

HELLENIC OPEN UNIVERSITY  
MASTER IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION



Postgraduate Dissertation

Gender discrimination in the workplace in Crete. Differences and similarities of the two genders and how a company is affected.

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Patras, Greece, March 2023

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## **Abstract**

This dissertation delves into the pressing issue of discrimination, with a particular focus on gender-based discrimination. Discrimination in all its forms can be insidious, targeting individuals who are perceived to be vulnerable. Despite the collective efforts of various groups to eliminate gender discrimination from society, it continues to persist in various forms.

The root of this problem lies in the perception that women are weaker and less capable than men, due in part to societal expectations that they bear the brunt of domestic responsibilities such as caring for children and managing household chores. This has resulted in a gender wage gap, with women earning less than their male counterparts, simply because they are perceived as less competent.

To further explore this issue, this dissertation includes a comprehensive survey on gender discrimination in the workplace. The results demonstrate that women continue to experience bias and earn significantly less than men. Given the prevalence of male dominance in high-ranking business positions in Greece, particularly in Crete, this study examines whether any industries are taking active measures to address gender pay gaps.

Through an in-depth analysis of companies with female in higher positions, this study aims to provide evidence that women try to excel in management roles and break through the so-called "sticky floor" that keeps them from ascending the ranks of corporate structures.

## **Keywords**

Gender discrimination, "sticky floor", gender wage gap, wage dualism, EBITDA

## Περίληψη

Η παρούσα διατριβή εμβαθύνει στο πιεστικό ζήτημα των διακρίσεων, με ιδιαίτερη έμφαση στις διακρίσεις λόγω φύλου. Οι διακρίσεις σε όλες τις μορφές τους μπορεί να είναι ύπουλες, στοχεύοντας σε άτομα που θεωρούνται ευάλωτα. Παρά τις συλλογικές προσπάθειες διαφόρων ομάδων να εξαλείψουν τις διακρίσεις λόγω φύλου από την κοινωνία, αυτές συνεχίζουν να υφίστανται με διάφορες μορφές.

Η ρίζα αυτού του προβλήματος έγκειται στην αντίληψη ότι οι γυναίκες είναι πιο αδύναμες και λιγότερο ικανές από τους άνδρες, εν μέρει λόγω των κοινωνικών προσδοκιών ότι επωμίζονται το βάρος των οικιακών ευθυνών, όπως η φροντίδα των παιδιών και η διαχείριση των οικιακών εργασιών. Αυτό έχει οδηγήσει σε μισθολογικό χάσμα μεταξύ των δύο φύλων, με τις γυναίκες να κερδίζουν λιγότερα από τους άνδρες συναδέλφους τους, απλώς και μόνο επειδή θεωρούνται λιγότερο ικανές.

Για την περαιτέρω διερεύνηση αυτού του ζητήματος, η παρούσα διατριβή περιλαμβάνει μια ολοκληρωμένη έρευνα σχετικά με τις διακρίσεις λόγω φύλου στον εργασιακό χώρο. Τα αποτελέσματα καταδεικνύουν ότι οι γυναίκες εξακολουθούν να υφίστανται προκαταλήψεις και να κερδίζουν σημαντικά λιγότερα από τους άνδρες. Δεδομένης της επικράτησης της ανδρικής κυριαρχίας σε υψηλόβαθμες επιχειρηματικές θέσεις στην Ελλάδα, ιδίως στην Κρήτη, η παρούσα μελέτη εξετάζει κατά πόσον κάποιοι κλάδοι λαμβάνουν ενεργά μέτρα για την αντιμετώπιση των μισθολογικών διαφορών μεταξύ των φύλων.

Μέσα από μια εις βάθος ανάλυση των επιχειρήσεων με γυναίκες σε ανώτερες θέσεις, η μελέτη αυτή στοχεύει να παράσχει στοιχεία που αποδεικνύουν ότι οι γυναίκες προσπαθούν να διαπρέψουν σε διοικητικούς ρόλους και να σπάσουν το λεγόμενο "κολλώδες πάτωμα" που τις εμποδίζει να ανέβουν στις βαθμίδες των εταιρικών δομών.

### Λέξεις – Κλειδιά

Διακρίσεις λόγω φύλου, «κολλώδες πάτωμα», μισθολογικό χάσμα μεταξύ των φύλων, δυαδισμός μισθών, EBITDA

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## **List of Abbreviations & Acronyms**

**ADEA:** Age Discrimination in Employment Act

**ADA:** Americans with Disabilities Act.

**CEDAW:** Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women

**CEO:** Chief Executive Officer

**EBITDA:** Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation, and Amortization

**EPL:** Employment Protection Legislation

**WEF:** World Economic Forum

## **Introduction**

Throughout the entirety of the field of psychology, the study of intergroup relations has always prioritized the examination of discrimination as a central concept (Allport, 1954). Historians have been able to trace the emergence of new ways of thinking about discrimination as well as new means to examining it, in spite of the fact that prejudice and hostility have persisted throughout history.

Discrimination may be linked back to a number of societal evils, including conflict, genocide, poverty, social injustice, and oppression, to name just a few of the examples. The study of bias in the social sciences has shed light on a wide range of different topics over the course of its history. When it comes to engaging in discriminatory behavior, having preconceived conceptions and other forms of justification play a significant influence. It's fairly normal for people to have biases based on things like age, sexual orientation, race, and financial background, among other things. We need to have a greater knowledge of the intricate interplay between individual and environmental variables, which can either increase or decrease the likelihood of discriminatory treatment. The resolutions to these problems might have a significant impact on a number of social concerns, including the amelioration of prejudice and the reduction of inequality.

# 1. DISCRIMINATIONS

## 1.1 Definition

When something or someone is unjust or unfair because of a person's membership in a particular group (such as race, ethnicity, class, gender, (dis)ability, sexual orientation, or physical appearance) is known as discrimination, the behavioral component of prejudice. Acts of discrimination are those that marginalize, degrade, and set some apart from others. Negative attitudes toward a certain group, as well as stereotypical generalizations about that group, are examples of prejudice. Discrimination and biased thinking both produce and sustain economic, political, and social inequality.

The term "discrimination" is traditionally used for the unfair negative treatment of low-status groups, although the concept of "reverse discrimination" (i.e., the maltreatment of higher status groups by less powerful groups) has increased in popularity. Discrimination directed towards specific weak groups, such as people of color, women, the poor, and the working class, by individuals in positions of power is sometimes categorized by some types, including racism, ethnocentrism, sexism, ableism, classism, heterosexism, and lookism (e.g., whites, men, elites). Researchers have long studied racism, sexism, and other forms of discrimination separately; now they're beginning to look at how these biases connect with one another (Choo & Ferree, 2010).

Discrimination can range from mild to extreme, from subtle slights like ignoring someone to overt acts of hostility like beating them up. Institutionalized and interpersonal forms of discrimination coexist in today's society. Interpersonal discrimination involves actual or symbolic personal contacts and behaviors that derogate, avoid, or exclude, whereas institutional discrimination involves systematic exclusion of excluded groups from common organizations (such as schools, governments, hospitals, workplaces, and courts) (Lott, 2009). A few examples of institutional discrimination in the United States include laws at the federal and state levels that prevent certain people from voting and that make it hard or its unable to receive public help (e.g., immigrants). Internet and social networks have opened up new avenues for bullying and harassment and can be equally or more damaging than interpersonal.

Psychologists in the mainstream have utilized a broad variety of methods and measurements to investigate bias, with varying opinions on which ones are most accurate. Measures of

verbal hostility (e.g., negative evaluation of work, pejorative feedback), voice tone, nonverbal indicators (e.g., coding of overt facial expressions, seating distance), avoidance (e.g., rejecting to work with an member that they consider out of group), and aggression against members that are not part of the group are common in laboratory-based, mainstream social psychological research (Blank & Dabady, 2004). Differences in treatment, such as being passed over for a job or having an application for a rental unit denied, are signs of discrimination, and tests only differ on these fundamental qualities of interest. Researchers also look at aggregated national statistics to gauge bias in the workplace. In order to draw conclusions regarding the link between gender and race and wages, for instance, it is possible to use statistical methods that control for confounding characteristics like education and years spent in the labor to establish salary disparities (Quillian, 2006). Furthermore, several self-report questionnaires have been developed to evaluate attitudes toward and experiences with racism, sexism, and other forms of prejudice.

Surveys and other self-report methods may understate the incidence of prejudice because modern societal norms prohibit the open confession of bias. Indirect methods, such as priming and reaction time, are used to gauge the extent of underlying bias and discrimination. These methods, which include researching the links between emotionally charged phrases and racial cues, aim to reduce the likelihood of giving socially acceptable reactions. Priming experiments include presenting racially charged phrases or pictures to subjects in rapid succession, before asking them to make a decision (Quillian, 2006). Response time approaches quantify how quickly words and pictures are classified or linked (for example, "Black" and "lazy").

The difference between "traditional" and "modern" racism has been the subject of much debate. By contrast to "new racism," which is sometimes viewed as being indirect, covert, subtle, and symbolic, "old-fashioned" racism refers to prejudice that is open, obvious, and apparent (Nier & Gaertner, 2012). In the view of many who make this difference, racism changed in how it was formally expressed after the 1970s, when de jure equality was established in most cultures. "New" racism, on the other hand, may be indicated by covert disparaging remarks regarding cultural diversity and hostility to equality-promoting initiatives., while "old" racism is said to have died out due to a decline in public support for overtly racist beliefs and policies (such as genetic inferiority of people of color and isolation) (Leach, 2005). Skeptics of the so-called "new racism" debate whether or not the

phenomenon can be considered "new" at all. Leach contends that denying institutionalized racism was popular in liberal democracies even before de jure equality was achieved (Leach, 2005). Formal demonstrations of racial inferiority are not very different from what they used to be at the start of twentieth century, and "old-fashioned" discrimination was not wildly popular prior to the establishment of de jure racial equality.. The term "benevolent sexism" has also been developed by academics. The new phrase contrasts with the more familiar "hostile" or "negative" sexism by referring to pro-female attitudes, beliefs, and actions (e.g., considering women as morally superior, pure, as needing protection). This subtle kind of sexism has the potential to bolster patriarchy and women's subordination.

### **1.1.1 Kinds of Discriminations**

#### **Age Discrimination**

Age discrimination is the unfavorable treatment of a job applicant or employee based entirely on their age. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act prohibits age-based discrimination against workers over 40. (ADEA). Although several states have laws protecting employees under 40 years old, this one does not. If two workers are the same age or older, the employer or other covered entity is not prevented from giving priority to the older employee.

Discrimination may occur when two people are discriminated against and the discriminator are beyond the age of 40. United States federal law prohibits discrimination in hiring, firing, salary, job assignments, promotions, layoffs, training, benefits, and other employment terms and circumstances, regardless of the context. To harass someone because of their age is illegal. Examples of harassment include making ageist or otherwise hurtful comments. Harassment is banned if it produces a hostile or offensive work atmosphere, results in an adverse employment decision, or both. The legislation does not prevent light mocking, passing comments, or isolated incidences (such as the victim being fired or demoted). The harasser might be the victim's direct or from another department supervisor, a colleague or a customer. A blanket policy or practice in the workplace that discriminates against people because of their age, regardless of whether they are younger or older than the policy's target population, may violate the law if it has an adverse effect on applicants or employees aged 40 or older without a legitimate business justification.

### **Discrimination based on race**

The idea that one race is inherently better than another is central to the definition of racism. This notion assumes the existence of biological "races," an idea that has been disproved by scientific inquiry and, in particular, the human genome project. However, despite the fact that 'race' is demonstrably an artificial social construction, racism persists worldwide. While the concept of a "superior race" with the right to dominate, a "inferior race" has been on the decline for some time, many people still engage in cultural racism or ethnocentrism by believing that some cultures, usually their own, are better than others, including traditions, customs, and histories. Racism, in whatever form, is tied to the distribution of power, since those in positions of authority tend to be the ones to define "superior" and to discriminate against those in weaker positions.

The effects of racism, both now and in the past, have been terrible. Genocide, tyranny, and mass murder have all resulted from racism. It has insured that the majority will always be subject to the whims of the powerful few.

### **Discrimination based on ethnicity and culture**

As with cultural racism, which holds that certain cultures are intrinsically superior better than others, according to ethnicity and culture holds that other cultures, particularly those of minorities, are inherently inferior or undesirable. Jews and Roma are among Europe's most vulnerable minorities. When Jews were the sole non-Christian minority in Christian Europe throughout the Middle Ages, antisemitism, or enmity against Jews as a religious or ethnic minority, emerged. For centuries, Jews in Christian societies fought against the discrimination they faced, which included being barred from working in most professions, segregated into ghettos away from Christians, subjected to heavy taxes, having their possessions confiscated, and even being expelled from their homelands or killed. A rise in fascism in the middle of the twentieth century, with its concept of racial supremacy, exacerbated antisemitism in Europe and led to the Holocaust, the methodical killing of more than six million Jews during World War II. The problem of antisemitism persists unabated in the modern day. Some groups, seeking to assert their supremacy, destroy Jewish graves, while neo-Nazi groups engage in overtly anti-Semitic activities.

Gypsies are a common misnomer for the Roma, who have resided in Europe for generations. Roma people have no fixed homeland but have managed to preserve their language and culture through a combination of traveling merchants, singers, and artisans. The Roma have been subjected to prejudice, including forced assimilation and enslavement, throughout the entirety of their history. Thousands of Roma were victims of extermination at the hands of the German Nazis, forced socialization under the Communist regimes of Eastern Europe, and economic marginalization in high-tech capitalist economies where they lacked the requisite skills during the twentieth century. Many Roma kids nowadays are raised in communities that are hostile to them and where they are denied access to basic necessities like school, healthcare, and housing.

### **Discrimination based on religion**

Despite Europe's professed commitment to religious tolerance, discrimination based on faith remains common and is frequently related to larger issues of racism and xenophobia. Conflicts and discrimination between Protestants and Catholics, Roman and Eastern Orthodox Catholics, 'official' religions and heretical sects, and so on formerly ripped Europe apart, although such divisions are far less salient now. Despite this, several minority religious communities across Europe, such as Jews, Hindus, Buddhists, Baha'is, Rastafarians, and Muslims, are thriving. However, many people tend to overlook this expanding religious variety, including the millions of Europeans who do not identify as religious and who do not adhere to the Christian faith.

Worrying is the rise of Islamophobia, or prejudice, fear, and hatred of Islam, the second-most prevalent religion in Europe after Christianity and the dominant religion in numerous Balkan and Caucasus states and regions. Terrorist attacks in the United States, Spain, and England in recent years have revealed long-simmering prejudices in most European societies. Lack of legal recognition as a religion, refusal to construct mosques, inability to provide facilities for Muslim religious organizations or communities, and restrictions on women and girls wearing headscarves are only a few examples of public displays of intolerance. One of the most prominent types of Islamophobia is the perception that Islam is incompatible with human rights. Much prejudice arises from ignorance of Islam, which many people associate entirely with terrorism, extremism, and particular nation-state politics, and the lack of democracy and widespread violations of human rights in many

predominantly Muslim countries is given as proof. Tolerance, solidarity, and love for one's fellow human beings are fundamental pillars of Islam.

### **Discrimination based on disability**

A physical, mental, sensory, or social impairment, whether short-term or long-term in nature and caused by disease, accident, or heredity, can all be included under the umbrella phrase "person with a disability." Individuals with impairments are entitled to the same basic protections as everyone else. It's not uncommon for them to confront social, legal, and practical obstacles that prevent them from asserting their human rights on an equal footing with everyone else. Oftentimes, these causes may be traced back to erroneous assumptions and prejudicial mindsets about people with disabilities.

