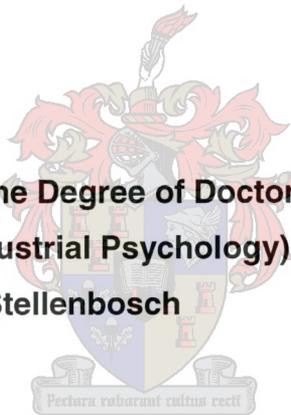


**AN INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL REVIEW OF FACTORS AND
BARRIERS THAT ARE KEEPING WOMEN FROM REACHING TOP
POSITIONS IN THE MODERN WORKPLACE**

by

René Nel

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**SUPERVISORS: PROF. JB DU TOIT &
PROF. JCD AUGUSTYN**

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STELLENBOSCH

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

ABSTRACT

The South African woman, due to the winds of political–social change, has a totally new role to play in the workplace. However, reality shows numerous hurdles, which she will have to overcome in order to reach the level of acceptable conditions in the work place. Although motivation in a working place is a global issue, the South African woman of the present has to face quite acute problems that seem to be inherent to this country. In aggravation of the situation, companies in South Africa mostly follow the patriarchal system in which top management comprises of males and the male way of doing things. The great disparities in favour of men in senior positions are further proof of the unacceptable situation in our country. It is a fact that women do not move up the ladder as fast as men. Bias against women is a great barrier that needs to be broken in South Africa. Unconscious discrimination based on perceptions such, as that women are the weaker sex, and are over-emotional, short-term employees, etc. are still in place.

The media will be able to play an integral part in educating people to change traditional roles. In this way, demographically isolated women in rural areas will gain more feedback and exposure to what they might expect within the work place. Only through such exposure can the problems of the past be bridged. The traditional approach, especially of the Black woman in the role of rearing children, will have to be reviewed. Modern South Africa has liberated the female on a social and political level. She has more choices now than ever before. That brings the aspect of making a choice in career to the fore. It is very clear that expectations influence career choice. It seems as if compatibility of personality and career is important when factors such as background, interests and self-perception come to the front. The under-representation of South African women in the working place might be related to possible disparity in local educational levels. Career choice is not a spontaneous process. The individual takes a conscious decision to follow a specific career path. Usually a person will choose a career that fits best with

individual abilities, needs and interests. Career choices are strongly influenced by the social environment from where the person comes, as well as the influence of the person's parent on the individual's early life. The choice of career in the end rests with the individual.

Mostly due to such an approach, the South African working experience has been a real struggle for most women. Socialization, cultural orientation and the patriarchal system in which the South African market functions, are all factors that negatively impact on women's upward movement in companies. To kill stereotyping myths as stipulated by different researchers, could only hasten the process of establishing the woman's position in the workplace. Therefore, to bridge this problem, there will have to be real commitment on the side of management as well as from women in general. Mothers will have to start educating their children to develop a different view on norms and standards. Only through such an approach will it be possible to break the strangle hold that culture has on the socialization of our children and the roles that they assume in their adult lives.

Globally, there is a tendency to take steps towards correcting gender discrepancies in companies. Flexible work policies tend to draw career-orientated women to such companies. However, gender policies must be in place if success is desired. Specific gender policies in our country will thus have to be realized in companies. It is therefore important that a thorough study of such implementation amongst South African companies be launched. In this study an attempt was therefore made to analyse literature dealing with the impact of policies and procedures on the day-to-day running of a company will be made. The results should enhance the feedback on upward movement of women in the workplace.

Whether there is a change for the better will be determined by a number of impeding factors. At least thirteen different Career Barriers, which may impede a female employee's upward movement in a company, will be reviewed in this study. Hurdles such as Sex Discrimination against female

employees; Lack of Confidence among the women workers themselves; their Multiple Role Conflict within society; Conflict between their children and Career Demands; Racial Discrimination; Inadequate Preparation for the work they must do; Disapproval by Significant Others in their lives in connection with the jobs they do; Decision-making Difficulties concerning their career plans; Dissatisfaction with their Careers; Discouragement from Choosing Non-traditional Careers; Disabilities/ Health Concerns; Job Market Constraints for women, such as a tight job market, or lack of demand for specific areas of training/education; and Difficulty with Networking / Socialization, such as not knowing the “right people” for getting ahead in a career, will have to be crossed in order to create a more acceptable playing field for women in the workplace.

Although opportunities for advancement are publicized, very few women seem to be promoted or rewarded for their efforts. At this stage it seems as if Wallston and O’Leary’s (1991) statement might be applicable: “A man’s successful performance of a task is generally attributed to skill, whereas a woman’s identical performance is attributed to effort or luck”.

A number of factors had the effect of impeding this study. These included down-sizing of specific areas in one of the companies under survey and acquisition of a new partner in the case of another. In both instances certain posts had become redundant due to duplication, resulting in uncertainty about careers and promotion. A seemingly apathetic attitude prevailed in certain cases where employees did not see any value in completing surveys and questionnaires for this study. However, this research effort was of a qualitative nature, most probably adding value to future qualitative research in support of the findings of quantitative studies. Furthermore, this study highlighted the fact that there is a definite need for the training and development especially of female employees, to achieve full potential within companies.

OPSOMMING

As gevolg van politiek-sosiale winde van verandering, het die Suid-Afrikaanse vrou, 'n geheel nuwe rol in die werkplek te vervul. Die werklikheid dui egter aan dat daar talle struikelblokke bestaan wat die vroulike werknemer kortwiek om aanvaarbare standaarde van werksgehalte in die werkplek te bereik. Alhoewel motivering binne die werkplek 'n wêreldwye vraagstuk is, word die hedendaagse Suid-Afrikaanse vrou met talle probleme, wat moontlik inherent aan hierdie land is, gekonfronteer. Om die situasie verder te vererger, volg die meeste van die maatskappye in Suid-Afrika die patriargale stelsel waar in topbestuur in die meeste gevalle uit mans bestaan wat die manlike benadering van dinge volg. Die groot ongelykhede ten gunste van mans in senior posisies is verdere bewys van die onaanvaarbare toestand in ons land. Dit is 'n feit dat vroue nie so vinnig op die bevorderingsleer vorder soos mans nie. Vooroordeel teen vroue is 'n groot struikelblok wat noodwendig in Suid-Afrika voorkom sal moet word. Onbewustelike diskriminasie gegrond op persepsies soos *vroue is die swakker geslag, oor-emosioneel, korttermyn werknemers*, ens. is nog steeds in plek.

Die media kan ook 'n integrale rol speel in die opvoeding van mense en hulle sodoende help om tradisionele rolle te verander. Op hierdie wyse sal die demografies-gëisoleerde vroue in landelike gebiede ook inligting bekom en hulle blootstel aan dit wat hulle in die werkplek kan verwag. Alleenlik deur hierdie tipe blootstelling sal die probleme van die verlede oorbrug word. Die tradisionele benadering, veral in die geval van die Swart vrou wat die rol van huisvrou en kinderoppasser moet vervul, moet bekyk sal word. Moderne Suid-Afrika het die vrou op politieke en sosiale vlak bevry. Sy het tans meer keuses as ooit voorheen. Dit bring die aspek van die maak van keuse sterk na vore. Dit is baie duidelik dat verwagtinge loopbaankeuses beïnvloed. Dit wil voorkom asof die verenigbaarheid van persoonlikheid en loopbaan belangrik is wanneer faktore soos agtergrond, belangstellings en eie persepsie na vore tree. Die onder-verteenwoordiging van Suid-Afrikaanse vroue in die werkplek mag herlei word na moontlike ongelykheid op plaaslike

opvoedkundige vlak. Loopbaankeuse is nie 'n spontane proses nie. Die individu maak 'n bewustelike keuse deur 'n spesifieke loopbaanpad te volg. Gewoonlik sal 'n persoon 'n loopbaan kies wat die beste inpas by sy / haar individuele bekwaamhede, behoeftes en belangstellings. Loopbaankeuses word sterk beïnvloed deur die sosiale omgewing waarvandaan die persoon kom, asook die invloed van die persoon se ouers op sy of haar vroeë lewe. Die keuse van loopbaan berus per slot van sake maar by die individu self.

