

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature for the current study has been discussed under the following heads

- IV. Theories on discrimination
- V. Gender Discrimination at workplace
 - D. Studies related to wage discrimination
 - E. Studies related to discrimination in recruitment, promotion, decision making etc.,
 - F. Studies related to harassment at workplace
- VI. Other related studies

I. Theories on Discrimination

This section outlines the major theories seeking to explain discrimination in labour market. Although earlier writers such as, Florence (1931), Robinson (1933) and Bronfenbrenner (1939) had been discussing issues of discrimination on an observational level, it was not until the work of Becker (1957) that a formal theory of discrimination was developed. He argued that if individuals had a taste for discrimination they would be willing to incur a cost, either through paying a higher price or a reduction in income, in order to associate with their desired group. Although this was an attempt to explain racial discrimination, it can equally be applied to the problem of gender discrimination. According to Becker the source of discrimination is the willingness of economic agents to pay in order to avoid contact with members of a particular group, and this discrimination can be revealed separately by the actions of employers, employees or consumers. Becker hypothesized that each of these led to a distinct method by which prejudice is translated into a wage differential. These formal explanations of discrimination lie very firmly within the neoclassical school with market primacy underpinning them throughout. However given that Becker's work can be identified as a catalyst in the analysis of discrimination, these three methods are used as the starting point for the following review of discrimination theories.

Employer Discrimination

The first of Becker's models results from the prejudices held by the employers with the basis of this employer discrimination being that firms do not simply maximise profits. They actually maximise a utility function that includes, as well as profits, the number of male and female workers employed. Defining the firm's profit function as:

$$= f(M + W) - Mw_m - Ww_w \quad (2.1)$$

where $(M + W)$ is output, w_m is the male wage, w_w is the female wage, and M and W are the respective numbers of male and female workers. Assuming male and female workers are perfect substitutes, capital is fixed, so that output is a function of labour only and all firms have identical utility and production functions. Each firm's utility function can be represented as:

$$U = f(M + W) - MMP_m - WMP_w \quad (2.2)$$

where MP_m and MP_w are the respective marginal products of male and female workers. If there is zero discrimination and all employers are completely indifferent to employing men or women, a fully competitive labour market leads to the conclusion, where the neoclassical assumptions hold, that each worker will be paid according to his/her marginal product, hence;

$$MP_m = w_m \text{ and } MP_w = w_w.$$

Obviously in this case Equation (2.1) and (2.2) are identical, maximizing profit and utility amount to the same thing. Every worker is paid according to his or her marginal product. Thus there is no discrimination.

However if we now assume that employers hold discriminatory tastes against women, which Becker suggested could be represented in the form of a discriminatory coefficient (DC), then the net cost of employing female workers is greater than the net cost of employing equivalent men. For the sexist employer DC takes on a positive value and increases the cost of employing women through reducing the employer's level of utility. In effect the cost to the firm of employing each woman becomes, $w_w + DC$ and the utility function becomes:

$$U = f(M + W) - MMP_m - W(MP_w + DC_w) \quad (2.3)$$

The difference between Equation (2.2) and (2.3) is the negative component, WDC_w . This in effect means that the net cost to employers of hiring female workers $[W(MP_w + DC_w)]$ has increased, through a reduction in the employer's utility, relative to the net cost of male workers $[M(MP_m)]$. As a result women are now only able to find employment with the sexist employer if they reduce their wage rate, so that $(w_w + DC_w) = w_m$. Clearly $w_m > w_w$ since male workers are paid the equivalent of their marginal productivity, whereas women are paid below. Therefore the employer discrimination is revealed through an underpayment of women workers. Although Goldberg (1982) does argue that employers actually have a positive preference for employing men, rather than a negative one against women, with this nepotism being revealed through a male overpayment.

Becker's model also gives an insight into the likely size of any wage gap within any specific industry or market for labour of a particular type, the outcome being dependent upon the prevalence and size of discriminatory tastes among employers, as well as the number of women seeking employment. Non-discriminatory employers are willing to employ women and men at the same wage rate, i.e. $DC = 0$. If there are a relatively large number of non-discriminatory firms they may be able to absorb the entire supply of women seeking employment in that particular industry, in such case there will be no wage discrimination. However if there is insufficient demand from non-discriminatory firms some women will be forced to find employment with the discriminatory firms. The fact that these firms are only willing to pay women the male wage less the discriminatory coefficient ensures that the market wage for women falls. Otherwise all of those women seeking work would not be able to find a job at the market wage.

The size of the gender wage gap should be positively correlated with the prevalence of both discriminatory firms and the number of women seeking employment, since an increase in either would lead more women to finding employment with the discriminatory employers. There should also be a direct link between the strength of employees taste for discrimination, this being represented by DC in equation 2.3, and the size of the wage gap, as a higher DC will lead to a larger female underpayment.

The above theory clearly describes how a discriminatory situation can exist, however it has been highlighted, initially by Arrow (1972) and subsequently by others, that there is a cost penalty for the discriminatory firms. It is unrealistic to assume that each employer will have the same discrimination coefficient, some will be more averse and some less averse to employing women, the most averse employers will have the largest proportion of men in their workforce and the highest production costs. In a competitive market all but the least sexist firms will be earning below normal profits and will quickly be forced out of business, until the point is reached where the gender employment mix and wage differential reflects the utility of the least sexist firm. Taking this process to its natural conclusion, eventually a firm will enter the market with a discrimination coefficient of zero, this will clearly be the least sexist firm in the market and any firm seeking to pursue a taste for discrimination will be forced out of the market. The increased supply of male workers seeking employment with the non-discriminatory employers will then ensure that the wages offered to male and female workers become equal.

Employee Discrimination

The second method by which Becker argued that prejudice is transmitted into a wage differential is where one group of workers is averse to working with another group. This would lead them to seek a higher wage to compensate them for the lower level of utility experienced while having to associate with the undesired group. If a man holds discriminatory views against woman and is unwilling to work with them, he will require a premium payment to induce him to do so. The payment will be equal to the male worker discriminatory coefficient; such that where a discriminatory male works with women his wage will be equal to his marginal product plus this coefficient.

One of the original conclusions of Becker was that if employees held discriminatory tastes, profit maximising employers would respond by hiring a segregated workforce. He was applying the model to the issue of race and arguing that black and white workers in the same occupation would be employed in separate single race firms. They would be paid according to their marginal products and, *ceteris paribus*, the wage would be the same in both sectors.

It is important to establish how well the model transfers to the issue of gender, since if the market is fully segregated there will be no wage discrimination. Arrow (1972) correctly points to the importance of adjustment costs as a barrier to segregation in the workforce, with any movement away from the initial position incurring a cost, be it for recruitment, screening or even firm specific training. Blau et al (2002) relate this to the issue of gender, explaining that rising female participation rates over time means that as women enter, or return to, the labour market where they find men are already in place in most sectors. Replacing these men would be costly and unprofitable; therefore it is almost impossible to envisage a sector where there are no firms with men and women working together.

Having established that non-segregated employers are likely to be the norm, it is important to understand the factors influencing the extent of the wage discrimination. The key relationship is between the number of employees holding discriminatory tastes, as well as the extent of their discrimination, and the relative number of women seeking employment. If both are low, it is feasible that all women find employment within groups of non-discriminatory men and no wage gap occurs. However if either, or both, are large at least a proportion of women will have discriminating colleagues. This will result in those men receiving a higher wage and their female colleagues possibly receiving a lower wage to compensate. It is important to note that non-discriminating males and discriminating males not working with women will not receive this premium, so there will be greater variation in male wages.

In addition to the impact of the Beckerian discrimination coefficient, Bergmann and Darity (1981) point out that employee discrimination may have a negative impact upon the morale and productivity of discriminating male employees. This may well make firms reluctant to employ women and when they do they will pay them a lower wage. The reasoning being that their marginal productivity was lower, as it was the sum of their own addition to output less the reduction from existing male employees. Furthermore Blau et.al (2002) argues that employee discrimination could impact upon female productivity through the process of on-the-job training. If this process normally takes place through informal discussions, from which women are

excluded, their productivity and wages are likely to be lower. Therefore in principle it is plausible for employee discrimination to persist in competitive markets.

Bergmann and Darity (1981) indicate that discrimination can influence the marginal productivities. Consequently, if the neo-classical premise is accepted that the profit maximising firm will equate the wage to the marginal productivity, then wage discrimination could persist under competition. However it has to be accepted that this requires a fairly stringent assumption to hold, in that male workers have to be in place at the firm before any women are employed. Then the reduction in the male marginal productivity has to be directly attributed to the employment of women, before this can happen. More importantly reducing the women's wage rejects one of the basic principles of neo-classical economics, which holds the individual as the central economic unit. Therefore if a man's marginal productivity falls, why should the firm respond by lowering somebody else's wage? Equally the reduced female on the job training highlighted by Blau et al (2002) suggests that firms where discrimination was present will be at a cost disadvantage, since they are failing to make the best use of their female labour resources. As a result they will be unable to compete against non-discriminating firms in the long run.

Customer Discrimination

The final theory of Becker's is that of customer discrimination, the basis being that customers have a preference for commodities produced or sold by workers of a particular group. The preference is revealed through the willingness of consumers to pay a higher price in order to obtain their preferred products. Given the derived nature of labour demand, this can create two compounding effects upon the wage differential. Firstly, the higher price will increase the marginal revenue products of preferred workers, increasing demand for workers in this group, which will be transmitted into higher wages. Secondly, the lower demand for non-preferred workers may force them to crowd into other jobs, this will increase supply in those areas and force wages downwards.

If the underlying assumptions behind this theory hold, it is possible for the discrimination to continue indefinitely since the firms can operate efficiently by rewarding workers according to their marginal productivities. It is entirely plausible that

there could be a continued presence of discrimination in competitive markets in the long run, making this model distinct from the previous two. However it has to be accepted that this model is only likely to be relevant where there is a lot of customer contact. It is also likely to lead to segregation within these occupations with high levels of customer contact, where firms catering for discriminatory customers will hire only from the preferred group, pay higher wages and charge higher prices, whilst those firms attracting non-discriminatory customers will hire from the non-favoured group and be able to pay lower wages and charge lower prices. Clearly in this study men are the favoured group and there is evidence within the literature to support the presence of gender related customer discrimination. Neumark (1996) found that higher priced restaurants paid higher wages and were less likely to employ women.

In summary, the work of Becker was an important step forward in this field. He established the principle that discrimination can occur as a result of the maximizing decisions of economic agents. However its major weakness was that, within a neo-classical framework, in most cases it failed to explain the continued presence of discrimination in the long run; the models actually predicting the disappearance of the phenomenon that they seek to explain (Arrow 1972).

Statistical Discrimination

It is clear from the previous section that, although Becker's theories was an important step forward for the study of discrimination, its presence was entirely dependent upon individual holding a taste for discrimination and being willing to incur a cost to indulge this taste. The work of Arrow (1972) and Phelps (1972) sought to improve on this by developing theories that were based not on individual having prejudiced tastes but on the imperfect nature of information in the labour market, especially in the recruitment process. As a result Statistical discrimination was still broadly within the neo-classical school framework of market primacy; however the assumption of perfect knowledge no longer holds. It is impossible for firms to know precisely the actual productivity of potential employees, so by making various assumptions about what is and isn't known a model of statistical discrimination was built up.

In the first place, if only the average productivity of each group was known, obviously in the case of gender discrimination the groups are men and women, but no specific information was known about each individual's productivity. Then the actual productivity of each worker will play no part in the wage offer, which can be represented formally as:

$$g_i = \alpha + u_i \quad E\{u\} = 0 \quad V(u) = \sigma^2$$

where the individual productivity of each worker (g_i) is equal to the average productivity of that person's group, plus a normally distributed error term (u_i). Therefore in the absence of any specific productivity information, firms will offer workers wages equal to the mean value of their group's productivity, $W_m = \alpha_m$ and $W_f = \alpha_f$, the subscripts m and f represent the male and female groups. However workers will on average be paid wages equal to their marginal products. Some will be overpaid and others underpaid. Since women and men will be affected equally there will be individual but not group discrimination. If $\alpha_m > \alpha_f$, then there will be a wage differential $W_m > W_f$, but workers will still be paid an average wages equal to their marginal products. Hence the higher male wages simply reflect greater productivity and group discrimination will still not be present.

Now if firms attempt to assess the productivity of individual workers before making a wage offer, the individual productivity g is estimated through the result of some test, Y . Then

$$W_i = E(g)_i = (1-\beta)\alpha + \beta Y_i + u_i \quad (2.4)$$

where the wage offered to each person is equal to the expected value of his or her individual productivity. This is estimated through a combination of their test score and the average productivity of their group; β is the coefficient of determination between g and Y , i.e. it is the degree of accuracy of the test as a predictor of actual productivity. Therefore the better test was an indicator of greater weight given to the test score in the wage offer. In the extreme case where the test was the perfect indicator, $\beta=1$, $(1 - \beta) = 0$ and the wage offer is based entirely on the test score, and $W_i=Y_i$.

If β is larger for men, implying that the test is a better indicator of male productivity, then for a man and a woman achieving identical test scores the wage differential will be;

$$W_m - W_f = (Y - \alpha) (\beta_m - \beta_f) \dots\dots\dots (2.5)$$

assuming α is the same for both groups. However this still fails to explain the presence of group discrimination, since the larger β merely implies that the wage offer curve was steeper for men. Hence, above average men will be paid more than comparable women, but the converse will be true for below average workers.

Finally, if the reliability of the indicator β affects the perceived mean productivity, i.e. as β falls so does perceived α for the group, then the wages offered to men and women with the same test score become;

$$W_m = \beta_m Y + (1 - \beta_m) \alpha_m \quad (2.6)$$

a n d
$$W_f = \beta_f Y + (1 - \beta_f) \alpha_f \quad (2.7)$$

Clearly if $\beta_m > \beta_f$ and from the perceived mean productivity's $\alpha_m > \alpha_f$ then some below average men will be paid more than comparable women and group discrimination can exist. This implies that decision-makers in the recruitment process have less than perfect recall of past events. If their memories assign greater significance to their failures than their successes, they will have a clearer memory of the occasions when they inaccurately predicted an employee's true productivity. If the test is a poorer indicator for women, a disproportionate amount of these 'failures' will be women; therefore it may lead to a conclusion that women's mean productivity was lower than it actually is.