There is a widespread myth that people who are disabled can't work or contribute to society. Some of the most common misconceptions about persons with disabilities are that they are broken or sick and need to be fixed or healed, or that they are defenseless and thus must be cared for. A more optimistic outlook recognizes disability as a normal element of human variation and recognizes the need for reasonable accommodation, which includes everything done to increase a person's chances of participating fully and having agency over their own lives (e.g. a wheelchair, or more time to accomplish a task). According to this optimistic viewpoint, society must make reasonable adjustments for the disabled individual.

Disabled people's capacity to fully engage in society and enjoy their rights is hampered by structural and societal impediments that must be removed. That means encouraging optimistic perspectives and removing any obstructions (e.g. buildings with wheelchair access). Those who are disabled are now referred to as "people with special needs," in line with the social concept of disability. It is the responsibility of society's institutions to accommodate these requirements. These days, many kids with disabilities are able to succeed academically while enrolled in mainstream schools. Children who are struggling in school for reasons that are likely to hamper their overall growth and progress are also included in the definition of "children with special educational needs." To help these students reach their full potential, schools may need to modify their curricula, methods of instruction, and/or organizational structure, or offer supplementary services. These changes are happening as a result of the push for more diverse classrooms.

### **Discrimination based on gender**

Gender bias persists across Europe, but in a more subtle and less overt form. Media, families, daycares, and schools are just a few of the many social institutions that perpetuate and propagate harmful gender stereotypes. Males in Western countries are commonly portrayed as dominant because of the power associated with these characteristics: they are seen as dominant because they are typically seen to be more assertive, strong, productive, courageous, important, public-oriented, influential, and financially successful. Women's defining traits—dependence, care, passivity, and a focus on family—illustrate their lack of agency. Women are typically relegated to lower-ranking posts and their contributions are never recognized or compensated fairly. Critique, social exclusion, and even physical violence can be experienced by girls and boys who do not fit societal norms. Children's emerging senses of gender identity may be disrupted by such disagreements.

### **Discrimination based on sexual orientation**

Homophobia is an unreasonable fear or hatred of gay, lesbian, or homosexual individuals or their way of life or culture, or of anybody with a different sexual orientation, including bisexuals and transgenders. In spite of the fact that legislative changes in Europe have vastly enhanced the human rights of homosexual and lesbian individuals, the situation differs drastically from country to region. In metropolitan regions, openly homosexual persons may live, work, and establish civil unions without much problem; but, in rural areas and sections of Eastern and Central Europe, they may suffer discriminatory legislation, harassment, and even violence. Many see homosexuality as a mental disorder or even a sin. Many others, whether deliberately or accidentally, criticize gay and lesbian persons for not behaving like "normal" people by applying heterosexual standards to them.

### **Pregnancy Discrimination**

Discrimination against women based on their pregnant status is banned. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is in charge of implementing two federal laws that



protect pregnant job seekers and employees (EEOC, n.d.). Pregnancy discrimination can be based on the following factors:

- Current pregnancy
- Past pregnancy
- Potential pregnancy
- Medical condition related to pregnancy or childbirth including breastfeeding/lactation
- Having or choosing not to have an abortion
- Birth control

Discrimination against a job candidate or employee because of a condition is illegal under the Americans with Disabilities Act. This includes pregnancy-related disabilities like diabetes. While being pregnant is not in and of itself a handicap, certain pregnant employees may experience impairments throughout their employment that meet the ADA's definition of disability. As a result of the employee's pregnancy-related handicap, the company may be required to make reasonable accommodations for the employee. The ADA also mandates that businesses maintain the privacy of all employees' medical information and records, including those pertaining to pregnancy.

### **1.1.2 Gender Discrimination**

Discrimination, in its most basic sense, is the negative treatment of another person on the basis of some arbitrary characteristic such as their gender, race, or other identifying factor. It is viewed as a hindrance for the fulfillment of the aims of equality, progress and peace. Women across the world face discrimination, which is a major source of inequality. Consequences to women's mental health stem from their limited ability to exercise full civil liberties. Women constitute more than half of the worldwide population, and many of them continue to endure prejudice at different periods in their life, while the details vary depending on geography, religion, culture, and ethnicity. Gender disparity may be seen in many faiths, nations, and cultures across the globe. Every morning, ancient Jews prayed, "Thank you, Lord, that I was not born a woman," according to Waltke. During the name-giving ceremony, Christian boys are escorted to a special chamber of the church, but girls are not; women are not allowed to be priests or fathers in temples or churches; and naming rituals for girls are conducted in a separate room. Advances in science and technology have

made gender discrimination a more pressing issue by making it possible to determine a fetus's gender before it is born. Seventy-eight thousand female fetuses were not born in Mumbai between 1978 and 1983 because of their parents' decision (Bastola, 2007) .

The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women 1979 (CEDAW) defines "Discrimination against women" is defined as "any distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex with the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment, or exercise by women, regardless of marital status, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil, or any other field".

Discrimination based on a person's gender comes in a wide variety of ways. Gender discrimination stems from a complex web of causes, some of which shine a light on the fundamental tension between the international community's aim to eradicate such bias and the need to acknowledge its existence. Constance Newman, in her study of sexism in the healthcare industry, defined discrimination as "the unequal application of legal protections based on gender." She went on to say that chronic inefficiencies resulting from bias against women are to blame for the failure to build a strong workforce (Newman, 2014). Undoubtedly, women and girls face prejudice based on their gender; conversely, there is significant and pervasive judicial focus on ending such bias. As a result, women, girls and occasionally transgender persons experience higher rates of sexual and domestic abuse, poverty, starvation, harassment, and uneven treatment.

Discrimination based on a woman's gender is nothing new to the human race. Regardless, discrimination based on gender has historically been widespread, and it remains an integral part of every person's day-to-day experience. There is a variety of terms to explain the many facets of discrimination based on gender, including gender gaps, gender equality, gender imbalance, gender prejudice, gender inequality and differentials (Steele, 2010). Since the many conceptualizations of discrimination based on gender consider the causes and effects of inequality in treatment of individuals, it is clear that there is no universally accepted definition of discrimination on the basis of gender.

Aileen McColgan (2006) has noted that a prohibition based on "discrimination" can be more demanding than a guarantee of equality (McColgan, 2006).

### **Direct Discrimination**

As defined by the European Union's Equal Treatment Directives direct discrimination occurs when one person is treated less favorably than another based on a prohibited criterion. Persons are often discriminated against because of their gender or other defining qualities (Maliszewska-Nienartowicz, 2014). The European Court of Justice, for instance, has ruled that denying a pregnant woman a job is a kind of blatant sex discrimination. Discriminating against a qualified female applicant because of the potential negative consequences of hiring a pregnant woman violates the principle of equal treatment for men and women in access to work. But the European Court of Justice's ruling that discrimination based on pregnancy-related illness after maternity leave is not justified shows that not all unfavorable treatment of women due to pregnancy-related illness after maternity leave will be seen as direct discrimination.

### **Indirect Discrimination**

As defined by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "indirect discrimination" occurs when "an apparently neutral provision, criterion, or practice would put persons protected by the general prohibition of discrimination at a particular disadvantage compared to other persons," unless "such provision, criterion, or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim is appropriate and necessary" (Maliszewska-Nienartowicz, 2014). Despite the fact that it is evident that many serious types of direct discrimination have been made illegal by law, not much focus has been placed on indirect discrimination. Indirect discrimination is widely practiced in many, if not all, contracting nations of the European Union. Further, indirect discrimination has been utilized to ensure equality in the sharing of social responsibilities between the sexes. It's important to remember that the idea of indirect discrimination has promoted unjust discrimination against women all around the world in the context of the workplace (Dupper, 2000).

## **Forms of Gender Discrimination**

Most civilizations, even modern industrialized and democratic ones, practice some form of discrimination against women. However, religious, cultural, and traditional norms can occasionally foster gender-related discrimination, such as the custom that prevents women from owning land or inheriting property in some regions of Nigeria (Ajala, 2017). A list of the many types of gender discrimination would be unending, however, because they all stem from uneven or discriminatory treatment. This is due to the fact that prejudice based on gender is so pervasive in everyday life that it is often overlooked. Gender discrimination is a pervasive problem in many areas of life, including the workplace, healthcare, education, wages and others.

### **1.1.3 Gender Discrimination in Employment and Wages**

Hiring, training, pay, uneven remuneration, disciplinary action, and promotion are just some of the ways in which gender-based discrimination manifests itself in the workplace (Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015). When gender is still a major consideration in hiring, promotions, and other aspects of the workplace, discrimination is taking place. Harassment from coworkers, lower pay than males doing the same job, and not getting assignments that match their skillset are all possible outcomes of discrimination in the workplace.

Although more men than women hold paid employment outside the home, it is typically women who are tasked with taking care of the house. It's true that some cultures and traditions place greater emphasis on women staying at home and caring for children while males are expected to provide for the family financially. The prejudice that pregnant women and mothers face in the workplace is one example. Some civilizations have a sex-based division of labor that encourages such discrimination.

Equal pay and access to careers have long been seen as a hallmark of a discriminatory work environment, with the former often being blamed for women's lower socioeconomic level and the latter for their relegation to lower-status or marginal occupations (Stamarski & Son Hing, 2015).

## **Sexual Violence**

Violence against women is a kind of discrimination based on gender that can take many forms, including direct injury (physical, mental, or sexual), indirect harm (threats or actual violence), coercion, and even deprivation of liberty (Keyhani, 2013). Women of all ages, cultures, socioeconomic backgrounds, and social status encounter abuse at the hands of males in both public and private settings. Rape, sexual assault, sexual abuse of children, sexism, homophobia, and harassment are all examples of gender-based violence. It is estimated that one in three women throughout the world have been victims of physical, sexual, or other forms of violence at some point in their lives (Amnesty International, 2015).

## **Property Ownership**

The right to land and property includes freedom from Gender-Related Discrimination interference on one's ability to: own, use, control, transfer, inherit, exclude, and exercise one's own judgment about one's land and property. It follows that women's disadvantage in acquiring land and property impedes overall economic and social progress (United Nations System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, 2012). For instance, in certain countries, male children are given preference when it comes to the succession of titles. As a result, this custom prevents women from advancing in their careers or inheriting property, regardless of whether they are legitimately related to the family or not. The elimination of female fetuses by sex-selected abortions is frequent in various Indian states and Nepal, and this is only one example of how gender bias may affect other areas of life.

It is impossible to overstate the importance of women's access to land and property for long-term sustainability. The World Bank claims that when women own land and property either individually or jointly, it improves their negotiating power within the home and the overall wellbeing of their family (World Bank, 2005).

## **Education**

Gender-based discrimination is identified as a major barrier to achieving universal secondary education in the 2015 Education for All Global Monitoring Report. Getting rid of sexism in the classroom means providing women with the same opportunities as males

to complete their education and reaching the same educational goals. The Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015 found that although more than a third of boys are not in school, over 15 million girls will never enter a classroom for primary or secondary education. When people talk about discrimination against women in education, they usually mean things like excluding or denying people because of their gender when it comes to things like school funding, perks, or even enrollment.

### **Gender Discrimination in Freedom of Expression**

Gender also plays an important part in the right to free speech in several cultures. Promoting free speech, free media, and open and equitable access to information and knowledge is a core component of UNESCO's mission, and is crucial to ensuring long-term stability in areas such as democracy, human rights, and sustainable development (UNESCO, 2014). Because of the media's influential position in advocating for gender equality, any kind of sexism or heterosexism in the industry is reason for severe worry and serious consequences. Despite the significance of free speech and freedom of information and expression, there is a widespread belief that governments throughout the globe, especially in Asian and African countries, are clamping down on free speech under the guise of anti-terrorism and hate speech monitoring (Ararom, 2018).

The value of free speech as a social benefit has been underlined. Yet, cultural and religious hurdles still limit women's access to critical information and avenues of expression in their everyday lives. Cultural and religious intolerance of women can take many forms, including restrictions on how they should look and act, disapproval of child marriage, and a refusal to listen to or consider their ideas. Also, women don't always have the same access to public forums and may not receive the same level of encouragement from the media or the political spheres. As an illustration, in certain nations, women face blatant discrimination in the political institutions, which threatens their ability to have a voice in government and their claims to equality (Charles & Ikenna, 2009).

## **Gender discrimination in the workplace**

The World Economic Forum's yearly gender inequality studies are a significant tool for tracking gender equality. Inequality in World Economic Forum WEF Economic 2020 Participation and Opportunity is cited as a major cause of the gender gap. Monitoring findings or conceptual frameworks are most typically utilized at the macroeconomic level to compare fairness in many domains, including labor, between men and women.

At the company level, where gender discrimination is still feasible in hiring, labor rights discrepancies are most apparent. Age exacerbates gender inequality, especially in transition economies widening [the] gender gap in the employment structure to the favor of older age groups.

Empirical research in several countries show rampant discrimination against women's labor rights. It may be due to unequal educational opportunities, cultural norms and values and discrimination based on educational attainment and marital status, as married women are less likely to succeed than men. Gender discrimination typically depends on enterprises' ownership, market orientation, and top manager's gender and its impacts, including salary inequality. Thus, sex-based labor rights breaches can hinder women's professional progress, slow economic growth, and endanger women's social well-being.

In addition to the major incentive for employment—remuneration, whose disparity is a confirmed reality and does not require primary data—enterprises utilize additional motivation mechanisms that can be used with prejudice.

Organizational leaders' actions and inactions cause workplace inequality. Managers, executives, and teammates cause inequity and prejudice. Such ideas have made corporate responsibility and ethics major topics in modern corporations. Despite several initiatives in sophisticated industrial countries to address gender disparity in recruitment, remuneration, and promotion workplace gender imbalance persists. They used 51632 respondents from 18 countries to establish that maternity myths discourage women's economic engagement by claiming that work harms children and family life. They found such beliefs underpinning all workplace gender concerns. It warned against reverting to conventional gender norms in developed nations. Workplace gender equality is accomplished when all employees have equal access to resources, rewards, and opportunities regardless of gender. In recruiting, firing, promotions, salary, job classification, and perks, gender discrimination is common.

When women apply for jobs, gender prejudice begins. Managers and recruiters tend to favor men when hiring. Even if a woman gets a job based on her education, abilities, and experience, she is usually provided a lesser wage, other remuneration, and associated amenities than males. Even if the boss or executive is a woman, she discriminates against women workers in income and benefits. Thus, women rarely receive equal in-service training and promotions. Gender imbalance in corporate architecture and HR procedures, HR policies, decisions, and implementation effect women's hiring, training, salary, and advancement. Leadership, structure, strategy, culture, corporate environment, and HR policies perpetuate prejudice. This prevented companies from eliminating workplace gender discrimination. According to Workplace Gender Equality Agency, women in Australia still earn less, advance their professions less, and save less for retirement or superannuation (Workplace Gender Equality Agency, 2017).

### **Discrimination in Behavior, Communication and Assigning Duties to Women**

Managers have been accused of treating men and women differently in the workplace, which has led to several allegations of discrimination. Men are held in more esteem for their sense of duty, responsibility, and work ethic than women. A common stereotype about women is that they are easily triggered. In the eyes of their male coworkers, women are the major source of office rumors. It's commonly believed that women are less dedicated to their careers than males because they have to care for their families and that female coworkers can't be trusted because they're jealous of one other. Women who are seen to be aggressive are a source of friction (Universal Class, 2017). Managers are hesitant to put women in positions of challenge or send them to out-of-the-way locations. Based on quantitative data and in-depth interviews, it appears that gender-based job assignments are common, with women typically being relegated to supporting tasks and not given equal access to decision-making. Women may not always be recognized for their achievements. Biological and cultural factors, especially those associated with the sexes, determine human behavior (Neculaesei, 2015).

There is bias in the workplace even in official correspondence. In order to convey ideas and thoughts effectively, language is essential. Some idioms have the potential to offend or discriminate, while others fail to communicate their intended meaning and might be



misunderstood. Therefore, it is essential to be careful when choosing words, as they might be misconstrued in ways that are not intended to generate prejudice, denigration, or discrimination. The terms "salesman" and "saleswoman" reek of bias, and may be replaced by "salesperson" and "sales representative," respectively. Official communications, including press releases, social media material, publications, and comments from top management, should be written in a certain way to prevent the use of phrases that might be misconstrued as discriminatory. The gender of the intended recipients should not be implied in the language or terms used (UNPD, 2017).