Die Suid-Afrikaanse vrou se werkservaring is steeds 'n opdraende stryd. Sosialisering, kulturele oriëntering en die patriargale stelsel waarbinne die Suid-Afrikaanse mark funksioneer, is almal faktore wat 'n negatiewe invloed op vroue se opwaartse beweging in maatskappye uitoefen. Verskeie navorsers wys daarop dat die uitwissing van stereotiperende mites oor vroue hul posisie binne die werkplek baie sal bevorder. Daarom rus daar 'n werklike verpligting op die skouers van die bestuur van maatskappye, asook op vroue in die algemeen, om sulke mites aan te spreek en tot niet te maak. Moeders sal hul kinders moet opvoed om 'n begrip vir andersoortige norms en standaarde te hê. Alleenlik deur só 'n benadering sal dit moontlik wees om die wurggreep wat kultuur op ons kinders se sosialisering het, aan te spreek.

Wêreldwyd is daar 'n tendens om stappe te neem ten einde geslagsongelykhede binne maatskappye 'n nekslag toe te dien. 'n Buigsame werksbeleid trek loopbaan-gëorienteerde vroue na sulke maatskappye. Dis egter belangrik dat geslagsbeleid in plek moet wees ten einde sukses te verseker. Spesifieke geslagsbeleid riglyne binne maatskappye in ons land sal dus gerealiseer moet word. Dit is dus daarom belangrik dat 'n deeglike studie van sulke implementerings in Suid-Afrikaanse maatskappye gelanseer word. Daarom is daar in hierdie studie gepoog om literatuur oor beleid en prosedure en die impak wat dit binne die daaglikse bestuur van sake in 'n maatskappy het, te analiseer. Resultate behoort die terugvoering ten opsigte van opwaartse beweging van vroue in die werkplek te bevorder.

Ten minste dertien loopbaanversperrings wat 'n vrou se opwaartse beweging

in 'n maatskappy mag vertraag, is in hierdie studie onder die soeklig geplaas. Struikelblokke soos Geslags Diskriminasie teen vrouelike werknemers; Gebrek aan Vertroue binne die gemoedere van die vroue self; hulle Meervoudige-rol konflik binne die gemeenskap; Konflik tussen hul verpligtinge teenoor hul kinders en Loopbaaneise; Rasse Diskriminasie; Onbehoorlike Voorbereiding vir die werk wat hulle moet doen; Afkeuring deur Belangrike Ander Rolspelers in hul lewens met betrekking tot die loopbaan wat hul volg; Besluitneming omtrent hul Loopbaaplanne; Ontevredenheid oor hul Loopbane; Ontmoediging om Nie-tradisionele Loopbane te volg; Besorgdheid oor Ongeskiktheid / Gesondheid; Werksmarkdwang vir vroue, soos byvoorbeeld 'n beperkte werksmark, of geen vraag na spesifieke areas van opleiding/opvoeding; en Probleme met Netwerk / Sosialisering soos om nie die "regte persone" te ken om sodoende in 'n loopbaan te vorder nie, sal oorkom moet word ten einde 'n aanvaarbare speelveld vir vroue in die werkplek te skep.

Alhoewel geleenthede vir vooruitgang tot 'n groot mate gepubliseer word, word oënskynlik baie min vroue vir hul moeite vergoed of promosieposte aangebied. In hierdie stadium wil dit voorkom asof Walston en O'Leary (1991) se verklaring toepaslik is: "A man's successful performance of a task is generally attributed to skill, whereas a woman's identical performance is attributed to effort or luck."

'n Hele aantal faktore het 'n inhiberende effek op hierdie studie gehad soos byvoorbeeld die afskaling van spesifieke areas in een van die maatskappye wat onder die soeklig was, en 'n toevoeging van 'n nuwe vennoot in die geval van 'n ander een. In beide gevalle het sekere poste vanweë duplisering oortollig, geraak wat gevolglik daartoe gelei het dat onsekerheid oor loopbaantoekoms en bevorderings in gedrang gekom het. 'n Apatiese houding jeens die studie is in sommige gevalle bespeur toe die ondersoek geloods en vraelyste uitgestuur is. Nietemin was hierdie navorsingspoging van kwalitatiewe aard, wat heel moontlik waarde sal toevoeg tot toekomstige navorsing ter ondersteuning van die bevindings van kwantitatiewe studies.

Voorts het hierdie studie die feit beklemtoon dat daar 'n definitiewe behoefte ten opsigte van opleiding en ontwikkeling van veral vroulike werknemers bestaan om te verseker dat hulle tot hul volle potensiaal binne hul maatskappye sal ontvou.

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*“You are never given a wish
without also being given the power to make it true.
You may have to work for it, however.”*

Richard Bach (1978, p.92)

Firstly I would like to thank the Lord for giving me the strength to persevere, even though at times it seemed as if I would not have the strength to carry on.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

1.1 Introduction and motivation for the study

Do women have what it takes to make it in the Business Environment? This question has been debated at length during the last few decades. In 1976 Henning and Jardim (1976, p.213) made the following statement:

“Millions of women will spend an entire career life living and working in a culture whose traditions, rules and implicit codes are derived from the male experience. The extent to which as women we can understand this culture, and manage our existence within it, will determine how far we can go and what costs we will pay”.

One could argue that huge strides have been made in rectifying these perceptions and attitudes since 1976. One could also argue that Government and Business have done their bit to ensure that women are treated equitably and fairly in the South African environment, specifically during the last decade. The assumption therefore could be that women should thus be able to compete on an equitable footing for positions in the business environment. Whether this assumption is in fact valid, is very debatable. Pandor (2001, p.8), in her letter to the Editor, states that:

“Recent media reports that purport to write of successful women in our society have been exposed as a confirmation of the worn double standard of traditional journalists that judges successful blacks and women of all colours as mere token beneficiaries who are undeserving of their success.

These reports tend to assert that black appointments are without merit and skill. They also stereotypically cast women as having granted sexual favours in order to progress.

This form of assessment merely serves as an attempt to perpetuate tired and long-defeated stereotypes of South African women. Reports on women in politics, in the public sector, in non-government organisations and in the private sector are the latest example of the media's failure to acknowledge the great strides women have made.”

Pandor (2001, p.8) continues with this train of thought and later in the article states that: "Some in the press would have us believe that women who do well are mere sex objects who have been given positions of importance."

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, and making a very general assumption, it could be argued that, in general, organisations in South Africa are still run by the patriarchal systems approach. Top management in most of the companies comprises of males and follows the male way of doing things. The male dominance, which is typical of a patriarchal systems approach, is very much to the forefront still. This of course is true, if Pandors' point of approach can be substantiated. In such a system there usually is a strictly defined relationship between male and female. In general the male will be responsible for the economic production and the female will be responsible for reproduction and all that goes with that (Lemmer, 1989). If this sub-position is analysed, one can reasonably assume that females in such a system will be the subordinates and subjected to the male's whims and rules.

The impact of companies being run (consciously or unconsciously) through the patriarchal approach has severe implications for women. If one looks at Kuhn and Wolpe's definition of patriarchy, one understands the implications of such an approach much better. Kuhn and Wolpe (1978, p.69) define patriarchy as "the rule of the father – [it] is a structure written into particular expressions of the sexual division of labour whereby property, the means of production of exchange values, is appropriated by men, and whereby this property relation informs household and family relations in such a way that men may appropriate the labour and actual person of women".

