more than 40% non-executive female directors in Norway (Bertrand et al, 2012). However, Bertrand et al (2012) argue that there are still only 3% female CEO's and about 6.4% female top managers. In addition, at the lower levels of hierarchy, women are still paid significantly less than their male colleagues.

2.2.2 Pay gap

There is a hot debate over the gender pay gap. In the popular press, there is a large number of commentaries on the so-called “77 cents per dollar”, meaning that women get paid 20% less than men for the same job (Kessler, 2014). Although many disagree with this statement (Perry & Biggs, 2014), certainly there are concerns about the issue in the empirical literature. Johnston and Lee (2012) conducted a survey among younger, university educated women in Australia addressing the issue of the likelihood of them getting promoted. In brief, the results argued that women are less likely to climb the corporate ladder as there is a significant wage gap, and, when promoted, they are expected to receive a smaller wage than men. Johnston and Lee (2012) argue that this pay gap is constant through different industry sectors and occupations. In their study, women earn on average 18.2% less than men for the positions of managers, directors, and other senior officials. Also, the Higher Education Policy Institute (2009) noted that despite the fact that women are more likely to have higher education levels, they are still expected to obtain lower salaries once they are employed.

In addition, the International Trade Union Confederation (2012) published a report that included a study on 43 different countries, where the pay gap between 1960 and 1990 was examined. They argue that this pay gap seems to be persistent, and there is little evidence of any improvement during this period. On average, according to the results of this study, women earn 18.4% less than men (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). The highest wage gap is perceived in Asia, approximately between 30 to 40%, while the lowest seems to be at the level of just under 10% in the countries such as Italy, Paraguay, and Slovenia. The difference seems to be persistent even when the number of the variables that ought to serve as control mechanisms are included. Namely, Weichselbaumer and Winter-Ebmer (2005) conducted a meta-analysis among the sample of 260 published papers that covered the period from 1960 to 1990 and included 63 countries. They suggested that the

wage gap is persistent if the factors such as job role, tenure, and education are included, hence suggesting that this might be the results of the discrimination against women. Although in this study women and men did not receive the same wage, it is shown that the wage gap differentials have dropped over the examined period from about 60% to 35% (Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer, 2005).

2.2.3 Main barriers for female progression

One can argue that due to their biological nature, women are exposed to different kinds of challenges than men, and, as mentioned in the previous chapter, there is certain inequality between the two genders in today's world. Therefore, the path of women achieving higher career goals can be hindered in different ways. The issue of being unable to achieve career goals due to inequalities is often ascribed as the practice of the "glass ceiling". A glass ceiling is the situation in which, "women are able to get through the front door of managerial hierarchies, at some point they hit an invisible barrier that blocks any further upward movement" (Baxter & Wright, 2000, p. 275). However, nowadays women are not completely excluded from senior positions, and it does not seem to be unattainable. This has led to the development of another concept – "labyrinth". Eagley et al (2011) define it as a metaphor, "that captures the varied challenges confronting women as they travel, often on indirect paths, sometimes through alien territory, on their way to leadership" (p.1). Therefore, one can say that women are not excluded from senior positions, but the number of obstacles they have to overcome is way higher than it is for men. Chi-Ching (2001) argues that in spite of anti-discriminatory legislation being adopted by most of the developed countries, an informal discrimination does not cease to exist, and it has a quite extensive impact on one's career progression. Further, the same author develops five common categories of external factors that affect the career progression of the female professionals, and they are explained as follows:

Opportunity and mobility-related barriers - These barriers are usually associated with limited opportunities related to training and professional education, which is likely to influence career advancement, as well as insufficient opportunities for job changes, especially vertically. It is underpinned by Hewlett and Luce (2005), who argue that inflexibility in organisational structures often hinders the ability of women to progress in their careers. In addition, the inability to receive training additionally weakens the position of women in organisations.

Formal and informal discrimination - This issue is mainly related to the culture of organisation as well as prejudices superiors might have towards women. Thus even though it is not only gender related, it can be extended to age as well as personal habit and alike. A number of studies have confirmed the existence of male dominated cultures across the majority of organisations, which puts women in a disadvantaged position (Ballenger, 2010; McMahon, Bimrose, & Watson, 2010; O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008). Therefore, the overall culture of an organisation is highly likely to be traditional or, in other words,

male-oriented with a limited conception of work that does not allow for overlaps with personal life. This further thwarts the female employees, since their devotion to motherhood cannot be separated from their work.

Family-related barriers - As mentioned before, devotion to motherhood is likely to play a significant role in the career development of women, especially if the support coming from the spouse is inadequate. A great number of studies shows that mothers usually lack competence and require commitment, thus are usually easily surpassed by non-mothers (e.g. Correll et al, 2007; Wolfinger et al, 2008). In addition, even though parenthood should not be the burden solely for women, it still is the case because not much has changed in the requirements for wives, which forces women to develop, “the right mental approach to balancing family and work” (Waumsley & Houston, 2009, p. 40).

Barriers in reference to the career choice - This category of barriers is usually related to inadequate career guidance and planning as well as low allowance for mobility, which is often imposed by the sphere of activity. Even though crucial for the development of leadership, a lack of mentorship is a big issue for most of the employees. For instance, it is argued that “either formal or informal mentoring programs can be significant in building confidence and skills in the next generation of leadership” (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010, p. 255). However, women are less likely to find appropriate mentors than men because there are very few women in high ranking positions who are able to be mentors in businesses at large (Linehan & Scullion, 2008).

Limited opportunity to socialise - The ability to be in touch with high ranking people is of crucial importance for career development and promotion. Peer network is deemed to be one of the most important supporting mechanism for career development. As argued by Arthur, Patton, and Giancarlo (2007), “the dissemination of acquired wisdom from the professional network enhances the acquisition of career competencies” (p. 8). But when it comes to women, their networks are usually not strong enough to last long to the extent that brings about benefits, since once they achieve a certain goal, they no longer see any further importance in it (Coleman, 2010).

2.3 Statistical Information Regarding the Female Barriers and Barriers for Progression in the Telecommunication Sector

Yet, it doesn't seem that the telecommunication industry so far has received sufficient and substantial interest of the scholars in the field. Namely, there is only a handful of studies geared towards gender differences in this sector. While examining its influence on the corporate performance, Qian (2016) focused on the gender diversity in the Asian and the Pacific area. The author argues that women are only modestly represented in the boards and the management of the telecommunication sector, at the rate of about 9.5%. The results of this study suggest that the firm performance does not accurately predict the

choice to include female managers, while the representation of the women in the board of directors may be a significant predictor of the future performance of the firm. However, according to Qian (2016), the highest market returns have the firms with the female representation in the board of 0; while the lowest returns have those with the representation of over 10%. However, it is highly likely that this might be due to the limitations of the study, as the correlation does not automatically imply causality (Schutt & O'Neil, 2013).

Some additional light on the female representation in the telecommunication sector was shed by the research of International Labour Organization (hereinafter: ILO) in 2015. According to this study, women have lower representation in the high value paying jobs, while they predominate at the entry level positions. In addition, both in developing and developed countries, according to ILO (2015), women are faced with more difficulties and find it harder to move up the ladder to better paying technical or managerial roles. Also, they have lower access to career and training development aspects (ILO, 2015). While in some countries the rate of women in the telecommunication industry ranges from 60% to almost 80%, they seem to have significantly lower opportunities.

Belt (2002) argues they are often seen as a “female ghetto” with limited progression abilities. Thus, it is most likely that men will occupy higher status business-related or technical positions, while the female employees will tend to occupy more “socially skilled” positions (Lloyd & Payne, 2009). This was also confirmed by the study of Venco (2010), who argued that in Brazil, men are those that occupy most of the higher paying jobs. Many authors studying this issue argue that the females are significantly less likely to advance to the higher managerial positions (Holtgrewe, 2005; Gorjup, Valverde & Ryan, 2008; Scholarios & Taylor, 2011), but this is usually not explained by the women's comparative lack of education or other skills (Lloyd & Payne, 2009).

In addition to examining the gender issues in the empirical papers and, more specifically, in the telecommunication sector, in this chapter the gender issues will be examined with relation to FYR Macedonia. As it was already argued there hasn't been any significant research done in the area, and the ones done were concerned with the issue of equality at the country level (Kazandziska et al, 2012) or on the legal and political aspects of gender equality and governmental efforts on establishing it (Raleva & Dimitrijevska, 2013). One of the overall considerations of the gender issues in the country was done by the European Commission (2012). This report argued that the country does not make full use of the potential of the female labour force. Namely, the results suggest that the rate of female participation on the labour market in Macedonia is about 35.3%, which is significantly lower than the EU average (58.5%). In addition, the share of women who are actively looking for employment is significantly higher than the EU average, 31% and 9.8% for Macedonia and the EU, respectively. It also seems that the women have significantly less employment opportunities and flexibility, as only 6.7% of them work part time, which is below the 31.6%, which is the EU average. It was also argued that the college

diploma/degree for the women in Macedonia is 15%, which is significantly below the 24.8% of the EU average. However, this report suggests different results on the representation of women in highly paid positions. Namely, it is noted that about 15% of the supervisory boards consist of women, which is higher than the EU average (14%). On the other hand, there is a lower number of women holding management positions in Macedonia, about 29%, while this number is at the level of 33% in the EU.

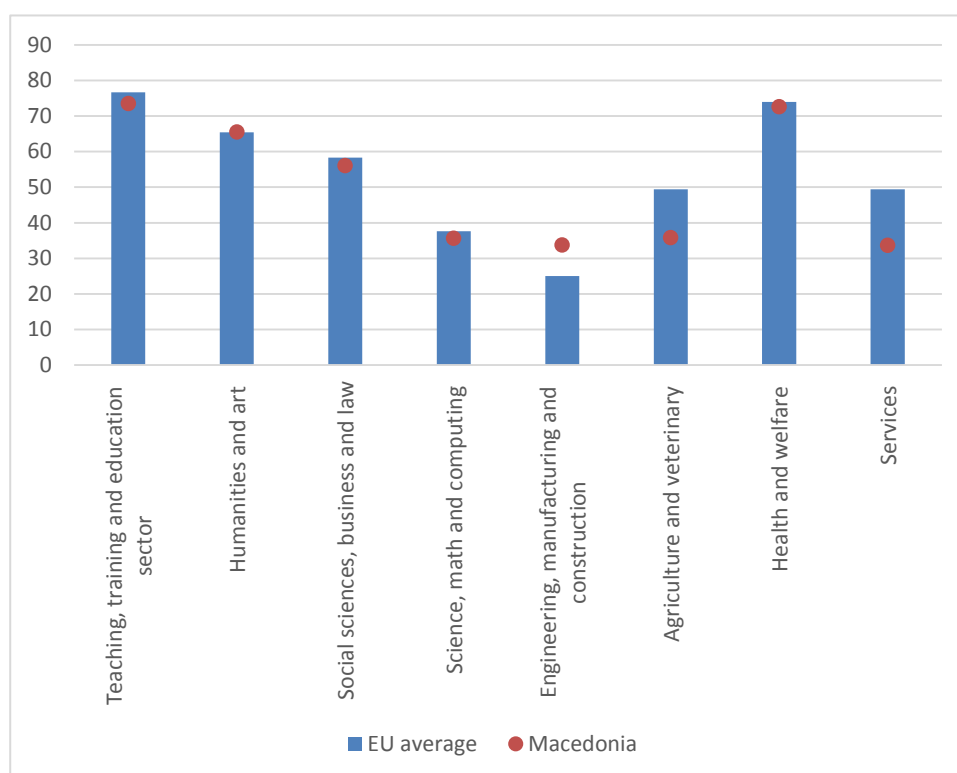
Table 2. EU Average vs Macedonia

		Female	Male	Difference
Employment rate	EU average	58.5	70.1	11.6
	Macedonia	35.3	52.3	17
Unemployment rate	EU Average	9.8	9.7	-0.1
	Macedonia	31	31.9	0.9
Part time rate	EU average	31.6	8.1	-23.5
	Macedonia	6.7	5.5	-1.2
Average part time weekly working hours	EU average	20.2	19.1	-1.1
	Macedonia	22	22	0
Tertiary education	EU average	24.8	22.4	-2.4
	Macedonia	15	14.6	-0.4

Source: 2012, European Commission, *The current situation of gender equality in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)* – Country profile, p. 5-7.