The above theory does represent an improvement upon Becker's theories, since it does not require economic agents to be openly sexist, in addition to being willing to incur a cost. It merely needs past events to lead decision-makers to an inaccurate conclusion. However the original models presented by Phelps (1972) and Arrow (1972) need to be qualified slightly when being applied to the issue of gender, as with all of the original formal theories of discrimination they sought to explain racial discrimination in the USA. The fact that education at the time was to a large extent racially segregated, with better resources being allocated to the white sector, meant that white workers were likely to be more productive than the blacks with the same amount of education. In most cases, certainly for the UK and Germany, the system was predominately coeducational, with males and females having similar access to the available resources; consequently education should be a much more comparable predictor of productivity across the

genders. This means that for employers the biggest area of uncertainty in appointments and promotions relates to the future attachment of the individual, both to that firm and to the labour market. Consequently, if on an average women stay with an employer for a shorter period of time, or more importantly employers perceive this to be so, statistical discrimination will occur as outlined above. If this was the case the discrimination was likely to be a long-term phenomenon. Arrow (1972) pointed to a self-fulfilling element within employers' expectations. Employers believe that women are more likely to leave; therefore less time and resources are allocated to their firm for specific training. They are also assigned to jobs where their departure will have the smallest impact. Consequently women feel less valued by the firm and are more likely to leave. As a result the most meaningful research relating to statistical discrimination by gender has focused upon differences in job tenure and quit rates. Viscusi (1980), Blau and Kahn (1981), Sicherman (1996) and Royalty (1998) all find that women are more likely to quit their current job than men. However in each case when controlled for differences in characteristics, wages and advancement opportunities, women were no more likely to leave than men with comparable attributes. Therefore in these cases any discrimination occurs as a result of perceived, rather than real, differences in quit rates.

As with Becker's theories there are doubts relating to the ability of this model to explain the presence of long term discrimination within competitive market, there being clear efficiency gains for firms who can identify women with a strong commitment to the labour market and those more likely to leave. Light and Ureta (1992) tested exactly this hypothesis and found no difference between the quit behaviour of men and women, implying that comparable men and women should be treated in the same fashion. There was also a wage incentive for the highly committed women to reveal themselves to potential employers. One possibility was to accept contracts that require repayment of a proportion of firm specific training costs if the employee resigns within a certain period, encouraging workers with low levels of attachment towards jobs with small amounts of firm specific training.

Crowding Model

In the models discussed so far, both gender segregation and wage differentials are potential outcomes. Differences in both pay and employment are

believed to result from tastes for discrimination against women or from perceived differences in average productivity or quit rates. Developing upon the earlier ideas of Fawcett (1917, 1918) and Edgeworth (1922), most specifically by giving a greater weight to the role played by employment segregation in explaining the gender wage gap, Bergmann (1974) produced a formal presentation of the crowding model. This occurs where greater supply, relative to demand, of female labour in particular sectors or occupations drives down their wages. If the labour market is separated into those sectors with predominant female employees and those with a majority of men, Bergmann argued that as long as there are differences in the demand for labour relative to the available supply in each of the sectors a gender wage gap was inevitable. The gender wage gap was present irrespective of whether the employment allocation results from personal preferences, social conditioning or discrimination.

As male wages are generally higher, this would suggest that there was a greater supply of labour relative to demand in the female dominated sector, forcing the market wage down below the level found in the male sector. In a fully competitive situation labour would switch from the lower paying sector to the higher paying one until market wage was the same in both sectors. However factors such as social conditioning, leading individuals to perceive particular occupations as either 'male or 'female'. Men and women not being perfect substitutes, i.e. women generally possessing skills more suitable to the female sector, or the possibilities that women are simply discriminated against by employers in the higher paying sectors may prevent this from happening.

Finally, Bergmann (1974) gives us a clear insight into why potentially equally productive men and women are likely to be paid differently. In the female dominated sector production was likely to be more labour intensive as firms substitute cheaper labour for capital, whilst in the male sector higher labour costs mean that the process was reversed. Consequently women will be less productive, and lower paid, since they generally have less capital to work with, this hypothesis being supported by Sorenson (1990).

Although the crowding model was limited in that it focuses upon the outcomes of labour market segregation whilst only really speculating upon the initial

causes, it is still important, simply because it is the first theory to highlight the potentially inflexible nature of a labour market. This being of particular significance as it allows for a greater appreciation of the institutional models that follow.

Institutional Theories

The earliest formal theories of discrimination, i.e. Becker's theories and statistical discrimination, sought to explain the presence of discrimination within a competitive structure. The major weakness being that, in virtually all cases the maximising behavior of economic agents would prevent the continued existence of wage discrimination in the long term. As a result of this, what can be referred to as the institutional models of discrimination were developed, where the labour market was assumed to have inherent rigidities. These rigidities resulting from the institutional arrangements within firms or from the monopoly power of firms in the product market and unions in the labour market. The link between the two types of theories being made by the crowding model, with Bergmann (1974) highlighting the possibility of labour market rigidities. In short the failure of labour resources to transfer from low paying sectors into high paying ones gives rise to long term occupational segregation, gender wage differentials and, if there was a discriminatory element to the segregation, wage discrimination.

The institutionalists argue that it was the arrangements within institutions, rather than independent individual actions which hold the key to explaining the presence of wage discrimination. The first formal presentation of this line of thinking results from the seminal work by Doeringer and Piore (1971). Their internal labour market (ILM) theory attempts to explain the presence of wage discrimination on a number of levels, firstly through entry to the ILM, secondly as a result of internal allocation and finally with differential wage rates.

The internal labour market is 'an administrative unit, such as a manufacturing plant, within which the pricing and allocation of labour is governed by a set of administrative rules and procedures' (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). Conversely the external labour market was assumed to be competitive. The predictions of the theory are based on the movement of labour between the two markets at certain job classifications. In these classifications there are ports of entry and exit to and from the

internal labour market. The remaining jobs in the internal labour market are filled by internal promotions. As such they are shielded from direct competition from the external market.

The workers employed in the internal labour market are assumed to possess a degree of monopoly power over their jobs. The firms realise the benefits from the internal labour market through reduced labour turnover costs. According to Doeringer and Piore (1971) there are three kinds of discrimination that can occur in the internal labour market, these being entry discrimination, internal allocation discrimination and wage discrimination.

Entry discrimination obviously indicates that the disadvantaged group was less capable to gain access through each of the ports of entry into the internal labour market. This may well occur for a number of reasons. Firstly, hiring standards could be fixed at an artificially high level, which will make it relatively harder for workers from any group with lower productivity characteristics to gain entry. This was clearly relevant in Doeringer and Piore's (1971) original study, where blacks generally received education of lower quality, however when applied to women in the European Union (EU) they are less likely to have lower productivity characteristics.

Alternative the hiring procedure itself can also be discriminatory. Hiring decisions are based upon productivity characteristics and interviews. By their nature the outcomes of interviews are dependent upon subjective opinions, which may well be influenced by any prejudices held by the interviewers. The resultant level of discrimination was likely to be compounded by the uncertainty inherent in the recruitment process, since employer information was imperfect and/or incomplete employment inefficiencies may arise. This was similar to the statistical discrimination discussed earlier. If employers believe that one group was on average more productive than another group, then the more productive group will be preferred. As mentioned above, this may not be relevant to gender discrimination in the EU; however if lower participation rates for women lead employers to believe that men will on average stay longer in the job, the same outcome will result.

Internal allocation discrimination occurs where one group was less successful in internal promotions between each of the ports of entry; consequently they

are under-represented within the higher paid and higher status positions. This may well occur because of reasons similar to those outlined in the previous paragraph. Finally wage discrimination can occur when there is an occupational segregation within the internal labour market, with women being assigned to the lower paying categories.

A derivation of this, transcending the firm operating an internal labour market, was the dual labour market model, which was again developed by Doeringer and Piore, (see Doeringer and Piore 1971 as well as Piore 1971). The model distinguishes between primary and secondary jobs, with primary jobs necessitating high levels of firm specific skills, leading to higher wages, better promotion prospects and low turnover rates. The secondary jobs have a lower requirement for firm specific skills, as a result they display low wages, poor promotion prospects and high turnover rates. The application of this model to gender discrimination merely requires that men have a higher probability of finding primary employment comparable to women.

They also argued that the dual labour market did not necessarily have to be enclosed within the same firm, i.e. along the same lines as the internal labour market, it could equally be relevant on an industry basis. The fact that primary jobs are more likely to be found within monopolistic product markets enables these firms, if they desire, to indulge their preferences for employing males. Primary jobs are also more likely to be found in unionized industries, which enable unions to exploit their monopsony and create a more unified membership by restricting the proportion of women employed in the industry.

There is very strong evidence within the literature of labour market segregation, which can obviously result from the presence of internal or dual labour markets. Most of the early work established its presence, both in terms of gender and race, in the USA (Blau and Jusenius 1976, Cain 1976 and Gordon et al 1982). McNabb and Ryan (1990) were able to establish its presence in Britain, as well as indicating its historical perspective, being able to identify its existence as far back as the mid 19th century.

Overall the institutional theories are arguably a more plausible explanation of how jobs are allocated and wages set in the labour market, particularly within large firms. However a major criticism that could easily be leveled at the Crowding Model as

well was that they focus upon the consequences without helping us to understand the causes. The resultant wage differentials and occupational segregation are clearly explained, but we are expected to simply assume that one of the possible causes was discrimination, thus adding little to ones understanding of how and why discrimination may be present. As a consequence we are still no closer to being able to solve a key dilemma in the study of wage discrimination. It was widely accepted that the occupational segregation is an important component of gender wage differentials; however it was still impossible to establish whether it results from discrimination, social conditioning or individual choices. Hence it is a clear target for future research as well as being a challenge to theorists.

To sum up, the original theories focused upon the behaviour of individual, with Becker highlighting the actions of people who held prejudiced views, and statistical discrimination resulting from incomplete information. Virtually in all cases these revealed a competitive advantage for non-discriminatory firms, hence predicting that discrimination would disappear in the long run. However there was no real evidence of this occurring indicating the presence of a significant level of labour market rigidities. In response to this additional theories were put forward seeking to explain the impact of these rigidities. The Crowding model highlights the failure of cheaper female labour to transfer into the higher paying male sector and the institutional theories indicating that not all positions were open to free and fair competition. These theories, being limited, focus on the outcomes rather than explaining the causes.

II. Gender Discrimination at workplace A. Studies related to wage discrimination

Blinder, Alan (1973) analyzed wage differentials for white-black men and male-female using decomposition technique. He estimated both a structural model and its reduced forms. In the case of the male-female wage differential, the author finds that about two thirds of difference was due to discrimination in the labor market while the other one-third was due to “discrimination” in attaining endogenous variables such as occupational status and job seniority.

Leela Gulati (1975) analysed the discrimination in wage rates in agriculture sector. The results indicate that the most blatant was paying women less

than men for the same type of work mainly based on their quantum of work and was bound to result in women earning less than men.

Gunderson (1979) used Canadian Census data to decompose the wage differential between male and female in one part due to differences in productivity-related characteristics and the other due to wage discrimination. Gunderson points out that 63 percent of the wage advantage that males have over females could be attributed to wage discrimination.

Reimers (1983) pointed out that discrimination was apparently an important factor in lowering the wages of Puerto Rican, Black, Central and South Americans and other Spanish men but that difference in measured characteristics accounts for the lower wages of Mexican Americans and Cubans. The author used data in order to obtain unbiased estimates. Reimers introduces a correction for selectivity bias in the wage equation, estimating first the probability of participating in the wage equation, and finds that this correction widens the Anglo-Hispanic wage differentials, indicating that the wage-offer differential was larger than the observed-wage differential.

Peter Kuhn (1987) measured wage discrimination statistically. The reports estimated the relative importance of women with self-assessed discrimination levels. The estimates indicate that the percentage of women who report discrimination would fall from 15.4 to 10.2 percent in Canada, and from 9.9 to 6.3 percent in the United States if all conventionally measured pay discrimination were absent.

Donald Cox and John Vincent Nye (1989) attempted to study about "Male-Female wage discrimination in Nineteenth – Century in France". The traditional male-female wage discrimination measures rely on residuals from earnings function that standardize for observable characteristics. But many productivity determinants are unobservable, and existing proxies for them are often difficult to interpret. Instead of using the earnings-function approach, the study estimated production function, using data from the 1839-45 and 1860-65 French industry Census for Textiles. While most of the findings cast doubt on the idea of discrimination against women in pay, they do not rule out some other forms of discrimination, such as occupational segregation.

Edward P. Lazear and Sherwin Rosen (1990) expressed their view that much of the male-female wage differential exists because men and women are assigned to different jobs. Within narrow job categories, there were no male-female differentials. Only a tortured taste theory of discrimination can reconcile these facts. The authors argue that differential movement along job ladders entails comparative advantage, so the ability standard for promotion was higher for women. This implies that more able women will be passed over in favour of less able men. Women, assumed to have the same ability distribution as men but earn less. The differential reflects females lower promotion probability, not within job discrimination.

Michael Schultz (1995) stressed that gender discrimination in wages and differentials in earnings are widespread in India and particularly in the informal sector where equal pay legislation was not applied. Considering gender divisions and differentials within the Indian economy, overall employment rates are much higher for men than for women in rural than urban areas. Overall, women form a low proportion of those in regular salaried or wage employment compared to men in both rural and urban areas, but the gender gap in this regard was particularly pronounced in urban areas, where most regular wage work was located. Women earnings in the informal sector were around half those of men. Even in the formal sector, inequalities in earnings are marked because women are concentrated at lower occupational levels. In regular wage employment, women earnings are on an average 83 percent of men. Because of this reason women are getting lower wage rate compared to men.

Satanam Kaur and Goyal S.K (1996) expressed their views on wage discrimination against women agricultural labourers, that the female agricultural labourers lag behind the male agricultural labourers with regard to wage payment in different agricultural operations, average earnings, mode and rate of payment.

Manjari Singh and Debashish Battacherjee (1998) analysed pay discrimination by gender in the corporate sector. In this paper an econometric analysis was done to examine earnings-based on gender discrimination among top-level executives of a firm in the private corporate sector. Though the dummy variable method did not conclusively prove any tangible discrimination in earnings, running separate regressions for male and female executives presented a very different and interesting

picture. It showed that, human capital variables like qualification, experience etc., have a significant effect in determining the earnings of male executives, this was not the case of female executives. The internal labour market variables, proxied by the designations of executives within the firm, were significant in explaining the pattern of earnings for both male and female executives. The female earnings equation showed a tendency to relatively undervalue the explanatory variables, whereas the male earnings equation was found to relatively overvalue them.