In the *Apartheid of Sex* (1995), Rothblatt argues a case in favour of the adoption of a new sexual model that accommodates every possible shade of gender identity. It reveals that traditional male and female roles are dictated neither by genetics, genitals, nor reproductive biology, but rather by social attitudes that originated in early patriarchal cultures and that have been institutionalised in modern law. To a

certain extent the modern legal approach to sexist matters is thus the heritage of earlier cultures.

Whichever approach is followed, one cannot get away from the fact that women have played an integral part in the workplace since the beginning of time, although never really in leading positions. History shows us that women were traditionally in lower positions in companies, filling the more traditional roles of secretaries and clerks (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1996).

Women tended to work because they had to, not because they wanted a career and wanted to aspire to greatness in the workplace. Daily needs seemed to have played a more prominent role than professionalism in their working situation. Women have therefore been economically active since the beginning of time, but the Economist (in the Sunday Times, February 18, 2001, p.15) states, in the article "Invest in women to fight poverty", that "to put it crudely, women are an under-used resource."

Alimo-Metcalfe (cited in Mabey & Iles, 1996, p.223) describes the opportunities for working women in Britain in the 1990s. She begins her discussion with the statement that: "Despite almost 20 years of equal opportunities legislation in Britain, the number of women in senior management positions are derisory." The logical conclusion that one can draw from this is that, if the position in Britain looks like this after more than 20 years, the position in South Africa, where the equal opportunities legislation was only formally launched in December 1999 cannot be expected to have changed much.

Organisational theorists such as Handy (1989) and Kanter (1989) maintain that large organisations will have to undergo major changes to meet the requirements of the changed environment.

Large organisations in Britain are taking "urgent steps to recruit more women, and to develop the largely untapped reservoir of potential amongst their female employees" (Alimo-Metcalfe, cited in Mabey & Iles, 1996, p.223). The question arises whether there will be a shift in the employing of women in positions other than those

traditionally filled by women. These positions tended to comprise low-status, low-paid, part-time, low-interest jobs. Alimo-Metcalfe states that research showed that only two per cent of women in Britain are in senior management positions (Alimo-Metcalfe, cited in Mabey & Iles, 1996).

Stohs (1992) also maintains that women do not seem to experience the occupational or career outcomes that are consistent with either their training or their abilities.

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, one must take cognisance of the fact that society has formally changed and, with the enlightenment and opening up of educational opportunities, women are gaining training and experience in traditionally male dominated career choices. The question arises whether females use these skills.

Even though women are trained in the same skills as their male counterparts, they seem to still be in the minority in senior positions in companies. The question that arises is: Why do women only rise to a specific level? Is it because of the work environment? Are they being discouraged from following careers that have traditionally been filled by men? Do women still feel that they should stay at home and look after the children? Do they lack the confidence to pursue what they want? Is it because of the role socialisation or are there other variables involved in this?

This problem seems to be universal and not only restricted to the South African environment. The Daily Mail, London (cited in The Cape Argus, Tuesday, October 12, 1999, p.15) refers to the results of a survey detailing the dilemma of working mothers. According to this research "... half the women in Britain believe juggling a job with their family is the key issue facing them. ... Feedback from nearly 30 000 women reveals the myth of the 1980s career 'superwomen' is dead. The struggle to balance work and family life – including care for children and [an] elderly relative – dominates the agenda now".

Bendix and Morrison (1988, p.52) did a study on women in the workplace and came to the conclusion that attention should be given to the following three areas that

respondents to their study identified as perceived problems that ought to be addressed:

- “There was a strong feeling (67 percent) that women are temporary rather than career orientated employees.
- Just over 60 percent of the respondents admitted to having experienced the paternalistic and patronising attitude of men who are ‘*trying to protect the lady*’.
- Although the respondents were almost equally divided on the question of discrimination regarding salary, the majority – 65 percent – of the respondents felt that they were discriminated against in respect of fringe benefits.”

This seems to highlight some of the problems that face the women of the nineties. Does that however play such significant roles that women give up on careers and only focus on getting the job done? Does gender socialisation play such a big role that women still focus on their “primary role” as caretakers? Ntabazalila (2001, p.5) reported that:

“If South Africa is to win the battle against racism, prejudice, intolerance and disrespect, anti-racist multiculturalism and human rights education must be incorporated into the school curriculum”.

Although Ntabazalila might have focused rather more on the Black Women Labour Force, it still highlights the dilemma of the working woman of the nineties, specifically in South Africa.

Hammer-Higgins and Atwood (1991, p.6) concludes that “[i]t seems, then, that non-traditional women still contend with myths about women, lack of professional support and information, social sanctions for stepping outside of sex-role expectations, and doubts about self worth generated by the feedback they receive from colleagues. Although opportunities for advancement are publicised, women see very few women being promoted or rewarded for their efforts. It may be that few women even attempt to achieve in non-traditional career roles because they are aware that the costs are great and the rewards, at least at the present time, are few.”

An extremely important issue that came to the fore is that women themselves might be the problem. Howlette (1984), who conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of non-working women graduates towards participating in the labour market, found

that there is still a large group of graduate women who feel that the traditional role of women as housekeepers and child - raisers is important. Howlette feels that these women could not be induced into the labour market. The conflict that these women experience between their role as economically active persons and managing their children and their lives might lead to conflict in themselves.

One of the concepts that come to the forefront quite a bit, is the impact of socialisation on women. There is a perception that the socialisation that women are subjected to, especially during their early lives, might have such an impact on their assessments of themselves and their abilities that they might lack the confidence to perform. The perceived idea of how men and women perform on the job is neatly summarised by Wallston and O'Leary. They state that "[a] man's successful performance of a task is generally attributed to skill, whereas a woman's identical performance is attributed to effort or luck. On the other hand, men's failure is attributed to (bad) luck, women's to low ability (Wallston & O'Leary, 1991, p.24).

Apart from a lack of self-confidence, role socialisation and conflict between their roles as mother and employee, Joseph (1983) also discusses a set of specific problems that working women experience. These problems include:

- The incapacity to give orders
- Fear for risky behaviour
- Being passive and waiting for somebody else to do something for her
- Incapability to cope with rejection
- A fear of authority
- A fear of competition
- Confusion about sexuality in the context of the role in the workplace
- The inability to utilise criticisms to their own advance
- The need to care and to be available at all times
- The inability to delegate and to work in a team

Taking the aforesaid into consideration, it is very important to focus on women of the 1990s and their participation in the problem solving process. As Teke (1997, p.29) puts it aptly: "The spirit of encouraging workers to get involved in decision-making rekindles creativity and innovation amongst the workers and it instils the spirit of

ownership ... workers feel important and want to be part of solutions to some problems instead of always being seen as part of the problem.”

Bennett (1998) reports, in her article on Women still tripped up by workplace obstacles, that professor Barney Erasmus and Elmarie Sadler conducted a survey to investigate issues that are affecting working women in South Africa. Bennett (1998, p.1) reports that the “lack of recognition and respect and experience-limiting restrictions on the type of work given are identified as the major barriers to career advancement”.

The researchers also found that a lack of mentor support was also listed as a major barrier for women. The impact of the demands of balancing career life with looking after the family and children were also listed as one of the factors impacting on women. “Lack of flexibility of working hours and little allowance made for family commitments are seen as significant obstacles to getting ahead, as are low salaries which cannot support child-care payments. Other barriers include a male culture in organisations and gender bias by supervisors” (Bennett, 1998, p.2).

Van der Merwe and Stander (2002) conducted a study on Women in IT. The respondents in their study indicated that time, the management style of superiors, different roles that women fulfil, personal and professional trade-offs, sexism, training and re-skilling opportunities, lack of childcare facilities at work, family commitments and higher administrative workloads than male counterparts were some of the areas of concern.