In the table 2, the difference between the EU average and Macedonia for many of the labour market variables were presented. This data is summarized in the column “difference” and it is calculated by subtracting the figures for males with the figures for females. It can be seen that there is a significantly higher difference in the employment rate between the EU average and Macedonia for males and females. However, according to these figures, it seems that Macedonia has a lower unemployment rate for females than for males, which is slightly different from the EU average. Also, the figures for the part time employment suggest that the females in the EU are significantly more engaged in this type of employment, whereas it seems that the females in Macedonia don’t have that many part time employment options. In addition, the figure depicting the percentage of women in different industries in the EU and Macedonia are presented. It seems that the service sector (including the telecommunication industry) has a higher discrepancy ratio, as about 49% of the workforce in the service sector in the EU are females, while this figure for Macedonia is only 33.6%.

Figure 1. EU Average vs. Macedonian Women Percentage in Industries



Source: 2012, European Commission, *The current situation of gender equality in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)* – Country profile, p. 8.

3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter will depict the main methods and approaches used in this research. Namely, Khan (2008) defines research as the systematic way guided with the aim to reveal the truth. It is an act of scientific enquiry about certain phenomena in order to gain information about the researched issue (Kothari, 2004). In the research process, the researcher is faced with a number of decisions regarding the methodology to be used in order to properly conduct such an empirical investigation. Methodology is defined as procedural framework that leads the overall process (Remenyi et al, 1998).

Therefore, the main purpose of this chapter is to outline the main methods and the procedures undertaken, with a theoretical justification for the purpose of informing the reader about the main issues raised in the study. In this endeavour, the chapter will consist of several segments: purpose of research, research strategy, description of data collection methods, presentation of companies, presentation of questionnaire, data analysis and sampling, and conclusion, in which the main ethical concerns and methodological issues will be addressed.

3.1 Purpose of the Research

Every research has its own purpose, which, according to Saunders et al (2000), can be categorized into three main types: explanatory, exploratory, and descriptive. In this categorization, the explanatory research is the research conducted with the aim of examining relationships or defining relationships of interest. The exploratory research is guided by the desire of the author to understand some phenomena or provide a problem with new insights. Lastly, the descriptive study seeks to explain the events that occur in an environment, a person, or a situation of interest.

Therefore, this research, aimed to investigate the barriers for the female progression in telecommunication industry in Macedonia, is exploratory. In this respect, the major barriers (opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers and limited opportunity to socialize) will be identified and the perception of them measured. Although the study is mainly exploratory, it has its explanatory dimension, seeking to explain why these barriers appear and how they can be overcome.

The following research questions are as follows:

- RQ1: Which barriers are the most important in the perception of the female employees in the telecommunication sector (among the theoretical ones: opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers and limited opportunity to socialize)?
- RQ2: What is the perception of the progression opportunities for the female employees in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia?

3.2 Research Approach

Research can be done in one of the two ways: qualitative or quantitative. The choice of the research approach depends on the problem investigated and the data used (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Novikov and Novikov (2013) define qualitative research as an effort to investigate attributes, specialized features, or to generalize properties. It can be done with the data containing a small number of observations, collected in different forms, visual, sounds, textual, physical objects, or actions (Yin, 2003). In contrast, quantitative research is characterized with usually highly structured data, collected for the purpose of evaluating and establishing the strength of the relationships of variables with the aim to identify the intensity of the relationships (Neuman, 2003). Having in mind these distinctions and the data that will be gathered (survey), **this study will have a quantitative approach**. The variables that will be depicted in the study will be collected on the 5 point Likert scale, and later used to investigate their intensity and strength of relationships among them.

Saunders et al (2000) argued that every study should have a plan on how to develop the research by depicting clear objectives and reasoning for the selected strategy. Yin (2003)

pointed out that the five strategies could be chosen: experiment, survey, archival analysis, history and case study. The appropriate strategy should be selected on the basis of the three main questions: form of the research question, requirement of behaviour events control, and focus on the contemporary events. Although there might be other appropriate strategies based on these three questions - such as archival analysis (i.e. meta-analysis) - since it doesn't seem that there is enough previous research in this area and the author aspires to produce original findings on the phenomena, this strategy was not chosen.

3.3 Description of Data Collection

There are two main sources for data collection, primary and secondary. The primary data collection refers to those collected by the researcher and with the main, if not solely, to conduct the research for which it was collected (Kothari, 2004). The secondary data collection, in contrast, is the data that is collected for some other purpose, usually undergone through some kind of modification already (Kothari, 2004). Therefore, the main source of data in this study is primary, since it will be collected by the researcher and used in the study without any prior statistical or other modifications.

For the purpose of analysis, a survey was constructed (survey is presented in Appendix I). However, prior to distributing the survey, a sample or pilot survey was administered among a pool of a few female employees in the telecommunication sector. According to Polit et al (2001), a survey is a small scale version of the major study, used as a trial run. It is used to pre-test the research instruments (Baker, 1994). Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) depicted some other benefits of the pilot survey, including providing a warning of the weak points in the survey, hence, where it might fail, or suggesting where the appropriate research protocols are not followed, and if the instruments are properly designed, i.e., if the survey is understood in a way the researcher constructed it.

There were some insights obtained upon the distribution of the pilot survey and interviews with the respondents. One of them was that the number of questions was too high, therefore, the researcher had to decrease the total number of questions, so that that they could be answered in under 10 minutes. In addition, some questions were better and more precisely delivered as there was a likelihood of wrong perception by the respondents. Based on these insights, the survey was devised encompassing 26 questions, which will be presented in the further segments.

3.4 Presentation of the Companies in Telecommunication Industry in Macedonia

Before presenting the survey and its instruments, the main features of the companies in which the survey will be conducted will be presented. Namely, there are four main

companies in this sector in Macedonia: T-Mobile, One, Albafon, and VIP (Ordanoski, 2015). Some of the main features of these companies are presented in the table 3.

Table 3. Presentation of the Companies

Company	Market share (%)	Members in board of directors	Female members of board of directors
Makedonski Telekom AD – Skopje	46.35	13	1
T-Mobile	27.28	14	2
VIP	25.09	4	0
Albafon	1.29	7	2

Sources: Official websites: Makedonski Telekom AD (2015); VIP (2016); Albafon (2016)

3.5 Presentation of the Questionnaire

As already noted, the questionnaire was drawn up from 26 questions that could be answered in about 10 minutes. The statements in this research are developed by the researcher on the grounds of the empirical investigation of other authors. Such sources of statements are presented in Table 4 on the next page. The questionnaire starts with the basic demographic characteristics of the respondents, such as their age, their marital status, their education, the years of employment in the telecommunication sector, and their position in the company.

After that, it proceeds with the questions set to evaluate the perception of women with regard to different barriers hindering the progression in the industry (opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers and limited opportunity to socialize). These barriers were specified in many questions (items) used to measure the same barrier. Lastly, the survey ends with some basic questions about the perception of women about the glass ceiling in their company, promotions, and space for advancement. Most of these questions were designed so that they could be evaluated on the scale 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The survey is presented in Appendix I.

Table 4. Presentation of the Sources of the Statements

Barriers	Source (adapted from):
Opportunity and mobility related barriers	
Opportunity for training and professional development	Cherry (2011); ILM (2009); Green et al (2004)
Inflexibility of organizations	ILM (2009); Broadbridge (2007)
Lower management barriers	ILM (2009)
Middle management barriers	ILM (2009)
Upper management barriers	ILM (2009)
Formal and informal discrimination	
Prejudices and stereotypes	Green et al (2004), Broadbridge (2007)
Less favourable candidates	Broadbridge (2007)
Unladylike	Amaratunga et al (2008)
Male dominated management	Amaratunga et al (2008)
Family related barriers	
Family responsibilities	Cherry (2011)
Moving responsibilities	Broadbridge (2007)
Career choice barriers	
Female mentors	Cherry (2011); Broadbridge (2007)
Career choice not for women	Amaratunga et al (2008)
Limited opportunities for socializing	
Limited opportunities to socialize	Green et al (2004)
Access to professional networks	Green et al (2004)
Other female progression barriers	
Glass ceiling	Broadbridge (2007)
Merit based promotions	ILM (2009)
Clear progression opportunities	ILM (2009)
Telecommunication sector better than the rest	
Tips for improvement	Cherry (2011); ILM (2009)

3.6 Sampling and Data Analysis

The sampling strategy used for this study is non-probability. Namely, in such a sampling not all the individuals have the same chance to be represented, therefore, it is not random. For the purpose of this research, the survey was designed for the females (first rule) that work in the telecommunication industry (second rule). Such sampling is more focused and less time demanding than probability sampling. However, as the sampling is not exhaustive, it cannot reflect the perception of the whole population; rather, it will only generally ascertain the situation regarding the female progression in the telecommunication sector. The survey was distributed through many channels, but the most frequent ones are via direct email or in person.

Throughout the administration of the procedure, the main companies that were targeted are Telekom Macedonia AD Skopje, T-Mobile, and VIP. Around 130 questionnaires were sent out to the female employees in these companies. Namely, the researcher conducted the interview with some of the leading managers in these companies, presented them with the research, and asked them for their approval and suggestions how to best approach their female employees. Hence, in some cases, the researcher got the access to many email addresses of the female employees, while in other instances, he was granted the permission to pay them a visit at home and personally distribute the questionnaire. The potential respondents were, again, informed about the aim and the purpose of the research, the research questions, and were invited to complete the survey in the paper form (template) submitted to them, or via email.

Therefore, the ethical issues arising from the study were addressed when distributing the survey. Any research that consists of data that are obtained via an individual's personal information is inherently of ethical concerns. This is mainly due because the data are distributed to a third party. In order to address the ethical issues arising from the survey, the researcher drafted an informed consent form that is attached to every distributed questionnaire. This form informs the potential respondents of their rights. Namely, it also states that the data obtained will be kept in a private computer and won't be distributed to a third party by any means. After a brief introduction summarizing the purpose of the study, outlining the research aims and the topic, the participants in the survey were informed that they won't be offered any monetary or other kinds of rewards, and that the survey participation is entirely voluntary.

Once the data from the survey were collected, they had to be analysed in order to be presented. Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar, and Mathiraian (2009) argue that analysis refers to the conversion of data into suitable and readable information. It is a process in which raw data is converted into meaningful information that could be delivered with reference to the integral story of the problem (Kawulich, 2004). Patton (1987) identified three main types of data analysis: organization, reduction through categorization and summarization, and

creation of general themes and patterns in the data. In this study, all three data analysis types will be used, based on the previous theoretical frameworks from the literature. The data analysis is supported by the data presentation in forms of charts, tables, and diagrams. The analysis of the data from the survey will be done in the SPSS software package.

However, while analysing the data, one should consider the reliability and the validity of the instruments. Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) argue that reliability refers to the consistency of the response; hence, it is a measure of accuracy of the used instruments. Reliable instruments should reflect the assumption that on the selected variables, the respondents of a similar background should provide similar answers. Therefore, the differences in the responses should be the result of the differences in the respondents and not because of other problems, such as ambiguity of the questions presented to the respondents.

Therefore, a few methods were designed to ensure that the instruments used in the survey are reliable. After receiving all responses, Cronbach's Alpha was used as a formal test of the reliability of the instruments (Peterson, 1994). This is mainly in the parts of the survey where many of the questions were designed to measure the same instrument (i.e. barriers). However, there is no consensus over the appropriate threshold that should be used to gauge whether the instruments are reliable or not. While some authors proposed stricter rules for reliability, Zhou (2014) and Kwan (2004) argue that for many purposes, the result from Cronbach's Alpha tests of 0.4 would suggest that the instruments are reliable. Therefore, in this study, this threshold was used. The results on Cronbach's Alpha for each of the instruments are presented in Table 5 below. In addition, the data gained from the survey was visually examined in order to identify if there are some significant discrepancies or outliers in the responses (Wooldridge, 2003).

