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great by
deeds, not by
birth"
-Chanakya

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**Gender Perceptions and Organisational Climate: A Study of Two
Structurally Different Large Organisations in India**

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ABSTRACT

In this study we observe the gender differences pertaining to perception of organizational climate. We have demonstrated that the perception of female employees in organized sector in India may no longer be restricted to feelings of despair and loss of hope as against what has been mostly the discourse at the national and international levels. We have demonstrated that these perceptions may not only be homogenous across organizations (i.e., socially determined) but in fact may also depend on the organizational structural contexts. Gender perceptions on identification and goal clarity were determined by larger social context as irrespective of the organization the mean scores of women respondents were significantly lower than those of male respondents. Women participants were perceived by their supervisors to indulge less in deviant behavior as compared to male participants. However, gender perceptions regarding perceived climate of welfare measures, outward focus of the organization, and fairness were contingent on the structural context of the two organizations in which our study was conducted. The two organizations differed significantly in their human resources practices. Although limited in generalizability, the study incorporated a robust study design in the two large organizations; one a government utility and the other a private sector organization. Both the organizations had more than 10000 employees on their roles. We analyzed 545 responses from the government utility and 8853 responses from the private organization. Our findings may help managers understand the differences in the socially constructed perception of intervention mechanisms by men and women. This perception is further influenced by the organizational structure and norms. Managers could thus institute processes and procedures in ways which balance the needs of both genders.

Keywords:

Organizational Climate, Gender, Union Identification, Organizational Identification, Welfare, Outward Focus, Goal Clarity, Deviant Performance, Organizational Justice.

INTRODUCTION

In India, the participation of women in the labour force is 25.51 percent as compared to 53.26 percent for men as per the 2011 census. This gap is even greater when considering only the urban sector, where the female participation is 15.44 percent versus 53.76 percent for males (Registrar General, 2011). “Despite very rapid economic growth in India in recent years, we’re observing declining female labour force participation rates across all age groups, across all education levels, and in both urban and rural areas,” said International Labor Organization (ILO) economist Steven Kapsos during a presentation of the ILO report in India (“India: Why is women’s labour force participation dropping?” n.d.). What makes the above observation more acute is that women empowerment is uneven across the country. Gender equality plays an important role in economic development has long been understood in the literature. Various studies have highlighted how lower female labor force participation or their weak entrepreneurial activity drags down economic growth (e.g., Duflo 2005; World Bank 2012).

Further, while India is among the top twenty best-performing countries on the Political Empowerment of women (Ranked at 15), India ranks poorly on parameter of Economic Participation and Opportunity for women (134), in a group of 142 countries (Hausman & Tyson, 2014). In fact, India is among twenty worst-performing countries on women participation in labour force, has the highest gender difference with respect to unpaid work, percentage female participation in R&D, and firm ownership (Hausman & Tyson, 2014). Two points based on findings and approach of The Global Gender Report, 2014 (Hausman & Tyson, 2014) seem to be relevant for gender equality studies and practice. The first one is that it may not be sufficient to address gender equality, but also to decide where to focus more. For example, if the scores for India are very good on Political Empowerment of women but very poor on other three indices of Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational

Attainment, and Health and Survival, it makes it important to focus on the lagging indices. Secondly, it is not a case of one gender vs. the other, but bringing both to an equal footing. As the authors of the Global Gender Report, 2014 clarify, “our aim is to focus on whether the gap between women and men in the chosen variables has declined, rather than whether women are “winning” the “battle of the sexes””.

To incorporate the above ideas at an organizational level, managers need to not only concentrate on broad level equality metrics between genders but ensure that the equality is across the whole gamut of organizational aspects and to balance it both ways rather than making it a tool for female supremacy. One way of doing the same is to measure the perceptions of both genders regarding domains of organizational climate, an important determinant of organizational outcomes.