The respondents to the study also indicated that, to a lesser extent, having young children, higher (general) workloads than males, workplace flexibility, academic commitments and community commitments impacted on their work life. Respondents to their study also indicated that gender stereotyping influenced women’s decisions to enter the IT industry and that it is stressful to balance work and personal life (Van der Merwe & Stander, 2002).

McDermott conducted a study on the “sexual segregation of the library and information services (LIS) workforce”. Although this is a typical female-dominated profession, with 74% of the Library Association in the UK’s membership being female, a survey showed that in “1991 they (females) accounted for only 40 per cent of the top salary earners” in the industry (McDermott, 1998, p.416).

McDermott found, as the previously mentioned researchers did, that the double burden of keeping house and balancing this with their work life do impact on women. The caring responsibilities in the form of having children were also found to have a negative impact on the career progress of women. McDermott (1998, p.418) also found that “there is a cultural stigma attached to flexible working which is usually done by women (or even because it is done by women) and this leaves them outside the career structure”. McDermott also wrote that having career breaks (usually to have children) had impacted negatively on career progression.

1.2 Underlying Factors influencing Women’s Career Progress in companies

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, it becomes apparent that it is possible to table a model to investigate and discuss the problem facing women in the working environment. Various authors and researchers have investigated and reported on barriers that face modern women. This research project will aim to bring all those ideas together and analyse the real impact that the identified barriers have on women.

When looking at the research material available, it seems as if there are perceived and real barriers in the environment that could have an impact on the career choice, and ultimately on the progress, that a woman will make in the corporate environment. This research project will try to identify the most important and common barriers that impact on women’s upward movement in the corporate environment and how these barriers can be overcome.

Legislation, awareness of opportunities in the market place, values, interests, perceptions and the physical environment are a few of the factors that seem to have an impact on the way that a person decides on his or her ultimate career choice. The way that a person progresses in his or her career is impacted on by the ability of this person to break through the various barriers (perceived and/or real) and progress positively to the top of a company.

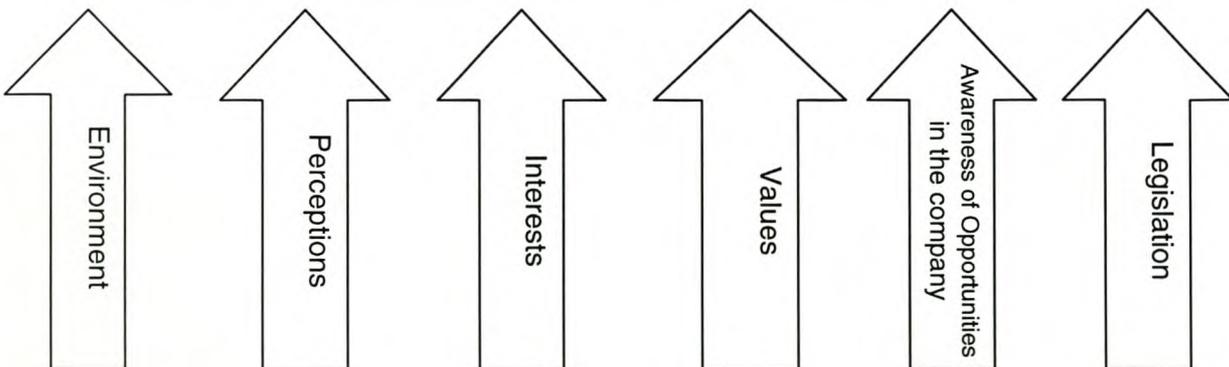
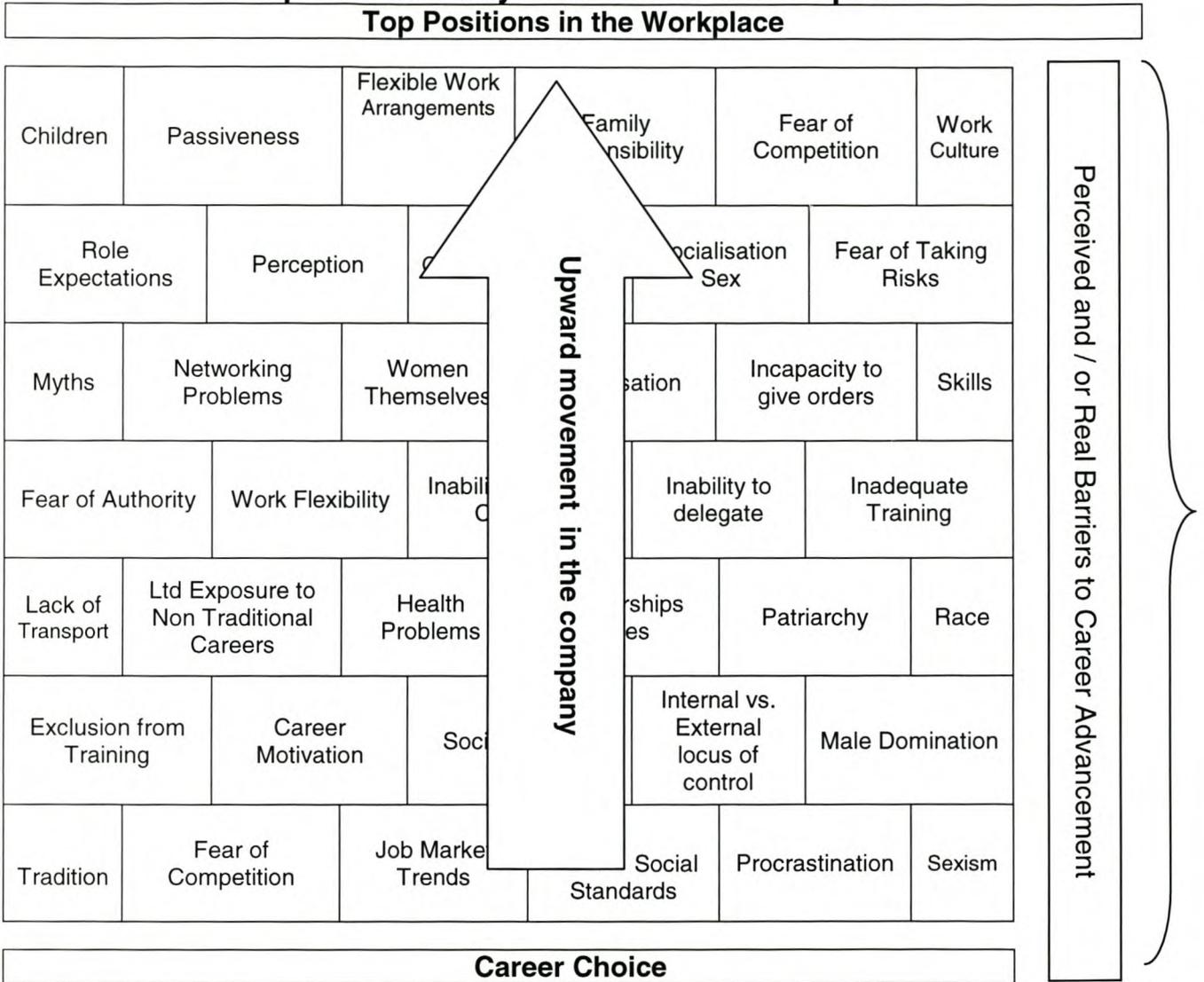
In Figure 1.1 a model is postulated to visualise the process that women have to go through to reach the goal of achieving top positions in the workplace. The model shows that the career choice a person makes is underpinned by various factors. These factors can be seen in isolation, but can also operate in conjunction with each other to impact on the career choice and/or career movement of a woman. Once a career choice is made the upward mobility of that person could be impacted on by various factors.