Culture reflects gender differences (Neculaesei, 2015). In practice, communication styles differ, causing misconceptions. Women should be more demure. Aggressive women may be monsters. Management likes aggressive males. Men are trusted more and have more influence in meetings than women of equal rank and employment position. Women receive lower performance grades. In the US, educated women in higher positions act like males. She believes women are judged by their appearance, clothes, and sex, while working men are not.

A recent analysis by McKinsey (2018) surveyed over 64,000 employees at 462 US organizations about their workplace experiences. (McKinsey & Company, 2018). This study found that despite corporations' commitment to gender diversity, women are substantially underrepresented at various organizational levels. Colored women suffer more. His-and-hers business careers remain. One in five US top executives are women, and one in twenty-five are women of color. Men received more promotions, demanding jobs, and access to senior leaders than women. Less than half of the women said promotions are fair and merit-based. Women were more likely to say that gender had affected promotions and that their gender will hinder their advancement.

### **Discrimination Due to Age and Conditions of Women**

Age, prettiness, pregnancy, and marital status prejudice against women. Young, unmarried, and gorgeous women are preferred for employment, meetings, performance review, and promotions. Marcus (2018) have observed that as a woman is elderly, her track record of good performance, including individual and team honors, devotion to work, and long-term labor to gain a promotion are ignored (Marcus, 2018). After 50, coworkers and supervisors

dislike her. She is disregarded, called old-fashioned, and maybe fired to make place for newer workers. Age-related stereotypes lead to the belief that older workers, especially women, are unfit, untechnical, and slow down company. Men mature like excellent wine, becoming more precious. Companies may not invest in senior workers anymore.

According to Wolfe (2017), women are judged more on their appearance and clothes than males (Wolfe, 2017). Women are also discriminated against for not being attractive or seductive. Managers are advised to keep their pregnancies private. Maternity leave and motherhood causes women to work less hours than males due to ill children, activities, and other occurrences. After having children, they travel less. According to an EHRC UK research, most working moms in the UK were discriminated against owing to pregnancy and maternity (Rikleen, 2016). Three-quarters of working women were discriminated against for having children, but only 25% told their employer. Because tribunals cost £1,200, just 1% of impacted women went to one. Ten percent of women had problems getting time off work for prenatal checkups, and four percent quit due to health and safety concerns. This study surveyed 3,000 employers and found that half of managers dealing with pregnancy or maternity difficulties of working women were neither supported or trained.

Nair (2019) have said the idea that physical attractiveness is a factor in good employment. She thinks this isn't always the case because beautiful looks are valued in most sectors but can be a barrier in others (Nair, 2019). Jobs like waitressing, flying attendant, modeling, and sales tend to draw attractive women, whereas professions like teaching, child care, engineering, and information technology don't care about appearances. Unfortunately, attractiveness-based discrimination is common in the workplace, particularly in male-dominated industries. Attractiveness impacts interviewers' perceptions of candidates, leading to the conclusion that beauty is goodness in the domain of job decision making.

### **The Ideal Worker Norm of Gender Inequality**

Understanding how gender inequality is (re)produced on the ground requires looking at the mechanisms at play, rather than just the abstract statements offered by theories. The separate spheres concept and the ideal worker standard it proposes are significant mechanisms via which gender inequality is embedded in and perpetuated in the workplace. The standard of

the perfect worker is a person who gives their undivided attention to their job throughout the year (Williams J., 2001). The gender of the ideal worker is irrelevant. However, the time commitment and character attributes demanded from the ideal worker are at odds with women's traditional gender position as caregivers. Since this is the case, women are less likely to be seen as the perfect candidate for numerous employment roles.

### **The Ideal Worker's Time.**

The amount of time spent at work (whether physically or virtually) has long been seen as a representation of a manager's or professional worker's level of productivity and dedication. The importance of having "face time" with one another grows as the demand for longer working hours rises across all levels of a company and as knowledge work becomes more prevalent in the workforce. It is more common for women, and particularly mothers, to be regarded as not being devoted enough to their jobs, which has repercussions for them in terms of hiring, promotions, and income (Rivera & Tilsik, 2016). It is more difficult for women to pass themselves off as "perfect employees" as a result of the tactics managers use to restrict the amount of time people spend physically and online at work. As a consequence of this, many qualified women are either forced out of their work or opt to seek for positions with lower income and less prestige because they believe they would be unable to balance the rising time demands of their careers with the responsibilities of their families. When low-paying occupations do not provide any employment options that are family-friendly, the time demands placed on both parents are increased, and the repercussions are more severe (Williams J., 2006).

### **The Ideal Worker's Traits.**

There is a correlation between the gender of the ideal worker and the kinds of personality qualities that are considered appropriate for effective leadership. Organizations inside the workplace are frequently seen to be a stage for "acting masculine" (Acker J., 1990). Individualists, aggressiveness, authoritativeness, competitiveness, power, and rationality are some of the stereotypically male characteristics that are used to define the perfect worker and great leader. The judgment of women is influenced by these various conceptions of quality. Those that need "assertiveness" and "independence" are less likely to recruit

women, whereas positions that require "cooperation" and "friendliness" are more likely to hire women (Gorman, 2005). After being employed, a woman's gender becomes immediately noticeable, and she is thereafter evaluated less favorably. For instance, regardless of their level, clients frequently consider female financial analysts to be less experienced than their male counterparts. According to Doering and Thébaud, female case managers in the field of microfinance had a lower compliance rate with clients than their male counterparts (Doering & Thebaud, 2017). When women take on characteristics that are traditionally associated with men, they are subject to criticism and a reduction in worth on the grounds that they are not sufficiently feminine.

### **Masculinities and Sexual Harassment**

If being successful in one's career is a sign of masculinity, then it is likely that the success of women will be seen as a challenge to that masculinity (Acker J., 1990). Males "performing masculinity" at work by exhibiting their authority to other men and using sexual harassment as a tactic for regulating "proper" gender conduct among non-conforming men and women are both examples of sexual harassment in the workplace (McLaughlin et al., 2012). There is an increased risk of sexual harassment for women who hold supervisory roles, as well as for women who work in industries that are dominated by males. Women's well-being, effectiveness at work, and ability to advance their careers are all negatively impacted when they are subjected to harassment. Responses taken in the workplace to address sexual harassment have not proven successful. The most typical kind of corporate reaction to sexual harassment is something called a grievance procedure (Dobbin, 2015). Even while they provide women the opportunity to air their grievances, these processes almost often result in personal solutions rather than a shift in the overall corporate culture regarding gender power dynamics. Women who speak out against sexual harassment are frequently marginalized, punished, and removed from their previous roles as a result of their actions.

### **The Ideal Worker's Class and Race**

Not only is the ideal worker male, but also they are white and belong to the middle class. A number of issues, including harsher patriarchal obstacles in their communities, housing

segregation that forces longer commutes, and discrimination in access to school, might make it significantly more challenging for minority women to close the gap between themselves and the ideal worker standard. When minority women join successful employment, compared to white women, they have fewer role models and possible sponsors in senior positions in companies; as a result, they frequently need to work more to battle prejudices and establish that they are competent (Bell & Nkomo, 2001). It's not always the case that intersections bring up additional problems. For instance, because of the intersection of class and gender, women from higher social classes are seen to have a lesser level of dedication to their careers than women from lower social classes (Rivera & Tilcsik, 2016). Minority, impoverished, and immigrant women are considered as perfect employees at the lowest end of the labor market, even more so than minority males, since employers feel that the whip of poverty and the need to care for children pushes them to accept whatever job, wage, and conditions they are offered.

### **Sex Segregation as a Relational Engine of Inequality**

Segregation is not only a product of gender bias but also a mechanism for perpetuating inequality. The worth of workplaces is directly proportional to the ratio of male to female employees. The gendered institutionalization of work affects how companies value and pay for certain positions. Discrimination and devaluation in the workplace have a devastating effect on women's earnings (Perfect, 2011). Segregation in the workplace is a major contributor to racial and socioeconomic inequalities. To begin, women are less likely to advance in their careers because of factors such as shorter career paths and fewer educational chances in the workplace. Two, informal resources like social networks are harmed by sex segregation. Women need informal mentoring, workplace visibility, and access to information about opportunities in order to advance in their professions. Women are more likely to network with other women in similarly disadvantaged situations since networks are often formed based on comparable demographics and occupation (McGuire, 2016).

### **Gendered Organizational Structures**

In addition to cultural and social causes, organizational people and work structures contribute to the maintenance of inequality.

## **Bureaucracy**

Hiring, promotion, and pay policies all have a bias against one gender or the other. According to bureaucracy theorists, doing away with bias in personnel choices is one of the main benefits of establishing a formalized bureaucracy. Human resource specialists and sociologists argued for more red tape to ensure equality for all employees. According to research by Reskin and McBrier (2000), the proportion of women in management positions rises when recruiters use job advertisements rather than informal channels like word of mouth (Reskin & McBrier, 2000). Some argue that formal procedures don't always lead to more gender parity in the workplace, and that's because managers can ignore the rules and do what they want instead. For example, they might discourage women from applying for promotions or retaliate against those who use formal grievance procedures (Edelman, 2016).

Feminist writers are harsher in their criticism of bureaucracy. They warn that formal legislation do not address the sexism that permeates many business practices and institutional frameworks. So, the use of an unnecessary physical exam to screen applicants for male-dominated jobs discourages women from applying, formal performance reviews that credit managers for work completed by secretaries justify gender differences in promotions, and formal layoff laws that cut jobs deemed expendable result in a higher percentage of women losing their jobs (Acker J., 2006).

## **The Organization of Work**

Gender inequality affects every area of work organizations, therefore labor process and work organization changes effect women and men differently. In recent decades, downsizing as a business strategy has increased, decreasing job stability and increasing substandard jobs. Because they work in the lowest-paid, least-tenured jobs, women are more likely to lose their jobs when companies shrink, outsource, and offshore (Kalev, 2014). Women, especially non-white and impoverished women, have longer jobless spells and are more likely to obtain low-paying, insecure jobs.

"New economy" knowledge organizations and virtual organizations like open source production are also changing work. Knowledge organizations promote meritocracy and diversity to foster creativity and great ideas. This discourse has not improved gender equality. High-tech and virtual groups repeat segregation, devaluation, and harassment,

according to limited research. Virtual open source has even lower women's participation rates than high tech, and when they do contribute, they're often assigned low-value chores like documentation and translation (Nafus, 2011).

## **1.2 Sticky floor**

### **1.2.1 Sticky floor is still present today**

It's been shown that even when women have more education and are more represented in the workforce, they still face discrimination. Scholars have used a wide variety of metaphors such "mommy track," "glass barriers," "labyrinth," and "tokens" to describe the unique difficulties faced by women (Carli & Eagly, 2016). The idea of a "glass ceiling" has been utilized extensively by scholars to symbolize women's slow career advancement in the workplace. Glass ceiling is a "popular metaphor used to depict the largely unseen obstacle that women encounter when they strive to reach the higher echelons of management," as stated by Ryan and Haslam (Ryan & Haslam, 2006). As a result, despite women's success in the workplace, they are often prevented from climbing the corporate ladder because of this obvious glass ceiling. The number of women in positions of power and authority as a result is low. In addition, most women with comparable credentials to men are concentrated in lower- and middle-level roles in traditionally feminine fields (Fernandez & Campero, 2017). This reveals an additional problem associated with women's promotion and raises, and thus presents an opening to introduce the novel concept of a "sticky floor."

Both "Glass Ceiling" and "Sticky Floor" examine the various barriers that women experience in their professional advancement, hence they could be considered synonymous. But they focus on different tiers of the company. Sticky floor emphasizes the challenges women in lower and middle-level jobs experience, as contrast to the more well-known glass ceiling, which refers to the barriers women face when trying to rise to the top levels of an organization (Fernandez & Campero, 2017). Research into the sticky floor phenomenon typically focuses on the gender pay gap and whether or not it is more pronounced at higher or lower levels of an organization. Therefore, a sticky floor can be inferred from the phenomenon of widening wage inequalities between men and women at the bottom. To the contrary, a glass ceiling phenomenon is reflected in the larger wage discrepancies at the very top of organizations (Tang & Scott, 2017).

Women's lack of success in climbing to the highest levels of business is a central tenet of the sticky floor theory. Sticky floor has been characterized in various ways by various studies, but generally refers to the phenomenon of women being kept for extended periods of time in low-paying, low-promotion roles near the bottom of an organization's hierarchy. While males of similar qualifications are being promoted, women are stuck in low-paying occupations with few possibilities for growth (Johnson & Long & Faught, 2014).

Women are overrepresented in certain industries and professions, lower pay rankings, and bottom to middle-level positions, and this has been attributed to a variety of social, cultural, and organizational factors. Research has shown that women may be more likely to give up their jobs or take on less hours of work by switching to part-time work because of the difficulties they confront in the workplace. Despite the potential drawbacks, these actions may be seen as a chance for women to start businesses in hitherto unexplored areas.

The term "glass ceiling" was first used in the American magazine *World/Adweek* on March 15, 1984: "When women have reached a certain degree it is called the glass ceiling. They're stuck in middle management." The "glass ceiling" refers to higher gender pay discrepancies at the top of the salary distribution. The word refers to workplace inequity that prevents women from advancing after a certain point.

When wage disparities widen at the bottom, this is known as a "sticky floor," the inverse of a "glass ceiling." Disparity in pay or promotion happens when two similarly qualified men or women are placed in different pay grades or ranks, although being otherwise equivalent. Numerous initiatives, Acts, rules, and laws have been made worldwide to address the problem when several organizations verified the "glass ceiling" and "sticky floor".

Sticky Floor is made up of the jobs that pay the least "categories of work that are primarily filled by women, such as those in the administrative and professional support fields. The absence of professional advancement prospects in sticky floor industries leaves women in these fields with little options for moving up to higher-paying roles. This is due to the fact that there are no career paths for those working in sticky floor industries. They are literally unable to advance their careers within the organization in any way that would be considered vertical.

Berheide came up with the metaphor of the sticky floor in 1992 in order to provide an alternative to the concept of the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling, which is experienced by a



minority of women towards the top of a professional hierarchy, is a reflection of the sticky floor, which is experienced by the majority of women working at the bottom of the same hierarchy. The term "sticky floor" refers to the initial obstacle that prevents workers from advancing in any capacity, whereas the term "glass ceiling" refers to the ultimate obstacle that prevents women from ascending to the most senior level of management positions. The majority of women, rather than focusing on ascending the corporate ladder, are more likely to be preoccupied with climbing out of entry-level jobs.

Most women enter organizations in sections of the organization's chart known as jobs that do not have career paths leading to positions at higher levels of the organization. To extend the analogy with buildings, it's improbable that any of the women working in these positions will rise past the ground floor. Therefore, the sticky floor metaphor differentiates between the challenges of vertical mobility that are experienced by workers who are closer to the bottom of an organization and those that are faced by workers who are closer to the top of the organization. In each scenario, the employee will remain at her current level, but the circumstances could not be more different (Berheide, 2013).

Many people wonder if women and girls are held back by a "sticky floor" when it comes to entry-level positions. The good news is that the floor is significantly less sticky than it formerly was for billions of people all across the world. Since 1990, maternal death rates have dropped dramatically, and more countries are providing primary school education to both boys and girls.

But if they get their feet off the floor, many women will find themselves confronting a glass ceiling. Instead of impenetrable barriers, glass ceilings exist. Although the word was initially used to discuss women's opportunities for promotion in the workplace, other invisible obstacles are a factor in many other areas of life as well. And this is an area where progress is being made far more slowly. Although in many nations, men and women have the same voting rights, women make up less than a quarter of lawmakers. Currently, only one in every ten world leaders is a woman (Conceicao, 2020).