Organizational climate as surface level manifestation of organizational culture (Patterson et al., 2005) has evolved into a nuanced multi-domain and multidimensional construct. For example, Patterson et al. (2005)’s categorizations of organizational climate were based on Quinn and colleagues’ (e.g., 1981, 1988) works on concerns for “flexibility vs. control” and “internal vs. external” orientation. They built their framework of the organizational climate measure based on four dominant schools of thoughts with respect to organizational effectiveness. Concerns for human relations, internal processes, open system and rational goal were the criteria for organizational effectiveness. We have drawn upon same stream of organizational climate literature for choice of variables for our study. For example, the construct of employee welfare is taken from the conceptualization by Patterson et al. (2005) as representing human relations parameter. The government organization being unionized, we consider union identification as an additional construct of the human relations parameter but for the private sector the

corresponding parameter we use is organizational identification. Distributive justice is a reflection of a facet of fairness of the internal systems and therefore a reflection of internal processes parameter. With respect to rational goal model, goal clarity and deviant performance are likely to reflect organization concerns (lack of) for productivity. For the open system perspective parameter, outward focus is likely to capture the orientation of the organization towards customers and markets.

Emphasis across all domains is likely to capture the strength of the climate and organizational effectiveness (Quinn, 1988). Organizational realities and efforts with respect to gender diversity can be gauged from the perception regarding organizational climate. In organizations where a particular gender perceives the support to be high; the same gender is likely to have positive attitudes and behavior and evaluate the overall organizational climate as favourable and vice-versa. The perception will depend not only on social context but also the organizational context.

As part of our study, we have collected data from two organizations pertaining to employee's perceptions of the organizational climate. The first organization is a large Government organization with detailed rules on gender regarding employment, transfers, promotions, leaves etc. The second organization is also a large organization, in the private sector but lacks well laid down HR policies.

Based on the discussions thus far, we expect gender differences in the perception of organizational climate. Some of the organizational climate variables are expected to have similar gender effect in both organizations while some others are likely to have differing gender effect in both organizations. Thus, we examine social and organizational effects on gender perception regarding organizational climate. In next section, we theorize the relation of each organizational climate variable with gender.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Relationship of Gender with Union Identification

Fosh (1981), in his research notes that the active members are more likely to be committed to group goals as compared to inactive members. It is probably harder for women to be active members and as they are less likely to participate in union activities (see Horton, 1986). Particularly, in Indian context, Venkata Ratnam and Jain (2002) note that women generally have less time, energy and opportunity, as they need to go home after work and tend to domestic chores, usually without support from the male members of the family. They further note that fewer women join trade unions and even the few who join do not participate actively in trade union matters in India. Active organizational members get more organizational rewards and have higher commitment than inactive members (see Seidman et al., 1958; Tannenbaum and Kahn, 1958). Also, commitment and identification are closely related concepts (e.g., Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Active member are also likely to derive satisfaction from group activities (Horton, 1986). Satisfaction of one's need is likely to relate with identification with the group (e.g., Kumar & Jauhari, 2015). In fact, gender predicts in-group vs. out-group status (Duchon, Green, and Taber, 1986); group status, in turn is a basic tenet of social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Also, as identification is a manifestation of the larger social and macro level aspects (such as women being expected to see home and family as more central to their identity), we expect the organizational structure to not have significant impact on the perceptions. Specifically, we expect gender differences with respect to identification (union or organizational) but no difference between the two different organizational structure (presence vs. absence of well laid out HR policies). The two associated hypotheses are below:

H1a: Women members are less likely to identify with unions as compared to male members

H1b: Women members are less likely to identify with organization as compared to male members