These factors or barriers can be illustrated as bricks in a wall. They can be broken down one by one until the wall tumbles down, or they can be steamrolled all at once. How this processes happens, will largely depend on the woman herself and on the way that she perceives the barriers. The amount of assistance that she gets from the company that she is in will also have a huge impact on the way in which these barriers are broken down. The complexity of this this process will be analysed in this research project.



Figure 1.1

Proposed Model for Understanding the Impacting Factors on Women's Upward Mobility in the Modern Workplace



1.3 Research Aims

The postulated model provides us with a basis for the research that needs to be done. The broad research aim of this study is to examine the perceived factors and barriers that women experience in the working environment and in career advancement. More specific aims include:

1. To undertake a literature study of selected variables to gain a better understanding of the possible impact of these variables on women's upward movement in the workplace.
2. To identify perceived variables that may impact on women's upward movement in the working environment.
3. To examine the current legislation in South Africa and report on the impact that this legislation has on women in the working environment.
4. To examine company policies procedure and practices and analyse the impact they might have on the women in the company.
5. To evaluate whether the modern working environment does provide equal opportunities for females and to look at the perception that women have about their equality in the working environment.
6. To analyse how and why women make certain career choices.
7. To make recommendations for future research.

1.4 Theoretical Definitions

The following theoretical definitions of key concepts/variables apply for the purpose of this study:

Barrier: The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary describes a barrier as something "that prevents, hinders or controls, progress or movement" (Hornby, Crowie & Gimson, 1987, p.64). Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.236) conceptualised barriers as "external conditions or internal states that make career progress difficult". For the purpose of this study, Swanson, Daniels and Tokar's definition will be used.

Culture: Kluckhohn and Kelly (in Koontz & O'Donnell 1972, p.90) emphasise "[grouping] all definitions of culture into two categories: (1) "By 'culture' we mean those historically created selective processes which channel men's reactions both to internal and to external stimuli" and (2) culture as a descriptive concept: " A 'culture' is a historically derived system of explicit and implicit designs for living, which tends to be shared by all or specially designated members of a group."

Organisational culture: Cox (1991, p.1) classifies organisational culture as "the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems."

Socialisation: McGee (1972, p.206) describes socialisation as "the process through which a person is taught and internalizes (makes a part of himself) a particular culture or sub-culture of which he is or is becoming a member. Carson and Butcher (1992, G-17) describe socialisation as a process "by which a child acquires the values and impulse controls deemed appropriate by his or her culture".

Upward Movement in the workplace: For the purpose of this document, upward movement means the gaining of more senior positions in the organisation.

Women: For the purpose of this study, women will include all females above 18 years of age, irrespective of their culture, race, colour or sexual orientation.

Self-Disempowerment: For the purpose of this study, self-disempowerment will mean that the individual does not believe in herself and is selling herself short.

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

Chapter 2 analyses the relevant South African Legislation. This chapter will focus specifically on the legislation prevailing in South Africa and its impact on the working environment.

The impact of company-specific policies on equality and equity in the workplace will be analysed and presented in Chapter 3.

Women in the working environment will be analysed in Chapter 4. Statistical overviews of women's positioning in the labour market will be presented in this chapter. The career choices and theories on career development will also be presented here as will an analysis of the level of education of females.

Chapter 5 focuses on the identification of variables that impact on women's career choices. Factors like expectations, myths about women, values, socialisation, and information sources used by women to make career choices, educational background and advancement in careers, will be discussed.

Chapter 6 presents the research strategy. This research project has elements of both exploratory and confirmatory elements built into the system. Exploratory in this sense has to do with efforts for the purpose of finding out more about aspects that have an effect on women's movement within the workplace. Confirmatory elements in the context of this thesis serve the purpose of either confirming or disregarding certain popular suppositions. The hypothesis that will be tested in this dissertation will also be presented in Chapter 6.

Chapter 7 highlights results, typologies and implications of this study.

Chapter 8 gives an overview of the limitations of this research and makes recommendation for future research. A conclusion will also be offered.

1.6 Conclusion

This chapter gives a broad overview of factors that might have an impact on women's upward movement in the working environment. These factors and barriers will be analysed and discussed in greater detail later in this dissertation.

The factor that is most important in the total upward movement of women in the working place has been specifically structured by legislation. It is therefore important that such structures be highlighted. The following chapter will thus focus specifically on the impact of the relevant South African Legislation on women in the South African Labour market.

CHAPTER 2
THE IMPACT OF LEGISLATION ON THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORK
ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Introduction

Although the South African work environment underwent drastic changes during the last few years, it can be argued that the apartheid regime, with its patriarchal approach and discriminatory practices, did hurt the population of South Africa in various ways. The Minister of Labour stated at the launch of the Employment Equity Register and the Annual Report of the Commission for Employment Equity on 23 August 2001 that:

" apartheid was an intricate system of oppression. Our liberation struggle was a struggle against a system of oppression and not against whites. Our goal is the creation of a united, non-racial, non-sexist and democratic society".

Blacks and women have been the two groups most discriminated against during the apartheid years according to Benjamin (1993). They were kept out of jobs and were paid much less than their male counter parts. Swim, Aiken, Hall and Hunter (1995) found that women are still being discriminated against in terms of salary differences between men and women.

South Africa is currently going through a process of transformation and eradication of all discrimination. In the last few years the country embarked on a process of change and of moving into a new socio-economic order. South Africa has developed a culture of equal opportunities and equal treatment for all in the workplace. These changes above all try to formulate and enforce the principles of non-racism, non-sexism and equality. Government has formulated laws and bills to put these ideologies into formal policies and procedures in an effort to implement them in the workplace. As the Minister of Labour has stated, at the launch of the Employment Equity Register and the Annual Report of the Commission for Employment Equity on 23 August 2001:

"...the legacy of apartheid continues to dominate our society. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa prohibits unfair discrimination. The Constitution in addition to providing for formal equality, enjoining all branches of government to implement the transformation project".

The main focus of these legislative changes seems to be to establish equal playing fields in the working environment. Although these laws are prescriptive and exact in what is expected of employers, the reality of the implementation of these laws is sometimes overlooked. The legislation is supposed to be governed and monitored very strictly. The reality is that Government does not necessarily have the manpower and resources to govern all the legislation. The main purpose of the legislation is to supply rules and guidelines whereby employers are supposed to be guided and ruled.

2.2 The Constitution

The Constitution is the supreme law of the Republic of South Africa and "law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled". The Constitution governs all legislation in South Africa and all legislation must be in line with the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Act 108 of 1996). The Constitution states that:

"The Republic of South Africa is one, sovereign democratic state founded on the following values:

- a. Human dignity, the achievement of equality and the advancement of human rights and freedoms.
- b. Non-racialism and non-sexism.
- c. Supremacy of the constitution and the rule of law.
- d. Universal adult suffrage, a national common voters' roll, regular elections and a multi-party system of democratic government, to ensure accountability, responsive and openness".

In Chapter 2 of the Constitution, the Bill of Rights is discussed. The Bill of rights can be seen as the cornerstone of the democracy in South Africa. It "enshrines the rights of all people in our country and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom".

The Bill of Rights also focuses on the whole equity issue. It elaborates on the idea that "everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefits of the law". It continues into the next point which states that (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Act 108 of 1996):

"Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons, or categories of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken".

The Constitution of South Africa forms the foundation on which all other legislation is built and implemented.

2.3 The Labour Relations Act

The Labour Relations Act (Act no. 66 of 1995, p.253) makes provision for the eradication of unfair labour practices. This Act prohibits employers to unfairly discriminate against any employee. The Act describes a Residual unfair labour Practice as:

- (a) "the unfair discrimination, either directly or indirectly, against an *employee* on any arbitrary ground, including, but not limited to race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, marital status or family responsibility;
- (b) the unfair conduct of the employer relating to the promotion, demotion or training of an employee or relating to the provisions of benefits to an employee".

