Citation:
Topic, M and Carbery, C and Arrigoni, A and Clayton, T and Kyriakidou, N and Gatewood, C and Shafique, S and Halliday, S (2021) Women and Networking: A Systematic Literature Review (1985-2021). Project Report. Leeds Beckett University, Leeds.

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#WE CAN

# Women and Networking: A Systematic Literature Review (1985-2021)


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*August 2021*


LEEDS BECKETT UNIVERSITY
LEEDS BUSINESS SCHOOL

Edge Hill University

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# #WECAN

**European Union**
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#WECAN (Women Empowered through Coaching and Networking) is a project led by Leeds Beckett University in partnership with Edge Hill University and SEYH (Social Enterprise Yorkshire & Humber).

The project has a budget of £1.7m over three years, partly funded by partners and partly from the European Social Fund as part of the 2014-2020 European Structural and Investment Funds Growth Programme in England. The Department for Work and Pensions (and in London the intermediate body Greater London Authority) is the Managing Authority for the England European Social Fund programme. Established by the European Union, the European Social Fund helps local areas stimulate their economic development by investing in projects which will support skills development, employment and job creation, social inclusion and local community regenerations.

For more information visit https://www.gov.uk/european-growth-funding.

Version 1
August 2021

Topić, M. et al (2021). *Women and Networking: A Systematic Literature Review 1985-2021.* Leeds Beckett University. https://eprints.leedsbeckett.ac.uk/id/eprint/7951/

# Executive Summary

This report analyses literature on women and networking between 1985 and 2021, as published in women and gender studies journals. Authors analysed a total of 78 articles published in *European Journal of Women's Studies, Feminist Review, Women's Studies International Forum, Feminist Theory, Gender & Society, Journal of Gender Studies, Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies, Signs, Women Studies Quarterly, Feminist Economics, Gender in Management: An International Journal (*previously called *Women in Management Review), Gender, Work & Organization, Feminist Studies, Hypatia* and *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship.* Thematic analysis and three-tier coding have been used in analysing available articles.

Findings reveal that organisational cultures did not change during the four decades of research as boys clubs still exist and take men ahead much more than women's networks take women ahead. Old boys clubs remain persistent and more powerful than women's networks and women do not report benefits from networking even when they engage with this, often seen, masculine practice. Women also report exclusion from important professional networks and this is a theme that consistently runs through research, and additionally, many women cannot join networks due to the social expectation that women will look after families. Networking thus presents a structural barrier and this is visible throughout decades of analysed research, with recurring and repeating themes of networking as a structural barrier, exclusion of women and persistent power and influence of old boys clubs.

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# Introduction

This report comes as a result of the #WECAN (Women Empowered through Coaching and Networking) project[1]. #WECAN aims to increase women's leadership skills and help empower them through coaching and networking, with a particular focus on women working in SMEs in the Leeds City Region. The project is funded by the European Social Fund and administered by the Department of Work and Pensions and it runs for three years (it started in December 2020). Whilst #WECAN is an enterprise project and entails, first and foremost, coaching and training women to give them skills they need to advance in their careers (e.g. coaching qualification, leadership qualification, master classes, etc), it also has a research component.

The #WECAN research conducted at Leeds Beckett University is centred on looking into structural barriers that prevent women from meeting their full potential, and this includes sexism, cultural masculinities and patriarchal projections of expected roles where women are not seen fit to be leaders or achieve organisational equality with men. A large part of what the project aims to achieve is to empower women through qualifications but also networking, and the latter has been something mentioned in women's literature for decades; nonetheless, comprehensive research is needed to inform further research to understand this complex problem, as well as help in designing educational sessions such as #WECAN masterclasses, for example.

It has been known for a long time that networking is part of organisational work and that staff advances through networking. Some research studies have already pointed into the direction that networking disadvantages women and thus, presents a masculine practice. For example, Saval (2015) argued that historically, women stayed at home whilst men worked, which led to the situation that organisations function as masculine with long working hours that were set up by men, who historically did not have to look after families and thus developed a work-first attitude. What is more, Saval (2015) argued that "there was never a question that women would be able to move up the company ladder in the way men could, since it remained unfathomable for male executives to place women alongside them in managerial jobs (…) Men were allowed

[1] https://www.leedsbeckett.ac.uk/leeds-business-school/wecan/

to think of themselves as middle-class so long as women, from their perspective, remained something like the office proletariat" (Saval, 2015, p. 77-78).

In organisational studies, authors have been arguing that organisations function as a masculine world. For example, Alvesson (1998; 2013) argued that men hold higher positions whilst women hold lower positions because organisations work under culturally masculine patterns and meaning that comes more naturally to men than women. This then also lead to the situation that men hold managerial positions which are seen as an anti-thesis to women because these roles traditionally require characteristics commonly associated with masculinity, such as aggression in the approach to work, persistence, toughness, determination, etc. Acker (1990) has called this practice an inequality regime and argued that organisations are gendered because organisational structures systematically and structurally disadvantage staff based on a dichotomy of feminine and masculine.

Whilst these studies focused on a dichotomy of feminine vs masculine, some works have taken this forward and argued that it is not about one's biological sex but about one's social gender that enables one to go ahead in the organisational world, this then leading towards the conclusion that women who embrace masculine characteristics can go ahead, as men do, if they show aggressiveness, toughness, lack of emotion and empathy, etc. In other words, some authors argued that it is the gendered behaviour and communication in the organisational world that affects one's chances of climbing the ladder. These studies use the so-called 'blokishness' approach to illustrate what kind of women go ahead within the organisational world (Mills, 2014; 2017; North, 2009; Ross, 2001; Topić, 2018; Topić & Bruegmann, 2021).

The approach originates from the field of journalism where scholars have argued since the 2000s that women have to become blokish and one of the boys to succeed in newsrooms (Mills, 2014; 2017; North, 2009; Ross, 2001; Topić, 2018; Topić & Bruegmann, 2021). Recently, some studies have conceptualised and empirically analysed blokishness and applied it to public relations and advertising industries where findings also revealed that women who merged to masculine organisational culture go ahead and succeed in advancing to managerial roles (Topić, 2020; 2020a; 2021). Acker (2009) argued that this inequality regime means that in gendered organisations not being able to fit into working patterns designed by men can lead

towards exclusion and control because “the persons at the top of most organisations are likely to be white men; they are very privileged and have great class power compared with most other people in the organisation” (Acker, 2009, p. 3). Acker (1990) links this to the role in procreation which is linked to women, but also argues that workers are conceptualised as men meaning that because of their historical social role in looking after families, women have been excluded from promotions as they were unable to work long hours and socialise with clients after work, which opens a question of the role of networking in the organisational world and its impact on women. In recent studies on women in advertising and public relations, Topić (2020; 2020a; 2020b; 2021), using the blokishness and organisational masculinities approaches, argued that networking is a masculine practice that adversely affects women, primarily working mothers and those women with caring responsibilities who cannot go and socialise with co-workers and clients after hours, but also other women, as many report sexism and sexual harassment when socialising with men, thus arguing – using Bourdieu’s (2007) habitus, that organisations function as masculine habitus.

However, most of the mentioned studies are focused on studying masculinities in organisational culture with networking as just one aspect of the masculine practice that adversely affects women. What is more, the studies mentioned above are conducted within a particular industry context (e.g. journalism, advertising, public relations) or are just general organisational studies observing masculinities in the organisation, but without a specific focus on networking, which floats in the literature as an issue but is not explored sufficiently.

Therefore, as part of the #WECAN project, we firstly embarked on a systematic literature review of literature on women and networking as published in women and gender studies journals to explore what is already known about networking and its effect on women, and what new research is needed on networking to fully understand this problem. The method for the this #WECAN report stems from the EUPRERA project ‘Women in Public Relations’[2] where a systematic literature review disclosed that women in public relations industries face a perpetual circle of discrimination that has reached a full circle. In that, the same issue that was affecting women during the 1980s, such as the glass ceiling and a pay gap, was found in all other decades and it

[2] https://euprera.org/what-we-do/projects/women-in-public-relations/

returned to the research agenda during the period between 2010 and 2019, thus leading to an argument that the discrimination of women has reached a full circle and women continue to work in a discriminatory work environment. The only difference is in what constitutes discrimination: in the 1980s, women reported chauvinism, covert discrimination and bias against women (e.g. that women are not good team players), while in the period between 2010 and 2019, women were labelled through stereotypes such as good communication skills, which then means they continue to work in entry positions and cannot easily progress to managerial roles (Topić et al, 2019; 2020; Aldoory & Toth, 2002; 2021; Aldoory, 1998; 2005).

Therefore, in this report, we are analysing the available literature on networking to explore what is already known to help us support the #WECAN project and also to develop original research in the field. We are particularly interested in understanding what is known about networking and whether networking can be seen as a structural barrier that particularly affects women, thus meaning that networking constitutes a masculine practice.

# Method

To conduct a comprehensive literature review and identify trends in data, we firstly selected the literature review units. Whilst we are aware that some works may have been published in niche journals covering particular industries and academic areas, we decided to focus on women and gender studies journals to explore to what extent has the networking phenomenon been a subject of interest of feminist and women's studies scholars and what is known about networking. The advantage of this research is that it provides a comprehensive overview of research into networking with a specific focus on women, as well as providing an insight into the extent to which feminist scholars have recognised this issue as a form of masculine domination. However, this also presents a limitation because studies on networking published in more specialised journals may have been missed.

We firstly identified all women and gender journals relevant for the analysis using the Scimago list of journals (https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php?category=3318). All general journals on gender and women were considered (not specific journals such as those covering niche areas, e.g. education, focusing on violence, etc.). However, specific journals that were of interest for this research were included (e.g. management field). This selection criterion resulted in the following journals that were selected for the analysis: *European Journal of Women's Studies, Feminist Review, Women's Studies International Forum, Feminist Theory, Gender & Society, Journal of Gender Studies, Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies, Signs, Women Studies Quarterly, Feminist Economics, Gender in Management: An International Journal (*previously called *Women in Management Review,), Gender, Work & Organization, Feminist Studies, Hypatia* and *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship.*

The search for articles was performed using the keyword 'networking' and the search was performed for all journals listed above between March and May 2021. Articles selected for the analysis were those that directly analyse networking as a problem whereas those that only mention networking in the article, and thus appeared in searches because of it, were excluded. Following this selection criteria, a total of 78 articles was accepted for the analysis.

The first finding that emerges from this research is that many women and gender journals did not publish qualifying papers on networking, namely *Frontiers A Journal*

*of Women Studies, Signs, Women's Studies Quarterly, Feminist Studies and Hypatia.* The largest number of articles on networking has been published in *Gender in Management: An International Journal* (including *Women in Management Review* as a precursor to *Gender in Management*), *Women's Studies International Forum,* and *Gender, Work & Organization* (table 1).

**Table 1. Articles per journal**

| Journal name | Number of articles on networking |
|---|---|
| Gender in Management: An International Journal (including with a previous name of Women in Management Review) | 24 |
| Women's Studies International Forum | 18 |
| Gender, Work & Organization | 9 |
| International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship | 6 |
| European Journal of Women Studies | 5 |
| Feminist Theory | 5 |
| Gender & Society | 4 |
| Feminist Review | 3 |
| Feminist Economics | 3 |
| Journal of Gender Studies | 1 |
| Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies | 0 |
| Signs | 0 |
| Women Studies Quarterly | 0 |
| Feminist Studies | 0 |
| Hypatia | 0 |

It seems, therefore, that there is a general lack of interest among women and gender scholars on networking as a woman's or gendered issue, with the number of publications in four decades of research being 78. What appears too is that journals more centred on organizational and managerial affairs published more works on women and networking as opposed to traditional women and feminist journals, which is quite peculiar given that much work has been done on issues faced by working mothers in workforces globally. However, this finding in itself warrants further research into networking with a specific focus on the distinctive position of women and the impact networking has on women.

All articles selected for the analysis are available in appendix I and all selected articles have been read and analysed using the tables available in appendix II. The coding for

articles encompassed analysing key findings, highlights of the article and theories used, and we also took into consideration abstracts, keywords and locations of research, the latter three helping us situate the research and providing a more meaningful analysis.

The selected articles were originally compiled based on the decades in which they were published, namely 1980-1989, 1990-1999, 2000-2009, 2010-2021. As per table 2, the highest number of articles was published in the latest period (2010-2021) and in the period between 2000 and 2009, meaning that the scholarly interest in women and networking is increasing gradually but given that the total number of qualifying articles is 78, the interest is quite low and requires further exploration.

**Table 2. Articles per decade**

| Decade of publication | Number of articles |
|---|---|
| 1985-1989 | 4 |
| 1990-1999 | 9 |
| 2000-2009 | 27 |
| 2010-2021 | 38 |
| Total | 78 |

The data was analysed firstly by decades, 2010-2021, 2000-2009, and 1985-1999. The original intention was to analyse the periods of the 1980s and 1990s separately, however, since the number of articles in both periods is very low and some publications from the early 1990s had data collection occurring during the 1980s it made sense to put these two decades together, thus analysing data across three periods.

The data has been analysed by reading each article and each finding, and coding for the most important arguments from each article and writing notes. Codes were then developed from each article. The codes were developed in groups of articles analysed per decade and the data was continually compared and contrasted throughout the coding process (Straus & Corbin, 1990). The coding was done following the process proposed by Morsing and Richards (2002), which means that triple coding was conducted,

a) Open coding – included identifying critical themes that emerged from each decade. This process enabled comparison and contrasting of data, and this then led towards successful categorisation of codes

b) Axial coding – included exploring the context in each decade and contrasting it with other decades, which then further helped in discovering and analysing recurring themes from each decade
c) Selective coding – enabled identifying the most relevant themes across all decades to provide a general thematic analysis in the analysed period.

Thematic analysis was carried out on each analysed decade of research and a final thematic analysis was then also conducted. Thematic analysis is defined as “a systematic approach to the analysis of qualitative data that involves identifying themes or patterns of cultural meaning; coding and classifying data, usually textual, according to themes; and interpreting the resulting thematic structures by seeking commonalities, relationships, overarching patterns, theoretical constructs, or explanatory principles” (Lapadat 2010, p. 926). This method is not linked to any particular theory and serves as a sense-making approach that helps in reducing large data sets and findings trends (Rohwer & Topić, 2018; Braun & Clarke, 2006) that emerge from data as well as trends in knowledge, which means that thematic analysis is more about identifying trends rather than building theories.

This approach was useful for this research due to the fact it required reading and analysing 78 articles, which can be seen as a large dataset. The method then helped in identifying recurring themes through careful coding. A guide introduced by Braun and Clarke (2006) was followed in the analysis, which means that we read data several times and then performed a three-tier coding process, and the data is presented in a visualised thematic graphs and using direct quotes to illustrate findings.

The main research questions of this research were

• what are the main trends in scholarship on women and networking?

• what research gap can be identified in the literature on women and networking?

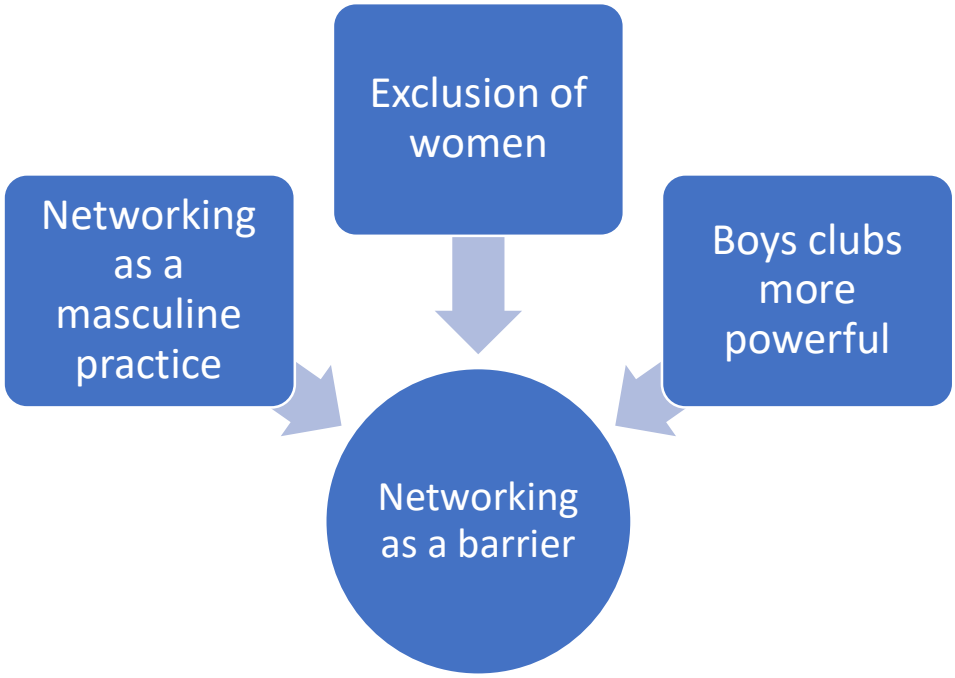
# Findings

Findings reveal similar trends throughout four decades of analysed research, thus scholars reporting women's face exclusion and the persistency of old boys clubs, which did not lose power. The findings are first presented per each decade starting with 1985-1999, and then a final analysis of all four decades of research is presented.

**1985-1999**

As per graph 1, in this initial period, not much work has been done. However, main themes emerge and the research generally follows similar or recurring arguments: the central theme that runs through works in these periods is networking as a barrier towards women's advancement, and sub-themes include networking as a masculine practice, exclusion of women and boys clubs that still exist and are more powerful than women's networks.

**Graph 1. Thematic Analysis (1985-1999)**




According to available research, during the 1980s and 1990s, networking was seen as a barrier for women in the sense that it constituted a masculine practice where women faced exclusion from what was majorly a boys club and these boys clubs were more powerful even when women did try to network to advance their career prospects.

For example, Rose (1989) analysed networking in the US context and argued that boys clubs are still powerful and that men are not responsive to their women colleagues. Thus, women are often excluded from these influential networks where invitations are happening through invites to informal activities such as sporting events or poker games. The author also argued that exclusion from professional networks has serious consequences for careers. Rose's (1989) study was conducted in the context of biology faculty and the author argued that women are missing out on information that helps with career development and also fail to establish a reputation. Similarly, in the Australian context, Ehrich (1994) argued that networking and mentoring is traditionally a male-dominated area and thus it is more difficult for women to access these opportunities as well as using them to increase their power once they access them. Both of these studies are conducted in educational settings, but some studies showed that women mostly seek to network on a personal level and with people they already know (Travers et al, 1997) and where they can build relationships more easily. However, scholars still called for women's networking emphasising benefits such as learning new skills, obtaining support, training, etc. For example, Paul (1985) argued that networks have many benefits such as broadening women's horizons in understanding who does what and what jobs are available, with the author acknowledging that networks are male clubs but still calling for women to try to join. Paul (1985) also emphasised that in-company networks have benefits for women as they can help them succeed to managerial levels. However, as research conducted in periods from 2000 to 2009 and 2010 to 2021 shows, while some improvements have happened, the situation has not changed much and women still face exclusions and socially conditioned issues that impede their career progress.

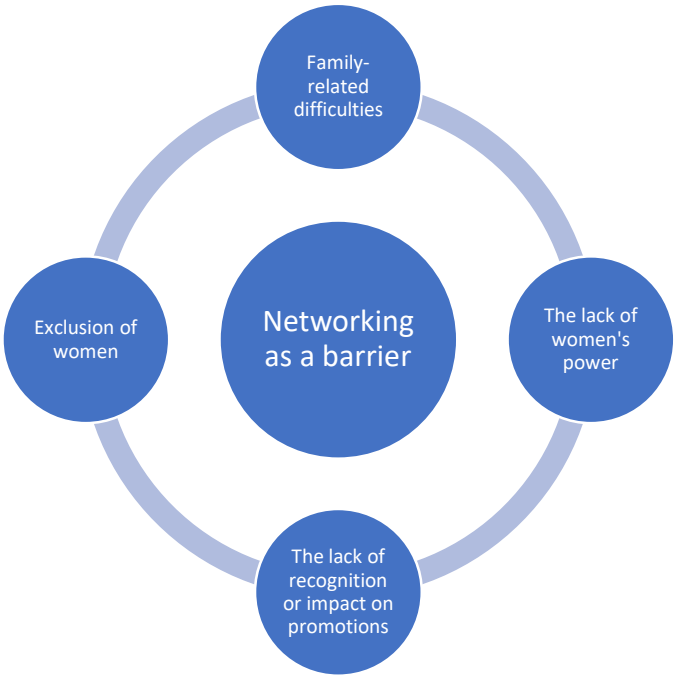
This leads to the next analysed decade, where similar findings have also been found in scholarly research.

**2000-2009**

As per graph 2, in this decade of research networking was mainly recognised as a barrier for women, which is a theme that runs throughout analysed articles as the main one. The sub-themes include exclusion of women, family-related difficulties, the lack of women's power and the lack of recognition or their impact on promotions. Thus, it

does not appear as if much has changed in reported scholarship in comparison to two decades of research (albeit not extensive) analysed in the previous section.

**Graph 2. Thematic Analysis (2000-2009)**




In other words, in this period networking was first seen as a barrier for women and this runs at several levels. Women are first and foremost seen as often excluded from networking opportunities. For example, McGuire (2002) argued that Black and white women are tokenised and - even when they have control of organisational resources and good contacts with powerful organisational members - they receive less organisational support than white men, which the author linked to cultural beliefs according to which men are more valuable as an investment than women. The research also shows that even when women are not excluded they face barriers because of social expectations that women will look after families. For example, in a study by Tonge (2008), women identified more barriers than men to networking and those women-identified barriers included also family and the lack of time due to the dual role women play.

However, what is most problematic in identified research is that women lack power in two ways. Firstly, there are not enough women in power to enable meaningful networking, which presents a barrier in itself; secondly, even when women do form networks and try to network and go ahead, these networks suffer from the lack of

recognition. For example, Ogden, McTavish and McKean (2006) argued that women in the UK face more barriers in the industry especially because of networking and the long-hour culture, which then leads some women to exclude themselves from working in certain industries or aspects of a certain industry, such as corporate banking. Similarly, van Emmerik, Euwema, Geschiere and Schouten (2006) argued that women engage in both formal and informal networking to a larger extent than men but the link between participating in networking and career satisfaction is still stronger for men than women, thus showing that networking constitutes a practice that predominantly benefits men. What was interesting about this study is that previous studies have shown that men engage with networking more than women, whereas this study found the opposite but little benefit to women. Authors thus argued that "men were able to use their networking activities more effectively (i.e. showing more career satisfaction) than women", which led authors to argue that "perhaps men were motivated to use their networking instrumentally to achieve career goals" (van Emmerik et al, 2006, p. 62). Authors thus suggested that more competency development is needed for women as networking is seen as even more beneficial than mentoring, for example. Secondly, networking for women does not always impact promotions and despite trying to network, many women are left behind. In a study by Tonge (2008), women in UK's public relations identified 17 barriers to networking whereas men identified seven. This study, therefore, suggested that "some younger women were excluded from participating in key networks traditionally composed of individuals who held power in the organization" (Tonge, 2008, p. 500) and women from this study did not recognise discrimination linked to their gender but argued it is their lower position in the organisation. Some of the barriers women identified included also social barriers and time and family responsibilities: however, these findings also indicated that women network more than men, albeit benefit less - which is similar to the van Emmerik, Geschiere and Schouten's study (2006) showing that women suffer discriminatory positions even if they try to engage in masculine practices such as networking.

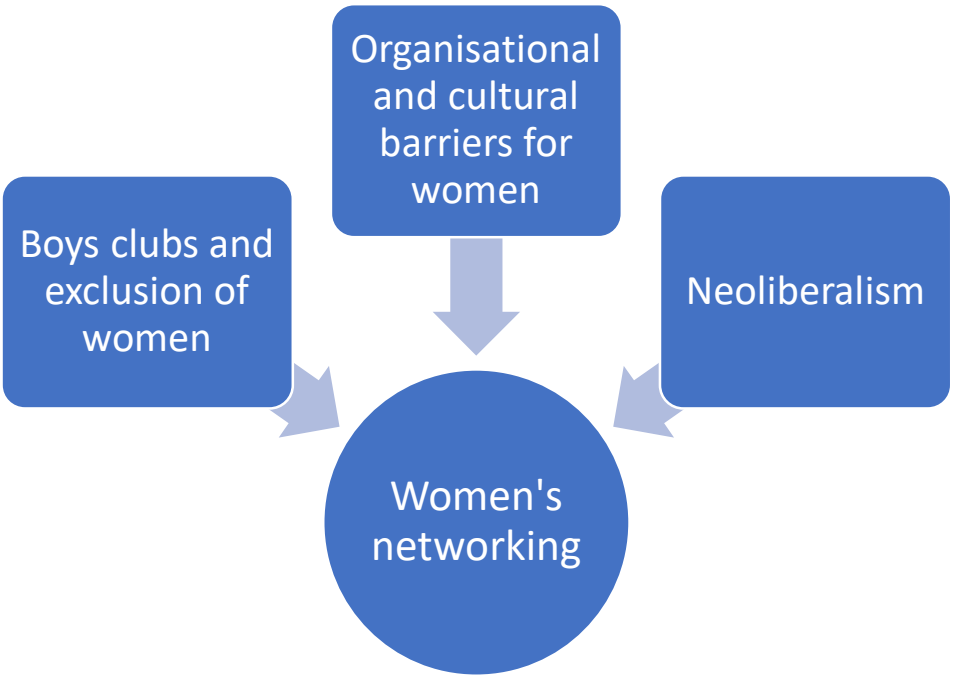
In this period, some works also analysed historical women's networks linking them to activist causes such as Suffragettes (Whitehead & Tretheway, 2008), pro-abortion networks (No author, 2007), domestic violence (Zhang, 2009) and similar. These works provided an interesting overview of how women historically networked to

instigate change in their status, and this is linked to some work that has continued in the final period of the analysis.

**2010-2021**

In this period, in the literature, the research has shifted towards looking at women's networking by forming women's networks and not merely analysing whether women network and how. In that, the sub-themes include boys clubs and structural and organisational barriers, benefits of women's networking and neoliberalism (graph 3).

**Graph 3. Thematic Analysis (2010-2021)**




The literature in this period focuses on women's networking and its benefits as well as barriers women face in networking with a few works also discussing neoliberalism that emerges as a theme from those papers which analyse it directly - but also as an underlying assumption from other works that discuss barriers women face such as individualism and masculine culture. In this period, scholars mainly debated the effect boys clubs have on women and how men exclude women from networking opportunities. Durbin (2011) argued that the persistence of old boys networks is affecting senior women. In that, Durbin (2011) argues that not all networks are open to senior women and this also includes those who manage as men do. This is linked to masculinities in organisations and the fact that whilst masculine women generally

go ahead, in some industries they also face a catch 22 and cannot succeed even if they do embrace masculine leadership styles. Topić (2020) found this in her study on women in public relations in England, where women reported that they cannot progress if they do not manage like men, but when they do demonstrate masculine characteristics and manage as men do then they are considered as too tough and sometimes called ‘bitches’.

Unsurprisingly, what also emerges from the literature is that women do not just face organisational barriers, but also cultural and societal barriers such as family obligations. For example, D’Exelle and Holvoet (2011) argued that women are segregated from women in regards to their networks, which is linked to the gendered division of labour and the fact women have less time to network due to family commitments. The mentioned study was performed in the Nigerian context; however, gender segregation is also present as a finding in other studies. For example, in a Swedish study, Forsberg Kankkunen (2013) argued that networking success is linked to gender segregation, which means that there is a difference in how networks work in female-dominated industries (as opposed to male-dominated industries) and thus there is a notable difference in how networking works in different hierarchies. Equally, in a Sri Lankan study, Hapugoda, Kankanammge and Sheresha (2018) found that women suffer because of the dual role they have in jobs and families and this affects their entrepreneurial networking and causes stress (for more on societal barriers women face, see also Socratous, 2018). This links with a general consensus in the literature according to which women have historically suffered from an expectation that they will look after families, which then impedes their career progress (Saval, 2015).

However, some studies point towards different ways of networking which can be beneficial for women and address the lack of time to attend after-work events, such as women’s reading clubs that happen during working hours. For example, in a study by Macoun and Miller (2014), authors argue that in a neoliberal university setting, networking is crucial for surviving in academia. With feminist scholarship facing institutional pressures and declining, authors argue that these informal networks are crucial for survival and career progression and feminist reading groups have provided “the opportunity to experience and practice alternative ways of performing academia” (p. 298). The authors argue that the academic culture became “stereotypically masculine” and encourages traits such as competitiveness and this enabled

participants to support each other in a feminist environment. One participant in the study spoke of the benefits of this group and said,

> "Outside of my supervisor, when I first began my research at the University I felt very disconnected to the research environment. Discussions about research were combative, and often not very constructive. Once I became involved in the feminist reading group I realised that not all research environments needed to be based on one-upmanship and intellectual bickering. From this group I received constructive criticism and feedback, grounded in a genuine effort by others to support my research and improve the work" (Macoun & Miller, 2014, p. 298).

A similar finding was also revealed in a study by Alsop (2015) who argued that women's reading groups in the workplace can combat boys networks and achieve connection and support women need to go ahead: these forms of networking are seen as beneficial because they provide an alternative space to after-work drinking or attending sports events, which is particularly useful for women and some men who are either uninterested in these activities or they find them difficult because they exist in a masculine environment.

Also, papers analysing how women's networks work show benefits such as emotional support and solidarity, as well as the possibility of using these networks to achieve change from a bottom-up approach, challenging the traditional organisational top-down approach. For example, in a study by Bleijenbergh, Cacace, Falcinelli, del Giorgio and Declich (2021), on Dutch and Italian women networking, authors argued that women networking can create a bottom-up approach and help women advance in their careers by creating pressure and support network that goes up towards the senior management.

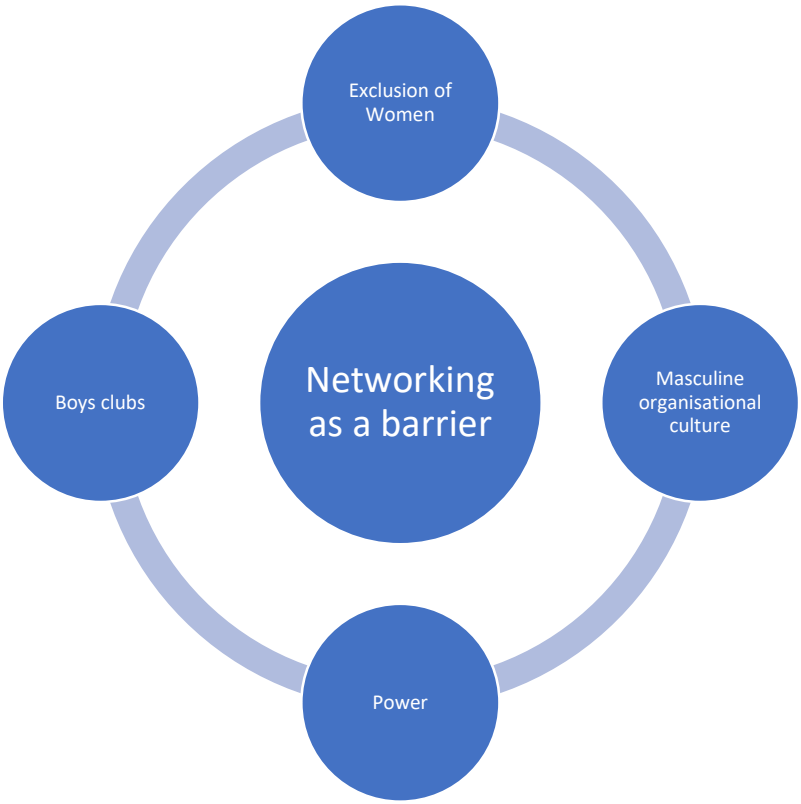
Finally, neoliberalism emerges in the literature in this period. Whilst these articles are not the majority, there seems to be a trend of increased recognition of neoliberalism and its impact on women, which has historically resided in Marxist and ecofeminist scholarship. For example, Blackmore (2011) argued that policies such as individual choice and institutional audit regimes are neoliberal; however, these are mainly applicable to men because "while the changing social relations of gender are transforming, familial arrangements and gender subjectivities are reconstituted through social and economic change, the principle of the family remains central to social life, government and modernization. While the principle of democracy is central to modernization, new forms of governance produce and reproduce old and new

modes of exclusion and inclusion. While education is central to the modernization project, its institutional forms and effects alter" (Blackmore, 2011, p.444). Blackmore (2011) also argues that because of an individualistic worldview "individuals are expected to help themselves build social capital through community-based networks, voluntary, commercial and government, and human capital through education to become independent lifelong learners", however, "a tension exists in education policies between the self-managing reflexive and relational subject who understands and acts on their responsibilities, and neoliberalism's self-maximizing, uncaring homo economicus, which is skewed to some men's advantage" (p. 462).

**Final Thematic Analysis (1985-2021)**

Following the analysis per each decade of research, a general thematic analysis has been conducted using data from all analysed periods, 1985-1999, 2000-2009 and 2010-2021. As per graph 4, it appears that networking is seen as a barrier for women throughout decades, and runs as a main theme throughout the data. In that, sub-themes reveal the importance of boys clubs, which has not changed since the early research, exclusion of women (which is reported throughout decades of research) and masculine organisational culture in which men go ahead and women are left behind because boys clubs are more powerful and more recognised than women's networks.

**Graph 4. A General Thematic Analysis (1985-2021)**




Therefore, it can be said that whilst more research has been done and there are studies showing benefits of networking, organisational cultures did not entirely change as boys clubs still exist and take men ahead much more than women's networks take women ahead. Therefore, this leads to the small sub-theme that emerged in the final period (2010-2021) that mentions neoliberalism and how capitalism affects women - in a sense that the founding postulate of capitalism resides in individualism, but with family responsibilities, women have additional pressures that make it harder to succeed and give it all to work.

# Conclusion

In conclusion to this analysis, it seems that there is a gap in terms of networking among women working in SMEs in the UK with only a few papers tackling this issue, mainly from the point of entrepreneurship rather than looking at SMEs and their distinctive business models and industries in which they operate. Also, not much work has been done generally on women in SMEs with a particular focus on how SMEs operate and what networking differences might be in place regarding various industries in which SMEs operate. Therefore, there is a prospect for the #WECAN project to contribute to knowledge by looking into networking among women in SMEs.

The existing literature, as explained in the findings section, agrees that women face barriers in networking and also that networking in itself presents a barrier for women due to also social expectation of women in regards to looking after families and exclusions they face due to persistent character of old boys clubs. Therefore, there is a need to further explore these barriers in the SME context, which is relevant because a recent study, for example, showed that women working in SMEs suffer from even more barriers than women in the corporate world (Kollewe, 2021), thus opening up a question whether networking in the SMEs world is perhaps an even larger barrier to women than what has become apparent following this research study.

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# APPENDIX I: List of Papers (Newest to Oldest)

Bleijenbergh I., Cacace, M., Falcinelli, D., del Giorgio, E., & Declich, G. (2021). How Dutch and Italian women's networks mobilize affect to foster transformative change towards gender equality. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 28(1), 10-25.

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# APPENDIX II: Full Paper Details

**Reference**

Bleijenbergh I., Cacace, M., Falcinelli, D., del Giorgio, E., & Declich, G. (2021). How Dutch and Italian women's networks mobilize affect to foster transformative change towards gender equality. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 28(1), 10-25.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
|---|---|
| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article contributes to the debate about the role of affect in transformative change towards gender equality, by comparing the building of affect in two recently founded women's networks in Italian and Dutch universities. By conceptualizing networking as a social and cultural practice that organizes a collective body through the building of affect between specific groups of organizational stakeholders, we reveal the emotional, dynamic and context-dependent character of transformative change. We found that similar women's networks build affect with organizational stakeholders in different ways, shaping boundaries of different collective bodies through emotions and adapting to the cultural meaning attributed to earlier actions. By bridging bottom-up and top-down approaches to gender equality and tailoring the building of affect to the local context they potentially contribute to transformational change towards gender equality. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Affect<br>• Gender equality<br>• Practices<br>• Transformative change<br>• Women's network |
| **Country** | • Italy and Holland |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • How creating an effect within women's networks can contribute to the success of a bottom-up initiative |
| **Theory Used** | • Comparative case study<br>• The Established and the Outsiders – Elias and Scotson (1965) |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"Women's networks are both praised for their benefits for women's careers (Vinnicombe et al., 2004) and criticized for focusing on 'fixing the women' without | |

transforming the gender relations of the organization (Ely and Meyerson, 2000a, 2000b)" (p. 11).
"Transformative change towards gender equality refers to 'addressing and trying to change gender as a structure' (Benschop and Verloo, 2011: 283, italics added to the original text), thereby challenging power relations within organizations." (p. 11).

"Transformative change happens when individual and collective agency becomes integrated with structural dynamics in organizations (Archer, 2003)" (p. 11).

"With white men being the dominant group in organizations, women and minorities as a group have less access to and need to invest more time and effort in informal networks that are based upon homophilous interactions." (p. 12).

"The analysis suggests that the exchange of experiences in a physical setting of sitting around tables supported feelings of recognition and comfort (Colgan and McKearny, 2012). The physical setting fostered the idea that all women (and some men) participated on an equal level despite different disciplinary backgrounds and hierarchical positions." (p. 17).

"Existing women's groups consisting of feminists of an older generation were the first actors the new women's networks had to relate to. In both cases, this relation was not self-evidently affective from the beginning. This resonates with literature about feminist generational conflict (Dean, 2012)" (p. 18).

"Comparing the two cases suggests how emotions shape transformative change, grounding the effort for change in sharing experiences between individuals and groups and so triggering a bottom-up mobilization towards gender equality, which counteracts merely managerial and top-down approaches to gender equality in organizations." (p. 21).

"Networking is a practice which 'is basically constituted by people's actions and thus is inherently socially constituted' (Berger et al., 2015: 40)." (p. 21).

"By building affect they support reciprocal recognition and cohesion among women and support them to more successfully mobilize and negotiate change with the leadership" (p. 22).

**Reference**

Walsh, A. (2020), Feminist Networks facilitating access to Misoprostol in Mesoamerica. *Feminist Review, 124*, 175-182.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
|---|---|
| **Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)** | 'When you are in that situation you really feel the chains, like you are in a cage, that you can't make your own decisions [...] you can't trust anyone, you can't receive medical attention, you have to do things you never imagined, like buying illegal substances, and on top of everything you are risking your health, without really knowing what will happen to your body. (Anna, abortion rights activist, Honduras)'<br>*A quote used as an abstract to illustrate the context of the article.* |
| **Keywords (5-7)** | • Transnational Feminist Networks<br>• Legal/ social contexts<br>• Risk |
| **Country** | • MesoAmerica (Southern Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador) |
| **Key Highlights (3-6 – be brief in the summary)** | • The use of underground networks to abate political/social and cultural barriers to abortion.<br>• Motivation Feminist solidarity rather than financial gain<br>• International organisations linking with activists to deliver change at localised levels. In this case where abortion is either illegal or socially unacceptable. The partner institutions being 'Woman help women' and 'women on the web.' |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Feminist theory |

**Key citations from the article**

"Compassionate care and emotional support can be just as important in this process as providing information and medication" (p. 177).

"In all cases, the activists identified access to information as the principal obstacle towards obtaining a safe abortion. In Guatemala, both Alejandra and Claudia highlighted the rural/urban divide: even though the women who seek them out may be from other parts of the country, they mostly live in the capital city and have access to the internet or a phone. (Rural/Urban divide on access to Networks whereby care and compassion cannot be easily translated via technology. If of course they have access to it in the first place" (p. 180).