Table 5. Cronbach's Alpha Results

Number	Measurement	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Opportunity and mobility related barriers	0.498
2	Formal and informal discrimination	0.445
3	Family related barriers	0.597
4	Barriers to reference to career choice	0.458
5	Limited opportunities to socialize	0.526

In addition, the validity of the study should be herein addressed. The validity refers to the extent to which the differences in the responses and the depicted relationships reflect the real and true state of the matter (Stevens, Wrenn & Loudon, 2013). There are two validity

considerations: the external and the internal. The former refers to the extent to which the results of the study could be generalized for the wider population. It is believed that the results of this study are intended to be generalized for the telecommunication industry sector in Macedonia; however, some insights could be also drawn for the economy at large and for the region of South East Europe. Although this might be the case, the author does not have any aspirations as to these generalizations.

In addition to the external, there is also an internal validity, which consists of the following:

- Content validity - This addresses the issue of an adequate coverage of the examined problem (Stevens, Wrenn & Loudon, 2013). In order to address this issue, the starting point in the research was a theoretical framework and devising the survey questions based on the real problems identified in theory.
- Predictive validity - Stevens, Wrenn, and Loudon (2013) argue that this validity addresses the estimation power of the instruments, namely, logical relationships between different variables. This predictive validity was ensured via a pilot survey and the feedback received from the respondents.
- Construct validity - This validity, “involves the desire to measure or infer the presence of abstract characteristics for which no empirical validation seems possible” (Stevens, Wrenn, & Loudon, 2013). In this study, the researcher does not have the intention to produce results that are not reproducible by other authors. In addition, the results of this study will be, in the conclusion and the discussion section, juxtaposed with the existing evidence from the field.

4 FINDINGS

This chapter presents the main findings of the survey. This analysis was guided by the research questions:

- RQ1: Which barriers are the most important in the perception of female employees in the telecommunication sector (among the theoretical ones as follows: opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers, and limited opportunities to socialize)?
- RQ2: What is the perception of the progression opportunities of the females in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia?

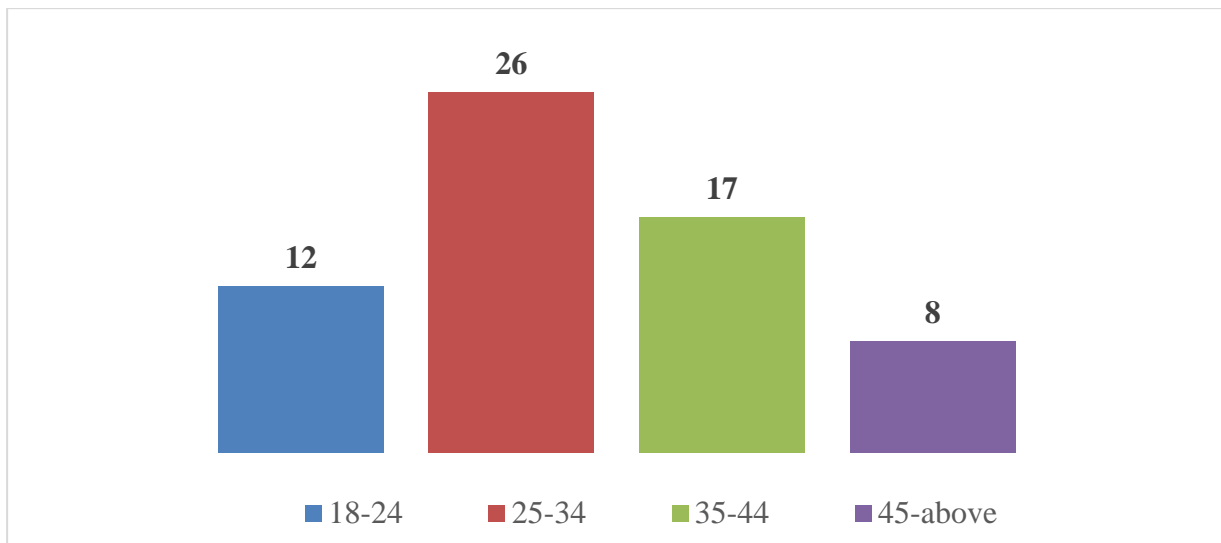
In order to clearly present the results of the analysis, it will be sectioned in three parts. In the first part, some insights into the sample size and the characteristics of the respondents will be depicted. The second part will give insights into the main aspects of the barriers for female progression. Lastly, the general views of the respondents about the female progression opportunities and space for improvement regarding their companies pertaining to the topic will be elucidated.

4.1 Characteristics of the Sample

The survey consists of 63 responses compiled from female employees. These responses, collected from three out of the four main telecommunication companies in Macedonia, are obtained from the female employees at all levels of the corporate hierarchy in these companies. Having in mind that about 130 questionnaires were distributed, the response rate of the survey was just below 50%.

The acquired results are presented in the figures below. According to these figures, (underlying results presented in Appendix II), the majority of the respondents in this survey are in the age group 25-34 years, altogether 26 respondents; followed by the age group 35-44, 18-24 respondents; and 45 and above, 17, 12, and 8 respondents respectively. In addition, 46% of the respondents in this survey have a college degree, while 36.5% have a high school degree, and 11 respondents, or 17,5% of the total number, reported they have a post graduate degree (MSc, MBA or PhD), Figure 3. In addition, more than 55% of the respondents are married, while 35% are single, while the rest described themselves as belonging to the category “Other”.

Figure 2. Age Distribution



The vast majority of the respondents, 92%, work full time in their respective companies (Figure 5). Also, most of the respondents have more than 5 years of experience in the telecommunication industry (46%), followed by similar results in the subgroups: 1 to 3 and 3 to 5 years (19% and 20.6%, respectively), with the lowest number of respondents in the category one year of experience (14.3%). Lastly, 45 of the 63 respondents in this survey declared themselves as full time workers. The number of the responses decline with the steps on the corporate ladder. Thus in the lower level management, there are 17.5% of the respondents; in the middle management 7.9% of the respondents; and in the upper

management 3.2%; with only 2 respondents assigning themselves to this category (Figure 7).

Figure 3. Educational Background Distribution

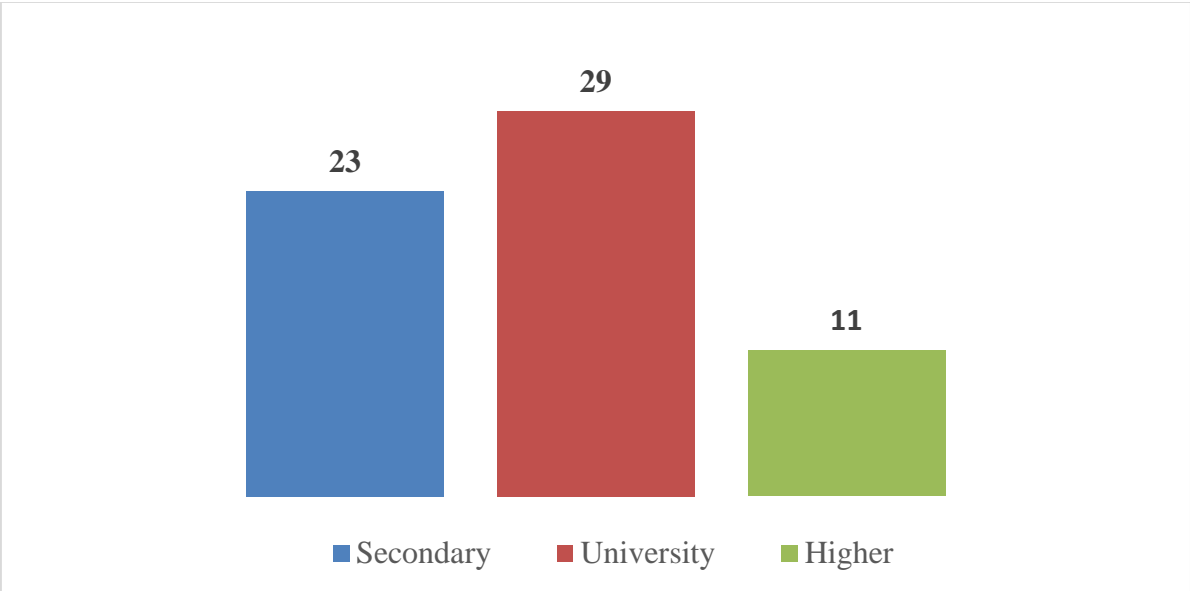


Figure 4. Marital Status

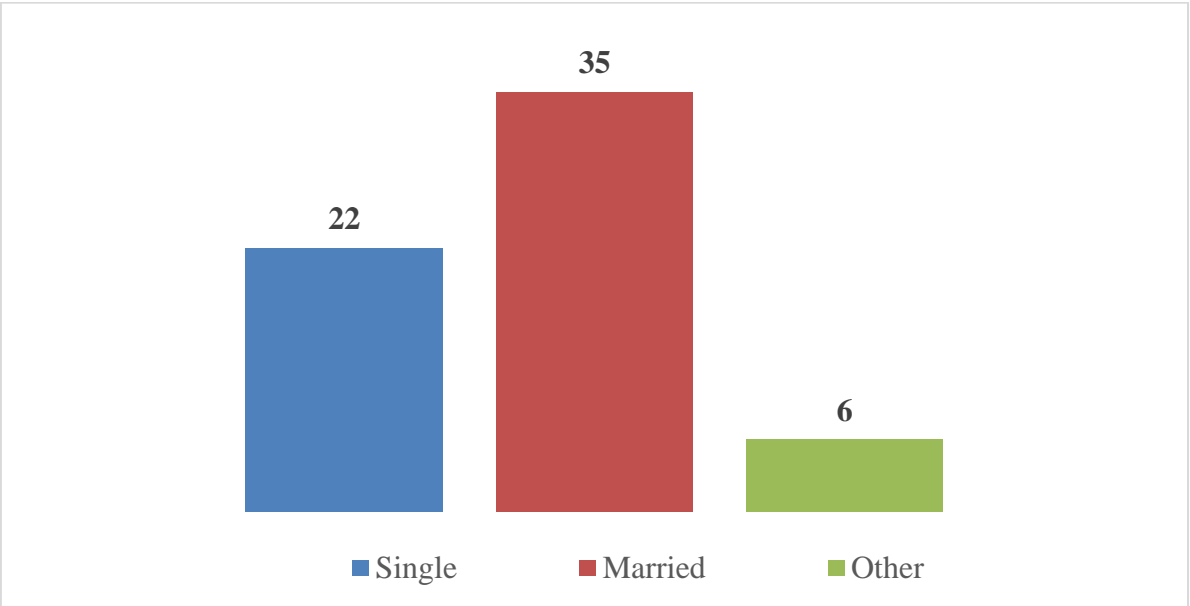


Figure 5. Work Engagement (Full/Part time)