Relationship of Gender with Outward Focus of the Organization

Researchers have observed gender differences in customer service orientation such as functional vs. emotional outcomes (see Sandström et al., 2008) and efficiency vs. win/win (see Di Mascio, 2010). Female employees are driven by emotional/process based or win/win orientation while males are driven by functional/efficiency/outcome considerations (see Mathies & Burford, 2011). Further, in other cultural context, women have shown a higher orientation for innovative practices than their male counterparts and a higher orientation towards practices leading to dynamism in their business environment (Serviere-Munoz & Saran, 2012). Also, men and women entrepreneurs are likely to approach issues differently (Brush, 1992; Watson, 2002). For example, female-led firms are not only significantly more market oriented than male-led firms but female-led service SMEs performed significantly better due to their stronger emphasis on market orientation compared to their male-led counterparts (Davis, Babakus, Englis & Pett, 2010). Given their preference for market orientation, innovation, and dynamism as discussed above, if women have an opportunity to participate in decision making in outward focused activities as mentioned above, then they would probably have a more positive view of the firm's outward focus as compared to men. In the absence of an opportunities for women to participate in such activities, men may have a more positive view of the firm's outward focus. Generally, market focus, innovation and other outward oriented activities may be considered as core and prized activities of the firm and the opportunity given to women to participate in these is often dependent on the organizational structure. For example, in the private organization, women members were generally relegated to support functions of HR, customer service etc. while field work and other technical works as well as those support functions which were considered important were in domain of male members. In the government organizations however, on account of strict policies in entry,

promotion, transfer criteria etc., women members although still in minority were represented well in technical administration and decision making.

H2: In an organizational environment where women have an opportunity to participate in decision making in outward oriented activities of the firm, they are likely to view the outward focus of the firm more positively than men. Conversely, where women do not have an opportunity to participate in decision making in outward oriented activities of the firm, men are likely to view the outward focus of the firm more positively than women.

Relationship of Gender with Goal Clarity

Organizational socialization experiences may be influenced by gender effect. For example, members who have male supervisors are likely to perceive enabling work related factors like greater variety, autonomy, and significance in their jobs; while those who have female supervisors are likely to perceive enabling people related factors like greater opportunities to develop close friendship and to deal with other people in their jobs (Valentine & Godkin, 2000). Men are likely to discuss work more than women (agentic orientation); while women may prefer discussing people more than men (Leaper, 1987; Burlison, Liu, Liu, & Mortenson, 2006), thereby reducing the effect of job information exchange in case of women (Chen, Mao, & Hsieh, 2012). Similar to differences with respect to commitment and outward orientation (discussed in earlier hypotheses), men and women are also likely to have different communication styles (e.g., Leaper, 1987). Furthermore, dissimilarity in demographic characteristics may lead to low communication between the members of a dyad, leading to high role ambiguity. Similarly, dissimilarity in demographic background may lead to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, thereby leading to role conflict as the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role requirements (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Malangwasira, 2013).

Demographic characteristic may lead people being drawn towards those who are similar while

dissimilarity can lead to repulsion. As both organizations have similar gender ratios (women constituting minority), women members by virtue of their preference of communication style as well as likelihood of facing more dissimilarities with peers and supervisors on account of constituting minority are likely to have less goal clarity in both organizations.

H3: Women members are less likely to have clarity of goals as compared to male members

Relationship of Gender with Welfare Activities

Women report more than men that the quality of their home life is affected by spillover of work into family life (Doble & Supriya, 2010). Therefore they are in turn more likely to notice and appreciate management's effort with respect to employee welfare. Family-friendly workplace policies have the potential to produce positive outcomes in terms of productivity, absenteeism, turnover (retention), recruitment, and satisfaction and have the potential to reinforce traditional norms of the workplace (McCurdy & Newman, & Lovrich, 2002).

Infact, women as compared to men have been found to have significantly better attitude towards the work and the organization (Lindorff, 2011). It is therefore expected that women members would appreciate an organizational set up with favourable policies in recruitment, absence, promotion, transfer and other organizational issues. The government organization such women friendly polices as compared to the private organization that we examine. This leads to the hypothesis four laid below:

H4: Female members will have more favorable perception of welfare activities as compared to male members where supporting policies regarding recruitment, promotion, leave etc. are part of the organizational guidelines, while female members will have less favorable perception of welfare activities as compared to male members where supporting policies regarding recruitment, promotion, leave etc. are not part of the organizational guidelines

