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Female Managers:
Their Struggle at Work
and in the Home
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Abstract
The struggles that female managers face at work and in the home are reviewed. Research suggests that sex role stereotypes, discrimination, lack of mentors, and tokenism contribute to the "glass ceiling effect." Studies on the struggle in the home focus on female managers' role conflict and role overload as they juggle home and employment responsibilities. Spousal influences are also noted in their amount of contribution to child and household duties, their attitudes of career precedence, and their earning power as compared to their wives. Consequences of the female manager's struggle are noted, including lower pay, lack of upward influence, "fear of success," premature termination, and stress. The physical and psychological effects of stress are related to the various roles of wife, mother, and worker. Coping strategies are evaluated for stress reduction. A synopsis is presented of the new female manager and predictions are made for the year 2000. Future research is suggested and remedial actions for women in management are recommended, such as paying close attention to sex role stereotypes before marriage and developing androgynous child-rearing practices.

"For many baby-boom women, the 1980's effectively destroyed the notion that they could have it all: a full-blown career, a happy marriage, well-adjusted children, and cellulite-free thighs" (Fierman, 1990, p. 40).

Most of these women are still waiting for their career dreams to be fulfilled. There are influences within the workplace and the home that restrict the female manager's advancement. The challenge for women desiring an executive position is to overcome these obstacles and prove their abilities.

Research on female managers escalated after the passage of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which amended the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Terborg, 1977). These acts specified that it is "illegal to discriminate on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex in hiring or promotional decisions" (Aldag & Stearns, 1991, p. 303). Since 1960, women have made progress by increasing their presence in management from virtual nonexistence to comprising one-third of its ranks. This statistic is deceiving; however, when enlightened by evidence that these women are largely restricted to low level supervisory positions (Schwartz, 1992). The realization of this phenomenon popularized the concept of the "glass ceiling effect" in the 1980's, which has been described as "a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy" (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990, p. 200).

Many studies explore the cognitive aspects of the glass ceiling effect (Corse, 1990; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990; Saltzman, 1991; Terborg, 1977), but Morrison and Von Glinow (1990) and Kanter (1977) include behavioral and systematic explanations as well. These and other studies describe how the female manager is stifled in ways beyond promotion. As compared to men, women receive lower pay (Rathus & Nevid, 1992; Saltzman, 1991), terminate employment sooner (Saltzman, 1991; Terborg, 1977), and have less upward influence at the office (Trempe, Rigny, & Haccoun, 1985).

In addition to the barriers present at work; female managers must also contend with the difficulties of juggling home and employment responsibilities. As women attempt to balance their roles of manager, and possibly wife and mother, they experience role overload and role conflict. Barnett and Baruch (1985) differentiate these terms by defining role overload as
"having so many demands related to one's role(s) that satisfactory performance is improbable" and predict role conflict when "the demands from two or more roles are such that adequate performance of one role jeopardizes adequate performance of the other(s)" (p. 136).

Spousal attitudes also contribute to the strain felt by female managers. Husbands' competition for career precedence over their wives' jobs, desire to maintain the "breadwinner" position, as well as their failure to share in household and child care duties can add to the predication of women in management (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1987; Zedick & Mosier, 1990).

Considering the many disadvantages with which women in management are faced, it is not surprising to find stress levels that damage their health (Baruch et al., 1987). Modifications at both work and home can support the future of the female manager. This paper reviews the recent literature concerning the disadvantages that the female manager faces in the home and workplace and the resulting consequences.

The Struggle at Work

Supporting Data

Women are sizably restricted from management and executive positions. This assertion is evidenced in a study conducted by the Fortune 500, the Fortune Service 500, and the 190 largest health care organizations in the United States, which found that only 3.6% of board directorships and 1.7% of corporate officerships in the Fortune 500 were held by women (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990).

In contrast to upper management positions, women move easily through the lower ranks of management. The reason for this distinction is because men can accept women with the technical expertise associated with these managers. The problem occurs at higher levels where managers are required to be powerful. It seems that men have trouble dealing with women in this sense (Gallese, 1991).