However, this is by no means an exhaustive account of what happened. In reality, many women encounter multiple panes of glass in their daily lives, from the family to the workplace to the classroom and beyond, all of which operate as barriers to their success.

When people try to bust through a ceiling, they almost always run into an even higher one that proves to be just as difficult to scale.

In the year 2023, why is this still occurring? Part of the solution can be found in the stereotypes and assumptions that men and women have about each other. Until individuals accept the reality of gender inequity, efforts to change it will fail. The UNDP's gender social norms index, which is based on the World Values Survey and polls 81% of the global population, demonstrates unequivocally that the vast majority of people in almost every country, male and female alike, do not believe that women and men should enjoy equal opportunities in crucial areas like politics and the workplace. Fifty percent of men and women polled in 75 different nations agreed that men make better political leaders than women. Four-in-ten or more people thought that men were more qualified to be company executives. It appears that in certain countries, these attitudes are hardening over time.

This bias largely serves to empower women. The larger the body of evidence, the more obvious it becomes that the larger the body of power, the bigger the bias. Women put in more hours at the office than men do, but they are paid far less. Women perform three times as much caring work as men do without compensation. Women get paid less than men do and are less likely to hold positions of authority.

There are some sectors where development is slowing down just as it has to speed up to meet global goals on gender by 2030. Huge strides have been made in many areas of gender equality in recent years, demonstrating what may be accomplished.

### **Sticky Floor Syndrome**

Recently, the term "Sticky Floor Syndrome" has been coined to describe the ways in which professional women hinder their own success. Whether it's a reluctance to fail or a lack of confidence, we often fail to push over the current ceiling and into the next level of accomplishment.

Women are socialized to conform to certain norms and behaviors, such as apologizing when they are wrong, keeping their opinions to themselves, doubting their worth, and waiting to pursue new possibilities until they are established as an authority in the field. The

predicament of hundreds of thousands of women stuck in low-wage, low-mobility positions due to a "sticky floor," the inability to advance beyond an entry-level post, etc.

There is, however, one thing that female businesswomen do that helps sustain the sticky floor syndrome, and they might not even realize it's a bad thing. Only making plans they hope to succeed. Wendy Capland, CEO of Vision Quest Consulting and author of the best-seller *Your Next Bold Move for Women*, advises her readers not to let the lack of knowledge on how to achieve their goals prevent them from doing so. No one ever achieves greatness without first challenging oneself. Instead of imagining accomplishing an impossible task, most of the time women create career goals that are well within their reach. But as Capland found out, if women dream large and put that desire out into the universe, possibilities often develop that will lead them to greatness (DiGeronimo, n.d.)

When a goal that is challenging but not impossible to achieve is set, people's brain goes into "innovation mode," and you come up with novel methods of conceiving of and approaching the problem.

The less sticky floor syndrome a woman experiences, the more defined her final aim is. The first step toward solving a problem is recognizing that there is one. Recognize the obstacles to her success and make an effort to remove them.

### **What has been done to combat the issue**

In spite of the fact that we have the best of intentions, there are a variety of variables, the majority of which are cultural, that consistently work to undermine gender equality. If organizations do not also address resistance to change, ingrained organizational and cultural ideas, unconscious prejudice, societal conventions, and sometimes just plain ignorance, initiatives will not be successful. Since the 1970s, there has been a significant increase in both societal and governmental support to aid in the progression of women's rights. Despite the fact that there has been progress made in many domains, there has not been an increase in the number of women achieving the top positions in the profession, nor have women been able to overcome their occupational segregation.

The rate of advancement toward the goal of improving the job situation of women in industry has been slow so far. Every day women who work full-time jobs earn, on average,

less per dollar than males do now compared to what they were earning ten years ago, and that in Australia, women make up only one out of every five board members. When it comes to positions in the executive suite, women presence is unquestionably in the minority, claiming that they were promoted because of quotas rather than because of their talent.

There is an abundance of efforts being taken and options being presented in order to combat the issue. Australia's Sex Discrimination Act of 1984 sought to end discrimination based on a person's sexual orientation in the workplace and to prevent discrimination based on a person's family status in the workplace. Countless investigations and projects, such as the Gonski Report, have been commissioned to investigate the problem, identify its obstacles, and provide potential solutions.

### **Women do business organization**

Women Do Business is a non-profit organization that encourages female entrepreneurship and the elimination of stereotypes in Crete via different acts. It began in May 2019 in Heraklion, Crete, by holding a conference to promote female entrepreneurship, and has since expanded into Crete's first business incubator. Its mission is to promote female entrepreneurship by inspiring, motivating, and supporting women who aspire to turn their company ideas into reality. To alter restrictive views and preconceptions about women via the advancement of women in business.

A world of women who are unafraid to step out, speak up, and attempt, despite restricting attitudes and beliefs, and who are confident in their ability to achieve their ambitions.

## 1.2.2 Gender Wage Gap

### Human capital, gender and earnings

It is a well-established fact that men typically receive larger incomes than women do on average, regardless of the western country in question or the method of measuring earnings, hourly, monthly, or yearly. What this means is that previous studies have found a positive and statistically significant coefficient when the variable gender was included to the Mincer regression model. In both labor economics and sociology, attempts to explain this disparity between the sexes have been a popular area of study. Women have lower levels of human capital than males is an a priori explanation for the wage discrepancy between the sexes. There is also little to no difference between the sexes in terms of educational performance in many Western countries. However, women take longer than men to amass marketable work experience than men do because of maternity leave, marriage, and a traditional division of labor within the family, which also explains women's larger inclination for working part-time. The wage discrepancy between men and women can be explained in part by the fact that men and women have different levels of job experience (Thrane, 2008).

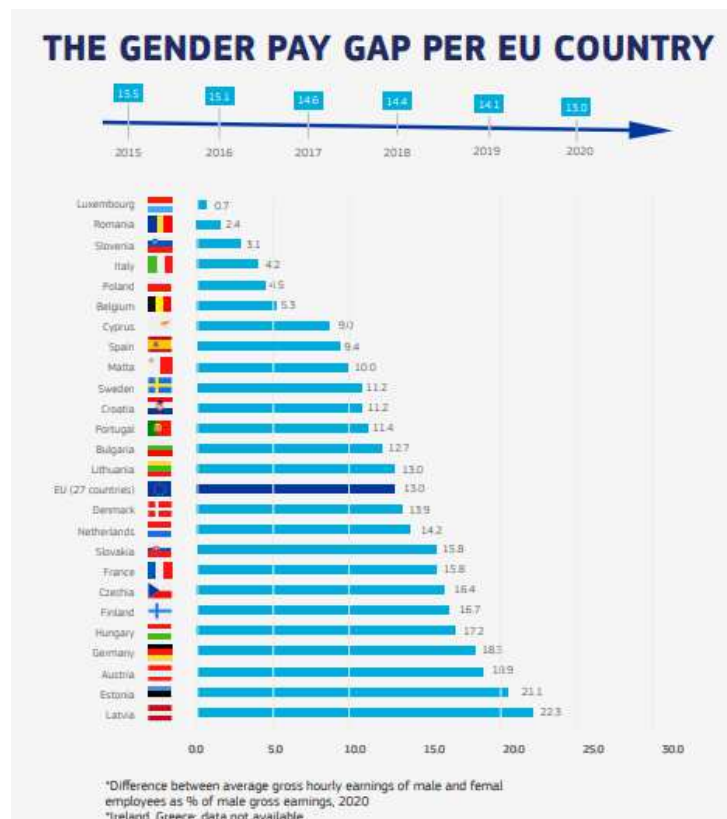


Figure 1: The gender pay gap per EU country

According to the graph above, the majority of European nations have a significant wage disparity. Austria, Estonia, and Latvia have the greatest pay disparity, whilst Luxembourg, Romania, and Slovenia have the least. Germany, Finland, and Denmark have a reputation for being more egalitarian than other nations, notwithstanding their significant income disparity.

### **Parenthood and marital status and earnings**

Some recent studies have also studied how various socioeconomic factors affect financial success. There has been a lot of research on the ways in which having children and being married might affect people's earnings. There appears to be a gender gap in how these two socioeconomic factors influence income. Women's wages appear to be inversely correlated with the presence (or number) of children in the household, controlling for other factors which is described as "motherhood penalty". Numerous research have corroborated the so-called marriage premium, or the hypothesis that married persons have a higher median income than their single counterparts. However, the validity of a causal explanation of this link is still up for debate. It's also hard to tell if this impact applies for women because much of the study on this topic has focused on men (Thrane, 2008).

### **Human capital theory**

Human capital theory is most commonly used to measure gender wage disparity. Human capital theory links salaries to productivity. In a non-discriminatory society, male-female income differentials should reflect productivity disparities. Gender wage discrimination occurs when similarly productive workers are compensated differently. Discrimination explains male-female salary disparities beyond productivity.

The observed mean pay gap is often separated into two parts: the portion attributable to variations in attributes and the part owing to returns to these characteristics to quantify gender wage discrimination. Most gender wage studies examine average pay. Thus, the literature assesses discrimination at the mean of the observed pay distribution.

A scalar statistic can estimate the population's pay discrimination, thus it's worth doing. A scalar statistic may not be suitable for comparing two or more populations since two pay

distributions may have the same value although discrimination may be substantially different. Income inequality studies frequently raise this issue. The Gini coefficient is a generic measure of income disparity, however two income distributions with the same Gini coefficient may have quite different income distributions. It is generally known that two income distributions with the same Gini coefficient may have crossing Lorenz curves suggesting different income distributions (Gardeazabal & Ugidos, 2005).

Governments promote gender equality. These policies can be divided into those that increase female labor force participation and those that increase female presence in certain occupations. These regulations may reduce gender pay discrimination, albeit not explicitly. If policies cause more women to work in low-paying jobs, they may have distinct effects at various wage quantiles. To evaluate the indirect effect of such regulations, gender pay discrimination must be measured at different quantiles. The observed wage gap at the mean is separated into two parts: the portion owing to differences in attributes and the part due to variations in returns to these traits to quantify gender wage discrimination. The pay gap at each quantile is the sum of two parts: disparities in attributes and variations in returns to those traits. Quantile regression estimates returns to attributes at different wage quantiles. Relative gender wage discrimination peaks at the bottom of the distribution (Gardeazabal & Ugidos, 2005).

Gender wage inequity is a "changing objective" making it difficult to develop and execute solutions. The evolving landscape of gender pay disparities across countries is illustrated by a 2015 issue of the Cambridge Journal of Economics and a 2019 collection in Gender, Work, and Organization. These examples highlight the impact of shifting actors, power relations, patterns of segmentation, and organizational practice, as well as the complex interplay between these factors. These and other processes demonstrate the necessity for different methods and resistance to make progress (Whitehouse & Smith, 2020).

Marxian labor power values affect average pay. Karl Marx's theory of wages clearly emphasizes culture, such as reproductive patterns, and the balance of power between labor and capital, dependent on unemployment and institutions, as determinants of labor power worth. Social habits and conflict affect the value of work force.

Marxian capitalist rivalry is used to specify occupational pay determination. The occupational wage structure depends on the relative worth of labor force in different

vocations, but it is "distorted" by inter- and intra-industry capitalist rivalry, which sets an upper bound for the average rate each industry/firm is ready to offer. Since it overlooks gender relations, Marxian pay determination fails to account for all factors impacting industrial and occupational wage structures. Since women dominate jobs and industries, their average wages are lower.

Gender affects wage determination, even if economic theory has not traditionally included it. Before Gary S. Becker published his theory of discrimination in 1957, the neoclassical school of political economics had largely neglected the gender relation in the family wage that had been incorporated in the classical school's analysis. There have been new methods to explain the gender wage gap since the late 1950s, thanks to the economics of discrimination, which includes neoclassical, institutionalist, and radical offshoots. The neoclassical explanation for the gender pay gap is found in human capital theory and centers on the fact that men and women have different levels of endowments that contribute to productivity and face different levels of discrimination in the workplace. Neoclassical economics describe discrimination as uneven labor market compensation of productivity-related personal traits, not differential acquisition of human capital by men and women. Wage discrimination can cause unequal remuneration for comparably competent people.

Human capital theory and productivity-related personal traits cannot fully explain the gender pay discrepancy. Unobservable productivity-related variables restrict data. Gender segregation of work is the major cause of male-female pay differentials, as empirical research has shown. All schools of theory support this point analytically. The "crowding hypothesis" in neoclassical economics and structural theories of discrimination in institutional and radical economics promoted it.

According to Barbara Bergmann's hypothesis, occupational segregation may maintain racial and gender pay gap by isolating blacks and women into a small number of occupations, resulting in uneven remuneration for the same labor inside the same organization (Bergmann, 1974). Employment segregation based on race and gender, however, has been linked by the authors of the "dual labor market hypothesis" and labor market division theory to the separation of the labor market into various sectors/segments and capitalist exploitation. Gender wage differentials result from the concentration of males in "main" and women in "secondary" labor market sectors/segments, whose structural aspects impact employer and employee negotiating strength. Dual/segmented labor market theories have



not adequately explained how patriarchy and capitalism cause gender-segregated employment.

Feminist literature has focused mostly on occupational gender segregation. Gendered socialization, home division of work, and welfare-state policies based on the breadwinner model of the family economy have been linked to occupational segregation. Gender inequalities in human capital investment, career choices, skills, and low-paid, low-status labor result from the following variables. As women are concentrated in lower-skilled occupations, occupational segregation underutilizes their skills and undervalues their labor by not recognizing or undervaluing their skills.

Not only gender variations in productivity-related endowments, discrimination, and segregation cause the wage gap. Wage-setting institutions depend on gender relations. Over the past 15 years, research has shown that compensation structure may explain worldwide gender pay gap discrepancies. The extent and ranking of compensation differentials by industry, occupation, and type of organization, work grading, and payment methods may affect the gender pay gap.

Marxian and feminist ideas inform wage determination analysis. Macroeconomic and microeconomic elements that influence the wage structure and people's individual incomes are factored into a novel set of two equations. Industry jobs are represented by the first equation, while individual earnings are represented by the second. Deviations vary on worker attributes, job, employer, and negotiating strength.

Three analytical layers generate the equations. Industry wage determination factors are identified at the first level. The second level identifies industry-specific occupational pay determinants. The third level of study on individual wage determination analyzes factors affecting occupational pay variances within industries.

Using Marx's study of intra- and inter-industry rivalry in *Capital* and other Marxist theorists, we examine how industries set wages. Marx's value theory of labor power is used to explain individual salaries as departures of individual values of labor power from professional statistics in industries to account for within-industry pay differentials between employees of various skill and education levels.

Gender relations impact wage-setting and both equations in the analytical framework. Average occupational earnings in various industries rely on the gender makeup of jobs,

whereas the gender pay gap study requires separate equations for individual incomes by gender.

We discovered that the primary distinctions between the two techniques lie in the respective contributions to the explained portion of the wage disparity of gender gap in accumulated job experience on the one hand and segregation of employment by gender on the other; in the size of "employer-induced" gender wage discrimination; and in the size of "career" gender wage discrimination.

Using Karamessini and Ioakimoglou research, gender segregation of employment by vocation and industry is the biggest factor explaining the gender pay gap, followed by acquired work experience. The traditional technique uses work experience to explain the discrepancy, whereas occupational and industry segregation only contributes a little amount. Their calculation for individual earnings uses salary averages for occupations in industries, but the traditional technique uses dummies for occupations and industries, which may explain these different results. However, conceptual and analytical distinctions of the gender pay gap segregation effect cause specification disparities. Their decomposition estimates decrease "employer-induced" gender pay discrimination but not overall discrimination. In their view, gender pay discrimination is a combination of macro-institutional/cultural (social undervaluation of women's labour) and micro-bargaining factors (individual employer-induced wage discrimination). This explains why the two techniques provide different lower bound pay discrimination outcomes.