“According to Anna, ‘my experience made me question why things are this way where I grew up: it’s not possible for me to fight against the system, or change the laws because the political context in Honduras is very complex, so maybe all that’s left for us is to accompany other women’ (p. 180).

“Although the networks primarily function at the local level, there are incipient connections being made across borders as activists begin to exchange information, strategies and medication.” (p.177).

**Reference**

Mwatsiya, I. (2019). Gender constructions in Africa: A systematic review of research findings from the informal support networks of abused women. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 77, November–December 2019.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Analysing gender as a social category as opposed to an individual identity enables a more critical analysis of gender. When we analyse gender as a social category, we begin to see how it influences individuals' social status as well as the level of access to resources and the freedoms which individuals may enjoy. This paper focuses on the gender constructions of the members of the informal support networks of abused women in order to understand how gender is constructed across various African communities. The paper presents a PRISMA guided qualitative synthesis of the research findings of 79 sources including research reports, newspaper articles, books, journals and research studies conducted in at least one African community between 2000 and 2018. The review established that gender was majorly constructed in ways which prioritized the interests of men in the religious, social as well as professional domains. The need to foster more equitable gender constructions is ever present in light of the results of this review. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • African gender constructions<br>• Informal support networks Abused women<br>• Cultural traditions and gender |
| **Country** | • Africa |
| **Key Highlights (3-7 – be brief in the summary)** | • Removal of tribal signifiers of masculinity resulted in violence against women.<br>• Construction of gender at the social level.<br>• Informal networks at a social level.<br>• Informal networks are constructed around the invulnerability and dominance of men. Women are viewed to be vulnerable and subordinate.<br>• Informal networks as gendered spaces. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Critical, comparative social constructivism |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“The gender ideologies of informal support networks particularly interesting and possibly more reflective of prevalent gender constructions” (p. 2).

“It was dominantly acceptable amongst members of informal support networks that men had the right to exercise power over all other family members and that men had to be consulted for all decisions regarded as major household decisions” (p. 4).

“Women were expected to relate to men's authority from a subordinate position which did not challenge this authority (Angel-Urdinola & Wodon, 2010). The expectation for women to relate to men from subordinate positions was constructed as respect” (p. 4).

“Unmarried women faced social stigma (Van der Watt, 2015) and as such not being married was perceived as a punishment for women who did not adhere to social constructions of respect” (p. 5).

“…most of the evangelist churches in Burkina Faso, Zimbabwe and South Africa were complicit in the oppression of women owing to the silence of these churches on issues of gender” (p. 5).

“Lynch et al. (2010) established that informal support network members used the metaphor of “men dying like sheep” to illustrate how even whilst undergoing pain, men were not expected to seek help but rather to shun the expression of their feelings just like “…… a sheep dies without making a sound” (p. 25).

“This dualism of the home and work domains continued to further the marginalization of women in the world of work” (p. 5).

“…challenge systems which are based on tradition as such systems quite often tend to leave little space for negotiation but rather emphasize conformity to the norm” (p. 6).
“Informal support net-works had expectations for women to dress and conduct themselves in ways that showed recognition of the perceived insatiability of men's sexual desires” (p. 6).

“Therefore, the idea that men are innately entitled to authority over women needs to be challenged in order to make progress in the fight against gender inequality in general and the abuse of women in Western knowledge systems, particularly in Western feminism, motherhood is rarely portrayed as a position of power but rather as one of subordination” (p. 7).

“… in a context where there have been shifts, women's greater engagement in the workplace, has not eased their care burden or notions that men have an equal responsibility in this regard” (p. 8).

“More power and privilege and less accountability and responsibility seem to be accompanying the masculine gender. The need to transform the gender

constructions of informal support network members remains an important task" (p. 8).

**Reference**

Krauss, A. (2019). The ephimeral politics of feminist accompaniment networks in Mexico City. *Feminist Theory*, 20, 37-54.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article examines the tension in Hannah Arendt's thought between the creativity of political action and the worldlessness of labour in light of fieldwork with feminist activists in Mexico City. Drawing from my ethnographic research, I explore how labour and action are knitted together in the feminist practice of accompanying women who seek safe abortion in the city. Bringing Arendt's thought into dialogue with anthropologies ofillness experience as well as the reflections of my interlocutors in the field, I shift from an approach to the situation of abortion as a decision-making event, to ask other questions about autonomy and dependency, freedom and necessity, mortality and pol itical life. I argue that what is interesting about Arendt's conceptualisation of the labouring body is not that she separates 'bare life' from the political sphere of 'men', but rather that it alerts us to the uncertain way our life is implicated with others. In conclusion, I argue that feminist accompaniment networks foster an ephemeral relation of care between activists and women in situations of abortion, one that invites us to re-imagine the temporality of political action and to ask, again, what it is to make a new world versus make *this* world livable. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Abortion<br>• Affective labour<br>• Ethics of care<br>• Feminist activism<br>• Freedom<br>• Hannah Arendt<br>• Mortality<br>• Political action<br>• World-making |
| **Country** | • Mexico |
| **Key Highlights (3-8 – be brief in the summary)** | • |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name: |

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| | • Marxist Materialist Feminisim<br>• Hannah Arendt's conceptual tripartite of labour, work and action, 'Natality' |

**Key citations from the article**

"Marxist Materialist feminist Selma James writes in her introduction to The Power of Women and the Subversion of Community that 'we inherited a distorted and reformist concept of capital itself as a series of things which we struggle to plan, control or manage, rather than as a social relation which we struggle to destroy'" (p. 38).

"… the exploitation of domestic labour stems from women's isolation within the household – which is paradoxically productive for capital in so far as women's activities prepare and discipline the husband and the child for work" (p. 38).

"I remember feeling completely ungrounded in the situation. In retrospect, it has come to mark the tension between the conditions of ephemer ality under which accompaniment unfolds and the feminist aspirations for a durable network of solidarity" (p. 43).

"This is an apt description of many of the professionalisation activities that the women in the Paulina Network value very highly, but at the same time Riles' narrow focus on the reflexivity of knowledge practices obscures the potential action involved in feminist activism (Day and Goddard, 2010; Grewal and Bernal, 2014)." (p. 45).

"We acted together out of necessity in the present, without an anchor in the past or a shared project into the future." (p. 45).

"In this sense, the affective labour of attention, or its withholding, has the power to interrupt the automatism of the institution." (p. 48).

"I guess the fact that we are only there in this moment... of this woman.. . and she is likely to be living a situation of violence or something that goes well beyond what we can do, but the intention of accompaniment is exactly this: to support her so that she can search for supportive relationships, by turning to other relationships or by broadening a little bit the networks that she already has." (p. 48).

"The ephemeral conditions of accompaniment invite us to re-imagine the temporality of political action. What is it to make a new world versus to make this world livable?" (p. 48).

"One could argue for the natality of feminist accompaniment networks in that they create a web of supportive moral relationships, or transient 'counter-publics'," (p. 50).

"Care, as political action, refers to a way of doing, a quality of attention to what is important, which often escapes us and is therefore always in tension

with the possibility that we do not see what is right before our eyes (Cavell, 1984; Das, 2007; Laugier, 2009).” (p. 50).

**Reference**

Hasunuma, L. (2019). Beyond formal representation: Case studies of women's participation in civil society in Japan. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 72, 1-8.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Japan is the third wealthiest country in the world and its women are the most highly educated and literate among the 144 countries included in the 2017 Global Gender Equality report issued by the World Economic Forum. Yet, according to this report and the Inter-parliamentary Union's data on women across national legislatures, Japan ranked 114th out of 144 countries for gender equality, and 159th out of 193 countries[1] for the percentage of women in its national legislature. These international reports document persistent gaps in Japanese women's representation, rights, and opportunities in politics and the economy, yet by going beyond formal representation and a focus on the official institutions of political power in the society, which are and have been dominated by men, women's labor, leadership, and contributions become more visible. What are the implications for Japan's democracy when women's political participation and leadership are segregated into spaces outside of the formal institutions of power? Through three case studies, this article shows how and why some women engage in this sphere, and how their different identities and interests shape the nature and the meaning of their participation in civic life. Further, qualitative analysis provides insights into the complex and multidimensional ways in which women participate in political life in Japan |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women Activism Civil society Japan<br>• Volunteers 3.11<br>• Transnational networks |
| **Country** | • Japan |
| **Key Highlights (3-9 – be brief in the summary)** | • The role of mother and carer on outcomes for women in employment in Japan.<br>• How identities are influenced via culture. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory used** |

| | • Institutional Theory |
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**Key citations from the article**

"Just as the Japanese labor economy segregates women into part-time and flexible positions with little room for career advancement, women's labor in politics seems to be directed into the informal, unpaid volunteer sector or civil society" (p. 1).

"They find fulfillment and meaning in engaging in such activities and may not be motivated by feminism or gender equality, but by other rewards related to their values about family, community, faith, or service" (p. 1).

"These women may not even identify their labors as political and may tone down their speech and framing at times to be heard by male officials" (p. 2).

"The women of Japan may be marginalized from the formal institutions of power because of prevailing gender norms and the very high costs of time and money a candidate needs to succeed in Japan's electoral politics, which are dominated by men, but they assume varying degrees of leadership, agency, and political efficacy in this sphere" (p. 2).

"… neoliberal reforms paved the way for delegating more responsibilities to the volunteer sector and civil society. Those with the most valuable resource of time, such as retirees and women who do not have to work full-time are increasingly occupying and influencing this important civic space" (p. 3).

"Housewives and retired women and men tend to dominate civil society and volunteer work (…) but at the national level, most of the initiatives focus on women's roles in the economy and how they can be harnessed to help the government manage its rapidly ageing and shrinking society" (p. 3).

"…there are powerful ideas of the proper role of women, especially as mothers, this can keep average working and non-elite women out of public life at higher levels" (p. 4).

"Because women do not wish to be seen as political activists, they downplay their political activism in the hope that their concerns will be better received by the local government officials if they are less confrontation" (p. 5).

"… women who engage in political actions are reluctant to call their work political, and view their activism as an extension of their gendered roles as mothers" (p. 7).

"In all three of these cases, we saw the importance of networks for women, especially pre-existing ones that are part of transnational networks, and the role that education and foreign language can play in some, but not all of these cases when it came to assuming leadership roles and filling in the gaps in policy and services that exist in their communities" (p. 7).

" Women use the channels, norms, and methods available, and these depend on a woman's identity as a mother, wife, pastor, or career woman, and the resources available to her" (p. 7).

**Reference**

Socratous, S. (2018). Networking – A male dominated game. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 33(2), 167-183.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>Using primary data from an online survey in addition to 29 semi-structured interviews among chartered accountants and academics in Cyprus, originally collected for the purposes of a PhD research, this paper aims to investigate the importance of networking with regards to women's progression in the workplace, as well as the barriers women are faced with in their attempt to "play" the networking game in according to the male rules.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The use of an inductive approach was considered appropriate since there is little existing research on gender issues in Cypriot organisations. For the purposes of the study, a two- step qualitative approach was taken. Step 1 was an online survey with both closed and open-ended questions delivered to employed Cypriot men and women. Step 2 of the study comprised semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The interviews were conducted with specific, preselected employees, both men and women, comprising chartered accountants from the BIG Four companies in Cyprus and academics working at the University of Cyprus.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The research reported in this paper suggests that while there is the perception that men and women share the same opportunities within the workplace and women do not progress by choice, there appear to be various structural and cultural influences at play. It is clear that women are restricted from networking opportunities either intentionally or due to cultural and societal norms and this results in minimising their chances of breaking the glass ceiling and |

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| | progressing to the top of the organisational ladder.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The research focuses on the impediments women in Cyprus are faced with in their attempt to network. There is no previous research on this subject in Cyprus. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Culture<br>• Networking<br>• Cyprus<br>• Glass ceilings<br>• Progressing |
| **Country** | • Cyprus |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-10 – be brief in the summary)** | • Structural/cultural norms restrict networking opportunities for women.<br>• There are minimal chances for women to have the CHOICE to move to the top.<br>• The potential impact of national culture on networking opportunities for women. Formal and informal. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Social Constructivism |

**Key citations from the article**

"The recruitment, hiring and development of managerial women are increasingly seen as a bottom-line issue related to corporate success (Davidson and Burke, 2004, p. 2)" (p. 168).

"What women are experiencing when trying to penetrate these networks is called "brokerage across a reinforced structural hole" (Burt, 2015, p. 149)" (p. 168).

"Homophilous networking refers to the preference of individuals to interact with people who have similar characteristics with them such as gender, race or education while heterophilous networking refers to interaction with people baring dissimilar characteristics (Ibarra, 1992). A lack of senior women in organisations, especially in high ranked positions, makes it harder for women to practice homophilous networking, while this is mostly the case for their male counterparts (Alsop, 2015)" (p. 169).

"However, it has not been investigated whether women have opportunities for networking or if they are faced with any barriers especially those that are culturally driven. Previous studies have suggested that "networking activities are influenced by marital status, education and gender (Gibson et al., 2014). For example, it was specifically noted that women in the study faced difficulties in networking due to family obligations (Tonge, 2008)" (p. 170).

“Women are more reserved especially when dealing with male clients. I think that women might feel that they would be misunderstood within the society if they are seen with male clients (Female 23, Accountant, late 20s)” (p. 176).

“Also, due to our culture where men are superior to women it provides men with this superiority syndrome so it makes it easier for them to talk to people while women are more restrained and more self-conscious at least in our culture (Female 6, Academic, late 40s)” (p. 176).

“Another good way of networking is to take on sabbatical leave and go to another university and work with other academics abroad. However, this is hard especially when you have family obligations. This would be even harder for a woman I guess [.. .]. It is easier for a man to leave his family for some time than for a woman to visit other universities in other countries (Male 14, Academic, late 30s)” (p. 177).

“According to the replies of the participants, men, using their agency, intentionally exclude women from these activities due to the fact that they believe that they will not fit in or/and because they feel that women will not be interested” (p.177).

“…traditional family values placed many constraints on women. By 1960, the gender line was deeply rooted; the natural place to find a man was the coffee shop, while women were settled at home (Loizos, 1981) in the words of Cockburn (2004, p. 49) “traditional family values placed many constraints on women” (p.178).

“In general, as has been identified by the findings of this research women are being, intentionally or not, excluded from networking and wide business activities. It seems that cultural norms are the main issue” (p. 178).

“However, even if women form their own networks they will still be faced with difficulties due to their family obligations and lack of structures to support them in their role as mothers (Socratous, 2016)” (p. 178).

“It is clear that women are restricted from networking opportunities either intentionally or due to cultural and societal norms perceptions that women should be the primary caregivers for children are not restricted within the society, but are embedded and affect development within organisational structures and cultures also” (p. 179).

**Reference**

Ozkazanc-Pan, B & Clark-Muntean, S. (2017). Networking towards (in) equality: Women entrepreneurs in technology. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 25(4), 379-400.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Deploying a multidimensional framework focusing on individual, organizational and societal factors, we investigate gendering practices through which women entrepreneurs become disadvantaged in the technology sector. Through qualitative fieldwork, we focus on women entrepreneurs' experiences networking to access valuable entrepreneurial resources and examine the role of technology incubators and accelerators in facilitating this access. These organizations have the potential to mitigate gender inequities by adopting gender-aware practices such as increasing access to networks and resources that might otherwise be unreachable for women technology entrepreneurs. Focusing simultaneously on the complex intersections of networking, organizational practices at incubators and accelerators, and institutionalized gender norms in society, we outline how different gendering practices work separately and in tandem to marginalize women technology entrepreneurs. We observe that these organizations engage in 'gender neutral' recruitment practices and promote transactional networking which result in the replication rather than eradication of gender inequality. Moreover, organizational attempts to address 'gender issues' as they relate to technology entrepreneurs re-inscribe rather than disrupt societal gender norms. Our research offers new insights for understanding the interrelated individual, organizational and societal factors contributing to gender inequality in technology entrepreneurship and provokes discussion on the possibilities for social change. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Accelerators<br>• Exclusion<br>• Feminist<br>• Gender inequality<br>• Social networks<br>• Women entrepreneurs |
| **Country** | • United States |

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| **Key Highlights (3-11 – be brief in the summary)** | • Questioning the instrumental approach to networking |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Critical, multidimensional feminist theory adopted through empirical research on structures and experience. |

**Key citations from the article**

"Contacts within social networks are able to provide or connect entrepreneurs with resources, opportunities, information, labour, skills and other important contacts necessary to build entrepreneurial social capital (Greve & Salaff, 2003)" (p. 380).

"… women working in gender non-traditional fields, such as technology, have reduced social capital (Sappleton, 2009), which may lead to their marginalization from 'information, influence, and solidarity benefits' and thus, suppress entrepreneurship (Light & Dana, 2013, pp. 603–604)" (p. 380).

"Understanding how women enact networking on their own terms, how organizational structures force particular 'choices' on/for women and how societal 'inequality regimes' (Acker, 2006) become reproduced in the context of technology entrepreneurship" (p. 382).
"Moreover, women entrepreneurs often lack connections to informal social networks, such as the 'old boys club' in organizational contexts several women entrepreneurs did not know what the purpose of incubation was or only had a vague notion with misperceptions (e.g., that incubators/accelerators are primarily corporate-sponsored, are only found in Silicon Valley or are only places with cheap rent)" (p. 385).

"An analysis of individual social networks cannot be decoupled from the structures that give way to such behaviours (Ibarra, Kilduff, & Tsai, 2005; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001), most of the women entrepreneurs in our study continue their own networking practices, which reflect a relationship-building rather than transactional approach" (p. 386).

"Bonding practices promote social capital through communal-focused, internal engagement within a collectivity in contrast to bridging, which describes the use of external links to develop social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002)" (p. 387).

"Thus, women entrepreneurs are in a double-bind — they rely on strong ties out of necessity and are somewhat buffered from the significant barriers of the technology sector but at the same time, they are not privy to the information and access to individuals that weak ties can provide how these social networking activities reproduce disparities along dimensions of gender (Benschop, 2009) remains largely ignored as women are given advice around how to gain access. In as much as women are required to change their own practices" (p. 387).

“Put differently, women entrepreneurs rely heavily on formal institutions and family members when seeking assistance for their business (Loscocco, Monnat, Moore, & Lauber, 2009)” (p. 388).

“We are not part of the conversation. Not being a part of the network is a conversation we are not part of. Women do not seem themselves as part of it [high-tech business incubation]. (Rachel, entrepreneur)” (p. 389).

“Within this context, women interviewed expressed strategies that included downplaying their position and power in response to perceived societal discomfort with successful female entrepreneurs. Others expressed a combination of discomfort and ambivalence; some responded by accepting societal gender norms” (p. 391).

“The interdependent nature of these individual, organizational and societal factors supports the creation of the ‘perfect storm’ whereby ‘familiar kinds of sex discrimination that are operative throughout society … take on particular forms and force as they converge’ (Antony, 2012, p. 231)” (p. 392).

“… they were not willing to change practices related to recruiting more women technology entrepreneurs under the assumption that their existing forms of outreach and support were yielding the ‘best’, which was generally young, male entrepreneurs” (p. 393).

“The culture is built on modes of connection that are not flexible for women with families. The language of startups and the codes of behaviour that define ‘success’ still predominantly reflect the mythos of the young, male hustler” (p. 393).

“Elise's language reflects a broader assumption in the entrepreneurship field: a woman is a qualifier for entrepreneur, technologist, geek, etc. This practice reflects epistemic erasure of women as knowledgeable in the space of entrepreneurship and instead ascribes them a status of inferiority in relation to the unspoken norm of masculinity” (p. 393).

**Reference**

Hapugoda, S., Kankanammge, A., & Sheresha, N. (2018). What influences the networking behaviors of female entrepreneurs? A case for the small business tourism sector in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Gender Entrepreneurship,* 10(2), 116-133.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>Research investigating female entrepreneurs and their networking relationships has developed considerably over the past two decades. There are, however, few Sri Lankan studies that have specifically focussed on female entrepreneurs in terms of their social networks. This paper aims to examine the important influences on these female entrepreneurs' networking behaviour within small businesses in the tourism sector.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Having established that the social constructionist approach is most suitable for this study, in-depth narrative interviews and observations were deemed a particularly suitable research tool. In total, 14 female entrepreneurs were purposively approached and interviewed. Narrative analysis was used to analyze and interpret qualitative data, which were organized with the assistance of QSR NVivo 10, a software programme.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Competing family responsibilities and business matters (being a good mum and dutiful wife), culture and societal expectations, running a home-based business and building trust were found as main influences on female entrepreneurial networking behaviours. The majority revealed stressful times trying to combine the business with multiple roles and societal expectations.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>Applications of the model in female entrepreneurial networking behaviour are |

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| | suggested, within and beyond the context of the small business tourism industry in Sri Lanka.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>This study enriches the understanding of social networks and social capital based on the experience of Sri Lankan female entrepreneurs, which is influenced by contextual factors of identity, gender and culture. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Gender<br>• Networking<br>• Social constructionism<br>• Narratives<br>• Female entrepreneurship |
| **Country** | • Sri Lanka |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-12 – be brief in the summary)** | • A focus on mentors, personal networks as opposed to age and psychological issues.<br>• A new model for small businesses? |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"Moreover, entrepreneurs have negative attitudes of "doing it alone," and an entrepreneur with this attitude might not see the value in fostering a network (Stephanie, 2010)" (p. 117).

"…academics recommend that researchers seek a more granular understanding, one that considers gender issues as they relate to social structure and culture because of its dynamic and fluid nature" (p. 117).

"A family's lack of understanding, conflicting demands on her time and the challenges of continuing a business can create stress for the female entrepreneur" (p. 117).

"… female entrepreneur may struggle to develop suitable and effective social networks because of the "interrupted" nature of their careers such as child-rearing (Stumbitz et al., 2017). Women who temporarily exit the workforce often may find that their social networks deteriorate, reducing their access to useful business contacts" (p. 118).

"… network ties are particularly important to female business owners, because they enter entrepreneurship with deficits linked to their social position (Welter, 2004)" (p. 119).

“Women’s greater responsibility for children constrains their ability to form strong work-related networks (Kirkwood, 2016; Trevinyo-Rodrıguez and Bontis, 2010; Sharafizad, 2011” (p. 119).

“Four major common themes were identified from the female entrepreneurs’ narratives, and these themes consist of competing family responsibility and family matters, culture, running a home-based business and building trust. Within these major themes, another six sub-themes emerged” (p. 120).

“Oh! Sometimes, I felt like selling the business- my daughter also asks me to. But, how can I? How do I finance my children’s education, tuition fees and their future?” (p. 121).

“Some respondents recall that when they were in their 30s, they had an idea of developing their own business, but they could not find the time for it. For example, Theja (hotel owner/ 49 years old) recalls her plans when she was in her 30s” (p. 122).

“When our son started his nursery, I thought I would be free, so I could develop the business. But once he started to go to nursery, I became busier than I expected” (p. 122).

“In this quote, the mother indirectly reveals her interest in achieving career development, but she could not carry out her plans. Therefore, it is clear that these mothers display tensions between the “primarily mother” and “primarily entrepreneur” roles” (p. 122).

“…the countless responsibilities towards their children constrain the ability of women to form strong work-related networks (Kirkwood, 2012; Sharafizad, 2011” (p. 122).

“Women’s responsibilities as a mother and wife are determined by a diversity of social, religious and cultural values (Silva, 2005; Kodagoda, 2011)” (p. 123).

“Sri Lankan women’s gender identity has been constructed around the idea of a “dutiful wife and caring mother” (p. 124).

“Blisson and Rana (2001) found that the main barriers to existing networks cited by Asian women were attributable to their gender, cultural background and their consequent lack of confidence”(p. 124).

“The result of such discrimination against the physical and mental integrity of women serves to deprive them of equal enjoyment and fundamental freedom (De Mel et al., 2013)” (p. 124).

“Therefore, women have to think twice about the relationships they create, and this has limited their network as women” (p. 125).

“From the above, it is clear that entrepreneurial participation for women depends on much more on the social context than their individual decision. The social

context dictates that women are expected to play many roles in their day-to-day activities" (p. 125).

"According to the respondents, it is much easier setting up a business in one's home place, as no time is wasted in developing a network sufficiently helpful to support the entrepreneurs' business on a daily basis" (p. 126).

"These findings are consistent with Ekinsmyth (2013), who found tensions involved in home-based work in the UK, specifically with regards to isolation, workaholism, space restrictions and a negative influence on home-space and family lives (Ekinsmyth, 2013).

Thus, this research develops an argument that extends the cultural context of entrepreneurial network theory, in that it shows how culture influences the network creation of female entrepreneurs" (p. 127).

**Reference**

Jones, S., Martinez, A., & Dy, N. V. (2018). 'We were fighting for our place': Resisting gender knowledge regimes through feminist knowledge network formation. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 26(6), 789-804.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
|---|---|
| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | The transformative potential of feminist knowledge in the disciplines of entrepreneurship, business and management has arguably been hindered by persistent gender knowledge regimes that marginalize feminist scholarship and channel widely applicable gender expertise into niche streams, conferences and publication outlets. Whilst offering valuable spaces for feminist knowledge production, removing gender expertise from mainstream fora reduces its centrality to broader debates, maintaining its marginality and limiting its impact. Taking a collaborative autoethnographic approach, we explore the formation and development of a UK-based organization for feminist entrepreneurship scholars, the Gender and Enterprise Network, as a means of collective resistance to this perpetuation of enforced marginality. Our network challenges extant gender knowledge regimes and offers transformative opportunities within and outside of our respective organizations, providing insights for others wishing to form similar networks and contributing to ongoing debates on the value and valuing of feminist knowledge. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Feminism<br>• Gender regimes<br>• Knowledge networks<br>• Knowledge regimes |
| **Country** | • United Kingdom |
| **Key Highlights (3-13 – be brief in the summary)** | • The setting up of a formal network for female academics within Higher Education regarding the genderisation of knowledge. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Azocar and Ferree's (2015) concept of gendered expertise<br>• Constructivist ontology and interpretivist epistemology |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“One means by which gender scholars resist subordination is through the creation of feminist knowledge networks (see Rai, 2005)” (p. 790).
“Women are disadvantaged in human and social capital accumulation, network development and by the normative definitions of knowledge itself, which value certain kinds of knowledge over others (Walby, 2011). These structural disadvantages feed into neoliberal expectations of individualized success, responsibility and competition (du Gay, 2004), in which failure is attributed to individual lack of merit or effort“ (p. 791).

“As knowledge production in UK business schools is ‘both heteronormative and phallocentric, while simultaneously presenting a myth of objectivity’ (Sang & Glasgow, 2016, p. 2)” (p. 791).

“Mackinnon and Brooks (2001) therefore argue that a new era of international collaboration in feminist work is required to challenge further entrenchment of capitalist and neoliberal knowledge regimes” (p. 792).

“…mainstream institutionalization of gender knowledge regimes subordinates feminist knowledge, through a variety of formal and informal channels and mechanisms” (p. 793).

“…as a feminist knowledge network, we consistently offer alternatives to the individualistic, masculinist value systems and modes of knowledge institutionalized in our academic institutions and host organization” (p. 793).

“While academic networks are viewed as essential to career development, they are not always accessible to women (Blackmore, 2011), and women's networks can represent a response to inequality” (p. 793).

“…being a gender-focused entrepreneurship scholar can be a lonely experience in a business school’. Similarly, Dr N says, ‘you do not notice any gendered effects on you until you start talking about your research interest in women’. Indeed, many members feel their research focus is not taken seriously” (p. 795).

“Indeed, a robust and critical engagement with feminist theories of gender brings much value to the field of entrepreneurship: developing new voices and perspectives, highlighting entrepreneurship as a diverse phenomenon and critiquing the masculinist, neoliberal conceptions of entrepreneurship in public and academic discourse” (p. 796).

“… (gender) — which has been described, along with race and class, as a ‘zombie’ category that has lost its relevance (Knapp, 2005)” (p. 795).

“… as Dr S recalls: ‘I still remember my trepidation as a PhD student and the warm welcome that I received …’ Founding members’ reflections are filled with narratives around coming together, and the importance of the support that one gives and receives. Dr L explains her becoming an active member‘” (p. 796).

“…we draw on insight from a variety of social positions and are intentional about being as inclusive and egalitarian as possible. This means increasing awareness

of, and actively displacing, the normative Anglo/Eurocentric whiteness and middle-classness of feminist scholarship" (p. 797).

"However, a more critical perspective might be that our host organization has simply co-opted our network (Swan & Fox, 2010), as a form of ghettoization (Mariniello, 1998), faux-feminism (McRobbie, 2004) or, perhaps more positively, for its symbolic value" (p. 798).

"However, we argue that this complicity is inescapable, a result of the way gender knowledge regimes in business schools, driven by neoliberal concerns of individualism and economic growth, position us in the symbolically inferior realm of the feminine (Jones, 2015). Acker (2000, p. 625)" (p. 799).

**Reference**

Conway, J.M. (2017). Troubling transnational feminism(s): Theorising activist praxis. *Feminist Theory,* 18(2), 205-227.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article identifies a misfit between transnational feminist networks observed at the World Social Forum and the extant scholarship on transnational feminism. The conceptual divide is posited as one between transnational feminism understood, on the one hand, as a normative discourse involving a particular analytic and methodological approach in feminist knowledge production and, on the other, as an empirical referent to feminist cross-border organising. The author proposes that the US-based and Anglophone character of the scholarship, its post-structuralist and post-colonial genealogies and the transnational paradigm's displacement of area studies can be seen as contributing to the misfit. The article concludes by arguing for theoretical reconsideration of activist practice, place and the 'posts' – post-structuralism and post-colonialism – in the study of contemporary transnational feminist activisms. This marks an effort to get beyond the binary framework of 'transnational feminism' versus 'global sisterhood' in analysing activist practices within an increasingly diverse and complex transnational feminist field. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Transnational feminism<br>• Transnational feminist activism<br>• Transnational feminist networks<br>• World March of women |
| **Country** | • Canada, America and the Global South |
| **Key Highlights (3-14 – be brief in the summary)** | • The appreciation that Feminist Transnationalism is not merely 'one' collective driven by one theory but a collective devised of many politics and cultures.<br>• The mismatch of two theories of Transnational Feminism. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Differing normative analyses are employe |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

"Instead of Western liberal feminism masquerading as a global sisterhood, Third World feminist critics advocated a transnational and cross-cultural feminist praxis, committed to combating inequalities among women while being sensitive to differences arising from cultural, social and global geopolitical locations" (p. 208).

"Moghadam charts the appearance and development of a number of transnational feminist networks emerging from the mid-1980s to the early 1990s that advocate on broadly convergent agendas integrating gender justice with economic justice and women's human and citizenship rights" (p. 211).

"As a specific organisational form exhibiting a repertoire of common discourses and practices, the TFN is the political creation and organisational expression of transnational feminism" (p. 211).

"Moghadam celebrates the appearance of TFNs as auguring the emergence of global civil society, global democratisation and a transnational public sphere" (p. 212).

"She advocates a materialist or political economy approach to globalisation that attends to political and economic institutions and to dynamics of gender and class" (p. 212).

"The key difference that the World March has politicised on the transnational feminist field is of popular transnational feminism grounded in the organisations and lived realities of poor, rural and working-class women, versus the transnational feminism of highly educated, professionalised, urbanised and globalised middle classes" (p. 214).

**Reference**

Charles, N., & Wadia, K. (2017). New British feminisms, UK Feminista and young women's activism. *Feminist Theory,* 19(2), 165-181.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Over the past few years, we have witnessed a sharp resurgence in feminist activism as young women have become increasingly interested in feminist ideas as a means of making sense of their lives. This resurgence in feminist practice is evidenced by the formation of myriad groups and networks across Britain and the initiation of various feminist projects and campaigns, reported regularly and widely in local and national media. This article examines the renaissance of this new feminism through the example of one of the most active and publicly visible organisations, UK Feminista. It draws on ethnographic research into young women's feminist activism, exploring the emergence of UK Feminista as part of this new wave of feminist activism in Britain. We argue that the wave metaphor has multifarious meanings and that to understand how the political practice of a small feminist organisation contributes to the amplification of this wave of feminist activism it is helpful to draw on concepts developed within social movement theory such as cycles of protest, repertoires of action and collective identities. We show how UK Feminista mobilises young women and provides resources to existing and new feminist organisations and activist groups, commenting particularly on its use of the Internet and social media as a mobilising device. We explore the role of the Internet in young women's engagement with feminism, the forms of activism in which they take part and the importance of feminist cultural memory to the construction of a collective feminist identity. Our analysis reveals the significant part played by a small mobilising structure, UK Feminista, in the resurgence of feminist activism in the UK. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Feminist activism<br>• Feminist collective identity<br>• Feminist cultural memory<br>• Third wave feminism<br>• UK Feminista |

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| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-15 – be brief in the summary)** | • Third-wave feminism focus is upon difference and cooperation.<br>• The view that second-wave feminism is not how feminists today wish to be viewed. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Social Movement Theory |

**Key citations from the article**

“This is particularly evident in discussions of third-wave feminism, which has been criticised for pitting younger against older feminists, for not taking into account the different temporalities of feminist activism around the world (Mackay, 2011; Woodhull, 2003” (p. 166).

“As a result, the politics of the third wave recognises difference rather than assuming a universal identity that women share and which crosses boundaries of class, race, age, dis/ability and nation” (p. 168).

“It engages in a politics of ‘dialogue and cooperation’ (Yuval-Davis, 2006: 281) which recognises that women have different identities but also that they can come together around specific issues (Cockburn, 2007), and demonstrates a reflexive and self-critical concern with intersectionality (Davis, 2008)” (p. 168).

”Moreover, the ‘symbolic construction of the collective identity’ (Della Porta et al., 2006: 62) is part of building a social movement; it depends on a ‘moral and emotional connection’ (Polletta and Jasper, 2001: 285) and takes place in spaces where networks and communities can flourish, both on-and offline (Keller, 2012)” (p. 169).

“According to a survey of 1300 feminists carried out by Redfern and Aune, 70 per cent agreed that ‘the Internet has been instrumental to today’s feminist movement’ (2010: 15)” (p. 171).

“Apart from using the Internet to challenge sexism, many interviewees also used it to meet like-minded people, to discuss feminist issues and to find out about campaigns.” (p. 171).

“This involvement enabled them to move from indoor ‘keyboard activism’ to outdoor street politics and action in campaign groups” (p. 171).

“They had found the resources provided by UK Feminista and the networks facilitated by UK Feminista events invaluable in encouraging their activism” (p. 173).

**Reference**

Bertelsen, R.G., Ashourizadeh, S., Jensen, K.W., Schøtt, T., & Cheng, Y. (2017). Networks around entrepreneurs: gendering in China and countries around the Persian Gulf. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 32(4), 268-280.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>Entrepreneurs are networking with others to get advice for their businesses. The networking differs between men and women; notably, men are more often networking for advice in the public sphere and women are more often networking for advice in the private sphere. The purpose of this study is to account for how such gendering of entrepreneurs' networks of advisors differs between societies and cultures.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Based on survey data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, a sample of 16,365 entrepreneurs is used to compare the gendering of entrepreneurs' networks in China and five countries largely located around the Persian Gulf, namely Yemen, Iran, Saudi Arabia, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Analyses show that female entrepreneurs tend to have slightly larger private sphere networks than male entrepreneurs. The differences between male and female entrepreneurs' networking in the public sphere are considerably larger. Societal differences in the relative prominence of networking in the public and private spheres, and the gendering hereof, correspond well to cultural and socio-economic societal differences. In particular, the authors found marked differences among the religiously conservative and politically autocratic Gulf states.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>As the main limitation to this study, the data disclose only the gender of the entrepreneur, but not the gender of each advisor in the network |

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| | around the entrepreneur. Thus, the authors cannot tell the extent to which men and women interact with each other. This limitation along with the findings of this study point to a need for further research on the extent to which genders are structurally mixed or separated as entrepreneurs network for advice in the public sphere. In addition, the large migrant populations in some Arab states raise questions of the ethnicity of entrepreneurs and advisors.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>Results from this study create novel and nuanced understandings about the differences in the gendering of entrepreneurs' networking in China and countries around the Persian Gulf. Such understandings provide valuable input to the knowledge of how to better use the entrepreneurial potential from both men and women in different cultures. The sample is fairly representative of entrepreneur populations, and the results can be generalized to these countries.litically autocratic Gulf states. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • China<br>• Networks<br>• Arabian gulf<br>• Gender<br>• Entrepreneurs<br>• Iran |
| **Country** | • China, Persian Gulf |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-16 – be brief in the summary)** | • Limited scope in relation to the findings that women access more private networks than men within certain cultures.<br>• The role of conservatism is mentioned yet as the gender of the network advisors is not known this is of limited value. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Theories of networking are mentioned yet no particular one applied.<br>• Four hypotheses are constructed and hierarchical linear modelling is utilised to analyse data. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"The findings of this study point to a need for further research on the extent to which genders are structurally mixed or separated as entrepreneurs network for advice in the public sphere" (p. 268). | |

“The comparison across culture/religion, peace and socio-economic conditions point to further research on the socio-economic and cultural contingencies of male and female entrepreneurs’ private and public networks” (p. 269).

“ Results from these previous studies show that entrepreneurs’ networking differs between the genders in that women are networking especially much in the private sphere and men are networking especially much in the public sphere” (p. 269).

“This study contributes by analyzing the gendering of entrepreneurs’ networking in a set of countries that in some ways resemble each other but in other important ways vary across cultural, political and socio-economic contexts” (p. 269).

“ In an empirical study by Broadbridge and Tonge (2008), it was found that men identified only seven barriers for networking, while women determined 17 barriers for their networking” (p. 270).

“From an institutional perspective, men’s and women’s networking for their firms can be seen as a result of macro-level structures that guide their perceptions of opportunities and constraints associated with their networking behavior, affect their considerations of appropriateness and constitute taken-for-granted beliefs guiding their behavior on a more intuitive basis (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983” (p. 270).

“… the extent to which entrepreneurs’ networking for their firms is gendered likely differs, as it is associated with differences in the institutional configuration of society” (p. 271).

“In short, the gender of the entrepreneurs influences how they are networking in the private and public spheres, and the gendering depends on their context, and thus differs among societies” (p. 275).

“The comparison across culture/religion, peace and socio-economic conditions points to further research on the socio-economic and cultural contingencies of male and female entrepreneurs’ private and public networks” (p. 278).

**Reference**

Avdelidou-Fischer,, N., & Kirton, G. (2016). Beyond burned bras and purple dungarees: Feminist orientations within working women's networks. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 23(2), 124-139.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Is there a feminist ideological undertone when women choose to organise separately, or are their motivations purely instrumental? While this question has been addressed by numerous researchers, most studies are mono-national; most extrapolate meaning from different types of networks/groups, and most do not carry out close examination of network members' orientations. This article explores varieties of orientations to feminism among members of four networks for business and professional women in the UK and Germany. The findings suggest that even within a single network, members' feminist orientations can vary, and can be different from the publicly/officially declared organisational position. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Collectivism<br>• Feminist movement<br>• Gender equality<br>• Separate organising<br>• Women's groups |
| **Country** | • Cases from the UK and Germany |
| **Key Highlights (3-17 – be brief in the summary)** | • "This article has investigated the multiplicity and nuances of feminist orientations in contemporary working women's independent networks (WINs) by placing members in one of four categories: feminist, semi-feminist, post-feminist and anti-feminist. A key finding that emerges from this analytical framework reflects the position of one strand of the literature (e.g. Kelly and Breinlinger, 1996) – that working women's networks cannot be separated from feminism, even in the absence of an explicit declaration by the network itself, because such a high proportion of members express feminist or semi-feminist identities, and even the post-feminists value the legacy of feminism" (p. 135). |

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| | • Is feminism and separatist organising slowly becoming superfluous and irrelevant to the lives of working women in advanced capitalist economies? Overall, this study of Germany and the UK would suggest not (p. 137). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• the article draws on data from a two-year (2009–2010) cross-national (UK/DE) qualitative study of four WINs (two in each country)<br>• in-depth interviews with 55 WIN members<br>• interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The files were imported into the qualitative analysis software NVivo, for coding and further examination |

**Key citations from the article**

"Over the past few decades, an increasing number of researchers have sought to gain a better understanding of the factors that contribute to the growth of networks for business and professional women […] One of the main debates in the literature concerns whether women-only networks are part of the feminist movement or not. Some scholars argue that there is a feminist undertone when women organise separately (McCarthy, 2004a) and that networks for working women are a manifestation of the women's movement (Bock, 2002; Lenz, 2010). Others deem contemporary women's networking to be a mechanism to advance the individual that should not be confused with the political collectivist activities of feminist groups (e.g. Frerichs and Wiemert, 2002; Hack and Liebold, 2004; Perriton, 2006, 2007). This debate about why women organise separately is particularly relevant today amid claims of a third feminist wave (Brunell and Burkett, 2009), or a backlash against feminism and an era of post-feminism (Faludi, 1992), or even the death of feminism (Beste and Bornhöft, 2001). In contemporary labour markets women have more opportunities than ever before (Dicker and Piepmeier, 2003), and the socio-political conditions in which first and second wave feminism emerged no longer exist (Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004). But does this signify that business and professional women who organise separately are not feminists, and do not have feminist goals?" (pp. 124-125).