Altonji and Blank (1999) estimated the race and gender gaps in wages using the data from March 1980 and March 1996 population. The study decomposed the changes in the logarithm of hourly wages for a partial specification, including only personal characteristics such as education, experience and region of the country, and for a full specification that controls also for occupation, industry and job characteristics. The study found that discrimination and unobserved factors account for a 33 percent and 37 percent of the wage differential between Hispanic males and white non-Hispanic males using the partial specification for 1979 and 1995, respectively. The share of discrimination reduces to 20 percent and 26 percent when using the full specification. For the wage differential between white non-Hispanic males and females, the study estimated that discrimination amounts to 95 percent and 98 percent (1979 and 1995 respectively) when using the partial regression and for 73 percent (for both years) when using the full regression.

Martin Patrick (2000) assessed the discrimination against saleswomen in relation to salesmen in the labour market in terms of wages and discrimination in the household sector based on time-allocation theory in Ernakulam district, Kerala. Primary and secondary data have been used for the study. For collecting primary data, a multistage sampling was followed on the basis of geographical location, the nature of business and the size of it. The selected shops were classified into four strata viz. textile shops, medical shops, ladies stores and other shops (such as audio-video shops, book shops, bakery etc.) The shops were further divided into large, medium and small. The number of saleswomen interviewed for the study was 150 in 1991, selected by using a proportionate sampling of 20 per cent of workers in each group. In 2000, it was possible to collect data from 60 saleswomen only. The study found that saleswomen as a “group”

form a cheap source of labour for employers. Neither the trade unions nor any social organisation showed keen interest in their welfare. Trade unions argue that women themselves are responsible for low wages and poor working conditions because they are not taking part in trade union activities. On the contrary, employers argue that women are temporary participants in the work place and hence accounts for low wages. Whatever may be the arguments saleswomen, who come from poor families, form a marginalised group and are forced to accept a poor wage packet along with stiff working conditions.

Mariana Alfonso (2001) quantitatively assessed the sources of wage differentials between Hispanic females and three reference groups, White males, White females and Hispanic males, by taking into consideration the issue of selective participation in the labor market and its effect on wage offers, and by estimating the average effects of discrimination against Hispanic females. The study shows that when not controlling for occupational characteristics such as class of worker, occupation, industry and employers size, the wage discrimination against Hispanic females increases when compared to White and Hispanic males, but decreases when compared to White non-Hispanic females. The concentration of females, and Hispanic females in particular, in lower paid jobs was accounting for a substantial part of the wage-offer differentials.

Clementina Santos and Pilar Gonzalez (2003) discussed different procedures to decompose gender wage differential and examined the reasons underlying the evolution of the gender wage gap for the period 1985-1997 in the Portuguese labor market. The results showed that the increase of changes in the wage gap was mostly due to the increase in wage discrimination by means of the males wage advantage and of the females wage disadvantage.

Hilary M. Lips (2003) observed the male–female earnings gap had persisted through the last half century. Attempts to explain the disparity by attributing it to gender differences in work patterns reveal the unexamined assumption that male work patterns should form the basis of comparison. The gap affects full and part-time workers and appears within racial/ethnic groups, educational levels, and occupations, and across countries. Forecasting analyses shows no convincing evidence that the gap

was narrowing. Although the causes of the gender pay gap are complex, data on women's lower pay within educational levels and occupations and data on women's dramatically lower recognition in domains where their talents and achievements are equal to men (e.g., literary awards) implicate the undervaluing of work associated with women.

Yusuf Ziya Ozcan et.al (2003) explained wage differences by gender, wage and self employment in an urban setting in Turkey. Data employed was taken from the 1994 Household Income Survey of the State Institute of Statistics (SIS) of Turkey. The Oaxaca decomposition of the wages into discrimination and endowment components indicates the existence of a relatively higher discrimination in the wage employment than in the self employment.

Akter S.(Shaheen) (2005) examined occupational segregation and wage discrimination in rural labour market of Bangladesh. Wage equations for seven employment categories were estimated applying Heckman's two-step procedure. Multinomial logit analysis was applied to estimate occupational attainment for males from a set of personal characteristics and then an occupational distribution for females was simulated. Data set used was a part of an eight village census undertaken by the Institute of Development Studies, Sussex. The analysis shows that more than seventy percent of total gender pay gap remains unjustified and was mainly due to the concentration in the low paid work owing to job discrimination. Development programmes in the rural sector have achieved some success in bringing poor women into the paid job but failed to reduce within job discrimination. Attempts to reduce poverty will not bring the desired goal unless women have free access to paid work and the unjustified job segregation and pay discrimination are considerably reduced.

Cheng, Xiaofang (2005) studied the issue of difference in the gender wage gap in both the public and the private sectors and examined the components of change in the wage gap between 1991 and 1996. Cheng, Xiaofang measured and decomposed the gender wage differentials into explained and unexplained parts separately for the public and private sectors in Canada for the census years 1991 and 1996, and compare changes in the earnings gap between 1991 and 1996 in both sectors. The analysis was based on Oaxaca decomposition and Juhn-Murphy-Pierce decomposition techniques.

The results showed that gender wage differentials are present in both sectors, although at a lower level in the public sector than in the private sector. In 1996, 67 percent of the wage gap was attributable to the unexplained part in the public sector, while in the private sector, this figure was 76 percent. Generally, males tend to have higher return to experience and more favorable occupation and industry distributions, which can account for the gender wage gap. The findings also show that the overall gender wage gap decreases in both the public sector and the private sector between 1991 and 1996. This decrease was mainly attributed to the diminishing of the unexplained portion. In both the public and the private sectors, improvements in women's wage-determining factors and ranking relative to those of men contributed to a narrowing of the gender wage gap.

Grisanaputi, Wipawee (2005) examined whether gender inequality exists in the pay raise process at Khon Kaen University over a two-fiscal year period (FY2002 and 2003). The study also considers factors which might account for differences between male and female faculty in pay raises at this university, looking at factors such as productivity and family responsibilities. The research develops and tests measures of the Southeast Asian concepts of kinship, patronage, turn-taking and seniority systems. Three data sources were used, university personnel records, self-administered surveys and the annual evaluation report. The results showed that raises tend to be equitable and faculty was equally productive, regardless of gender, discipline, academic rank, or position cluster. When significant differences are identified in the study, female faculty frequently reported that they received higher pay raises than their male colleagues. The well-established rules and regulations regarding pay raises (minimum requirements for productivity and pay raise steps) at this university prohibit any kind of systematic bias in pay raises. One of the other goals of this research was to test the Southeast Asian concepts of kinship, patronage, turn taking and seniority, and the extent to which each may be a factor in performance and pay raises. The research indicates these four may play a role, but their actual influence was not entirely clear and will require an additional study.

Sherri Haas (2005) analysed the general wage inequality within countries. Differences in wages between men and women, particularly cross-national variation in

the size of the gender gap, and the role of women in economic growth and the effect of development on them were focused. Data were collected from United Nations Human Development Report 2005. The difference in income between men and women was of great importance because it affects a very large number of people. The study found that gender wage gap was not uniform cross-nationally, and if determinants of the gap size can be found, policy could be implemented to reduce the income disparities.

Sathishah (Nishi) Ramrathan (2005) explored workplace discrimination against trainees within the Hotel and Catering industries illuminating the extent to which discrimination occurs, how it has manifested itself, and how students would be affected by this discrimination. A case study approach was used to establish the kinds of workplace discrimination experienced by trainees within the hospitality and catering industry. In using a case study methodology, two approaches of data collection were used. A survey was used, to elicit a general understanding of the kinds of workplace discrimination. Data was collected through the administration of questionnaires to students returning from in-service training, whilst the narrative enquiry approach established an impact analysis on an individual (trainee) recording personal experiences provoked by workplace discrimination. Data was collected by face-to-face semi-structured interviews with affected trainees. The findings of the study indicated that despite the existence of discrimination policies, workplace discrimination continues to exist. Evidence ploughed from the study indicates that trainee students lacked knowledge in terms of their basic human rights and how to exercise them. Thus trainees preferred to be secretive about their episodes that had resulted in a severe lack of reporting of their discriminatory experiences, giving an impression that discrimination at work sites was minimal.

According to Wolford, Karen M. (2005) gender discrimination and wage inequity remain the problems worldwide. In the United States and Canada, where equal rights and protective legislation have been in place for nearly 40 years, glaring disparities in salaries and job opportunities still remain. Similar problems have been studied in the United Kingdom, leading to enactment of the 1975 Sex Discrimination Act and the Equal Pay Act. Paradoxically, data from the 2000 U.S. Census showed that the more education women achieve, the worse the salary gap becomes, especially for

women with advanced degrees. Legislation, that has increased educational opportunity, funding, and access for women such as Title IX was coming under attack as being biased against males. This attack is occurring even though Title IX has not yet accomplished the equitable treatment it was intended to achieve. Strategies to address pay equity include support of new legislation, such as comparable worth measures like those that have been implemented in the United Kingdom, and support and strengthening of existing legislation (Title IX, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Equal Pay Act of 1963).

Klaus Deininger et.al (2006) analysed the importance of reducing gender discrimination for social and economic development by focusing on informal sector. Data collected from a large and nationally representative data set for India to illustrate the relevance of discrimination in informal labour markets among men and women workers. From the analysis the researcher concluded that wages for males were estimated to be higher than those for females by 27 - 41 percentage points in agricultural labour markets. This suggests that gender was indeed a main determinant of wages received by those employed, with an impact the magnitude of which was several times larger than that of the more traditional factors. In fact the mean difference of men and women workers were estimated and found that men are getting higher wages compared to women agricultural workers.

Liqin Zhang and Xiao-yuan Dong (2006) analyzed male-female wage discrimination in China's industry. They found that there was a significant negative association between wages and the share of female workers in a firm's labour force. However, it was also found that the marginal productivity of female workers was significantly lower than that of male workers. By comparing wage gaps and productivity gaps between men and women, the study noticed an intriguing contrast between state-owned enterprises (SOEs) and private firms. The wage gap was smaller than the productivity gap in SOEs, while the converse was for private firms. The results suggest that women in the state sector receive wage premiums, whereas women in the private sector face wage discrimination.

Shaik Haffis et.al (2011) attempted to compare the two states : Andhra Pradesh and Orissa and to measure gender disparities in work and wages in terms of

relative time men and women spent on productive activities and thereby earned money wages out of them. Gender disparity in work registered more in Orissa than in Andhra Pradesh. A larger proportion of the time spent by women in the total time had gone into unpaid work when compared with men in both the states. Women received lower wages than their male-counterparts in the two states. Gender disparity in wages was found to be higher in Andhra Pradesh than in Orissa.

William F. Vasquez (2011) studied the influence of gender and ethnicity on wage discrimination in Guatemala using the 2000 Living Standards Measurement Survey. The sample of employees was divided into six ethnic gender groups: males and females in three ethnic groups (i.e non-indigenous, major and minor ethnic groups). Normalized regressions were used to estimate wage structures for each ethnic gender group including the inverse of Mill's ratio as a regressor to correct for potential selectivity. Then, the contribution of gender and ethnic discrimination on wage differentials was examined. The findings of the study indicate that, compared to ethnic discrimination, gender discrimination explains a more significant percentage of wage differentials between relevant groups. Additionally, results indicate that forms of wage discrimination differ across ethnic gender groups.

Carolina Castagnetti and Luisa Rosti (2012) addressed the gender pay gap among Italian university graduates on entry in the labor market, and stressed the importance of gender stereotypes on subjective assessment of individual productivity. The study hypothesized that effects of gender stereotypes makes occupational tournaments unfair. As a consequence, male workers have higher probabilities of winning the wage competition. Data showed that in contexts where the stereotype was most likely to occur, making tournaments less fair, the unexplained component of the gender pay gap was higher. By estimating the earnings equation for male and female graduates the study found a gender wage gap of 11 percent, and even controlling for a lot of individual and job characteristics the unexplained component remains nevertheless high (near to 88 percent as per data).

Panchanan Das (2012) investigated the structure of wage inequality and employment in India. The study measures comprehensively different dimensions of wage inequality as observed in the Indian labour market by using the Gini inequality

index. In analysing the structure of wage inequality it considers three major sectors, the public, private formal and informal sectors. Wage inequality in the private formal sector was higher than the inequality even in the informal sector. Wage differentials in India are higher in rural as compared to urban areas, and are higher among women than among men workers. Simple decompositions of wage inequality by sectors reveal that a significant part of wage inequality was accounted for by inequality among individuals between rather than within sectors for every type of working person.

Shantanu Khanna (2012) analysed gender wage gap between men and women, and mean wage decompositions by the Blinder-Oaxaca (1973) decomposition method. To answer the question of whether there was a “glass ceiling” or a “sticky floor”, i.e. whether wage gaps are higher at the upper or lower ends of the wage distribution, the paper examined the wage gaps across different quartiles of the wage distribution. These gender wage gaps are analysed for regular wage workers in India using the 66th round of the National Sample Survey’s Employment - Unemployment Schedule (2009-2010). The paper finds evidence of a “sticky floor”. In addition to estimating the standard OLS wage equations for men and women, quartile regressions were used to assess how different covariates such as education, union membership, and occupations, affect within and between group (gender) inequalities. Finally, the Machado-Mata-Melly (2006) decomposition method was used to decompose gender wage gaps at different quartiles to determine whether it was the differences in characteristics (levels of covariates) or the unexplained (discrimination) component that drives the sticky floor effect. The paper concludes with a discussion on the possible reasons for observing a sticky floor phenomenon in India namely low labour force participation rates of women, nature of jobs are very different for men and women, Women at the bottom of the distribution who do not get the benefits of such provisions would have a higher probability of dropping out of the labour force or participate less intensely in the labour market and employers could discriminate against them for this reason.

Bivas Chaudhuri and Panigrahi A.K (2013) attempted to look into the gender issues in terms of female workforce participation and wage differentials in the organized manufacturing sector in India. The major data sources for this paper was

from the Annual Survey of Industries (ASI). Only female workers directly employed by the industry or engaged directly in the production process are considered for the study. It was found that around 20 percent of female workers are directly contributing to the production process during the year 2000-01 to 2009-10. However there was significant variation observed with respect to female work participation across different industry divisions. Similarly, it was observed that female participation rates have no uniformity within the states and that significant wage differentials exist with respect to industry divisions and states.