The most frequently disclosed disadvantage cited by women in management is the prevalence of male chauvinism. Over half of the female executives surveyed reported that men treat them differently. Of this group, 71% say this treatment is negative and largely involves being excluded from male social activities. The banishment of women from such occasions denies women of many career and business opportunities that may originate over lunch, in the locker room, or on the golf course (Schwartz, 1989).

The basis of the segregation shown to women is partly because men are more comfortable with other men. While in the presence of their same sex, men do not feel pressured to censor their language and can freely engage in non-business, male-oriented related topics, such as sports. These discriminatory actions lead to discontentment among many female managers. A survey by the Wall Street Journal and the Gallup Organization (Rogan, 1984a), which consisted of 722 female executives, revealed that two-thirds of these women could think of one or more advantages to being female; however, four out of five revealed an equal number of disadvantages.

Due to their discontentment, women in management are consequently forced to decide whether to accept the positions that men deem appropriate for them or to fight for those which are intentionally withheld from them. When women resolve to remain in a first-line management position, they can expect to remain functionally powerless (Kanter, 1977). Their fate is controlled by upper level managers and they have no input over the regulations they must enforce to their subordinates. The other decision, to strive for a better position in the hierarchy, is certainly not without its flaws. These women must either remain single or at least childless, or have children and be willing to have other people raise them.

With the dim prospects of either decision, some women cut back, produce less, or leave their position in management. "The problem is exacerbated at the upper levels of the company hierarchy, where negative experiences become more intense
because women are fewer and more isolated" (Schwartz, 1992, p. 109). Such experiences include a lack of recognition for efforts demonstrated and sexist behavior, which may range from off-color jokes to sexual advances.

Kanter (1977) examined the difficulties for women at the pinnacle of managerial success. The highest level of management is the "inner circle" in which entry can be extremely difficult, especially for women. Their difficulty breaking in is viewed as a sign of incompetence, which reinforces the insiders' practice of maintaining conformity and homogeneity. Many women who have managed to succeed in upper level positions are those who work in family owned businesses and are already part of the "inner circle."

**Explanatory Theories**

Three categories of theories that are recognized in the literature explaining the reasons for sexual differences in management are cognitive, behavioral, and systematic.

*Cognitive theories.* The cognitive theories explain women's differential treatment in management as a result of their personality traits, behaviors, attitudes, and socialization (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). For example, the typical stereotype of "women" does not fit with the demands of jobs considered "masculine," such as that of "manager." Women are expected to be more passive, friendly, emotional, dependent, and less assertive and aggressive than men. When women display authoritarian or autocratic qualities, they are evaluated negatively since these styles of management are seen as masculine and therefore inappropriate for women (Corse, 1990).

Corse (1990) also found evidence to conclude that women managers do not fit the traditional stereotype of "women," but rather exhibit many of the managerial behaviors of men. In fact, men and women managers are more comparable than different. An explanation for this similarity may be that women who pursue nontraditional careers reject sex role stereotypes and have needs, motives, and values similar to male managers (Terborg, 1977). The scenario that usually occurs, however, is that people's contradictory expectations of how a female manager should behave actually changes her behavior into a more limited, determined role (Corse, 1990).

While the stereotypical male role of manager is typically preferred by a manager's subordinates, peers, and superiors, Motowidlo (1982) found in a study of 38 women and 27 men who ranged from low to middle level managers, that it is actually the androgynous individuals who can perform in a wider range of situations appropriately and effectively. These individuals can be assertive in some situations and nurturant in others, or they can be assertive and nurturant in the same situation.

The contradiction of traditional beliefs and persistent evidence is referred to as the "paradox of gender," which Tavris (1991) believes is a result of using males as the "norm" and comparing women to them. Any differences spotted are thereby interpreted as women's inability to measure up to the superior, dominant standard. If women were used as the "norm," equally occurring deficiencies would be seen in men. For example, when comparing women to the male norm, women are seen as having lower self-esteem than men; however, using women as the norm, men would be viewed as being more conceited than women.

Attitudes and beliefs about women in management, as presented in the cognitive theories, feed into how they are treated in the workplace.

*Behavioral theories.* How successful women in management are seems to be answered differently, depending on which sex is asked. According to a study presented by Gallese (1991), "more than three-quarters of leader-type men believe that women are given equal opportunities to exercise power and authority; more than half of leader-type women believe that men receive more opportunities" (p. 21). Three-quarters of these men also believe that their companies actively encourage advancement of their
female employees; however, two-thirds of the women disagree.