"Drawing on a qualitative study, this article investigates the multiple possible manifestations of feminism within *independent* networks for business and professional women (WINs) […] distinct from other women-only business networks or professional associations in that they are not industry, organisation or profession related" (p. 125).

"With regard to motivations underlying contemporary women's networks, Hack and Liebold (2004) found that members of women's groups in Germany come together to discuss concerns from a women's perspective seen as distinct from a male perspective. Most participants believed that 'men would flee' (Hack and

Liebold, 2004: 51) if they heard the subjects women discussed, but at the same time they claimed to have joined the group because of its general purpose and not because of the exclusion of men. Hack and Liebold (2004) argue that trust and reciprocity are crucial ingredients of women's networking. However, the strategic and instrumental character of the groups studied leads the authors to suggest that trust and reciprocity should not be mistaken for feminist soli- darity. […] Frerichs and Wiemart (2002: 156) do find some links to feminism and solidaristic collectivism among 'the older generation', but they believe that this orientation is shifting towards costs– benefits calculations as more and more younger women become network members. […] However, for a second stream of British and German literature, contemporary groups for working women remain firmly situated in the feminist movement" (p. 127)

"The stream of research that situates women-only networks in the feminist movement focuses on whether they aim to improve women's lives and change gendered power rela- tions, and on how members perceive themselves in relation to feminism. […] The majority of these studies share two drawbacks. First, it is not always clear what the authors or the research participants define as a feminist group or feminist woman. […] Undeniably, each of these studies constitutes informative empirical work, but by generalising results, the authors fail to show that different network types might not function to the same ends, or attract the same types of women, and their outcomes might also vary" (p. 128)

"The case of Germany provides fascinating material since some research participants came from the former West and some from the former East Germany; thus they had experienced different political/economic systems, and different social arrangements in respect of gender" (p. 130).

"The findings from the two countries are structured around four different orientations to feminism found in the literature (Buschman and Lenart, 1996), and which emerged from the study: feminist, semi-feminist, post-feminist and anti-feminist (Figure 1). The crite- ria for the categorisation of individual women went beyond, but included, initial reac- tions to the words 'feminism' and 'women's movement' and their self-identification. Also included were how participants described the current state of affairs for women, and if gender equality is, or has been, a personal concern and target of their actions" (p. 131)

**Reference**

Bourdil, M., & Géraudel, M. (2016). What are the interpersonal antecedents of women's network satisfaction? A study conducted with French women entrepreneurs. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 31(4), 266-280.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this study is to determine whether women entrepreneurs are satisfied with belonging to a women's network, as this issue is crucial for network performance and legitimacy.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The authors tested the hypotheses on a sample of 127 French women entrepreneurs who belonged to women's networks using multiple regression analysis.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The authors showed that these women entrepreneurs were satisfied when they developed strong ties and when cliques in the network were limited. Education had a negative effect: the higher the educational level, the less satisfaction with their networks the women reported.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>The sample was small and composed only of women entrepreneurs who were members of women's networks and not women who had left them.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>The survey findings suggest ways that managers can optimize network satisfaction to keep current members while continuing to add new ones: create an environment with no cliques where members can develop strong ties. This means connecting members with similar values or status and common interests, while making sure that cliques do not develop. |

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| | **Originality/value**<br><br>To the authors' knowledge, satisfaction with professional women's networks has never been studied. The authors' highlight the role of strong ties in these networks and identify the contingent effect of cliques. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Networking<br>• Social capital<br>• Women entrepreneurs<br>• Network satisfaction |
| **Country** | • France |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • "The following points can be made. First, this study addressed the issue of network satisfaction, which has been understudied according to the literature. Running a women's network requires a real investment of money and energy from the network managers. Satisfying the members is an important issue, as the network will eventually lose its dissatisfied members. Moreover, network satisfaction is central to the members as they also invest time, energy and sometimes money inside these networks" (p. 276).<br><br>• "This might provide complementary advice to the managers of women's networks. In the same vein, it might be fruitful to interview women entrepreneurs who had been members of a women's network but left because of dissatisfaction to learn why they quit. Finally, we could also study women who are part of a mixed network of men and women and explore the antecedents of their satisfaction with belonging to this type of network" (p. 276). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• Social capital theory (Granovetter, 1973; Burt, 1992) to better understand the nature of the social ties that satisfy women entrepreneurs in women's networks. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"The presence of cliques seemed to be viewed negatively and cliques tended to create dissatisfaction. Cliques are subgroups that are closed to "outsiders", and therefore, they do not foster support or resource transfer. The women entrepreneurs apparently did not want to spend time trying to penetrate these sub- | |

groups, and they preferred to meet peers easily in a context of trust relationships. The negative assessment of women's network cliques could be seen as follows: Cliques fragment the social structure and limit support among network members and the circulation of resources. For women entrepreneurs, we showed that cliques were seen as counterproductive in terms of support and the facilitation of resource exchanges. " (p. 275)

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**Reference**

Swartz, E., Amatucci, F.M., & Coleman, S. (2016). Using a multiple method and mixed mode approach to examine women entrepreneur negotiating styles. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,* 8(1), 48-68.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this study is to explore an optimal research design for research on women entrepreneurs involved in negotiating term sheets for private equity capital. This research explores new ways for researchers to connect with such current “invisibles” through the use of a mixed method and mixed mode research design to expand sampling options and secure respondent participation. The authors discuss existing data sets that have been used as secondary sources for data on financing of companies and consider their inadequacy for research questions about process issues in negotiation. The authors present process-related findings regarding the efficacy of the research design.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>This paper reviews research on research methodology, incorporating a discussion of practices outside of the entrepreneurship discipline to discover effective practices for identifying respondents and data not currently captured in entrepreneurship data sources. The respondents were found through social media sites, angel networks, University networks and via identification through a proprietary financial intelligence database.<br><br>Findings<br><br>An optimal research design to identify women business owners of growth-oriented firms who have negotiated private equity should consider mixed methods designs and mixed modes, including the use of digital networks that signal to potential respondents that research is being done.<br><br>Research limitations/implications |

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| | Although the authors developed the multi-method, mixed mode (MMMM) research design, the sample size is still relatively small. This raises concerns about generalizability to the larger population and limits statistical analysis more suitable with larger data sets. However, the MMMM research design has enabled the authors to reach a difficult target sample. It has proven effective, although a longer time frame would have been helpful.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>All of the large scale databases in entrepreneurship have limitations in providing optimal sampling frames for process-related research. The present research study was able to use conventional networks, social media sites and angel networks to connect with women business owners who have raised private equity, but who lack visibility in current data sets. The study shows that through the use of multiple methods, women entrepreneurs can be researched and some will share their experiences about process issues. The sample size was small and the quantitative data cannot be generalized. However, the methodology works and allows researchers to explore experiences that are not captured in existing data sets.<br><br>Social implications<br><br>Entrepreneurship researchers can connect with "invisibles" by becoming more "social" and using social media sites that are used by women entrepreneurs. Researchers may not have immediate access to women entrepreneurs through these means, but rather they need to develop interpersonal contacts, build a social presence and trust to recruit respondents to complete online questionnaire studies about substantive topics such as negotiating term sheets for equity investments in their companies.<br><br>Originality/value |

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| | This paper summarizes the "research on research methodologies" in entrepreneurship, reviews secondary data sources and discusses their limitations for specific types of research questions. A review of the value of MMMM research designs and best practices in online survey research outside of entrepreneurship provides insights into the incorporation of digital tools in other disciplines. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Multiple method<br>• Mixed mode<br>• Networking<br>• Women's entrepreneurship<br>• Methodology<br>• Strategy<br>• Term sheet negotiation |
| **Country** | • 84% respondents from USA; 16% other countries |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • This exploratory study is our attempt to break out of the "specificity in methodology" in studying "doing gender" noted by Jännäri and Kovalainen (2015) to demonstrate that we can use the internet to identify and reach out to women entrepreneurs to share their experiences in an authentic manner. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• multi-method, mixed mode (MMMM) research design |

**Key citations from the article**

"More recently, a great deal of attention has been directed toward the distinction between multi-method and mixed method research designs […] In a discussion of what mixed method designs actually entail and how they differ from multi-methods, the mixed methods approach combines both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis in the same study. Unlike the interpretation of the previous study, these authors distinguish multi-method research designs as those that have multiple qualitative or quantitative methods" **(p. 54).**

"Technological and cultural changes over the past two decades are the driving forces behind what they refer to as a "mixed-mode era", where survey implementation through telephone and in-person interviews is being supplemented or replaced by mixed-mode, including web-based approaches. Although Dillman *et al.* (2009) do not address social networking as a mode, the authors provide specific guidelines for effective web survey development and implementation. They identify multiple benefits of mixed-mode survey designs

including: lowering costs; improving timeliness; reducing coverage, non-response and measurement errors; and improving response rates" (p. 54).

"The investment process for obtaining private equity has been examined in a number of previous studies (Whittam and Wyper, 2007; Tyebjee and Bruno, 1984). Most suggest that the process is divided into several stages: the *pre-investment process*[…] the *contract negotiation stage* […] and the *post-investment stage […]* A review of existing research conducted on these different stages of the investment process shows a paucity of attention given to Stage II, contract negotiation (Amatucci *et al.*, 2008; Amatucci and Sohl, 2007, 2004). Although a considerable amount of research on gender and negotiation processes exists in other disciplines (Eriksson and Sandberg, 2012; Bowles and Flynn, 2010), there are very few studies in the field of entrepreneurship. Given the lack of research on gender negotiation styles and term sheet/contract development, we felt we were entering uncharted waters" (p. 56).

"The MMMM approach allowed us to triangulate between qualitative responses, descriptive statistics and the regression analyses. Our regression analyses focused on models for negotiation outcomes for funding, retention of equity and satisfaction. We found that the regression analyses did provide an objective measure against which to compare the qualitative feedback, and these results will be the focus of a second paper" **(p. 62).**

**Reference**

Alsop, R. (2015). A novel alternative. Book groups, women, and workplace networking. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 52, 30-38.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Drawing on the results of a small qualitative research project involving four work-based book groups – three in the UK and one in the USA- this article examines the ways in which participation in workplace reading groups facilitates women's networking within work organizations, in terms of both formal and informal as well as expressive and instrumental networking. It has long been recognized that women's employment progression is hampered, in part, by their exclusion from male-dominated networks. Taking a gendered approach to the analysis of workplace networking, this study suggests that book groups can function as an alternative to traditional old boys' networks, in some instances. Within the workplace the collective reading of literature, I suggest, can potentially function as a means to extend the social as well as the more career-focused opportunities of its participants. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women<br>• Book groups<br>• Networking<br>• Reading<br>• Literature<br>• Gender<br>• Work |
| **Country** | • four work-based book groups – three in the UK and one in the USA |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • n/a |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• "primary research is based on two separate research methods […] participant observation as my primary tool (p. 17). Secondly, my research draws on the results of fourteen interviews with participants in three other work-based book groups […] Interviews were based on a semi-structured list of research questions […] A |

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| | thematic analysis of the data was conducted in which patterns within the responses were identified, grouped and coded (Ryan & Bernard, 2003)" (p. 17-18). |

**Key citations from the article**

"This article, instead of focusing on women's exclusion from workplace networks, seeks to explore how alternative structures may provide networking possibilities for women […] this article suggests that workplace book clubs provide possibilities for both expressive and instrumental networking; in other words, for social support and career advancement" (p. 3)

"Globally women constitute less than a quarter of senior managers, just 21 per cent in the G7 economies (Grant Thornton International Business Report, 2014)" **(p. 4).**

"This study brings together two distinct realms of existing academic scholarship: firstly, the literature on book groups and secondly the literature on gender and workplace networking" **(p. 5).**

"Research highlights that reading groups are a particularly feminine phenomenon: for example, Hartley's survey of UK reading groups noted that over two-thirds of reading groups were exclusively female, and 27 per cent were mixed gender (2002, pp. 25-26). It is arguably both the feminized and domestic, private, nature of the majority of reading groups that has meant that their academic scrutiny has hitherto been minimal" (p. 8).

"What emerges from the existing research on reading groups is that, whilst the named goal of reading groups is to collaboratively read and discuss literature, the groups fulfil important supplementary functions (Devlin-Glass, 2001; Hartley, 2002; Long, 2003; Howie, 2011). Friendships and alliances form in reading groups that can provide support, camaraderie and encouragement, often over many years" (p. 10).

"Researchers note gender differences in homophilous and heterophilous patterns of networking. Homophily refers to preferences to interact with others with similar social characteristics: race, education and gender, for instance. Heterophily, in contrast, refers to interactions with those with dissimilar characteristics, for example, cross-gendered interactions (Ibarra, 1992). Whereas both men's instrumental and expressive networks tend to be homophilous in gender terms (i.e. they are both with men), women tend towards homophilous expressive relations, networking with women for social support, but heterophilous networks with men for instrumental outcomes (Durbin, 2011)" (p. 14).

"Consequently, instrumental networking for women not only means networking with high status men (Ibarra, 1995; Combs, 2003; Durbin, 2011) but also, if they are to sustain their interactions, developing networking styles that men are more comfortable with (Ng & Chow, 2009)" **(p. 15).**

"My primary research is based on two separate research methods. Firstly, my research into book groups and work-based networking draws on my own decade long membership of a workplace reading group, using participant observation as my primary tool. In this sense, my research is partly ethnographic, in that my research has involved ongoing immersion in the field of study (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). Secondly, my research draws on the results of fourteen interviews with participants in three other work-based book groups" (p. 17).

"This study suggests that workplace book groups provide an important alternative space for some employees to network in addition to, or instead of, more traditional informal networks revolving, for example, around sports or after-work drinking. This may be especially useful for women (and indeed some men) who either have no interest in pursuing these kinds of activities with work colleagues or find accessing such networks difficult or off-putting (either in terms of the logistics of participation or their particularly masculinized environments). To this extent workplace reading groups may present networking possibilities in addition to existing, well-established old boy' networks" **(p. 28-29).**

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**Reference**

McKinney, C. (2015). Newsletter networks in the feminist history and archives movement. *Feminist Theory,* 16(3), 309-328.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article examines how networks have been critical to the construction of feminist histories. The author examines the publication Matrices: A Lesbian/Feminist Research Newsletter (1977–1996), to argue that a feminist network mode can be traced through the examination of small-scale print newsletters that draw on the language and function of networks. Publications such as Matrices emerge into wide production and circulation in the 1970s alongside feminist community archives, and newsletters and archives work together as interconnected social movement technologies. Newsletters enabled activist-researchers writing feminist histories to share difficult-to-access information, resources, and primary sources via photocopying and other modes of print reproduction. Looking from the present, the author examines how network thinking has been a feature of feminist activism and knowledge production since before the Internet, suggesting that publications such as Matrices are part of a longer history of networked communications media in feminist contexts. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Archive<br>• lesbian feminism<br>• media history<br>• networks<br>• newsletters<br>• periodicals<br>• print culture |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • n/a |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br><br>• feminist historiography / grass-root lesbian (and gay) historical research |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“Newsletters in the late-twentieth-century US lesbian-feminist movement predate online communications media and the contemporary ListServ, but also used networked communication to circulate information to geographically dispersed but politically organised individuals and groups. Distributed primarily by letter mail, issues of these newsletters acted as communication infrastructures, publishing requests for information and resources, updates on the activities of others, surveys, phone-trees, listings of archival holdings and primary source materials at community and institutional archives, mailing lists, and bibliographies. Each issue’s publication was an initial moment of communication facilitating a range of subsequent connections amongst recipients, generally taking the form of further, task-oriented correspondence between individuals and/or institutions” **(p. 310).**

“This article illustrates how a feminist mode of network thinking can be traced through small-scale print lesbian-feminist newsletters that draw on the language and practice of networking. These publications emerge in the early 1970s via the nascent Women’s Liberation and Women in Print movements […] Even prior to the Web, networks have been critical to the construction of feminist histories and I examine the relationship between networked print cultures and the US lesbian-feminist history and archives movement in order to demonstrate this. I approach archives and newsletters as interconnected social movement technologies that enable activists to share difficult-to-access information, resources, and primary sources via photocopying and other modes of print reproduction. In the process, growing archival collections of these feminist print cultures redress the relative invisibility of essential media practices that have constituted the work of doing women’s history […] The establishment of university women’s studies departments and oral history methods in the 1970s and 80s provided early institutional support for this growing research field and generated new primary source materials for future study” (p. 311).

“Matrices network operates at two levels: as a conceptual model, where networked communication is articulated to the political goals of feminist print culture and of feminist historiography; and as an actual schematic for uniting a community of researchers and activists through decentralised forms of communication, such as through the newsletter’s maintenance of a shared subscriber profile system” (p. 313).

“Networks animate the design of Matrices at two distinct but interconnected levels, one high-level and ideational, the other pragmatic and operational. First, the network is a conceptual model for imagining a kind of utopian feminist politic. ‘Network’ stands in for an idea of what a large, organised feminist movement could do” (p. 314).

“The second level at which the network functions is the newsletter’s actual operation: its facilitation of centralised and decentralised communication. Matrices asked each subscriber to complete a profile with contact information, a short biography, research interests, titles of papers written and published and information on how offprints could be acquired by other subscribers, current projects, and support needed” (p. 317).

“Matrices and feminist newsletter culture more generally operated somewhere in between a decentralised (middle diagram) and distributed network (right diagram), creating connections that transcend the limits of the centralised network diagram on the left, which is typically associated with a print publication” (p. 319).

“Rosenzweig and other media historians such as Fred Turner (2006) offer general histories of network thinking as a condition of possibility for the Web – as opposed to actual technological design – where the social promises articulated to networked communication are critical for understanding the political possibilities associated with emerging media in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries. Network thinking is not a singular story: it ought to be conjunctural, following a path Lawrence Grossberg describes as ‘more complicated than any one trajectory, any one judgment, can thematize’ (2010: 16). […] Feminist networks are communicative infrastructures that extend across emerging forms of media, and across time, particularly in the case of a network that is ‘historical’: Matrices is both of the past, and focused on facilitating historical research. Networked communication and feminist historiography are interdependent forms; feminist historiography is a heterogeneous set of practices and desires built through these networks, and thus it can be difficult to map onto more conventional understandings of history that emerges from a single, authoritative source” (p. 320).

**Reference**

Berger, L., Benschop, Y., & van den Brink, M. (2015). Practising Gender When Networking: The Case of University–Industry Innovation Projects. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 22(6), 556-578.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This paper gains insight into the role of gender in interpersonal networks, which is largely neglected in research on networking. We do so by exploring the concept of 'practising gender', the spatial-temporal accomplishment of gender practices, when people build, maintain and exit social networks. The paper is based on a study of male-dominated technological collaboration projects between universities and industry. Our analysis of observations of project meetings and interviews with project participants demonstrates how people in real-time and space draw from culturally available gender practices in their networking with each other. This practising of gender was found to be done largely unreflexively, sometimes through humour, within allegedly trivial activities such as pouring coffee and socializing as well as in critical activities such as composing the network. The exploration of the practising of gender in relation to culturally available gender practices enabled us to examine how those gender practices are reproduced, stretched or challenged when people network. We show how focussing on the dynamic side of gender allows us to get better insight into how gender inequalities in networks are reproduced or countered on the micro-interactional level. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Practising gender<br>• Gender practices<br>• Networking<br>• University-industry collaborations<br>• Humour |
| **Country** | • six university-industry technological innovation projects in the Netherlands (2011-2013) |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • n/a |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name: |

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| | • Conceptual framework of Martin (2003, 2006), who distinguished between gender practising and gender practices. Gender practising is the spatial-temporal accomplishment and dynamic side of gender practices, or the practising of gender 'in the heat of the moment'. Gender practices are the culturally available repertoires of gender. This framework is useful to conceptually understand the agency-structure dynamic of gender. (p. 557)<br>• Feminist technology research (p. 557) |

**Key citations from the article**

"Most previous studies showed gender inequalities within networks by conceptualizing gender as a variable (e.g. Forret and Dougherty, 2004). Despite the useful insights these studies have given us about the existence of gender inequality in networks, little is known about how those differences in networks based on gender are actually (re)produced, i.e. how gender is 'done' (West and Zimmerman, 1987) in networking. It is our aim in this study to contribute to this knowledge by examining the prac- tising of gender in people's networking practices. To do so, we need a conceptualization of gender as a routine, ongoing social accomplishment embedded in everyday interaction (West and Zimmerman, 1987). The notion of gender as a social practice helps us to theorize gender as being constantly redefined and negotiated in everyday organizational practices (Gherardi, 1994; Kelan, 2010; Poggio, 2006), such as networking. We approach networking practices as 'structurally embedded, dynamic, socio-political actions of people when they enter, build, maintain, use, and exit their relations at work' (based on Benschop, 2009)" (p. 556).

"Our theoretical framework builds on the conceptual framework of Martin (2003, 2006), who distinguished between gender practising and gender practices. Gender practising is the spatial-temporal accomplishment and dynamic side of gender practices, or the practising of gender 'in the heat of the moment'. Gender practices are the culturally available repertoires of gender. This framework is useful to conceptually understand the agency-structure dynamic of gender […] The paper is based on an empirical study of collaboration projects between universities and industrial partners in the technology sector in the Netherlands, facilitated and partially financed by a government-based funding agency. Empirically, these make a good case for studying gen- der practising in networks, as women form only a minority of players (Faulkner, 2001; Fox, 2010) and social networks play an important role in this field (Perkmann and Walsh, 2007) […] Feminist technology research has shown that gender and technology are co-constructed and co-produced concepts (Faulkner, 2001; Kelan, 2007). Technology is gendered by design and by the enduring symbolic association of masculinity and technology (Faulkner, 2001)" (p. 557).

"By unreflexive practising and non-reflexivity, we mean that people do not consciously reflect upon their behaviour as being gendered or having gendered consequences. The practising of gender is done in the immediacy of social

interactions, and is therefore mostly done without intent or reflection (Martin, 2006). In line with Martin, our conception of reflexiv- ity thereby deviates from the ethnomethodological notion of reflexivity, which holds that 'mun- dane' actions studied are always reflexive (Lynch, 2000; Pollner, 1991). People usually do not intend to 'do' gender, yet the unintended outcomes of their practices are gendered (Mathieu, 2009). Because of this non-reflexivity, 'well-intentioned, "good people" practice gender in ways that do harm [...] Sexism and gender bias in their subtle forms, constituted through non- reflexive practicing, are rarely recognized or condemned' (Martin, 2006, p. 255). That most of the gender practising happens unreflexively explains why men and women can deny the role of gender, whereas in their behaviour gender indeed plays a non-trivial role" (Holgersson, 2012).

"Practising gender thus is usually routine, nearly invisible to practitioners, and difficult to see or name overtly (Martin, 2001). The level of reflexivity with which gender is practised varies for different people (men and women) and is context-dependent. For instance, when women cope with their being a (token) woman in a predominantly masculine environment, we may expect them to be at least partly aware of their practising. Men, on the other hand, as the majority group, are likely to be unreflexive about the role of gender (Acker, 2006; Burke and Major, 2014). In our empirical study, we explore how women, as relative 'newcomers' in the male-dominated field of technological innovation, and men are reflexive regarding their gender practising. In short, we observe that the gender literature looks primarily at culturally available gender practices, whereas the actual accomplishment of gender practices through the practising of gender remains largely unexplored" (p. 560).

"Interviews complement the observation material by providing an understanding of the gender awareness of the project participants and their reflections on these issues, which can help to better understand what is seen in the observations, in which the practising of gender is often done unreflexively. Fifty-two semi-structured interviews were held with project participants, including women and (a majority of) men. […] The data analysis was an iterative process of going back and forth between data and literature. […] open codes included explicit references to someone's gender, the domination of men in the field, remarks about the sex ratio of the meetings, the atmosphere of the meeting, the social skills of women, irrelevance of gender, competencies, gendered division of tasks, gendered jokes, gaining visibility. We then searched for patterns in the practising instances, which led to four categories. We started with the explicit accounts and reflections about gender in the field of technological projects […]first category: marginalizing the role of gender […] category two: referring to women's gender […] men connecting with men (category three) […] fourth category 'manoeuvring with the gender order'" (p. 563).

"Conducting this in-depth analysis and re-reading gender practice literature, our attention was drawn to how the participants practised gender without much or any reflection (Martin, 2003). We also found that participants sometimes used humour in their gender practising, so we turned to literature on gender and humour to gain a better understanding of the functions of humour in those instances. We found that humour is a way through which identities are constructed (Crawford, 2003) and work relations are built (Holmes, 2006b), so we take humorous interactions

to be more than mere ‘amusement’; they indicate how individuals define their relationships” (p. 564).

**Reference**

Hodigere, R., & Bilimoria, D. (2015). Human capital and professional network effects on women's odds of corporate board directorships. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 30(7), 523-550.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this study is to examine the importance of human capital and professional networks for women's and men's appointment to the boards of directors of public companies. The study provides an in-depth analysis of how human capital and professional networks contribute to women's as compared with men's odds of corporate board membership.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The study analyzes the human capital and professional networks of 494 male and female corporate outside (non-executive) directors appointed between 2005 and 2010 to the boards of US public companies listed in the Standard & Poor's 500 index. Human capital was measured as director age, education and professional experience (function and role). Professional network variables measured included composition of professional network, network centrality, constraint and cohesion.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The study's findings reveal that the characteristics that impact the appointment of women as outside directors to public company boards differ from those of men. Relative to men, certain professions such as government relations and education improve the odds of appointment of women to corporate boards, while age lowers women's odds. The number of network ties and the degree of network cohesion were also significant in predicting the likelihood of female board appointment to public corporations relative to men's odds. The final model was able to predict female board membership correctly only in 28 per cent of the cases, while male board membership was |

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| | predicted in 89 per cent of the cases, suggesting that factors other than human capital and professional networks (e.g. their gender) impact women's appointment to corporate boards.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>To the authors' knowledge, this study is the first to comprehensively examine the professional network components of female and male directors along with their human capital in the analysis of their prospects for board appointment. The conceptualization of professional networks as well the depth of quantitative analysis of the network components of the study advance the extant literature on the composition of corporate boards. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Gender<br>• Networking<br>• Boards of directors<br>• Directors |
| **Country** | • US public companies listed in the Standard & Poor's 500 index |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • "Data on company directors were retrieved from Boardex, a commercial database on company boards. Boardex data include demographic information of directors, including age, education (degree and institution), race and sex; their professional credentials including companies, titles and periods; and non-occupational social membership information for members on the boards of companies featured on financial indices across the world" (p. 533).<br><br>• The final list of directors comprised independent directors appointed through the routine nomination process. There were more men than women in the sample of 489 directors – 177 women and 312 men. Companies from finance, retail, technology and manufacturing sectors were represented in the sample<br><br>• Variables – human capital: Educational Qualification, age, profession, number of other public company boards, number of other private companies boards<br><br>• Variables – professional network: Public company and private company CEO alters were |

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| | calculated as the count of CEOs by type of company – public and private – in a director's professional network<br><br>• Measures of network structure calculated were: size, ties, centrality, constraint, cohesion.<br><br>• "In summary, the results of our *t*-test analyses suggest that there are few differences between male and female board members in terms of their human capital and professional networks, yet these variables seem to affect the odds of board membership for women differently than for men. Both primary and *post hoc* analyses indicate that although male and female directors are essentially similar, the criteria for their board appointments are differently nuanced. Particularly with regard to the explanatory power of human capital and professional network variables, the results indicate that other variables may need to be taken into consideration to fully understand the factors that affect the odds of female board membership" (p. 541-542).<br><br>• "The findings of the study indicate that a woman's profession, and to a lesser extent certain characteristics of her professional network, significantly impact her chances of being appointed to a corporate board. The results show that the factors that contribute to corporate board membership for women are not the same as those for men, indicative of the differential effects that a comprehensive set of human capital and professional network variables have on the ability to predict board membership for women and men" (p. 542).<br><br>• "From this, we may conclude that while men's human capital and professional network characteristics almost fully explain their selection to corporate boards, clearly the bulk of the criteria that influence the corporate board selection of women lie outside their human capital and professional network characteristics. That is, in comparison with their male counterparts who were appointed at the same time for the same boards as they were, female directors' human capital and professional network characteristics simply do |

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| | not as fully explain their appointment" (pp. 542-543).<br><br>• "That is, while men appear to be appropriately selected to join corporate boards on the basis of the quality of their individual human capital and professional network characteristics, women appear to be appointed to corporate boards more on the basis of their group membership (i.e. as women) than the quality of their individual characteristics" (p. 543).<br><br>• "The results also indicate a change in the influence of non-profit-related occupations as a source of female directors. Non-profit organizations appear to have been replaced by public office/governmental positions as viable sources of female directors. In fact, in relation to the comparison category of being a CEO, a woman coming from public office/governmental service is almost five times more likely than a man from a similar profession to be appointed to a US corporate board. This result suggests that the contacts, resources and influence offered by holding public office and governmental positions are most highly sought in female directors as compared with the category of holding the profession of CEO. The results also indicate that being a non-profit executive is not as detrimental for women's board appointment as it is for men's in relation to the comparison category of being a CEO. However, being a professional director (as compared to being a CEO) significantly benefits men only" (p. 543). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• Examine the professional network components of female and male directors along with their human capital in the analysis of their prospects for board appointment.<br>• Human capital was measured as director age, education and professional experience (function and role). Professional network variables measured included composition of professional network, network centrality, constraint and cohesion.<br>• Each network was analyzed with UCINET (Borgatti *et al.*, 2002), a widely used network analysis software program, to obtain measures of network composition, cohesion and structural |

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| | holes. After network measures were obtained from UCINET for each director in the sample, they were included in a data set that contained demographic variables such as age, education level, years of non-director experience and profession of the egos who comprise the sample of the study. Therefore, the final data set for this study contained human capital and professional network data for the 489 members of the sample. This was the final data set used for statistical analysis using SPSS. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>**-** | |

**Reference**

Knappe H, & Lang S. (2014). Between whisper and voice: Online women's movement outreach in the UK and Germany. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 21(4), 361-381.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Women's movements in Western Europe are not dead, but they have altered their strategies in ways that require adaptation of investigative repertoires. Recent research highlights women's movements' pathways into institutions as well as the transnationalisation of activism. This article focuses on the shifting public communication repertoire associated with these developments. Communication and movement outreach across Europe are increasingly constituted online. The authors investigate the degree to which women's networks in Germany and the UK mobilise constituencies via online means. Utilising network mapping tools as well as original data from women's NGOs, they analyse the density and distribution of relationships in German and UK networks, as well as their interactive communication repertoires as indicators of their capacity to engage constituents. The findings show that information-focused means of communication are more prevalent than interactive mobilisation tools. Women's NGOs in the UK utilise more public engagement features than those in Germany. The authors relate these findings to second-, third- and fourth-wave feminisms, focusing on their distinct mobilisation strategies. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Europe<br>• Germany<br>• NGO networks<br>• Online activism<br>• Public sphere<br>• UK<br>• Women's movement |
| **Country** | UK / Germany |
| **Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • Assessing the organisational properties of respective network members, we determined that the UK CEDAW shadow report movement draws more strongly on earlier, autonomous second-wave activism than the German network, whose roots lie mostly in the later, professionalised second-wave movement. We |

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| | conclude that the strong mobilisation focus of autonomous women's groups tied to the early stages of second-wave feminism has been successfully translated into new, web-based mobilisation in the UK; here second-wave organisations have learned to rebrand their NGOs and adapt their activism. German women's organisations, by contrast, remain wedded to professionalised profiles, with less capacity to reach out to new, particularly younger constituencies (p. 376) |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br><br>• Network analysis/network mapping<br><br>• Having mapped the women's networks that critically engaged with the CEDAW reports, we arrived at a sample of 68 UK-based and 56 German network members.Their web- sites were systematically coded based on a scheme that distinguishes between two kinds of engagement: (a) providing or exchanging *information* about gender issues; and (b) providing opportunities for *action*, or enabling constituencies to develop their own actions.<br><br>• The URLs of respective national network members were retrieved as starting points for network 'crawls' with the software Issuecrawler.[6] This entails an online harvesting process that generates a network map portraying strong and weak ties between network members. Moving out from predefined starting points, Issuecrawler harvests the URLs of other members of an issue network based on their interlinking activities, visually displayed in 'network maps' (p. 366). |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"In recent years European women's movements have been proclaimed dead (Nash, 2002; Netmums, 2012), in abeyance (Bagguley, 2002), or immobilised, owing to generational struggles among second-, third- and fourth-wave feminists (Banyard, 2010). While activ- ists and scholars agree that the defining characteristics of women's movements have changed since the 1960s (Grey and Sawer, 2008), there is uncertainty how to assess the impact of these changes on the capacity to articulate grievances and mobilise for social change. […] Feminist research over the last two decades has argued that although women are under-represented in mainstream public discourse, they have been able to create alterna- tive publics that function as spaces for debate, politicisation and as fertiliser for feminist activism (i.e. Fraser, 1992; Walsh, 2010). […]The fact that women's movements have altered their modes of networking as well as their | |

public engagement repertoires also requires adaptation of our research strategies (Beckwith, 2013; Ewig and Ferree, 2013; Ferree, 2012; Grey and Sawer, 2008). This article assesses the degree to which women's movements in the UK and Germany use new technologies to promote their agendas and broaden their mobilisation capacity by networking with other organisations and by reaching out to constituencies online" (p. 362).

"Research provides increasing evidence for the ways in which the internet expands movements' capacity for outreach and mobilisation (Bennett and Segerberg, 2013; Loader and Mercea, 2012). Two findings are particularly relevant: one, that women are increasingly savvy users of web-based mobilisation and that particularly for young women the barriers to exercising their citizenship are lower on the web than in offline civic spaces (Harris, 2010; Schuster, 2013)" (p. 364).

"Having mapped the women's networks that critically engaged with the CEDAW reports, we arrived at a sample of 68 UK-based and 56 German network members.[8] Their web- sites were systematically coded based on a scheme that distinguishes between two kinds of engagement: (a) providing or exchanging *information* about gender issues; and (b) providing opportunities for *action*, or enabling constituencies to develop their own actions. Engagement practices can be *unidirectional*, i.e. an NGO providing information and occasions to act on behalf of a cause; or *interactional*, i.e. an NGO dispensing infor- mation provided by constituents on their sites or enabling autonomous action by website followers. The communicative properties of these four types of engagement practices were labelled (1) one-way information, (2) interactive information, (3) highly structured action and (4) co-produced action" (p. 366).

"The German advocacy network (Figure 1) is highly centralised and institutionalised. […]The UK network (Figure 2) is more densely connected. (p. 366-367) […]In sum, the two networks' websites display different information and engagement strategies. Whereas German organisations provide more static information such as news- letters, issue information and policy papers, UK organisations focus more on social media and interactive communication, and seem more inclined to moderate forums or solicit feedback" (p. 370).

"In sum: women's networks in the UK and Germany differ with regard to (1) centralisation within the network and (2) cross-issue linkages. The German network is more centralised with two institutionalised actors positioned at the core; other NGOs do not appear to communicate much with the centre or with each other. The UK network is less centralised, exhibiting more cohesive, egalitarian traits" (p. 368).

"The first coding category, *one-way information*, highlights the relative importance of several kinds of unidirectional information items that NGOs provide. The second category, *interactive information*, depicts the degree to which organisations engage in informational dialogue with site visitors. Both categories provide evidence of the types of information NGOs decide to share. The degree to which an organisation employs unidirectional or interactive information indicates how an NGO perceives its site visitors, e.g. as a rather passive audience

or as active citizens whose direct input is part of the mobilisation strategy. The third category, *highly structured action*, displays the active engagement level of the websites, i.e. whether they offer actions (often with an external target site) visitors are asked to join. The fourth category, *co-produced action*, entails actions that allow site visitors to engage independently on behalf of organisational causes. By promoting co-produced actions, an NGO may give up exclusive control of media, message, tactics and the branding of a cause. At the same time, co-produced actions offer the strongest mobilisation potential of the four categories" (p. 369).

"German network members use their websites most often for unidirectional information, e.g. policy news or calendars (see Figure 3). By contrast, UK websites dominate in interactive communication, utilising interactive social networking technology" (p. 369).

"Nearly 80% of the German member organisations were founded during the late phase of the second wave, from the mid-1980s on, when mobilisation assumed professionalised and institutionalised forms. By contrast, 50% of the UK members have their roots in earlier autonomous second-wave organisations" (p. 371).

"Differences in the willingness to retool also show in the diverging degrees of adopting new information and communication technology. Only three of the 20 most in linked organisations in Germany are on Facebook and two have Twitter profiles. In the UK, 18 and 19, respectively, use Facebook and Twitter to mobilise" (p. 373).

**Reference**

Macoun, A., & Miller, D. (2014). Surviving (thriving) in academia: feminist support networks and women ECRs. *Journal of Gender Studies,* 23(3), 287-301.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | In this paper, we reflect upon our experiences and those of our peers as doctoral students and early career researchers in an Australian Political Science department. We seek to explain and understand the diverse ways that participating in an unofficial Feminist Reading Group in our department affected our experiences. We contend that informal peer support networks like reading groups do more than is conventionally assumed and may provide important avenues for sustaining feminist research in times of austerity, as well as supporting and enabling women and emerging feminist scholars in academia. Participating in the group created a community of belonging and resistance, providing women with personal validation, information and material support, as well as intellectual and political resources to understand and resist our position within the often hostile spaces of the University. While these experiences are specific to our context, time and location, they signal that peer networks may offer critical political resources for responding to the ways that women's bodies and concerns are marginalised in increasingly competitive and corporatised university environments. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Reading groups<br>• Early career researchers<br>• Feminist peer support<br>• Peer mentoring<br>• Women postgraduates<br>• Higher education. |
| **Country** | • Australia |
| **Key Highlights (3-18 – be brief in the summary)** | • Argues that in contemporary neoliberal universities, peer support networks represent a crucial strategy for those attempting to survive and thrive in academia. With formal sites of feminist scholarship under significant pressure and facing declining institutional means |

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| | and support, informal networks are becoming increasingly important<br>• Authors contend that peer support networks provide important avenues for sustaining feminist research, as well as enabling emerging female scholars to engage in academia. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Neoliberalism |

**Key citations from the article**

“These barriers are exacerbated, of course, by the increasingly neoliberal culture of modern universities which tend to prioritise ‘profit, control, and efficiency, all hallmark values of the neoliberal corporate ethic’ (Giroux 2002, p. 434)” (p. 289).