Oana Ancuta Stângaciu (2013) studied equality of opportunity between men and women on the labour market – the gender pay gap within the EU member states. The study observed that actions taken for the promotion of the equality of opportunity between men and women and for eliminating the direct or the indirect discrimination apply to the field of employment as well as to the field of education, health, culture, information and the participation in the decision making process. Starting from one of the objectives of the Strategy for the equality of opportunity, being aware of the real situation of women participation compared to men participation to the economical and social life, this analysis offers a perspective on the equality of opportunity between men and women in the field of employment based on the statistical data. Thus, in order to quantify this phenomenon using methods specific to the statistical analysis, the study used the gender pay gap indicator pertaining to the EU member states per total economy, as well as per economic activities, and the research results showed that at the EU level there was still significant gender pay gaps.

Zuzana Machová and Lenka Filipová (2013) analysed the problem of wage determinant measurement and wage discrimination considering different wage requirements of men and women. The wage determinants and gender wage discrimination are analyzed using probit model. The whole analysis was methodologically based on Mincer's wage regression and Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition of gender wage gap. The wage variables include, aside from standard personal characteristics, dummies for institutional and firm characteristics and dummies for family status and family roles. The data were gained by a questionnaire survey carried out in Ostrava city. The results of the analysis, representative for the city, show

statistically significant differences between wage determinants of men and women. The survey concluded in 2 statements: (1) family role was an important wage determinant and its inclusion to Mincer's wage regression leads to better explanation of wages; and (2) including family characteristics in Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition can significantly reduce unexplained part of gender wage gap, i.e., a part of a wage difference usually ascribed to gender wage discrimination can be explained by different preferences of men and women on a labor market.

Nani Bendelani et.al (2014) analysed gender discrimination in Georgian labour market. It focuses on gender, based on social constructionist theory, which claims that gender is socially constructed and the gender differences are not based on person's biology. The present study has depicted the inequality among the average salary distribution among men and women regardless of the similar educational attainments. Women's average salary ranges between the 251-400 GEL whereas in man's case the average salary was between 401-700 GEL. Educational level does not affect man's salary (except PhD degree), while women should have an undergraduate or graduate degree to earn the average salary of man with secondary education. The unequal average salaries were influenced by the fact that more men (65 percent) work for the private sector, whereas women are working in private and public sectors in equal shares (47 percent respectively). Only 53 percent of women and 42 percent of men found that such situation where the co-workers doing the same job in the same position and paid differently to be discrimination.

Pradeep Kumar Choudhury (2014) analyzed the factors that were responsible for gender discrimination in the employment and earnings of engineering graduates in India. The author used the data collected in 2009 - 2010 through a survey among the fourth year students in Delhi who have gone through the placement exercise. The author finds, among other things, that a smaller percentage of women engineering graduates than men have got job offer and it varies widely across socio-economic settings. Also, it was found that the offered earnings of women are about 54 per cent less than that of men. The results provide strong and consistent evidence that institutional factors account for a sizable portion of the employment and earnings gap between male and female graduates, with type of institution (government/private)

contributing a large part of it. There were no significant differences in the employment of students by their branch of study (traditional/IT-related) but it has a role to play in the offered earnings of the graduates. The study suggests minimising the gender discrimination in terms of employment and earnings of engineering graduates may increase the access of females to this discipline.

Shailja C. Tiwari and Bhavik U. Swadiya (2014) stressed the fact that men and women have very different experiences in working and earning and women often face the gender based discrimination which results in increase risks in ill health, violence, poor education and poverty. The gender gap in earning or gender pay gap refers to the ratio of female to male earnings yearly. The paper also consider the bias favoring men and anti-female bias like motherhood penalty and men's marriage premium found in UK and US. The paper also clarifies the concept of labour rights that individuals doing the same work should receive the same remuneration, i.e. equal pay for equal work. The research paper also includes the criticism of the principles of equal pay for equal work mechanism. Some rights activists believe that government actions to correct gender pay disparity serve to interfere with system of voluntary exchange. The study concludes that there are no concrete reasons for why an organisation discriminates the financial reward system between men and women.

Ashish Singh (2015) analyses the differences between the wages of female and male who had similar academic ability at the school level. The analysis uses data from a nationally representative household survey and both non-parametric as well as parametric approach for estimation. The findings reveal that, for the same level of academic ability, men earn substantially and significantly higher wages than their women counterparts. The results clearly indicate that despite controlling for socio-economic, cohort and labour market related factors, the wages of females are significantly lower than that of the males. This result was true for the full sample as well as the samples formed on the basis of ability levels. The difference was least in the case of individuals who completed secondary school with 'first division' (highest grade) and was highest among the individuals who did not complete secondary school.

Meltem Ucal et.al (2015) analysed gender and the wage gap in Turkish Academia. Turkey maintains one of the lowest female labour force participation rates in

Europe, but also boasts an above average number of female professors. Turkey was well above the European average (15 per cent) with approximately 28 per cent of full professorships being occupied by women. Despite these seemingly positive indications, do men and women in Turkish academia earn the same wages? The study explores whether or not there exists a gendered pay gap in Turkish academia. Using data collected from a survey of more than 700 Turkish academics, we observed that there was gendered wage gap that disadvantages women, but only at the highest pay levels found at private universities indicating the existence of intra-class inequality, where men and women despite occupying the same class position are compensated differently.

Robert J. Thornton and Judith A. McDonald (2015) examined the gender gap in starting salaries for new college graduates. Using a unique data set from the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE), the authors estimated the gender starting-salary gap for college graduates from 2000 to 2010. Simulation techniques was used to estimate how the salary gap would change if women had selected the same majors or job types as men. The study found that about 90 percent of the starting-salary gap was explainable by gender differences in majors and types of job offers – a higher percentage than found in most other studies. Duncan indexes of dissimilarity also indicate that the gender distributions of job offers by college major and type of first jobs have not become more similar over the past 10 years. Although differences in college major and types of first jobs explain most of the gender gap in starting salaries of college graduates, small but unexplained gender pay differences reveal themselves in the NACE statistics.

Veronika Hedija (2015) focused on the impact of the gender characteristics of the manager on gender wage disparity. Under the social identity theory, women in managerial positions, who can affect the wages of their subordinates, are likely to evaluate female employees better than male employees. The author investigated the effect of the gender characteristics of middle managers on the wages of directly subordinated rank-and-file employees using a variation within the firm. Two methods were considered to study the effect of gender characteristics of manager on subordinates: the estimation of the wage function and the average treatment effect on the treated, both supplemented by a matching procedure. They concluded that women

in middle management in comparison to their male counterparts have a lower tendency to apply wage discrimination against women. The presence of a female head of department led to a decrease in the gender pay gap by almost 7 percentage points.

Yana Gallen (2015) examined the gender productivity gap. The gender pay gap in Denmark was about 17 percent, controlling for many observables. Using firm-level output data, the paper estimated the relative productivity of men and women and ends that the gender productivity gap was 10 percent. More than half of the 17 percent gap in pay between men and women can be accounted for by differences in the productivity of men relative to women. The decoupling of pay and productivity may be due to discrimination, less bargaining by women, or to employer's expectations about the future. To study the mechanisms behind the 7 percent gap in pay that was unexplained by productivity, the author used data on motherhood and age. The difference between the relative pay and productivity of men and women was driven by women without children. Mothers are paid much lower wages than men, but their estimated productivity gap completely explains their pay gap. In contrast, women without children are estimated to be as productive as men but they are not compensated at the same rate as men. The paper also provides estimates of the gender productivity gap across industries and occupations, using an Olley-Pakes control function in investment to account for endogenous sorting by men and women across firms. Though the results do vary across industries and occupations, the overall estimate of the productivity gap was remarkably robust to the specification of the production function.

The review of studies on wage differentials highlights that gender differential and wage inequality remain a major issue worldwide, despite the prevalence of protective legislations enacted to protect human rights. Studies show that even after controlling for socio-economic, cohort and labour market related factors, women are paid lower wages than men. While human capital variables like qualifications and experience have significant effect in determining the wages of male workers, this was not the case for female workers. Thus despite occupying the same qualification, experience and productivity, men and women were compensated differently.

B.Studies related to discrimination in recruitment, promotion, decision making etc.,

Mia Hultin (1998) examined to what extent discrimination accounts for inequalities in authority exertion between women and men in the Swedish labour-market. The analyses was based on data from the 1991 Swedish Level of Living Survey and the 1991 Swedish Establishment Survey on a sample of 2017 employees. Processes governing authority attainment were studied in terms of human capital and family responsibilities as well as the horizontal sex segregation in the labour-market. The empirical results strongly indicate that women are being unduly restricted from attaining supervisory positions at work, primarily within the private sector of the economy. The assumption that discrimination was brought about by decision-makers within work organizations was tentatively tested and proved not to hold, since it was determined that neither women nor men's chances to reach higher supervisory positions are affected by the sex of the highest workplace manager.

Grisanaputi, Wipawee (1999) examined the causes and effects of gender discrimination in the Thai workplace. The research focuses on gender differences related to recruitment, occupational segregation, compensation, pay raises, promotion opportunities, fringe benefits, and personnel policies and practices. Three hundred employees and ten supervisors of Grarui and So Co., Ltd, participated in the study. Also, personnel policies and regulations were reviewed and evaluated. The findings showed female workers were more satisfied with fringe benefits and the practices of their supervisors, than their male counterparts. Moreover, male workers perceived that their female coworkers were treated better by supervisors, especially in regard to compensation, pay raises and promotions. Traditional Thai social value and culture may be at the root of these unexpected findings.

Suriya,M. (2003) examined gender issues in the career development of IT professionals. The study critically analyses the situation of women in Northern and Latin American countries as well as selected European, Asia-pacific and African countries in the late 20th century. It examines the status of women in different occupational specialties, which shows that despite their increased representation, women do not have equal access to the different levels of occupational hierarchies. They are over-

represented in some types of lower-level jobs (e.g. programmers and operators) and under-represented in higher-level jobs (i.e. project leaders and IS managers). Computing therefore has remained a gender segregated, male-dominated occupation.

James R. Elliott Ryan A. Smith (2004) examined the differential access to workplace power among women and minorities relative to white men. The findings indicate that, relative to white men, all groups encounter increasing inequality at higher levels of power, but only black women seem to experience this form of inequality as a result of direct discrimination. Further findings indicate that, with reasonable statistical confidence, men and women of various races and ethnicities experience increasing inequality in workplace power, relative to white men, but they experience it to different degrees and via different mechanisms. Among Latinos and white women, increasing inequality appears to result largely from human-capital deficiencies relative to white men specifically education among Latinos and work experience among white women. Therefore, policy recommendation to improve human capital among these groups, in hopes that greater similarity in education and experience will bring greater similarity in workplace power attainment.

Tracee Alexandria Davis (2005) aims to identify and analyze gender inequality in law enforcement and males' attitudes and perceptions towards women working in law enforcement. The data was obtained from a sample of male police officers employed in a police department located in Fort Worth, TX. The findings of the study suggested that negative attitudes from male officers' still exist, however, the extent of these negative attitudes has shifted to the younger generation of male officers and with the growing population of women entering law enforcement, these negative attitudes should not exist. Although it was evident, that some male officers' continued to view female officers as inadequate and physically weak, additional training can be provided to female officers currently working in law enforcement and those who will enter the training academy. The training academy could offer additional self-defense classes, such as martial arts, karate, and various other technical classes that could prepare female officers for physically demanding situations.

Alice Wieland (2007) examines the issues self-employed women face, contrasted by those experienced by employed women. What emerges from this analysis was that

self-employed women are still unequal to men in terms of authority, power, and income. The study also finds occupational and industrial segregation, gendering, and work-family conflict to be prevalent in women's self-employment.

Marikkar, Fathima Azmiah (2007), attempts to analyze gender inequality in Japanese society focusing on some of the problems faced by working women and evaluate the extent to which these women are supported by the government and other institutions. In Japan, the Equal Employment Opportunity Law was expected to play a central part in the legal framework for women workers. But it has been criticized by women's group as ineffective because it only urges companies to make efforts to give equal opportunity. The Equal Employment Opportunity Law merely brought a superficial change but nothing had really improved. Women workers continued to struggle with having no functional organization to work for their claims. The study points out that it was necessary to modify the legal framework to eliminate discrimination and equalize opportunities for both men and women as law is the functional framework of the economy. It is not only the law, but people in decision-making positions should change their minds and accept gender equality as one measure to counter the socio-economic problem.

Samantha Velluti (2008) examined gender equality in collective bargaining and looks at the extent to which gender and equal opportunities issues have been mainstreamed in industrial relations systems in Italy where, despite the existence of old and new legislation on gender equality, there are persistently low levels of female employment and the precarious workforce was made up predominantly of women. In particular, the article looks at whether gender mainstreaming has the potential to pave the way towards an ethos of substantive equality at the workplace, whereby women enter the workforce on equal terms and men are in a position to share the dual responsibilities of paid and unpaid work. The article maintains that gender mainstreaming may fulfill its transformative potential as a catalyst for changing both the conceptual and analytical tools which the law deploys, provided it was envisaged as a three-fold strategy involving simultaneous processes of deconstruction, replacement and inclusive measures, together with deliberative forms of democracy and the imposition of a statutory positive duty on public authorities to mainstream equality.

Annette B. (2008) analysed the causes which lead to gender discrimination, and the problems and constraints at home and workplace which affect women's participation in the construction sector in India and the barriers for women in the construction sector to acquire skills for masonry work and how they could be trained to become masons. A total of 440 men construction workers and 440 women construction workers and 51 contractors were examined. The findings of the study showed that many women construction workers are illiterate, widows, only earning members of the family and from low income families when compared to men construction workers. Women construction workers face harassment at home and work place. There was also gender discrimination in work, wages and in promotion opportunities. The findings also showed that the important barrier for women being promoted as masons was the gender bias which men and women have, and women construction workers are not given an opportunity to be trained informally like men in construction sector. It was found that women were willing to become masons, and men, especially the contractors, are not willing to accept them, train them and give them placements in the construction sector.