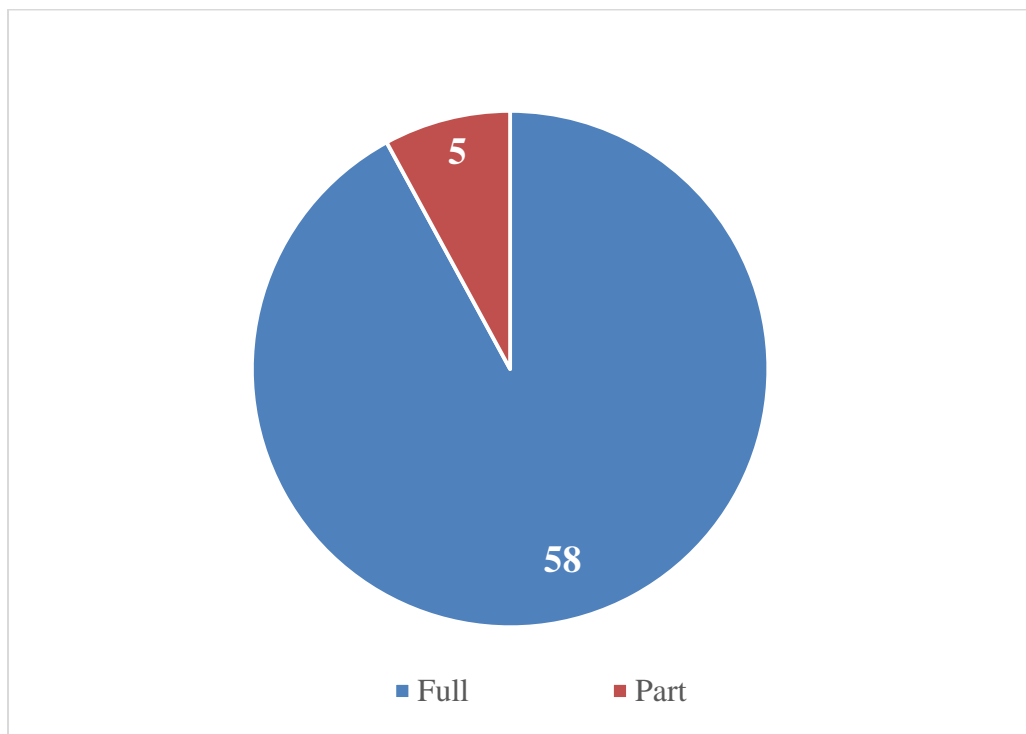


Figure 6. Years of Experience in the Telecommunication Sector

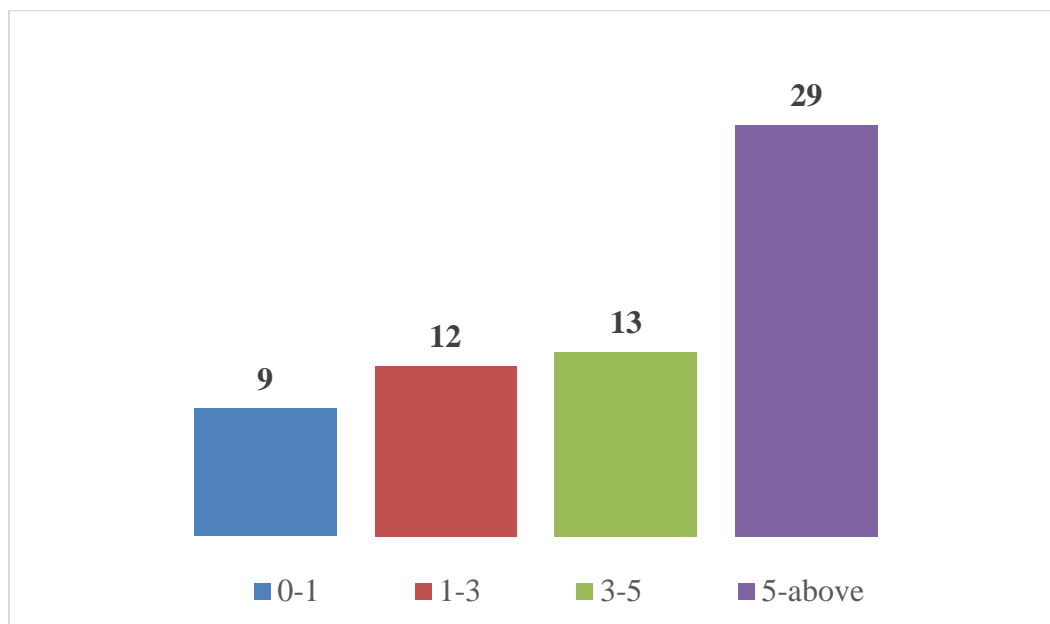
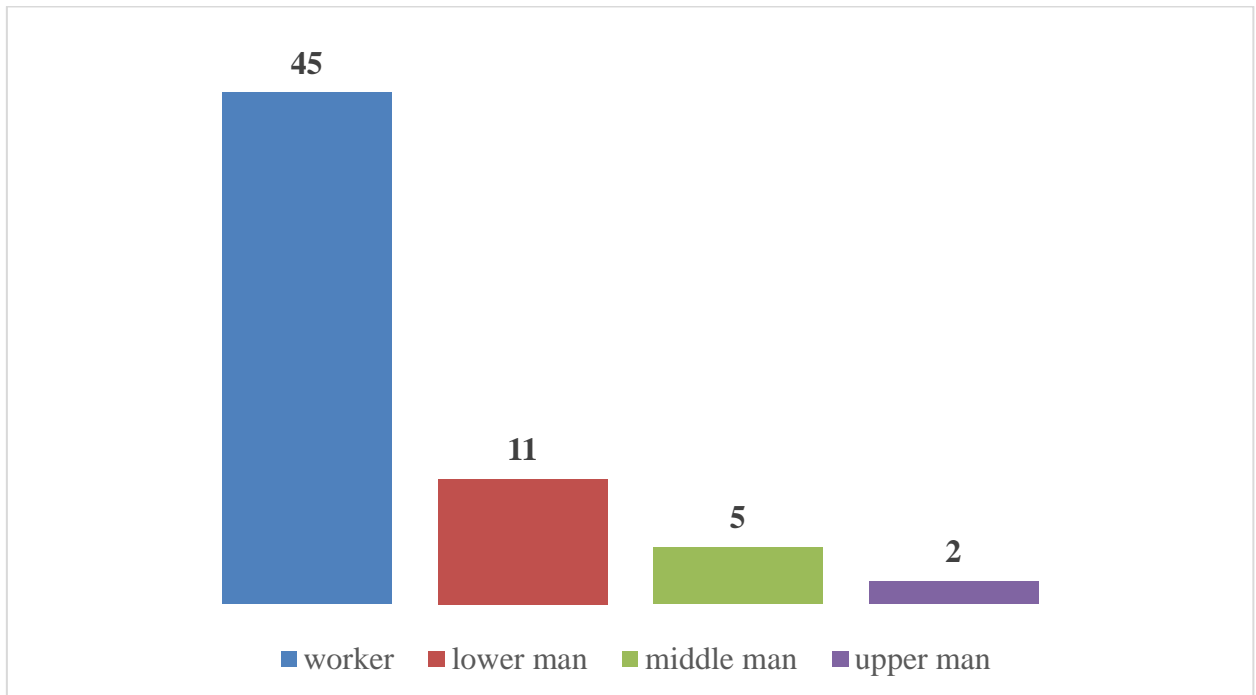


Figure 7. Position in the Company



4.2 Findings Regarding Female Progression

This chapter will present the main results obtained in this study. The starting point in this discussion was the following research question:

What barriers affect female progression to the managerial positions in the telecommunication industry in Macedonia?

In this segment, the perception of the barriers hindering female progression will be separately evaluated. In addition to explaining some of the main findings on these barriers, the difference in some demographic or other characteristics of the respondents will be presented.

4.2.1 Opportunity and mobility related barriers

In this segment, the opportunity and the mobility related barriers will be discussed. The statements used to measure this category are as follows:

- Women, generally, have fewer opportunities for training and professional education in the telecommunication sector than men.
- Inflexibility of organizational structures limits women in their carriers (e.g. not enough part time work opportunities).
- There are barriers for female progression toward senior positions in the first line management.
- There are barriers for female progression toward senior positions at the middle level management.

- There are barriers for female progression toward senior positions at the upper level management.

However, having in mind that the five questions (items) used to jointly measure this variable, it is important to identify if these instruments are reliable. Namely, if the difference in answers is due to the individual differences and not due to different interpretations of the questions, a similar setting should result in a similar result. Therefore, the test for Cronbach's Alpha is calculated with the previously set 0.4 threshold of acceptance. The result of this test and the other tests in this subchapter are presented in Appendix III. The calculated value of this test suggests that the measurements used for this barrier are reliable (as the calculated value is 0.498). The evaluation of these items is presented in the table below.

Table 6. Opportunity and Mobility Related Barriers

Number	Item	Mean value	Standard deviation
1	Fewer opportunities for training and education	3.08	0.867
2	Inflexibility of organization	3.86	0.895
3	Lower management barriers	3.62	0.705
4	Middle management barriers	3.97	0.718
5	Upper management barriers	4.33	0.718

From the figures below, it seems that the respondents in this survey generally don't agree with the statement that there are fewer opportunities for training and education for women than men, since the mean value for this item is 3.08. However, on the other hand, it does seem that they agree with the statement that the inflexibility of their organization (such as opportunities for part time work) limit women in their aspirations towards senior positions. In addition, it seems that the barriers for female progression as perceived by women increase with the organizational hierarchy. Namely, the lowest perceived barriers are in the lower managerial positions, followed by the middle and the upper managerial positions, with the mean values of 3.62, 3.97, and 4.33, respectively. It is noteworthy that the vast majority of women agree that the upper management positions pose significant barriers for women. Namely, the respondents were asked to evaluate these statements on the scale 1 to 5 (where 1 means highly disagree and 5 strongly agree), hence, any value of (significantly) above 3 should be considered as a generally perceived barrier, in the opinion of the female respondents¹.

¹ Although a question that is significantly different from the 3 (which is set to be the central value where respondents neither agree nor disagree with the statement). For this purpose, the statistical analysis was used.

However, there are also some differences in the responses based on the marital status, the position in the company, or other characteristics of the respondents. First, it seems that the barriers for the management positions are differently evaluated by the respondents in different positions (Appendix III – cross-tabulation matrixes). It seems that the respondents at the middle management positions mostly report that there are significant barriers at the middle management positions, while the respondents at the upper management positions report that there are significant barriers at the upper management positions (not a single respondent disagrees with it or is indifferent to this statement). However, this might be due to the over-estimation of the effort these respondents made in the recent past and might be subject to bias.

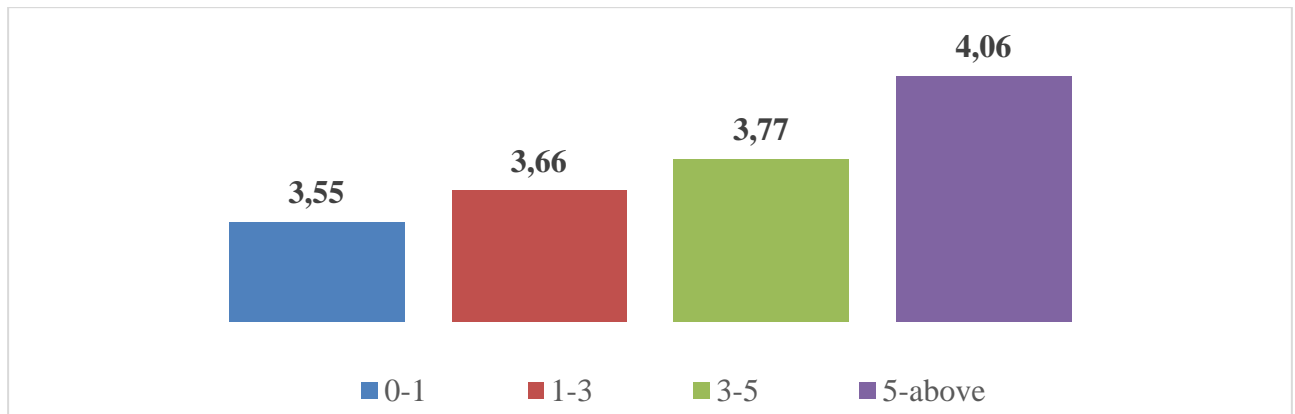
In addition, it seems that the respondents in the 45-and-above age group seem to agree to some extent (more than the other age groups) that there are significant barriers for women to enter the middle or the upper management (giving it a score of 4 or 5). However, this might not be because of their age, but because of their marital status (which should be correlated with the age). Therefore, it seems that more than the other respondents, the married respondents perceive that there is a significant inflexibility in the organizations that impair women's endeavours to climb up the corporate ladder. Also, it seems that the respondents who are married are more inclined to agree with the statements that there are barriers at any level of the management than the respondents in the "Single" category (Table 7). Lastly, it seems that the perception of inflexibility of the organization rises with the years of experience of the respondent. Namely, the highest relative score related to this issue was obtained from the respondents with 5 or more years of experience (about 4.1,) while for the respondents under one year of experience, this is significantly lower, about 3.5 (Figure 8). Some other characteristics of the respondents seem not to have any significant impact on the difference regarding these statements.