Relationship of Gender with Equity

As discussed earlier, men are more task oriented while women are more relationship oriented pertaining to orientations, styles, and goals (Deaux, 1976 in Tata, 2000). Gender can therefore influence the extent to which individuals are oriented towards and use distributive and procedural justice principles. Men are more likely to use distributive justice principles when allocating and evaluating pay raises as it is oriented towards outcomes. Women however are more likely to use procedural justice principles when allocating and evaluating pay raises, because the procedure used to determine pay raises is likely to be related to the ability to maintain harmonious interpersonal relations (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Gender differences in justice preferences could also be related to gender differences in reward values. Men may place a higher value on money (pay) as a reward because it serves as a symbol of how their work is evaluated and as a measure of their worth. In contrast, women may value money less (Crossby, 1982; Mednick and Tangri, 1972) but interpersonal relationships more (Deaux, 1976 in Tata, 2000) than men do. This perception may be reinforced by societal biases about men's and women's relative needs for money as it may be considered acceptable for women to earn less than men because women are generally not the sole bread winners to support their family (see Tata, 2000). Given the strong effect of socialization where women are expected to be more caring and seeking harmonious relationship, women members will be generally indifferent to distributive justice perceptions. Male members are however expected to perceive less fairness as compared to female members where supportive practices for women are there (in this case the Government. organization) while they are likely to see more fairness in a system where they get opportunities to negotiate for appropriate rewards (monetary as well as other benefits) for their performance (in this case the private organization).

H5: Male members are likely to view organizational practices as less equitable as compared to female members where supporting policies regarding compensation, promotion, leave etc.

are available for women while male members will view organizational practices as more equitable as compared to female members where such supporting policies regarding compensation, promotion, leave etc. are not available to female members

Relationship of Gender with Deviant Behavior

In a survey, more female than male stated “no” they would not engage in behavior which they believed was wrong. Also, more male than female stated “may be” they would act unethically under certain circumstances (McInerney, Mader, & Mader, 2010). Similarly, male primary school teachers showed more workplace deviation, and organizational deviation than female primary school teachers (Sarwar, Awan, Alam, & Anwar, 2010). Women are more communally oriented than men, who are more outcome oriented. As such, men are more likely to defy organizational rules and norms. This leads to hypothesis six below:

H6: Women members are less likely to indulge in deviant workplace behavior as compared to male members

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

Sample 1. The respondents for the first sample were from a state government utility having more than 22,000 employees based in a southern state in India. The respondents represented employees of the utility working across fourteen districts, and working in the organization’s technical and administrative offices. The response for the various constructs is filled by the individual respondents, however, the response for deviant behavior is filled by the supervisor/boss of the respondents. For the survey, first, a unit office was randomly chosen, and then the employees in that unit were chosen. The Human Resources (HR) department from the Head Office contacted the employees regarding their participation in a survey and conveyed the date and time for their survey. In choosing the slots for survey, the HR department ensured minimum disruption to the work schedule in the respective unit offices.

The supervisors in each of the unit office apart from filling the survey as an individual employee, also filled in their views on deviant performance of those subordinates who were identified as part of the survey and reported to them.

In order to ensure that respondents fill in their true thoughts and feelings we took appropriate precaution. The principal investigator spent on an average about 30 minutes in briefing the participants directly after introducing himself at the beginning of the survey. Further, the investigators explained the purpose of the overall study, and the purpose of the specific component of the survey. The seating of the respondents was done carefully by ensuring that no two people working together or those who had worked together in the past were seated close to each other. Respondents were provided with detailed explanation of the different sections of the questionnaire (e.g., how and why to provide demographic details) and appropriate ways to respond to the questions (e.g., ticking or circling the responses). To alleviate any concerns of the respondents that the information may be shared with management and be used against them in the future, the principle investigator gave them a written undertaking that privacy would be maintained.

In each unit the data collection was over two days, with four slots on each day. Each slot had a group of 30 - 40 respondents who had been chosen by the HR department with the caveats mentioned earlier. In all, the HR department identified 850 respondents to participate in the survey and we received 786 responses. For individuals having medical emergencies or important family commitments, which was communicated to the investigator, to the extent possible alternate dates and time were provided for them to complete the survey. We only considered those responses when the individual had completed the survey and the corresponding supervisor too had completed the deviant behaviour portion of the survey.