Marimuthu Sivakumar (2008) analysed gender discrimination and women's development in India. Gender is a common term as where gender discrimination is meant only for women, because females are the only victims of gender discrimination. Females are nearly 50 percent of the total population but their representation in public life was very low. Recognizing women's right and believing their ability are essential for women's empowerment and development. This study deals with gender discrimination in India, its various forms and its causes. The solution for gender discrimination were discussed by using the factors namely education, employment, economic independence, empowerment, self confidence and decision making. The author concludes that a nation or society, without the participation of women cannot achieve development. If we eliminate gender discrimination, women will deliver all the potentials, skills, knowledge to develop the family, the nation and the whole world.

Bishnu Maya K.C. (2010) examined the general perception of women on discrimination in employment. The study used primary data and the field survey was conducted in Tamghas VDC of Gulmi District during November 2006 to February 2007. The key study tools and methods used by the study were: Key information interview,

Focus group discussion, Case studies and Field observations. Information has been collected on the basis of random sampling as well as judgment sampling method. About 100 respondents (women employees) have been randomly selected from all government and non-government offices (five per office) encompassing all available castes (Brahmin, Chhetri, Magar, Gurung, Kami, Damai and Newar). The study shows that women do not perceive discrimination in general. However, the result shows that their participation in decision-making was low compared to men. The study recommends for the women qualitative and competitive education.

Ravindra Gowda and Shivakanth Shetty (2010) in their study stressed that significant gender disparities remain even today. The findings concluded that educational attainments and workforce participation of women was still significantly lower than their male counterparts. Women empowerment through employment orientation and skill formation and creation of an enabling environment should be crucial ingredients for women empowerment strategy to improve the female employment in all sectors and industries in Karnataka State.

Alimi Baba Gana and Bukar Jamri (2011) analysed the effects of gender discrimination on women in Kashim Ibrahim College Of Education, (KICOE), Nigeria. The global gender discrimination against women in public and private organisations today dominated the world affairs, raises alarm, and attracts the attention of sociologists, managers and head of institutions on how to confront the phenomenon was the concern of this study. A descriptive research method and field survey were employed in the study using a sample size of sixty-six (66) respondents out of which thirty-three 33 were collected from male and 33 from female lecturer. The findings of the study revealed that there was no or little gender discrimination against women in area of recruitment and in administrative interactions within the institution.

Darunchai Chaidarun (2011) studied female discrimination at Japanese workplaces in Bangkok metropolitan region because Japanese working system contain high female discrimination and gender inequality. Thus it was interesting to know the situation of female discrimination in Japanese firms in Thailand whether it exists or not. The feminist research approach was used as the main framework, and the quantitative method as the main research method. For the quantitative analysis, 120 e-

questionnaires, containing both general questions and discriminated related questions were sent to the Thai female workers at Japanese firms in Bangkok metropolitan region. There were 77 answered respondents. The conclusions emerging from the study revealed that Thai female employees do not feel that they were discriminated, and high-salary women feel dissatisfied with their remuneration.

Donatus, E.Onwuegbuchunam. (2011) examined gender discrimination of personnel in management cadre in the Nigeria's Maritime Industry. Gender discrimination was one of the main factors militating against workforce balance and productivity in corporate organization. A five-point Likert scale based questionnaires developed for the study was administered to a random sample of firms in the shipping and logistics industry. Evidence provided by the analysis indicated that worker productivity; social and traditional beliefs prevailing in the work environment affect appointment and promotion of personnel. It was argued that proper orientation and enlightenment in corporate organizations would promote gender balance and enhance workforce productivity.

Qaisar Abbas et.al (2011) examined gender discrimination and its effect on employee performance/productivity. Employee performs critical tasks for the survival of the organization irrespective of any gender differences. Three dimensions of gender discrimination included in this research were hiring discrimination, promotion discrimination and facilities discrimination. Data was obtained from 200 telecom supervisors of Pakistani industry for understanding the effects of discrimination on employees' performance. The findings indicated that gender discrimination in promotion and facilities were more responsible for the level of employee performance. The empirical evidence from telecom sector of Pakistan and guidelines for human resource managers related to employee productivity which ultimately effect organizational productivity.

Jennifer K Bosson, et.al (2012) surveyed Americans regarding their beliefs about gender discrimination over the past several decades. Men and women agreed that women faced much more discrimination than men in the past, and they agreed that the discrimination gap between men and women has narrowed in recent years. However men perceived the gap as narrower than women did at all time periods, and reported that

there was little difference today in the amount of gender discrimination women and men face. Political ideology moderated these beliefs such that conservative men were most likely to report that anti-man bias now equals or exceeds anti-woman bias. Similar to recent research on beliefs about racism, these findings suggest that group which differs historically in status and power exhibit perceptual differences regarding the changing nature of discrimination.

Ilir Rusi, (2012) presented a research on “The Albanian legal framework on non-discrimination and gender equality in employment relationships”. Discrimination and gender inequality in employment relationships are present in every society. Discrimination in employment relationships and in the workplace continues to appear in its traditional format based on gender, race, ethnic origin, religion, age but also in new forms based on disability, sexual orientation, genetics and lifestyle. Despite all efforts to prevent discrimination, this phenomenon has always been a threat to all individuals seeking to enter into an employment relationship. All have the right to work, to be treated equally during a competition for a particular job, to get a fair wage, to be paid equally with others for the same job, to get promotion, to be safety in work, to get vocational training and retraining benefits without being discriminated of race, religion, age, gender, political belief, sexual orientation, etc. However, the first opportunity for discrimination was encountered from the moment when hiring an individual.

Macarie et.al (2012) scrutinizes the phenomenon of gender discrimination in the labor force, focusing on women in managerial and non-executive positions alike. Due to different psychological mechanisms that are not mutually exclusive, individuals manifest discriminative behaviors against females. Career wise, gender discrimination leads to negative developments both from horizontal and vertical perspectives. From a vertical perspective, women are either underrepresented in top management (under normal conditions) or overrepresented in risky managerial positions (during crises or downturns); even in the limited number of sectors where women are predominant in the labor force, men have better odds of being promoted. From a horizontal perspective, women generally receive lower salaries (or equivalent forms of compensation) than their male counterparts (taking into account other factors). The crux of the argument was that, although women have shown increasing interest in their professional life, they do

not receive equivalent career benefits. The implications for economic activities are twofold: an important source for recruiting managers was ignored and part of the labor force can become unmotivated due to existent/perceived discrimination.

Sangeeta Sharma and Manju Sharma (2012) analysed gender equality in the workplace focusing on finding out concrete results by constructing and testing hypotheses to find out differences in theory and perception. The qualitative analysis was done by constructing the questions on four different dimensions. Data for this particular study was randomly collected from four sectors viz., education, media, medicine and health and administration. The sample size selected for this particular article constituted 51 from the respective strata. The statistical analysis indicates that there was significant differences in the ways gender equality was perceived and applied in the workplace, be it legal, institutional or otherwise. As per the survey responses, only 8 percent of women hold decision making posts whereas 92 percent were occupied by men. This demonstrates that women's participation across organisations drops as the seniority of the role increases. Women are often found at the entry level and representation drops dramatically in senior level roles. It was assumed that the factors which are considered problematic for women and which hold them back are: lack of flexible working hours and adequate work life balance.

Shefali Malhotra and Omesh Chadha (2012) examining gender discrimination in BPO and IT industry observed that in some areas, classification of job was as male typed or female typed. A salary gap between men and women was one main difference in corporate sector, which was generally overseen by the management. Some jobs in BPO sector was mainly male dominated that intimidate women employees. A woman has to put best efforts to prove herself worth for the firm, otherwise, gender discrimination can be seen easily in this sector. Somehow if a woman managed to capture an important decision-making position, she was not entitled for the independent working. Employers do not completely trust them for the challenging jobs. They only want to make them responsible for administrative or a pre-defined format of job without any liberty of changes and this affects compensation packages and salary.

Farah Yasmin Bukhari, and Muhammad Ramzan (2013) enriched the understanding of existence of gender discrimination in Pakistan, in reality, in the Islamic

perspective. The study further explores whether there was any relationship between practiced gender roles in Pakistan and gender roles described in religion Islam. Secondary data was used. Qualitative data was collected based on previous literature and current reports to explore whether the discrimination in Pakistani culture was real or a myth. Data was analysed using thematic analysis. The findings explained the reasons for inequality as the lack of awareness, education and critical poverty. Poverty plays a critical role in occupational choice and gender discrimination. Occupational concentration was larger among the working females. The findings provides insights that there was difference between current status women practiced and status and rights given by Islam religion.

Nyevero Maruzani (2013) examined the factors that contribute to gender discrimination in retail shops, focusing on general dealer shops at Murambinda Growth point in Buhera, Zimbabwe. Despite the fact that policy makers continue to grapple with possible strategies to promote and advance progress towards equal opportunities for women, gender discrimination in retail shops still exists. Recent research also shows that workplace discrimination continues to be an impediment to gender equality. Women, who bear the disproportionate burden of the world's poverty, continue to face systematic discrimination in areas of employment, healthcare and education. Using the descriptive survey design, the study examined the possible limitations on female labour market participation. The study established that there are a number of factors that contribute to the discrimination of women in working environments, chief among them being patriarchy, religion, culture and socialisation. Over and above all, the study recommends that all efforts targeted at addressing gender discrimination in the workplace must take into consideration the fact that gender roles are socially constructed and they are heavily influenced by the above mentioned factors.

Ravi Kumar (2013) made an effort to identify gender discrimination among construction workers and identify the means of empowering women construction workers with special reference to Vijayawada, Andhra Pradesh, India. The findings of the study showed that many women construction workers are illiterate, widows, only earning members of the family, from depressed class and from low income families when compared to men construction workers. Women construction workers face

harassment at home and work place, and they are discriminated in wages and promotion. The findings of the study also showed that the important reasons why women are not promoted as masons is the gender bias which men and women have, and women construction workers are not given an opportunity to be trained informally like men in the construction Industry.

Xiangyi Zhou et.al (2013) studied gender discrimination in hiring markets. The authors sent 19,130 fictitious matched resumes in response to professional employment advertisements posted on major Internet employment boards in China for positions such as engineers, accountants, secretaries, and marketing professionals in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Wuhan, and Chengdu. The results showed that, in general, state-owned firms tended to prefer male applicants. Foreign and private firms tended to prefer female applicants. On one hand, this evidence supports the hypothesis that economic reform and the market economy may mitigate gender discrimination. On the other hand, this evidence was consistent with statistics that describe discrimination based on gender segregation and information asymmetry that originated with higher ratios of female workers in foreign and private firms. With respect to regional income disparity, the study found that the differences in gender discrimination between first- and second-tier cities were not significant. This result indicates that economic reform exerted limited mitigation effect on discrimination.

Abhishek Mishra (2014) examined glass ceiling and gender discrimination. The term “Glass ceiling” refers to “the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that keeps women from rising to the upper rung of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements”. To be more specific, the connotation is one of the most compelling metaphors for analyzing inequalities between men and women at workplaces. “Glass ceiling” comes under the category of gender discrimination meted out to the women folk in the economic arena, as the practice works as a barricading to give women their due credit in an industrial set up. The present paper made a precise and honest effort to explain the practice or phenomenon of glass ceiling as an instrument of gender discrimination, various expressions of gender discrimination, and its impact upon the female working force. The findings of the study indicated that women who are victims of glass ceiling and sexual discrimination lose motivation and

morale necessary to perform their jobs effectively. This also leads to a loss in productivity.

Ana Santos (2014) addressed how discrimination in the workplace was performed through gender stereotypes, how gender stereotypes are socially constructed, and how these gender stereotypes negatively affect women in work-related situations. Women continue to face discrimination in the workplace regardless of the equality rights guaranteed in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, in section 15(1). Thus, the article argues that both men and women are equally capable of working in similar positions and discrimination was a social construct built upon gender stereotypes and social expectations, which as a result affect women negatively in the workplace.

Ali Falah Al-zoubi (2014) examined gender barriers in the business environment in Jordan. Two variables that may influence economic success of businesses owned by women entrepreneurs in Jordan were selected for this purpose. These variables are the marital status of female entrepreneur and its effect on her business, while the second variable was related to gender discrimination and whether it was considered as a major obstacle facing women entrepreneurs. Data was collected from 102 convenient samples of female business owners in private sector and different innovation centers. The linear model was used to identify the relationship between the marital status and gender discrimination and success in business. Results showed a positive relationship between the marital status of business owners and success in business and that being a female or single was not an obstacle facing Jordanian women in business.

Derek W. Dalton et.al (2014) tested a model of perceived gender discrimination in the audit profession. Using a sample of 234 female auditors employed in public accounting firms, they examined the effects of workgroup composition factors and organizational climate factors on perceived gender discrimination along with the impact of perceived gender discrimination on several critical organizational outcomes. They found that female auditors report lower levels of gender discrimination when employed (1) in firms with more female partners; (2) in firms with stronger ethical climates; (3) in firms that are more supportive of alternative work arrangements; and (4)

in firms that provide higher levels of top management support for the personal well-being of their employees. Further, the authors found that perceived gender discrimination was associated with lower organizational citizenship behavior and higher turnover intentions.

Doret Botha and Freek Cronjé (2014) attempted to study workplace opportunities for women employed in core mining activities. Findings are being drawn from empirical work undertaken at a platinum, phosphor and copper mine. The quantitative and qualitative research paradigms were used. It was evident from the research that specific attention should be given to the career development and progression of women working in the core business of mines. Practical recommendations are made which could be implemented and used by mining companies to overcome some of these issues.

Faatin Zulaikha Amir and Norashikin Mahmud (2014) studied relationship between discrimination in career development and stress among female workers in Malaysia. Female workers always felt discriminated by the organization as it is difficult to attain equal opportunities to develop their career. They do not receive the same opportunities as the other sex for mentoring, training, promotion, and rewards. This may lead to the cause of stress as they cannot develop in their career and reach for a better position in the organization. The paper investigated the relationship between discrimination in career development and stress among female workers. The sample consists of 86 female workers from supervisor level and above. Findings indicate that the female workers are being discriminated from obtained opportunity for mentoring, promotion, and rewards and there are significant correlation between the discrimination in career development and stress.

Fakher Amjad et.al (2014) examined the gender based discrimination in formal and informal work participation in Lodhran district of Pakistan. Twenty-four union councils were chosen for study. The findings indicated that mobility of male members for formal work and number of adult women in household was found positively associated with freedom of work to women and female members' mobility in formal work participation. Family size and women in veil appeared negatively associated with freedom of work to women and female members' mobility in formal work participation.