Table 7. Percentage of Women That Agree That There Are Barriers at Some Level of Management

	Lower level	Middle Level	Upper Level
Married	60%	83%	89%
Other	33%	100%	100%
Single	36%	50%	77%

The assumptions were that the standard deviation is from 0.7 to 1 (which is in most cases true for this study) at the 95% confidence level. The calculated confidence interval for this central value ranges from 0.17 to 0.25 (for the reasons of simplicity, we have taken only one, a stricter value of 0.25). Therefore, any value higher than 3.25 is considered as significantly different from 3 with the 95% significance level, implying that the respondents generally agree with the statement, and any value less than 2.85 would be also considered as significantly different from 3 at the 95% significance level, implying that the respondents generally disagree with the statement.

Figure 8. Average Scores for Inflexibility Relative to Years of Experience



Note. *These scores were calculated as averages from all the respondents in the age groups that were offered the chance to rate inflexibility as a problem ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

4.2.2 Formal and informal discrimination

Just like in the previous procedure, the first issue that was treated with regard to formal and informal discrimination is the reliability of the instruments, namely, the statements designed to reflect this aspect of the barriers for female progression:

- Women in the telecommunication sector are often faced with prejudices and stereotypes, which hinders their opportunities for progression in their careers.
- Women are often seen as less favourable candidates for leadership positions.
- The management in the telecommunication sector is traditional and male dominated.
- Women in the leadership positions are often judged for their unladylike behaviour.

Having in mind the results of Cronbach's Alpha (0.445), the instruments used seem to be reliable. Therefore, we can proceed and discuss the main findings regarding the discrimination presented in the table below.

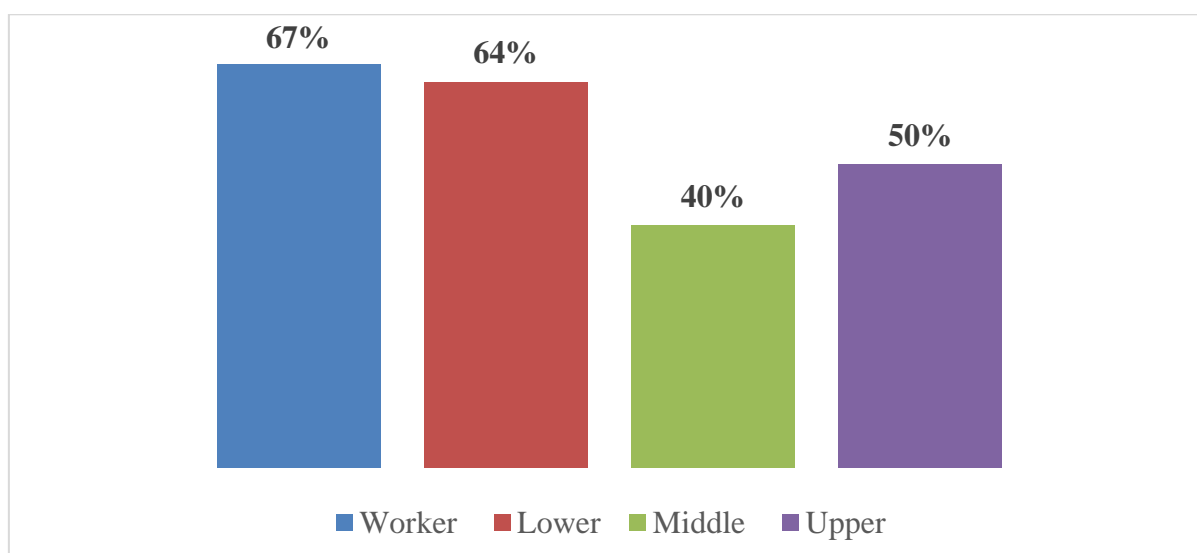
According to the results of our study, the respondents uniformly believe that there are significant prejudices and stereotypes that hinder women's career progression, as well as that there are some perceptions of women seen as less favourable for the leadership positions. Namely, these items received very high scores (4.25 and 4.22 respectively), which means that the majority of the respondents agree with these statements to some extent. On the other hand, fewer respondents agree with the statements that women in higher positions are often judged for their "unladylike" behaviour. However, more respondents agree with this statement than disagree, which may imply that, generally speaking, there is some informal discrimination related to this issue. Lastly, it seems that most of the respondents agree that the management of the companies is traditional and male dominated. This is entailed from a significantly high score obtained for this item, about 4.56, with a standard deviation of 0.501, which means that all women believe to some extent that this is the case (they gave this item the value of 4 or 5).

Table 8. Formal and Informal Discrimination

Number	Item	Mean value	Standard deviation
1	Prejudices and stereotypes	4.25	0.782
2	Women less favourable	4.22	0.683
3	Unladylike	3.71	0.750
4	Male dominated management	4.56	0.501

However, similar to the previous discussion, these results are not uniformly distributed among the pool of the respondents with different characteristics. Namely, it seems that the perception of the critique for unladylike behaviour of women is not equally correlated with their position. Surprisingly, it seems that full time workers are more inclined to believe this is the case (66% of them), as well as the respondents from the lower management (63%), while the degree of agreement of the respondents in the middle and upper management on this issue is generally less than 50% (Figure 9). Also, unlike the all other groups, the respondents from the upper management seem not to agree with the statement that the women in the telecommunication sector are perceived with prejudices. It seems that there is a general consensus over the other issues across different socio-demographic groups of respondents.

Figure 9. Respondents Agreeing that the Female Managers Are Judged for Their Unladylike Behaviour



4.2.3 Family related barriers

After confirming that the instruments used for evaluating the barriers hindering the female employees are reliable (Cronbach's Alpha equal to 0.597, Appendix V), the values for the two items measured are calculated. These are presented in the table below. Specifically, in this segment, the respondents were asked to what extent they agree with these statements (1 strongly disagree; 5 strongly agree):

1. Women have bigger family responsibilities than men, especially regarding children, which may hinder their potential to advance in their careers.
2. More than men, women faced barriers in moving up the steps of the company's ladder because of their family related responsibilities.

It seems that there is a general consensus among the respondents on this issue, since the values for these items are high, and the standard deviation is low. That is to say, the majority of the respondents seem to agree that there are bigger family responsibilities for women, and, also, they are often faced with more barriers when attempting to move up in their career advancement.

Table 9. Family Related Barriers

Number	Item	Mean value	Standard deviation
1	Family responsibilities	4.29	0.705
2	More responsibilities	4.22	0.580

Although most respondents agree that this is the case, there are some differences found in the sample. Namely, these differences primarily relate to the marital status of the respondents. As such, the respondents who neither agree nor disagree with these statements (giving it the rating of 3) are in the category "Single". Therefore, it might be that because of lack of personal experience concerning these issues, they were reluctant to answer either way.

4.2.4 Barriers with reference to the career choices

In this category, two statements were investigated:

1. There are no sufficient female mentors who the rest of the women can look up to, and
2. There are certain career choices that are considered not suitable for women.

Similar to the previous discussion, Cronbach's Alpha (0.458) confirms the reliability of the instruments. The evaluation of the items by the respondents of this survey are presented in the table below (Appendix VI). These values suggest that there is a general disbelief that certain career choices are not suitable for female workers. On the other hand, the value of

the “female mentors” item suggests that the respondents think there is a significant lack of the opportunities for mentorship among women.

Table 10. Barrier with Reference to the Career Choice

Number	Item	Mean value	Standard deviation
1	Female mentors	4.17	0.814
2	Career choices not for women	2.48	1.075

While the item (1) in the table above is met with a general consensus among the respondents, there are some differences in the answers among the respondents for item (2). Namely, it seems that this item differs by virtue of the levels of education. Thus, the higher education the respondents have, the less they believe this statement is true. Hence, 12.5% of the female respondents holding a college or post graduate degree seem to agree with it to some extent, while over 30% of the women with a high school diploma reported that they agree with this statement (Figure 10). Likewise, this difference can be noticed as regard to the position of the respondents. Thus, about 22% of the respondents who declared themselves as full time workers agreed with it, while this figure is significantly lower (11%) among the respondents who declared themselves as managers at any position (Figure 11). This might be explained by two different reasons. It might be that the females who are less successful are more inclined to believe this statement is true; however, it also may be that because some of the respondents refuse to believe in it, it eventually enables them to progress in their career (using masculine terms of leadership - they are fighters).

Figure 10. Percentage of Women (Based on their Education)
Who Agree with the Statement (2)

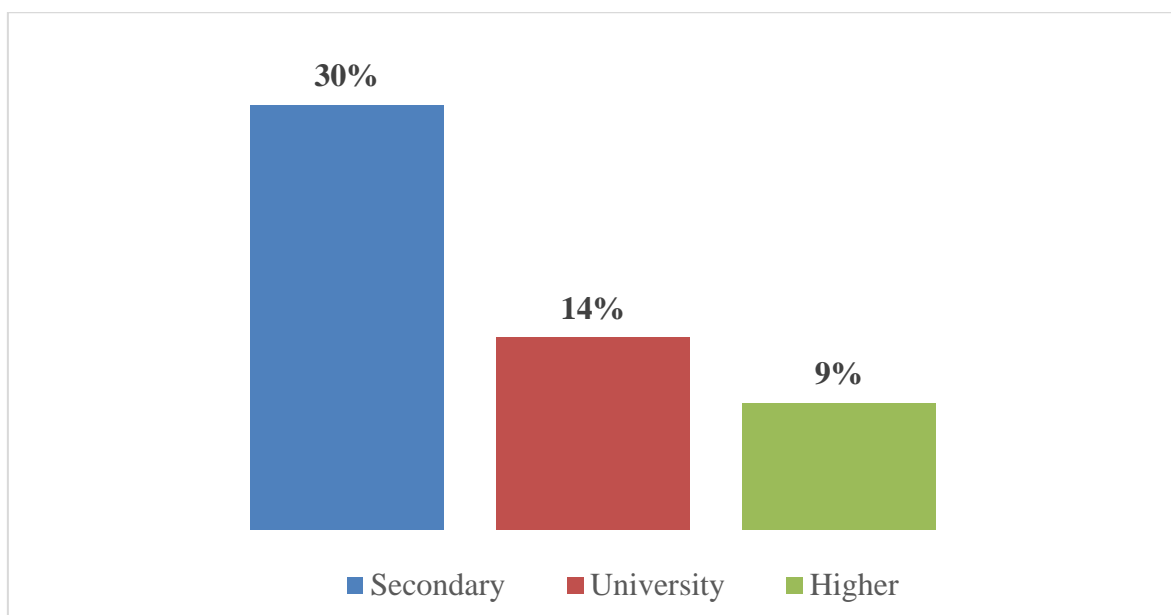
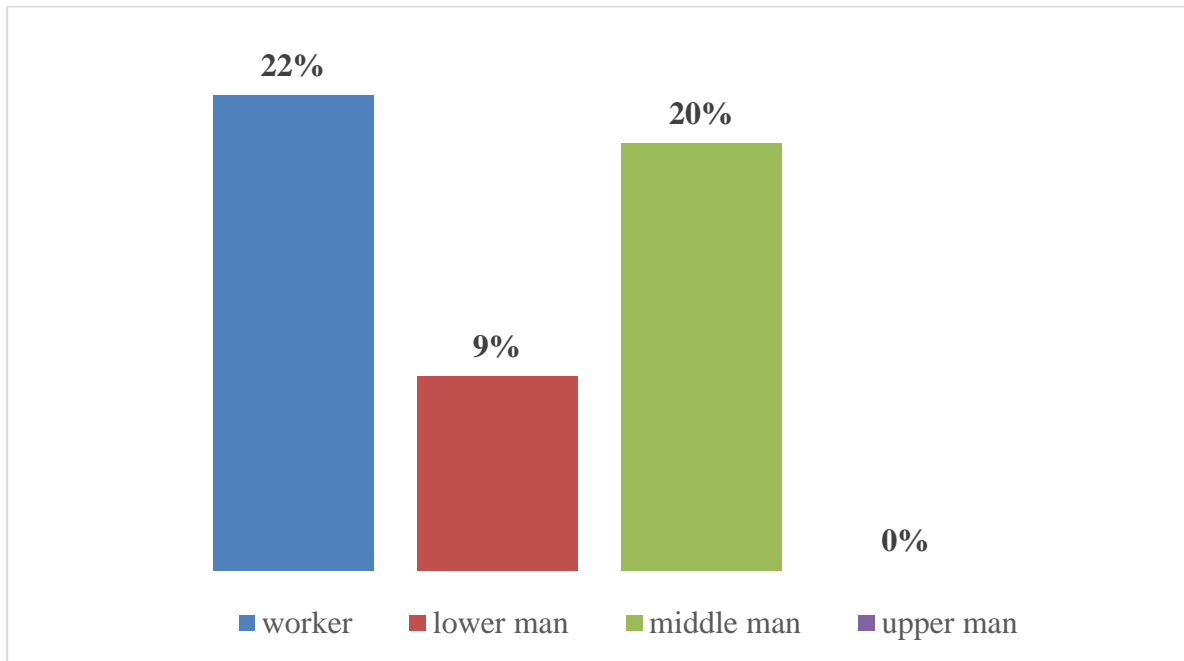


Figure 11. Percentage of Women (Based on their Position) Who Agree With the Statement
(2)



4.2.5 Limited opportunities to socialize

In order to identify this potential obstacle for female progression, the following two statements were evaluated:

- Women don't have equal opportunities to socialize with their colleagues as men do.
- It is more difficult for women to access professional networks than it is for men.