The behavioral theories explain women's lack of upward mobility in administration as originating from the behavioral patterns of men in their discrimination of women. These actions are based on the cognitive theories which assert women as less suited for management than men (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990).

When in the company of successful women, the immediate behavior of their male co-workers may transform. Displays of aggression and potency sometimes become apparent via sexual innuendos, aggressive sexual teasing, and stories that magnify their abilities and boldness (Kanter, 1977).

Some male employees challenge the authority of their female superiors. Of the female executives surveyed by Rogan (1984a), 41% have encountered a male subordinate who resisted taking orders from them. The percentage goes up to 55 for young female executives.

As noted earlier, many women are not rising to the top in corporations because they want to focus on their personal lives, have children, or simply tire of the rat race. Others, however, make the personal sacrifices to tough it out. Their failure to succeed is best explained by discrimination (Fierman, 1990).

Systematic theories. The systematic theories focus on the structural format of organizations as the main cause of women's lack of managerial success. Within organizations' chains of command, there are scant numbers of women in the upper ranks of management. These sparse quantities weaken the opportunities of female managers to demonstrate their competence in this stratum.

The few women who are in upper management are seen as "tokens" whose performances are hindered because they are being judged separately from men, and any differences found are likely to be attributed to their sex (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). A survey by Rogan (1984a) confirms this claim by revealing that younger women believe they are judged on the basis of their appearances more than men and that their personal lives are scrutinized more closely.

Traditional male executives are most often uncomfortable with the sporadic appearance of women in their ranks. Tokens represent a threat to the dominant group because these women represent a danger of challenge and break the routine of men who are resistant to change (Kanter, 1977). This threat is reverted back to the female executive by making her mistakes and intimate relationships public knowledge and by making her afraid of "showing up" a male peer because it will draw everyone's attention (Kanter).

Another disadvantage women find as tokens, according to the systemic theory, is that they may find it difficult to develop mentor relationships. Mentors are extremely important for aspiring executives because these advocates make introductions, train them to move effectively through the system, and help the individual find ways to cut the "red tape." They also take a stand for the person in question and provide an important signal to others, indicating that the aspiring person has the backing of an influential mentor (Kanter, 1977).

Since the management population is predominantly male, these mentor relationships are typically male-female and may be stressful because of fears of intimacy and public scrutiny. Female managers may also have difficulty finding a male mentor who they feel can adequately understand their fears, conflicts, and rejection (Aldag & Stearns, 1991).

In contrast to the cognitive and behavioral models which tend to reinforce the belief that "women are different" and should therefore remain in an inferior position, the systemic model addresses the issues of role constraint and the effects of opportunity, power, and numbers. This model requires organizations to change (Kanter, 1977) by circulating females throughout all levels of management.

Consequences

Consequences of the glass ceiling effect, other than the already mentioned exodus from management, are lower
earnings than equivalent male peers, lack of upward influence, and "fear of success" (Janman, 1989).

Unyielding evidence supports the first consequence of the glass ceiling effect introduced above, which is lower wages for women (Rathus & Nevid, 1992; Rogan, 1984a; Saltzman, 1991; Smith & Ward, 1989; Wood & Wood, 1993). Seventy percent of the 722 female executives surveyed by Rogan (1984a) believe they are paid less than a man for equal work. More currently, Saltzman (1991) found that 44% of financial managers are women who earn only 67% of men's wages and that 56% of personnel and labor relations managers are women receiving 69% of men's wages.

The explanation for the gap in earnings between men and women originates from the lower paying jobs that women traditionally held (Rathus & Nevid, 1992). The imbalance continues as an argument that women in general are less likely to give a return on the company's recruitment and training costs because they quit sooner than men. Terborg (1977) counters this argument with evidence from previous studies which indicate that women do not quit sooner, take more sick leave, and so forth than men and that even if they did, it could very well be due to the fact that their salaries are lower or that other rewards are unequal from those of men.