“In consciously adopting practices of solidarity and support, FRG provided the opportunity to experience and practice alternative ways of performing academia. In an environment where ‘stereotypically masculine traits such as competitiveness are encouraged’ (Barata et al. 2005, p. 240), group members were able to model more supportive intellectual engagement: Outside of my supervisor, when I first began my research at the University I felt very disconnected to the research environment. Discussions about research were combative, and often not very constructive. Once I became involved in the feminist reading group I realised that not all research environments needed to be based on one-upmanship and intellectual bickering. From this group I received constructive criticism and feedback, grounded in a genuine effort by others to support my research and improve the work” (p. 298).

“While the nature of the FRG space was often contested and discussed, and processes and practices have changed over time along with the participants, this experience of explicitly feminist peer support had an important impact on our experiences of the University. In addition to furthering disciplinary knowledge and developing academic, FRG functioned as a crucial peer support network. The community that the group became enabled participants to provide and share personal validation, information and material support navigating the complex and often hostile spaces of the University. Additionally, this community operated to create a critical space at the University, providing intellectual and political resources to understand and contest our shared location. The resistant community formed in this space became a crucial personal and academic network for many participants, facilitating and shaping academic engagements” (p. 298-299).

**Reference**

Sordé, T., Serradell, O., Puigvert, L., & Munté, A. (2014). Solidarity networks that challenge racialized discourses: The case of Romani immigrant women in Spain. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 21(1), 87-102.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | In the midst of the global financial crisis and in the 'anti-race era', Europe has witnessed a revival of deeply racialized discourses targeting the Roma, leading to new discriminatory practices and legitimating existing ones in many social domains. While westward Roma immigration has spurred these discourses, it has also favored the emergence of invisible grassroots reactions against them that need to be further analyzed. Drawing on interviews with migrant Romani women, this article aims to shed light on these unknown processes, as experienced by women in Romani women-based solidarity networks. Data show that these networks help the women to access basic social facilities, while also challenging the abovementioned racialized discourses. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Discrimination<br>• Immigration<br>• Racialized discourses<br>• Romani women<br>• Solidarity networks |
| **Country** | • Spain |
| **Key Highlights (3-19 – be brief in the summary)** | • Highlights the transformative dimension of gender through the voice of Romani immigrant women<br>• The article seeks to highlight how Romani women challenge the stereotypes and racialized discourses that fall on them, and in turn, which actions lead them to create broad solidarity networks. Discusses these networks sheds light on how social exclusion and marginalization can be averted.<br>• The cases discussed in the article represent a reference for Romani girls and women from a private sphere that can be transferred to a public sphere and advance the feminist ideal of equality.<br>• The article demonstrates that Romani migrants, especially those living in more |

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| | disadvantaged situations, often do not use social services and healthcare for manifold reasons: they do not have a legal address (or are not locally registered), they fear discrimination by the staff, they do not know where they are located, or they are afraid of not being able to navigate through all the bureaucracy they would have to face.<br>• Findings uncover which strategies these women developed to overcome these difficulties.<br>• Found that effective ways to break down the barriers are very often transmitted by word of mouth or through someone introducing them to the service. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Feminism, Romani Feminism |

**Key citations from the article**

"This article, based on data collected by two research projects on the Roma migrant population in Spain, namely 'Roma migrants in Spain' (OSCE/ODIHR, 2008–2009) and 'DROM-IN. Roma immigration in Spain: The challenges of social inclusion and coexistence' (Ministry of Science and Innovation, 2009–2011), sheds light on the solidarity networks that migrant Romani women of different origins are creating, and how these promote access to education, employment, social participation and social services. Besides benefiting Romani immigrant women, in the context of the current economic crisis, these networks can be a resource for overcoming racialized discourses that legitimate ancient discriminatory practices or foster new ones. Romani women are united by their strong sense of belonging to the same ethnic group, and also by being women. Solidarity networks are an example of transformation based on these two elements" (p.89).

"The analyses conducted from this framework help identify how Romani women challenge the stereotypes and racialized discourses that fall on them, and in turn, which actions lead them to create broad solidarity networks" (p. 92).

**Reference**

Forsberg Kankkunen, T. (2013). Access to Networks in Genderized Contexts: The Construction of Hierarchical Networks and Inequalities in Feminized, Caring and Masculinized, Technical Occupations. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 21(4), 340-352.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article aims to contribute knowledge on how access to hierarchical networks of communication is constructed through organizational contexts associated with the gendered nature of feminized, caring work and masculinized, technical work, respectively. The article is based on interviews with 43 middle managers. Both men and women in male-dominated technical occupations and female-dominated caring occupations were interviewed. Eight interviews with politicians and strategic managers were also carried out. The results show that middle managers' access to hierarchical networks differs between feminized and masculinized contexts; hierarchical networks between organizational levels are common in male-dominated technical jobs, while such networks are almost non-existent in female-dominated caring occupations. The results illustrate how organizational conditions follow the gender segregation in organizations and the labour market and, further, how these contexts shape men's and women's access to hierarchical networks. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gendered context<br>• Hierarchical networks<br>• Sex segregation<br>• Public sector |
| **Country** | • Sweden |
| **Key Highlights (3-20 – be brief in the summary)** | • The article explores how the organizational context shapes access to networks of communication in female-dominated caring and male-dominated technical occupations in the Swedish public sector<br>• With the aim of understanding how access to networks of communication is constructed through the organizational context in sex-segregated organizations, this paper is based on a comparative interview study of managers in female- |

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| | dominated caring and male-dominated technical occupations. In these occupations, the focus is on middle managers and their networks of staff and management at higher and lower levels within organizations. In particular, the focus is on middle managers' access to networks of communication within the formal vertical chain<br>• The organizational context of the segregated occupations is considered an important parameter of social structure (Blau, 1974) in determining individuals' access to hierarchical networks. Specifically, the focus of the research is on sex-segregated contexts. As Bradley (1989) has noted, the traditional gender composition in sex-segregated occupations shapes gender labelling. Hence, this article uses an approach that emphasizes the importance of not only contexts, but gender-labelled contexts in determining men's and women's access to hierarchical networks. (p. 342) |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• network theory |

**Key citations from the article**

“As men predominate in positions of power in organizations, research has suggested that the homophily principle of networks (interaction with others who are similar) shapes different opportunities and network characteristics for men and women. For example, as men are more central than women in supervisors' networks, men consequently also have more influence within the organizations (Brass, 1985; Kanter, 1977). Other research has shown that female managers have fewer homophily networks than male managers (Ibarra, 1997; Rothstein et al., 2001). As men predominate in positions of power, women seem to need alternatives to homophily networks to have similar resources to men within organizations” (p. 341).

“The focus in this article is on middle managers' access to networks of communication within the formal vertical chain in different parts of segregated organizations. Although network studies are expected to include all the links between superiors and subordinates, they pay less attention to the fact that superiors and subordinates comprise a vertical chain of formal reporting relationships (Adler and Kwon, 2002; McPhee, 1988) in specific parts of organizations. This means that superiors and subordinates observed in network studies may be placed in different occupations. Further, as it has been suggested that networks are shaped not only by similarity but also by organizational structures (Brass et al., 2004), the opportunity to gain access to the formal chain

of hierarchical communication may differ depending on the occupation and its organizational context" (p. 341-342).

"Research concerning gender-labelled contexts and networks is lacking. However, research that focuses on topics other than networks indicates that the gender-labelled context is significant in furthering understanding of women's and men's conditions at work; according to these studies, the gender-labelled context shapes equal conditions for men and women when they are positioned in the same workplace. For example, studies have shown that the gender-labelled context determines patterns of control (Björk et al., 2011), stress (Westerberg and Armelius, 2000), performance and conditions at work (Keisu, 2009; Rutherford, 2001). A rich literature also shows that qualifications and work duties that have traditionally been associated with femininity are valued less than qualifications in typically masculine jobs (e.g., England, 1992; Kilbourne et al., 1994; Simpson, 2009). As Ridgeway (1997) notes, that which is construed as masculine is often seen as superior to and more competent than that which is construed as feminine. A consequence of the masculine being valued more highly than the feminine is that the masculine becomes more widely recognized and accepted as the most competent, and such inequalities seem to drive the social construction of how work should be valued and organized (Ridgeway, 1991). Thus, the higher estimation of male-dominated occupations seems to be institutionalized in organizations' value systems (Baron, 1991) and can have consequences for both men's and women's access to networks within organizations" (p. 342).

**Reference**

Hunt, T.A. (2013). Transcending polarization? Strategic identity construction in young women's transnational feminist networks. *Women's Studies International Forum Volume,* 40, 152-161.

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| Author-provided abstract (indicate if none) | This article explores the phenomenon of young women organizing in and building "youth-only" transnational feminist networks. Qualitative data gathered during a 2010–2011 study of activist women under 30 years old in the MENA region, Central and Eastern Europe, and North America suggests the choice to organize as "youth" is often presented as strategic, with members of young women's transnational feminist networks advancing two interlinked claims. The first is that young women in global social justice movements have similar experiences in feeling marginalized when compared to their male and older-generation counterparts. The second is that coalescing in response to this "universal" marginalization creates opportunities for young activist women to transcend the "identity politics", class divides and philosophical differences historically plaguing transnational feminist organizing. Ultimately, study participants argue this strategic choice of organizing as youth will enable the building of a more democratic transnational feminist movement. |
| Keywords (5-7) | • Feminism<br>• Transnational Feminism<br>• Youth<br>• Young Women<br>• Transnational Feminist Networks (TFN's) |
| Country | • United States |
| Key Highlights (3-21 – be brief in the summary) | • Discusses the way in which 'young women's transnational feminist networks (TFN's) engage in what Spivak (1990) termed 'strategic essentialism' – which draws on and actively constructs narratives about youth experiences within transnational activist and advocacy circuits<br>• Explores literature on collective movement identities and transnational feminisms discusses the way in which the founders and facilitators of young |

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| | women's TFN's 'routinely assert and articulate common 'youth' experiences among the membership' – p.153.<br>• Young feminists that took part in the study emphasised that their male counterparts in social justice movements are less likely to become marginalized voices vis-à-vis older generations of leadership e.g., simply because they are young<br>• The study also found that members of the TFN's stressed that this feeling of exclusion is nearly universal, creating among a group of otherwise diverse young activist women a 'shared' sense of oppression that crosscuts national, political, cultural and social differences. This finding presents an intriguing challenge to literature suggesting contemporary TFNs favor "agenda-based" and "discursive" solidarity over identity-based rhetoric (Conway, 2010; Dare, 2008; Estrada-Claudio, 2010; Ferree & Pudrovska, 2006; Moghadam, 2005) |
| Theory Used | Theory Name:<br>• Feminism<br>• Global Feminism |

**Key citations from the article**

"Histories of transnational women's organizing, such as those produced by Rupp (1997), Keck and Sikkink (1998), Rupp and Taylor (1999) and Bolt (2004), demonstrate that feminists will make considerable efforts to forge collective movement identities when it is believed strategic "identity T.A. Hunt / Women's Studies International Forum 40 (2013) 152–161 153politics" can "lead to new forms of solidarity that respect both particularities and similarities" (Rupp & Taylor, 1999; p. 382)" (p. 153-154).

"When we, the young feminists realized we can do more than preparing coffee and tea or fixing the seniors' problems with technology," writes Zolah member Fatma on her blog Brownie, "we argued that we have potentials and we can change our situations" (Emam, 2010)" (p.157).

"'Movement identities' thus may draw more on the connections and goals members of a social movement community negotiate rather than "essentially" or organically experience. As Rupp and Taylor (1999) and McDonald (2002) have argued, activists do not bring ready-made identities to social movement organizing but rather partial public and personal identities that evolve in response to collaborations within a social movement community. Emphasizing the inclusive, democratic and negotiated construction of common priorities, goals and agendas, "solidarities" in transnational feminism thus become discursive rather than

identity-based; this notion is reinforced by numerous studies of more contemporary transnational feminist organizing (Conway, 2010; Dare, 2008; Estrada-Claudio, 2010; Ferree & Pudrovska, 2006)" (p.154).

**Reference**

Gavanas, A. (2013). Migrant domestic workers, social network strategies and informal markets for domestic services in Sweden. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 36, 54-64.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article explores the dynamics of migration, working conditions and in/formalization in the domestic service sector in Sweden. Based on an interview study conducted in Stockholm 2009/ 2010, the article identifies crucial aspects of a range of large scale social and economic shifts in Sweden. Especially in focus are the conditions of migrant domestic workers (from Eastern Europe, Russia, Mongolia, Africa and South America) within a global division of labor. Compared to other European countries, Sweden is a unique case due to its social democratic welfare state traditions encouraging female work participation and public solutions for care, as well as its longstanding controversies around policies encouraging private domestic services (Gavanas, 2006; Gavanas, 2010a). Due to its hierarchical connotations in line with gender, class and ethnicity, proposals for tax deduction for domestic service have been highly contested in Sweden. The mere idea of a private domestic service goes against the grain of social democratic and feminist traditions as well as cultural preferences for public care (Gavanas, 2006; Öberg, 1999). However, since tax reductions for domestic services were introduced in 2007, rapid transformations have taken place in Sweden. In addition to the tax reductions, the Swedish market for domestic service is also expanding as a result of welfare state cutbacks, as well as privatization of public care, deregulation, internationalization and flexibilization of labor markets (Gavanas, 2006; Platzer, 2003; de los Reyes, 2002). In this article, I am arguing that the domestic service market is undergoing segmentation based on social network segregation, as opposed to the policy ambition that a formal sector, as a result of the tax reductions, is replacing an informal sector. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Migration<br>• Gender |

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| | • Working Conditions<br>• In/formlization<br>• Domestic Service Sector |
| **Country** | • Sweden |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-22 – be brief in the summary)** | • Explores the effects to migrant domestic workers of the controversial tax reductions that were introduced in Sweden in 2007, specifically looking at the gendered implications of social network strategies in this context<br>• The article highlights the ways in which formal and informal parts of the domestic service market in Stockholm are inseparable and connected through a range of gendered actor strategies, practices and social networks.<br>• Explores ways intermediaries operate in cases where migrant workers lack significant bargaining resources: Swedish language fluency, documented migration status and social networks. Discusses gendered dynamics of sexual harassment and blackmailing in relations between actors (i.e., workers, clients, intermediaries and employers) in Stockholm's in/formal domestic service market. Internationally, domestic service is a main type of employment taken up by migrant women (Ehrenreich & Hochschild, 2002; Lutz, 2011) and migrant women are overrepresented in the Swedish domestic service sector as well (Gavanas & Darin Mattsson, 2011; Håkansson, 2012).<br>• In this context, the article highlights issues of race/ ethnicity (i.e., the workings of gendered/ethnified/racialized3 preferences) in the increasing demand for domestic services. The article addresses theoretical discussions on the ways social inclusion/exclusion, and survival strategies in competitive global markets, are intertwined with processes of in/formalization5 of labor markets. Specifically gendered dynamics in negotiations of labor market relations, based on social networks, are introduced into this theoretical context. P. 55. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:** |

| | • Network theory |
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**Key citations from the article**

“Social networks are also crucial to the organization of the in/formal economy. While social networks may contribute to participation in formal labor markets, exploitative relations may also be organized through social networks (Aguilera & Massey, 2003; Epstein, 2003:30; Hansson, 2008; Khosravi, 2010; Vasta, 2004:7). In the context of working life, sociologist Mark Granovetter defined the workings of social networks through personal (as opposed to formal) contacts as “some individual known personally to the respondent, with whom he originally became acquainted in some context unrelated to a search for job information” (1995:11). Social networks (friends, family, internet forums, etc.), entrepreneurs and intermediaries organize domestic services and put workers, clients and employers in touch with each other (Gavanas, 2010a, 2011). This goes for the whole continuum of formal as well as informal parts of the market, as formally registered companies both recruit workers and find customers through social networks (Gavanas & Darin Mattsson, 2011)” (p. 57).

**Reference**

Bogren, M., von Friedrichs, Y., Rennemo, Ø., & Widding, Ø. (2013). Networking women entrepreneurs: fruitful for business growth? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,* 5(1), 60-77.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to explore the kinds of contacts and networks women find supportive in their role as business leaders, and which also support their willingness to grow their business. The approach is to investigate the context of women entrepreneurs and the kinds of supporting social networks of which they are part. This is seen in relation to their willingness to grow.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Questionnaires were sent to women entrepreneurs in mid-Sweden and mid-Norway, relating to supportive assets and willingness for growth.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The results show: that personal networks are seen as a more supportive asset than business networks; that personal contacts with other entrepreneurs are regarded as valuable; and that women entrepreneurs who are positive towards new networks already have a more heterogenic network than those who do not express this willingness.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>Without a relational attitude and a willingness to put oneself into a relational interplay, women entrepreneurs will have a hard time succeeding in growing their businesses.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>This study is unique in three ways: first, it combines different theoretical perspectives, above all a variety of network perspectives seen in an entrepreneurial context. Second, from a |

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| | huge set of data containing women entrepreneurs, the paper presents valid findings about social network configurations among this group. Third, it introduces the term “willingness”, and discusses the effects related to this and to network expansion and business growth. These dimensions help us to increase the understanding of networking and growth in women-owned enterprises. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Sweden<br>• Norway<br>• Women<br>• Entrepreneurialism<br>• Business development<br>• Women entrepreneurs<br>• Social networks<br>• Growth |
| **Country** | • Sweden and Norway |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-23 – be brief in the summary)** | • The research set out with the research question: “How do women entrepreneurs differ when constructing their networks?” The article provides an overview of the different supportive assets and the extent to which these assets are reported to provide support for women entrepreneurs in two regions. For the women entrepreneurs in both countries, it was found that personal networks are seen as more important than business networks. Contacts with other entrepreneurs on a personal level, as well as contacts with friends, family, and relatives, were found to be valued as supportive assets<br>• Women entrepreneurs are categorised into three groups by using the term willingness, depending on their willingness to participate in the development and networking program. The women who were interested in receiving more information about the program in the first questionnaire were labelled “the willing” (629 entrepreneurs), and the women who were not interested in getting more information were labelled “the unwilling” (270 entrepreneurs).<br>• The results demonstrated that personal networks are seen as a more supportive asset than business networks; that |

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| | personal contacts with other entrepreneurs are regarded as valuable; and that women entrepreneurs who are positive towards new networks already have a more heterogenic network than those who do not express this willingness<br>• Companies run by women are mostly seen as a resource and an underdeveloped asset in our society. Previous research shows that companies run by women are underrepresented when it comes to accessing financial capital and performing business growth (Brush et al., 2006). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Network theory |

**Key citations from the article**

"One conclusion we have drawn from this material is that the willing and the extra willing entrepreneurs have a stronger diversity and heterogeneity in their network that they report as supportive, compared to the unwilling group. Additionally, the extra willing entrepreneurs show that they get great support from both their personal networks and their business networks. That might indicate that these entrepreneurs have built both expressive and instrumental network relations (Ibarra, 1992, 1997) and also use more professional contacts (Hill et al., 1999)" (p.70).

"Networks develop over time (Hill et al., 1999), and we find that women entrepreneurs with the strongest growth ambitions also have the most expansive and professional networks" (p.71).

"Over the years, several scholars have recognized the importance of networks and relationships as resources for business growth and development. Examples of this include Johannisson and Nilsson (1989), who underpin the importance of networks as a means of achieving successful business development, and Johannisson (1996) who highlights mutual exchange in personal networks. In his seminal work, Granovetter (1973, 1985) explains that economic organizations are embedded in networks of interpersonal relationships and larger social structures" (p. 61).

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**Reference**

Jolly, M. (2012). Recognising Place, Space and Nation in Researching Women's Movements: Sisterhood and After. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 35(3), 144-146.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Sisterhood and After: The Women's Liberation Oral History Project has attempted to capture regional and national as well as ethnic diversity within the complex geographical and political entities of the United Kingdom. We argue against generalising about the UK or 'British' movement, important as the cities of England and specifically London have been to the development of political mass, acknowledging the independent networks in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Our findings suggest that in contrast to English activists' tendency to be suspicious of the state, in the 'Celtic periphery' of Wales, Scotland and – more complicatedly – Northern Ireland, feminists have more often sought state–level political opportunities to advance claims within these jurisdictions. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women's Liberation Movement<br>• Activism<br>• National Identity<br>• Migration and Networking<br>• Diversity |
| **Country** | • United Kingdom |
| **Key Highlights (3-24 – be brief in the summary)** | • Sisterhood and After project involved the careful selection of interviewees from Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales with questions designed for use in the qualitative interviews with all interviewees about national identity, migration and networking across regions, cities and borders – made use of oral history interviews<br>• FEMCIT's findings suggest that women's movements in the UK have, though unevenly, understood that we need to look beyond self-identified feminist or women-only campaigns to find feminist activism, particularly in minority women's contexts.<br>• Argues that the perspective of Sisterhood and After is somewhat different, in part |

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| | because they have restricted themselves in the research to interviewing core activists of the 1970s and 1980s who identify themselves as feminists.<br>• Findings suggest that in England, activists were dedicated to decentralisation and they were generally suspicious of the state, and ironically, they discuss how they found that it has been in the 'Celtic periphery' of Wales, Scotland and— more complicatedly—Northern Ireland, that feminists have more often sought state-level political opportunities to advance claims within these jurisdictions. P.145 |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• Article describes findings from a research project based on oral history interviews |

**Key citations from the article**

"Many political characteristics of the British women's liberation movement—internationalism and migration combining with powerful investments in place and localised activism are discernible in other regions and countries. We know that everywhere national identity is important yet limited in defining women's interests" (p. 145).

"It may be that to fully understand space and place as determinants for women's movements, a more institutional lens is needed than our oral history can provide, one which grasps the role of states and of international law in defining women's status and the possibility of coalition. What our project can offer instead is testimony to the experience of roots and of place, of forcible or chosen journeying, of how living the life of feminist activism seems inevitably to challenge geographical belonging at some level" (p.145).

**Reference**

Chen, A., Doherty, N., & Vinnicombe, S. (2012). Developing women's career competencies through an EMBA. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 27(4), 232-248.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to report a qualitative study with British women managers, which explored the career competencies accrued from undertaking an Executive MBA (EMBA).<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The research drew on in-depth interviews with a sample of 18 female alumni from three British business schools. Data were analyzed using NVivo 8.0. within the career-competencies framework of Knowing-how, Knowing-why and Knowing-whom.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Women aged between 30 and 34 years emphasized the importance of gaining confidence (Knowing-why) and skills (Knowing-how) while those aged between 35 and 45 years focused on developing networks (Knowing-whom). This study suggests that age and career stage may have considerable impact on perceptions of acquired career competencies.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>This is an exploratory piece with limited generalisability; however, it exposes the need to clarify the concept of career stage for women.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>Business schools have historically stressed the career benefits of MBA programmes in terms of improved capital and of changing career directions. This research indicates that an EMBA may offer a more level playing field for women with respect to networking activities. In the |

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| | competitive global environment, business schools may benefit from more fully exploring career competencies, such as networking skills, for increasing the appeal of EMBA programmes. The paper also draws attention to the need for HR managers to increase efforts for improving women's career competencies. Originality/value – Findings extend previous research on the development of career competencies from an EMBA, indicating the importance of developing networks, particularly at mid-career. The paper highlights the need to redefine women's mid-career stage. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • United Kingdom<br>• Business Schools<br>• Women<br>• Managers<br>• Competences<br>• Career development<br>• Master of Business Administration |
| **Country** | • United Kingdom |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-25 – be brief in the summary)** | • Qualitative data used to highlight key emerging themes relating to the competencies of Knowing-how (defined as "hard" and "soft" skills), Knowing-whom (defined as networks and connections) and Knowing-why (defined as confidence)<br>• The Paper discusses how there are marked differences between younger (30-34 years) and more experienced (35-45 years) women in terms of the acquisition of career competencies, with extensive discussion of the qualitative data gathered from participants to provide an insight into the career competencies gained by women who had undertaken an EMBA<br>• Women said that they gained career competencies across all three ways of knowing, including "hard" and "soft" skills, confidence and networks. The study also suggests that the acquisition of competencies varied with age. Overall, there were noteworthy differences in the career competencies perceived by women aged 30-34 and women aged 35-45 – findings suggest that differences in |

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| | perception of career competencies may be attributable to age or career stage |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Career theory |

**Key citations from the article**

"A range of issues relating to gender and career development have been covered in the existing literature to date. These include the development of career competencies and career progression of women. Despite opportunities for education there remain barriers to women's progress to senior positions, for example although women make up 51 per cent of the British population and are better educated than ever before, they are underrepresented in top jobs (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2011) and at board level in top UK companies (Sealy and Vinnicombe, 2012)" (p. 233).

"Management researchers have long studied women's representation and inclusion in organisations (Adler et al., 2000; Bilimoria et al., 2008). Our research offers qualitative evidence from women managers in a UK context to add to the literature on Women's career competencies 243career competencies. It contributes to the current knowledge based on two levels. First, this study has provided a deeper understanding of the ways in which women leverage an EMBA to develop their managerial roles and careers. Since previous research has not studied the career outcomes gained by British women from taking the EMBA, our work contributes to the understanding of career-competencies development for women. Second, our findings have emphasized the relative importance of acquiring skills, confidence and networks as a result of completing the EMBA at different temporal phases in women's careers. This highlights the importance of redefining women's mid-career stage. Mainstream scholarship on the career stage concept indicates that female workers struggle with family and work commitments (Levinson, 1996) and women managers face similar obstacles at mid-career stage (O'Neil and Bilimoria, 2005; Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005). Our research suggests that this is not a universal trend" (p. 243-244).

**Reference**

Arthur, M. M., Del Campo, R.G., & van Buren, H.J. (2011). The impact of gender-differentiated golf course features on women's networking. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 26(1), 37-56.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to consider whether golf functions as a networking barrier for women in professions that require networking for career success.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Data from 496 golf courses, in addition to demographic data and data about salaries in sales, managerial, and marketing and sales professions in the USA, were used to assess if differences in tee box placement between men's and women's tees would predict participation and salaries in networking-oriented professions.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The analyses indicate that differences in tee box placement between men's and women's tees did predict differences in participation and salaries in networking-oriented professions. It was found that the greater the distance between men's and women's tees, the lower the salaries and participation rate for women. This effect was greatest for the marketing and sales profession.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>Golf is one networking barrier among many, and so other networking barriers that have deleterious effects on women's advancement and success should be explored. Further research might include observational studies of mixed-gender golf groups and might also explore whether women choose not to pursue networking occupations or women are not selected for jobs that require networking on the golf course.<br><br>Social implications |

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| | Companies should be aware of how venues selected for networking might have disparate impacts for men and women and select venues that are as gender-neutral as possible.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>This paper is, to the authors' knowledge, the first empirical investigation of gender relations in non-traditional work settings with female participation and earnings in occupations that require networking for career success. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Gender<br>• Networking<br>• Golf courses<br>• Women<br>• Sports<br>• Discrimination |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-26 – be brief in the summary)** | • The article explores the impact of men's and women's starting tee box placements on women's networking abilities and argues that 'tee boxes that are situated close together facilitate communication on the golf course and tee boxes that are far apart inhibit it' (p.38)<br>• Authors argue that differences in starting tees on golf courses are an unexplored networking barrier<br>• Research exploring physical proximity within work organisations has argued that 'the frequency of communication declines drastically as the distance between the communicators increases' (Galegher et al., 1990)" (p.41). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Network Theory |

**Key citations from the article**

"Morgan and Martin (2006) also have suggested that women are excluded from networking opportunities in their analyses of strip clubs and golf courses. With more opportunities to interact with top-level employees, men create opportunities for themselves to further their careers. Many of these opportunities exist on US golf courses" (p.42).

"The evaluation of network accessibility is examined by Brass (1985), who found that women are poorly integrated into men's networks. Such limited access to the richness of information and support provided by a broad network prevents women

from developing working relationships that are paramount to effective performance (Ibarra, 1993)" (p.42).

"What matters, we propose, is not whether men and women know each other within an organisation. Rather, what really matters is whether men and women have equal opportunities to build social networks that will allow them to use the value of their human capital to the best advantage possible (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). We propose that our analysis might usefully expand the analysis of networking and career outcomes to take in the full range of networking opportunities. Further work might identify where career-relevant networking takes places, which networking environmental are homosocial, and the individual and cumulative effects of homosocial networking environmental on women's career-related outcomes" (p. 54).

**Reference**

Durbin, S. (2011). Creating Knowledge through Networks: a Gender Perspective. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 18(1), 90-112.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article offers a theoretical analysis of knowledge creation through networking, specifically drawing upon the example of female senior managers as potential knowledge creators. The article constructs a model of networks and their corresponding knowledge and organizational types. It highlights the importance of differentiating between formal and informal networks and shows that senior women have limited access to and are often excluded from strategic informal networks, such as the old boys' network. Restricted network access denies involvement in the exchange and creation of tacit knowledge and ultimately, organizational resources and power. The strength of network ties may also impact upon the quality of knowledge exchanged within networks, its level of complexity and strategic relevance. The article contributes to the debate on the gendering of the knowledge economy and suggests a theoretical approach to understanding women's inclusion and exclusion from knowledge creation in organizations. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gender<br>• Networking<br>• Sharing knowledge<br>• Work and organisation<br>• Homophily<br>• Old boys' network |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-27 – be brief in the summary)** | • Explores networking, knowledge and gender as key interrelating concepts and considers how best to operationalise these concepts in researching women's networks in organisations<br>• A barrier for senior women is the persistence of the 'old boys' network<br>• Informal networks for knowledge creation and conversion are important<br>• The knowledge economy is gendered and may impact gender equality in organisations, therefore we need to |

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| | rethink the concept of knowledge from a gendered theoretical perspective. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Knowledge conversion process<br>• Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and Nonaka and Nishiguchi (2001) claim that there are four stages to the knowledge conversion process. The first key stage is socialization (Nonaka and Nishiguchi, 2001), which involves the conversion of new tacit knowledge gained through shared experiences and joint activities. Apprenticeship relationships are a typical example, as are informal meetings outside the workplace. Socialization involves capturing knowledge through physical face-to-face proximity and is the point at which ba originates. Originating ba is the primary point from which the knowledge-creation process begins.<br>• Academics have given relatively little attention to gender when considering knowledge sharing and creation, with some notable exceptions, although gender is a significant theme in the literature on networking. |

**Key citations from the article**

“Not all networks are open to senior women, even to those who have been found to manage like men at the senior levels of organizations (Wajcman, 1998) and it is at this level where important tacit knowledge is exchanged, embedded knowledge that sets the strategic cultural tone for the organization” (p. 109).

“Women's networks tend to be less homophilous (Ibarra, 1992, 1993) and broader, which may inhibit their ability to manage high levels of complex knowledge through those networks. Women can also be members of formal groups that are homophilous and gendered (for example, professional women's networks) and men informal homophilous groups that are gendered (old boys' networks)” (p.109).

“Gender and knowledge are constituted and reconstituted in networks, the availability of similar others, the strength and the formality and informality of networks, in turn, determining the knowledge form, type and complexity” (p.107).

**Reference**

D'Exelle, B., & Holvoet, N. (2011). Gender and Network Formation in Rural Nicaragua: A Village case study. *Feminist Economics,* 17(2), 31-61.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This contribution examines the relation between gender and network formation in rural Nicaragua in 2007 and studies differences in the structure and contents of men's and women's networks. Such differences are relevant, as network theory suggests that structural characteristics – as well as the contents of networks – strongly influence the type and amount of benefits generated. Through the application of dyadic regression techniques, this study examines the determinants of the size and socioeconomic heterogeneity of individual networks. Research findings suggest gender segregation of networks and considerable differences in the structure and content of men's and women's networks. These differences relate to the gendered division of labor and to women's time poverty in particular. Our results are relevant in a context where policy makers increasingly consider social networks an important policy tool. We caution against a gender-blind alignment on existing social networks and argue for detailed mapping and unpacking of social networks through a gender lens. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Social network analysis<br>• Dyadic regression<br>• Gender sorting<br>• Gendered labor division<br>• Rural Nicaragua |
| **Country** | • Nicaragua |
| **Key Highlights (3-28 – be brief in the summary)** | • Gender and network formation – explores this in rural Nicaragua through a village case study – focuses on the differences in the structure and content of men's and women's networks<br>• The key focus is on to what extent 'gender' influence's men's and women's formation of social relations<br>• Looks at how people are embedded into local structures |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:** |

| | • Network Theory |
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**Key citations from the article**

“To understand the variations in the constraints individual agents face, it is useful to examine how people are embedded in local social structures. Such analysis is best undertaken by ego-network analysis. A commonly used concept within social network analysis is an ego-network, defined as the group of people (that is, ‘‘alters’’) to which an individual (or, ‘‘ego’’) is directly connected. There are at least two structural dimensions of such networks that directly determine individual agency and access to resources and opportunities: ego-network size and the heterogeneity within one’s ego-network” (p. 34-35).

“This research focuses on possible differences between men’s and women’s ego-networks with respect to their size and heterogeneity and explores factors that might influence these differences, focusing in particular on gender-related factors” (p. 35).

**Reference**

Hawarden, R.J., & Marsland, S. (2011). Locating women board members in gendered director networks. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 26(8), 532-549.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>Despite the extensive study of director interlocks very little is known about gendered director networks. Boards of directors are primarily male; globally, only 5-20 per cent of directors are women and change is described as glacially slow. The extent to which women directors are central to the network, or pushed to the margins, is unknown. Using the tools of social network analysis we extract the components of three director networks, a global and two national networks and locate the women directors. The paper aims to examine the persistence of director networks over time to determine whether gender related differences – apart from size – contribute to the apparent resistance to change.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The paper uses a longitudinal approach, comparing director networks on a global network scale (2004 and 2007 Fortune Global 200) and a national one (2004 and 2007 New Zealand Stock Exchange) with the iconic 1999 Fortune US 1000 dataset. After extracting the largest connected component, the female directors are separated out. From the 2004 and 2007 data director turnover is calculated to determine the stability of the networks.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Female directors are more likely to be found in the largest connected component of the mixed gender network, indicating that they are not marginalised. Despite high turnover rates, director networks are stable over time which may manifest as resistance to change.<br><br>Originality/value |

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| | The structure of gendered director networks is unknown and the location of women directors in the network components has not been considered in board diversity research. The results point to an underlying gender equity in all director networks. A new theoretical approach, glass network theory, has implications for boardroom diversity interventions. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Women directors<br>• Network diversity<br>• Glass ceiling<br>• Gender<br>• New Zealand |
| **Country** | • New Zealand |
| Key Highlights<br>(3-29 – be brief in the summary) | • The article discusses how women directors tend to be found in larger companies with larger boards, often as the token woman (Carter et al., 2003; Farrell and Hersch, 2005; Nguyen and Faff, 2007).<br>• The authors researched three networks of directors at a national and global level, two of them at two time points three years apart. By extracting network components and using gender as an analytical tool, the location and role of women directors as connector directors (who have more than one simultaneous board appointment) was explored.<br>• The study found the same low percentages of women directors reported elsewhere but also found that – despite high levels of director turnover with approximately 50 per cent of directors replaced between 2004 and 2007 – the percentage of women directors remains remarkably constant. |
| Theory Used | **Theory Name:**<br>• Glass network theory (GNT) |

**Key citations from the article**

"Globally, only 5-20 per cent of directors of substantial organisations are women (Vinnicombe et al., 2008). While this gender imbalance is increasingly under challenge in Western countries, as notions of gender equity and equal employment opportunities become the norm, the ratio has remained remarkably constant despite 30 years of affirmative action (Joy, 2008; Hawarden and Stablein, 2008; Ross-Smith and Bridge, 2008; Shilton et al., 2010). Progress has

been described as “glacially slow” (Bellar et al., 2004) and “glacial at best” (Ross-Smith and Bridge, 2008). Only where quotas have been introduced, in countries such as Norway and Spain, is board equity being achieved (Seierstad and Opsahl, 2011; de Anca, 2008; Huse, 2007)” (p.532).

“Diversity interventions. We wish to lay the foundations for a theoretical approach to the analysis of gendered director networks based on advances in complex network theory. We term this the “glass network”, in analogy to the ubiquitous metaphor of the glass ceiling, which Baxter and Wright (2000, p. 71) suggest is “one of the most compelling metaphors for analyzing inequalities between men and women in the workplace” (p. 533).

**Reference**

Klyver, K. (2011). Gender differences in entrepreneurial networks: adding an alter perspective. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 26(5), 332-350.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>By adding an alter perspective to the traditional ego perspective on gender differences in entrepreneurial networks, the purpose of this study is to investigate whether involvement of family members who are not partners, and exchange of emotional support is associated not only with the gender of the entrepreneurs but also the gender of entrepreneurs' alters.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Building on homophily theory, relational theory and social support theory, three hypotheses are developed and tested on a representative sample of Danish entrepreneurs and their alters. A hierarchical logistic regression approach is applied.<br><br>Findings<br><br>It is found that female focal entrepreneurs are more likely to involve female and family members who are not partners. Furthermore, it was found that female focal entrepreneurs would more likely involve female family members while male focal entrepreneurs would more likely involve male family members. And finally, it was found that females and males are equally likely to receive emotional support while females are more likely to provide it.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>An important lesson from this study is that both focal actors and alters have an essential role in the entrepreneurial act and that females and males perform different roles and functions as both the focal entrepreneurs and as alters.<br><br>Originality/value |

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| | This study is unique in the sense that it adds an alter perspective to the traditional ego perspective on entrepreneurial networks. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Entrepreneurship<br>• Social networks<br>• Alters<br>• Family<br>• Emotional support |
| **Country** | • Denmark |
| Key Highlights<br>(3-30 – be brief in the summary) | • The paper builds on the argument that females relate differently to others, and therefore often have different social networks compared to males.<br>• It focuses specifically on the issues of emotional closeness and social support – the aim of the paper being to embed entrepreneurship in a social context by investigating gender issues across ego and alto simultaneously.<br>• Found that both focal actors and alters have an essential role in the entrepreneurial activities and that females and males perform different roles and function as both the focal entrepreneurs and as alters. This leads to the suggestion that much prior research into gender differences in entrepreneurship has failed – given that only the focal actor has been the focus.<br>• Gender differences need to be understood in a broader context that embeds the entrepreneurial act into a broader social context. |
| Theory Used | **Theory Name:**<br>• Entrepreneurial network theory<br>• Homophily theory<br>• Relational theory<br>• Social support theory |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"In general, it has been argued that females relate differently to others and, therefore, often have different social networks compared to males. The social networks of females are more likely shaped by a preference for emotional closeness – a preference for relations to whom they feel closely and emotionally attached (Liebler and Sandefur, 2002; Bell, 1991). Often a preference for emotional closeness results in females having more family members in their networks (Marsden, 1987; Moore, 1990). On the other hand, the social networks of males are more likely shaped by shared activities (Liebler and Sandefur, 2002; Bell, 1991). Previous research also shows that females are more likely to be both | |

providers and receivers of emotional support (House, 1987, Agneessens et al., 2006). The issues of emotional closeness and social support are the main focus in this investigation" (p. 333).

"By considering the various roles and functions fulfilled by various individuals during the entrepreneurial act, we are moving away from an individualistic perception of entrepreneurship towards a more collectivistic perception of entrepreneurship in GM 26,5 346 which the entrepreneurial team becomes essential regardless of whether team members are formal team members or informal team members. Cooney (2005, p. 226) wrote in an editorial to a special issue on entrepreneurial team: One of the great myths of entrepreneurship has been the notion of the entrepreneur as a lone hero, battling against the storms of economic, government, social, and other environmental forces before anchoring in the harbour of success" (p. 346-347).