The one central theme that encompasses all the above-mentioned discriminatory factors is gender. Gender is applicable to all the above. Women are therefore impacted on by all the above-mentioned discriminatory issues. The central underlying theme of the discrimination is therefore not gender but all the above issues. Should the Act first and foremost try to resolve the gender issue, the rest of the issue might be easier to address.

It seems as if this Act might once again have been built around the patriarchal way of doing things. The solutions that the Act suggests, focuses on shadowing the patriarchal system. The focus might have to lie in a total change in business ethics and in changing the way the system operates. In addressing the issues through a system supported by a male dominant society, the answers to eradicating the problem invariably have been produced by males.

2.4 The Report on Gender and the Private Sector

Due to the fact that gender equality seems to be an important factor in the foreground, Government has established a Commission on Gender Equality (CGE). The CGE has commissioned research to evaluate the private sector's involvement in gender practises. This commission drew up a report called Gender and the Private Sector (1999). This report gives feedback on gender involvement across a spectrum of organisational work practises.

This report states that in “an attempt to understand the context in which gender equality in South Africa exists, a review of relevant secondary information was assimilated. Although women constitute the major segment of the population, they account for only a third of the labour force. Further, they are mainly in the service, retail and manufacturing sectors. Across all industrial sectors they are mainly occupying jobs that are associated with stereotyped domestic roles, thus indicating that gender equality within the workplace is based on job segregation and perceived roles associated with each gender group” (Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.1).

2.5 The Employment Equity Act

The Employment Equity Act (Act no. 55 of 1998), makes provision for the elimination of unfair discrimination. This Act states that: "All employers must take steps to promote equal opportunities in the workplace, and to this end, to eliminate unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice" (1998, p.23).

This Employment Equity Act makes provision for employers to eradicate discrimination by enforcing the implementation of an employment Equity Plan in every designated company. This is but one step that can be taken to try and give women the opportunity to develop to their full potential and reach the same levels as their male counterparts.

It is important to note that the Act recognises effect that apartheid had on South Africa and its people. The following statements in the Act highlights this issue (Act no. 55 of 1998):

"... as a result of apartheid and other discriminatory laws and practices, there are disparities in employment, occupation and income within the national labour market; and that those disparities create such pronounced disadvantages for certain categories of people that they cannot be redressed simply by repealing discriminatory laws,

Therefore, in order to-
promote the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy;
eliminate unfair discrimination in employment;
ensure the implementation of employment equity to redress the effects of discrimination;
achieve a diverse workforce broadly representative of our people;
promote economic development and efficiency in the workforce; and
give effect to the obligations of the Republic as a member of the International Labour Organisation"

This Act enforces a set of rules and regulations that all employers need to oblige by. The Act sends out the clear message that discriminatory practices of the past must be eradicated and rectified by implementing specific plans.

The Act also makes provision for companies to implement Affirmative Action Measures to assist them with managing their workforce (Act no. 55 of 1998):

"1) Affirmative action measures are measures designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce of a designated employer.

(2) Affirmative action measures implemented by a designated employer must include--

- a. measures to identify and eliminate employment barriers, including unfair discrimination, which adversely affect people from designated groups;
- b. measures designed to further diversity in the workplace based on equal dignity and respect of all people;
- c. making reasonable accommodation for people from designated groups in order to ensure that they enjoy equal opportunities and are equitably represented in the workforce of a designated employer;
- d. subject to subsection (3), measures to--
 - i. ensure the equitable representation of suitably qualified people from designated groups in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce; and
 - ii. retain and develop people from designated groups and to implement appropriate training measures, including measures in terms of an Act of Parliament providing for skills development. "

The Employment Equity Act is one of the most powerful tools Government has to assist them in managing the composition of the workforce in South Africa. The Minister of Labour also mentioned that "employers are indeed complying with the Act. The levels of reporting of employers who employ more than 150 employees are exceptionally high". The Minister concedes, though, that "reporting to the department is not the same thing as successfully implementing employment equity" (Statement by the Minister of Labour at the launch of the Employment Equity Register and the Annual Report of the Commission for Employment Equity on 23 August 2001).

2.6 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act

The last Act that will be reviewed for the purposes of this study is the Basic Conditions of Employment Act. This Act gives effect to "the right to fair labour practices referred to in Section 23 (1) of the Constitution by establishing and making provision for the regulation of basic conditions of employment; and thereby to comply with the obligations of the Republic as a member of the International Labour Organisation; and to provide for matter connected therewith".

The Purpose of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act no. 1631 of 1997, p.2) is to:

- 2.4.1 give effect to the rights of individuals to fair labour practise;
- 2.4.2 bring South Africa in line with the International Labour Organisation;
- 2.4.3 regulate the variation of Basic Conditions of Employment;
- 2.4.4 keep South Africa in line with international standards safeguarding the protection of employee rights;
- 2.4.5 regulate and provide a minimum level on entitlement for employees that cannot be contracted out of.

This Act has a substantial impact on the day-to-day lives of employees in the South African Working environment, seeing that this Act basically governs the minimum requirements that an employer must comply with in governing of employer / employee relationship.

2.7 Conclusion

From the aforementioned it is clear that the South African Government and Legislators are doing their utmost to eradicate all possible forms of discrimination in the working environment. The practical implications of the enforcement and practical operation of the legislation is currently being tested by companies and employees all over the country. As the Minister of Labour put it aptly (Statement by the Minister of Labour at the launch of the Employment Equity Register and the Annual Report of the Commission for Employment Equity on 23 August 2001):

"The challenge that lies ahead is, for all of us, to keep the momentum of transformation so that employment equity does become a reality in all workplaces, I thus urge every single employer and employee at every workplace to take note of these findings and join us on this journey and let us travel together towards diverse and representative workplaces free of discrimination.

There is no place for those who continue to pursue discriminatory practices in the workplace and refuse to promote equity and affirmative action. It is in the country's interest that we work towards this goal especially if we are to achieve the levels of economic growth necessary for sustainable development. International experience has shown time and time again that underpinning economic growth and sustainable development is the development of human capital. This can be achieved throughout [sic] the coordinated implementation of employment equity and skills development".

Legislation does have a direct impact on how companies are run. Companies align their policies and procedures to suit the legislation of the country. It is therefore appropriate that this issue will be dealt with immediately hereafter. Chapter 3 will therefore focus on policies and procedure and the impact these have on the employees, with specific reference to female employees in a company.

CHAPTER 3
THE IMPACT OF COMPANY- SPECIFIC POLICIES ON EQUALITY AND EQUITY
IN THE WORKPLACE

3.1 Introduction

When the legislation that governs the country is analysed, one becomes aware of the huge impact that legislation has on the business world. Companies have to ensure that they abide by the legislation and that they run their businesses in accordance with the set out legislation. Legislation is put in place to govern the minimum standards that employers have to abide by. Each company takes this legislation, analyses it and implements it to suit their particular businesses. Each company also puts its own set of policies, procedure and practices in place. These policies, procedures and practices are all based on the legislation discussed in Chapter 2.

The values, needs, desires and demands of a company are set out in its policy statements. Policy making is defined by Hanekom (1996, p.7) as "the activity preceding the publication of a goal, while a policy statement is the making known, the formal articulation, the declaration of intent of the publication of a goal to be pursued". Policies can therefore be seen as the indication of goals, a specific purpose that needs to be attained or a programme of action that has been decided on. Various authors have designed various theories on policy making. Some of the theories that Hanekom (1996) has identified are the:

- Classical theory, which accepts that the different interests represented should be taken into account
- The elite theory, which sees small elite groups acting as leaders of a large group of followers and the
- Systems theory, which focuses on the contribution of interrelated forces to the policy maker.