The second consequence of the glass ceiling effect presented is the lack of female managers' influence over higher level managers. This decreased ability affects how their subordinates view their authority. Trempe, Rigny, and Haccoun (1985) disclosed that it is this lack of upward influence, not gender status, that has a significant impact on subordinate satisfaction. The implications of this study are that organizations concerned about hiring female managers and their impact on subordinates should be less concerned with gender and more interested in the upwards influence of a manager.

The third consequence of the glass ceiling effect to be discussed is labeled "fear of success." This term is misleading because it suggests that women fear the authority they have come so far to attain. The correct meaning of this expression, which Janman (1989) reinforced in several studies, is a fear of visibility in a dominant environment which may incur negative reactions from their significant others. The responding behavior of the "token" may be a withdrawal from any recognition of their presence (Kanter, 1977).

Female managers struggle with the issues of stereotyping, discrimination, and tokenism in the workplace. There is however, a separate set of issues pertinent to these women's careers which stem from their personal lives.

The Struggle in the Home

Dual-Role Conflict

Success carries separate implications for women and men beyond the office. As Tavris (1991) points out, women have more than the two basic jobs of home and work. "They do the 'interaction work' in conversations - making sure feelings aren't hurt and keeping the ball rolling" (p. 117). In addition, they are in charge of "kin work," which encompasses making phone calls to keep in touch, sending holiday and birthday cards, and planning parties. Wives are also typically responsible for monitoring the status of their marriage.

The distinction of roles for female managers becomes considerably more difficult when they are mothers. Since women have not been fully assimilated into business, child care issues have not been recognized as a business concern (Schwartz, 1989). Most companies also do not offer flexible work schedules or part-time options for working mothers, especially in the area of management. The reason for this inflexibility is a reflection of many male executives' beliefs that working mothers are only interested in short-term employment and that female managers who decide to have children are not committed to their careers (Hymowitz, 1984). Organizations that do not offer child care and flexible hours suffer as much as the individuals they neglect. Women who choose to leave companies
for lack of support may be some of their best employees, "those who could bring the same uncompromising standards to their performance in the workplace that they do to the rearing of their children" (Schwartz, 1992, p. 110).

Without the flexibility and support which mothers need to function effectively, their experience is one of distraction, diversion, anxiety, absenteeism, and above all, guilt (Schwartz, 1989). This scenario is especially true for mothers who are not married, have no other adult support, or who have a handicapped, chronically ill, or preschool child (Hoffman, 1989).

Women who are in the upper management positions are able to hire others to assist in child care and household duties. Although assistance relieves some of the role conflict, these women still often feel strain and guilt about their inability to manage the roles of wife, mother, and executive themselves. Much of this strain results from the demands to wine and dine clients after hours (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, & Zellman, 1978; Hymowitz, 1984).

A woman's level of education can also play a part in the degree of dual-role conflict she experiences. Barnett and Baruch (1985) conducted an experiment of 238 women whose ages ranged from 35 to 55 and found that the amount of their education was positively correlated with role overload, role conflict, and anxiety. The researchers hypothesized that this result was due to the more highly educated individuals having more rigid standards for themselves as wives or mothers. Alternative explanations were that the women with more education had greater demands at work or were more likely to report any role conflict.

For these reasons, many female managers postpone their first child or remain home during the pre-school years. The decision to delay parenting seems to vary widely when comparing female and male executives. A survey in the Harvard Business Review reports that by the age of 40, approximately 90% of executive men have children, while this is true for only 35% of executive women (Schwartz, 1989). Another study (Hiller & Philliber, 1980), which surveyed 1,606 married women, showed a negative relationship between having pre-school children and being employed, meaning that many women with small children are not employed.

**Husbands' Impact**

"Just as there is a wage gap between men and women in the workplace, there is a 'leisure gap' between them at home" (Hochschild, 1993). Hochschild coined the term "second shift" to describe a woman's extended work day as it continues at home. After working from nine to five, many women come home to cook dinner, clean, do the laundry and grocery shopping, help their children with their homework, and get them ready for bed. Some husbands contribute more to this process than others.

A survey by Rogan (1984b) found that most female executives' husbands share the child-rearing responsibilities; however, 5% or less assume chief responsibility in any one task. The amount of help given by husbands is also related to the men's occupational status. Women who reported being married to blue-collar men claimed to assume 57% of the domestic responsibility. In contrast, the women who portrayed themselves as being married to professional men claimed to shoulder 28% of the familial tasks.