We also removed those responses if the data was insufficient, and the respondent took too long or too little time for completion. In all we had a sample of 545 data points for our analysis. Of the 545 respondents, about 86% were male and about 96% were married. Mean work experience of respondents was about 18 years with a standard deviation of 8.17.

Sample 2. The respondents for the second sample were from one of India's premier Distribution and IT Services and Solutions Company. Employees from various businesses across India participated in an organization wide online survey that assured the respondents of complete confidentiality and was managed by one of the researchers. The CEO of the company personally elicited employee participation in the survey and requested them to express their true feelings in the survey as part of ~~for~~ organization building. Out of 14,565 employees of the company, 8,852 employees completed the survey implying a response rate of 60.77 percent.

In the sample, 89.2% respondents were male and 76.8% were married. These respondents represented all levels/grades of the company. A large portion of the respondents were individual contributors (81.7%), followed by junior level managers (13.6%), middle level managers (3.1%), and senior level managers (1.5%). The Mean tenure of respondents in years was 3.04, with a standard deviation of 4.63.

Measurement

Welfare. We adapted the organizational climate measures from Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson, & Wallace (2005) and Furnham & Goodstein's (1997). A sample item used is, 'ORGANIZATION is considerate of the interests of its employees', where the names of the respective organizations were used in

place of ‘ORGANIZATION’. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the two samples were 0.74 (see Table 1a) and 0.88 (see Table 1b) respectively.

Goal Clarity. We adapted items from Furnham & Goodstein (1997). A sample item used is, ‘I am aware of my duties and responsibilities’. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the two samples were 0.78 (see Table 1a) and 0.85 (see Table 1b) respectively.

Outward Focus. We adapted items from Patterson et al. (2005). A sample reverse coded item used is, ‘ORGANIZATION is slow to respond to the needs of the customer’. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the two samples were 0.73 (see Table 1a) and 0.84 (see Table 1b) respectively.

Identification. For both, union identification and organizational identification we adapted the items from the organizational identification scale of Mael & Ashforth (1992). A sample item used is, ‘I take ORGANIZATION’s successes as my own’ where ORGANIZATION was replaced by name of union/association in first sample and name of the organization in the second sample. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the two samples were 0.90 (see Table 1a) and 0.95 (see Table 1a) respectively.

Distributive Justice. We adapted items from Colquitt (2001)’s organizational justice scale. A sample item used is, ‘Pay & benefits reflect the effort put by employees at work’. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the two samples were 0.81 (see Table 1a) and 0.82 (see Table 1b) respectively.

Deviant Performance. We adapted items from Robinson and Bennett (1995). Items pertained to performance (e.g., working slowly), material (e.g., stealing) and interpersonal (e.g., blaming

others) deviant workplace behavior. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.94 for sample 1 (see Table 1a).

Analysis and Results

The reliability tests for the scales yielded satisfactory results. The details of the same have been discussed in measures section (see Table 1a and 1b). We conducted Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for all the constructs to confirm their dimensionality (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001). Subsequently, we computed correlations among the constructs (see Table 1a and 1b). We followed structural equation modeling (SEM) approach using IBM[®] SPSS[®] AMOS[™] 22. We assessed the model fit using indicators, like overall model chi-square measure, Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen, 2008). Relative χ^2 (χ^2/df) was less than 3; RMSEA less than 0.08; CFI greater than 0.95; SRMR less than 0.08; and NNFI greater than 0.95 were taken as acceptable threshold levels (Hooper et al., 2008; Kline, 2005).

We first specified one-factor models for both samples in which all the items used in the study were loaded on a common factor for each sample. This model revealed a bad fit to the data in absolute terms (see Table 2; Model 1 for sample 1 and Model 3 for sample 2). Next, we specified a six-factor model (for sample 1) and a five factor model (for sample 2) in which all the items pertaining to various constructs were loaded on their respective factors. The specifications for both samples yielded a good model fit (see Table 2; Model 2 for sample 1 and Model 4 for sample 2). In comparison with Model 1, Model 2 was a better fit to the data on account of a significant chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2(38) = 5212.26, p < 0.01$) for sample 1. Similarly, in comparison with model 3, Model 4 was a better fit to the data on account of a

significant chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2(10) = 17099.92, p < 0.01$) for sample 2. The superiority of Model 2 and 4 (six and five factor models respectively) over Model 1 and 3 (one-factor models) provides some evidence of the convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988) for constructs of both samples.