Cronbach's Alpha suggests that these items are reliable in measuring the selected variable (Appendix VII). Based on the results presented in the table below, it seems that the respondents don't believe that this might be a significant barrier for women. To be precise, most of them reported that they generally disagree with these statements, resulting in low mean values (2.86 and 2.73, respectively).

Table 11. Limited Opportunities to Socialize

Number	Item	Mean value	Standard deviation
1	Limited opportunities to socialize	2.86	0.998
2	Access to professional networks	2.73	1.260

Although it might be that the respondents with more professional experience and at management positions seem more inclined to agree with these statements, there are no other significant discrepancies in the sample. That is to say, the respondents with 5 or more years of professional experience tend to agree in about 42% of the cases that it is more difficult for women to access professional networks, while the respondents with less than 5 years agree only in 23% of the cases. Similarly, 44% of the respondents at the management positions (lower, middle, or upper) tend to agree with the statement that there are barriers for women to access professional networks, while only about 26% of the respondents putting themselves in the category of full time workers agree to some extent with this statement (giving it values of 4 or 5).

4.2.6 Summary of the results on the female progression barriers

In this segment, the summary of the results obtained in the previous discussion and the analysis thereof will be explained. Specifically, the five observed variables (opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers and limited opportunity to socialize) will be constructed by summing up the items used in their measures and dividing such result by the number of items. The results are summarized in the table below. In addition to these figures, the figures on minimum and maximum values of the item in each measurement are presented.

According to our analysis, the results suggest that there is a strong belief in the existence of the formal and the informal discrimination as well as family related barriers in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia. This conclusion is based on very high values for these measures, namely, 4.182 and 4.255, respectively. The second group of barriers seem to be coupled with lower values, thereby showing the respondents believe this is not so much true. These are opportunity and mobility related barriers, as well as career choice barriers, with the values of 3.772 and 3.325, respectively.

Table 12. Summary of the Results Regarding Female Progression Barriers

Number of statements	Barrier	Mean value	Maximum value	Minimum value
5	Opportunity and mobility related barriers	3.772	4.33	3.08
4	Formal and informal discrimination	4.185	4.56	3.71
2	Family related barriers	4.255	4.29	4.22
2	Career choice barriers	3.325	4.17	2.48
2	Limited opportunity to socialize	2.795	2.86	2.73

However, one should not neglect and immediately dismiss the existence of these barriers, as some items within it seem to be very high (4.33 and 4.17 the highest). Therefore, it might be that there are some aspects of these barriers that are important and persistent, while others are not so important. Lastly, the limited opportunity to socialize barrier seems not to be as important. Namely, the calculated value of this barrier is below 3, which can be considered as the threshold: above it, the respondents agree with its existence, and below it, the respondents disagree with it.

4.3 Final Considerations on the Female Progression Barriers

In addition to the considerations on the female progression barriers provided in the previous segment, there are few other issues and questions considered in this study. Namely, the respondents were asked about their perception of the “glass ceiling” in their organizations, about the progression opportunities in them regarding the telecommunication sector, and possible approaches that should be undertaken by the companies in order to foster female progression to senior positions. Based on the results of this survey, it seems that there is a “glass ceiling” problem in the telecommunication sector. Namely, under 15% of the respondents reported that the “glass ceiling” is not a problem in their company, whereas almost 86% argue that this problem is visible for them (figure in the Appendix VIII).

In addition, the figures below depict the main findings as regards the statements:

- People in my firm are promoted based on merit alone. (1 to 5 scale)
- There are clear progression opportunities for me in this organization. (1 to 5 scale)
- The telecommunication industry sector in Macedonia offers better chances for female progression than the rest of the economy (1 to 5 scale).

Therefore, having in mind the results of the study, the respondents generally seem to disagree with the statement that the promotions are solely merits based. That is, from 63 respondents, only 9, which is less than 15%, agree with this statement partially. The others in the sample seem to be undecided or disagree with it. Also, Figure 9 depicts the belief of the respondents in a clear career path in the company. Thus more respondents agree that there is a clear path for them in the company than they agree with the previous statement, more precisely, 15 of them (who circled 4 or 5), which corresponds to just under 24% of the total number of the respondents. However, there is still a large number of respondents who disagree with this statement. Namely, 29 respondents disagree with this statement, which is 46% (for the previous figure it was 27 respondents and 43%). This might imply that a substantial number of the respondents is not satisfied with the progression dynamics and the transparency of the whole process of progression (that is, merits are not known). Although this might be the case, the vast majority of the respondents reported that the telecommunication sector, in fact, offers better chances for female progression than the rest of the economy in Macedonia. The figures below present the results on these issues by way of the respondents designating number values of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to each of the statements denoted.

Figure 12. Promotions Based on Merits Alone

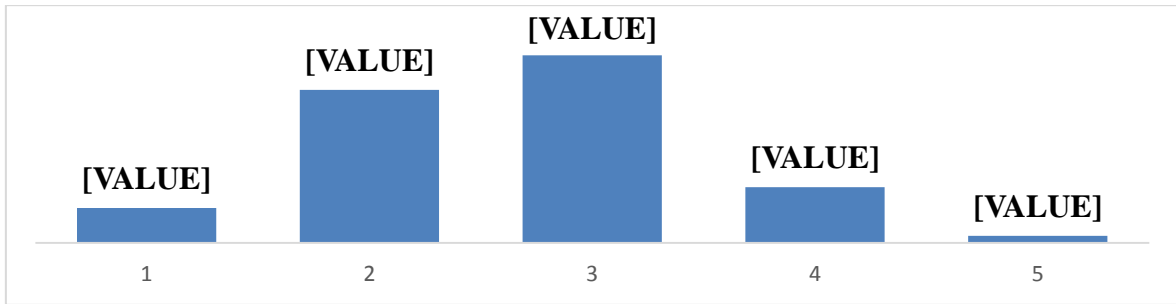


Figure 13. Clear Path for Progression in the Company

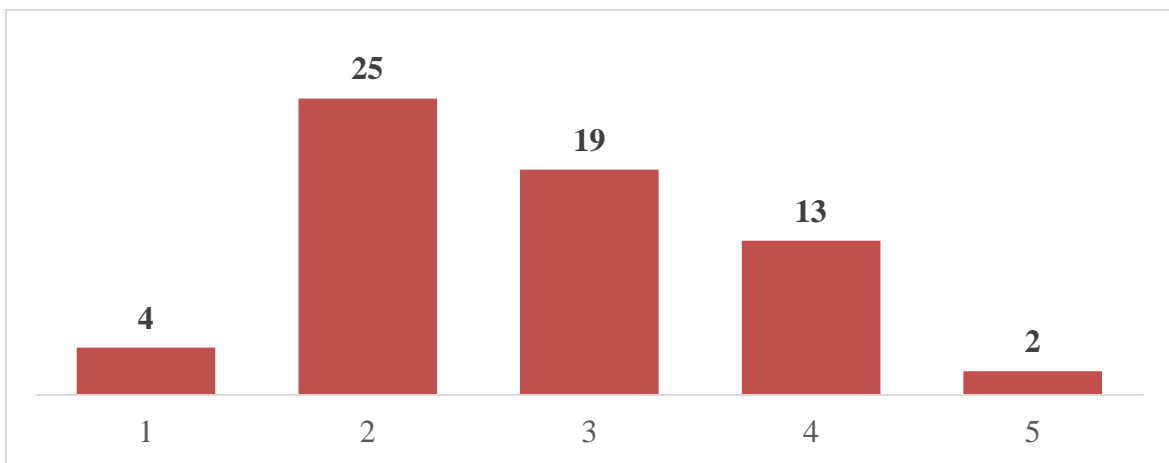
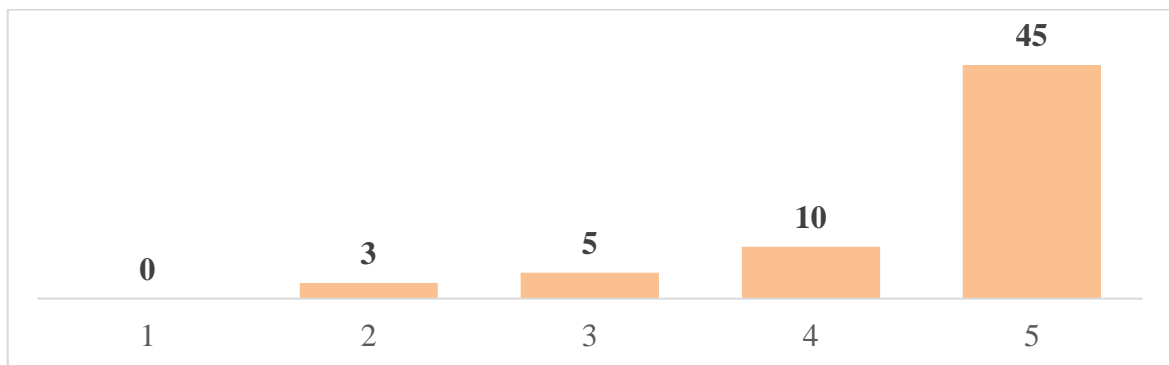


Figure 14. The Telecommunication Sector Offers Better Chances for Female Employees



The last question was designed to get the opinion of the respondents with regard to the improvement in their companies for the purpose of fostering female progression to senior positions. According to the results of the survey, the majority of the respondents claimed that the companies should either introduce services for childcare or provide mentoring and coaching for perspective female candidates. Twenty-two and twenty-one respondents agree with these recommendations, respectively. Also, introducing flexible working conditions received a significant number of respondents' replies.