**Reference**

Blackmore, J. (2011). Bureaucratic, Corporate/market and Network Governance: Shifting Spaces for Gender Equity in Education. *Gender, Work & Organization,*18(5), 443-466.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Education as a field of policy, research and practice has been reconfigured over four decades by economic, social and cultural globalization in conjuncture with neoliberal policies premised upon markets and new managerialism. One effect has been shifting boundaries between, and understandings of what constitutes the public and the private with regard to the role of the state vis-á-vis the formation of gendered subjectivities and civil society and the gendering of public– private relations in and between family and work. Drawing on feminist readings of Bourdieu and critical policy sociology, I consider the implications of a move from bureaucratic educational governance framed by state welfarism to corporate or market governance framed by the post-welfare state, and consider whether particular constructions of globalization and corporate/market governance lead to network governance. Network governance, it is argued is premised on new forms of sociality and institutional reconfigurations of knowledge-based economies and a spatialized state that coordinates rather than regulates multiple public–private providers. The question is how each mode of governance frames various possibilities and problems for gender equity in education. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Governance<br>• Gender<br>• Equity policy<br>• Education<br>• Networks |
| **Country** | • Australia |
| **Key Highlights (3-31 – be brief in the summary)** | • The discourse is now one of social inclusion in which the individual participates, with some support from public and private agencies, to take responsibility for their own lifelong learning through assisted case management of their education and |

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| | training. But, as Leathwood and Francis (2006) argue, both economic and 'social inclusion' narratives are equally concerned with inclusion into, conformity with, and the legitimation of, a starkly and highly stratified society'(p. 177).<br>• Women continue to over-perform in education and yet receive fewer rewards in the workplace than their male equivalents. Focusing on individual responsibility and agency to the neglect of the structural and cultural factors that shape the opportunities and choices for many, but not all, women mean there is an ongoing refusal as to how particular conditions unequally distribute risk in the production of gendered subjectivities |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Draws on feminist readings of Bourdieu and critical policy sociology, to consider the implications of a move from bureaucratic educational governance framed by state welfarism to corporate or market governance framed by the post-welfare state, and consider whether particular constructions of globalization and corporate/market governance lead to network governance. |

**Key citations from the article**

"Regardless, governments have, in response to high-risk contexts of fast capitalism propagated progressive discourses of knowledge-based economies, lifelong learning and innovation in association with neoliberal policies of individual choice and institutional audit regimes. Debates have arisen during the 2000s from all sides of politics as to whether educational institutions — schools, universities or technical institutes, community colleges and training institutions — can retain their 20th century organizational forms" (p.444).

"That is, while the changing social relations of gender are transforming familial arrangements and gender subjectivities are reconstituted through social and economic change, the principle of the family remains central to social life, government and modernization. While the principle of democracy is central to modernization, new forms of governance produce and reproduce old and new modes of exclusion and inclusion. While education is central to the modernization project, its institutional forms and effects alter" (p.444).

'The 20th century conceptualization was that education was a public common good with collective benefits such as social cohesion and reduced inequality. Women and other equity groups, due to state activism, gained greater equity in the public sector, although positioned through a needs discourse as deficient in terms of culture, attributes and language. Education within corporate/market governance

was reconceptualized as a matter of individual choice, a positional good, encapsulated in a rights-oriented discourse and economistic notions of human capital that privileged private self-interest over the public benefits of education" (p.462).

"Individuals are expected to help themselves build social capital through community-based networks, voluntary, commercial and government, and human capital through education to become independent lifelong learners. A tension exists in education policies between the self-managing reflexive and relational subject who understands and acts on their responsibilities, and neoliberalism's self-maximizing, uncaring homo economicus, which is skewed to some men's advantage" (p.462).

**Reference**

Zin, M., & Kusakabe, K. (2010). Motherhood and social network: Response strategies of internally displaced Karen women in Taungoo district. *Women's Studies International Forum,*33(5), 482-491.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)** | This paper investigates the response strategies of displaced women, based on the oral testimonies of displaced Karen women. Contrary to conventional refugee literature, which treats displaced people as passive victims, we found that instead of feeling helpless when the men fled the relocation sites to escape the State Peace and Development Council (SPDC) military's abuse, women actively decided to stay back with their children and other women to maintain their social linkages, and survive in the underbelly of the SPDC by leveraging their femininity and their identity as mothers. We found that the women used the concept of motherhood as a negotiation tool to reduce the damage from their experiences of conflict and displacement. At the same time, ironically, the success of this strategy led the insurgents to include the women in their military strategies, putting them in a precarious situation between the fighting parties. |
| **Keywords (5-7)** | • Displaced women<br>• Motherhood<br>• Support networks<br>• Myanmar<br>• Conflict |
| **Country** | • Myanmar |
| **Key Highlights (3-32 – be brief in the summary)** | • Internally displaced people are often seen as helpless victims dependent on the humanitarian community. Conventional refugee studies have focused on the legal, political and institutional dimensions of the crisis and looked at the displaced as passive victims<br>• As forced migration causes a breakdown in law and order, women and girls are at high risk of various forms of violence and abuse.<br>• One of the response strategies of displaced women is to venture into new and unaccustomed roles which were previously carried by men. |

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| | • Displaced Karen women have demonstrated their agency to make a clear decision to manoeuvre the delicate political balance but their multiple identities make such balancing extremely difficult. Although Karen women have shown incredible strengths in resisting/ negotiating, it must also be emphasized that these strategies have not been strong enough to end the oppression or transform the human rights abuses that they continue to suffer under SPDC. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

“For them, moving further away would put them at risk as they would be separated from their support networks of relatives and newfound friends in displacement. Such networks are important for them in obtaining moral support, personal strength and emotional support” (p.490).

“Women's use of motherhood as a response strategy has extended their power and status as mothers from within the family to the village as well as to SPDC soldiers” (p.490).

“The successful roles that women are now playing in the ‘nyein chan yey’ villages seem to have changed the insurgents' responses to these Karen villages. Earlier, Karen villagers were targeted for recruitment of combatants, but now, the insurgents allow them to settle down as the carriers of Karen identity. However, the insurgents do not leave the women alone. Instead they continue contacting them as a group that carries Karen identity. The insurgents' visiting of the relocation villages has aroused the military's suspicion. Therefore women who want to live in peace and away from war are put in a further precarious situation” (p.490).

“Displaced Karen women have demonstrated their agency to make a clear decision to maneuver the delicate political balance but their multiple identities make such balancing extremely difficult. Although Karen women have shown incredible strengths in resisting/ negotiating, it must also be emphasized that these strategies have not been strong enough to end the oppression or transform the human rights abuses that they continue to suffer under SPDC” (p.490).

“Before the displacement, insurgents used to contact only men in the villages for recruitment as soldiers and for other support. However, the women's successful strategies in negotiating with the SPDC military have been recognized. In the relocation sites, the KNU do not try to recruit them as fighters, but rather see them as an established Karen village, which can resist being totally co-opted and subordinated by SPDC” (p.490).

**Reference**

Foss, L. (2010). Research on entrepreneur networks: The case for a constructionist feminist theory perspective. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,*2(1), 83-102.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The paper aims to clarify how a gendered analysis of entrepreneurial networks may benefit by the use of a constructionist (post-structuralist) perspective.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The paper makes use of a discourse analysis: first, the paper reviews a selection of empirical research articles from 1980 to 2008 on gender and networks in entrepreneurship research in order to convey the main research question, the hypotheses, the methodology and the main findings. Second, the paper identifies in a broader literature the hegemonic statements that characterize the discourse of gender and networks.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The main findings of the studies reviewed is that there are no major differences in the networks of female and male entrepreneurs. Research on the significance of gender for entrepreneurial success indicates that there is probably more variation within than between sex categories with regard to network activities. This may be an indication that empiricist feminism and standpoint feminism have outplayed their role as approaches to the study of gender and networks in entrepreneurial settings. The discourse analysis reveals five hegemonic statements: entrepreneurs use social networks strategically, women are disadvantaged compared to men and therefore cannot network effectively, weak ties are the source of men's success; strong ties are women's drawback and, finally, women are inherently relational.<br><br>Research limitations/implications |

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| | Methodologically, the current status of research on networks, gender and entrepreneurship demonstrates that most of the knowledge is gained through cross-sectional surveys. Typically, the majority of studies on entrepreneurship, due to the methods chosen, does not allow for first-hand, real and authentic experiences of entrepreneurial lives. Acknowledging the presence of the speaker can be done in various ways. Entrepreneurs may reveal their thoughts, their experience and reflections only if the relationship between the researcher and the researched is symmetrical. Narrative approaches are suggested in order to "tap" the voice – and thus the stories – of the acting entrepreneurs.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>Theoretically, the discourse is limited by the lack of an explicit "gendered" perspective. The analysis of the texts reveals an implicit empiricist feminist approach, resulting in networks and entrepreneurship as well as gender and networks being portrayed in a very special and limited way.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The findings of the discursive approach to research texts on gender and entrepreneurial networks, is that the discourse is limited with regard to both theory and method. This paper has shown that the discourse in the research field is limited, and that the field needs to be challenged by other disciplinary procedures regulating what counts as knowledge. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Gender<br>• Feminism<br>• Networking<br>• Narratives<br>• Entrepreneurialism |
| **Country** | • Norway |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-33 – be brief in the summary)** | • This study found no major differences between the networking behaviour of male and female entrepreneurs based on an analysis of findings taken from a set of published articles on the topic. With these findings, empiricist feminism and |

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| | standpoint feminism approaches can be said to have reached the end of useful life in the study of gender and networks in entrepreneurial settings.<br>• The purpose of the research in the sample articles was either to explore or to test the effects of gender on the personal networks of entrepreneurs (Aldrich et al., 1989; Cromie and Birley, 1992; Katz and Williams, 1997). Some articles took the question further by studying the effects of gender on the ability of entrepreneurs to mobilize the support and resources needed for the survival and growth of new businesses (Aldrich et al., 1997), the link between networking on performance (Aldrich and Reese, 1993), on growth expectancies (Manolova et al., 2007) and on women's inroads into business ownership (Renzulli et al., 2000). The purpose of the research compared the networks of female and male entrepreneurs in order to trace sex and gender-based variations and the possible effects of such variations on entrepreneurial success. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• How the requirements in feminist constructionism for situating knowledge of a phenomenon (Haraway, 1991; Prins, 1997; Brenna, 2005; Engelstad and Gerrard, 2005) can move research on entrepreneur's networks beyond feminist empiricism and feminist standpoint theory.<br>• The paper makes use of a discourse analysis: first, the paper reviews a selection of empirical research articles from 1980 to 2008 on gender and networks in entrepreneurship research in order to convey the main research question, the hypotheses, the methodology and the main findings. Second, the paper identifies in a broader literature the hegemonic statements that characterize the discourse of gender and networks. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"Inspired by the early work of West and Zimmermann (1987) and their concept of "doing gender", social scientists such as Di Stefano (1990), Bordo (1990) and Haraway (1991) introduced gender-as-process ("post-structuralist feminism"). | |

According to this perspective, biological sex is no longer treated as an analytical category, as one should be sceptical of treating men and women as two groups with distinct and coherent patterns of behaviour. Deconstruction of this established category is suggested; gender is socially constructed through history, geography and culture. Hence, what appears as masculine and feminine traits vary over time, and between places and discourses (Petterson, 2004). Gender is a cultural code to be negotiated and renegotiated, varying in time and place" (p.84).

"A post-structuralist feminist theory perspective assumes more complex intersections of gender and other social categories, and may be useful for developing network research on entrepreneurial networks" (p.85).

"Bruni et al. (2005) suggest that gender analysis of entrepreneurship differs from an analysis of women entrepreneurs in that it examines the way in which gender is culturally constructed by those social practices that constitute the social phenomenon of entrepreneurship without assuming a full correspondence between gender on one hand, and men and women on the other. Thus, the change from gender as a variable, to gender as a standpoint to be deconstructed, to "doing gender" suggests an available contribution of feminist epistemology to network research" (p.85).

"Hence, articles on network and entrepreneurship argue that weak ties are most efficient in mobilizing entrepreneurial resources whereas strong ties – usually operationalized as kin and friends – are less useful as they inhibit the acquisition of redundant information. A high share of weak ties becomes a criterion for what is considered as an efficient network. Weak ties have higher status than in empirical arguments than strong ties. Interestingly, there are seldom cross references to the positive impact of strong ties for resource acquisition, documented in family and community studies (Grieco, 1987; Wellman and Wellman, 1992)" (p.90).

**Reference**

Klyver, K., & Grant, S. (2010). Gender differences in entrepreneurial networking and participation. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,* 2(3), 213-227.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to investigate the relationship between an individual's personal acquaintance with an entrepreneur and his/her participation in entrepreneurial activity at three distinct new venture stages: discovery (intending to start a business), start-up (actively in the process of starting a business), and young (running a business for less than three months).<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data from 35 countries (n=311,720) pooled across three years (2002-2004) and multinomial logistic regression, the paper examines the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and entrepreneurial participation across gender. Gender differences in entrepreneurial networking are also examined.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The findings indicate that individuals who personally know an entrepreneur are more likely to participate in entrepreneurial activity at any venture stage but that female entrepreneurs, compared with their male counterparts, are less likely to be acquainted with an entrepreneur. Taken together, these findings suggest that one of the reasons why women are less likely to become entrepreneurs is that they lack entrepreneurial resource providers or role models in their social networks.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>The paper is subject to two limitations. First, the paper includes a single item measure of social network composition. Second, although the paper includes data from 2000 to 2004, the dataset is cross-sectional and is thus based on |

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| | different cohorts of participants. The paper offers a number of implications for theory, practice, and future research. One of the most important implications is that female entrepreneurship participation could be enhanced by policy directed at promoting female entrepreneur role models and connecting women with entrepreneurs.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The paper utilizes a representative sample of 311,720 individuals in 35 countries. Entrepreneurs are classified as operating at three distinct phases of the entrepreneurial process: discovery, start-up, and young and the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and entrepreneurship participation is examined within each of these phases. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Gender<br>• Entrepreneurialism<br>• Social networks |
| **Country** | • Denmark |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-34 – be brief in the summary)** | • Entrepreneurs are embedded in social networks (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986; Hoang and Antoncic, 2003; Larson, 1991, 1992) which include advisors, business partners, buyers, customers, employees, friends/relatives, investors, mentors, shareholders, and suppliers (Birley, 1985). Through their social networks, entrepreneurs may be able to acquire financial capital, advice, credibility/reputation, funding, information, knowledge/skills, social legitimacy, and social support (Hansen, 1995; Jensen, 2001; Ripolles and Blesa, 2005; Welter and Kautonen, 2005).<br>• Seeks to understand RQ1. At distinct venture stages, discovery (intending to start a business), startup (actively in the process of starting a business), and young (running a business for less than three months), are individuals more likely to be acquainted with an entrepreneur?<br>• RQ2. Are there differences between men's and women's propensities to be acquainted with an entrepreneur? |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name: |

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| | • Hofstede, 1983<br>• Using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data from 35 countries (n=311,720) pooled across three years (2002-2004) and multinomial logistic regression, the paper examines the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and entrepreneurial participation across gender.<br>• Gender differences in entrepreneurial networking are also examined. |

**Key citations from the article**

"To date, most research treats entrepreneurs' social networks as static, examining the effect of social networks at a single phase of the entrepreneurship process (e.g. startup), rather than across multiple phases" (p.214).

"Consistent with research on social networks among men and women in traditional organizations (Burke et al., 1995), research on entrepreneurs' social networks reveals that men and women develop social networks that are structurally different. Female entrepreneurs' social networks typically include a larger proportion of women and a smaller proportion of men than do male entrepreneurs' social networks (Aldrich et al., 1989; Cromie and Birley, 1992; Ruef et al., 2003; Smeltzer and Fann, 1989). Furthermore, the social support literature indicates that women are more likely to seek and provide emotional social support whereas men are more likely to seek and provide instrumental" (p.215).

"A second reason why entrepreneurial networking might be particularly important for women is that female entrepreneurs may struggle to develop appropriate and effective social networks due to the "interrupted" nature of their careers, e.g. child rearing (Metz and Tharenou, 2001)" (p.215).

"These findings are consistent with the literature on gender and social networks in traditional organizations. According to this literature, successful men and women develop similar social networks in order to "survive" the competitive corporate environment (Tharenou, 1997). Klyver and Terjesen (2007) suggested that pre-venture differences in female and male entrepreneurs' experience may lead to differences in their social networks initially but that these differences are likely to dissipate in later phases of the entrepreneurship process due to similar business challenges. That is, in later phases, female and male entrepreneurs choose similar social networks which enable them to meet their similar resource needs. As such, there may be a bias towards success in the later phases of the entrepreneurship process, such that prevailing entrepreneurs possess similar social networks regardless of gender" (p.216).

"… to the extent that individualists give less importance to social networks, the entrepreneurial networking-participation relationship may differ for individualistic versus collectivistic countries" (p.217).

**Reference**

Zhang, L. (2009). Domestic violence network in China: Translating the transnational concept of violence against women into local action. *Women's Studies International Forum,*32(3), 227-239.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)** | Domestic Violence Network (DVN) is a Chinese women's NGO that has emerged in response to the transnational women's human rights movement against violence against women. This article discusses and analyzes the socio-political processes of DVN's "translation" of the transnational issue frame of "violence against women" in its local programs. It reviews DVN's gender and human rights advocacy across three of its major areas of activism—research, gender training and legal advocacy. Moreover, it examines how DVN collaborates with state agencies, especially the governmental women's organization, to transform its advocacy into policy action. In particular, the article raises questions about the potential costs of this "politics of engagement," arguing that this relationship with the state may dilute DVN's gender and human rights advocacy as well as curb its political autonomy in future activism. |
| **Keywords (5-7)** | • Domestic violence<br>• Women's movement<br>• NGOs<br>• China<br>• Embeddedness |
| **Country** | • China |
| **Key Highlights (3-35 – be brief in the summary)** | • Domestic violence, long known as "wife beating" in popular parlance in mainland China, has only begun in recent decades to be recognized and denounced by Chinese society as a crime and social harm.<br>• Unique state-society relation in China gives rise to the "embedded" approach and characteristics of DVN's strategy of "translation" in the local context<br>• DVN carries out its gender and human rights advocacy across three major areas of activism—research, gender training and legal advocacy |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

“Ho (2001), also a researcher of NGO environmental activism in China, argues that the state's readiness to crack down on any social movements that challenge its authority coexists with its tolerance of those civil society organizations willing to operate under its control” (p.236).

“Even though NGOs might suppress their need for autonomy in exchange for support and recognition from the state, this suppression is a pragmatic strategy and not a desirable goal in itself” (p.236).

“… while the strategy of “engagement” creates valuable political resources and space for DVN's activism, it also dilutes the gender and human rights frame advocated by the NGO” (p.237).

“… balancing the need for autonomy against the ability to effectively transform institutional practice is a fundamental challenge facing women's organizations that depend considerably on a “politics of engagement” for their political impact” (p.237).

“As a women's NGO centered around promoting a gendered and human rights perspective on domestic violence, DVN cannot afford to lose its discursive autonomy or its accountability to feminist aspirations” (p.237).

**Reference**

Díaz García, M.C., & Carter, S. (2009). Resource mobilization through business owners' networks: is gender an issue? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,* 1(3), 226-252.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>In this paper, a social capital perspective is presented to illustrate the interaction between gender and resource mobilization through business owners' networks.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>This paper explores the resources provided by key supporters of small and young Spanish business owners within the professional service sector.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The findings suggest that a small group of key individuals provides a diverse range of mainly intangible support to the entrepreneur. Overall, the paper finds only limited support for the idea that male and female networks differ in resource mobilization except for the source of contacts-referrals and emotional capital. The importance of including emotional capital is evident in the fact that men and women seek it in large numbers, although few studies consider it within the resources provided by the entrepreneurial networks, since it is normally attributed to women and the private sphere.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>It seems that women business owners, through their embeddedness in networks, can build a bridge between their agency and the structure which normally implies some constraints for them due to the gender-belief system. Establishing a mentorship program can prove very useful, since business owners prioritize obtaining intangible resources from their key supporters: ideas-advice, emotional support, and contacts-referrals. |

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| | Originality/value<br><br>Despite the research attention on social capital in recent years, prior work has tended to focus on how actors connect (structural dimension); however, there is a dearth of research about the resources actors can potentially gain access to by examining with whom they connect. Moreover, few studies have recognized the impact of gender on networking experiences. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Women<br>• Entrepreneurs<br>• Networking |
| **Country** | • Spain |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-36 – be brief in the summary)** | • The importance of including emotional capital is evident in the fact that men and women seek it in large numbers, although few studies consider it within the resources provided by the entrepreneurial networks, since it is normally attributed to women and the private sphere. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Hanlon and Saunders (2007)<br>• Aims to gain an understanding of the data with respect to the nature and composition of entrepreneurial support. The study focuses on a narrow subset of supporters considered of key importance by the entrepreneur for marshalling resources.<br>• Two methods for inquiring about networks are found in the literature: "names generator" and "occupation generator." The former is used very often (Burt, 1992, 1998) and involves seeking information on the five people with whom the individual entrepreneur most regularly discusses business matters, that is, the entrepreneur's personal contact network (Aldrich, 1989; Aldrich et al., 1989; Cromie and Birley, 1992). |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"Personal contact networking is viewed increasingly as an essential entrepreneurial competence, the mastery of which is a core determinant of an enterprise's potential for growth. Indeed, networking is a proactive task of entrepreneurs, and strategic network building over time is an important factor for the development of the entrepreneurial firm (Lechner et al., 2006)" (p.227). | |

“While few differences were found with respect to the structural dimension of networks, those observed can be explained using gender as a lens (Greene et al., 2006; Brush et al., 2009). Our study indicated that a small group of key supporters provide a diverse range of supports to the entrepreneur; the most frequently occurring type of support is intangible or “soft” in nature” (p.243).

“According to the business owners in this study, emotional support is one of the resources most frequently provided by the key supporters. However, as emotional support is a resource mainly associated with women, it is frequently viewed as lacking the value of other types of capital and is often excluded from business network studies” (p.243).

“Male business owners are provided with more contacts-referrals from other men and non-family contacts, and receive more physical resources from their business partners. These results can be interpreted as men having a more instrumental approach in building their networks, as has been proposed in previous research (Ibarra, 1997; Reevy and Maslach, 2001). Furthermore, men look for emotional support from the female individuals in their network and also from contacts that are not part of their business team. With respect to these findings, men seem to adjust to a social protocol which guides them to seek emotional support from women and family members – not men or business partners – respecting the construction of their public and private life as two separate spheres.” (p.243).

“Women business owners could benefit from concerted efforts to include supportive colleagues in their networks, especially if they are business owners with greater entrepreneurial experience, which can be a source of information, advice, and resources. Furthermore, since business partners seem to provide more resources than some other types of contacts, women should proactively and consciously look for beneficial partners and obtain from them a broader array of resources” (p.246).

**Reference**

Benschop, Y. (2009). The Micro-politics of Gendering in Networking. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 16(2), 217-232.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Networking processes contribute to the perpetuation of gender inequalities in everyday practices in organizations. This article examines the implications of the conceptualization of gender as practice for social network theory. The three central elements of this critical feminist approach to networking are the study of agency, identity construction and the micro-political processes of networking and gendering. To illustrate that networking practices are gendering practices, that there are various manifestations of those practices, and the way in which networking and gendering are intertwined, the networking practices of four white, Dutch female and male account managers are discussed. This micro-political analysis suggests that networking does not necessarily reinforce gender inequality, which opens up the possibility of examining which combinations of networking and gendering contribute to changing the gender order. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gendering<br>• Networking<br>• Micro-politics |
| **Country** | • Netherlands |
| **Key Highlights (3-37 – be brief in the summary)** | • This micro-political analysis suggests that networking does not necessarily reinforce gender inequality and opens up the possibility of examining which combinations of networking and gendering contribute to changing the gender order.<br>• The three central elements of this critical feminist approach to networking are the study of agency, identity construction and the micro-political processes of networking and gendering. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Feminist process-relational theoretical perspective<br>•This article examines the implications of conceptualizing gender as practice for social network theory and hence contributes to |

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| | rethinking this particular area in organization theory and research from a critical feminist perspective. |

**Key citations from the article**

“Women supposedly have to borrow social capital from sponsoring, strategic (read male) network partners (Burt, 1998) to be as effective in their careers as their male counter-parts. From a critical feminist perspective these conclusions are problematic for three reasons. Firstly, such conclusions reinforce a hierarchical gender order (Gherardi, 1995) in which women are measured against male norms, norms that are reinforced by that very measurement. Secondly, there are more sophisticated conceptualizations of gender that problematize the categories of men and women. Such conceptualizations tie gender to organizing and to organizational identities with the assertion that gender is a socially constructed practice so that meanings of masculinity and femininity are not fixed but differentiated, fluid, and situational. Finally, networking is a dynamic gendering process in organizations — referring to the concrete practices that are patterned through and in terms of distinctions between male and female, masculine and feminine (Acker, 1992) — that is a relatively under-researched terrain in organization network theory“ (p.218).

“Theorizing gender as an ongoing, dynamic practice in social network theory requires a paradigm shift, changing the field in multiple ways (MarxFerree et al., 1999). It brings feminist theories into a field that hitherto saw only mild versions of liberal feminism, if any” (p.218).

“Networks are definedas a set of nodes (or actors) and the set of ties (or relations) between those nodes (Brass et al., 2004). These are supposed to involve social support and shared values, information exchange, improved performance (Flap andVölker, 2004), status attainment (Lai et al., 1998), career advantages (Ibarra,1997; Van Emmerik, 2006) and competitive advantage” (p.219).

**Reference**

Loscocco, K., Monnat, S.M., Moore, G., & Lauber, K.B. (2009). Enterprising Women: A Comparison of Women's and Men's Small Business Networks. *Gender & Society,* 23(3), 388-411.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This study demonstrates the importance of social context to the study of networks vital to business success. Results from analyses of the personal and business characteristics associated with different types of networks, a topic that has been neglected in past research, show the importance of structural perspectives emphasizing that women and men in the same situations have similar networks. Yet there are some network differences even among these women and men who operate the same kinds of businesses. This suggests that insights from gender construction perspectives should be integrated into network and other gender inequality studies. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Networks<br>• Gender inequality<br>• Women business owners<br>• Network determinants<br>• Social ties |
| **Country** | • US |
| **Key Highlights (3-38 – be brief in the summary)** | • Because women enter entrepreneurship with deficits linked to their social position, network ties may be even more important for them (Brush et al. 2004; Moore and Buttner 1997).<br>• Past research suggests four key dimensions that determine whether or not a work-related network is useful: network size, the mix of kin and non-kin, network diversity, and the gender composition of network ties.<br>• Differences in the characteristics and probable determinants of women's networks need not always translate into networks that are not as good as men's, as structural perspectives sometimes imply.<br>• Gender construction perspectives highlighting status and material differences between women and men |

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| | should be fully integrated into studies of gender inequality. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• The complexities of gendered networks in the small business arena can only be understood by integrating the insights of social construction perspectives on gender into the foundation laid by structural perspectives. |

**Key citations from the article**

"Given that society draws a sharp divide between work and family domains, assigns responsibility for family to women, and privileges the work sphere, men's network advantage is not surprising. Yet in the small business context, where boundaries between work and family are relatively fluid, women's greater responsibility for family and community may yield network strengths as well as network limits" (p.389).

"A typical structural argument is that sex differences in networks arise from the different opportunities and constraints associated with women's and men's positions in the social structure rather than because women and men are predisposed to form dissimilar networks (Fischer and Oliker 1983). For example, work history is linked to the kinds of networks that people have, yet many women and men have different career patterns because women continue to take major responsibility for family work. If differences in women's and men's social responsibilities were minimized, corresponding differences in women's and men's networks would diminish" (p.390).

"Kin may be valuable sources of social support, but kin are not as useful to careers or business start-up as non-kin (Campbell 1988; Renzulli, Aldrich, and Moody 2000). Women have more kin and more types of kin in their general discussion networks (Fischer and Oliker 1983; Marsden 1987; Moore 1990) because they are more centrally involved in kin-based net- works (e.g., Marsden 1990; Smith-Lovin and McPherson 1993). Moore (1990) showed that the number of kin in discussion networks decreases when women spend more time in the world of paid work, as structural network perspectives predict" (p.392).

"Although men's greater breadth and depth of experience in the world of work brings them many important conduits of information and resources (Smith-Lovin and McPherson 1993), women's small business activity, even more than men's, is likely to be connected to other parts of life (Brush 1992; Loscocco 1997). We expect women owners to draw more readily from diverse areas of their lives for network members, leading to greater heterogeneity in women's than in men's networks. The only study to focus on small business owners showed that people with more heterogeneous networks are more likely to start new businesses, though there were no differences between women and men in network heterogeneity (Renzulli, Aldrich, and Moody 2000)" (p.393).

**Reference**

Donelan, H., Herman, C., Kear, K., & Kirkup, G. (2009). Patterns of online networking for women's career development. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 24(2), 92-111.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to investigate how women working in science, engineering and technology use online networking, for career and professional development purposes.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>A combined qualitative and quantitative approach is taken, using interviews for the first phase of the research and online surveys for the second. The findings are discussed and presented with reference to theories on career development and in the context of recent work on women's networks and online social networking.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The paper defines a typology of online networks and identifies the motives women have for engaging with the different types. The data imply that women are successfully using online networks to find support, advice and collaboration from women working in similar environments. However, the data only identify a few examples where the use of online networks has led to a specific new job opportunity.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>The findings are limited by the samples used, as they were self-selected. In the first phase of the research, the sample was biased in favour of those using information and communication technologies. In the second phase, women using some form of online network were purposefully targeted in order to understand the motives and benefits associated with these activities.<br><br>Originality/value |

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| | The paper provides new insights into how professional women are networking online. It extends recent work into women's networks and networking strategies and presents a timely exploration into how these are being affected by the growth of online social networking. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Women<br>• Social networks<br>• Networking<br>• Career development<br>• Internet |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-39 – be brief in the summary)** | • This research aimed to explore women's use of online networking for career development purposes and to investigate how these activities are being influenced by the evolution of online social networking.<br>• The research has shown how online networks sustain different levels of member involvement and have the potential to fulfil various professional needs. These networks enable associations between women in similar careers within different organisations, and provide additional avenues for support. There was little evidence, however, to suggest that online networks were, at the time when the data were collected (September 2007), providing access to highly instrumental contacts, that can lead to specific instances of career progression, such as opportunities for promotion. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Hodkinson and Sparkes (1997) use the term "horizons of action" to describe the arena within which actions can be taken and decisions made. They claim that these are influenced both by the opportunities available and also by the perceptions of these opportunities. These perceptions are in turn shaped by, amongst other factors, the cultures and social structures experienced by an individual or group. We propose that online networks may empower women to circulate, albeit "virtually", in extended professional networks and may facilitate the discovery of other women in similar circumstances. |

**Key citations from the article**

“Online networks may help women in professions such as SET to extend their access to other professionals, particularly female role models and contemporaries. We envisage that women may appreciate networking opportunities where physical presence is not required to participate. The social foundations that underpin online networking may result in online environments that are compatible with women’s networking preferences” (p.95).

“Lack of confidence emerged as a significant barrier to increased online participation, in particular for those who had experienced recent career breaks. These women, having chosen careers in male-dominated professions, have most likely been exposed to professional networks that are predominately male during periods of work. However, during career breaks, more specifically those taken for purposes relating to children or family, women are likely to have experienced a shift in the types of networks they are associating with. The changing social networks of these women are likely to have some influence on their perceptions about their options, and even abilities, during the return-to-work transition” (p.108).

“There was little evidence, however, to suggest that online networks were, at the time when the data were collected (September 2007), providing access to highly instrumental contacts, that can lead to specific instances of career progression, such as opportunities for promotion” (p.109).

“Social network sites, however, emphasise the importance of building contacts and networks, and could offer a strong contribution to career development. The research revealed that use of social network sites is often initiated in response to recognition of the need to maintain a network of work-related contacts” (p.109).

“If they [internet technologies] change attitudes and approaches to networking, and provide extended networking and career development opportunities to women working in male-dominated professions, the effects will be more long-lasting than the technologies themselves” (p.110).

**Reference**

Ng, I., & Hau-siu Chow, I. (2009). Cross-gender networking in the workplace: causes and consequences. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 24(8), 562-576.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>This study seeks to examine how individual and organizational characteristics, as well as attitudinal factors, can affect the network composition of female managers. Another of its objectives is to examine the effect of cross-gender network on the quit intention of female managers.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>A survey questionnaire was administered, seeking information on the personal characteristics and attitudes of the 91 managers, the characteristics of the organization for which the respondent works, and the network characteristics of the respondents in Hong Kong.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The results show that positive attitudes towards women's leadership qualities and higher ratio of females in top management positions are associated with a lower cross-gender instrumental network for females. Perceived discrimination or being married encourages female managers to seek a cross-gender network. Cross-gender networks reduce the quit intentions of female managers.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The study offers a better understanding of how networks change involves an examination of both the characteristics of the network holder and the larger context in which the network holder is located. It contributes to the scant evidence on the consequences of cross-gender networking for female managers in the Chinese context. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gender |

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| | • Networking<br>• Discrimination<br>• Women<br>• Managers<br>• Employee turnover<br>• Hong King |
| **Country** | • Hong Kong |
| **Key Highlights (3-40 – be brief in the summary)** | • "Networking with men on instrumental contents is beneficial to women, such activities are also costly. Women can be subjected to ostracism or bear the psychological costs of adaptation. They also have to incur the costs of managing a differentiated network. Furthermore, their career growth could be damaged by claims of sexual intimacy and preferential treatment."<br>• "For female managers, there are benefits as well as costs when networking with men. Whether these managers end up networking across gender depends up how they perceive the benefits relative to the costs of doing so. We contend that the managers' perceptions of these benefits and costs are influenced by individual factors such as the marital status of the manager and attitudes towards women, and by organizational factors such as the availability of senior-level managers, whether there is perceived gender discrimination and the communication flow in the organization. By examining both personal and organizational level factors, our study is consistent with the view that understanding networks involve an examination of both the characteristics of the network holder and the larger context in which the network holder is located (Brass et al., 2004; Jamali, 2009)" |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Drawing from group formation research (Elsass and Graves, 1997), we contend that men will be more inclined to share their instrumental resources with women when they judge women not on the basis of broad generalizations (or stereotypes) but in terms of their individual attributes. Elsass and Graves (1997) argue that this attitudinal change can be triggered when men are challenged for their stereotyping of |

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| | women, forcing them to reconsider their expectations of women. However, by challenging men on their stereotyping of women, the challenger could be dismissed as being too sensitive (Essed, 1991) and end up being ostracized (Major, 1994). |

**Key citations from the article**

"Contrary to the prediction derived from the social identity paradigm (Capozza and Brown, 2000) that females would seek out other females with whom to network, the evidence from the network literature is that females seeking job-related (or instrumental) resources tend to network with males (Ibarra, 1992)" (p.562).

"The conventional wisdom in the network literature is that for instrumental network, women gain more resources by networking with men than with women. This has been attributed to the higher status of men and their better access to information (Berger et al., 1998; McGuire, 2000). Others have argued that this is because there are not enough senior level female managers for the lower-level female managers to network with (Ibarra, 1992, 1993). Regardless of the underlying reason as to why women network with men, the implication is that women derive greater instrumental benefits by networking across gender than with same sex alters" (p.563).

"In other words, women need to adapt their working styles if they are to sustain their interactions with men. With this adaptation route, however, women are faced with the difficult task of maintaining the fine line between feminine and masculine roles (Ragins et al., 1998). This role ambiguity prevents women managers from adopting styles that they deem appropriate for problems at hand, resulting in lower job satisfaction and higher level of anger and frustration (Ely, 1995)" (p.564).

"When networking for social reasons, the evidence suggests that there is a preference for same sex interactions (Ibarra, 1992). To fulfil both their instrumental and social needs, women therefore need to maintain a functionally differentiated network (Ibarra, 1993), a separate network for each type of needs. This is not only time consuming but also stressful for the women. They need to avoid showing a preference for either network so that they do not get rejected by the other network (Bell, 1990). They can also be subjected to contradictory advice from the two networks (Ibarra, 1993). Thus, even if men are willing to share their instrumental resource with women, the latter still have to bear the costs of maintaining a differentiated network" (p.564).

"Burt (1992) found that for women, strong ties are more valuable than weak ties because such ties minimize attribution biases and legitimize the status of women. Extending this finding to our analysis would suggest that, to develop a genuine instrumental network relationship, women need to have strong ties with their male counterparts. This would however require frequent and close interactions, and a sharing of intimate bonds (Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge, 2008; Underhill, 2006). The downside to this type of interaction is that it is susceptible to damaging rumors of sexual intimacy and involvement (Kram, 1988). Women seeking stronger and more useful instrumental ties with men may therefore run the risk of being the subject of rumors and innuendos" (p.564).

**Reference**

Tonge, J. (2008). Barriers to networking for women in a UK professional service. *Gender in Management: An International Journal,* 23(7), 484-505.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this paper is to explore the use of personal contact networks in the UK public relations sector, focusing on the barriers to networking identified by practitioners.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Empirical research using qualitative methodologies of in-depth interviews and repertory grids conducted with directors, managers and executives in seven UK public relations agencies.<br><br>Findings<br><br>UK public relations practitioners in the study may face up to 17 barriers to networking drivers and actions. Three types of barriers emerged– psychological, situational and social. Female practitioners identified all 17 barriers to networking, whereas men identified seven.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>An insight into the differences in men and women's networking experiences in a growing professional service, especially those negatively influencing their activities. Gender differences are identified and the apparent exclusion from power networks, especially of younger females.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>UK public relations practitioners may be hindered in the key managerial area of networking, with women perceiving themselves to face more barriers than men. This poses challenges for practitioners to overcome such obstacles, especially for women in this female-dominated industry. Consultancies must |

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| | consider remedial strategies to counter barriers their employees face, or potentially limit their access to resources and influence which personal networks can bring.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The paper is one of the first studies into personal contact networks in the UK public relations industry. It reveals the extent to which both men and women in this professional service face barriers to networking. The paper identifies that women in particular may experience more than twice as many barriers as male counterparts and suggests younger women may be being placed at a disadvantage. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • PR<br>• Barriers<br>• Social Networking<br>• Women<br>• Employee involvement |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-41 – be brief in the summary)** | • Women face around 17 networking barriers<br>• Women may have developed less informal networks than men, which prevents further progress into management positions<br>• Women with families are at a disadvantage, due to commitments and networking taking place at un-sociable hours<br>• Important to examine gender differences in networking practices<br>• Young females also at a disadvantage<br>• Networking drivers and networking actions were identified as key barriers for women. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>By viewing society as a “network” structure of overlapping social relationships which connect individuals, groups and organisations together, network theory asserts that social action and behaviour can be understood in terms of actors' position in social networks and the consequences of the interaction they share” (p. 485). | |

“There is little understanding of network formation and activity in the UK public relations sector, or of what form networking takes, despite relationship building being a key element of the public relations function, nor what drivers or barriers may exist which motivate or hinder practitioners’ networking endeavours” (p. 488).

“… this study substantiates the existence of gender differences in networking and supports the body of research over the last 30 years which has identified the range of barriers to networking that women face” (p. 499).

“… the study therefore suggests that some younger women were excluded from participating in key networks traditionally composed of individuals who held power in the organization” (p. 500).

“Where they were deliberately excluded, female practitioners attributed this to their low position in the company. They did not recognise this exclusion as being gender based, although as junior males did not identify their low position as a barrier to networking, it is possible that gender was a factor here“ (p. 500).

“Although many strides have been taken forward in women’s participation in working and public life, this study suggests barriers still exist for women in the area of networking and may continue to do so unless remedial action is taken” (p. 501).