For testing our hypotheses, we did t-test for gender. We have considered three statistics in the t-test. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance, t-test with equal variances assumed and t-test with equal variances not assumed. For sample 1, barring the variables of distributive justice and deviant performance, all other variables had non-significant Levene statistic indicating that the homogeneity of variances for items other than the above two holds. For sample 2, barring goal clarity and outward focus, all other variables had non-significant Levene statistic indicating that the homogeneity of variances for items other than the above two holds. The variable of union identification (sample 1) had significantly different scores for males and females (significance level at 0.1%; refer Table 3a). The mean value of union identification was higher for males (3.11) than females (2.60) on a scale of 1 to 5. This finding supports hypothesis 1a. The overall scores for identification with union are moderate for males (3.11) but on the lower side for females (2.60).

The variable of organizational identification (sample 2) had significantly different scores for males and females (significance level at 0.1%; refer Table 3b). This finding supports hypothesis 1b. Males had higher mean value of organizational identification (5.71) while females had a lower mean value of organizational identification (5.51) on a scale of 1 to 7.

With respect to outward focus (significance level at 5%; refer Table 3a); the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality state that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males and females (mean values: 3.31 for male and 3.64 for

females on a scale of 1 to 5) in sample 1. Female employees perceive the present outward focus of the organization to be higher as compared to males in sample 1. However in sample 2, the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality (significance level at 1%; refer Table 3b) reveal that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males and females (mean values: 5.66 for male and 5.40 for females on a scale of 1 to 7; refer Table 3b). For sample 1 the mean score of female respondents is significantly higher than those of male respondents while in sample 2, the scores are still significantly different, however as expected this time, male members scored higher than female members. These results support hypothesis 2.

For goal clarity, the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality for sample 1 state that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males as they perceive task goals more clearly as compared to females who are not as much able to discern the aspects of their tasks, although the scores for both the groups are on higher side (mean values: 4.51 for male and 4.3 for female; 1 % significance levels; refer Table 3a). Along the same line, for sample 2, the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality state that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males and females (mean values: 5.97 for male and 5.72 for females on a scale of 1 to 7; refer Table 3b). For both sample 1 and sample 2, the mean scores of male respondents are significantly higher than those of female respondents, thereby supporting hypothesis 3.

With respect to scores on welfare, the t statistics with equality assumed as well as without equality state that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males and females (mean values: 3.36 for male and 3.59 for females; 5 % significance levels; refer Table 3a), with both having moderate scores on the variable in sample 1. Women feel more welfare

measures are being taken by organization as compared to males. While in sample 2, the t statistics with equality assumed as well as without equality show that the mean scores on this variable are also statistically different for males and females (mean values: 5.34 for male and 5.12 for females; 1 % significance levels; refer Table 3b), with both having moderate scores on the variable. This time however as expected, it is male respondents who perceive significantly more welfare as compared female respondents, thereby supporting hypothesis 4.

With respect to variable of distributive justice, the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality state that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males seeing less fairness as compared to females who see greater equity in organization with respect to returns for effort put in (mean values: 3.24 for male and 3.66 for female; 0.1 % significance levels; refer Table 3a) for sample 1. While in sample 2, the t statistics with equality assumed as well as without equality state that the mean scores on this variable are also statistically different for males and females (mean values: 4.87 for male and 4.53 for females; 1 % significance levels; refer Table 3b), with both having the lowest scores among all variable in sample 2. This time however as expected, it is male respondents who perceive significantly more fairness as compared female respondents, thereby supporting hypothesis 5.