On the basis of descriptive and econometric results, it can be concluded that gender based discrimination of work participation exist in rural areas.

Farhat Shafiq (2014) made a research on glass ceiling effect on Pakistani women. The paper looks into the prevailing situation of glass ceiling effect on Pakistani working women's perspective along with barriers. Glass ceiling and gender discrimination are the biggest barriers holding back Pakistani women from occupying high positions of prestige in the corporate world. Working women in Pakistan face obstacles moving up the corporate ladder and are often excluded from the decision-making.

Kudachi S.A. (2014) analysed gender discrimination factors affecting female employees in private organizations. Discrimination in the workplace crop up when the potential of a person was discriminated due to gender biasness. In private sectors female employees are facing gender discrimination in job opportunities due to numerous discriminatory features that have unconstructive impact on their working potential. These dynamics comprised of patriarchal structure of the society, prejudice for working women, lack of social support, inadequate professional encouragement, social taboos, gender biased attitude of male employees. The researcher assembled the data from 50 female employees who were working in hospitals in Bijapur city through convenient sampling technique. Male dominancy at work place, traditional myths appended with the working women, wage discrimination, gender specified job positions, managers biasness, lack of trainings (especially for female employees) and inferiority complexes of men are the salient discriminatory factors that are faced by women in private sector organizations. Even the skilled women cannot infiltrate this due to miscellaneous stereotypes attached with the female job orientation. Sturdy monitoring system in organizations, formation of anti discriminatory policies as well as gender related educational programmes and trainings are the foremost remedies that can diminish the disparaging impacts of gender discrimination for female employees.

Mustafa Khalid and Rabail Aroosh (2014) analysed the concept of gender discrimination at workplace and how it affects the performance of female employees and its impact on organizational performance in banking sector of Pakistan. Data was collected from both males and females working in private banks through questionnaires.

According to the results, the study concluded that gender discrimination did not have much impact on employee performance and organization commitment and culture moderated the relationship between gender discrimination and organizational commitment.

Oluwakemi Owoyemi and Olasunmbo Olusanya (2014) examined gender discrimination in paid employment in Nigeria. Since the proclamation of 1975-1985 increasing awareness and attention has been focused on discrimination of women. Several national and international constitutions and the United Nations declaration on discrimination against women have been used to address and suppress unequal power relations between men and women. Despite all these initiatives, research evidence still shows that these constitutions theoretical commitments and acknowledgment of women's crucial roles remained trivialized, in Nigeria, during the pre-colonial era. Gender inequality and marginalisation came from the premise that women occupied a position complementary rather subordinate to men. Such complimentary position does not mean equality, but rather, that women can equally play important roles in the society successfully. Despite all the initiatives aimed at eradicating the discrimination of women in paid employment, evidence was showing that these constitutions, theoretical commitments and acknowledgment of women's crucial roles remained violated and perniciously undermined. Hence more awareness will help address the problem.

Steyn et.al (2014) studied gender-based discrimination during appointments, promotions and remuneration. Managers are the key players in the appointment, promotion and remuneration of staff, and as such, they are actively involved when discrimination occurs in the workplace. Interviews were conducted with 75 managers from 15 organizations. Questions were posed about the prevalence and nature of gender discrimination during different human resource processes. The responses were categorized and the overall inter-observer reliability was 0.88. Most cases of gender-based discrimination occur during promotion processes, and this generally involves pro-female discrimination. Pro-male discrimination occurs at appointment level and was often due to the inherent requirements of the job. Discrimination at remuneration level seems to favour men, allowing them to receive higher salaries than women at the same organizational level. Discrimination occurs in

structured (e.g. job descriptions) as well as less structured (e.g. decision-making after interviews) phases of human resource processes. It can be concluded that gender-based discrimination still occurs and that both genders are affected negatively. It is recommended that managers should be vigilant in order to avoid these discriminatory tendencies.

Yasukawa K and Nomura K (2014) investigated the perception and prevalence of gender-based career obstacles and discrimination among Japanese physicians. The study was based on survey of alumnae from 13 medical schools and alumni from 3 medical schools. In total, 1,684 female and 808 male physicians completed a self-administered questionnaire (response rate 83 percent and 58 percent). More women than men had the perception of gender-based career obstacles for women. Women with part-time positions were more likely to have the perception of gender-based career obstacles than women working full-time. More women than men reported experience of gender discrimination related to professional advancement. Factors associated with experience of gender discrimination included age, marital status, academic positions, subspecialty board certification, and PhD status. Women older than 40 years were more likely to experience gender discrimination compared with younger women and women with PhD were more likely to experience gender discrimination. The study demonstrated that a significant proportion of Japanese women experienced gender-based discrimination and perceived gender-based career obstacles compared with male physicians.

Anders Frederiksen and Timothy Halliday (2015) presented a study on Why are there so few women in executive positions? An analysis of gender differences in the life-cycle of executive employment, "Glass ceilings" and "sticky floors" are typical explanations for the low representation of women in top executive positions, but a focus on gender differences in promotions provides only a partial explanation. The study considers the life-cycle of executive employment, which allows for a full characterization of the gender composition of executive management. The study establish that there are few women in executive management because they have lower levels of human capital, are underrepresented in lower-level jobs, and are less likely to be perceived as high-productivity employees. However the study did not find that women have uniformly

unfavorable promotion and demotion probabilities. The results showed that observable gender differences in the employment composition at lower ranks and education levels explain part of the gender gap in executive employment. And also that women do not have uniformly unfavorable promotion and demotion probabilities. Instead, a large part of the gender gap in executive employment was caused by the fact that relatively few women are perceived to be of the high-productivity type. This implies that the gender gap was caused by factors that are unrelated to education and sector choice, which makes it particularly difficult to influence through policy.

Dewan Mahboob Hossain and Rohaiza Rokis (2015) examined whether gender issues at the workplaces receive immense importance from the researchers all over the world. This study emphasizes on the core questions: how men and women maintain networks in the organizations and whether their networking strategies are different from each other. Most of the studies on this issue conducted so far are mainly based on the developed economic-based nations. This particular study however looks into this issue in the context of a developing economy of Bangladesh. By taking an old, well-reputed and large public University as a case, this study concludes that men and women have different networking strategies. Women's networks mainly revolve around women. Moreover, women are not that much interested in establishing and maintaining networks like men in the workplaces. Rather, women remain more concerned with their family affairs. These situations apparently do not directly beneficial to women on a whole. Working women are deprived of recruitment, promotion and obtaining strategic positions at the workplaces. Men, on the other hand, due to their solid and significant social networking manage to maintain positive working avenues and therefore secure their positions further.

Francesca Gino et.al (2015) discussed that women are underrepresented in most high-level positions in organizations. Though a great deal of research has provided evidence that bias and discrimination give rise to and perpetuate this gender disparity, in the current research the authors explore another explanation: men and women view professional advancement differently, and their views affect their decisions to climb the corporate ladder (or not). In studies 1 and 2, when asked to list their core goals in life, women listed more life goals overall than men, and a smaller proportion of

their goals related to achieving power at work. In studies 3 and 4, compared to men, women viewed high-level positions as less desirable yet equally attainable. In studies 5–7, when faced with the possibility of receiving a promotion at their current place of employment or obtaining a high-power position after graduating from college, women and men anticipated similar levels of positive outcomes (e.g., prestige and money), but women anticipated more negative outcomes (e.g., conflict and tradeoffs). In these studies, women associated high-level positions with conflict, which explained the relationship between gender and the desirability of professional advancement. Finally, in studies 8 and 9, men and women alike rated power as one of the main consequences of professional advancement. The findings reveal that men and women have different perceptions of what the experience of holding a high-level position will be like, with meaningful implications for the perpetuation of the gender disparity that exists at the top of organizational hierarchies.

Guantai, H. K, et.al (2015) examined the issue of women under-representation in management positions in all sectors including education which has aroused scholarly interest globally in recent times. Statistics from the Teachers Service Commission of Kenya (2010) revealed that only 1,178 (24.5 percent) of the 4,800 public secondary schools in Kenya were headed by female principals. This was way below the minimum of 30 percent allowed by the Constitution of Kenya in 2010. The purpose of the study was to identify the organizational barriers and coping strategies that influenced female mobility to principal-ship in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties. The key objective of the study was to identify the organizational barriers faced by secondary school female principals in these counties. The study employed descriptive survey design. The target population for the study was 825 persons. A sample size of 400 respondents was used for the study. Data were collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically while quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS. The major finding of this study was that organizational practices, culture, lack of mentoring, tokenism and “old boys” networks that locked out female counterparts were the main organizational barriers that secondary school female principals encountered as they ascended to principal ship in the three counties. Further the study found that additional training and female principals remaining focused on their

work were among the coping strategies that were embraced to overcome the barriers encountered. The study recommends embracing the policy of gender mainstreaming to counter organizational cultures that are characterized by male dominance and discrimination against women so as to increase women visibility in top level positions in school management in Kenya

Surendra Kumar Sia et.al (2015) examined the contribution of perceived gender discrimination to work engagement, the contribution of future time perspective (FTP) to work engagement and more importantly, the moderating role of FTP on the relationship between perceived gender discrimination and work engagement. Based on a social cognitive frame work, it was hypothesized that FTP was positively related to work engagement. Further, it was also expected that FTP would work as a compensatory motivational resource and weaken the negative relationship between gender discrimination and work engagement. These questions were examined using a sample of female employees working in Textile and Apparel companies in the Chennai and Puducherry regions of India ($N = 234$). Results indicate that FTP had a positive relationship with physical, cognitive as well as emotional engagement of the respondents. It also moderates significantly the relationship between perceived gender discrimination and cognitive as well as emotional dimensions of work engagement. However, no significant moderating effect appears for the relationship between gender discrimination and physical engagement of these employees.

Qin JinFang and Yang Zhao (2015) analysed the perception of gender equality among female employees in Beijing five-star hotel. The hotel industry has a high concentration of female employees, and understanding gender equality from the perspective of this employee population has strong theoretical and practical significance. The study was conducted using a survey questionnaire, and data were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 software to extract themes related to the motivation to work, gender equality perception, and the effect of gender on employment. The important findings were (1) gender consciousness influenced female employees' motivation to obtain employment; and (2) women in the hotel industry reported perceiving different degrees of gender discrimination. Among the research sample, the strongest perception of discrimination was reported regarding horizontal gender segregation. Greater

perception of horizontal gender segregation was associated with increasing age, lower education level, professional mismatch, and lower employment position. Regarding their positions within hotels, female employees were mostly concentrated in reception, guest room cleaning, catering services, and similar posts, whereas other hotel jobs were male dominated (e.g., kitchen, security, maintenance). Therefore, participants' perceptions of horizontal segregation were consistent with observed employment distribution within the hotel industry.

To sum up, gender based discriminations is an universal phenomenon despite the efforts put in by the policy-makers to mitigate it and advance towards equal opportunities. Women not only receive low salaries but also discriminated in recruitment, promotion, career benefits, administrative interactions, participation in decision making and obtaining strategic positions in workplace. Studies also highlight the need for formulating suitable monitoring system in organisation and formation of anti discriminatory policies and gender related educational programme to counteract the negative impact of gender discrimination on women employees.

D. Studies related to harassment at workplace

Tripathy and Das (1991) pointed out that women in our society are subjected to several socio-economic constraints and discrimination. Women employed in informal organizations and activities and the self employed face a different set of problems from those employed by formal establishments. In their case the question of segregation and discrimination in employment as such was less important. Their problem was that they belong to poor and disadvantaged group and therefore, do not have access to better paid jobs. Most of the time informal sector women are the co-partners of their husbands. But at the same time, they are mostly driven by economic deprivation to work outside their households and suffer a greater degree of social exploitation than the women employees at establishment.

Shaffer M.A. et.al (2000) analysed gender discrimination and job-related outcomes among working women in the United States and China. In the study the authors tested hypotheses about two forms of gender discrimination, sexual harassment and gender evaluation (the use of gender as a criteria for job-related decisions), and several job-related outcomes. A sample of 583 working women was drawn from three

geographic regions (the United States, Chinese mainland, and Hong Kong SAR). These regions each have distinct cultural and social characteristics as well as different levels of legislation and enforcement regarding gender discrimination. Results indicated that gender discrimination was negatively associated with job satisfaction and affective commitment and positively associated with turnover intentions and life stress. Across geographical regions, women reported significant differences in all constructs. Several relationships between gender discrimination and the job-related outcomes were moderated by geographic region.

Chatterjee (2001) in a study revealed that sexual harassment was severe for women in the unorganized sector where jobs were not protected while in central Government offices generally these incidents hardly came to the forefront. About 92 percent organizations stated that no such incident occurred in their offices, 60 percent organizations declared that they had instituted a complaint committee as directed by the Supreme Court order, while 24 percent had not formed any such committee. Very few Indian companies had a separate and clear policy on sexual harassment and eight percent of them stated that they had other cells., e.g. Women cell, Employees Grievance cell, etc., to deal with the issue. Around four percent did not have any information about it, and four percent felt that this sort of committee was not required because they had their own Human Resource Development Departments to resolve such cases without much publicity.

In a survey of 2400 men and women across organizations and institutions, Saakshi (a Delhi based NGO) showed the following figures on sexual harassment (Business Today, 2002).

- 80 percent said that sexual harassment existed in the workplace.
- 49 percent had encountered cases of sexual harassment
- 41 percent had either experienced it, or knew women who had faced sexual harassment.
- 53 percent said that women were treated unfairly by supervisors, employers and co-workers.
- 53 percent said men and women did not have equal opportunities at work.

- 58 percent had not heard of the Supreme Court 1997 ruling on sexual harassment.
- 20 percent said that their organisation had implemented the guidelines.

Bharat Bhusan and Sunanda Padhy (2003) stated the violence against women was prevalent at the workplace. In spite of growing awareness of the concepts and need for gender justice, there has been an increasing trend of sexual harassment of women at the workplace. The author seeks to explore the pervasiveness of the problem and to examine how far the innovative judicial law making progress have contributed in providing protection of women from sexual harassment at the workplace

An empirical study conducted by Chandrasekar (2004) among women construction workers revealed that the respondents were subjected to several forms of sexual harassment such as inappropriate touching (80 percent), pushing (6 percent), pinching (8 percent) and sexual intercourse (6 percent). The perpetrators were co-workers, masons and contractors.