This survey also found that higher level executive women tend to marry men with similar backgrounds, and as a result, 58% of the married executives have husbands who work in professional or managerial jobs. Lower level executives, however, are less likely to follow this pattern and consequently one in five of these women is married to a man with a blue-collar job (Rogan, 1984b).

Husbands who share the responsibilities at home are an asset to their wives. These women prove to be more satisfied with their lives (Rogan, 1984b), report less strain, and are better able to experience the positive effects of their employment (Hoffman, 1989).

Despite the help offered to women, they tend to take a greater interest than men
in attempting to juggle work and home demands. Hochschild (1993) revealed in a study conducted of 50 dual-career couples that even when their husbands are willing to share in the hours of work, women feel more accountable for the home and children. They think about their children more at work and call to check on them more often.

The stereotypes attributed to female managers at work also affect their lives at home. Men view women as the nurturers of children and so they understand and support their wives' choice of caretaker over employee. "By condoning and taking pleasure in women's traditional behavior, men reinforce it" (Schwartz, 1989, p.67). As a result, women may choose to extend their maternity leave or terminate their employment, at least for several years.

How quickly a woman coming back from maternity leave can adjust to being a working mother largely depends on the support she receives from her husband. Some husbands take the position that it is all right for their wife to work as long as it does not interfere with her household duties as wife and mother, whereas other husbands willingly accept and partake in the child rearing duties (Hymowitz, 1984).

Baruch and Barnett (1986) studied 160 middle-class mothers and fathers of kindergarten and fourth-grade children and demonstrated the dissatisfaction that husbands of working mothers experience. The results showed that the amount of time fathers spent with their children when the mother was present was significantly and negatively correlated with their satisfaction of their wives' work schedules. In essence, this finding means that as time spent with their children increased, husbands' satisfaction with their wives' jobs decreased. The reason for this correlation may be due to concerns about the wives' work roles interfering with the husbands' careers. The pattern found in this study indicated that husbands did not see their own careers as a source of stress; rather it was the wives' career needs that seemed to infringe on the husbands' careers.

While a dual-career marriage may be a dissatisfier for husbands, as noted above, most prefer it due to increased contentment in their wives (Baruch & Barnett, 1986). What seems more palatable to husbands is part-time work for their wives. While this situation alleviates husbands' distress associated with a dual-career marriage, it reinforces the stereotype that defines the home and children as primarily women's responsibilities (Ulbrich, 1988).

Besides husbands' feeling that their careers are jeopardized by their wives' jobs, husbands also appear to be sensitive to their wives' ability to out-earn them. Although women are more likely to enter the job force when their husbands' income is lower (Hiller & Philliber, 1980), husbands still need to feel like their earnings alone are adequate to meet the economic needs of the family (Graham, Pottick, & Fudge, 1986).

The Wall Street Journal (Rogan, 1984b) reported that 58% of executive women earn more than their husbands. This disparity is a source of conflict in their marriages and often leads to divorce (Hays, 1987). One theory to explain this discord is that wives who establish economic independence are able to free themselves from already unhappy marriages. Another theory, however, suggests that the changes in traditional family roles, such as women not assuming primary traditional roles at home, are the reason for the divorce (Hays).

In two-career marriages, women usually allow their husbands' job location to override their own opportunity to relocate for advancement. Based on a 1987 sample of migrant couples, Shihadeh (1991) found that three-fourths of the wives moved to follow their spouses, whereas only 4% of the husbands moved for their wives' career advancement. In addition, women were also seen as "tied stayers" (Shihadeh), that is, declining promotions for the sake of the family or being denied such advancements by employers, based on their husbands' careers (Rogan, 1984a). This tradition is waning, however, as more women refrain from moving when their husbands are relocated. The consequences of this decision are that the couple lives in two
different cities and experiences decreased intimacy (Frieze et al., 1978).

Women's dual-role of worker and caretaker often combines a high level of psychological demands with a low level of control. These two variables create arousal and frustration and, over time, damage the woman's health (Baruch et al., 1987).