Hanekom (1996, p.46) continues to state that there is no "single universally accepted perspective or model of the policy-making process. The situation or context or values do not determine the policy-making process, but they do influence choices made. In any policy-making perspective or model there is always an endeavour for a

balance between what is demanded and what is feasible, Political, economic, technological and social conditions individually or jointly determine the choices made."

In the past, some policies, procedure and practises were sometimes extremely discriminatory. The elite theory was applied to support certain stakeholder claims to certain rights in companies, for example, certain benefits like housing subsidies were reserved for "bread winners" and females were not classified as bread winners. The impact of the reality in the South African working environment is forcing companies to act against the discrepancies of the past. Companies have to assess the given legislation and have to align their policies, procedure and practices to reflect the non-discriminatory and equal opportunity legislation that is governing the country.

3.2 Reasoning behind having specific policies and procedures in place

Policies, procedure and practices are not only there to align a company's way of doing with government regulations. Through policies, guidelines are laid down in advance to assist in decision making. Policies and procedures spell out to employees what should be done when, how and why. It assists them in understanding the business better and ensures that, in theory, everybody is treated equally. Policies and procedures are the rules and regulations that run a company. This ensures that everybody knows what is expected of them.

The question that arises concerns why companies should have specific policies and procedures to govern things like equity and equal opportunities? Government has promulgated specific legislation to govern this, so why should companies place specific emphasis on this issue? Companies realised that if there is no specific focus on these important issues, it might just be ignored or be seen as less important. Companies also realised that, if they embark on a process of writing a policy, including all the relevant stakeholders and placing specific focus on these important issues, this action will be recognised as an indication that the company is serious about addressing these issues.

Although Hanekom (1996) has stated that there is no universally accepted policy-making model, one could identify five phases or stages that are usually in place when a policy is being made. Hanekom (1996, p.51-52) identifies these phases as:

- "Identification of a goal or problem;
- Authorisation to act by policy-maker;
- Public statement of the intentions of the policy-maker;
- execution;
- Evaluation in conjunction with feedback on policy results."

The Report on Gender Equality states that some companies have gone as far as establishing separate gender policies to be applied in the company. "Gender policy has for many years been viewed as an issue that has no tangible relation to bottom-line performance: perhaps even a red herring. However, global competitors are now wanting a holistic approach to business: focusing on customer and empowering employees" (Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.7). This report further-more found that 41 of the 103 companies in the study indicated that they had a gender policy.

Gender policies tend to focus on issues related to equal opportunities; the provision of benefits; the assurance that people can compete equally for senior positions; that training will be provided to all people irrespective of their gender; and that the workplace will be conducive to all genders realising their top potential (Commission on Gender Equality, 1999).

The content of these gender policies vary and can be summarised as in TABLE 3.1.

TABLE 3.1
ELEMENTS INCLUDED IN GENDER POLICY OF COMPANIES THAT HAD
IMPLEMENTED OR WERE IMPLEMENTING GENDER POLICY
N = 54 COMPANIES

POLICY OBJECTIVE	PERCENTAGE OF COMPANIES
Equal opportunities for both gender groups	40%
Equal benefits and salaries for both gender groups	31%
Evaluation of workplace, making it more conducive for both gender groups to perform their work tasks successfully; this includes an evaluation of management and leadership styles	29%
Preference for female employees who fulfil job specifications at all levels of the organisation	25%
Same salaries for same categories for both genders	24%
Preference to recruit females for management positions	11%
Preference to recruit black (African, Indian and Coloured) women for all positions.	7%

Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.8.

It is extremely important that a gender policy should not be there for “the show” only. Should a company decide to have a gender policy as part of their equity tools, they have to bear the enabling factors in mind. These factors are those driving factors that enable the policy to be a success. The following were recorded as enablers for companies partaking in the Commission on Gender Equality and were recorded in the report:

- Being part of management’s decision, or being included in the companies’ vision statement (64%).
- Gender policy implemented in reaction to the Employment Equity Act (47%).
- Being driven and motivated by individual attempts of female employees within the company (16%).

The same companies also identified internal barriers to the success of a gender policy in the company:

- Cultural views of the role of man or woman (36%)
- Racist stereotypes of black women (24%)
- Existing skills pool of female employees (16%)
- Present organisational work environment (16%)
- Resistance from male employees (16%)
- Resistance from Management (15%)

It would seem that there is awareness of the need for a gender policy within the company policies in some companies. The CGE report concludes this section with “Although a significant percentage of companies have initiated the process of gender equality within their respective companies, extensive consultation aimed at mainstreaming gender into all aspects of the organisation will need to be accelerated. Central to this is a review of the mechanisms and practices that companies apply in the South African context to ensure gender transformation” (Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.12).

3.3 The importance and influence of company-specific policies and procedures

The importance of company-specific policies and procedures should not be underestimated. The report on Gender and the Private Sector (1999) analysed specific practices within the 103 companies that participated in their study. According to this study, positions held by employees are mainly influenced by the criteria adopted for recruitment and promotion. After assessing these practices, it was found that “criteria such as psychometric testing and other subjective and cultural bias testing are still adopted to identify incumbents for recruitment and advancement. Emphasis on skill, formal qualifications and experience is also prevalent. A paradox thus seems to exist where companies, on the one hand, are citing a poor skills level among females to be the main barrier, but continue to include it as a criterion for recruitment and promotion. This therefore suggests that male employees would usually be the most likely incumbent” (Gender and the Private Sector, 1999, p.2-3).

Erasmus (1998, p.25) states that “fair pay, equal treatment and safe and family friendly work places are some of the issues that should be addressed in order to reshape the work force policy so that women can be employed and fulfil their potential”.

The commitment of management is imperative if they want such a process to succeed. It is important that companies have specific targets when they decide to commit to the advancement of any group, not only women (Hofmeyer, 1989).

The practical implications of having formal policies and targets must be investigated. No company functions in a vacuum. Companies and individuals consist of a collection of interactive systems. Bertalanffy (cited in Beckett, 1973) goes so far as to say that every organism is a system, a dynamic ordering of parts and processes that interact reciprocally. Hall and Fagan (cited in Buckley, 1968, p.81) describe a system as “... a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes”. The working of these systems must be guided and controlled to ensure a workable fair organisation. Policies and procedures play an integral part in this process. If they are not applied consistently, it becomes a farce and companies can end up having huge exposure and legal liabilities.

3.4 Impact of policies and procedures

The impact of policies and procedures must be evaluated and analysed to determine whether they really make a difference to the bottom line of the company. Do the policies and procedures impact on the promotion and appointment of women in the middle and senior management positions and do the policies enhance upward movement throughout the organisation? Does having more advanced policies than the competitors give the company a competitive edge and will people want to work for a company because of its enhanced policies and procedure?

According to the Cape Argus Job Shop (March 8, 2000, p.1) international research has shown that companies who have flexible work policies have a competitive advantage in that they attract career-oriented women and retain these employees. The article continues by referring to Dr Linah Joubert's research on finding ways for men and women to combine employment and family life. This research came up with the following interesting findings that can be used as guidelines:

- Acknowledge and legitimise the boundaries between work and home. Employees are entitled to their personal time – in fact it enables them to be in control of their lives and operate better.
- Change from a culture where performance is measured by how many hours are spent at work to one where performance is measured by output and results.
- Introduce flexible remuneration and leave policies. Leave can be linked to performance and some employees may be prepared to sacrifice salary for longer leave. Policies should allow for maximum options and choice to accommodate the different needs of employees.
- Consider ways to restructure work so that employees work smarter, not harder. Some ideas include job sharing, delegating and outsourcing work.
- Explore a flexi-time system. Allow employees to fulfil their day's work during hours that suit them. For example, if companies extend their hours from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. this means people can start work earlier or later in accordance with what suits them.