“As the UK public relations industry is 70 per cent female, the barriers women faced in this industry cannot be associated with working in a male-dominated sector” (p. 500).

“This research has identified that men and women in the UK public relations industry experience a range of barriers to networking, which take the form of barriers to drivers or motivations to network, and barriers to networking actions and activities” (p. 499).

“… women in the study identified ten additional barriers to networking which men did not indicate as experiencing” (p. 498).

“The origins of these barriers emerged as psychological and situational, but were also from a social aspect” (p. 498).

“A further barrier to emerge concerns the role of time and family responsibilities” (p. 487).

“… there has been less focus on the more challenging aspects of networking. In particular, differences in networking activities and experiences have been identified in research conducted on gender and networking, where the area of barriers to networking has emerged in a number of studies” (p. 486).

“… in some cases, that females engage more in both formal and informal networking than males” (p. 486).

**Reference**

Whitehead, K., & Tretheway, L. (2008). Aging and activism in the context of the British Dominions Woman Suffrage Union, 1914–1922. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 31(1), 30-41.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article examines the activism of two London-based women, Harriet Newcomb and Margaret Hodge, who founded and led the British Dominions Woman Suffrage Union from 1914. We show that through the BDWSU and affiliated organizations Newcomb and Hodge promoted the suffrage cause internationally as well as education and social reform in London. Of particular note is the fact that Newcomb and Hodge were aged in their sixties during this time of their frenetic activism. Thus, we highlight the importance of their friendships with younger women and socialist feminist networks in supporting them to manage the physical dimensions of the ageing process and sustain their political work in the immediate postwar era. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • British Dominions Woman Suffrage Union<br>• Friendships<br>• Socialist feminist networks<br>• Older women<br>• 1920's |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-42 – be brief in the summary)** | • Article shows the expansion of Newcomb and Hodge's movement for social, political and economic equality of women<br><br>• Shows how they were able to develop long friendships with younger women in their socialist feminist networks, which helped them to during the ageing process<br><br>• Key political agenda was to support an international feminist movement<br><br>• Their administrative and organizational skills served to unite women and feminist organizations across the dominions. |

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| | • Newcomb's relationships with younger women supported her daily labour and enabled her to remain at the political centre of the BDWSU.<br><br>• Both were actively engaged in constructing their old ages rather than conforming to what was deemed as the norm, despite having obvious physical issues.<br><br>• Article highlights the significance of younger women in supporting not only their political activism but also the ageing process. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• N/A |

**Key citations from the article**

“In the early twentieth century Harriet Newcomb and Margaret Hodge were actively engaged in constructing their old ages rather than conforming to a given social and physical norm, though within certain physical constraints” (p. 39).

“While some conceptualise the interwar years as a period of ‘powerful anti-feminist reaction others see these years as a time of tremendous expansion and diversification among women's groups” (p. 31).

“Caine (1995) argues that within feminist organizations the veneration of the aging woman was common but she also claims that generational conflict was a marked feature of the 1920s. The latter is highlighted in the context of Newcomb and Hodge's work in the BDWSU” (p. 31).

“Smart (2001) demonstrates the tensions between old and young women in their adolescence and twenties (flappers) but there was also much cross- generational collaboration between older and middle- aged women, that is those in their late thirties and forties” (p. 31).

“This was an era when women in their late fifties and sixties were popularly assumed to be old and a statutory retiring age of sixty effectively constructed them as superfluous to economic and political life” (p. 33).

“For the pair were part of what Rupp (1997, p. 165) describes as a transnational ‘network of women who through travel, correspondence and reading colleagues' work, sup- ported each other in a comprehensive and radical program of emancipation” (p. 34).

“Like many British and American feminists, Newcomb and Hodge's networks were not only matters of common politics and participation in multiple feminist organizations, but extended into friendships with both local and distant women” (p. 36).

“Hodge had also learnt the value of friendship with members of her own sex as one of the best safeguards against the terrors of the stereotypical lonely life of the old spinster” (p.36).

“District Council was afraid that these two energetic and public-spirited women are too much in earnest in working for the public good' and ‘too progressive in their views” (p. 38).

**Reference**

No author (2007). Sexyshock: Networks that Matter Sexyshock. *Feminist Review,* 87(1), 122-129.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Sexyshock emerged out of a huge demonstration in defence of the Italian abortion law in June 2001. It is a laboratory of communication on gender issues, managed by women but directed towards all genders. It is a public space that gives visibility to women's issues as well as being a permanent workshop on sexuality, a network of women involved in pink/queer activism within a communicative laboratory. As such, Sexyshock is a 'space of contamination' between transversal projects which exist among different political institutions and subjects all over Italy and Europe. Her challenge lies in 'playing with' and 'deconstructing' sexual and identity issues through an 'open-border' conception of politics |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Feminity<br>• Sexuality<br>• Precarity<br>• Pink<br>• Networks |
| **Country** | • Italy |
| **Key Highlights (3-43 – be brief in the summary)** | • On the 30th of June 2001, 3,000 women filled the central streets of Bologna reclaiming physically and symbolically the space that time and again has been subtracted from women's life, health and political agency by both the right and the left.<br>• Sexyshock is a laboratory of communication on gender issues, managed by women but directed towards all genders.<br>• It is a public space for discussion and empowerment, a research project based in a public space where one can meet people and find materials.<br>• Her space represents a 'space of contamination', involved in a transversal project existing among different political |

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| | institutions and subjects who animate the city within Italy as well as all over Europe.<br>• Research and experimentation in Sexyshock has been related to issues closely connected to global bio-politics<br>• The group consists of very diverse people in terms of lifestyle, gender and generations.<br>• collective analysis of private/public spheres<br>• Sexyshock has produced a huge number of products including videos, songs, radio-spots, merchandise (e.g. T-shirts, panties, bags), as well as journal and magazine articles, live performances and flash-mob actions. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• N/A |

**Key citations from the article**

"Sexyshock, as a political and creative entity, emerged in that moment, only to become stronger immediately after the demonstrations against the G8 in Genoa" (p. 126).

"The challenge of Sexyshock lies in 'playing with' and 'deconstructing' sexual and identity issues through an 'open-border' conception of politics" (p. 127).

"Research and experimentation in Sexyshock has been related to issues closely connected to global bio-politics (such as precarity, urban security, (bio)-technologies, sex work and gender-based violence" (p. 128).

"During the course of this work it has given space to a huge number of By Your-Self (BYS) female artistic productions, which are not always fully valued in the political endeavours of the 'alternative' left" (p.129).

"Our group has developed informative and graphic campaigns on violence against women, against the Italian Law n. 40 on Artificial Insemination, on prostitution and on the casualization of labour" (p.129).

"The decision to move Sexyshock from a squat to an urban-core shop was tied to a critique developed by the group against a model of 'political space' in which individuals and groups are localized and kept together in a unique political line and practice, often amounting to a very particular way of conceiving and experiencing politics" (p.129).

"Once Sexyshock moved to the new physical space, the group experienced new, and maintained old, alliances, partnerships and networks animated by a number of projects"(p. 129).

**Reference**

Klyver, K., & Terjesen, S. (2007). Entrepreneurial network composition: An analysis across venture development stage and gender. *Women in Management Review,* 22(8), 682-688.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)** | Purpose<br><br>This study explores gender differences in the composition of entrepreneurs' networks at four new venture stages: discovery, emergence, young and established.<br><br>Methodology/approach<br><br>ANOVA and linear regression on a sample of 134 female and 266 male entrepreneurs.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Female entrepreneurs have significantly lower proportions of males in their social networks in early venture development stages, but similar levels at later stages.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>Taken together, our findings suggest that just as women in traditional organizations adapt social networks similar to men in order to succeed, their entrepreneurial counterparts build more 'male-oriented' networks as they proceed through venture phases. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Entrepreneurial Networks<br>• Gender<br>• Venture Development Stage |
| Country | • Denmark |
| **Key Highlights**<br>(3-44 – be brief in the summary) | • Data from the Danish Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) telephone survey<br>• Uses ANOVA and linear regression on a sample of 134 female and 266 male entrepreneurs.<br>• Female entrepreneurs have significantly lower proportions of males in their social networks in early venture development stages, |

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| | • Women in traditional organizations adapt social networks similar to men in order to succeed,<br>• This study uses a representative sample of male and female entrepreneurs to explore network composition at four distinct stages<br>• Findings suggest that female entrepreneurs who are able to persist in the new venture process develop networks similar to their male counterparts<br>• Venture Stage. Entrepreneurs are classified by self-reported status as 'intending to start a business' (discovery), 'starting a business' (emergence), 'running a firm for less than 42 months' (young) or 'running a firm for at least 42 months' (established) |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"Despite the high participation by females in entrepreneurial activities around the world and awareness of their role in economic development, there is limited academic attention" (p. 682).

"… women tend to seek other women as friends and supporters, and to seek men for professional advice" (p. 683).

"Female entrepreneurs report larger social networks than do males, however, we do not find evidence of any significant gender differences regarding entrepreneurial networks' density and proportion of kin, business relations, proportion of emotional support relations" (p. 685).

"Our results suggest that, as female entrepreneurs move forward in the entrepreneurial process, they tend to increase the proportion of males in their social networks" (p. 684).
"Other studies of gendered management networks report that women have more women in their networks and men have more men in their networks" (p. 683).

"In these traditional organizations, individuals cannot readily "choose" diversity in work networks" (p. 683).

"We find vast gender differences in the earliest phases of the venture process, however these differences decline over time" (p. 685).

"… why are female and male 'established' entrepreneurs' networks so similar?" (p. 687).

“One explanation is that entrepreneurs face the same set of key challenges and must make decisions about networks which enable them to access similar resources to meet these business needs” (p. 687).

“… our findings suggest that just as women in traditional organizations adapt social networks similar to men in order to succeed, their entrepreneurial counterparts build more “male-oriented” networks as they proceed through venture phases” (p. 687).

**Reference**

Gustafsson-Larsson, S., Thurénb, B.-M., Dahlgrenc, L., & Westmana, G. (2007). Bun-baking mums and subverters: The agency of network participants in a Rural Swedish county. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 30(1), 48-58.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | During the 1990s rural Swedish women positioned themselves as women and formed networks aimed at addressing various local and most often gender-related problems that limited their quality of life. The aim of this article is to empirically describe and theoretically discuss the idea of agency in the context of women's social practices of networking and to examine how the participants either reproduce or transform the gendered structures that shape them. The empirical data for this article consist primarily of discussions with focus groups and interviews with network participants. Through interpretations, a pattern of gendered power-relations was illuminated, which both influenced and constrained the participants' activities. We have interpreted the participants' networking agency as acts of protest against everything that limits their living conditions. As women develop strategies through networking, their resistance seems to become increasingly significant for the ongoing transformations of the gender order. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women<br>• Networks<br>• Gender related issues<br>• Agency |
| **Country** | • Sweden |
| **Key Highlights (3-45 – be brief in the summary)** | • As women develop strategies through networking, their resistance seems to become increasingly significant for the ongoing transformations of the gender order. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>- | |

**Reference**

Farr-Wharton, R., & Brunetto, Y. (2007). Women entrepreneurs, opportunity recognition and government-sponsored business networks: A social capital perspective. *Women in Management Review,* 22(3), 187-207.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>This paper uses a social capital theoretical framework to examine how the relational dimension of business networks affects the networking activities of female entrepreneurs. In particular, the study examines the role of trust on women's networking behaviour and the part played by government business development officers in supporting women entrepreneur's opportunity recognition behaviour.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The research used mixed methods to gather and analyse data. A survey instrument was used to gather quantitative data and qualitative data was gathered from interviews and written responses to open-ended questions included in the survey.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The quantitative findings suggest firstly that approximately 20 per cent of the reason why women entrepreneurs belong to formal business networks is to search for business opportunities; however, their experience of trusting significantly affects their perception of the potential benefits of networking activities. Moreover, government development officers appear not to positively affect women entrepreneur's trusting behaviour.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>The sampling process could have caused bias in the data collection and therefore the generalisability of the findings may be compromised. This is because the sample came from a state with the most start-ups and therefore it is likely that these women are more entrepreneurial than normal. In addition, there may be bias in the type of women entrepreneur likely to have responded to the survey. It seems |

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| | likely that the women entrepreneurs that would respond to this questionnaire are apt to be more entrepreneurial in their behaviour of recognising new opportunities, thereby biasing the sample used. Finally, another limitation of this study is common methods bias in relation to the data collected using self-report questionnaire.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>The findings have implications for government because these findings suggest that they have wrongly assumed that entrepreneurs will behave in “politically constructed business network” the same way as they behave in social networks where trust levels develop over time. This may be the reason why trust was such an important variable in affecting these women entrepreneurs' networking behaviour. The findings suggest that if women entrepreneurs are to be supported to grow, the government should focus its scarce resources on building trust within these formal business networks, so that women can build the relational trust context needed to share information likely to lead to good business opportunities.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The paper provides information on the role of trust on women's networking behaviour. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Networking<br>• Women<br>• Entrepreneurs |
| **Country** | • Australia |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-46 – be brief in the summary)** | • The quantitative findings suggest firstly that approximately 20 per cent of the reason why women entrepreneurs belong to formal business networks is to search for business opportunities;<br>• Dean et al. (1997) examined 912 Australian firm owner/managers and found that 73 percent of them did not perceive the benefit of networking.<br>• Uses a social capital theoretical framework to examine how the relational dimension of business networks affects the networking activities of female entrepreneurs. |

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| | • Government development officers appear not to positively affect women entrepreneur's trusting behaviour<br>• The findings have implications for the government because these findings suggest that they have wrongly assumed that entrepreneurs will behave in "politically constructed business network" the same way as they behave in social networks where trust levels develop over time.<br>• The main difference between SMEs and entrepreneurs is the degree to which they engage in the search for growth opportunities |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• social capital theoretical framework |

**Key citations from the article**

"Most small, medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are time poor and as a result focus mostly on operational activities (Garengo et al., 2005) because they are more concerned about survival rather than growth" (p.188).

"Despite the fact that one-third of all businesses in the developed world are owned by women and one in ten women world-wide own their own business (Reibe, 2003); there has been minimal research about female entrepreneurship (Henry, 2002; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990) – particularly the factors that affect the strategies women entrepreneurs use to find opportunities and become successful" (p.188).

"The study of discovering new opportunities is argued to be in its infancy involving mainly descriptive studies rather than theory testing (Gaglio and Katz, 2001), and there is even less research about how women discover new opportunities" (p.188).

"Another reason for examining female entrepreneurs is because most are in SMEs and whilst there has been a lot of research examining the critical success factors of social networks comprising large firms (Saxton, 1997), there has been far less research undertaken examining business networks comprising SMEs" (p.189).

"Within the women entrepreneurship networking literature, Nelson (1987) found that women entrepreneurs rated firstly "networks" and secondly "advice from significant other" as the two most important sources of information" (p.190).

"Previous research suggests that good business networks are characterised by good flows of information, support, and sustained by the credibility and governance determining behaviour within the group" (p.191).

“Once the governance rules (based on a shared understanding of the rules and behaviour of the network) are established (usually informally) and entrepreneurs have worked out if the others are credible, then the information and support flows” (p-191).

“The first finding from the research is that 20 per cent of the reason why women join networks is to search of business opportunities. This finding supports previous research identifying why entrepreneurs belong to networks” (p.199).

“if women entrepreneurs are to be supported to grow, the government should focus its scarce resources on building trust within these formal business networks, so that women can build the relational trust context needed to share information likely to lead to good business opportunities” (p. 210).

**Reference**

Waldstrøm, C., & Madsen, H. (2007). Social relations among managers: old boys and young women's networks. *Women in Management Review,* 22(2), 136-147.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>This study seeks to investigate whether there are gender differences in the importance placed on two types of network support among managers in organisations. Prior research indicates that it can be expected that female managers will not have their social contact needs satisfied to the same extent as their male colleagues and that female managers do not regard their nearest colleagues as friends to the same extent as male managers.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Large scale survey of managers in Denmark.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The first hypothesis is neither supported nor rejected, since the gender differences are strongly influenced by age, when controlling for sector, marital status, and children living at home. While male managers tend to see their colleagues more as friends, the older they are, the reverse is true of female managers. The second hypothesis is clearly rejected, since no gender differences are found.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The paper identifies the crucial role of age in the gender differences in perception of social support, offering a new interpretation of female managers' use of workplace networks. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gender<br>• Managers<br>• Networking<br>• Social behaviour |
| **Country** | • Denmark |

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| **Key Highlights (3-47 – be brief in the summary)** | • investigates whether there are gender differences in the importance placed on two types of network support among managers in organisations.<br>• aim of this paper is to test two hypotheses regarding gender differences in Danish managers' perception of on the job social support<br>• the survey information shows that 25 per cent of managerial positions in Danish organisations are taken up by women.<br>• concluding that while there are general gender differences, they are embedded in more important differences due to structural properties of the labour market, affiliation with a given managerial level and differences between the public and private sector.<br>• more likely that the most interesting effect is same-gender and different-gender relationships and the overall gender distribution in the workplace – not the gender of the individual.<br>• there is a need to challenge some of the commonly held views of gender differences in friendship networks and social support in an organisational setting.<br>• Future research would need to more explicitly identify the role of same-gender relations in the managerial networks of expressive relationships<br>• two distinct approaches to explaining gender differences in organisations have been identified: a human capital approach and a systemic barriers approach (Ibarra, 1992, 1997). |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"According to some authors, gender differences in the awareness and use of social networks in organisations are one of the main reasons why women earn less, get promoted less often and do not have access to as many resources as their male colleagues" (p. 136).

"Support and social interaction in the workplace plays an important part for both performance (Markiewicz et al., 2000) and in reducing stress and burnout (van Emmerik, 2002), and is, therefore, a crucial aspect to investigate" (p.137).

“Research on gender differences show that relations with a female colleague seems to be detrimental to success but favourable to job satisfaction” (p.137).

“Social networks are not necessarily a shortcut to power in an organisation, since intra-organisational social networks can have the somewhat paradoxical effect of maintaining and strengthening the formal structures” (p.137).

“Since, women are still a minority in managerial positions, female managers have fewer other women to choose from in their social networks” (p.137).

“Ibarra (1992, 1997) found that men and women seek and use social networks in different ways: while men tend to have ties and relations with other men in their networks, women seem to develop dual networks” (p.138).

“Several findings highlight “good personal relationships” and “communication skills” as particularly important for female managers” (p.138).

“The result of the backward elimination procedure makes it possible to suggest that sector, marital status, and children living at home do not significantly influence the perception of how the managers see their nearest colleagues as friends” (p.142).

“The significant interaction between gender and age indicates a mixed pattern in the perception of nearest colleagues seen as friends. Compared to female managers above 50 years of age it seems more probable that managers in all other combinations of gender and age see their nearest colleagues as friends” (p.142).

“… there is a strong basis for concluding that while there are general gender differences, they are embedded in more important differences due to structural properties of the labour market, affiliation with a given managerial level and differences between the public and private sector” (p.145).

**Reference**

Singh, V., Vinnicombe, S., & Kumra, S. (2006). Women in formal corporate networks: an organisational citizenship perspective. *Women in Management Review,* 21(6), 458-482.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| Author-provided abstract (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>To investigate women's corporate networks, and the reported benefits for the women and their employers. To gain insight into the motivation for these voluntary activities, by drawing on organisational citizenship theory.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>The paper explores the issue using in-depth interviews with chairs and organisers of 12 women's networks, and triangulated the data with an email survey resulting in 164 responses from network members in five companies.<br><br>Findings<br><br>The paper identifies how networks were set up and managed, as well as the benefits that accrue to the organisation, the leaders and the members. Key findings were the wealth of voluntarily contributed extra-role behaviours, and totally business-oriented view of the activities presented by network leaders. More senior women were more likely to report prosocial behaviours such as driving change and supporting others. Organisational citizenship theory provided a lens through which to draw insight into actors' motivations for supporting corporate networking.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>This is a study of only 12 corporate networks within large UK companies, but findings should be useful for any employers or senior women thinking about starting or refreshing a corporate women's network.<br><br>Practical implications |

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| | Women and their employers appear to benefit strongly from being involved in corporate networking. Evidence suggests that employers should support internal women's networks, given the organisational citizenship behaviours voluntarily contributed for their benefit.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>This paper is the first to investigate how women's corporate networks are organised, and how their activities benefit not just the women but also the employer. Organisational citizenship theory provides insight into motivation for such initiatives. The findings should be of interest not just for those involved in women-in-management studies, but also to organisational citizenship and networking researchers. |
| Keywords<br>(5-7) | • Women<br>• Corporate networks<br>• Citizenship perspective<br>• UK |
| Country | • |
| Key Highlights<br>(3-48 – be brief in the summary) | • To investigate women's corporate networks, and the reported benefits for the women and their employers.<br>• Qualitative and quantitative evidence from both network leaders and network members to show how women's corporate networks are set up and managed, and the benefits that women's corporate networks provide to the women members, leaders and the employer.<br>• Explores the issue using in-depth interviews with chairs and organisers of 12 women's networks, and triangulated the data with an email survey resulting in 164 responses from network members in five companies.<br>• Organisational citizenship theory provided a lens through which to draw insight into actors' motivations for supporting corporate networking<br>• Evidence suggests that employers should support internal women's networks, given the organisational citizenship behaviours voluntarily contributed for their benefit.<br>• OCB components fall into seven types according to a review of OCB-related |

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| | studies (Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B. and Bachrach, D.G. (2000).<br>• The networks all started as a result of growing awareness that women were not achieving their full potential, and that lack of access to male-dominated senior networks might be a barrier which could be tackled by direct action<br>• Found that the more senior women were significantly more likely than their junior peers to report prosocial behaviours such as driving change, helping and supporting.<br>• Networking is an important part of managerial behaviour and career success. Different types of networks have evolved (Vinnicombe and Colwill, 1995). |
| | **Theory Name:**<br>• |

**Key citations from the article**

“As lack of access to organisational networks is increasingly seen as a barrier for women to reach the top (Ragins et al., 1998; Catalyst and Opportunity Now, 2000), many companies are starting to support corporate networks for women” (p. 458).

”A key feature of women’s corporate networks is that they are usually managed by and for women volunteers. Hence, women’s involvement may be informed by theories related to organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)” (p. 459).

“The research literature on individual networking and personal network configurations emphasises the gendered nature of networking and networks in the corporate world” (p. 459).

“In the USA, Ibarra (1992) found gender differences in the networks of managers and Women in formal corporate networks and the ways in which they were used” (p. 459).

“Women tended to use their networks for social support, whilst men were more instrumentally active to promote their careers” (p. 459).

“The implication is that women with family responsibilities may remain at a serious disadvantage, should out-of-hours socialising result in important work-related outcomes (e.g. receiving critical information or important job assignments)” (p. 460).

“The paradox is that although research suggests that women may place greater importance on the socialising aspects of networking, they are often excluded from

social events and workplace interactions in which men engage (McCarthy, 2004)" (p.460).

"Travers et al. (1997) found that UK women sought and reportedly gained more career support from colleagues and senior managers within their networks than did their counterparts in Europe and the USA" (p. 460).

"Gaining support, information, mentors, role models, meeting senior women, networking, improving career prospects, learning and development were coded as career motivation" (p. 473).

"Table II shows that younger members were somewhat more likely to report career, business and social motivations for membership, whilst middle and senior members were significantly (but only marginally) more likely to have a prosocial motivation than juniors and professionals" (p. 473).

"Women at all levels mentioned wanting to support others and to share experiences, so that these could be understood without internalising problems and unduly blaming themselves when they came up against hurdles or did not succeed" (p. 473).

"The networks all started as a result of growing awareness that women were not achieving their full potential, and that lack of access to male-dominated senior networks might be a barrier which could be tackled by direct action" (p. 462).

"As people grow older, they are also more likely to volunteer as they have more social contacts, increasing the opportunities that arise" (p. 461).

"Gender also impacts the likelihood of volunteering, as young men prefer to engage in individual voluntary efforts whilst young women prefer communal voluntary activities" (p. 462).

**Reference**

van Emmerik, H. I., Euwema, M.C., Geschiere, M., & Schouten, M.F.A.G. (2006). Networking your way through the organization: Gender differences in the relationship between network participation and career satisfaction. *Women in Management Review,* 21(1), 54-66.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>The purpose of this study is to focus specifically on formal and informal networking and their relationship with career satisfaction. It was expected that men would engage more in networking and that men are able to use networking more effectively than women, which will be shown in the achievement of greater career satisfaction.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>Hypotheses were tested with hierarchical regression analyses, using a sample of 180 (69 percent) female and 80 (31 percent) male employees from a Dutch bank.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Results show that the female respondents engaged more in both formal and informal networking than male respondents. However, hierarchical regression analyses showed that the association between participating in network activities and career satisfaction is significantly stronger for men than for women.<br><br>Research limitations/implications<br><br>There is certainly a need for longitudinal data to resolve issues concerning differential dropout of women and the development of effective social networks. Practical implications– The female employees profit less from networking in terms of career satisfaction. One possible solution may be to try to develop especially the networking competences of women.<br><br>Originality/value |

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| | Elaborating on the social network perspective this study of the participation informal and informal networks examined gender differences in the association of networking with career satisfaction. Although the female employees in this study engage more in networking, they profit less from it in terms of career satisfaction. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Career satisfaction<br>• Informal & formal networking<br>• Social networking<br>• Gender differences<br>• Job satisfaction<br>• The Netherlands |
| **Country** | • Netherlands |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-49 – be brief in the summary)** | • Hierarchical regression analyses, using a sample of 180 (69 percent) female and 80 (31 percent) male employees from a Dutch bank.<br>• Female respondents engaged more in both formal and informal networking than male respondents<br>• Men were able to use their networking activities more effectively (i.e. showing more career satisfaction) than women.<br>• Hierarchical regression analyses showed that the association between participating in network activities and career satisfaction is significantly stronger for men than for women<br>• The female employees profit less from networking in terms of career satisfaction.<br>• Important to ensure that employees are provided with ample opportunities to develop mentoring and networking activities |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"… greater success of men in gaining promotions has been attributed to their more effective use of networks " (p. 54).

"Although Forrett and Dougherty (2001) found little discrepancies in networking between men and women, other studies have suggested that there are (still) important pitfalls that hinder women to use social networks effectively" (p. 54).

“The results of these previous studies emphasized the importance of examining gender differences in networking relationships, because if women develop less effective network relationships, they may miss essential ingredients important for career success” (p. 55).

“The distinction between formal and informal networks is relevant for this study because engagement in formal networks may have different implications for organizational change than the engagement in informal networks” (p. 55).

“Gender differences in networking activities are thought to arise from gender-specific socialization experiences and the socialization perspective departs from the assumption that men and women learn gendered attitudes and behaviors about what it means to be men and women” (p. 56).

“Generally, career success can be assumed to comprise objective or extrinsic (e.g. pay) and subjective or intrinsic (e.g. career satisfaction) elements” (p. 55).

“For instance, it is suggested that men hold more instrumental attitudes, whereas women hold more emotional responsive attitudes, and seem to disclose emotions more easily” (p.56).

“Accordingly, women are expected to be more sensitive to others, to place more value on interpersonal relationships, and to seek social support for a greater extent than does the masculine gender role prescribes for men” (p. 56).

“Hence, it is expected that men will participate more in networking activities than women and that the engagement of men in networking will be stronger associated with career satisfaction” (p. 56).

“Within academia, the study of Gersick et al. (2000) showed that when faculty members are interviewed about their networking, the stories of women are about harm, whereas men tell about help” (p. 55).

“Surprisingly, the women in this bank engaged more in both formal and informal networking than men. This is contrary to our expectations and also contrary to the findings of Forrett and Dougherty (2001) who found little discrepancies in networking between men and women” (p. 62).

“… men were able to use their networking activities more effectively (i.e. showing more career satisfaction) than women. Perhaps men are more motivated to use their networking instrumentally to achieve career goals” (p. 62).

“Although the female employees in this study engage more in networking, they profit less from it in terms of career satisfaction. One possible solution may be to try to develop especially the networking competences of women” (p. 63).

“However, it is increasingly acknowledged that not only having a mentor, but especially a network of developmental relationships may be essential to achieving intrinsic career success” (p. 63).

**Reference**

Ogden, S.M., McTavish, D., & McKean, L. (2006). Clearing the way for gender balance in the management of the UK financial services industry: Enablers and barriers. *Women in Management Review,* 21(1), 40-53.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Purpose<br><br>Females now comprise just over half of the workforce in the UK financial services sector. This paper aims to report on the current position relating to factors that are facilitating and inhibiting women from moving into middle and senior levels of management within the financial services sector.<br><br>Design/methodology/approach<br><br>A comparative analysis of four case studies from a cross-section of the financial services industry is presented, each compiled using interviews with male and female senior and middle managers, and gender-defined focus groups usually of employees who are in the promotion pipeline.<br><br>Findings<br><br>Despite progress in the case study organisations, both men and women concur that females encounter more barriers to career progression in the industry than men and that these relate primarily to a long hours culture and networking. This leads some women to exclude themselves from working in certain parts of the industry, such as corporate banking. Further, this aspect of the industry culture tends to permeate into areas of the industry where these activities are less important for fostering client relationships.<br><br>Practical implications<br><br>The research implies that the industry needs to do more to make networking events and activities more gender neutral. Additionally, as more women move up the career pipeline, they |

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| | should be encouraged to access networks that tap into their equivalent “female networks”.<br><br>Originality/value<br><br>The paper provides a current picture of managerial working life in the UK financial services industry and provides empirical evidence of the managerial work cultures within the sector. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Women<br>• Career development<br>• Networking<br>• Financial services<br>• Job satisfaction<br>• UK |
| **Country** | • United Kingdom |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-50 – be brief in the summary)** | • A comparative analysis of four case studies from a cross-section of the financial services industry.<br>• Both men and women concur that females encounter more barriers to career progression in the industry than men and that these relate primarily to a long-hours culture and networking.<br>• Research implies that the industry needs to do more to make networking events and activities more gender-neutral.<br>• Analysis of this data provides a valuable insight into contemporary inhibitors and enablers of females' career development in financial services.<br>• Some male-centred views are evident, in the statements are made which indicate some support for the inappropriateness of women with young children to work in senior managerial posts.<br>• Message from across the study is the importance of networking within the industry – with male and females unanimously agreeing that networking was generally much easier for men than women due to the male networking pursuits (golf) or venues (pubs).<br>• There are some perceptual barriers to managerial career advancement for women and this is making the structural enablers introduced by organisations less successful. |

| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• n/a |
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**Key citations from the article**

"… in the UK 25 per cent of employees in manufacturing are female, 52 per cent in financial services, 72 per cent in education, 80 per cent in health, and 80 per cent in social care" (p. 40).

"The factors that act as enablers or barriers to female managerial career progression are often grouped into two categories for research purposes: perceptual and structural" (p. 41).

"The perceptual stereotyping of management (and successful managers) as congruent with traits attributed to men has a long pedigree" (p. 41).

"Research also shows women's career advancement prospects are limited by failure to apply for senior posts for which they are qualified" (p. 41).

"Further, there are prevailing perceptions and beliefs in organisations that particular women (i.e. those attempting to combine career and motherhood) are limited in their managerial career aspirations" (p. 41).

"The proposition here is that some women's values may be different from men's values, but it is clearly argued that this explains only part of the picture and that structural solutions are still required to ensure that women, who do incur the costs of leadership, receive pay-back from their investment" (p. 41).

"Structural factors also feature in discussions of why women find it difficult to progress. An important factor is reported to be the level of work-life balance employment practices, particularly for dual career families" (p. 42).

"in a recent study of gender differences in a UK bank where Granleese (2004) reports that while women were breaking the glass ceiling they were doing so at a price, based on the fact that female managers were significantly less likely to be married or have children than male managers" (p. 42).

"It is accepted that in the financial services industry the ability to network is both a business skill that is important for building relations with clients, and a method of demonstrating visibility to senior management in order to enhance career progression" (p.45).

"It was suggested that female employees may be constrained in this area, as they are unable to rely upon existing "male networks", e.g. golf clubs, rotary. There is, therefore, a need for female employees to develop new strategies, as a wide client list is required for successful business development" (p. 46).

"There was some acceptance of the view that women may choose to self-limit their career progression and this is seen as a positive choice to have a reasonable work-life balance" (p. 48).

“If women have children, they don’t want to progress as high. I don’t think it’s discrimination though. ( female participant, accounting association)” (p. 48).

“Thus, while the situation is not “think manager think male” (Schein, 1973), views in much of the commercial sector are still “think female manager, think childless superwoman” (Liff and Ward, 2001)” (p. 49).

“There is some evidence that this perceptual barrier is reinforced by the reluctance of some women to incur the perceived cost of more senior leadership positions, in terms of the negative impact of their work-life balance. For female managers with children, this is seen as a short-term choice. However, in some cases this causes them to exclude themselves from certain areas of the profession, such as corporate banking” (p. 50).

“In summary, the paper suggests that, in the UK context, there are some perceptual barriers to managerial career advancement for women and this is making the structural enablers introduced by organisations less successful” (p.50).

“Perhaps this goes part of the way in explaining why the gender pay gap in the UK financial services industry is one of the widest for all industry sectors in the UK” (p.50).

**Reference**

W salaffa, J., & Greve A. (2004). Can women's social networks migrate? *Women's Studies International Forum, 27*(2), 149-162.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This paper analyzes how dual-career couples from the People's Republic of China (PRC) organize care for their children prior to and following immigration to Canada. Using the concepts of social capital and life course, we examine the problems that Chinese immigrant women face in rebuilding their professional careers due to loss of social capital. In the PRC, childcare is provided by a dense web of formal institutional and informal arrangements, with the family playing an important role. After immigrating, most need to rebuild their careers and develop social capital to help them combine childcare and career rebuilding. Women's careers suffer more than that of their husbands. Our data come from interviews with 50 PRC couples, aged in their 30s and 40s, with young children, who immigrated to Canada after 1996 in the skilled worker class. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Dual-career couples<br>• Transnational social capital<br>• Chinese immigrant women<br>• Support networks<br>• Canada immigrants<br>• Skilled women |
| **Country** | • China |
| **Key Highlights (3-51 – be brief in the summary)** | • Professional employment and family support networks are often interrupted when families migrate<br><br>• Project explores how social networks bridge settlement of professionals who immigrated to Canada in the skilled worker category.<br><br>• Paper analyses how migration alters the family support system, how couples adapt to reduced social capital for childcare<br><br>• Drawing on work and family biographies collected from 50 PRC couples who immigrated |

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| | to Canada from 1996 to 2001 in the skilled worker class.<br><br>• Women in dual career partnerships tend to suffer the most when forming social networks and try to balance work and life responsibilities. Whereas men commonly adjust their family life to their careers. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• N/A |

**Key citations from the article**

"Transnational migration affects women and men in gender-specific ways and places a heavier load of responsibility on women's shoulders. This occurs both in the home and in the host countries, but migration makes this integration work difficult" (p. 160).

"We need to learn more about the social networks of skilled workers, a significant category of international migrants" (p. 149).

"In China, they had built collegial social networks during their education and careers" (p.149).

"Rebuilding work-related and childcare social networks after they migrate is difficult, partly because this reconstruction occurs at the same time" (p. 150).

"… these multiple social networks are based on different types of relationships, intended for different purposes, entailing even more work to revamp them" (p.150).

"International migrants depend on social networks to find a job, start a business, or other career needs" (p.150).

"In the following two cases, parents depended on their kin to retool. In the first case, both spouses recredentialed at the same professional level they had enjoyed in China. In the next case, however, the wife gave up the quest to continue her profession" (p.158).

"Social networks can supply or fail to deliver help, and we reserve the term social capital for the success- full provision of scarce resources through membership in networks or broader social structures" (p. 150).

"Strong multiplex ties generate trust and are fundamental in mobilizing informal social support" (p.150).

"Skilled or professional migrants participate in very different network structures than working class migrants" (p.151).

“Men commonly adjust their family life to their careers, while wives employ long-term, reciprocal support strategies to bridge formal and informal structures and attain work and family goals” (p.151).

“Transnational social capital facilitates, but does not guarantee a rejuvenated career” (p.160).

**Reference**

Pini, B., Brown, K., & Ryan, C. (2004). Women-only networks as a strategy for change? A case study from local government. *Women in Management Review,* 19(6), 286-292.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Across both the private and public sectors one strategy that has been used to support women in leadership roles and to increase women's participation in leadership positions has been to establish formal female-specific networks. This paper examines the efficacy of such a strategy through a case study of one such group – the Australian Local Government Women's Association. Data for the paper are drawn from interviews with the 19 female mayors in the Australian state of Queensland. Participants were divided in their views about the organization. One group expressed support for women's networking, a second group was critical of women organizing in such a way and a third group expressed ambivalence about the value of women's networks. This paper draws on these views to assess the transformative potential of women's networks. It concludes that women-only networks have a valuable role to play in securing greater equity for women in management. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women<br>• Women workers<br>• Social networks<br>• Change management<br>• Public sector organisations<br>• Private sector organisations |
| **Country** | • Australia |
| **Key Highlights (3-52 – be brief in the summary)** | **Key Highlights**<br><br>• This paper examines the efficacy of such a strategy through a case study of one such group – the Australian Local Government Women's Data for the paper are drawn from interviews with the 19 female mayors in the Australian state of Queensland<br>• A qualitative approach was used as the study was designed to elicit a detailed<br>• Focus is on formal networks |

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| | • Draws on these views to assess the transformative potential of women's networks.<br>• To increase women's participation in leadership positions has been to establish formal female-specific networks.<br>• While women-only networks are useful for providing women with "valuable psycho-social support", women seeking to progress their careers also need to "extend their networking practices" and participate in mainstream networks.<br>• Four of the 19 mayors were critical of women-only networks. In explaining the reasons for their disapproval they engaged three main arguments<br>• Concludes that women-only networks have a valuable role to play in securing greater equity for women in management. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"… networking is integral to career success; second, that the networks to which males belong tend to be more powerful and third, that women typically have difficulty in accessing these male-dominated networks" (p. 286).

"Woodall et al. (1995, p. 32) have argued that informal networks are of increased significance in the uncertain employment environment that is today characteristic of industrialised nations" (p. 286).

"… women in management and business have, over the past decades, sought to establish their own networks" (p. 287).

"Benefits of women-only networking are said to include increased self-confidence, the provision of learning opportunities, gaining of new skills and growth of social contacts" (p. 287).

"Colgan and Ledwith (1994, p. 38) note that women-only organising is an equity strategy which "frequently provokes controversy" amongst women. Some argue that this type of organising is separatist and exclusive while others consider it to be essential for circumventing men's organizational power" (p. 287).

"Thus, as Ehrich (1994, p. 9) argued, while women-only networks are useful for providing women with 'valuable psycho-social support', women seeking to progress their careers also need to "extend their networking practices" and participate in mainstream networks" (p. 287).

“I've retained a membership because I know how hard it was for me at times and how much it meant to me when I was copping a hard time to be able to talk to somebody else who would understand” (p.289).

“Four of the 19 mayors were critical of women-only networks. In explaining the reasons for their disapproval they engaged three main arguments. The first was that a focus on women was trivial and unnecessary in light of the larger concerns that faced the local government sector” (p. 290).

“… it was discriminatory and divisive to have women-only groups. To support this point of view three different participants argued that “there's no such thing as a Men in Local Government Association”. In light of this claim they suggested that it was not just separatist and exclusive to establish a women-only network, but antithetical to women's calls for equity in local government” (p. 290).

“… the contradictory position faced by women-only networks. They are established because women have been marginalised in mainstream organizations, but then, ironically, accused of separatism and exclusivity because they have named themselves as women-specific groups” (p. 290).

“A short-term agenda is one which focuses on implementing strategies which address the symptoms of discrimination. A women’s network is one such strategy” (p. 300).