**Resulting Stress**

Failing to adjust to the plethora of challenges that a female manager must face results in stress. Recognition of the causes and effects of such stress is crucial to taking the necessary steps to remain physically and emotionally healthy.

**Physical and Psychological Effects**

A professional woman's physical and psychological problems are generated by elements from each role she possesses. In the role of wife, interpersonal problems such as marital conflict and marital dissatisfaction are seen to be major stressors (Baruch et al., 1987). As noted previously, much of this discord stems from the amount of time husbands spend on household and child duties, the impact of the women's career needs on the husbands' success, and the wives' ability to out-earn their husbands. These factors are associated with elevated blood pressure and depression in women (Baruch et al.).

The role of mother is seen as the major contributor to stress (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). In fact, it is the roles of wife and mother which actually increase the effects of work stress and the role of employee that buffers the effects of family life stress (Baruch et al., 1987). "In several studies of highly educated dual-career couples, parents report that the mother's career has enhanced their marriage, despite the inconveniences it has caused" (Hoffman, 1989, p. 285). In addition, employed mothers tend to score lower than unemployed mothers on psychosomatic symptoms and depression (Hoffman).

In the role of mother, primary responsibility for the well-being of others, especially children, contributes to working women's vulnerability to stress (Baruch et al., 1987). Interview studies (Hoffman, 1989) reveal that the concerns of employed mothers are about not having enough time, the negative effects of their work on their children, and finding adequate day care. Hochschild (1993) cites lack of sleep as another major issue for working mothers because their rest is compromised by children waking them in the middle of the night. Therefore, these women are more likely than men to complain of being overtired, sick, and emotionally drained.

One reason that women experience more stress from their roles of wife and mother than that of employee may be that they find it less acceptable to acknowledge family problems than work problems. They feel they should be able to handle the duties required in the home and may be less likely to seek social support about these issues (Baruch et al., 1987).

A prolonged benefit of women having a career is that the role of worker continues to enhance her life satisfaction in her middle age years. Working women who are married and have grown children seem to be very satisfied at this stage in their lives, whereas women with limited roles are more likely to feel negative effects from the sex-role losses of this period (Frieze et al., 1978).

The status of worker is not totally void of impact on the female worker's stress level. In fact, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) has passed regulations to protect the health and safety of workers for many years, and is now looking at the adverse effects on mental health stemming from work environments. Some sources of stress cited by NIOSH are heavy work load with little control over how the work will be done, ambiguity in job role, role conflict, lack of job security, and poor relationships with co-workers (Wood & Wood, 1993).

Tavris (1991) extended the notion of women's lack of control in the workplace to encompass a cycle of events. Initially, women are members of a low status group who have less power than men in occupational roles. These women may react to their status by showing signs
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of depression such as low self-esteem, submissiveness, sadness, helplessness, dependency, and loss of initiative and energy (Frieze et al., 1978). Such reactions limit their accomplishments and consequently close the loop of the "psychological cycle of powerlessness" (Tavris, 1991).

Coping Strategies

Stress due to role transitions may be reduced through social support, job training programs, receiving information about new roles, flexibility in adaptation, and maintenance of other roles previously held (Frieze et al., 1978). In addition, specific coping techniques used by an individual can be very effective in diminishing the stress accompanied by multiple roles. "Coping refers to a person's cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage demands that are appraised as taxing or as exceeding their resources" (Long, Kahn, & Schutz, 1992, p. 228).

Long et al. (1992) conducted a study of managerial women who used disengagement (inactive) and engagement (active) coping skills. The results of this study indicated that while both types of skills were useful when dealing with employment stress, emphasis on disengagement coping may lead to greater distress since the women do not attempt to solve their problem.

Actively obtaining supportive mentoring systems and peers are important for reducing stress and dissatisfaction. However, women with high levels of self-efficacy in their general coping skills who persistently use engagement coping tactics without resolution of the stressor may experience increased stress (Long et al., 1992).

Another study conducted by McLaughlin, Cormier, and Cormier (1988) focused on the coping strategies used by women in dual-career marriages with at least one child under the age of twelve. These researchers focused on time management and self-care coping strategies. The women in multiple roles who used more of these coping strategies and used them more often were less distressed and more satisfied with their marriages. An exception to this result was that multiple role women who relied heavily on self-care techniques reported greater levels of stress. These women may have been so overloaded with others' needs that efforts to care for themselves only added to their demands.