Deviant performance had different variances for the two groups (male and female); the t statistics with both equality assumed as well as without equality (significance level at 1%; refer Table 3a) confirm that the mean scores on this variable are statistically different for males and females with males being rated as more deviant as compared to females (mean values: 1.60 for male and 1.33 for female; the scores being low for both the groups, refer Table 3a) for sample 1. The result illustrates that males are likely to be rated as more deviant than the female members of the team by the bosses, thus supporting hypothesis 6.

DISCUSSION

Both samples examined the effect of gender on employee perception regarding welfare mechanisms, identification of employees with unions/organization, justice perception of employees, clarity of goals and perceived outward focus of the organization. In addition, the first sample also examined the perception of supervisors with respect to employees' deviant behavior. Although we did not take exhaustive set of organizational climate variables, we attempted to capture diverse aspects of organizational climate through our surveys of two structurally different organizations. Our study included human relation aspect of perceived welfare and identification with union/organization; rational work related aspect of goal clarity and deviant performance; an aspect of internal processes through perception regarding distributive justice; and open systems perspective through perceived outward focus of the organization.

We expected gender differences in their perception of the organizational climate. Additionally we expected the differences between the two genders to vary depending upon the organizational structure and context. Specifically, if the organizational structure provided support for one group or gender we expected that group to perceive the organizational characteristics more favourably than the organization where no such support was mandated or provided. In the government organization, there were more structured and formal mechanisms for promotions, transfers, leaves etc., as compared to the private organizations. As a result, women perceived more fairness and welfare in the government set up as compared to male respondents. In the private organization however, male members perceived welfare and justice mechanisms in more favourable way as compared to female members as HR practices were virtually non-existent and mostly on an ad-hoc basis. Additionally, the perception regarding

outward focus of the organization also varied between the organizations. In the private sector organization, the core activities focusing on outward aspects like sales, distribution and IT infrastructure services were mostly handled by male employees whereas women employees were mostly relegated to non-core and administrative support activities. While in the government organization, because of policy arrangements, such differential treatments were less likely. Given the general orientation of women to be more innovatively inclined, in supportive environments it is likely that women participants will positively perceive and appreciate outward focus of the organization in a government organization. In the private sector organization however, male members will be more favourably inclined towards viewing their organization as outward focused.

In both contexts however men had better clarity on aspects of work (goal clarity) and identified with aspects of organization (union identification/organizational identification) as compared to women. For these two set of variables, organizational context was not expected to affect the outcomes as the two variables were expected to depend on higher level social realities. On account of women identity still being socially determined as home centric and their career being less enduring (particularly in private organizations), they are less likely to identify with unions and organizations. Similarly, men still contributing in significantly higher numbers in organizations and as a corollary being better networked and equipped are more likely to be clear of their task goals. On account of insistence of the private organization not to have measures for undesirable phenomena, the measure for deviant performance was not used in the private organization. For the government ~~Govt.~~ organization, men indulged more in deviant behavior as compared to women.

Therefore, all the hypotheses were supported. The study is likely to help managers to view diversity management from two perspectives. First, the two genders differ in their orientations

towards individual attitudes, motivation and outcomes. Managers therefore may consider planning appropriate interventions not only towards improving scores on employee perception regarding these variables but also address differential views of the two genders regarding these variables. Second, managers would also do well to keep the context and structure of the organization also in mind while designing interventions. The need to focus more on specific gender may vary depending on the organizational realities such as policies in the organization. With respect to theoretical contribution of the work, the study has been able to demonstrate the relevance of demographic variable of gender on organizational climate. Also, organizational processes and social realities are likely to influence the effect of gender on the organizational climate.