“To achieve the long-term goal of transformation, women's networks cannot operate in isolation. In the first instance, they should attempt to engage with male-dominated networks, and particularly sympathetic leadership within these networks. This is critical if gender issues are not sidelined into the women's only spaces” (p. 300).

**Reference**

Addis, E. & Villa, P. (2003). The Editorial Boards of Italian Economics Journals: Women, Gender, and Social Networking. *Feminist Economics,* 9(1), 75 – 91.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | In Italy, women's advancement in economics has been curtailed by the structure of editorial boards of Italian economics journals. In this paper, we examine the presence of men and women economists on the editorial boards of thirty-six Italian economics journals published since 1970 and analyze the gender distribution across different kinds of boards, roles, and fields. Because boards are hierarchically ordered, women work mostly in the lower positions, and the increase in women's participation has led only to more ''editorial secretaries.'' Since men and women tend to have different scientific interests and men's standards of academic value prevail, women economists cannot build publication records as strong as those of their male colleagues, which, in turn, affects women's hiring, promotion, and wages, as well as the shape of the discipline. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gender<br>• Economics<br>• Networking<br>• Discrimination<br>• Editorial Board |
| **Country** | • Italy |
| **Key Highlights (3-53 – be brief in the summary)** | • The main theme of the paper is to examine the gender biases in the professional area which push the women to a disadvantaged networking scenario. The paper has used women's participation in editorial boards of a number of Italian economics journals.<br>• The paper has used a list of all members of the editorial board from 36 economics journals published in Italy.<br>• The paper finds that only 2.1% of the high-level board members are women. This has increased to 17.6% for boards of low-level journals. Women's participation is overwhelmingly large (73.5%) as secretarial staff of the journal. This shows |

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| | the gender biases at the high-level journal editorial boards in Italy. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• The theoretical foundation of the paper rests on both demand and supply-side economics where women's demand as member of labour force is impeded by the reluctance of employers. On the other hand, limited productivity of women due to less training and more family commitment may put them at a disadvantageous position in the supply side. |

**Key citations from the article**

"Even non-economists often advance demand-side or supply-side theories to explain the relative scarcity of women in the economics profession. One example is a set of influential studies on women in the sciences (Gerhardt Sonnert and Gerald Holton 1996)" (p. 76).

"Demand-side explanations rely on discrimination by the universities and other research institutions that use economists' labor (e.g. Ivy Broder 1993; Shulamit Kahn 1993). According to such theories, these institutions prefer to hire men rather than women with equivalent records, to whom they may offer higher salaries and a larger amount of research funding. Mirroring the classical theory of wage discrimination (as set forth by Kenneth Arrow 1973), the source of different outcomes for the two genders in these recent theories is employers' reluctance to admit women into the firm for reasons such as unwarranted concern about productivity or co-worker dislike for working with women as equals" (p. 76).

"Supply-side explanations suggest that women's lower investment in training and lesser job effort (presumably from family commitments) are the ultimate cause of their reduced scientific productivity and slower career advancement (John Formby, William Gunther, and Ryoichy Sakano 1993)" (p. 76).

"Evidence suggests that there are systematic differences between the interests and chosen methodologies of men and women (Sonnert and Holton, 1996; Julie Nelson 1996; Anna Carabelli, Daniela Parisi, and Annalisa Rosselli 1999)" (p. 77).

"Marianne Ferber and Michelle Teiman (1980) found that acceptance rates of manuscripts with at least one female author (compared to those with only male authors) was lower in journals where the referees knew the identity of the authors" (p. 77).

"Ferber (1986, 1988) also shows that both men and women are more likely to cite work by authors of their own sex than those of the opposite sex. Men, however, do so to a substantially larger extent" (p. 77).

**Reference**

West, J., & Austrin, T. (2003). From Work as Sex to Sex as Work: Networks, 'Others' and Occupations in the Analysis of Work. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 9(5), 482-503.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | While once upon a time the social science of work and organization neglected or marginalized gender and sexuality, we have now lost sight of what people actually do, that is to say the activity of work. Gender and sexuality have been identified as crucial to organizational dynamics and, notwithstanding different theoretical emphases, this paradigm has become increasingly influential. We argue (contrary to most of its protagonists) that within this model the significance of sex and gender for organization rests principally on their role in the production of identities rather than in what they can tell us about production or work in any wider sense. The article highlights parallels with the ways in which prostitution is now generally understood, whether the emphasis is on subordination or agency. This literature also emphasizes gender relations and identities, even where the focus is on re-writing `sex as work'. We argue that this focus neglects the wider networks in which all work, whether mainstream or otherwise, is embedded and that a full analysis must take due account of both these networks and the discursive production of identities. Examples of work in the finance and sex industries are used to substantiate this argument and a case is made for the importance of the Chicago School's analysis of occupations. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Embodiment<br>• Gender<br>• Discourses<br>• Settings<br>• Market<br>• Control |
| **Country** | • USA, UK, Europe |
| **Key Highlights (3-54 – be brief in the summary)** | • Sex work, like mainstream work, is constituted through networks that link heterogeneous elements. In the case of sex work this will include government departments and police, at both national |

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| | and local levels, sex workers, collectives, managers, websites and conventional media.<br>• Both sex work and mainstream work are shown to be continually (re)assembled by the actions of diverse actors organized at very different scales of action and linked through networks that extend irregularly in social space. In sex work, while particular business forms such as the massage parlour or escort agency may stabilize (though this is a contingent matter), there tends to be constant conflict over other forms such as street work.<br>• An understanding of how diverse outcomes are secured requires replacing the emphasis on worker±client encounters with analysis of the ways in which variable network ties and specific discourses of sexuality are mobilized in and constitute particular settings.<br>• Like the finance sector, there is ongoing conflict over both the conduct of share trading and the range of services offered by financial institutions. And understanding diverse outcomes here requires replacing the emphasis on identity and relations between workers and with clients with analysis of the ways in which variable network ties and specific discourses - of work and consumption, of gender and sexuality - are mobilized in and constitute particular settings.<br>• There are parallels between mainstream work and prostitution, but that simply taking the lens of sex to work and the lens of work to sex fails to embed identities, occupations, sexuality and gender in the wider fields of relations through which they are produced and contested.<br>• All forms of work, whether mainstream or otherwise, should be treated as the same in principle, with embodiment, networks and discourses intertwined in specific instances that realize difference. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• n/a |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“For O'Connell Davidson, prostitution entails the sale of rights to command sexual use of another's body yet there is diversity in how this contract is organized. Like Truong, she argues that economic power is as important as gendered and also racialized power but it is their interrelation which produces this diversity. She shows how the inequalities of capitalism, along with politico-ideological constraints, produce variation in degrees of economic compulsion (which underpin choice), in degrees of formal freedom (or its absence) and in contracts with clients (which may be diffuse or tightly specified). It is these conditions which determine the amount and intensity of prostitutes' surplus labour and the degree of control over client transactions. Thus third party prostitution is understood as intrinsically exploitative (though not necessarily violent or abusive), an analysis supported by closely researched accounts of various types of brothel arrangement (from parlours to debt-bonded confinement) and varieties of pimping” (p. 492).

“In contrast, no one is parasitic on independent prostitutes, yet their control is extremely variable, with, at one extreme, those who work in informal sex tourism, at the other, the entrepreneur for whom control in the work situation is almost total” (p. 492).

“The emphasis on diversity largely evaporates in O'Connell Davidson's analysis of the power relations which underlie the free contract between prostitute and client even where the former is `in control'. The prostitute, she argues, is denied her very personhood, since in becoming whatever the client wants she is disqualified from making reciprocal claims and thus from social recognition. And she can be treated as object rather than subject, as `Other', since she exchanges what, for women, cannot be honourably traded” (p. 492).

“Brewis and Linstead emphasize the `double effect of discursive and material placing' on the organization of sex work. Relating commodified sex to the conditions of (post)modernity, they highlight enormous variety in its discursive construction. They are particularly interested in the contrast (or the many places in) between desire as need Ð sex as abject if not perverse Ð with desire as `profligate, experimental', in which prostitution epitomizes transactional relations, `the pursuit of pleasure at a technical level with none of the problems of romance' (2000, p. 195)” (p. 493).

“Day (1996) shows how sex workers in London adopt a rhetoric of market entrepreneurship against state repression. The individualism of their working practices is therefore a product of the very process of criminalization. And the fact that illegal prostitution flourishes in Las Vegas depends not only on a particular enforcement regime, that is informal but active cooperation from the police, but also on hoteliers, taxi drivers and others and business interests in and beyond the sex industry” (p. 493).

“The Netherlands, where the interests of both the sex industry and professional prostitutes have been promoted by the state's attempt to secure greater control over trafficking and crime as much as by diverse political pressures to recognize prostitution as work. The end of the ban on (free) prostitution in 1999, along with

tougher penalties for coercion, benefits those operators and sex workers who wish to dissociate themselves from competitors in the illegal (forced) sector. Local Ð that is diverse Ð solutions have to be negotiated to implement this new framework with licensing in some (though by no means all) municipalities (and the economic interests of some operators) producing improved working conditions, even while exploitation of migrants and others in the illegal sector is being reproduced (Visser, 2000; West, 2000)" (p. 494).

**Reference**

McGuire, G. M. (2002). Gender, Race, and the Shadow Structure: A Study of Informal Networks and Inequality in a Work Organization. *Gender & Society,* 16(3), 303-322.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | In this article, I analyze survey data from more than 1,000 financial services employees to understand how gender inequality manifests itself in employees' informal networks. I found that even when Black and white women had jobs in which they controlled organizational resources and had ties to powerful employees, they received less work-related help from their network members than did white men. Drawing on status characteristics theory, I explain that network members were less likely to invest in women than in white men because of cultural beliefs that rank women below that of white men. While past research has documented how employers use gender to rank workers and distribute rewards unequally, my research indicates that workers use gender to categorize and rank their network. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Formal organization chart<br>• Shadow structure<br>• Power Play |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights (3-55 – be brief in the summary)** | • Interest in informal networks has grown with the realization that networks can reveal the informal, interactional processes through which gender become embedded in work organizations (Acker 1990; Britton 2000; Martin 1997; Schwalbe et al. 2000; Smith-Lovin and McPherson 1993; Tilly 1998).<br>• Drawing on network theory and status characteristics theory, the study suggests how structural and social psychological processes contribute to the gendering of informal networks at work.<br>• It also offers insights on how to diminish informal inequities between women and men workers. Contrary to the expectation of network theory, the study found that structural differences between men and women did not explain why women |

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| | received less instrumental help from their network members than men did.<br>• Researchers suspect that network theory's inability to explain gender differences in help from network members is due to two of its assumptions. The first assumption is that organizations are gender-neutral. Network theorists certainly recognize the importance of gender in organizational life, but like so many sociologists, they tend to view gender as a characteristic of individuals rather than as an integral part of organizational structure (Acker 1990; Britton 2000; Martin 1997). As a result, they tend to overlook the ways in which organizational norms, values, and positions have been constructed to privilege men and disadvantage women. A second assumption underlying network theory is that workers seek to obtain as many resources, with as little risk to themselves, as possible. This assumption fails to recognize how workers' gender affects those assessments of risks and benefits.<br>• The study results suggest that even when women had much to offer, their network members invested less in them than in their male counterparts. While structural factors did not completely account for why Black and white women received less network help than white men, these factors did explain why Black men received less help than white men.<br>• One possible explanation for these disparate findings is that status value beliefs operate in different ways for white women, Black women, and Black men. Perhaps status value beliefs affect Black men in the early stages of their careers when they are attempting to acquire human capital and obtain prestigious assignments. For Black and white women, however, there appears to be a level of acceptance that they cannot achieve even when they hold the necessary credentials and occupy powerful positions. Because our understanding of status value beliefs |

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| | comes mainly from the study of formal task groups, this explanation remains speculative, however. By examining the conditions under which status value beliefs are imported into informal exchanges, future research could better explain the irrational, discriminatory behaviour of network members. Explaining these findings also requires additional research on the content of status value beliefs. Status characteristics theory suggests that status values beliefs signal a worker's competence.<br>• "Research on networks, however, suggests another aspect of status value beliefs-trustworthiness (Krackhardt 1992). After all, a competent network member is of little value if she or he cannot be trusted. Trust is important in network relationships because it enables members to take risks, to get honest feedback, to ask sensitive questions, and to achieve some predictability (Jackall 1988; Kunda 1992)" (p. 317). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• **Network Theory**<br>• The main perspective that scholars have used to explain network differences is network theory, a hybrid of structural and social exchange theories.<br>• According to this theory, workers' structural location affects their attractiveness as network members, their power over network members, their access to network members, and their time to interact with others, all of which should affect the amount of help they receive from their network members (Campbell, Marsden, and Hurlbert 1986; Feld 1981; Ibarra, 1993; Marsden 1990; Wellman and Wortley)<br>• **Status Characteristics Theory**<br>• Status characteristics theory suggests that network members take each other's gender into account regardless of their structural positions. This theory suggests two ways in which gender could affect how much instrumental help workers receive from their network members. |

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| | • First, gender could have a direct effect on network help, meaning that women could receive less help from their network members than men do even when they occupy equivalent organizational positions. In other words, network members may give men more resources than they give women simply because they are men.<br>• Second, employees' gender may interact with structural opportunities. While all workers may benefit from occupying strategic organizational positions, men may receive higher network payoffs from such structural opportunities than women do. |

**Key citations from the article**

“Consequently, occupying a position with high organizational rank should increase an employee's access to corporate resources via her or his structural availability to powerful employees. Holding high-ranking positions also provides employees with credibility and status, which enhances their influence over network members, helping them to get what they want (Kanter 1977)” (p. 306).

“Workers' structural location also affects others' desire to help them by influencing workers' ability to reciprocate. Workers who have limited resources with which to trade are likely to be seen by others as undesirable network members (Blau 1964; Cook 1982)” (p. 306).

“High-status employees have greater access to, and control over, corporate resources than do low-status employees (Lin and Dumin 1986)” (p.306).

“High-status network members can facilitate employees' mobility, advocate for employees in controversial situations, and help employees bypass the corporate hierarchy (Brass 1985; DeGraaf and Flap 1988; Lin, Ensel, and Vaughn 1981)” (p.306).

“The composition of strong versus weak ties in a network may also influence the amount of work-related help employees receive. Strong ties are characterized by high intimacy and frequent contact, while weak ties are characterized by low intimacy and infrequent contact (Granovetter 1973)” (p. 306).

“Research highlights the exchange of novel information by weak ties and the exchange of detailed information by strong ties (Granovetter 1973; Uzzi 1997)” (p. 306).

“Strong ties are also highly motivated to help each other, particularly in uncertain or stressful situations, because of their intimacy and trust (Aldrich, Elam, and Reese 1997; Grano- vetter 1995; Krackhardt 1992; Uzzi 1997)” (p. 306).

“The gender segregation of occupations, jobs, and voluntary organizations encourages workers to inter- act primarily with members of their own gender (Bielby and Baron 1986; King 1992; McPherson and Smith-Lovin 1986; Popielarz 1999)” (p. 306).

“Because women tend to occupy positions with lower organizational rank and authority than men, their network members tend to have less status and power than men's network members (Aldrich 1989; Ibarra 1993; McGuire and Reskin 1993)” (p. 306).

**Reference**

McGregor, J., & Tweed, D. (2002). Profiling a New Generation of Female Small Business Owners in New Zealand: Networking, Mentoring and Growth. *Gender, Work & Organization,* 9(4), 420-438.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | The contribution of female small business owners to economic development in Western developed countries such as New Zealand, Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada, is generally under-researched and traditionally grounded in male norms. Increasingly policymakers acknowledge that in countries like New Zealand where 85% of business employs five or less people, small business offers the greatest employment potential. Not enough is known, though, about the growth orientation and characteristics of female small business owners. This article reports findings from the largest empirical study of small business undertaken in New Zealand and provides inter-gender comparison between male and female small business owners and for intra–gender contrast between networked female small business owners and women who did not belong to a business network. The results showed that the networked women, who were in the main better educated and more affiliative by nature, were more expansionist than both other female small business owners and men. The networked women were also more likely to have a business mentor. The findings confound earlier research suggesting women are less growth-orientated and wish only to satisfy intrinsic needs from their businesses. The article concludes by discussing the need to acknowledge the heterogeneity of female small businesses and what this means for policy–makers when assessing their socio–economic potential. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Networking<br>• Growth<br>• Mentoring<br>• Female Small Business owners<br>• New Zealand |
| **Country** | • New Zealand |
| **Key Highlights** | • The study, therefore, provides both inter-gender and intra-gender analysis within |

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| **(3-56 – be brief in the summary)** | the New Zealand's important small business sector<br>• The study clearly shows that not only are there differences and similarities between male and female small business owners but there are also differences too, between groups of women in small businesses.<br>• One clear characteristic that emerged from the results was the affiliative behaviour of women who had joined a female business network. Among the differences noted in the study is quite a distinct profile of a new generation of female small business owners who are networked. They are younger and they identify self-confidence as a greater inhibitor to business start-up. They are more likely both to have and to want, mentorship. The convention that women only want to satisfy their own intrinsic needs from small business ownership is questioned in this study which suggests that networked women have greater expansionist intentions.<br>• It is apparent that female notions of growth and expansion do not necessarily fit traditional typologies and new interpretations are needed.<br>• Policy-makers and governments looking to a small business as an antidote to unemployment need an understanding of the growth trajectories and of the future aspirations of female entrepreneurs. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• The feminist school of thought challenged the legitimacy of the traditional definition of entrepreneurship suggesting that theterm was defined in male terms against male norms. This definition excluded female values, particularly those concerning the motivations forentering business and future intentions including plans for expansion. Stevenson, for example, discussed the use of men and male lifestyles as the norms against which social phenomena are interpreted and argues for the`taking of women's rather than men's experiences as the starting points forthe inquiry' (1990, p. 440).<br>• The schools of entrepreneurial thought influenced the study, particularly the economist's |

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| | perspective about the importance of entrepreneurs in explaining economic development. The behavioural perspective most often attributed to entrepreneurs particular characteristics such as independence and risk taking but, as Filion (1997) notes, it has not been possible to establish an absolute scientific psychological profile of the entrepreneur whether male or female. |

**Key citations from the article**

“Stevenson suggests that entrepreneurship is a process, `a highly, personal, subjective process' and we need to know more about this process of encountering, assessing, and reacting to a series of experiences, situations and events'” (p. 442).

“WISE businesses were not looking to the network for scientific knowledge, referred to by Lane and Lubatkin (1998) as `know-what' or for new knowledge about `know-why', but rather for `know-how' type information, and for `know-who' knowledge, in terms of useful contacts” (p. 430).

“A more recent Australian study (Walker, 2000) suggests there has been a change in women's motivations in contrast to earlier studies. The majority of the women in the study wanted to grow their businesses by increasing turnover and employing more staff” (p. 422).

“The important question of growth orientation has been discussed by some researchers exclusively against male norms, according to Stevenson. She criticizes on the grounds of flawed methodologies studies by Hisrichand Brush (1984) and Huisman and deRidder (1984) which suggested that women were less involved than men in expanding companies” (p. 423).

“Even the use of terms such as `satisficers' and `expansionists' (Still et al., 1990) to describe women's growth trajectories can be misleading” (p. 423).

**Reference**

Darwiche, N. (2001). Women in Arab NGOs: A Publication of the Arab Network for Non-governmental Organizations. *Feminist Review,* 69(1), 15-20.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | None |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • n/a |
| **Country** | • Egypt, Algeria, Iraq, Syria and Yemen |
| **Key Highlights (3-57 – be brief in the summary)** | • The researcher has argued that the role attributed by UN agencies and international development organisations to Arab women's NGOs as a vehicle for democratisation and participatory based development needs to be re-assessed through empirical studies, and not pursued on the basis of the old dichotomies of West versus East.<br>• The Arab women's NGOs in their actual forms and structures might be able to play a role in advocating Arab women's rights in the international arena, provide services for certain needy groups, propose new policies and visions, generate and disseminate information. But, in order to affect a comprehensive, sustainable development and democratisation, a different form of organisation is needed with a different, locally grounded vision and a more sustainable power basis for social change. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Colonial feminism - 'what the colonists sought was to undermine the local culture' through 'colonial feminism' (Ahmed 1992).<br>• State feminism - introducing economic and social policies aimed at integrating women in the labour market and the new nation (Kandiyoti 1991; Molyneux 1991; Moghadam 1993; El-Kholy 1998). Many women, especially those from poorer social strata, benefited from social rights such as free education, health and maternity services. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"Some Arab feminists suggest that 'what the colonists sought was to undermine the local culture' through 'colonial feminism' (Ahmed 1992)" (p. 37). | |

“Like Lazreg, Ahmed is disturbed by the resemblance she perceives between colonial discourses and that of some contemporary Western feminists. She perceives them as devaluing local cultures and assuming that there is only one path to the emancipation of women, namely the path of ‘adopting Western models’ (Ahmed 1992; Lazreg 1994)” (p. 37).

“Badran rejects such a position, arguing that ‘attempts to discredit or to legitimise feminism on cultural grounds … are political projects’. For her, the origins of feminism cannot be found in any culturally “pure” location: ‘External elements – external to class, region, country – are appropriated and woven into the fabric of the “indigenous” or local. Egypt, for example, has historically appropriated and absorbed “alien elements” into a highly vital indigenous culture’ (Badran 1995: 31–32)” (p. 37).

**Reference**

Scott, A. (2001). (In)Forming politics: Processes of feminist activism in the information age. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 24(3–4), 409-421.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | **Synopsis —** How is feminist activism changing in the information age? This article argues that the character, membership, and direction of activist movements can be strongly influenced by the nature of the everyday, material practices through which their activities are conducted. It analyses some implications of recent developments in electronically mediated communications, arguing that these both create a pressing need for—and provide us with the means to create—a diversified, transnational, feminist movement. Several issues arising from feminist deployments of information and communication technology are explored. These include inequalities in access to these technologies, the need to develop "feminist" ways of working within electronically mediated networks, the problem of information overload, and the issues raised for feminists by the ongoing commodification of information. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Feminist action<br>• Feminist activism<br>• Social Activism<br>• Information revolution.<br>• Information age. |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-58 – be brief in the summary)** | • Social activism is thus a material and corporeal process; it is *bodied*—enmeshed in a set of sociotechnical artefacts, institutional networks, plitical ideology, leadership, and direction.<br>• The shape and quality of the above-mentioned materiality influences the ultimate success or failure of all socio-political movements.<br>• Material processes can act in subtle, and not so subtle, ways to construct the *character* of these movements. |

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| | • The use of particular technologies can act to exclude some social groups, while facilitating the political involvement of others. It can support some campaigning strategies, while militating against others . . . the use of particular strategies may then lead to a focus on some "audiences" rather than others.<br>• The content of a movement's politics can be indirectly shaped by the technologies it deploys. Some technologies lend themselves well to a slow and deliberate pacing of action, with emphasis on intra-movement relationship building; others lend themselves to externally orientated strategies. Thus, decision-making processes may be influenced by changes in communication technologies as well as, ultimately, the character and outcome of activist movements.<br>• The practices of feminist activism are currently changing as we incorporate another set of technosocial conventions called—for ease— ICT.<br>• The deployment of new communications technologies is facilitating the involvement of a new, and wider, set of actors within feminist politics. It is changing the pacing of feminist political action, and is, simultaneously, both expanding and contracting the geographic spaces in which "feminist activism" is carried out. Moreover, it is leading to a new emphasis on the production and dissemination of information which some feminists consider to be at the cost of more bodied forms of activity.<br>• Practices are also changing, however, for other antifeminist social actors. Information is being commodified in an unprecedented manner, while a new distribution of technosocial capacities is allowing new and/or intensified forms of social, cultural, and economic domination to develop. As the "information society" becomes more firmly established as a technosocial network during the next few decades, gender relations will surely be |

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| | reconfigured in complex and unpredictable ways.<br>• The new communications technologies are providing us with both a pressing need for, and the means to create, a feminist movement with a new character—transnational, diverse, practical, and living with ongoing tensions in regards to beliefs, identities, and policies. Moreover, they are facilitating the global restructuring of socio-economic power, which increases the stakes for this emerging transnational feminist project. |
| **Theory Used** | None |

**Key citations from the article**

"The "access" problem does not relate simply to individual women's ability to use the technology, but also to the capacity of women—as a group—to shape the emerging technology to their own approach and their own ends (Cockburn, 1992; Scott et al., 1999; Star, 1991). As Awatef Ketiti notes, the fact that women find themselves part of a "minor- ity elite" in the world of technology makes it difficult for them to make their presence felt, or to change its dominant practices (Ketiti)" (p. 414).

"Second-wave feminists sloganeered that the personal and the political could not be separated, and built organisational structures and practices which reflected this insight (Kaplan, 1996; Riordan, 1999; Rad- ford, 1995)" (p. 415).

"Feminist "community" requires the development of commonality and shared perceptions . . at least to the extent that it becomes possible to work together" (p. 416).

"Feminists may need to rethink the process of informationalisation itself. We are living through a period of aggressive capital ac- cumulation, in which the body is being informationalised while information is, relentlessly, being commodified" (p. 417).

**Reference**

Jackson, S. (2000). Networking women: A history of ideas, issues and developments in women's studies in Britain. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 23(1), 1-11.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | **Synopsis —** The history of women's studies has not always been a happy one, particularly academic women's studies. Indeed, there are those who have argued that women's studies has no place in the academy. bell hooks, for instance, has stated that whilst it is in the academy, women's studies will find it hard to resist becoming part of the mainstream academic culture, and will have little opportunity to challenge or alter prevailing higher educational structures (see hooks, 1989). Adrienne Rich has described women's studies as "compensatory history", which fails to make sufficient challenges to existing structures (Rich, 1986, p. 2). In Britain, others have argued that as women's studies become increasingly institutionalised, it is in danger of losing its radicalism (see e.g., Brimstone, 1991). However, I will argue here that women's studies in Britain has been radical since its outset and throughout its development, and that there is every reason to suppose that it will continue to be so as it moves into the future, although it might also be that women's studies will (be) move(d) out of and away from the British academy. I will consider the links between women's studies and feminist political activism through charting some of the themes and publications of the Women's Studies Network (UK) conferences throughout the 1990s. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women Studies<br>• Women Study Network Association<br>• Women's studies network conference themes and books<br>• Academic feminism |
| **Country** | • UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-59 – be brief in the summary)** | • Intellectual theorising is as important to radical movements as other political actions. |

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| | • Women's studies may be struggling, but it *has* found many alternative ways in the academy to challenge conventional academic structures and teaching practices<br>• Women's studies in Britain has retained its roots based on the Women's Liberation Movement, and that the very act of engaging in a women's studies course is feminist political activism.<br>• The study suggests placing women's studies at the forefront of progressive education. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"In Britain, the early establishment of women's studies courses came not through the universities, but through women's socialist commitments and through adult education and community-based study arising from the growth of the women's movement in the 1960s and 1970s (see Duelli Klein, 1983; Kennedy & Piette, 1991; Richardson & Robin- son, 1993; Zmroczek & Duchen, 1991)" (p. 1).

"The movement is made up of three strands: the feminist movement itself; women with institutional commitment (e.g., within academe) and women who "from their roles as mothers, wives and daughters, continue to advance and become aware of their existence as part of a subordinate gender" (Vargas, 1993, p. 146)" (p. 9).

"The question now facing women's studies . . . is the extent to which she has, in the past decade, matured into the dutiful daughter of the white, patriarchal university . . .; (and) the extent to which Women's Studies will remember that her mother was . . . the Women's Liberation movement of the 1960s. . . . (Rich, 1986, p. 79)" (p. 10).

"Whilst it could be considered a success of women's studies that it has on occasion caused other disciplines to seriously consider aspects of gender, with integration alone, women's studies is indeed in danger of becoming "compensatory history" (Rich, 1986, p. 2) (p. 1).

"In addition, women's studies is not only multi- and interdisciplinary; it is also transdisciplinary, seeking to challenge existing structures as well as to advance ways of being 'differently academic' (Jackson, 1999a). These are theoretical concerns which will be seriously damaged without a base of women's studies" (p. 8).

"There is a need for feminist theory if such challenges are to be made, and for feminist academics not to be returned to working in isolation. That this base is surviving in dangerous territory (see Reay, 1998) is also evident in the strong media presence of discussion of post-feminism, with a political backlash against

both women's studies and feminism (see e.g., Faludi, 1992; Whelehan, 1995)" (p. 8).

"All of this makes women's studies in the late 1990s an uncomfortable place to be. Diane Reay suggests that women's studies in the academy is about "surviving in dangerous places", with hallmarks which include "cooption, insecurity and lack of authenticity" (Reay, 1998, p. 11)" (p. 8).

"The above mentioned hallmarks that women's studies in Britain shares with its working-class students, in a system which invalidates and renders invisible the experiences of working-class women (see also Jackson, 1998)" (p. 8).

"Diane Reay suggests that while women's studies continues to validate working-class women's experiences, it will also continue to jeopardise its own place in the British academy" (p. 8).

**Reference**

Wilcox, P. (2000). “Me mother's bank and me nana's, you know, support!”: Women who left domestic violence in England and issues of informal support. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 23(1), 35-47.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | **Synopsis** — Attention to domestic violence in developed countries has focused on agency responses. However, domestic violence is a widespread and long-term problem which agencies alone will be unable to resolve. This article draws on doctoral research, combining a community study with ethnographic research, to explore the experiences of 20 white working-class women who left violent relationships. Empirically, the research shows that systematic continued violence was suffered by one third of the women, for which effective police intervention is essential. However, also revealed was the paucity of women’s informal support and support networks. Women lacked resources along many dimensions, to the extent that they formed a distinct socially excluded group. The conclusion drawn is that it is now vital to think about ways of enhancing informal support for women experiencing and/or leaving domestic violence and one way explored in this study was through the networking of women’s friendships. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Domestic violence<br>• Informal support<br>• Network<br>• Friendship |
| **Country** | • The UK |
| **Key Highlights (3-60 – be brief in the summary)** | • Although one third of the women had been able to maintain violence-free lives after leaving, two thirds of the women experienced some continuation of violence and harassment and half of the latter experienced persistent and systematic abuse over time.<br>• Despite this it was found that there was very little follow-up support for women (and children) after making the very tough decision to leave a violent relationship, and in most cases this also meant leaving homes and communities. This lack of |

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| | support applied both to the majority of women who had escaped violence by fleeing to a refuge, as well as to the minority of women who were accommodated by friends or relatives or found other means of leaving the relationship.<br>• On the one hand, for the women who left a Women's Aid refuge, follow-up programmes were rare, and/or services limited, due to inadequate funding. On the other hand, women who used informal means of escape were excluded from the possibility of even this minimal support.<br>• Another factor that influenced women's ability to remain out of the violent relationship was the area they moved into and the state of repair of their new home.<br>• Neighbours could be a positive or negative factor, as they were often the first people women met. It is usual for neighbours not to be chosen, but for these women the move itself had not been chosen and hence the degree of welcome received was especially meaningful and made a difference to how supported/unsupported women felt in their new community<br>• In order to effect social changes for women suffering or having left domestic violence, increases are needed in their emotional, social and material resources (Kelly, 1999, p. viii), and interventions must be integrated and coherent. Work on urban regeneration, for example, must consider women's lifestyles, ensuring there is affordable childcare, transport, accessible training and jobs, as well as making provision for women's leisure activities.<br>• A number of ideas for local action to enhance informal support emerge from this research, all of which could work together in an integrated approach.<br>- A first step would be to secure adequate funding for all refuges/hostels/shelters to provide outreach and follow-up support for the women leaving such accommodation. |

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| | - The second approach would be to look at the possibility of setting up and developing small, specialised community projects (as in my research). Although small in resources, such projects can generate a far wider impact due to the networking of female friendships.<br><br>- A third approach would be to make links with existing community workers and activists and develop programmes of community organisation and political education as suggested by Kelly (1996).<br>• The research suggested some categories - Positive informal support (financial, material and emotional) from family, friends and children5; positive formal support from the police; sound housing and a supportive neighbourhood; keeping their new whereabouts secret from their former partner; starting a new heterosexual relationship (the woman herself or the violent ex-partner). These categories are interconnected in complex ways and it is difficult to single out any one of them as key, rather it was helpful to look at the specific situation of each woman, and the extent to which support was negative, positive or inconsistent in each category; clearly individual women prioritised different categories.<br>• The overall picture can be looked at in the light of macro-structural issues, such as gender, race, disability etc., and in this way a view of the support context for each woman can be compiled at different points in time. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Crisis theory – This theory postulates that in an emergency, routine coping strategies break down. The crisis is a time of great risk but also provides the possibility of change.<br>• Feminist theory – Addresses inequality and power relationship. |

**Key citations from the article**

“In order to more completely understand the process of social support for women leaving violent relationships, both in their everyday lives (Weiss, 1969) and at critical times (Cobb, 1976), a feminist theoretical approach which begins by addressing inequalities and power relationships is needed” (p. 35).

“Women’s lower status in the gender hierarchy leads them to experience greater pressure to conform to social norms, such as keeping the family together, but at the same time evidence of women’s pro-active attempts to obtain adequate support, reveals their attempts to resist this pressure (Binney et al., 1981; Hanmer, 1995; Kelly, 1999)” (p. 36).

“Informal support may be at least as important for women and children as agency support since women turn first to friends and relatives (predominantly but not exclusively women) for help (Kelly, 1999; McGibbon, Cooper, & Kelly, 1989; Mooney, 1994)” (p. 35).

“The declaration of the 1995 Copenhagen Summit on Social Development points out that strategies to promote social inclusion need themselves to be inclusive and participatory (Lister, 1999, p. 2)” (p. 45).

“As Oakley (1992) points out, interviewing women can itself be a form of support (p. 27) as was the development of the experimental support project” (p. 37).

“The first emotion most women felt was relief; to be in a home they could call their own again and away from the refuge, since despite mostly positive experiences there, they longed for some peace and quiet as well as security” (p. 38).

**Reference**

Browne, K. E. (2000). Work style and network management: Gendered Patterns and Economic Consequences in Martinique. *Gender & Society,* 14(3), 435-456.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Working women in the Caribbean and Latin America are more active in the labor market than counterparts in most other regions of the world. Yet, they remain much less economically mobile working men. Using research from a long-term study in Martinique, this article offers a new view o cross-class construction of women's economic immobility. Research results suggest that irrespec a woman's socioeconomic status, household structure, education, skills, or freedom from do chores, the organization of her work is patterned in ways that preclude economic growth. When women try to "get ahead," they invest more of their own time; men, by contrast, put others to work. I argue these and other gender-based patterns of work organization and network management express a but enduring legacy of a patriarchal value system. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Working Women;<br>• Work organization;<br>• Network management;<br>• Economic mobility;<br>• Patriarchal value system.<br>• Martinique; |
| **Country** | • Caribbean and Latin America (Martinique) |
| **Key Highlights (3-61 – be brief in the summary)** | • The main objective of this paper is to identify the internal barriers that women face in work organization and network management as opposed to men.<br>• The paper argues that irrespective of socioeconomic status, education, skills or freedom in domestic responsibilities, women are behind men in terms of work organization and network management mainly due to domination and privilege enjoyed by men which are embedded in social institutions.<br>• Using survey and interview data, the paper finds that institutional advantage |

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| | provide men the advantage of following hierarchical and entrepreneurial style of working and becoming more instrumental in building and using networks. On the other hand, women's life and career path are full of juggling and compromise and this could be the result of huge social and state-level institutional pressure.<br>• The paper finds that work and network patterns between and men and women are distinctly different. Men tend to be more aggressive and outward-looking and they are taught and supported for this. On the other hand, women are more introverted and consider family issues in making any career decision. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• The context of the paper is more related to Androcentric values and institutional structure. However, the paper has used very little from these theories to develop the construct. Rather, the paper has used more empirical findings to develop the arguments. |

**Key citations from the article**

"Patriarchy is defined as "the ideological system of male domination and privilege" (Acevedo 1995, 79), which, as Safa (1995) argues, becomes manifest in institutions of the state and the workplace, and in gender relations in the home. Androcentric values, for example, underlie assumptions about women's secondary role in the economy, assumptions that are legitimized and reproduced through workplace practices and state policies. When women try to move up, they frequently face institutional obstacles and state policies that recognize only men as breadwinners (Acevedo 1995; Safa 1995). Because the primary path to prestige in commodity-based societies involves upward economic women fulfil the prophecy of gender-biased system" (p. 436).

"In the context of the household, researchers have recently suggested that the interaction of gender ideology and household structure may determine whether or not a woman's economic activities actually increase her authority in the home (Acosta-Belen and Bose 1995, 27; Lockwood 1997, 515-16; Zavella 1991, 331)" (p. 437).

"Findings from various societies indicate that women are likely to regard their earnings as resources for household consumption, while men are likely to reserve at least some of their income as capital for investments or to nurture their own economic dreams (Espinal and Grasmuck 1997; Lockwood 1997, 513; Zavella 1991, 322)" (p. 437).

“Other studies reveal that working women in many societies tend to desire public sector work where job security is predictable and where social security benefits are assured and available to cover their children (Browne 1997; Safa and Antrobus 1992, 64)” (p. 437).

**Reference**

Sosin, K. (1999). Explorations on Using the Web for Teaching - Introduction: How Might On-Line Networks Change Teaching? *Feminist Economics,* 5(1), 79-82.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Online resources offer new possibilities and challenges to teachers of economics. In this Exploration s section, three U.S. professors of economics describe their use of the web for teaching. Kim Sosin's introduction discusses some of the ways teaching economics might change with increased use of online technologies. Kim Marie McGoldrick writes of her more specific project to develop critical thinking by using sites with a variety of perspectives. Jean Shackelford guides students through the process of gathering and evaluating information and providing feedback via a web form. Nancy Folbre explains how using the web enlivens her class. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Pedagogy<br>• Teaching<br>• Web<br>• Internet |
| **Country** | • Mexico |
| **Key Highlights (3-62 – be brief in the summary)** | • The study was enthusiastic about the possibilities of providing more information and stronger motivation for students, but cautious about students' ability to evaluate the quality of the information they find.<br>• Kim Marie McGoldrick writes of her more specific project to develop critical thinking by using sites with a variety of perspectives.<br>• Jean Shackelford guides students through the process of gathering and evaluating information and providing feedback via a web form.<br>• Finally, Nancy Folbre explains how using the web enlivens her class.<br>• Though their approaches differ, these authors agree that teaching students to evaluate information and to think critically about economics is a high priority and that |

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| | using the web can help accomplish these two objectives.<br>• They also agree that incorporating the web is enjoyable for both students and teachers and that students evaluate it positively. Early studies in economics and other fields show that web use in class increases learning outcomes or at least leaves them unchanged. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• n/a |

**Key citations from the article**

"According to Varian ( 1997), professional papers might become more accessible to students as a result of online publication" (p. 80).

"Varian suggests that electronic publishing will encourage authors to create "customizable depth," with several versions of the online paper available – a version at students' level, an executive summary, and the full paper" (p. 80).

"Future online articles might also stimulate valuable threads of dialogue between authors and readers ( Varian 1997)" (p. 81).

"Responses to papers espousing alternative viewpoints would also be very valuable for teaching! However, the possibility of open threads of responses raises a concern" (p. 81).