At the analytical level, salary determination framework and decomposition method offer two primary benefits over the gender wage gap approach. First, rather than the neoclassical assumption of independent valuation and pricing of individual productivity-related characteristics, employers and employees bargain salaries using the socially determined average wage for the worker's profession in the company and the average qualification and skill requirements for that occupation in that industry. Second, it advocates for feminism in wage discrimination. The neoclassical theory of discrimination is associated with employer processes in personal wage negotiations; however, the feminist approach they have taken considers discrimination to be embedded in collective wage-setting processes as well as all institutions and cultural/societal norms that contribute to gender segregation in employment and the low wage ranking of female-dominated occupations and industries. Current activities reproduce and transform institutions and norms.

Karamessini and Ioakimoglou's gender pay gap decomposition approach suggests that gender desegregation and reconciliation measures should encourage women to work continuously. Policymakers advocating gender equality in paid labor and equal opportunity must now address the undervaluation of women's work. For higher-than-average salary gains in female-dominated occupations and sectors, social partners must be more sensitive to equal pay challenges (Karamessini & Ioakimoglou, 2007).

### **Gender Discrimination in the Tourism Industry**

The 1960s collapse of the primary sector decreased female involvement and raised their unemployment rates, whereas the 1990s development of the tertiary sector increased it. Women and their families gain economic, social, and health benefits from employment. Some jobs are exploitative, underpaid, and promote conventional women's tasks, but most provide women a chance to improve their life (Obadic, 2016).

Economic growth depends on women's labor market involvement. Diversification has made tourism one of the fastest-growing industries. It is a significant "employer" for vulnerable populations like women and youth. It offers more home-based self-employment for women than other areas. Hotel and restaurant employers are more likely to hire women in tourism. Tourism ministers are mostly female.

However, women are underrepresented. They are still underpaid and undertrained in services. Gender discrimination is a major issue in several nations due to these inequalities. Sustainable growth, employment competitiveness, and social cohesion require gender equality. Tourism workers still face low-status jobs, gender stereotyping, discrimination, and other issues. In wealthy nations 55% of tourism workers worldwide are women.

World tourism is expanding. Tourism now outsells gasoline, food, and cars. In many nations, labor-intensive tourism has grown rapidly. It improves a country's image, produces jobs, and adds value. Tourism is severely fragmented, offers direct and indirect jobs in practically all national economic areas. Tourism in industrialized nations has boosted building, agriculture, and telecommunications. The World Travel and Tourism Council predicts 70 million additional tourism employment in the next decade, roughly 70% of which will be in Asia.

Tourism is a hospitality business that must accommodate visitor demand, hence it has a high female workforce. In hotels, women do housework, decorating, and washing. That applies to providing food and drinks, working in the kitchen, front desk, administration, and travel agencies, too. Women are superior in these typically female vocations. Many studies show that gender affects tourist employment. Hotel waiters and chefs are primarily women. Tourist guides, taxi drivers, and ship drivers are generally males.

Hotels, catering, and tourism is a big and fast-growing service sector with 55,5% global female involvement and up to 70% regionally. Women can engage in small-sale and informal tourist development, especially home-based enterprises like bed and breakfasts, without compromising their domestic obligations. Tourism might also open doors for inactive women. Employment and self-employment options are possible (Obadic, 2016).

Unfortunately, women are still excluded from tourism labor market hierarchies. International hospitality managers and supervisors are fewer than 40% female. Fewer than 20% of general managers are women. Women control fewer than 20% of hospitality firms and 10% of hotels globally, while 5%–8% of corporate board members of publicly traded hospitality companies are women. Unskilled or semi-skilled women are more likely to labor in vulnerable employment with poor working conditions, inequality, exploitation, violence, stress, and sexual harassment. Women remain underrepresented in senior positions and general management, and the industry lags behind other industries in leadership roles. Attitudes are shifting. Many global corporations and industries have strategies and goals to promote women in leadership roles. However, the hotel and tourist business has not yet promoted enough women to top roles. Despite women holding most tourism degrees, Men dominate top management and decision-making (Obadic, 2016).

Most studies show that tourism employment benefits women. Tourism presents risks and obstacles to women in various tourism sub-industries (accommodation and food, air transport, travel agencies and tour operators, etc.). In developing nations like the Bahamas and Jamaica, women labor in low-paying secretarial and cleaning professions while males are hotel and restaurant managers, machine operators, and gardeners. Women seldom associate with senior male managers and consequently don't benefit from their mentorship. Women are more likely to lead smaller hotels than five-star resorts. Given the need to work shifts and long hours, the greatest obstacle to women's advancement to senior management in hotels and restaurants was family obligations.

Women dominate sales, ticketing, and flight attendant roles, whereas males dominate airline CEOs, managers, and pilots.

Only 5% of the 80.000 pilots globally are women. Tour guiding has been difficult for women in many nations. Tour guiding is popular in poor nations because foreign travelers tip well. Women are more likely than males to work at clerical levels in H&R and less likely to achieve professional levels. Only 36.8% of H&R professionals worldwide were women.

Greek women's labor market involvement is strongly influenced by marital status. Married women participate more than single, divorced, or widowed women. Singles are supported by their family in Greek culture, hence they have less incentive to work. An equal, married person earn more than unmarried people.

According to Portuguese tourist labor market data, women in small and mid-size enterprises, laborer occupations, longer tenure, and intermediate education are the biggest contributors to the tourism wage gap. The discrepancy is 45% owing to gender inequalities in tourist employees. Education and experience affect tourist workers' yearly salaries. Female tourist workers benefit more from educational investments than males.

### **1.2.3 Wage dualism generally**

Science and society have focused on the workforce's insider-outsider split. During labor market liberalization and flexibilization, the gap between workers with permanent contracts and those with temporary contracts for a specified period/task became of significant importance (Hipp & Bernhardt & Allmendinger, 2015).

As a socioeconomic effect, several research examine temporary and permanent worker salary differentials. Most studies focus on prosperous Western democracies like Australia, the US, or Europe. Few larger comparison research on temporary work compensation gaps exist. This contrasts with the extensive research on institutional and structural characteristics as predictors of temporary work and as modifiers of the link between temporary employment and non-monetary outcomes.

Dualization is projected to affect the temporary employment pay gap. According to dualization literature, permanent contract protection strengthens insiders and labor market segmentation (Arranz, 2021). By raising labor turnover costs, strict protection of permanent workers decreases their replicability with temporary workers. Because replacing permanent

staff is more expensive and harder, this should boost their salary negotiation strength. It also encourages permanent workers and employers to develop firm-specific skills.

Temporary contract regulation crucial, notably for permanent worker protection. Temporary workers are caught in cycles of temporary contracts and can be fired more readily when temporary contracts are deregulated, weakening their wage negotiation power and training opportunities. However, if permanent employees have a strong position because of stringent EPL for permanent contracts, partial deregulation of temporary contracts should only worsen their relative disadvantages compared to permanent workers (Barbieri & Cutuli, 2016).

Labor market dualization may also be defined by temporary employment size. It is a structural element of institutional dualization in the labor market. Institutional dualization affects wages through mediation and theoretical considerations. Temporary workers buffer labor market fragmentation, according to one theory. Hiring and firing from the big temporary worker pool may readily change labor. Employers, with insider support from permanent employees, have incentives to establish such a buffer stock. Temporary employees shield permanent workers, giving them more negotiating leverage in pay talks and training chances (Fervers & Schwander, 2015). In addition to buffer stocks, temporary workers can be used for leave replacement or time-limited project activities, which strengthens permanent workers' position.

If there are numerous temporary workers, Bellani and Bosio suggest that there is downward wage rivalry between labor market groups, placing wage pressure on permanent employees (Bellani & Bosio, 2021). Only if temporary and permanent workers are substitutes.

The dual labor market idea was first presented by a team of economists in the 1960s. The human capital theory, which holds that marginal productivity always exists in labor markets, is criticized by proponents of the dual labor market theory, which argues that marginal productivity is not always genuine. The main labor market includes activities in capital-intensive businesses, whereas the secondary labor market includes activities in labor-intensive and competitive sectors. The stability seen in the primary labor market is not replicated in the secondary one, and strong unionization is a feature of the former (Topbaş & Kurt & Kalayci, 2015).

Investing in human capital, or self-investment, offers a favorable externality for labor force participation. Human capital investments will undermine this dual structure. According to the Human Capital Theory, health facilities and services, work shadowing, formal education, non-formal education programs not governed by corporations, and migrations to increase employment prospects are the primary variables in human capital growth.

In the absence of human capital investment, the labor market is split between a primary area with secure and well-paid good employment and a secondary region with unstable and low-paying poor jobs. These job kinds reflect two extremities of workplace quality, impenetrable borders between primary and secondary labor markets, and socio-economic dynamics. Cullison indicated a parallel labor market structure (Cullison, 1979). He found groups subject to sociological and pay inequalities and that the majority believe that young white women and non-white women constitute the secondary labor force due to this dual structure. Wage often determines dual labor arrangement. Unionization eliminates wage gaps between primary and secondary occupations and protects employees against low-paid, unskilled labor policies in secondary jobs. Gregg Lewis wrote the classic empirical effect of unions book, and Gary Becker conducted the first opening research (Wachter, 1974). Education impacts labor market dualism. This technique imparts literacy, cognitive, learning, and profession-specific skills to individuals. Literature shows that educated people are more likely to get high-paying jobs than ignorant people.

## **2. Research**

### **2.1 Methodology**

#### **Purpose of the research**

The purpose of this research is to investigate the employees' point of view about their work and how gender discrimination affects their working conditions.

#### **General Objective**

The recording of the opinions of working people who are over 21 years old and the search for how gender discrimination affects their personal and work development.

#### **Specific Objectives**

- ✓ Analyze if there are colleagues that receive more salary because of the gender.
- ✓ Examine how many women work in higher positions
- ✓ Study the impact of the company's object on the gender discrimination
- ✓ Evaluate how many employees are in the company

#### **Population**

The population selected to fill out a questionnaire to conduct the results of the research are people over 21 years of age who work mostly from Crete.

A population unit is a working person over 21 years of age.

Sampling unit is a person over 21 years of age.

The survey was conducted between 01/12/2022-15/02/2023.

#### **Research methodology**

This research is quantitative because its purpose is to examine how gender discrimination affects employees in their workplace. The quantitative research will be conducted using a questionnaire with structured and closed type questions which are intended to collect the opinions of the employees. The answers to the questions are based on a YES/NO answers and fill answers (DocsGoogle, 2022-2023)



### **Sampling method**

Sampling is convenience.

Only people over 21 years of age who work in any industry and are mostly residents of Crete were selected to complete them.

### **Method of gathering primary data**

The collection of primary data was done by polling, and more specifically by sending questionnaires in google forms, via email.

### **Questionnaire design**

The questionnaire was created based on the specific objectives of the research, i.e. the search for how gender discrimination that influence employees in their workplace.

### **Preliminary phase**

In the preliminary phase, the information to be obtained from the survey was analyzed.

The information concerns:

- The salary differences between employees
- The number of women that work in the companies in higher positions
- The industries that have higher discrimination levels.

### **Content of questions**

The questions were created based on the stated objectives and are tailored to them. The people who are suitable to answer the questionnaire below are those who work in any business.

### **Question phrasing**

The questions were designed in such a way that there is no room for misinterpretation on the part of the respondent or leading him to a specific answer.

### **Response sequence**

The questions start with some personal information of the responders, then with the base of their company, if there are other colleagues who receive different salary and why, then how many women work in higher positions and then some questions of the firm they work.

### Natural characteristics

The questionnaire is simple, with clear answers so that it can be easily understood by the people who will answer it.

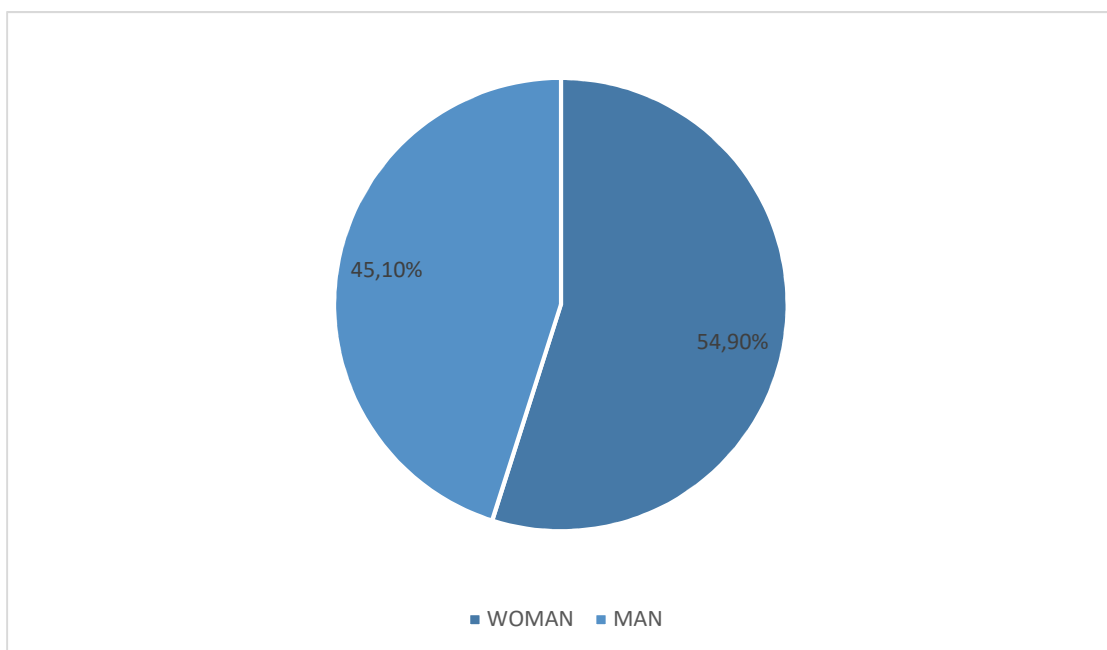
The letters are legible and there are spaces between the questions to make them distinct.