Figure 15. Improvement Options

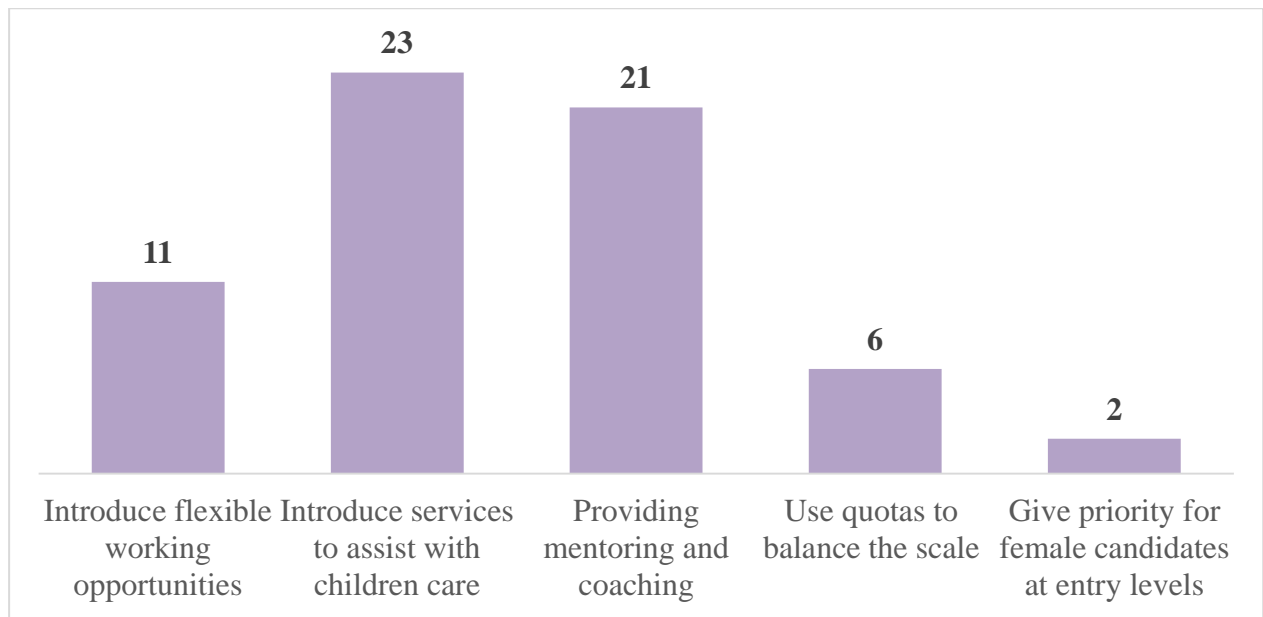


Table 13. Summary of Results

Barrier/statements	Mean value	It is perceived as:
Opportunity and mobility related barriers	3.772	Barrier
Formal and informal discrimination	4.185	Barrier
Family related barriers	4.255	Barrier
Career choice barriers	3.325	Barrier
Limited opportunity to socialize	2.795	Not significant barrier
There is the glass ceiling problem		YES
Merit based promotions	2.65	Problem
Clear path for progression in the company	2.74	Problem
Telecommunication sector better than other sectors	4.54	Telecommunication sector better

Improvement options

Children care/mentoring and coaching

In the table 13, the summary of the total results obtained in this analysis are presented. That is, it is shown that the respondents perceive barriers in the form of opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers and career choice barriers. On the other hand, it doesn't seem that the limited opportunity to socialize is perceived as a barrier according to our respondents. In addition, it is perceived

that the glass ceiling, promotions, and progression path of individuals may pose a problem. While the respondents reported that the telecommunication sector (specifically their companies) are better than the rest of the economy in Macedonia in that regard, the two main options for improvement are child care services, as well as mentoring and coaching for female employees.

4.4 Implications for the Practice

There are several recommendations that could be drawn from this research. In addition to the above presented findings, not many female respondents believe that there is a clear career path for them in the company, and that the progressions are based only on merits. However, they seem to agree that the telecommunication industry is a better choice for them than the other industries. Therefore, the telecommunication companies need to be the trend setters in this respect and introduce some features that will foster female progression. The first step would be to introduce help with childcare.

Namely, our survey identified that childcare and family responsibilities for women in Macedonia has been a huge barrier for their professional progression. In addition to the work related stress, women are unable to adequately achieve work-life balance. Therefore, some of the recommendations for the telecommunication companies in Macedonia are to include flexible working schedule for the females, so that they would be able to better achieve such a balance. In addition, the companies may include child care services in their compensation policies.

Namely, the companies may establish partnerships with the local kindergartens in order to set up a greater flexibility for their female employees. These kindergartens should have longer working hours in order to better facilitate the needs of the women in the telecommunication sector. Also, the fees should be subsidized by the companies. This goes in line with the findings that among all the respondents, the ones that are married seem to mostly agree that there are opportunity and mobility related barriers for them. In addition, this group of respondents argues that there is a significant inflexibility of the organizations they work in, which impairs their ability to climb up the corporate ladder. Finally, the respondents of the survey denote that childcare support is the most desirable task that should be implemented by the companies they work for.

In addition, it seems that there are not sufficient role models and mentors that women can look up to since the development of coaching and mentorship programs may be significantly beneficial for women in their career paths. However, it does not mean that exclusively female mentors may be the best option. Instead, the companies in the telecommunication sector may also encourage mentorship between men in senior positions as well as aspiring female managers. They could be appointed to encourage female leaders to seize career opportunities and build professional networks.

Lastly, one of the most hindering barrier identified in this research is formal and informal discrimination. Therefore, companies, chambers of economy, and the government should work together in order to decrease this kind of discrimination. This could be done by increasing knowledge on this issue among the parties, as ignorance may be the main cause of this problem.

4.5 Limitations and Suggestions for a Future Research

Almost no study can be done without certain limitations. That being the case, the researcher believes that such potential issues in the study should be addressed at this point, so as not to mislead the reader. Hence, one of the first limitations of the study is the sample size. Although it contains more than 60 responses, it might not be enough to represent the whole population of the women in the telecommunication sector. Namely, even in theoretical literature, this is also one of the theoretical disadvantages of the survey method. As Kelley et al (2003) argue, the researcher can rarely ensure that the number of the survey responses is high, since these are issues outside of his control. Moreover, the survey was conducted with a certain time framework, therefore, it may be misleading because of the current trends on the market and changes in the respondents' general opinions. If the study had been conducted at a different time period, for example, with a 5-year interval, potentially, additional information might be gleaned.

These issues primarily refer to the trends on the market and the potential laws included in the economic system in Macedonia. The last limitation that will be addressed here is the theoretical limitation of the survey analysis. As Kelley et al (2003) state, the survey analysis generally lacks a depth of data. Thus, the researcher does not have the option to probe deeper into the issues considered or to ask additional questions on certain phenomena observed during the analysis or during the other segments of the research process. Once the survey is concluded and distributed, there is little, if no chance of amending it for a different purpose. However, these and some other possible limitations would be once again identified in the Conclusion and their overall impact on the study evaluated.

Based on these limitations, there are some recommendations for a future research. Namely, researchers may want to broaden the sample of the survey by including more respondents and more industries. In addition, the male respondents might be considered as well, since their inclusion would identify the perception of both the males and the females and their difference. This kind of study could be replicated after a couple of years in order to identify potential changes in these issues. Moreover, the potential future researcher may also want to include interviews as a form of data collection. This may prove to be beneficial because the interviews would allow the researcher to probe deeper into the issues at hand. In addition, such a data collection method would allow the respondents to express a deeper meaning about specific issues and further address the issues treated.

However, notwithstanding the limitations of the study, the author believes that this study is important for a number of reasons. The first reason is that this study addresses the issue that is not widely discussed in Macedonia and calls for the improvement of the professional position of women in the workforce and their progression opportunities. This would benefit not only women, but also the companies at large and, ultimately, the society. Since women represent (about) 50% of the whole population of Macedonia, the barriers imposed on their progression significantly reduce the pool of potentially successful and high quality candidates for various senior position jobs. Therefore, apart from the social justice and legal reasons, the female progression has a clear economic benefit for the whole society. In addition, clearly set forth recommendations provide the companies with enough information to act on these current results and improve their performance by improving the satisfaction of their employees.

CONCLUSION

A number of studies suggests that women with equal managerial experience and professional education do not have the same positions as men, and even investing into their careers and education does not lead them towards senior positions. The empirical literature provided a substantial amount of evidence suggesting that a higher diversity in the workplace and in the boardrooms would lead towards a better performance of the company by holding other things constant. This ensues from the fact that companies with diverse management teams are better equipped with the knowledge about different demands from their customers, which enables them to get closer to them.

In addition, higher diversity seems to promote the problem of abilities and innovations within the organization. Not only does higher diversity make more economic sense on the contemporary market, but it is also an ethical thing to do. This view of social justice refers to the notion that everyone should have equal rights and everyone should be equally protected, regardless of their affiliation with certain groups. Lastly, there are legal issues embedded in the gender quotas, hence, equal protection rights were introduced in many countries. However, it seems that this situation has significantly improved over the last several decades.

While the developed countries have realized the benefits of equal opportunities, and, consequently, work towards reducing female progression barriers, from the existing empirical findings, it is not certain how this issue is perceived in Macedonia. For that purpose, the aim of this study was to identify the main barriers that affect female progression towards higher managerial positions in the telecommunication industry in Macedonia.

In order to meet this aim, the following research questions were set:

RQ1: Which barriers are the most important in the perception of the female employees in the telecommunication sector (among the theoretical ones as follows: opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers, and limited opportunity to socialize)?

RQ2: What is the perception of the progression opportunities for the females in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia?

There are different explanations why these barriers may exist. Namely, one of the theories - role congruity theory - suggests that this might be due to the existence of prejudices against certain groups of people. These emerge when some people hold a view and a stereotype about certain social groups, in this case women, and their traits and attributes. On the other hand, the same group perceives that the roles in the society (such as leadership positions) should have some inherited characteristics necessary for success.

When these roles are congruent with the stereotypes of certain social groups in the eyes of the perceiver, the result is that the perceiver would not question and further evaluate who the potential occupant of the role is. Therefore, this theory suggests that the prejudice against the traits of women result in incongruity because of a wrong perception of women's characteristics and the traits that a leader should possess. Based on these prejudices, two main issues and barriers in women's career path may arise: progression opportunities and a diverse pay structure. The progression opportunity barriers emerge when women don't have the same rights to progress to the senior management positions as men do, while the pay barriers refer to a lower compensation structure of one group against the other. In this thesis, five main progression barriers were identified: opportunity and mobility related barriers, formal and informal discrimination, family related barriers, career choice barriers and limited opportunity to socialize.

In order to investigate the existence of these barriers in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia, a survey analysis was conducted. This exploratory study was based on a qualitative approach via non-probability sampling, *a priori* taking into consideration the issues of validity and reliability. The analysis was done on the sample of 63 respondents with different socio-demographic characteristics, including age, education, marital status, position in the company, and years of experience.

The results of this analysis suggest that in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia there is a strong belief in the existence of formal and informal discrimination, as well as family related barriers. These findings are congruent with the studies done by many researchers addressing these issues (e.g. Ballenger, 2010; McMahon, Bimrose, & Watson, 2010; O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008; Correll et al, 2007; Wolfinger et al, 2008). Furthermore, the results of the survey show that the respondents do not fully believe that opportunity related barriers and career choice barriers exist in reality. Therefore, to some extent, these findings corroborate the arguments of Hewlett and Luce (2005) as well as Dahlvig and Longman (2010). However, in contrast, the respondents of this survey don't

agree that there are significant barriers for women to socialize and access professional networks. Therefore, it seems that the findings of Arthur, Patton, and Giancarlo (2007) are not replicated in this study. All these results seem to meet the conditions of reliability.

Generally, these barriers seem to pose significant disadvantage for female leaders. Namely, a large percentage of the respondents argue that the glass ceiling problem does exist in their companies. In addition, there is a strong disbelief that the promotions in the company are only done based on merits. Therefore, not many female respondents in this study reported that they could see a clear career path in their company. Although this might be the case, it seems that the telecommunication sector, based on the perception of respondents, offers better chances for progression than other sectors of the economy in Macedonia. Lastly, the respondents don't reach a general agreement on what the improvement options in their companies should be. However, the main options that were identified in this study are related to the child care support, mentorship and coaching programs, and introduction of flexible working conditions in order to provide the female employees with better chances of progression in their professional careers.