Gopalakrishnan (2007) in his study found that 58 percent of the women in the construction industry were subject to sexual harassment by the employers at workplace. Around 16 percent of the women were abused both by the employers and the co-workers. Only 26 percent of the women did not face sexual harassment. The forms of abuses were inappropriate staring (84 percent) and unwelcome comments on their appearance (74 percent) and 12 percent of the women were subject to Quid pro-Quo harassment by the employers (i.e you do something for me, and I will do something for you). The employers demand for sexual favours in return for a better pay or a relatively easy job. About 94 percent of the women did not report the harassment. As a result of harassment, 22 percent quit the work and 16 percent ignored it.

Kumar (2007) observed that sexual harassment was a serious issue in both private and public sector organizations. Sexual harassment can occur between members of the opposite or the same sex. Sexual situations in the work environment are not new to organizational life. Sexual feelings are inherently present in group dynamics, and people who work together may come to develop these kinds of feelings when they work in close proximity. Sexual harassment encounters are unpleasant causing personal and organization hardships such as low morale, job dissatisfaction,

low productivity, creation of bad organizational image, low quality of products produced, more conflicts and friction, poor interpersonal relation, less co-operation and psychological ill health.

Menon (2007) argued that the right to a safe workplace was not the only right women aspire to; it is one of the many that they are entitled to. This recognition has to precede the way sexual harassment at the workplace was viewed. She observed that it was very difficult for women to complain, speak openly about sexual harassment or seek redressal. There are a number of reasons for this, most of which need to be considered carefully, before any effective action was taken.

Ramdoss (2010) analysed the victims of sexual harassment at workplace. The purposive sampling method was adopted and 63 women employees from a cell phone panel manufacturing company in Chennai were chosen as samples. The results reveal that a significant 54 percent of the respondents were harassed at workplace. Majority of 87 percent of the respondents did not report about the harassment they faced at work place due to fear.

Andrey Shastri (2014) examined gender inequality and women discrimination in India. He observed that men and women are two wheel of a cart. Female of our country have faced the discrimination throughout the ages and continued till today and still exists in various form. Usually, discrimination is influenced by cultural norms and tradition, religion, region etc. Biologically and sociologically both are assigned different role. Physically a female role is to look after house, children, family, and relatives. On the other hand men are made for bread earner, for hardship and for struggle for earning. All these thinking made our women weaker and deprived from basic things. Both are equal in human right. Women are discriminated in this male dominating society. As a result most of women are unable to understand their own right and freedom. They are not free in this so called "society". Thus discrimination not only hamper women future but also impedes the country growth.

Arun Kumar Singla (2015) in his article on Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace in India observed that sexual harassment at workplace was becoming an intolerable and uncontrollable menace. Women's participation in economic sector was crucial for their economic empowerment and their sustainability. However, problems

such as sexual harassment in the workplace discourage women to continue working. Sexual harassment is a form of gender discrimination. Men may be subjected to sexual harassment but majority of the victims are women. Many sexually harassed individuals put up with the damaging physical and psychological effects of sexual harassment because taking action can be daunting, especially in environments that do not provide moral and practical support. Most often, victims are ashamed and embarrassed, and worry that they will be labeled as loose women and therefore prefer to keep quiet about it. Sexual harassment has been found to be more prevalent in certain work situations, for example, in jobs where there is an unequal sex ratio; where there are large power differentials between women and men; during periods of job insecurity; or when a new supervisor or manager was appointed.

Lipismita Nath, (2015) analysing gender discrimination in India observe that gender discrimination cannot be possible unless women come with and help to self-empower themselves. There was a need to formulate reducing feminized poverty, promoting education of women, and prevention and elimination of violence against women. Since women are integral part of the society, the gender gap must be minimized with holistic approach.

To sum up, development process in the economy has not been gender neutral. Women was often given an inferior status in the society and was subject to several socio-economic constraints and harassment at workplace. Such type of discrimination prevails both in the formal and informal sectors. It affects her job satisfaction and affective commitment to work. Often the harassment goes unreported to the fear of the victim.

III. Other related studies

Arputhamurthy Savithri (1990) in her study of the agricultural women labourers in Karnataka found complete job segregation based on gender. This job segregation also leads to wage disparities between men and women. Women are usually employed in the low prestige jobs. According to her, the conventional and social attitudes about women in India have paved the way for the employers to treat women as secondary labour force.

Tripathy (1992) suggested that it was imperative to protect women from all sorts of exploitation and provide them with minimum wages, which was not possible without effective implementation of acts. Training programme must enable the working women to acquire the skill to curb the problem of poverty which was the root of their exploitation.

David Neumark (1996) investigated sex discrimination in restaurant hiring. Comparably matched pairs of men and women applied for jobs as waiters and waitresses at 65 restaurants in Philadelphia. The 130 applications led to 54 interviews and 39 job offers. The results provide statistically significant evidence of sex discrimination against women in high-price restaurants. In high-price restaurants, job applications from women had an estimated probability of receiving a job offer that was lower by about 0.5 percent, and an estimated probability of receiving an interview that was lower by about 0.4 percent. These hiring patterns appear to have implications for sex differences in earnings, as informal survey evidence indicates that earnings are higher in high-price restaurants.

Rudolf Winter-Ebmer and Josef Zweimuller (1997) examined the gender differentials in professional status attainment. In the theoretical literature, unequal treatment of females was often rationalized by their higher probability of quitting. To test this hypothesis empirically data has been used from the Austrian micro census and it was found that neither the risk of child bearing nor different productive characteristics can explain the crowding of females in lower hierarchical positions. Females have to fulfill higher ability standards to be promoted; work experience was not rewarded in the same manner as it is for men.

Lilja.N et.al (1998) estimated gender differences in agricultural productivity. The discriminating role of women and men in social life was because of gender issues, which exist because of social and cultural circumstance that posits women into an unfavourable position.

Elona Julius et.al (2003) explored the correlation between gender and employment among adults with mental retardation, specifically, whether gender discrimination in the work place was as prominent among people with mental retardation as in the general population. Level of occupation and salary earned were

studied in 227 adults with mild and moderate mental retardation residing in institutions, hostels, and sheltered homes in Israel. The findings suggest a correlation between gender and employment similar to that in the general population. Women were found to be employed mainly in sheltered workshops and lower levels of occupation, and to earn significantly less than the men. However, closer examination of each work place revealed that within each level of occupation there were no significant gender differences in salary. The finding suggests that while women with mental retardation earn lower salaries than men, this was mainly the result of their lower level of occupation. Rehabilitation efforts should therefore be directed toward ensuring higher levels of occupation as well as community employment among women with mental retardation.

Gupta, et.al. (2003) assessed whether gender equality existed in the working environment at Institutes of higher learning in science and technology in India. Data was collected using triangulation, i.e. a combination of questionnaire, interview schedule, case studies and unobtrusive methods of observation. Findings showed that although rules of work were codified in the formal application of rules, about 40 percent respondents reported "subtle" or covert discrimination in favour of men. Some discriminatory practices, like not appointing women as faculty members in civil and mechanical engineering departments, were being followed until the 1990s. Women candidates who qualified the joint entrance exam for entry into UG programmes of IITs were not allowed to study mining. Thus, there was a general feeling among women faculty members that the system was quite impervious to the needs of women. It was found that in science institutions the informal environment of work was influenced by a lack of critical mass of women, which led to a situation of tokenism. About 75 per cent respondents agreed that women were more noticeable. About 34 percent of the respondents felt that men colleagues often tended to form their own groups, isolating women scientists, and about 24 per cent felt that this happened "sometimes". Around 10 per cent respondents received indecent anonymous phone calls and e-mails. About 84 percent respondents agreed that they had fewer contacts because of the problems in interacting with men scientists, family constraints, lack of mobility, lack of time, and almost all agreed that contacts were quite important for success. Participation in

informal activities by men was found to be higher than that of women. This study supported arguments that gender was one of the particularistic elements that have not been influenced on the universalistic scientific procedures and rewards.

Berta Esteve-Volart (2004) stressed gender inequality was an acute and persistent problem, especially in developing countries. The study pointed that gender discrimination as the complete exclusion of females from the labor market or as the exclusion of females from managerial positions. The distortions in the allocation of talent between managerial and unskilled positions, and in human capital investment, were analyzed. It was found that both types of discrimination lower economic growth; and that the former also implies a reduction in per capita GDP, while the latter distorts the allocation of talent. Both types of discrimination imply lower female-to-male schooling ratios.

Preet Rustagi (2004) tested the importance and significance of gender related development indicators for assessing relative levels of progress or backwardness of women status across the states of India. Thorough analysis of individual indicators covering issues of work, education, health, survival, safety and women's participation in private and public decision-making was undertaken. State level comparisons based on selected individual gender-related indicators reveal divergent patterns of development, highlighting the problems that complexity and non-linearity pose for measuring gender development. In the absence of unilinear patterns of gender development across Indian states, the significance of non-composite indicators and their importance for problem identification and effective intervention was highlighted.

Talwar, Sabanna et.al (2006) examined the socio-economic factors responsible for gender discrimination in the field of education and employment in regions like Hyderabad-Karnataka. About 800 rural and 800 urban females were selected. The study reported that 455 (56.88 percent) women in rural areas and 376 (47percent) in urban areas experienced gender discrimination while at school. About 44.84 percent of women respondents faced discrimination in household activities, followed by facilities for study (20.22 percent), availability of time for school (16.70 percent), play (13.41percent), and regularity of school (4.83 percent). About 23.63 percent of women had permanent jobs, 34.63 percent had temporary jobs, and 41.75 percent had daily

wage jobs in rural areas of the study region. In urban areas, 32.75 percent women were in permanent, 43.25 percent were in temporary, and 24 percent were in daily wage jobs. About 17.13 percent women in rural areas stated lack of skills/ training and 12.88 percent women respondents stated 'competition with women' to be two important constraints they faced at the time of entry into the work force. In urban areas, 20.5 percent women respondents stated competition with men, 15.63 percent women stated lack of education, 14.25 percent women stated lack of help in the household, and 12.63 percent women respondents stated lack of training as the important constraints faced.

Anupama (2007) attempted to explore the level of gender segregation and impact of various factors on female's probability of getting a job in unorganized manufacturing sector in India. The results showed that although the participation of female labour force had increased and gender segregation of total employment had declined in the unorganized manufacturing sector in India, yet it remains far from being equal.

Hyun H. Son (2007) explained the welfare disparity between male and female workers in terms of three components: segregation, discrimination, and inequality. While segregation captures occupational segregation by gender, discrimination measures the earning differential between male and female within occupations. The inequality component shows the inequality in earnings within male and female groups if this component was positive (negative), the earning inequality was greater (smaller) among females than males. Based on Atkinson's welfare function, the proposed decomposition methodology takes into account the sensitivity of inequality within occupational groups and also by gender. Moreover, the study proposes a new approach to adjusting earnings by a host of personal and job characteristics such as hours of work, education, work experience, race, and regions and urban/rural areas. The author also attempts to capture the net effect of each of these individual characteristics on segregation, discrimination, and inequality in earnings between male and female workers. The proposed methodologies are applied to Thailand and Vietnam. The results suggest that the gender disparity in welfare was largely contributed by the labour market discrimination against female workers. Relative to discrimination, the other two components—occupational segregation and inequality in earnings—play a smaller role

in explaining the gender welfare gap. Regarding segregation and earnings inequality, both countries tend to have a similar pattern; female workers are mainly in sales and services or professions in teaching and clerical work, whereas male workers are highly present in heavy industry and construction and machine operation, with earnings among female workers more unequal compared to male workers.

Kaila, H.L (2007) analysed the problems faced by women managers. This was a qualitative study of 140 female managers interviewed in 81 organizations in order to review problems faced by women managers, the ways in which the problems affect them, and the coping strategies used by them to overcome their problems. In-depth personal interviews were conducted with the help of a structured questionnaire using open-ended questions. The narratives of managers have provided a broad base in understanding managerial life and profession of women. It was seen that many women managers worked actively towards eliminating their problems by meditating, going on holidays, taking short breaks and having appropriate medications. Other common coping strategies reported by women managers included, discussing problems with colleagues and seeking advice from superiors, spending time with friends by going for movies and holidays, planning and organizing ones schedule.

Kenneth Dowler and Bruce Arai (2008) examined gender difference in the police work which was inherently stressful. The traditionally male-dominated field of policing may create increased obstacles and stress for female officers. The results indicate that male and female officers have conflicting attitudes about the amount and nature of gender discrimination within police work. The findings further suggest that female officers experience higher levels of stress. In addition, the results indicate a weak relationship between perceptions of gender related jokes and stress level for females. Nevertheless the most important stress for both male and female officers was the perception of job related problems.

Lila Adhikari (2008) identified the women's perception on gender discrimination in education. The study followed a survey research method making its target urban women who were residing in Kathmandu valley at the time of study. A total of 120 respondents were included. Most of the women believed they were discriminated in education. Conclusion drawn was that women were not getting equal environment as

male in family. Particularly, women alleged that they were not able to complete the desired level of education and opportunities were not available for utilizing their educational ability. Their dissatisfaction was more concentrated on parents as they believed women were mostly discriminated by parents in case of education. Indicating that women are deprived in education facilities due to poor economic condition and household workload, they pointed out the psychological, economic and social consequences of such discrimination.

Kelan (2009) conducted a study on information Communication Technology (ICT) companies based in Switzerland. The interviewees, ranging in age from 24-54, were asked about their views on gender discrimination as well as other issues. Employees claimed their organization were gender neutral and that employees were evaluated based on merit. The problem with gender fatigue was that it prohibits productive discussion regarding inequalities between men and women, making gender bias difficult to address – noted Dr.Kelan. He urges that “future studies should explore what happens to gender fatigue over time and whether practical strategies can be developed to shape the way in which people in organizations speak about gender”.

Sadie Yang and Ao Li (2009) examined legal protection against gender discrimination in the workplace in China. The article draws on a survey of opinions in 25 cities about women in the workplace, to demonstrate how pervasive attitudes to men and women in China have systemically worked against women at work in the new reform era. The article goes on to examine the effectiveness of existing gender equality laws, and identifies their weaknesses. In the final part of the article, the authors make concrete suggestions to legislators, judiciary, and international donors on remedying workplace inequalities in China.