## 2.2 Results

Question No1: 54.9% of the people who were asked on this survey are women and the rest 45.1% are men.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Women	56	54.4%	54.9%	54.9%
	Men	46	44.7%	45.1%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1			
<b>Total</b>		103			

*Table 1: Gender of the responders*

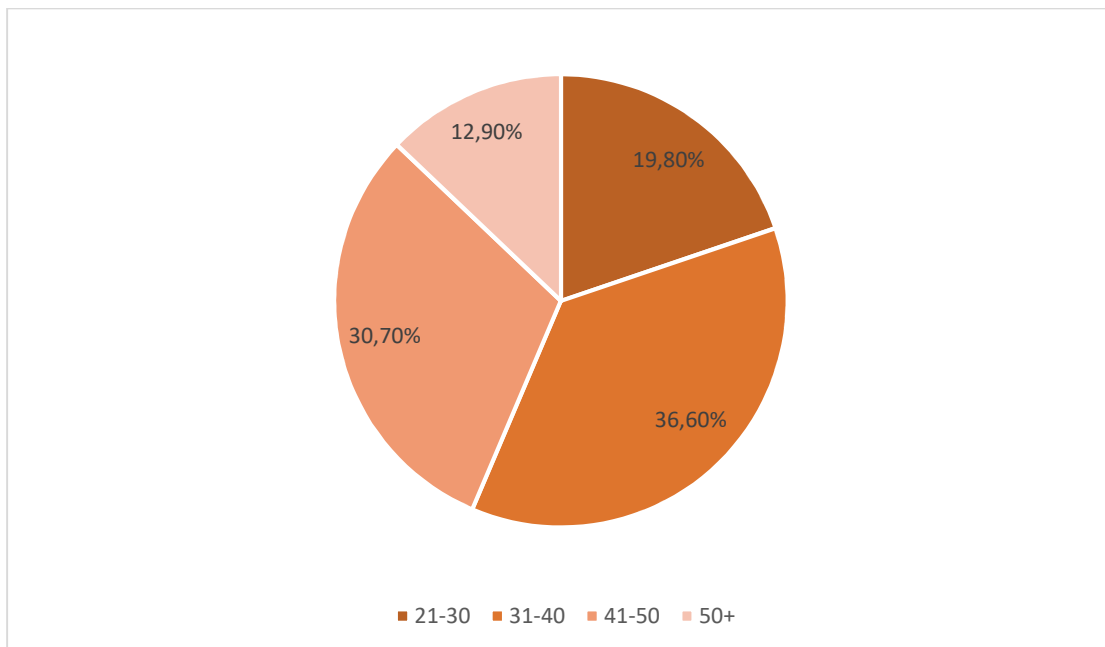


*Figure 2: Gender of responders*

Question No2: 19.8% are people 21-30 years old, 36.6% are people aged 31-40, 30.7% are people from 41 to 50 years old and 12,9% are people over 50 years old.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	21-30	20	19.4%	19.8%	19.8%
	31-40	37	35.9%	36.6%	56.4%
	41-50	31	30.1%	30.7%	87.1%
	50+	13	12.6%	12.9%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		2	1.9%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 2: Age of the responders*

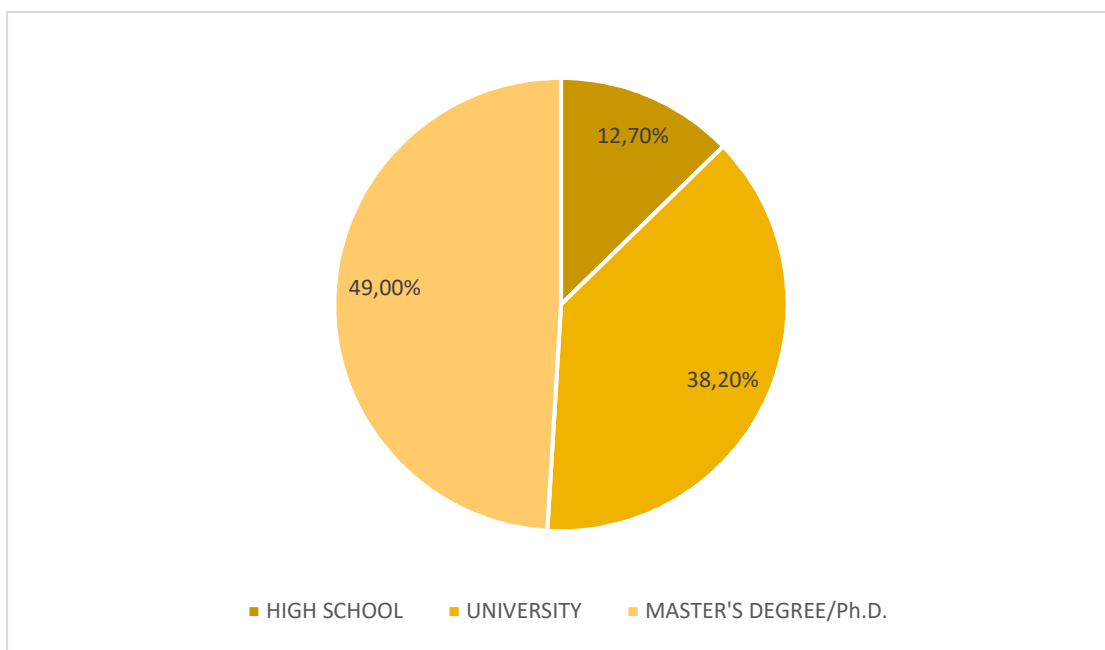


*Figure 3: Age of the responders*

Question No3: 12.7% of the people who participated in the survey have only graduated high school, 38.2% have bachelor's degree and 49% have a master's degree or Ph.D.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	High School	13	12.6%	12.7%	12.7%
	Bachelor's Degree	39	37.9%	38.2%	51.0%
	Master's Degree/PhD	50	48.5%	49.0%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 3: Educational level of the responders*

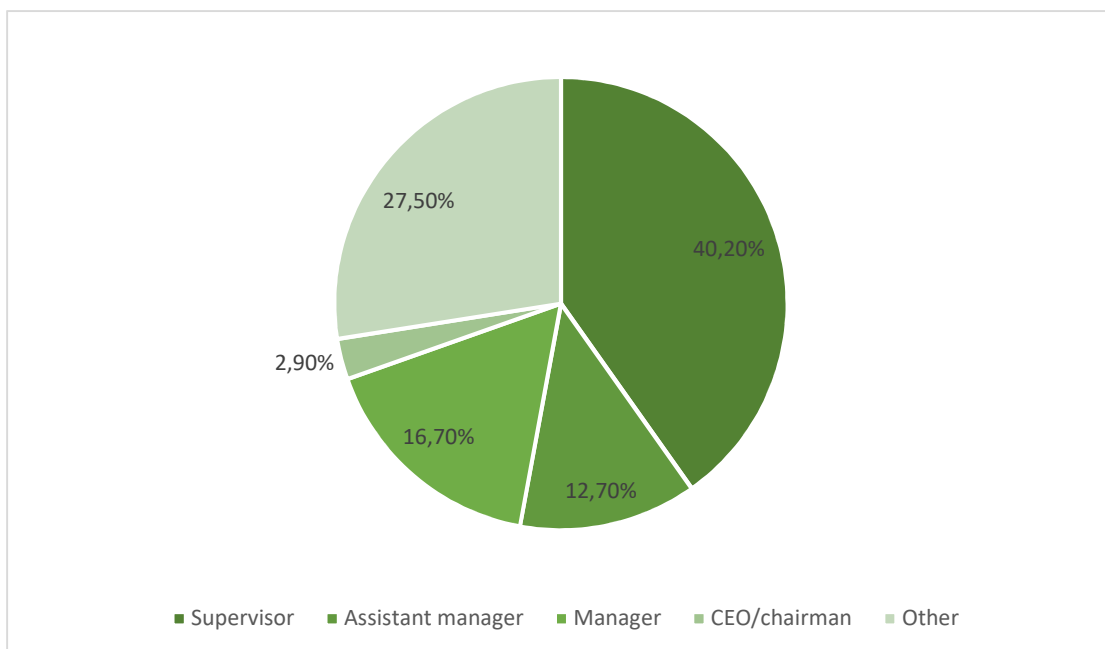


*Figure 4: Educational level of the responders*

Question No4: 40.2% of the people who participated in the survey are supervisors, 12.7% are assistant managers, 16.7% are managers, 2.9% are CEOs or chairman and 27.5% are something else.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Supervisors	41	39.8%	40.2%	40.2%
	Assistant Manager	13	12.6%	12.7%	52.9%
	Manager	17	16.5%	16.7%	69.6%
	CEO/Chairman	3	2.9%	2.9%	72.5%
	Other	28	27.2%	27.5%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 4: Position of the responders*



*Figure 5: Position of the responders*

Question No5: 26.5% of the interviewees say their company is based in Heraklion, 31.5% in Attica, 1% in Ioannina, 1% in Larisa, 3.9% in Thessaloniki, 1% in Pella, 3.9% in Rethimno, 1% in Evros, 1% Korinthia, 1% in Fthiotida, 1% in Xanthi, 1% Ahaia, 2% in Kefalonia, 19.6% in Hania, 3.9% in Lasithi and 1% in Halkida.

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
<b>Valid</b>	Heraklion	27	26.2%	26.6%	26.5%
	Attica	32	31.1%	31.4%	57.8%
	Ioannina	1	1.0%	1.0%	58.8%
	Larisa	1	1.0%	1.0%	59.8%
	Thessaloniki	4	3.9%	3.9%	63.7%
	Pella	1	1.0%	1.0%	64.7%
	Rethimno	4	3.9%	3.9%	68.6%
	Evros	1	1.0%	1.0%	69.6%
	Korinthia	1	1.0%	1.0%	70.6%
	Fthiotida	1	1.0%	1.0%	71.6%
	Xanthi	1	1.0%	1.0%	72.5%
	Ahaia	1	1.0%	1.0%	73.5%
	Kefalonia	2	1.9%	2.0%	75.5%
	Hania	20	19.4%	19.6%	95.1%
	Lasithi	4	3.9%	3.9%	99.0%
	Halkida	1	1.0%	1.0%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 5: Company's base where responders work*

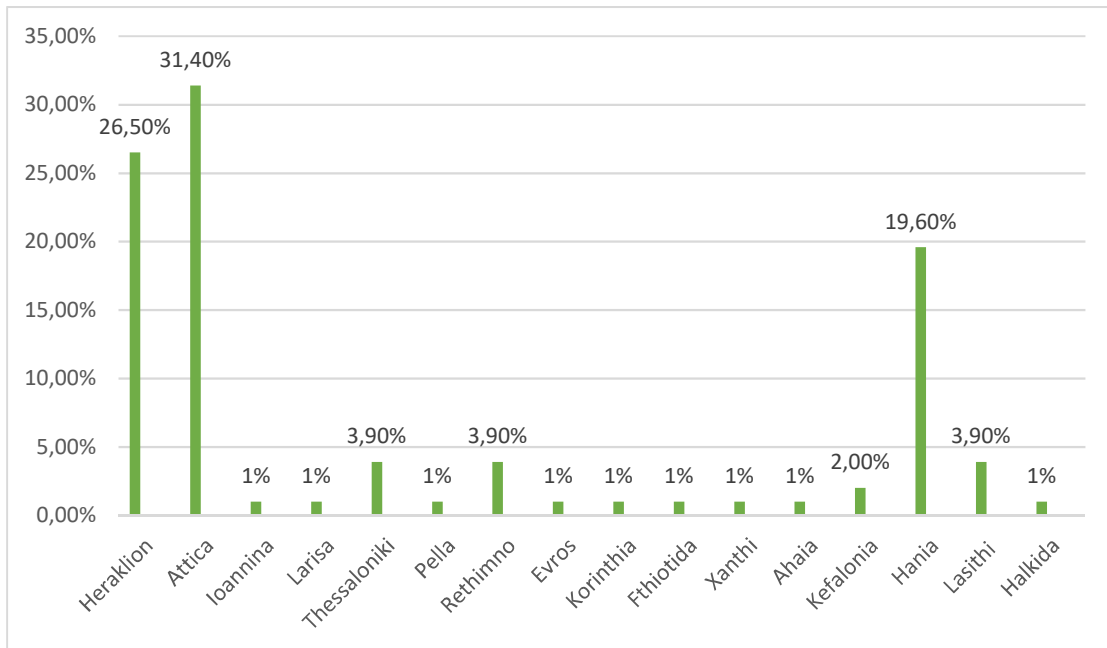


Figure 6: Company’s base where responders work

Question No6: 58.8% answered that there is a colleague in the same company at the same level as them but of a different gender who receives more or less remuneration than them.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Yes	60	58.3%	58.8%	58.8.2%
	No	42	40.8%	41.2%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

Table 6: Income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

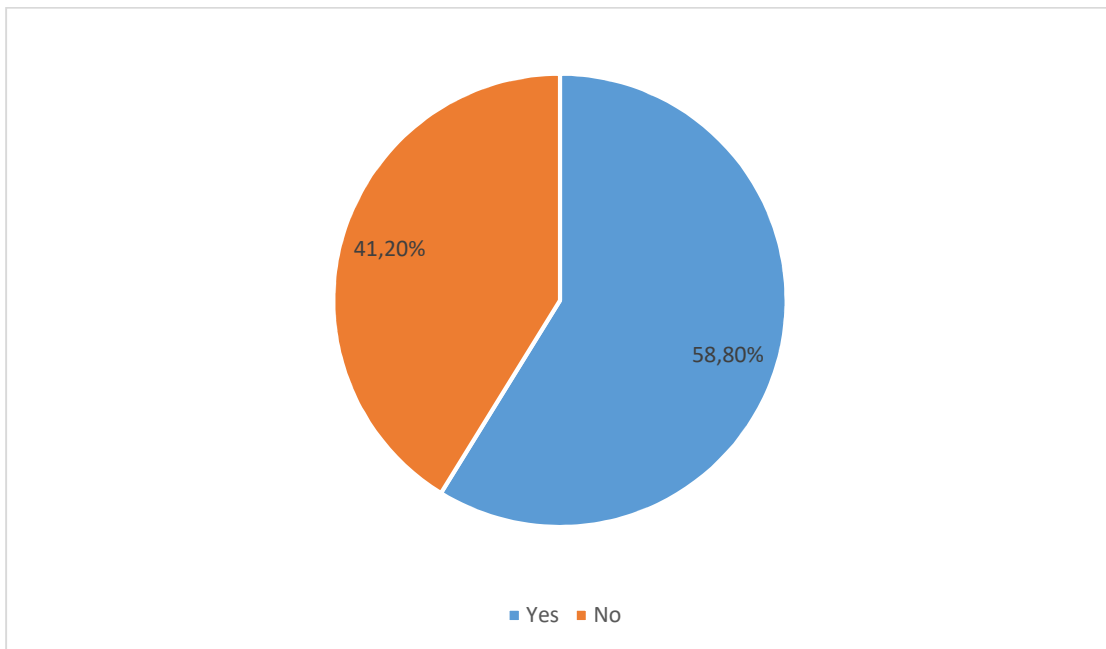


Figure 7: Income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

Question No7: 19.6% of the people who participated in the survey answered that there is a colleague in the same company at the same level as them but of a different gender who receives 1€-300€ more remuneration than them, 18.6% that they receive 301€-500€ more, 1% that they receive 801€-1000€ more, 3.9% that they receive 1€-100€ less than them, 2% that they receive more than 100€ less, 38.3% that there is no one who receives more or less, and 8.8% that they are not aware of.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	1-300	20	19.4%	19.6%	19.6%
	301-500	19	18.4%	18.6%	38.2%
	801-1000	1	1.0%	1.0%	39.2%
	1000+	4	3.9%	3.9%	43.1%
	-1 - -100	2	1.9%	2.0%	45.1%
	-100 +	7	6.8%	6.9%	52.0%



	0	39	37.9%	38.3%	90.2%
	DON'T KNOW	9	8.7%	8.8%	99.0%
	BOTH	1	1.0%	1.0%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

Table 7: Amount of income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

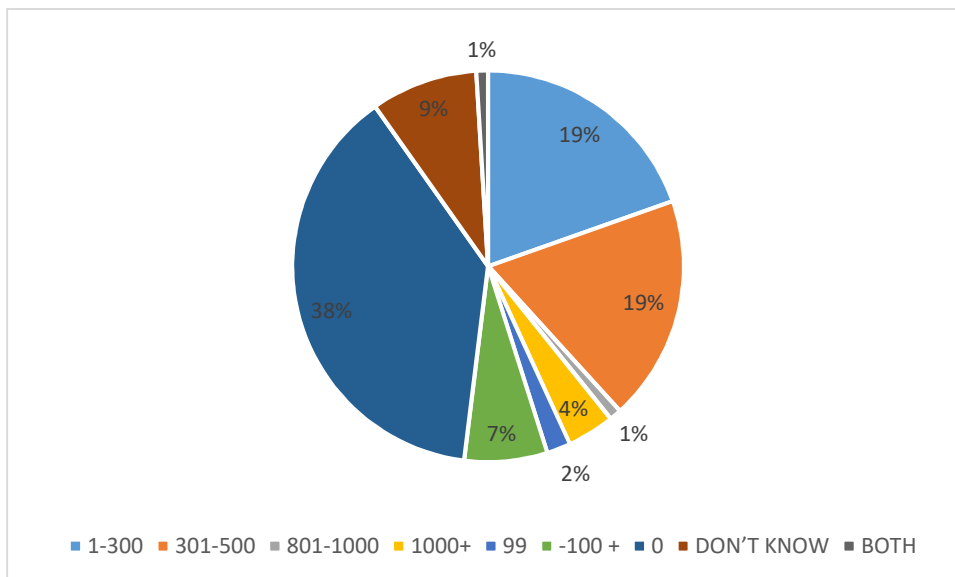


Figure 8: Amount of income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

Question No8: In the question “If there is a colleague of the same company in the same grade as you but of a different gender who receives more or less remuneration than you, who proves the difference in remuneration” 27.8% answered that it is because of more experience, 20.4% because of more time working for the company, 11.1% because of different contract terms, 7.4% because of studies, 5.6% because of sufficiency, 25.9% because of the gender, 1.9% for other reasons.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Experience	15	14.6%	27.8%	27.8%
	More time working	11	10.7%	20.4%	48.1%
	Contract terms	6	5.8%	11.1%	59.3%
	Studies	4	3.9%	7.4%	66.7%
	Sufficiency	3	2.9%	5.6%	72.2%
	Gender	14	13.6%	25.9%	98.1%
	Other	1	1.0%	1.9%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		49	47.6%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