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Appendix A: Survey Questions

1. How old are you? 18-24; 25-34; 35-44; 45 and above
2. What is your highest qualification? Secondary; University degree; Higher than University (MSc, MBA, PhD)
3. What is your marital status? **Single, Married, Other**
4. In your job you are: **Full time or Part time?**
5. How long have you been working in telecommunication sector? **0-1, 1-3; 3-5; 5 and above**
6. Do you consider yourself to be at the position of: **regular worker; first line management; middle management; upper management?**

To what extent do you agree with the following statements; please answer about your perception in the telecommunication sector in Macedonia-specifically about your company and based on your experience: (1 strongly disagree; 5 strongly agree)

Opportunity and mobility-related barriers:

7. Women generally have fewer opportunities for training and professional education in telecommunication sector than men.
8. Inflexibility of organizational structures are limiting for women in their carriers (such as not enough part time work opportunities).
9. There are barriers for female progression into senior positions at first line management.
10. There are barriers for female progression into senior positions at middle level management.
11. There are barriers for female progression into senior positions at upper level management.

Formal and informal discrimination:

12. Women in telecommunication sector are often faced with prejudices and stereotypes which hinders their opportunities for progression in career.
13. Women are often seen as less favourable candidates for leadership positions.
14. The management in telecommunication sector is traditional and male dominated.
15. Women on leadership positions are often judged for their unladylike behaviour.

Family related barriers:

16. Women have higher family responsibilities than man, especially regarding children, which may hinder their potential to advance in career.
17. Women are often faced with barriers to move for the purpose of the career more than men, due to their family responsibilities.

Barriers in reference to career choice:

18. There are no sufficient female mentors that the rest of the women can look up to.
19. There are certain career choices that are considered not to be for women.

Limited opportunity to socialize:

20. Women don't have equal opportunities to socialize with colleagues as men do.
21. It is more difficult for women to access professional networks than man.

Additional questions regarding glass ceiling and progression opportunities in telecommunication industry:

22. Do you believe that “glass ceiling” exists for women in your organization? (glass ceiling refers to unacknowledged barrier to advancement in a profession) **Yes, No**

23. People in my firm are promoted based on merit alone. (1 to 5 scale)

24. There are clear progression opportunities for me in this organization. (1 to 5 scale)

25. Telecommunication industry sector in Macedonia offers better chance for female progression than rest of the economy. (1 to 5 scale)

26. What should be done in your company in order to foster female progression to senior positions:

- Introduce flexible working opportunities,
- Introduce services to assist with children care,
- Providing mentoring and coaching,
- Use quotas to balance the scale (proportions of males and females in senior positions),
- Give priority for female candidates at entry levels.

Appendix B: Basic Characteristics of the Sample Calculation

Age					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24	12	19.0	19.0	19.0
	25-34	26	41.3	41.3	60.3
	35-44	17	27.0	27.0	87.3
	45-above	8	12.7	12.7	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Education					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Higher	11	17.5	17.5	17.5
	Secondary	23	36.5	36.5	54.0
	University	29	46.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Marital status					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	35	55.6	55.6	55.6
	Other	6	9.5	9.5	65.1
	Single	22	34.9	34.9	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Engagement					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Full	58	92.1	92.1	92.1
	Part	5	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Years of experience					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-1	9	14.3	14.3	14.3
	1-3	12	19.0	19.0	33.3
	3-5	13	20.6	20.6	54.0

	5-above	29	46.0	46.0	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Position					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	lower man	11	17.5	17.5	17.5
	middle man	5	7.9	7.9	25.4
	upper man	2	3.2	3.2	28.6
	worker	45	71.4	71.4	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Note: lower, middle and upper man refers to management.

Appendix C: Opportunity Barriers

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	63	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	63	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.498	5

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fewer opportunities	63	1	5	3.08	.867
Inflexibility	63	2	5	3.86	.895
Lower man barriers	63	3	5	3.62	.705
Middle man barriers	63	3	5	3.97	.718
Upper man barriers	63	3	5	4.33	.718
Valid N (list wise)	63				

Position * Lower man barriers Cross tabulation

Count					
		Lower man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Position	lower man	5	3	3	11
	middle man	2	2	1	5
	upper man	1	1	0	2
	worker	24	17	4	45
Total		32	23	8	63

Position * Middle man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Middle man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Position	lower man	3	7	1	11
	middle man	0	3	2	5
	upper man	1	1	0	2
	worker	13	20	12	45
Total		17	31	15	63

Position * Upper man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Upper man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Position	lower man	0	6	5	11
	middle man	0	3	2	5
	upper man	0	0	2	2
	worker	9	15	21	45
Total		9	24	30	63

Age * Middle man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Middle man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Age	18-24	3	4	5	12
	25-34	9	13	4	26
	35-44	5	8	4	17
	45-above	0	6	2	8
Total		17	31	15	63

Age * Upper man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Upper man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Age	18-24	2	3	7	12
	25-34	5	11	10	26

	35-44	2	6	9	17
	45-above	0	4	4	8
Total		9	24	30	63

Age * Middle man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Middle man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Age	18-24	3	4	5	12
	25-34	9	13	4	26
	35-44	5	8	4	17
	45-above	0	6	2	8
Total		17	31	15	63

Age * Upper man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Upper man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Age	18-24	2	3	7	12
	25-34	5	11	10	26
	35-44	2	6	9	17
	45-above	0	4	4	8
Total		9	24	30	63

Marital status * Inflexibility Cross tabulation						
Count						
		Inflexibility				Total
		2	3	4	5	
Marital status	Married	1	1	19	14	35
	Other	0	1	5	0	6
	Single	5	10	6	1	22
Total		6	12	30	15	63

Marital status * Lower man barriers Cross tabulation				
Count				
	Lower man barriers			Total
	3	4	5	

Marital status	Married	14	16	5	35
	Other	4	1	1	6
	Single	14	6	2	22
Total		32	23	8	63

Marital status * Middle man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Middle man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Marital status	Married	6	19	10	35
	Other	0	4	2	6
	Single	11	8	3	22
Total		17	31	15	63

Marital status * Upper man barriers Cross tabulation					
Count					
		Upper man barriers			Total
		3	4	5	
Marital status	Married	4	18	13	35
	Other	0	1	5	6
	Single	5	5	12	22
Total		9	24	30	63

Years of experience * Inflexibility Cross tabulation						
Count						
		Inflexibility				Total
		2	3	4	5	
Years of experience	0-1	1	3	4	1	9
	1-3	2	3	4	3	12
	3-5	2	2	6	3	13
	5-above	1	4	16	8	29
Total		6	12	30	15	63

Appendix D: Informal and Formal Discrimination

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	63	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	63	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.445	4

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Prejudices	63	3	5	4.25	.782
Less favourable	63	3	5	4.22	.683
Unladylike	63	2	5	3.71	.750
Male dominated	63	4	5	4.56	.501
Valid N (list wise)	63				

Position * Unladylike Cross tabulation

Count		Unladylike				Total
		2	3	4	5	
Position	lower man	2	2	6	1	11
	middle man	0	3	1	1	5
	upper man	0	1	1	0	2
	worker	1	14	24	6	45
Total		3	20	32	8	63

Position * Prejudices Cross tabulation

Count		Prejudices			Total
		3	4	5	

Position	lower man	0	4	7	11
	middle man	1	2	2	5
	upper man	2	0	0	2
	Worker	10	15	20	45
Total		13	21	29	63

Appendix E: Female Related Barriers

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	63	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	63	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.597	2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Family responsibilities	63	3	5	4.29	.705
Move responsibilities	63	3	5	4.22	.580
Valid N (list wise)	63				

Marital status * Family responsibilities Cross tabulation

Count					
		Family responsibilities			Total
		3	4	5	
Marital status	Married	0	15	20	35
	Other	0	4	2	6
	Single	9	8	5	22
Total		9	27	27	63

Marital status * Move responsibilities Cross tabulation

Count					
		Move responsibilities			Total
		3	4	5	
Marital status	Married	0	20	15	35
	Other	0	5	1	6
	Single	5	14	3	22
Total		5	39	19	63

Appendix F: Barriers in Reference to Career Choice

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	63	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	63	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.458	2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Career choice	63	1	5	2.48	1.075
Insufficient female mentors	63	2	5	4.17	.814
Valid N (list wise)	63				

Education * Career choice Cross tabulation

Count							
		Career choice					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Education	Higher	5	4	1	1	0	11
	Secondary	2	3	11	7	0	23
	University	7	11	7	3	1	29
Total		14	18	19	11	1	63

Position * Career choice Cross tabulation

Count							
		Career choice					Total
		1	2	3	4	5	
Position	lower man	4	4	2	1	0	11

	middle man	0	2	2	1	0	5
	upper man	1	0	1	0	0	2
	worker	9	12	14	9	1	45
Total		14	18	19	11	1	63

Appendix G: Limited Opportunities to Socialize

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	63	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	63	100.0

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.526	2

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Socialize	63	1	5	2.86	.998
Networks	63	1	5	2.73	1.260
Valid N (list wise)	63				

Networks * Years of experience Cross tabulation

Count		Years of experience				Total
		0-1	1-3	3-5	5-above	
Networks	1	2	1	5	5	13
	2	2	4	3	7	16
	3	2	5	2	5	14
	4	3	0	3	9	15
	5	0	2	0	3	5
Total		9	12	13	29	63

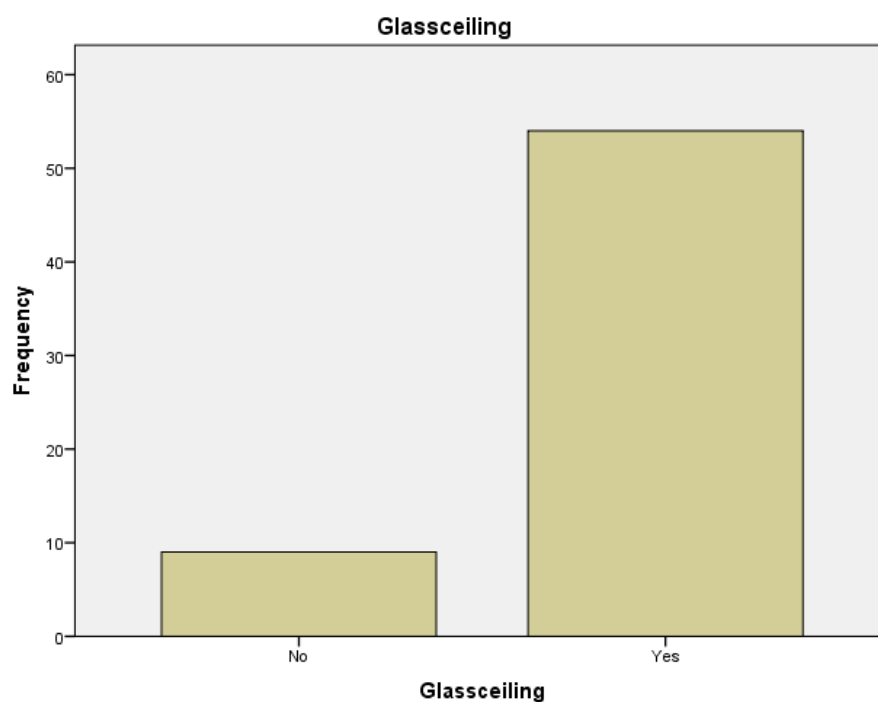
Networks * Position Cross tabulation

Count		Position				Total
		lower man	middle man	upper man	worker	
Networks	1	1	0	0	12	13
	2	3	2	0	11	16

	3	2	2	0	10	14
	4	4	1	2	8	15
	5	1	0	0	4	5
Total		11	5	2	45	63

Appendix H : Final Results

Glass ceiling belief



Merits alone					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	5	7.9	7.9	7.9
	2	22	34.9	34.9	42.9
	3	27	42.9	42.9	85.7
	4	8	12.7	12.7	98.4
	5	1	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Progression path					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	4	6.3	6.3	6.3
	2	25	39.7	39.7	46.0
	3	19	30.2	30.2	76.2
	4	13	20.6	20.6	96.8
	5	2	3.2	3.2	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Telecbetter					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	3	4.8	4.8	4.8
	3	5	7.9	7.9	12.7
	4	10	15.9	15.9	28.6
	5	45	71.4	71.4	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	