**Reference**

Travers, C., Stevens, S., & Pemberton, C. (1997). Women's networking across boundaries: recognizing different cultural agendas. *Women in Management Review,* 12(2), 61-67.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Drawing on concepts of network centrality, closeness, and status, this article examines the networking practices of women in the commercial real estate industry. The data were obtained through semi-structured interviews with women serving as local chapter presidents of a prominent trade organization in the United States and Canada. Consistent with social role theory, the results suggest women focus extensively on relationship building during their networking activities and attempt to establish credibility by demonstrating professional competency. The results also indicate that women take a number of common steps to position themselves at the center of networks composed of influential individuals with whom they have close personal ties. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Networking<br>• Women<br>• Gender<br>• Professional development<br>• Real estate |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights (3-63 – be brief in the summary)** | • The study suggests that women are becoming more adept at developing strategic relationships grounded in common interests and mutual respect both inside and outside of their places of employment.<br>• Consistent with theories of social roles and informal network exclusion, the results of this study show that many women in the commercial real estate industry focus their networking activities on developing and nurturing strong relationships with co-workers, clients, |

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| | supervisors, and peers. Rather than relying extensively on social interactions, women frequently do this in professional or quasi-professional settings by demonstrating work-related competencies, the ability to lead, and the wherewithal to complete challenging tasks.<br>• Successful women in commercial real estate have learned to strategically maximize the value of the relational networking approaches they prefer or the ones to which they are confined due to the existence of "old-boys clubs. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Social role theory, which posits that socialization processes affect a multiplicity of professional behaviours (Macintosh & Krush, 2014). |

**Key citations from the article**

"Networking has long been considered to be a crucial ingredient of success in any professional career as there are many advantages to be gained by its practice, including information exchange, collaboration, career planning and strategy making, professional support/encouragement, and access to visibility and upward mobility (e.g. Green, 1982; Stern, 1981; Welch, 1980)" (p.61).

"Much of the research on networking is really a literature of the "old-boy" networks; networks that have traditionally excluded women. There has been much research on social networks, demonstrating their influence in diverse areas of social life (Moore, 1990) but there have been relatively few studies on women's networks within and outside work organizations" (p.62).

"Brass (1984, 1985) found that women were not well integrated into male networks and vice versa. Burke et al. (1995) concluded that managerial and professional women are still less integrated into important organizational "male networks, composed of individuals who hold power in the organization (Fagenson, 1986; Hennig and Jardim, 1977; Kanter, 1977)" (p.62).

"Exclusion from the old boy network can also perpetuate male customs, traditions and negative attitudes towards women within organizations" (p.62).

"While men include more co-workers in their networks, women have been found to have fewer nonkin ties (Fischer and Oliker, 1983; Marsden, 1987; Wellman, 1985). There are clear disadvantages in terms of career advancement of women including fewer co-workers in their networks, as developmental benefits from networks external to the organization are more likely to be psychosocial in nature and less likely to involve the organizational-specific assistance gained from internal networks (Burke et al., 1995)" (p. 62).

“Vinnicombe and Colwill (1996) suggest that it is more “utilitarian” for men and more “social” for women” (p.62).

“Male networkers are more likely to use networking in an instrumental way (i.e. obtaining jobs) than women (Zoltie and Clarke, 1993), networking does serve other socializing functions, and the social needs of women may differ from those of men” (p.62).

“The paradox is that, although research suggests that women may place greater importance on the socializing aspects of networking (e.g. Persaud et al., 1990), they are most often excluded from many of the social events and workplace interactions in which men engage. Ibarra (1993) reveals that the outcome of this is that women often find themselves straddling both a male-dominated network for work orientation issues and a women’s network to provide more comfortable social ties” (p.63).

“Women rated the psychosocial benefits to be greater than career support” (p.63).

**Reference**

Benoit Scott, D. (1996). Shattering the instrumental-expressive myth: The Power of Women's Networks in Corporate-Government Affairs. *Gender & Society,* 10(3), 232-247.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Women in corporate-government affairs are involved in work networks at all levels; yet, there are significant differences in the character of ties by gender. This article challenges claims that women's work connections are not instrumental, and hence not powerful, relative to men's. The author argues that, although limited, women are in key positions to influence business-government relations and their own situations. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • corporate-government affairs management<br>• gender networks<br>• network ties<br>• gender inequality |
| **Country** | • US (Wessington D.C and New York) |
| **Key Highlights (3-64 – be brief in the summary)** | • Most studies of women's work ties are taken out of context; they do not examine the occupations in which these networks are embedded. This article challenges conventional characterizations of women's work ties by examining the significance of their connections within a particular occupation-corporate-government affairs management<br><br>• Gender differences in Network Ties: Men are more likely than women to interact with those in top-level positions and more likely than women to socialize both with their colleagues and with those at the top.<br><br>• The Effects of Structural Location: When compared with women in similar "structural" positions, men are significantly more apt to attend social events with those at all levels of business and government. However,<br>men; however, women are more likely than men to interact in various ways with those at similar levels, namely, legislative staff and government relations officials at other corporations or trade associations.<br><br>• "Our Own Girls' Network": Women in government affairs are more likely than men to |

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| | interact with women on legislative staffs, a difference that is statistically significant for all modes of interaction. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• **Instrumental ties**<br>• Instrumental ties are associated with particular positions in the hierarchical structure; therefore, sociologists tend to argue that women are better off establishing ties with those at the top than with those at similar levels (Brass 1992, 1985; Ibarra 1992; Kanter 1977<br>• Network researchers use this "power-over" perspective when characterizing and evaluating the significance of women's work ties. Nancy Hartsock argues for an alternative definition of power, one that stresses "not only the ways women are dominated, but also their capacities, abilities, and strengths ... as guides for a potential transformation of power relations-that is, for the empow-erment of women" (Hartsock 1990).<br>• Connections with people in formal positions of power provide opportunities for employment or promotion (Brass 1992; Kanter 1977; Kaufman 1989; Zwegenghaft, 1987)<br>• Some researchers argue that women should form heterogenous ties if they expect to acquire power and influence (Brass 1992, 1985; Ibarra, 1992). |

**Key citations from the article**

“Women's connections are often characterized as "expressive;" women are said to be more "adept" at forming "social" or "friendship" ties than are men. Men's work ties, on the other hand, are more apt to be characterized as "instrumental" or "task oriented" (Brass 1992, 1985; Ibarra 1992)” (p. 233).

“Researchers argue that women's associations should be task oriented instead of "peripheral social clubs (which reinforce stereotypes about women's greater interest in talk than tasks)" (Kanter 1977, 282). In corporate-government relations, however, so-called expressive ties often have instrumental implications” (p.233).

“Although some researchers acknowledge that women's networks provide "health" benefits (Smith-Lovin and McPherson 1993), or psychological "satisfaction" (Martin 1993), most argue that in regard to work ties, women are better off establishing "instrumental" ties with those in top-level positions” (p.243).

"Connections to power others, such as links with top-level execu- tives, or the dominant coalition in an organization, seem to intuitively increase a person's own power" (Brass 1992, 300); therefore, sociologists tend to argue that women are better off establishing ties with those at the top than with those at similar levels (Brass 1992, 1985; Kanter 1977)" (p.234).

"… encouraging women to form networks with other women may be unnecessary, or, at worst, nonproductive. In terms of acquiring influence ... both men and women (should) be encouraged to build contacts with members of the other gender" (Brass 1985, 340, 341) (p.235).

**Reference**

Sperling, L., & Bretherton, C. (1996). Women's Policy Networks and the European Union. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 19(3), 303 – 314.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | It has been suggested that women's preferred methods of working are cooperatively based, enable support, and sharing of experience and empowerment in social and policy arenas. Thus, women am suffused with the concept and methods of networking. However, the study of networks and networking in policy influence and development has not considered women's experience of the concept and practice of networking. Policy network analysis tends to concentrate on policy areas that traditionally exclude women's interests. The European Union (EU) is increasingly concerned to encourage networks' influence in the policy sphere. Its record in the field of equality legislation and implementation shows it to be more sympathetic to the needs of women to enable them to participate in the public sphere. This paper considers whether women's policy networks are exploiting the opportunities offered by the EU, and attempts to consider the barriers to greater participation of women's networks in the EU policy process. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women<br>• Networking<br>• EU<br>• Policy |
| **Country** | • UK and EU |
| **Key Highlights (3-65 – be brief in the summary)** | • This paper considers whether women's policy networks are exploiting the opportunities offered by the EU, and attempts to consider the barriers to greater participation of women's networks in the EU policy process.<br>• The majority of actors considered in policy networks will be male, this being implicit when the gender profiles of major industrial and political organizations are considered.<br>• Women are marginalized in, if not completely omitted from, PNA on a |

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| | number of mutually reinforcing counts. Women are also overlooked in PNA due to their relative position in the hierarchy of networks.<br>• Given these possible exclusions of women's network contribution, this research demonstrated what we suspected at the outset, that a more inclusive model of PNA was needed if women's networking was to be understood within a theoretical or methodological framework.<br>• The paper demonstrates that women's networks which could be considered as operating within the higher echelon, work hard to include women's groups from the lower "issue network" level to increase their strength and potential for influencing policy. This accords with Dahlerup's (1986) thesis that, for women to be effective, they need to work cooperatively from the grassroots and throughout institutional hierarchies. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• The main theory used in this paper is policy network analysis. As well as considering policy more inclusively, PNA could also consider different applications and definitions of such concepts as resources and resource distribution, fluctuating memberships of networks, and power. Thus, the unequal power and resource distributions with which a hierarchy of networks are beset can be mitigated by considering their wealth of nonmaterial resources. For example, womens' knowledge of the social conditions that contribute to their unequal status, health issues, indeed, women's perspective and experience in any policy area, can contribute to the network and be shared between and within networks to the mutual benefit of members. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>"For too long women have been struggling against a tide of patriarchal barriers in the traditional political arenas of western Europe" (p.303).<br><br>"The EU certainly encourages the use of national and transnational "partnership" and networking as functional concepts (Audit Commission, 1991)" (p.303).<br><br>"Women in the UK there has been a continuous squeeze on their rights, and the avenues by which breaches of these rights can be addressed. Hence, the UK's | |

“opt-out” of the Social Chapter of the Maastricht Treaty, and its reluctance (refusal) to endorse equal pay requirements other than on a case-by-case basis (Hoskyns, 1992, p. 22; Valiance & Davies, 1986)” (p.304).

“The policy areas concerned tend to be those that have dominated politics historically: government-industry relations (Wilks & Wright, 1987); intergovernmental relations (Marsh & Rhodes, 1992; Gray, 1994) concentrating on areas such as nuclear civil energy (Saward, 1992), technology (Peterson, 1992), and economic development (Bennett & Krebs, 1994). Moreover, by concentrating on such issues, the actors involved tend also to be those that have long colonized the policy areas and developed “expertise,” with all its implications of exclusion of new actors with new ideas, and self-perpetuation (Powell, 1991, p. 273)” (p.304).

“The structure of PNA tends to be hierarchical (Marsh & Rhodes, 1992, pp. 14, 251)” (p.305).

**Reference**

Burke, R.J., Rothstein, M.G., & Bristor, J.M. (1995). Interpersonal networks of managerial and professional women and men: descriptive characteristics. *Women in Management Review,* 10(1), 21-27.

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| **Author-provided abstract** | Presents descriptive information on interpersonal networks, both inside and outside of one's organization, among managerial and professional women and men. Sex differences were also examined. Data were collected from 57 women and 55 men working in early and mid-career stages using questionnaires. Respondents indicated an average of 4.9 individuals in their inside networks and 2.8 individuals in their outside networks. There was a higher percentage of men in both networks, but the difference was smaller outside than in inside networks. Respondents interacted with inside and outside network members about once a week. Inside network members held staff rather than line jobs, were at slightly higher organizational levels and were only modestly connected to powerful organizational leaders. Outside networks consisted mostly of friends and spouses. The networks of women and men had some differences. Women's networks contained more women than did men's networks. Women also received a greater number of developmental functions from their outside network, with a similar tendency from their inside network as well. |
| **Keywords**<br>(5-7) | • Inside /outside networks<br>• mentorship<br>• Interpersonal networks (formal and informal)<br>• Professional and managerial women and men<br>• Interpersonal relationship |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights**<br>**(3-66 – be brief in the summary)** | • Managerial women and men both had interpersonal networks of supportive individuals inside and outside of their organizations.<br>• Respondents indicated a larger inside network, not surprising, given the focus of the study on individuals providing support and advice on their jobs. There were more men than women on both inside and outside |

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| | networks, with a larger difference on the inside network. This reflects both the increased number of men at these (and higher) organizational levels and the preferences of both men and women for same-sex network members.<br>• Both inside and outside networks had diverse memberships. Inside networks included several functional areas; outside networks included spouses, other family members and friends.<br>• Most respondents were at relatively low organizational levels and had short organizational tenures. Access to those with real power might require individuals being at higher organizational levels and having greater organizational tenure.<br>• There also appeared to be significant differences in the developmental functions provided by inside and outside network members. Outside members provided more psychosocial support and less organizationally specific functions (culture, fit with organization's values, organizational politics). Inside network members provided a mix of psychosocial and career development functions. The seeming reliance of professional and managerial women on outside network members and high levels of psychosocial support may be problematic for women. These findings are consistent with career development advice offered to women |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Kram's notion of a relationship constellation (Kram, K.E., Mentoring at Work, Scott Foresman, Glenview, IL, 1985)<br>• Most research on networks[Brass 1984, 1985; Ibarra, 1990) uses a sociometric approach in which individuals within a single organization describe the nature of their relationships with all other organization members.<br>• Brass (1984, 1985) examined interaction patterns of men and women in one organization, and their effects on perceptions of influence and actual promotions. Three types of networks were considered: workflow, communication and friendship. The results indicated that an individual's position in |

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| | workflow and interaction networks was strongly related to measures of influence<br>• Ibarra (1990) used an intergroup perspective to investigate differences in men's and women's access to informal networks at work. Five networks were considered: advice, support, influence, communications and friendship. Results indicated that men had greater centrality and homophily (relationships with same-sex others)in their network relationships than women<br>• The aforementioned models do not take into account relationships individuals have with others outside their organization. The present exploratory investigation takes a different approach. Building on **Kram's notion of a relationship constellation (1985)**, they considered all potentially supportive relationships of a focal person, both inside (e.g. boss, peers, subordinates, more senior managers) and outside the organization (outside work friends, family members). |

**Key citations from the article**

(N/A)

Some useful questions raised by the authors:

Who initiates such relationships?
Does initiation vary by gender, rank, education, prior experience or organization culture?
What accounts for some individuals being successful while others are not?
What role might be played by gender socialization?
Is it the level of one's interpersonal network that matters, the number and composition of the network, or the compatibility of guidance from internal and external relationships?

**Reference**

Sanders, K. (1995). The `Gift' and "Request" Network: Differences between Women and Men in the Receipt and the Effect of Information Concerning the Labour Market. *European Journal of Women's Studies,* 2(2), 205-218.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | N/A<br>In this article the author wants to enquire more precisely into the relationship between social networks, finding a job and the income of the job for women and men; attention is paid both to the use of social networks and to the effects, in terms of getting better jobs, of using these networks. This relation is examined for both women and men. The central question can be formulated as follows: Are there differences between women and men in the information received concerning the labour market? Are there differences between women and men in effect, in terms of income, of received information? And how can these differences be explained? (p.2) |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Social networks<br>• Informal search channels<br>• Job income<br>• Strengths of ties by Granovetter<br>• Informal (gift/request network) search behaviour<br>• Formal (apply for a job) search behaviour |
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| **Key Highlights (4 – be brief in the summary)** | • Research by Bridges and Villemez (1986) and McPherson and Smith-Lovin (1986) indicated that women who use social networks to find a job tend to get jobs that are less sex stereotypical<br>• Men receive more information concerning the labour market from members of the gift network than women.<br>• Men request more and therefore receive more information from members of the request network than women<br>• Men are expected to engage more often in formal search behaviour than women. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• 'life-perspective' theory (Sanders, 1991).<br>• It is assumed that members of the **gift network** in particular have learned that men and women have a different life perspective. This means that |

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| | family and close friends have different expectations with regard to men and women. They will assume that, apart from the option of a paid working career, women can also gain income and social approval indirectly, through their partners and by pursuing an unpaid working career as a housewife and mother. This is in contrast to men, for whom it is often assumed that only the performance of paid work can provide income and social approval. The difference between women's and men's alternatives for gaining income and social approval will result in a double prospect for the future (double life perspective) for women and a single life perspective for men.<br>• **'job-search' theory** (Stigler, 1961, 1962; McKenna, 1985). According to the theory, the more important it is for people to find a job the more they are willing to incur costs. One way to invest and to incur costs is to request information. According to the life-perspective theory (Sanders, 1991) the assumption is made that it is more important for men to find a job than for women. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br>N/A | |

**Reference**

Ehrich, C. L. (1994). Mentoring and Networking for Women Educators. *Women in Management Review,* 9(3), 4-10.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | The importance of mentoring and networking for women in management and administration has been identified in recent articles in Women in Management Review. Contributes to the growing body of literature in this area by examining some of the different sources of mentoring and kinds of networks available to women educators who are aspiring to higher education administration posts in Australian Government schools. Argues that it is much easier for male teachers and male educational administrators to access power through mentoring and networking than it is for female teachers and female educational administrators because mentoring and networking have both been traditionally male-dominated practices. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Mentoring<br>• Networking<br>• Women educators<br>• Principals<br>• Australia |
| **Country** | • Australia |
| **Key Highlights (4-5 – be brief in the summary)** | • Statistical data which are highlighted below show that a glass ceiling is operating not only at senior management (e.g. beyond the level of principal) but also in the level of middle management (the level of principal) in Australia. Only 20 per cent of the total number of principals are women Source: Department of Education, Number of Employed Principals in Queensland State Schools as at 14 May 1993, Personnel Services branch, Queensland Department of Education<br><br>• Previous research indicates quite clearly that women in a variety of professions such as management (Ragins,2012) academic (Byrne,1989) and education (. Marshall,, 1985) continue to experience a lack of mentoring opportunities.<br>• Another reason for women's lack of access to mentor relationships is that male mentor, who |

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| | make up the majority of those individuals in a position to mentor others, tend to adopt male protégés because of the "sexual risks" that are associated with cross-sex mentoring (Clawson, J.G. and Kram, K.E., "Managing Cross-Gender Mentoring", Business Horizons, Vol. 27 No. 3, 1984, pp. 22-32.)<br>• Contrary to the UK, USA and Singapore, in Australia to date, no formal mentoring programme exists for women principals or those who are interested in seeking the principal role or higher educational administration position.<br>• Women's networks have consciously duplicated an unconscious process, are publicly visible and formally constructed. In contrast, old boy networks are closed and women have difficulty accessing these circuit (Berkelaar, 1991). |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory used**<br>• Kram[11] divides these functions into two separate categories: career functions such as sponsorship, coaching and visibility; and psychosocial functions such as encouragement, feedback and advice<br>• The conceptual framework presented at p.6 (Figure 1. Educators' Access to Power through Mentorship and Networking). According to the author, there are 3 sources of networking. Formal, informal and nomination to act on committees, boards or commissions.<br>• Swoboda and Millar cited by Haring-Hide(1987, pp. 147-8) have referred to the process in informal networks for women such as the above as "networking mentoring", and described networking between peer pals as a kind of mentoring, since members provide support and encouragement to one another. It is argued here, that networking does not constitute mentoring, as "peer pals" not only lack power, but also have limited effectiveness in providing career advancement.<br>• The above models were strongly influenced by Still and Guerin's[1986] Research on the gender differences of networking for male and female managers and Chapman's[1986: pp13-19] discussion of the problems which women principals confront in relation to building community networks. |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“Although networking and mentoring have both been identified as crucial for women’s career, the argument I propose in this article is that networking is separate from mentoring, and while it is an important career strategy, it is a less powerful practice than mentoring in terms of career advancement” (p.7).

**“**The difficulty of networking in the general community would be more difficult for singlestatus women principals, not only because Australia is predominantly a family-oriented society, but also because the woman principal on her own would have to rely on her own contacts when reaching out to the community**”** (p.8).

**Reference**

Berkelaar, A. (1991). DUTCH WOMEN′S NETWORKS – A PLEA FOR A NETWORK OF NETWORKS. *Women in Management Review,* 6(6), 22-26.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Since 1918 The Netherlands has witnessed the founding of numerous women′s organisations. The history, present situation and future developments of Dutch women′s networks are analysed by means of network theory. Women′s networks have been established to give women professional and private support which they did not find in other social and organisational circuits. Women′s networks are growing not only in number but also in size. With the aid of network theory, three trends are pointed out: (1) temporary support networks become real social networks, (2) temporary issue and support networks are being created within the broader framework of networks, (3) women′s networks are turning into organisation networks. This higher degree of organisation resembles the development of the role of trade unions in society. The women′s movement seems to be moving in the same direction; therefore a higher degree of organisation is a challenge for the future. First, in order to become a major stakeholder for organisations, the women′s networks need to accept their mutual interdependence and should start working according to the principles of partnership. They need to co-operate, and the forces within the women′s movement need to be concentrated so that the entire movement can gain strength. Secondly, the diversity of women′s organisations demands an internal reorientation in order to survive the external and internal demands of the 1990s on these networks. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Gender segmentation<br>• Women's network<br>• Dutch women<br>• Types of network<br>• Partnership |
| **Country** | • Netherlands |
| **Key Highlights (4-6 – be brief in the summary)** | • A network can be defined as a pattern of relations set up by organisations and/or |

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| | individuals as a result of a situation of interdependence.<br>• A network has horizontal connections; every actor is autonomous; there is no central authority controlling and regulating the whole; negotiating processes are at the heart of the interactions.<br>• Dependent on their power and resources (money, space, working strength, information), the actors occupy central or peripheral positions in the network.<br>• Actors are interdependent; they need each other to achieve their aims.<br>• The network is dynamic; the connections between actors change; actors come and go.<br>• The network is "creatable", which means that it does not have a definite shape; contacts may originate where no connections had previously existed; particular connections may be activated when necessary; superfluous relations can be broken off. The actors themselves shape the network and determine its dynamics.<br>• The relationships are the core of the network; an analysis of a network should be focused on the relationships between the actors and their commitment to achieving the goal.<br>• Networks can be subdivided into the *issue*, *organisational, support*, and *social networks*. This subdivision is based on two dimensions: one that indicates the continuity of the network and the width of its objectives, and one that ranges from an informal to a formal degree of organisation:<br>• |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Network theory<br>• This means that the organisations involved should recognise and accept the underlying pattern of dependence. The growth in size and number of women's organisations may result in their getting in one another's way. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>Women's networks should pay attention to the following questions: | |

- What is our core business?
- What are our possibilities for growth?
- How can we motivate and keep our members?
- Is it still possible for us to manage our network inspiringly?
- With whom can we ally ourselves?

**Reference**

Brookes, C. (1990). The third aspect: An investigation of U.K. business networks. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 13(6), 577-585.

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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | The research was a study of 16 women's networks in the United Kingdom. Information was mainly collected via a self-completion postal questionnaire in Summer 1987. The purpose of this paper is to develop concepts that might be used to understand the characteristics and activities of such networks and to test out the hypothesis that a network's political stance is predictive of some of its main features. It seeks to demonstrate that Tomlinson's dichotomous political classification of networks can usefully be extended to encompass the third category. The hypothesis that the political stance of a network will be predictive of its orientation — discussed in terms of the relative importance of training and lobbying to a given group — and the inclusivity/exclusivity of its membership policy is supported. Conversely, it is shown that attitudes to men as potential members, organisational structures, and sources and levels of funding cannot be predicted purely by reference to a network's political position. |
| Keywords (5-7) | • Business Networks<br>• UK<br>• The political approach of networks<br>• Radical and conservative networks<br>• Individual/collective orientation<br>• Membership (inclusive/exclusive) |
| **Country** | UK |
| **Key Highlights (4-7 – be brief in the summary)** | • Women in the workforce have available to them various strategies for dealing with these inequalities. These include individual coping techniques, legal remedies, and various forms of collective action.<br>• Women in management and the professions, in particular, may hesitate to turn to trade unions to help them achieve equality. The way forward may lie in other forms of collective activity, as demonstrated by groups such as Women |

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| | in Publishing, Women in Media, and the Women's Engineering Society. Such groups would seem to offer three major benefits: providing support and pooled expertise to their members, catering for their specific training needs, and/or lobbying for change.<br>• The more radical groups include the Fawcett Society (which fights discrimination in every sphere of life, not just employment), WFTVN (which lobbies for change in the employment structure of the media industry and the portrayal of and representation of women in the media), and Women in Medicine (which campaigns not only against sexism, but also racism, heterosexism, classism, and disablism within medical education and practice).<br>• The political approach of the networks (i.e., their analysis of women's position in employment and the reasons for it) will dictate their policies and aims, and the aims of the groups do range across the political spectrum. by secretaries. In short, they accept occupational sex structuring as given, so that their very limited aims reinforce rather than challenge the status quo. (Faulder, 1987).<br>• Depending upon the political analysis adopted, either individual action (through training) or collective action (lobbying) is seen as appropriate, or a mixture of the two. Training is applicable if women's disadvantaged position is due to individual women not fulfilling their potential. Lobbying is appropriate if it is believed that women as a sex are prevented by the very structure of society from fulfilling their potential.<br>• The degree of exclusivity/inclusivity of membership relates broadly to the political approach of the group involved; if structural changes are seen to be needed to improve women's position at work, then lobbying is required, for which broadly based support is necessary<br>• Most of the networks use representative structures, rather like trade unions, electing representatives to the centralised |

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| | governing body, but only two use collective structures of autonomous subgroups with little or no centralised control, like the women's movement (Women in Medicine, Women in Publishing).<br>• Individual or collective orientation. For example, conservative networks tend to focus on individual advancement, seeing women's difficulties in employment as individual and personal rather than collective and structural.<br>• The mixed and radical groups, on the other hand, have an increasingly collective orientation, rejecting the notion that the career success or failure of individual women are entirely in their own hands. The mixed group, whilst believing that some structural change is necessary, also encourage individual training the situation of a network on the individual-collective orientation spectrum is inextricably linked with the relative importance it places on training and/ or lobbying. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Tomlinson's conservative/radical designation<br>• The radical and conservative networks as designated by Tomlinson (1987). The objective is to examine the usefulness of this political dimension and to test out the hypothesis that a network's political stance will be predictive of its orientation (individual v. collective), membership policy (exclusive v. inclusive), attitude to men (exclusive v. inclusive), organisational structure (traditional v. collective), and level and sources of funding (subsidised or totally self-funding).<br>• The study was based on the fundamental concept that it is the notion of the conservative/mixed/radical spectrum, which relates to the nature of the political analysis made by any given group of the reasons for women's disadvantaged position, whether in employment (most groups, including WIB, Women in Publishing (Ion- don), Women in Medicine), in politics (the 300 Group), or on a global scale (Zonta International). |
| **Key citations from the article** | |

“Radical networks - “those with a feminist campaigning philosophy” (Tomlinson, 1987) -would be more collectively oriented (in terms of activities and organisational structure), have less stringent criteria for membership for women (but exclude men), and be less likely to attract funding from the Establishment (whether their own employers or other companies) than conservative ones, “those want- ing to act moderately, to present an acceptable “safe” image, and to involve men” (Tomlinson, 1987)” (p. 577).

“A network was broadly taken to mean a women-only organisation formed for the advancement of women in a particular industry or group of industries, and “strongly training-oriented” (Baines, 1986), lobbying to improve their situation in that industry or group of industries” (p. 579).

“The aim of the women who founded the Network “was to establish a framework within which they could share interests and mutual problems with other senior management women.” Its objectives include “the encouragement of women to seek senior professional and management positions” and “to provide a support group and an example to those women still climbing their career ladder” (Network, 1987).

**Reference**

Rose, S. (1989). Women biologists and the “old boy” network. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 12(3), 349-354.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | Women scientists continue to face exclusion from predominantly male “old boy” networks that provide access to important career opportunities. A small national sample of junior faculty in biology—women and men—was surveyed in the present study to determine how women were faring in terms of gaining entry to these networks and the networks' impact on their careers. Women's networks were found to be less effective than men's at providing friendship, especially with higher-ranking men, and at helping them gain visibility as professionals. Married women were at an even greater disadvantage than single women. However, women did not perceive their networks to be less effective than men's. The long-range impact of these findings on careers is discussed and compensatory strategies women scientists can use to develop their networks are proposed. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Women scientists<br>• Biology<br>• Networking<br>• Homesociality<br>• National networks<br>• Old boy network<br>• Informal/formal socialisation |
| **Country** | • USA (70 U.S. universities with graduate programs in biology) |
| **Key Highlights (4-8 – be brief in the summary)** | • Previous research indicates that men scientists often are not very responsive to their women colleagues. Anne Sayre's biography of Rosalind Franklin (Sayre, 1975) provides a case study of how women are excluded from the social network of the sciences to their detriment. Sayre illustrated how Francis Crick and James Watson, who received the Nobel prize for their research on DNA, used Franklin's isolation to deprive her of credit for discoveries that were essential to their findings. |

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| | • Gaining entry to the "old boy" network is extremely difficult for women in all male-dominated professions. Access is often granted via informal "clublike" interactions, occurring in contexts from which women are absent or uninvited, such as poker games, athletic events, or university clubs (Epstein, 1971).<br>• Exclusion from the predominantly male social networks available in science has serious career consequences for women. Professional networks not only provide information about developments in the field prior to its formal communication in trade publications and journals; they also help individuals to establish a reputation by promoting her or his visibility within the field.<br>• In addition, networks are a source of friendships, which because they are occupationally based, support the social and moral solidarity of the group. Lastly, networks act to socialize newcomers by conveying expectations about the norms, protocols, ethics, and ideals of the profession (Mitchell & Trickett, 1980).<br>• Study results indicate that men appear to have a career advantage in terms of network composition. Their national networks were stronger because they were more likely to be consolidated with friendship as well as professional ties. National networks are more crucial to the development of a professional reputation than departmental or university networks. They play an important role in providing opportunities for professional visibility; it is these colleagues who invite junior scientists to present their work at symposia, attend an invitation-only conference, provide informal reviews of grants and manuscripts, and write letters of recommendation.<br>• It benefits professional women to be single and professional men to be married. Wives who are part of dual-career couples in sociology, psychology, and law have less job rank, stability, and income than either husbands or single women and men, even when they are |

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| | similar to those groups in terms of age, training, degree, and place of employment (see Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987, for a review).<br>• Also, the network survey indicates that junior women in the biological sciences, particularly married junior women, are more poorly connected to the "old boy" network than junior men. The differences were most evident in the areas of establishing close friendships with higher status men and developing a professional reputation. The ever-increasing gap in professional visibility and networks compared to men is likely to negatively affect women's chances for promotion then, too. |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• Homosociality<br>• Homosociality refers to the preference for same-sex social interactions, reinforced by childhood sex segregation, which guarantees that most men will feel more at ease with other men and women with women. The power differential between women and men encourages greater homosociality among men because men have more to gain in terms of power, prestige and resources by associating with men rather than with women (Lipman-Blumen, 1976)<br>• Kanter (1977), the sex ratio of the profession influences the amount of isolation and discrimination women experience. |
| **Key citations from the article**<br><br>“An accurate image of today's scientist is that of a professional pursuing independent research while drawing on the findings of a vast network of colleagues nationally and internationally (Reskin, 1978). An undeniable fact of scientific life is that success depends on having active researchers as a reference group. Whom one knows can be easily as important as what one knows” (p.349).<br><br>“Women still are "tokens" in the sciences, earning only 34% of the doctorates in the biological sciences, 21% in chemistry, 17% in earth sciences, 17% in mathematics, 9% in physics, and 9% in engineering (National Research Council, 1987). As tokens, they are outsiders, experiencing social isolation, sex-role stereotyping, and more attention for being women than for their work (Kanter, 1977)” (p.349).<br><br>“Women PhDs have reported it difficult to find someone with whom to have lunch or talk over ideas (Simon, Clark, & Galway, 1967) and have fewer men colleague | |

friends and fewer higher status associates in their network than men faculty (Kaufman, 1978)" (p.349).

"Recent reports indicate that as academic rank increases, the percentage of women scientists decreases. In 1985, women constituted 29% of assistant professors, but only 16% of associate and 8% of full professors in the physical and biological sciences (National Science Foundation, 1986)" (p.349).

**Reference**

Sargent, M. L. (1989). Women rising in resistance: A direct action network. *Women's Studies International Forum,* 12(1), 113-118.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This article describes the actions of the Grassroots Group of Second Class Citizens in the ERA campaign in Illinois in 1982 and the formation and activities of Women Rising in Resistance, a network of feminists engaged in direct action. It discusses some obstacles to women's direct action and the importance of education concerning its history and effectiveness. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Equal Rights Amendment (ERA)<br>• Women Rising in Resistance<br>• Feminist campaign<br>• Political education |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights (4-9 – be brief in the summary)** | • Women Rising in Resistance began in 1984, has evolved into a connecting web or network of affinity groups and individual activists who create direct action demonstrations for lesbian/feminist/womanist/ pacifist/radical causes and issues. They chose to form a network of activists instead of a centralized organization in order to channel their energies and resources into doing actions. By direct action, we mean a dramatic, face-to-face, nonviolent confrontation with those who abuse power or obstruct change<br>• A secondary goal of our network is educating women about the need for such tactics in their movements and encouraging participation in the direct actions<br>• As a result of all these efforts, they are now a network of approximately 1,500 individuals and affinity groups. The name has been adapted to fit the needs and desires of specific groups, as in Lesbians Rising in Resistance and Grandmothers Rising in Resistance. Other affinity groups use the logo but not the name |

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| | • The most obvious obstacle is the absence of an existing and active direct action movement for women to join or attach. Without an ongoing, visible direct action movement in the public eye, women are not moved, educated, or taught how to take action<br>• Also, some women see resistance as negative, as nay-saying, and want to do only what is positive.<br>• Another problem is that women are overworked and overcommitted. According to recent UN statistics, women do two-thirds of the world's work. Commitments to wage labour, children, domestic chores, and ageing parents leave women little time for political activity, especially activity involving the risk of detention or arrest that would interfere with these commitments.<br>• Even feminist and lesbian women have been socialized as women to serve and nurture everyone, every cause, and to put themselves last. To put oneself and one's cause first is to be selfish, and we are conditioned to be unselfish<br>• Women's commitment to public, visible action sometimes limits what they can do. Another limitation is the scarcity of resources and time. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name: N/A |

**Key citations from the article**

"In architecture or graphic design "less is more"; in the direct action politics, less is less and more is more" (n.p.).

"We have been socialized to fear physical danger, discouraged from taking risks and engaging in deeds of daring-do. Our sense of adventure has been squelched and squeezed" (n.p.).

"Our tendency to love humanity leads us to fight for every cause but that of women" (n.p.).

**Reference**

Stern, B. B. (1987). The games women play: simulation and women's networks. *Women in Management Review,* 2(3), 154-165.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This paper explores the connection between women's networks and the need for women to learn in a deliberate, conscious, concerted way the 155 ethic of responsible power in the business world. The simulations developed as an adjunct to experiential learning represent modes of group communication needed to train the network members in various uses of power. If the corporation is currently neglectful of this art, the best way to shorten trial-and-error learning seems to be through peer self-help activities. Using networks as a simulation base—a training camp for power—is closely associated with the availability of management games, role plays, scenarios, and executive exercises. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Training/simulation exercises<br>• Authority<br>• Power of expertise<br>• Power of charisma |
| **Country** | • USA |
| **Key Highlights (4-10 – be brief in the summary)** | • The formation of women's networks within companies represents a conscious effort by women to master the professional and business/ social communication skills essential to gain and use power responsibly. Women's networks provide members with an information base, a support system and a training ground for future executives learning the art of power through teamwork.<br><br>• Simulation techniques such as role-plays, management games, and scenarios are useful in networks as training devices for various kinds of power use. Corporations only rarely sponsor managerial training programmes for women to eliminate sex stereotypes. Thus, network groups themselves fill the void and act as self-help systems.<br><br>• Three major kinds of organizational power exist, all of which can be fostered by the networks' emphasis on critical communication |

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| | skills: the power of authority, the power of expertise, and the power of charisma. Games have been created for each power situation and can be played in networks with or without specially-trained facilitators.<br><br>• Networks function as support groups, educational forums, and meeting places for women who aspire to power in business and the professions.<br><br>• Women teaming together consciously in groups which stress professionalism can learn through experiential techniques the responsible uses of power. They can do so in non-threatening situations within the networks, which are all women and separate from the employer.<br><br>• This paper presents three training exercises to simulate the three power modes discussed. Each exercise fulfils the salient characteristics present in educational games ● simulation/game representation of reality ● game cultivation of insight into others' viewpoints ● game development of participants' perspective ● players' ability to direct and control their experiences within the simulation to some extent ● game completeness and clarity, sufficient to enable participants to grasp essentials |
| **Theory Used** | **Theory Name:**<br>• THREE KINDS OF POWERS by J.R.P.French & B.Raven. *The Bases of Social Power*, in Snow, op. cit<br>• Three kinds of power There are three major kinds of corporate power to consider, all of which present unusual barriers to women, barriers of which their male counterparts may be totally unaware. The three powers are the power of authority, power of expertise, and power of charisma. These are basic concepts in the organizational world, concepts that women need to examine and refine as power is transmuted from an exclusively masculine concept to a gender-neutral one. The simulations developed can assist women in networks to act in powerful ways, and react to power situations, within the safety and comfort of all-women peer groups. |

**Key citations from the article**
n/a

**Reference**

Paul, N. (1985). Networking: Women's Key to Success. *Women in Management Review,* 1(3), 146-151.

| Required Element | AB Entry |
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| **Author-provided abstract** (indicate if none) | This is a guide to networking; how to establish new groups and increase the creativity of those already in existence. |
| **Keywords** (5-7) | • Networking<br>• New groups<br>• Creativity<br>• Old-boys network |
| **Country** | • |
| **Key Highlights (4-11 – be brief in the summary)** | **Types of networks**<br>• *Professional networks* equate to the exclusively male clubs and activities; their members have similar professional qualifications. One of the richer aspects of this type of network lies in broadening women's horizons, through discussion of who is doing what, what jobs are going, and so on.<br>• *In-company networks* are for many the first introduction to networking: they are either formally or informally organized to promote women too, or help them succeed at, managerial levels.<br>• *Training networks*. All training depends for success on the effective application of lessons over a period of time. The effects of learning, however, have only a limited life expectancy, a way of increasing which (as well as improving the quality of learning) is to form ongoing support groups. Training networks. All training depends for success on the effective application of lessons over a period of time. The effects of learning, however, have only a limited life expectancy, a way of increasing which (as well as improving the quality of learning) is to form ongoing support groups.<br>• **The Structure of Networking** (purpose, membership, network are not static, |

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| | timing, networking is not therapy, highs and lows)<br>• **The Process of Networking** The smooth running of a network depends greatly on the effectiveness of its meetings. Meetings can be of three types.<br>  • *education category*, at which outside speakers and/or group members' contribute their experience<br>  • *The networking meeting* has as its main objective the achievement of every member's individual goals. Members should be encouraged to maintain social contacts within the group. It can provide a chance to discuss a problem or simply to spend some time together.<br>  • *training network meetings*, to teach new skills and provide new knowledge<br>  • **Linking**: The final stage of networking is to make contact with other networks and associations. At this stage, as well as looking for new horizons, the senior members of networks should be acting as advisors or mentors to younger women, and—being established—can afford to sponsor and create new groups. |
| **Theory Used** | Theory Name:<br>• N/A |

**Key citations from the article**

“Peter Drucker refers to the 'informal organization', which—although informal—is, nevertheless, very powerful, as are the professional and social cliques or clubs: these help men survive, forward their careers, gain and create power, and achieve success. They spawn the friendly tips from colleagues or peers about job opportunities, and they provide the helping hand and fatherly guidance of older male mentors” (p.146).

“Women who reach managerial level experience both isolation and loneliness: isolation from other women who treat as traitors, workmates who have left the lower ranks; loneliness because there are so few women in management” (p.146).