Table 8: Reason of income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

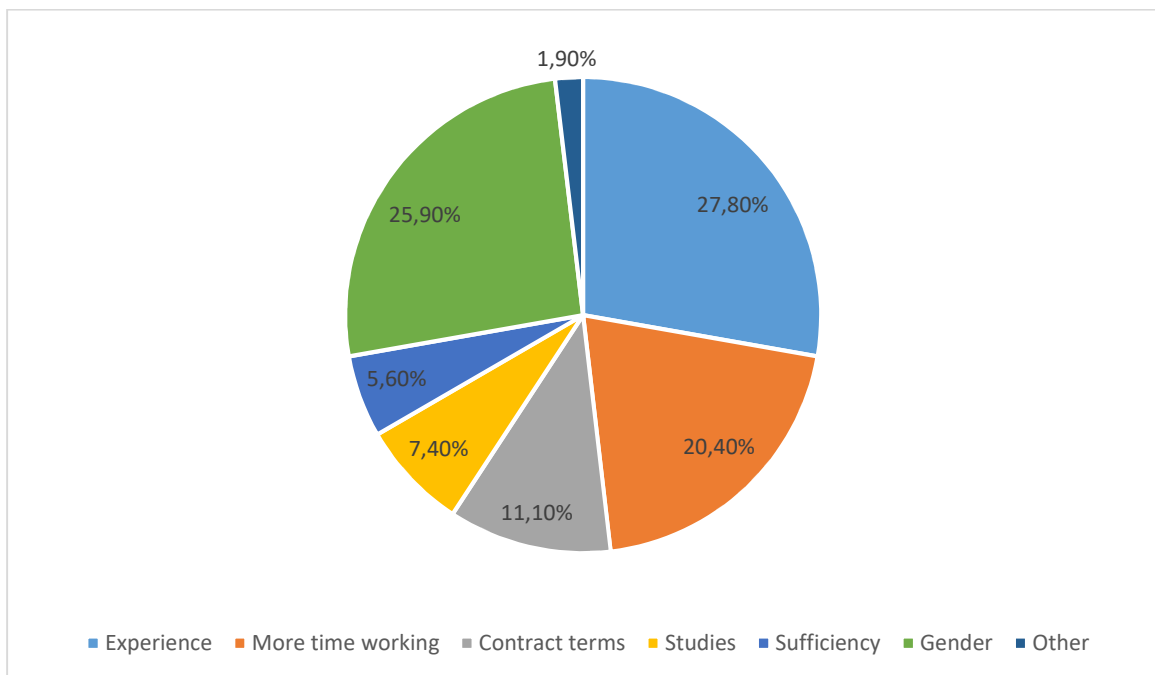
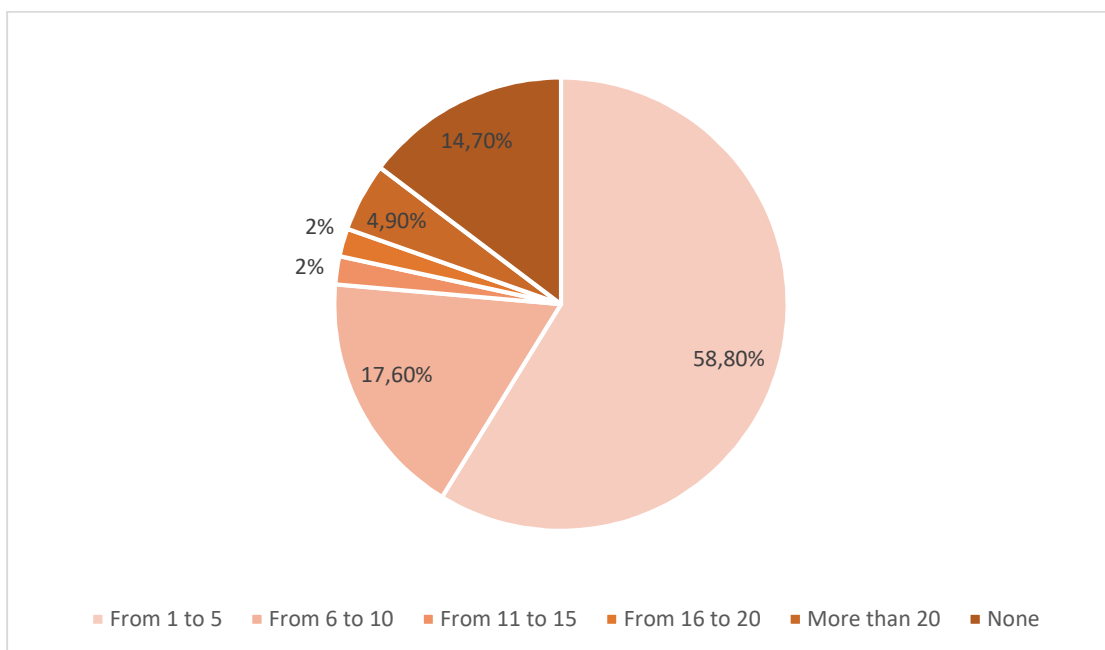


Figure 9: Reason of income difference between workers of the same qualifications level

Question No9: From the responders, 58.8% said that 1-5 women work in senior position in the same company as them, 17.6% that 6-10 women do, 2% that 11-15 women do, 2% that 16-20 women do, 4.9% that more than 20 women do and 14.7% said there is no woman in senior position in the company they work.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	1-5	60	58.3%	58.8%	58.8%
	6-10	18	17.5%	17.6%	76.5%
	11-15	2	1.9%	2.0%	78.4%
	16-20	2	1.9%	2.0%	80.4%
	20+	5	4.9%	4.9%	85.3%
	0	15	14.6%	14.7%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 9: Amount of women that work in higher positions*

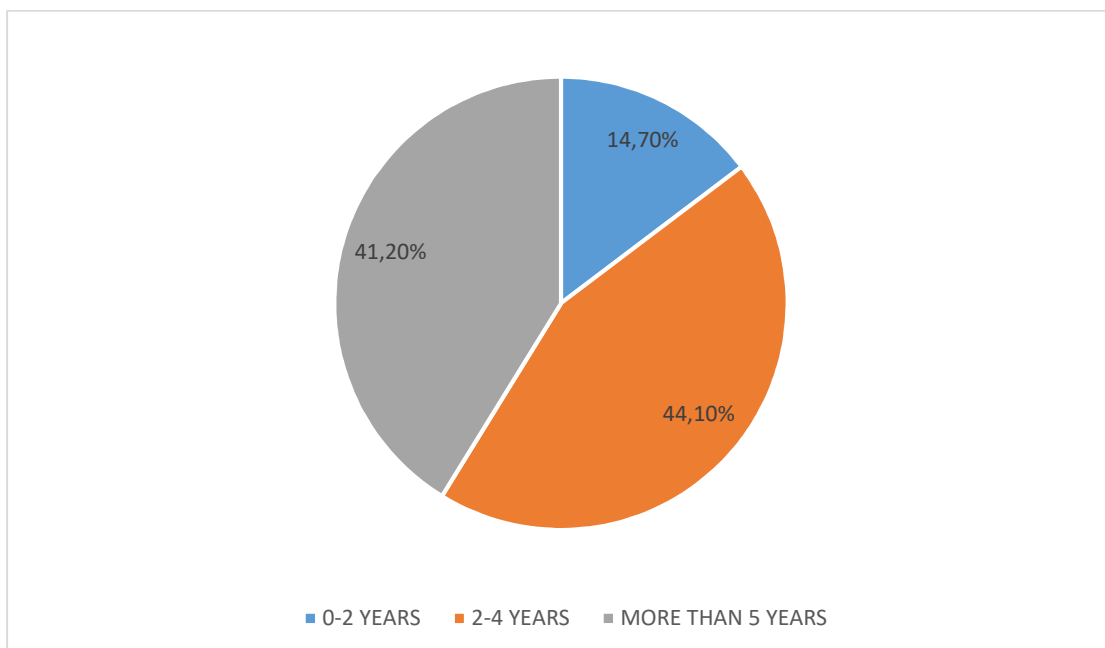


*Figure 10: Amount of women that work in higher positions*

Question No10: 14.7% from the people who participated in the survey have been working in this position for a year, 44.1% work for 2-4 years and 41.2% work for more than 5 years in the same position.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Up to 1 year	15	14.6%	14.7%	14.7%
	2-4 years	45	43.7%	44.1%	58.8%
	Over 4 years	42	40.8%	41.2%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 10: Amount of time that participants work at the same position*

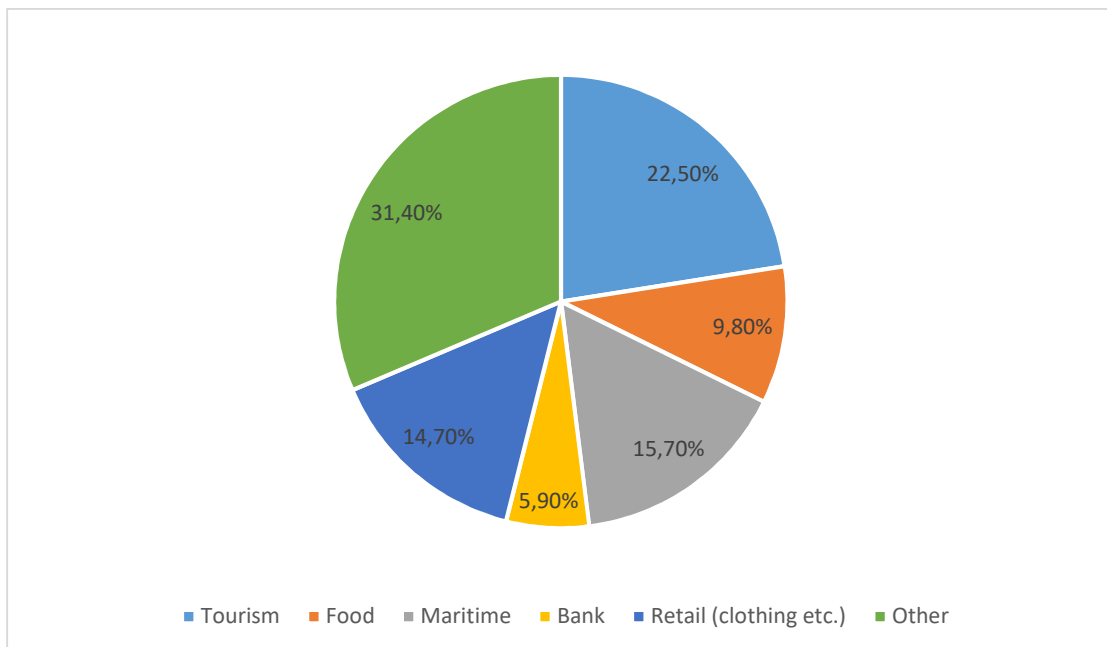


*Figure 11: Amount of time that participants work at the same position*

Question No11: From the people who participated in the survey, 22.5% work at tourism industry, 9.8% work for food companies, 15.7% work for maritime, 5.9% work at the bank, 14.7% work at retail, 31.4% work for something else.

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
<b>Valid</b>	Tourism	23	22.3%	22.5%	22.5%
	Food Company	10	9.7%	9.8%	32.4%
	Maritime	16	15.5%	15.7%	48.0%
	Bank	6	5.8%	5.9%	53.9%
	Retail	15	14.6%	14.7%	68.6%
	Other	32	31.1%	31.4%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 11: Industry responders work for*

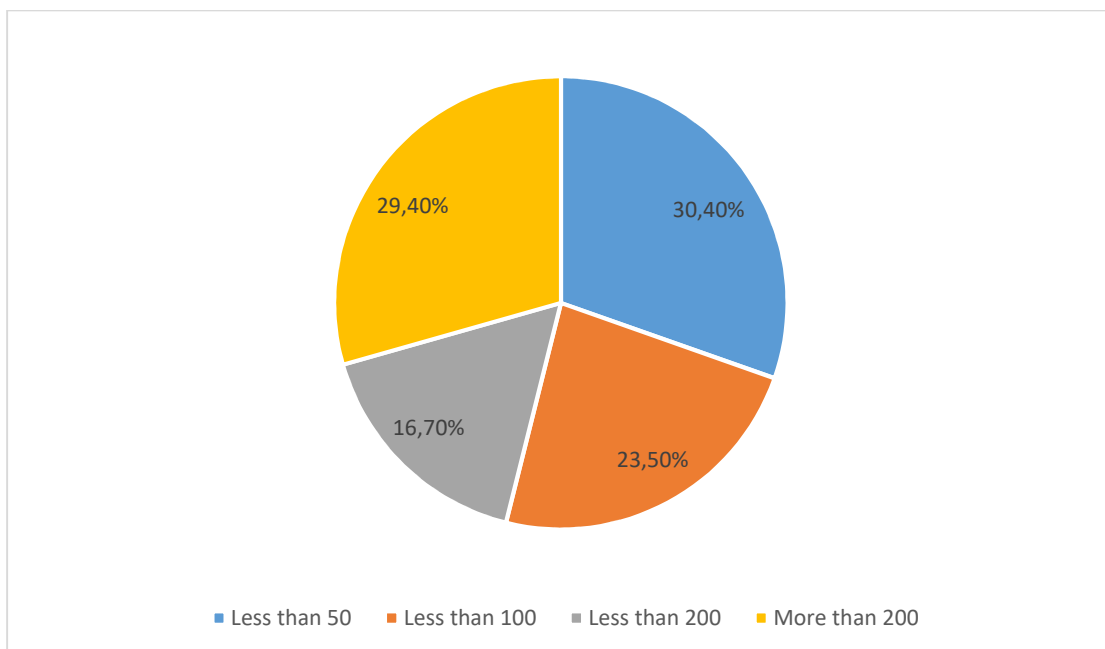


*Figure 12: Industry responders work for*

Question No12: 30.4% of the people who answered the survey are part of a company that owns less than 50 employees, 23.5% works with less than 100 employees, 16.7% with less than 200 employees and 29.4% works for a company that owns more than 200 employees.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
<b>Valid</b>	Up to 50	31	30.1%	30.4%	30.4%
	Up to 100	24	23.3%	23.5%	53.9%
	Up to 200	17	16.5%	16.7%	70.6%
	More than 200	30	29.1%	29.4%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 12: Amount of workers at company responders work*



*Figure 13: Amount of workers at company responders work*

Question No13: 24.5% of the respondents said that their earnings before interest depreciation taxes and appreciation are 500€-10.000€, 11.8% that they are 11.000€-40.000€, 13.7% that they are more than 50.000€, 2.9% claim that they are -10.000€- -500, 2% that they are -40.000 – 11.000, 2% that they are more than -50.000€ and 43.1% said that they do not know.