Donna Bobbitt-Zeher (2011) stressed the importance of gender discrimination and women’s experiences at work. Previous studies have suggested that gender stereotyping and organizational factors may contribute to discrimination. Yet it is not well understood how these elements connect to foster gender discrimination in everyday workplaces. This work contributes to understanding of these relationships by analyzing 219 discrimination narratives constructed from sex discrimination cases brought before the Ohio Civil Rights Commission. By looking across a variety of actual

work settings, the analysis sheds light on the cultural underpinnings and structural contexts in which discriminatory actions occur. The analyses reveal how gender stereotyping combines in predictable ways with sex composition of workplaces and organizational policies, often through interactional dynamics of discretionary policy usage, to result in discrimination. The findings suggest the importance of cultural, structural, and interactional influences on gender discrimination.

Farah Naqvi (2011) explores and portrays women's perceptions and dilemma when confronted with the ideas and expectations of traditional society while conforming to a contemporary code of conduct at work. Women managers working in a leading public sector company were asked four key questions. Their responses highlight the values, attitudes and beliefs of the women and the challenges faced by them in their careers and within the family system, raising many issues and giving pointers for future research.

Molly Chattopadhyay (2011) examined the condition of women workers in the Mica industry in Giridih District, Jharkhand, India. The study shows that the decline of the mica industry led to informalisation of work, that trade unions have not been able to improve working conditions at all or press for better wages for women workers relative to men. Molly Chattopadhyay argues that strong patriarchal values among union leaders have been a major factor in their neglect of women workers in this industry.

Parminder Kaur and Arjinder Kaur (2011) analysed the gender specific pattern of employment in India, focusing on gender disparities in labour force in the country. The study brought out that labour force participation rate and workforce participation rate has shown an increasing trend in 2004-2005 but gender discrimination against women was also found to increase. Within this bleak employment situation, women were paid lower wages as compared to their male counterparts. The unemployment rate was also found to be higher in case of females than males.

Rathidevi.R (2011) stressed the problems faced by women at workplaces included job insecurity, unemployment, health problems, overwork burden, wage discrimination, etc., Throughout the economy, women tend to hold lower-level positions than men even when they have sufficient skills to perform higher level jobs. Even when

women occupy similar positions and have similar educational levels, they earn just 80 percent of what men get.

Childs, Sheena (2012) stressed that gender discrimination in the workplace was an important issue affecting many women throughout the world. Unfair and unequal pay and compensation among women in the workplace was a large political issue that has landed among the agenda of some of America's top leaders. The discussion on gender discrimination in the study included the Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Restoration Act (2009), discrimination in historical and contemporary perspective, discrimination in retail, the gender wage gap, and much more. Bringing about awareness and understanding of the harsh outcomes and realities that these inequities and inequalities bring upon women and their families may sway others to take action against discrimination in the workplace. It is within this chain of communication that society can diminish the harsh realities among women in the workplace face today and hopefully alleviate the problem for women of the future.

Hamid Iqbal et.al (2012), analysing gender discrimination and implications for Pakistan security opined that gender discrimination was a non-tradition security threat to Pakistan and it has implications for Pakistan security. Pakistani women are more than half of the total population, but women are treated inhumanly within their homes by their husbands or dominant males through different ways like domestic violence, Sawara, vani, Karo Kari, honour killing, acid throwing, forced marriages etc. Gender discrimination was also deeply rooted in Pakistani society in education and employment sectors. The security of a state like Pakistan was connected with the security of whole population and a country cannot be considered secure until its whole population feel secure. For the progress and prosperity of a country there was a need to eliminate the discriminatory attitude of the society towards the women.

Hilary M. Lips (2012) analysed a gender gap in earnings challenging the rationalisations, perceived equity, discrimination and limits of Human Capital Model. The study relies mainly on U.S. data, but a gap between women and men earnings exists in every country. The Human Capital approach, in which various explanatory variables are used to shrink the perceived size of the gap, was often used to argue that much of the gap was due, not to discrimination, but to differing investments in employment by

women and men. However, neither “investments” nor “outcomes” can be assessed in gender-neutral ways and the model’s underlying notion of rational choices made against the backdrop of a gender-neutral playing field was flawed. Discrimination appears to be entwined with gendered work patterns and behaviors; many of the human capital “explanatory” variables themselves require explanation. Understanding the gap requires recognition of the limitations of human capital models, and a willingness both to take a more sophisticated approach to such models, and to think beyond this approach.

Michailidis, M.P et.al (2012) identified the factors that working women in Cyprus were facing discrimination, examining possible barriers that affect women's advancement and identifying organizational practices that assist them in achieving work–life balance. The data were collected by the distribution of a questionnaire, which was on a voluntary, anonymous and confidential basis and targeted women of four different occupational levels. Several barriers were identified, preventing women from advancement such as stereotypes, conflicting work and family obligations, lack of women role models and low levels of self-confidence. This research enhances women's awareness of the existence of gender discrimination at work and the barriers in their career advancement. It highlights the creation of company programs such as mentoring programs, refresher courses, flexible work hours and on-site childcare, which could help women in developing and advancing their careers as well as achieving work–life balance.

Renier Steyn (2012) expressed his views on gender-based discrimination and gender differences in ablution facilities in South Africa. International treaties, national legislation and local by-laws all advocate equal treatment of men and women, but claims of gender-based discrimination continue. Indicators of discrimination against women, including employment ratios and differences in income, show that there have been considerable gains in the recent past. These measures are, however, often biased. In the study a different, specific and concrete method of describing and detecting discrimination was presented, namely the difference in the number of ablution facilities provided for each gender group in public spaces. Ablution facilities at airports, train stations and shopping centers’ in four major South African cities (N=128) were inspected. Medium to large differences in the respective number of facilities were found,

with women receiving fewer service facilities than men. These results suggest that, despite progressive legislation and vigorous affirmative action in South Africa, local women are still being discriminated against on a very concrete, visible level.

Adeline Delavande and Basit Zafar (2013) investigated how gender discrimination depends on the social identities of interacting parties. They used an experimental approach to identify gender discrimination by randomly matching 2,836 male and female students pursuing bachelor's-equivalent degrees in three different types of institutions—Madrassas (religious seminaries), Islamic universities, and liberal universities—that represent distinct identities within the Pakistani society. The findings highlighted that gender discrimination was not uniform in intensity and nature across the educated Pakistani society and varies as a function of the social identity of both individuals who interact. While the study found no evidence of higher-socio economic-status men discriminating against women, men of lower socio economic status and higher religiosity tend to discriminate against women— but only women of lower socio economic status who are closest to them in social distance. Moreover, this discrimination was largely taste-based. The findings suggest that social policies aimed at empowering women need to account for the inter-sectionality of gender with social identity.

Chua Zi Leng and Rashad Yazdanifard (2014) stressed on cultural diversity and workplace bullying in multinational enterprises. Workplace bullying has become a prevalent phenomenon for employees in multinational enterprises. As a result, employees' job performance and mental health was affected significantly. It was important for top management team to neutralize and reduce bullying among cross-cultural employees.

Jad P. Melki and Sarah E. Mallat (2014) examined gender discrimination among women journalists in the Arab world. It hypothesized that a set of interrelated factors, pertaining to gender discrimination, sexual harassment, and the lack of a legally and socially enabling environment, work together to systematically discourage and block women's entry into the news field, push those who made it out of the profession, and keep those who have endured down and soiled in specific roles away from decision-making and policy-setting positions. The study uses a mixed-methods

approach, including a survey of 250 Lebanese, Arab and international female journalists working in Lebanon, qualitative interviews with 26 female journalists, as well as analysis of ownership documents and minutes of board meetings. Findings suggest that structural, institutional and cultural obstacles that have faced women for centuries around the globe continue to operate with potent effects in Lebanon, and by extension in the Arab region.

Maria De Paola, et.al (2014) investigated gender differences in competitive behavior. After controlling for productivity and a number of individual and field characteristics, the study found that females have a lower probability of entering into competition of about 4-5 percentage points. This gap becomes larger in fields in which women are under-represented. The attitude to shy away from competition was peculiar to women in the lower tail of the distribution of scientific productivity, while females in the upper tail behave similarly to males. It was also found that conditional on entering into the competition, females are as likely as males to be promoted.

Muhammad Ijaz Khan et.al (2014) presented a study on obstacles in women's education. The data was collected from 200 samples from the selected area. Women are often considered to be a weaker and vulnerable group in society in terms of education, employment and business opportunities, legislation and decision making. The results indicated that in Pakhtun society, right of woman education is considered as less important in society as compared to male education. Females are considered inferior part of society, therefore they are only allowed to go to madrasa, and their right of higher education was considered against their custom and tradition.

Onuoha et.al (2014) examined the influence of gender on job satisfaction among library staff in private university libraries in Ogun State, Nigeria. The sample population was made up of 162 library staff in seven private university libraries. A questionnaire was used for data collection which was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Findings revealed moderate level of job satisfaction across gender with male making up 27.2 percent, and female 35.1percent of the total percentage of 62.3 percent for job satisfaction. Gender was found to have no significant influence on job satisfaction while other factors such as stringent conditions for promotion, denied access to benefits and lack of job security were identified as major constraints to job

satisfaction. Based on the findings, the study recommends that library administrators adopt a policy of equal treatment for each gender and review the conditions attached to promotion, among others as measures for enhancing job satisfaction.

Shauka.S et.al (2014) analysed gender discrimination in higher education in Pakistan. Women experience over and subtle gender discrimination to some extent nearly at every stage of their career. Men represent the majority of the faculty of higher education institutes across the globe. The present study aimed at exploring the current situation regarding gender discrimination in the higher education institutes of Pakistan. Gender equality has been investigated by a questionnaire survey of 180 faculty members on the five aspects of the working environment, namely decision making, professional development, utilisation of resources, academic affairs and job satisfaction. Two-way analysis of variance shows that post-level was the strongest significant contributor to the differences in the five scores. Managerial positions are usually held by men, who not only have more decision making power but also have more opportunities of social networking. Women have to achieve a successful career at the cost of their family life.

Stephen K. Wegren et.al (2014) examined gender inequality in Russia's rural formal economy. The study used quantitative and qualitative data. Rural women continue to be underrepresented in farm managerial positions, and gendered income differences remain the norm. Rural women are underrepresented because they continue to have responsibility for most of the housework and child care. The traditional division of labor inside the household continues to dominate, thereby affecting women's career trajectories and earning potential. Value change about gendered roles in the formal economy has been minimal.

Sunhee Kim (2014) examined the effect of gender discrimination in organization. Since discrimination against women in the workplace was generally regarded as having a negative impact on quality of life, systematic managerial efforts to prevent such discrimination have been enforced. The study examines whether perceived/experienced discrimination against women consistently influences two subjective kinds of well-being: job satisfaction and work engagement. It will consider how the impact varies according to different dimensions of discrimination, what kinds of

moderators intervene to influence the effect on subjective well-being and how they do so. Empirical findings from three-wave panel data with a sample of 5987 female workers showed the negative effects of discrimination on these two forms of subjective well-being.

Ye Luo (2014) examines gender differences and job satisfaction in urban Chinese, whether individual achieved status, family and household characteristics, and job characteristics explain these differences, and whether these factors are associated with men's and women's job satisfaction differently using a national representative sample of 1641 men and 1375 women from the 2006 Chinese General Society Survey. Urban Chinese women are less satisfied with their jobs than urban Chinese men. This gender difference was largely explained by women's under representation in the Chinese communist party and their inferior jobs. Family and household characteristics have stronger impact on women's job satisfaction than on men's, but achieved status and job characteristics have similar associations with job satisfaction for men and women. These findings suggest that persistent gender inequality is detrimental to women's well being at the workplace.

Cailin Susan Stamarski and Leanne Son Hing (2015) stressed on Gender inequalities in the workplace. Gender inequality in organizations is a complex phenomenon that can be seen in organizational structures, processes, and practices. For women, some of the most harmful gender inequalities are enacted within human resources practices. This was because HR practices (i.e., policies, decision-making, and their enactment) affect the hiring, training, pay, and promotion of women. The authors proposed a model of gender discrimination in HR that emphasizes the reciprocal nature of gender inequalities within organizations. Results suggest that gender discrimination in HR-related decision-making and in the enactment of HR practices stems from gender inequalities in broader organizational structures, processes, and practices. This includes leadership, structure, strategy, culture, organizational climate, as well as HR policies. In addition, organizational decision makers' levels of sexism can affect their likelihood of making gender biased HR-related decisions and/or behaving in a sexist manner while enacting HR practices. Importantly, institutional discrimination in organizational structures, processes, and practices play a

pre-eminent role because not only do they affect HR practices, they also provide a socializing context for organizational decision makers' levels of hostile and benevolent sexism.

Steyn, R. and Jackson, L.T.B (2015) examined the perception of gender-based discrimination in a selection of South African organisations. The aim of the research was to gauge the levels of perceived gender-based discrimination and to comment on gender differences in this respect. Information was gathered from 1740 employees working for 29 organisations, using the Fair Treatment at Work Survey and the Gender-Based Discrimination Questionnaire. Percentage-wise more women reported incidents of discrimination at work, gender being the primary reason for discrimination. Men also reported discrimination, but this was less often. Some women reported pro-male discrimination and other women pro-female discrimination. The same pattern applied was found with men. Each group perceiving similar levels of discrimination, both in their favour and against them, supporting social identity theory and conceptions about group-serving bias. The central finding was that both male and female employees experience the negative effects of perceived discrimination. Therefore it is recommended that interventions dealing with gender discrimination should be directed at both gender groups, as both need to deal with the consequences of experiencing discrimination in the workplace

Conclusion

The review of earlier studies on gender discrimination characterises discrimination as gender wage gap (Shultz,1995; Martin Patrick,2000; Yusuf Ziya Ozcan,2003; Singh,2015), with few studies focusing on sticky floor, glass ceiling and occupational gender sorting (Hultin,1998; Wipawee,1999; Samantha Velluti,2008; Steyn,et.al,2014; Mishra,2014). Most of these studies pertain to employees in United States, African countries, Pakistan, Japan and China. Few attempts have been made in Indian context to explain gender discrimination at work place (Tripathy and Das, 1991; Sivakumar, 2008; Malhotra and Chand, 2012; Sharma and Sharma, 2012; Mishra, 2014). No attempt has been made to analyse perception of gender discrimination at workplace among ITES employees focusing on their socio-economic profile, employment and working conditions, promotions, benefits, facilities, problems at

workplace and job satisfaction. Filling the research gap is very significant as gender equality and empowered women are catalyst for achieving sustainable development.