Limitations and Scope for Future Research

Although we took significant effort and precaution in designing the research, some unanticipated difficulties still could not be avoided. For example, we could not use the measure of deviant performance in one of the surveys on account of insistence of the management. We also had to manage with two different measures with respect to identification: union identification and organizational identification as the private organization was not unionized. Although deviant behavior can manifest as multidimensional construct: performance related, material related and interpersonal deviant behavior, we considered only the overall scale in our analysis. Although we have made an attempt to capture aspects of each domain of organization climate, we have not used the exhaustive set of organizational climate variables. Further, our results are specific to the two organizations and therefore generalizability with structural differences as well as extending the result to differences between government organizations and private organizations may have to be corroborated through further studies. Also, within the organizations, individual differences in perception relating to structural aspects such as avenues

for recruitment, promotion, involvement in core activities etc. could have been captured which in this study was restricted to our judgment based on interviews with HR managers and analysis of documents on policies of the two organizations. Further, gender effect on climate variables may not be significant or be moderated by other organizationally relevant personal, group and situational variables.

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Table 1a: Means, SDs, Reliability and Correlation Statistics for Public Sector Organization (Sample 1)

Sl. No.	Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Welfare	(.74)					
2	Goal Clarity	0.06	(.78)				
3	Outward Focus	0.39**	0.10*	(.73)			
4	Union Identification	0.06	0.09*	0.08	(.90)		
5	Distributive Justice	0.24**	0.04	0.16**	0.08	(.81)	
6	Deviant Performance	-0.04	0.05	-0.07	0.02	0.01	(.94)
7	Mean	3.30	3.53	3.35	3.04	3.25	.77
8	SD	1.02	.42	1.08	1.19	1.05	.48

Note: **Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). N= 545. The values in parentheses are reliability statistics. Please note the low values for Means and SDs for Deviant performance are because of logarithmic transformation.

Table 1b: Means, SDs, Reliability and Correlation Statistics for Private Sector Organization (Sample 2)

Sl. No.	Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1	Welfare	(.88)				
2	Goal Clarity	.68**	(.85)			
3	Outward Focus	.60**	.64**	(.84)		
4	Organizational Identification	.69**	.63**	.60**	(.95)	
5	Distributive Justice	.78**	.58**	.52**	.63**	(.82)
7	Mean	5.32	5.94	5.63	5.69	4.84
8	SD	1.34	1.03	1.19	1.29	1.51

Note: **Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N= 8852. The values in parentheses are reliability statistics.

Table 2: Results of the Model Tests

Model	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Sample 1 (N=545; 470:75)					
Model 1	9.88	0.13		0.37	0.39
Model 2	2.60	0.05	0.06	0.84	0.90
Sample 2 (N= 8852; 7896:956)					
Model 3	135.88	0.12	0.07	0.85	0.85
Model 4	30.24	0.06	0.03	0.97	0.97

Model 1: 1-factor model (all the items loading on one factor) for Sample 1

Model 2: 6-factor model (all the items loading on their respective latent factors) for Sample 1

Model 3: 1-factor model (all the items loading on one factor) for Sample 2

Model 4: 5-factor model (all the items loading on their respective latent factors) for Sample 2

Table 3a: t-Test between Gender Groups (Sample 1)

Sl. No	Dependent Variable	Levene Statistic (Sig. level)	t test with equal variances assumed	t test with equal variances not assumed	Mean for male	Mean for female
1	Welfare	0.97	-2.05*	-1.99*	3.36	3.60
2	Goal Clarity	0.07	3.12**	2.87**	4.51	4.30
3	Outward Focus	0.74	-2.48*	-2.54*	3.31	3.64
4	Union Identification	0.20	3.49**	3.66**	3.11	2.60
5	Distributive Justice	0.01	-3.55**	-4.19**	3.24	3.66
6	Deviant Performance	0.00	2.87**	4.57**	1.60	1.33

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3b: t-Test between Gender Groups (Sample 2)

Sl. No	Dependent Variable	Levene Statistic (Sig. level)	t test with equal variances assumed	t test with equal variances not assumed	Mean for male	Mean for female
1	Welfare	.70	4.80**	4.80**	5.34	5.12
2	Goal Clarity	.00	6.99**	6.66**	5.97	5.72
3	Outward Focus	.00	6.26**	5.98**	5.66	5.40
4	Organizational Identification	.91	4.43**	4.49**	5.71	5.51
5	Distributive Justice	.77	6.63**	6.63**	4.87	4.53

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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“ The
unexamined
life is not
worth living ”
- Socrates

.Welcome