The New Female Manager

Despite the disadvantages that correspond to a female manager's career, her managerial style and increasing presence in management are indicators of a bright future.

Managerial Style

Stereotypical managers (i.e., having masculine traits) tend to motivate their subordinates by focusing on their self-interests; therefore, they give rewards to peak performers and punish those whose performance is poor. Not all women are comfortable with this style of motivation and choose to inspire their subordinates with a more open, nonconfrontational approach. These female managers utilize their method by encouraging the direction of employees' self-interests toward broader goals of the company (Saltzman, 1991).

This feminine model of "sharing information and encouraging participation" (Saltzman, 1991, p. 47) has been promoted in the popular Japanese management theory, Theory J, which deserves credit for the model's increasing acceptance. Theory J is based on a managerial style which encourages consensual decision making and collective responsibility using implicit, informal control with holistic concern for each employee as a person (Aldag & Stearns, 1991).

Another advantage that female executives offer corporations is their presence as role models and mentors for younger women who also put their careers first (Schwartz, 1989). In fact, the results of a study by Hiller & Philliber (1980) showed that "job potential appears to be the single most important reason married women participate in the labor force" (p.
While female executives offer inspiration to women in lower management, they also present some hurdles for their analogous subordinates. Professional women commonly develop feelings of hatred for traditional women because they possess the qualities that the dominant group (men) devalue. The result is the "queen bee" syndrome, which is characterized by female executives sabotaging younger women instead of helping them succeed. Frieze et al. (1978) note that this is not standard behavior among successful women, but is more common than group loyalty.

Aspiring female managers therefore face opposition from men and women alike in the workplace. An alternate goal plan for many of these women has become entrepreneurship. A 1990 report showed that the number of women who bucked the system and started their own businesses increased 50% from 1980 to a new pinnacle of 3.1 million (Saltzman, 1991).

The Future

Predictions reveal that executive men and women need to change their views of female managers for the sake of their companies (Schwartz, 1989, 1992; Smith & Ward, 1989). Schwartz (1989, 1992) predicted in the Harvard Business Review that over the next decade, women are going to move from a buyer's to a seller's market. This theory is supported by past and present population trends.

Previously, the baby boomers created an expanded recruitment pool which contained sufficient males for selection into the executive positions. Since that period, however, the population trend leveled off, the economy expanded, and "women now earn 55% of all undergraduate accounting degrees and 35% of MBA's" (Schwartz, 1992, p. 108). The probable consequence of this series of events is that the top 10% of managers will increasingly consist of women. These facts and predictions indicate that if corporations want to continue to recruit the best managers, they will have to select women (Schwartz, 1989).

Smith and Ward (1989) made further predictions for current female managers. Although women are scarce among the business elite, their presence in middle management will lead to positions as senior partners, chiefs of staff, and CEO's in the next 20 years. Much of this escalation is credited to more women entering the work force and choosing more continuous and uninterrupted careers.

One unfortunate result of women's success in the labor market may be a less stable family life. "For example, economic studies have consistently shown that rising female wages encourage work and inhibit fertility, and that, more directly, marriages where women can earn more are likely to dissolve" (Smith & Ward, 1989, p. 22).

Conclusion

Summary

The female manager of the 90's faces challenges in advancing within the work environment and balancing occupational and domestic roles. The current research presents these two areas as interrelated, each with its own set of issues.

Relevant studies (Corse, 1990; Kanter, 1977; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990; Schwartz, 1989) reviewed for this paper point to male chauvinism as the primary source of the glass ceiling effect. Stereotypes assume that women are passive and nurturant, lacking in assertiveness and self-confidence, and therefore incapable of executive positions. With these convictions firmly in place, discrimination circulates in epidemic proportions throughout corporations. Lack of respect among superiors, peers, and subordinates alike divert from a woman's capabilities in the office.

Beyond stereotypes and discrimination, the progress of female managers is thwarted by the lack of sufficient mentors. Few women are available to serve this purpose and those that are often prove to be detrimental. The substitution of men as mentors can also be frustrating because they do not understand the situation of women and may present
intimacy fears.