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>	<b>Cumulative Percent</b>
<b>Valid</b>	500-10.000	25	24.3%	24.5%	24.5%
	11.000-40.000	12	11.7%	11.8%	36.3%
	50.000+	14	13.6%	13.7%	50.0%
	-500 - -10.000	3	2.9%	2.9%	52.9%
	-11.000 – 40.000	2	1.9%	2.0%	54.9%
	Up to -50.000	2	1.9%	2.0%	56.9%
	Don't Know	44	42.7%	43.1%	100.0%
<b>Missing</b>		1	1.0%		
<b>Total</b>		103	100.0%		

*Table 13: EBITDA of responders work*

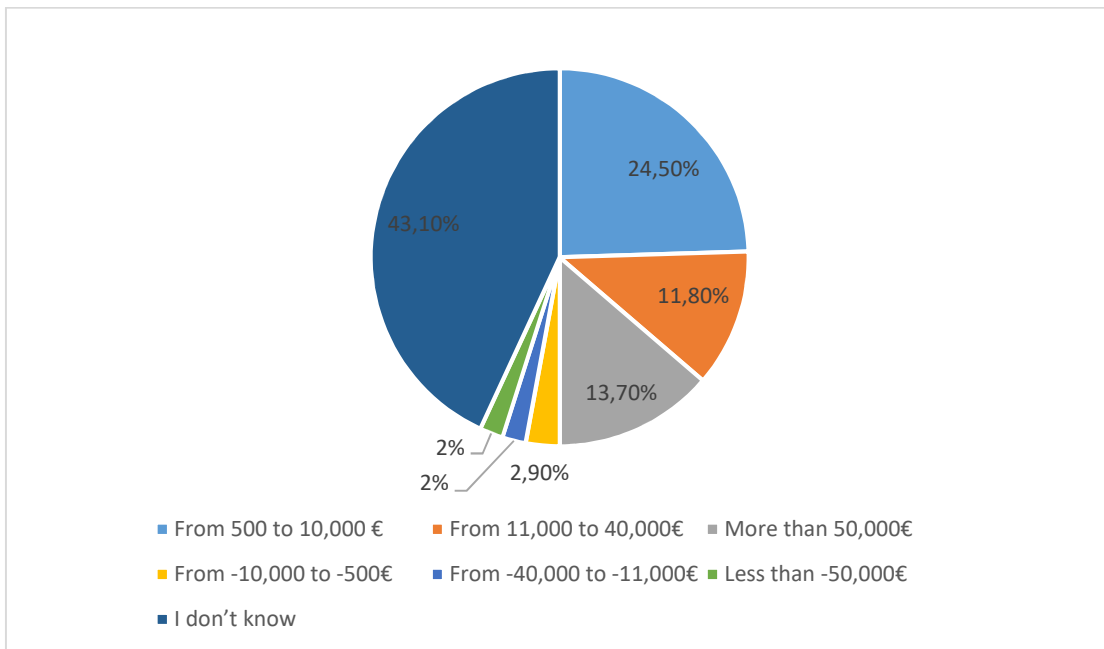


Figure 14: EBITDA of responders work



### 3. Data Analysis

#### 3.1 Industry and number of women in higher positions

In tourism industries 82.6% have 1-5 women working in higher positions, 13% 6-10 women, and 4.3% not even one.

In food industry 70% have 1-5 women and 30% has no women in higher positions.

In shipping companies 43.8% have 1-5 women in higher positions, same percent have 6-10 women, 6.3% have 11-15 women and same percent have none.

In bank companies 66.7% have 1-5 women working in higher positions, 16.7% have 6-10 women, same percent has more than 20 women.

60% of retail firms have 1-5 women working in higher positions, 6.7% have 6-10 women, same percent have 16-20 women and 26.7% have none.

43.8% of other industries have 1-5 women working in higher positions, 18.8% have 6-10, 3.1% have 11-15 and 16-20, 12.5% have more than 20 and 18.8% have none.

Other industries are the ones that have the most women working in higher positions and second come bank industries.

**Number of women in high positions**

			1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+	0	Total
<i>Industry</i>	Tourism	Counter	19	3	0	0	0	1	23
		Row %	82.6%	13.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	4.3%	100.0%
		Column %	31.7%	16.7%	.0%	.0%	.0%	6.7%	22.5%
		Total %	18.6%	2.9%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.0%	22.5%
Food Company		Counter	7	0	0	0	0	3	10
		Row %	70.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	30.0%	100.0%
		Column %	11.7%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	9.8%
		Total %	6.9%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	2.9%	9.8%
Maritime		Counter	7	7	1	0	0	1	16
		Row %	43.8%	43.8%	6.3%	.0%	.0%	6.3%	100.0%
		Column %	11.7%	38.9%	50.0%	.0%	.0%	6.7%	15.7%
		Total %	6.9%	6.9%	1.0%	.0%	.0%	1.0%	15.7%
Bank		Counter	4	1	0	0	1	0	6

	Row %	66.7%	16.7%	.0%	.0%	16.7%	.0%	100.0%
	Column %	6.7%	5.6%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	.0%	5.9%
	Total %	3.9%	1.0%	.0%	.0%	1.0%	.0%	5.9%
Retail	Counter	9	1	0	1	0	4	15
	Row %	60.0%	6.7%	.0%	6.7%	.0%	26.7%	100.0%
	Column %	15.0%	5.6%	.0%	50.0%	.0%	26.7%	14.7%
	Total %	8.8%	1.0%	.0%	1.0%	.0%	3.9%	14.7%
Other	Counter	14	6	1	1	4	6	32
	Row %	43.8%	18.8%	3.1%	3.1%	12.5%	18.8%	100.0%
	Column %	23.3%	33.3%	50.0%	50.0%	80.0%	40.0%	31.4%
	Total %	13.7%	5.9%	1.0%	1.0%	3.9%	5.9%	31.4%
Gen.Total	Counter	60	18	2	2	5	15	102
	Row %	58.8%	17.6%	2.0%	2.0%	4.9%	14.7%	100.0%
	Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total %	58.8%	17.6%	2.0%	2.0%	4.9%	14.7%	100.0%

*Table 14: Number of women in high position in industries*

### 3.2 Gender and position

42.9% of women work as supervisors, 10.7% work as manager assistants, 8.9% work as managers, 1.8% work as CEOs and 35.7% work at lower positions.

37% of men work as supervisors, 15.2% work as manager assistants, 26.1% work as managers, 4.3% work as CEOs and 17.4% work at lower positions.

More women (58.5%) work as supervisors comparing to men (41.5%) but the higher a position is, the higher is the rate of men occupied comparing to women.

		Position						
			Supervisor	Assistant Manager	Manager	CEO	Other	Total
<i>Industry</i>	Woman	Counter	24	6	5	1	20	56
		Row %	42.9%	10.7%	8.9%	1.8%	35.7%	100.0%
		Column %	58.5%	46.2%	29.4%	33.3%	71.4%	54.9%
		Total %	23.5%	5.9%	4.9%	1.0%	19.6%	54.9%

Man	Counter	17	7	12	2	8	46
	Row %	37.0%	15.2%	26.1%	4.3%	17.4%	100.0%
	Column %	41.5%	53.8%	70.6%	66.7%	28.6%	45.1%
	Total %	16.7%	6.9%	11.8%	2.0%	7.8%	45.1%
Gen.Total	Counter	41	13	17	3	28	102
	Row %	40.2%	12.7%	16.7%	2.9%	27.5%	100.0%
	Column %	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total %	40.2%	12.7%	16.7%	2.9%	27.5%	100.0%

*Table 15: Gender in high positions*

### 3.3 Differences and correlations

#### • CHI-SQUARE TESTS

##### 1. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - "Coworker getting different income"

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is 0.041<0.05. Therefore we reject the H<sub>0</sub> hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "Is there a coworker who gets different income than you?" are related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
<i>Pearson Chi-Square</i>	4.18	1	.041		
<i>Likelihood Ratio</i>	4.20	1	.040		
<i>Fisher's Exact Test</i>				.046	.033
<i>Continuity Correction</i>	3.40	1	.065		

<b>Linear-by-Linear Association</b>	4.14	1	.042		
<b>N of Valid Cases</b>	102				

Table 16: Correlation between the variables gender and coworker getting different income

## 2. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - " Income difference "

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is 0.304 > 0.05. Therefore we do not reject the H<sub>0</sub> hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "How much is the income difference between you and your coworker?" are not related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<b>Pearson Chi-Square</b>	10.61	9	.304
<b>Likelihood Ratio</b>	11.88	9	.220
<b>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></b>	3.36	1	.067
<b>N of Valid Cases</b>	102		

Table 17: Correlation between the variables gender and income difference

## 3. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - " Reason for the income difference "

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is 0.017 < 0.05. Therefore we reject the H<sub>0</sub> hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "What is the reason for the income difference between you and your coworker?" are related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<b>Pearson Chi-Square</b>	15.43	6	.017
<b>Likelihood Ratio</b>	17.39	6	.008
<b>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></b>	.24	1	.627
<b>N of Valid Cases</b>	54		

Table 18: Correlation between the variables gender and reason for the income difference

#### 4. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - "Working time"

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is 0.577 > 0.05. Therefore we do not reject the H<sub>0</sub> hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "How long have you been working at the same position?" are not related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<b>Pearson Chi-Square</b>	1.10	2	.577
<b>Likelihood Ratio</b>	1.12	2	.571
<b>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></b>	.27	1	.606
<b>N of Valid Cases</b>	102		

Table 19: Correlation between the variables gender and working time

#### 5. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - "Industry"

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is  $0.423 > 0.05$ . Therefore we do not reject the  $H_0$  hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "What is the industry you work for?" are not related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<b><i>Pearson Chi-Square</i></b>	4.94	5	.423
<b><i>Likelihood Ratio</i></b>	5.20	5	.392
<b><i>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></i></b>	.03	1	.863
<b><i>N of Valid Cases</i></b>	102		

Table 20: Correlation between the variables gender and industry

## 6. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - "Number of workers"

$H_0$ : There is independence between the two variables.

$H_1$ : There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is  $0.242 > 0.05$ . Therefore we do not reject the  $H_0$  hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "How many workers are in the firm you are working at?" are not related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<b><i>Pearson Chi-Square</i></b>	4.19	3	.242
<b><i>Likelihood Ratio</i></b>	4.25	3	.236
<b><i>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></i></b>	.14	1	.710
<b><i>N of Valid Cases</i></b>	102		

Table 21: Correlation between the variables gender and number of workers

## 7. Correlation between the variables "Gender" - "EBITDA"

H<sub>0</sub>: There is independence between the two variables.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no independence between the two variables.

From the Chi-Square Tests, we observe the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) for Pearson ChiSquare is 0.203 > 0.05. Therefore we do not reject the H<sub>0</sub> hypothesis, concluding that the answers which were given to the question "What is the EBITDA change?" are not related to the gender of the responders.

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
<i>Pearson Chi-Square</i>	8.51	6	.203
<i>Likelihood Ratio</i>	8.66	6	.193
<i>Continuity Correction<sup>b</sup></i>	3.15	1	.076
<i>N of Valid Cases</i>	102		

Table 22: Correlation between the variables gender and EBITDA change

## **4. Conclusions**

### **4.1 Research conclusions**

In conclusion, discrimination is a state that still exists nowadays even though things have changed and women have the same rights as men. Discrimination can happen to people from different race, country, color, culture, beliefs, age etc. with the most common being the one happening towards women. Women face discrimination in various places from their home, school, work, in the street and can be generated as sexual or not violence, no freedom of expression, aggressive behavior or lack of trust for important assignments and higher positions. All the above affects women in a bad way keeping them away from trying for better positions or quitting to raise their family. Although some organizations that help and support women keeping up with their job and their family have popped up, they are not enough as discrimination still exists and especially older generations still cannot accept a woman boss. More than half of the people claim they earn less than other people at the same position and same qualifications and most of them say this happens because of the experience and gender discrimination. Not many women are put in higher positions such as managers or CEOs comparing to men, although they are a little more in the supervisor position. Banks seem to have more women working in higher position whereas tourism industry has less. Gender discrimination is a problem affecting both women and men as it can be a huge obstacle in a company's progress and success.

According to my research, unfortunately, many employees in high positions do not know about the economic situation of the company they work as the specific percentage is 43. However, according to CHI-SQUARE TEST, the variables gender and Earning Before Taxes, Depreciation and Accumulation are not related. Thus, we cannot conclude about the economical effect of the company due to the gender discrimination. This doesn't mean that there are no impacts to the company.

Gender discrimination can have significant impacts on a company. For example:

**Loss of talent:** If a company engages in gender discrimination, it may lose talented employees who are women. This can result in decreased productivity, increased costs associated with turnover, and damage to the company's reputation.



Decreased morale and job satisfaction: When employees feel that they are being discriminated against based on their gender, it can lead to decreased morale and job satisfaction. This can result in decreased productivity and increased absenteeism.

Legal consequences: If a company is found to be engaging in gender discrimination, it can face legal consequences such as fines, lawsuits, and damage to its reputation.

Lack of diversity: Gender discrimination can result in a lack of diversity in the company, which can limit innovation, creativity, and different perspectives.

Poor public image: If a company is known for engaging in gender discrimination, it can damage its public image, leading to decreased sales and loss of customers.

Overall, gender discrimination can have a negative impact on a company's bottom line, as well as its reputation and ability to attract and retain top talent.

## **4.2 Proposals**

Gender discrimination is still a problem nowadays so the research based on them are not yet to complete.

First there should be a research about how much more time women have to work and prove themselves before they get a promotion comparing to men, as it is generally known that men get promotion easier than women.

Second, a survey can be performed on how many women get promotion comparing to men when men are at the higher working positions in the company, concluding how much trust men have for women.

Third, a research can go even further to examine how much home tasks men do comparing to women, how much they do around the house and taking care of their kids, taking into account their position in the company.

### **4.2.1 Improving gender discrimination generally**

Improving gender discrimination requires a collective effort from individuals, organizations, and governments. Here are some ways to improve gender discrimination:

- *Educate people:* Education is the key to breaking down stereotypes and promoting gender equality. Educational programs can help individuals understand the importance of gender equality and the negative effects of discrimination.
- *Promote women in leadership roles:* Women in leadership roles can serve as role models and inspire other women to pursue leadership positions. Encouraging women to take on leadership roles can also help break down gender stereotypes and promote gender equality.
- *Enforce anti-discrimination laws:* Laws prohibiting gender discrimination should be strictly enforced to ensure that individuals and organizations who discriminate are held accountable for their actions.
- *Promote pay equity:* Employers should be required to pay men and women equally for doing the same job. Governments can also mandate reporting on pay equity to ensure that organizations are meeting these standards.
- *Support work-life balance:* Employers should provide flexible work arrangements and family-friendly policies, such as paid parental leave, to support work-life balance for both men and women.

*Encourage diversity and inclusion:* Encouraging diversity and inclusion can help create a more welcoming and supportive work environment for everyone. This includes promoting the hiring and retention of women and other underrepresented groups.

By implementing these actions, we can work towards improving gender discrimination and creating a more equal and inclusive society.

#### **4.2.2 Proposals for equality of genders in the workplace**

Here are some proposals for promoting gender equality in the workplace:

- *Equal pay:* Ensuring that men and women are paid equally for doing the same job is a critical step in promoting gender equality in the workplace.
- *Diversity and inclusion training:* Providing training to employees and management on topics such as unconscious bias and gender sensitivity can help create a more inclusive and welcoming work environment.
- *Flexible work arrangements:* Providing flexible work arrangements, such as flexible hours or remote work options, can help women balance work and family responsibilities.

- *Mentorship and leadership programs:* Implementing mentorship and leadership programs for women can help promote their professional development and provide them with opportunities for career advancement.
- *Anti-discrimination policies and procedures:* Implementing strong anti-discrimination policies and procedures, as well as a reporting system for harassment or discrimination complaints, can help ensure that women feel safe and valued in the workplace.
- *Gender-balanced hiring practices:* Implementing gender-balanced hiring practices can help ensure that women are not overlooked in the hiring process and are given equal opportunities to apply and compete for jobs.

These proposals can help promote gender equality in the workplace and create a more inclusive and welcoming work environment for all employees.

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