Consequences of a female manager's predicament are lower salaries compared to men, an exodus from management, stagnation and frustration, or advancement with sacrifice. Much of this sacrifice occurs at home.

The role conflict that working women experience is due to several factors. A prevalent finding among researchers is that working wives predominantly maintain the household and child care duties. Although professional men tend to assist their wives more than blue collar husbands, they are often dissatisfied because they feel that their wives' careers are interfering with their own.

Women are concerned about the influence that their employment has on their roles as wives and mothers. Some women leave their positions to relocate for their husbands' careers or to spend more time with their children. Maintaining their roles, however, can lead to physical and psychological effects of stress, such as high blood pressure and depression.

The criteria for stress surface in the work environment of career women as low levels of control, heavy work load, lack of job security, and poor relationships with co-workers. The stress associated with these factors contributes to depression among career women, which perpetuates cyclically. The depression initially limits a woman's capabilities at work, which consequently reduces her chances for promotion and triggers a spiral of despair.

Although a career for a woman sounds ominous, researchers (Baruch et al., 1987; Hoffman, 1989; Hochschild, 1993) credit this role for its ability to reduce the stressors of her other roles as wife and mother. Employment further gains credence by serving as a stable role for the aging woman at a time when her other roles may be subsiding.

Coping strategies promote a variety of techniques. Engagement and disengagement skills provide active and inactive approaches, respectively. While both are recommended by research (Long et al., 1992), engagement skills have proven to be more effective; however, if continued usage does not bring relief, they may increase stress. Time management and self-care skills are also touted by research (McLaughlin et al., 1988), although persistent use of self-care skills in an already involved life may prove detrimental.

The new female manager has many challenges ahead of her, but she also has some encouraging points in her favor. One consideration is that her managerial style has proven its effectiveness in Japan. Secondly, there are increasing numbers of women graduating with MBA's who will be entering the field of management, thus diluting the male base. A third issue is that more women are becoming entrepreneurs. All of these changes present a transformation of the female manager and give corporations the message that women will not stop in their struggle to shatter the glass ceiling. Perhaps this message will be made clear in future research.

Research Needed

In reviewing the literature for this paper, three important research areas of female managers were seen as deficient. First, the concentration of studies on female managers focused on women's struggle at work. While some studies of career women's role conflict focus on women in management (Frieze et al., 1984; Schwartz, 1989), most of the research deals with career women in general (Baruch & Barnett; Hochschild, 1993; Hoffman, 1989; Tavris, 1991). More studies are needed to isolate the specific role conflict issues that women in management positions face.

Secondly, issues of stress and coping mechanisms in the research again deal with "employed wives and mothers" but none could be found to establish assistance for "managerial wives and mothers," or for "single managerial women with or without children." These groups omitted from the research may respond differently to the coping mechanisms presented by Long et al. (1992) and McLaughlin et al. (1988) and should be studied separately.

Thirdly, single female managers are
largely ignored in the female manager's struggle at work and home. Although certain research claims that women may have to remain single in order to move up in companies' hierarchies (Kanter, 1977), insufficient evidence supports the effectiveness of this action. Also within the realm of needed research on single female managers is the issue of their personal struggles, which may conflict with their job performance.

The increased interest and work in research of female managers will hopefully inspire women to participate with diligence in the field of management. The areas outlined below may serve as a guide for men and women who seek to encourage present and future female managers.

Remedial Actions

Since husbands have a forceful impact on the status of their wives' employment (Hochschild, 1993; Hymowitz, 1984; Rogan, 1984b), it seems advantageous for female managers to have a good understanding of the men they consider for long-term relationships. This caution is especially directed toward their significant others' view on women's roles of wife, mother, and manager and also on men's roles of husband, father, and employee.

Parents' roles are very important in serving as models for their children. The daily activities of parents and their child-rearing practices serve as valuable tools in molding their children's sex role stereotypes. Girls and boys both need training in assertiveness and nurturing skills as well as involvement in domestic and sports activities.

One very basic rule that men, women, wives, husbands, children, employees, and employers can all follow is to be open to an individual based on what is known about that person, and not on what is perceived about that person's gender. Until that rule is followed, however, female managers must continue to struggle their way to the top.

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