3.5 Conclusion

Globally there is a tendency to take steps in correcting gender discrepancies in companies. Flexible work policies tend to draw career-oriented women to such companies. However, gender policies must be in place if success is desired. Specific gender policies in our country will thus have to be realised in companies. It is therefore important that a thorough study of such implementation amongst SA companies be launched.

The focus should not only be on gender policies, it should be on all the policies and procedures in the company. The company should ensure that these policies and procedures are applied consistently in practice. The way a company operates does say a lot for the company. It also impacts hugely on the retention of staff, the

perceived fairness of the company and the perceived equitability of the company. Policies and procedure have had a huge impact on how women were treated in companies in the past. It is important that the development of the female labour force should be highlighted. The next chapter will thus focus on factors that have impacted on women's career choices in the past.

CHAPTER 4

WOMEN IN WORK

4.1 Introduction

Analysing the previous chapters makes it clear that there are various factors that impact on women in the working environment.

There are various viewpoints with regards to work. Work will always be with us in one way or another. The perceptions of work vary between the Protestant Work Ethic approach that sees work as good and necessary, to changing approaches that see work as “not nice” and unhealthy. Levitan and Johnson (1982, p.141) have said: “Distribute the earth as you will, the principle [sic] question remains inexorable who is to dig it? Which of us, in brief word, is to do the hard and dirty work for the rest”. Camus (cited in Levitan & Johnson, 1982, p.63) has said: “Without work all life goes rotten. But when work is soulless, life stifles and dies”.

Atchison (1990) leads that the motivated worker’s involvement with his or her work will largely depend on four needs and its context with the corporate values. These four needs are:

- acknowledgement of work, performance and contributions;
- mastering or reaching goals and challenges;
- the power of being in charge of other people, as well as competing for positions and the handling of conflict that accompanies this;
- affiliations with others for good relationships and trust.

Throughout history women have been raised to be feminine and to look and act in the way that their community and society expect of them. On the other hand, boys were raised to act and look the way that is socially expected of them. This Gender Socialisation has been going on for years and still plays an active role in the way children are being socialised and brought up. Such gender socialisation is playing a major role in the way women and men perceive themselves. It also influences the

career choices of people. The perception that was established through the years is that women can only do so much and nothing more.

The career choices a person makes are influenced by numerous factors. Whether the choice of a career is influenced by spontaneous inputs or by a long process of careful decisions made as a result of environment and personal circumstances might be a debatable point, especially when a woman is the main role player. Therefore it is imperative that such circumstances must be taken into consideration. The changing environment and paradigm shift in the working environment has a major impact on women in the workplace.

Porter and McKibben (1988, p.43) indicate in their report on management education and development that “change has indeed become (perversely) a steady fixture, on the landscape of 20th century life. This report is itself an attempt to come to grips with change anticipated in the area of business, management, and the education of those who will have the responsibility to lead the organizations of the future.”

Taking the above into consideration, women will be concerned by the outcome of a study undertaken by Schein, Mueller and Jacobson (1989). These researchers conducted a study using Schein’s Descriptive Index with US management students, as well as with British and German management students. The study analysed the way males perceive successful middle managers. The results revealed that “males in all three countries perceive successful middle managers as possessing the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. Within each country there were large and significant resemblances between the ratings of men and managers, and mean zero resemblance between ratings of women and managers” (Schein, Mueller & Jacobson, 1989, p.109).

Every person will choose a career that fits his or her abilities, competencies and personal circumstances. When somebody chooses a specific career, they have an expectation of what that specific career entails. There are internal and external factors that impact and influence a person’s career choice. The internal factors

include personal abilities, personal competencies, own shortfalls, preferences and the expectations of that specific career. External factors that influence a career choice are family, friends and other significant individuals that have an impact on a person as he or she develops.

Every person will make a career choice based on a specific reason. Some will choose it because of financial implications, while others will choose a job purely for emotional satisfaction. Some people will choose a job purely because that is what is expected of them, and the family has been doing that for years (Crites, 1969).

The abovementioned results may have a significant impact on the realities of how men perceive women in more senior roles and might have an impact on the decisions made during employment and promotional decisions.

4.2 An overview of women in the Labour Market in South Africa.

The representation of women in different job types can be linked directly to the level of education of those women. The Central Statistical Service (Orkin (ed.), 1996, p.75) shows a definite disparity in the educational levels of people above the age of 20, in South Africa. TABLE 4.1 shows the educational levels of people older than 20 years, in South Africa.

Table 4.1
Level of Education of the Population older than 20 years as per gender and
race PER 1000

RSA	TOTAL			AFRICAN / BLACK			COLOURED			ASIAN/INDIAN			WHITES		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
TOTAL	22100	10581	11519	15675	7442	8234	2079	995	1085	644	316	328	3700	2828	1872
NONE	2864	1130	1734	2640	1036	1604	182	86	97	34	5	29	8	4	4
GRADE 1 TO STD 1	813	396	417	706	340	366	96	54	43	6	1	5	4	1	3
STD 2	868	425	442	776	381	394	82	40	41	9	2	6	2	1	0
STD 3	927	432	495	801	376	425	108	51	57	12	3	9	5	2	3
STD 4	1181	537	644	979	453	526	169	71	98	23	8	15	10	5	5
STD 5	1516	690	826	1233	572	661	235	100	135	34	12	22	14	5	9
STD 6	2084	993	1091	1533	746	787	305	145	160	71	34	37	176	69	107
STD 7	1382	675	707	1056	523	533	186	90	95	36	17	18	104	45	60
STD8 / NTS 1	2442	1173	1270	1472	731	742	231	109	122	90	47	43	649	286	363
STD 9 / NTS 11	1543	795	748	1242	642	600	100	50	50	44	26	17	158	77	81
STD 10 / NTS 111	4131	2127	2004	2110	1105	1006	268	143	126	207	113	94	1545	766	779
DIPLOMA CERTIFICATE WITH STD 9 OR LOWER	173	79	94	110	48	62	9	3	6	3	2	1	50	25	25
DIPLOMA CERTIFICATE WITH STD 10	1300	630	670	634	299	335	78	35	43	39	22	17	549	274	275
DEGREE	649	403	246	188	109	79	24	15	9	35	22	12	403	256	147
OTHER	5	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	1
UN-SPECIFIED	223	92	131	194	81	113	8	4	4	1	0	1	19	7	12

The figures do not necessarily correspond with the totals because of rounding off.

Orkin (ed.), 1996, p.75

A recent study executed by the Commission on Gender Equality (1999) reflects that women are totally under-represented in different sectors of the working environment in South Africa. The information that the study obtained from the Base-Line study conducted by the Department of Labour in 1998 reflects that women constitute approximately 54% of the population and two-fifths, or 38%, of the paid workforce.

Women are generally concentrated in the services, sales and professional sectors, but not all women are equally represented in the specific job functional categories. Women are still excluded from quite a few sectors; and according to the abovementioned study women are represented as follows:

- 5% of artisans and apprentices
- 6% of communication and related occupations
- 3% of registered engineers
- 10% of judges/magistrates
- 0.8% of metal and engineering industry workers

When the statistics generated by the study are taken into consideration disparities between males and females also still exist. Apparently male managers have twice as many subordinates as female managers. For every male earning less than R 60 000 a year there are eight women and twice as many men as women earning more than R100 000 year (Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.4).

The following TABLE provides a breakdown of the male/female distribution of people in the total workforce.

TABLE 4.2
TOTAL EMPLOYEE COMPOSITION PER INDUSTRIAL SECTOR –
1997

Economic / Industrial Sector	Composition Male Employees	Composition Female Employees	Total Number of Employees
	(000) '97	(000) '97	(000) '97
Community, social and personal services (mainly but not exclusively government)	1274 41%	1863 59%	3137 100%
Wholesale and retail trade, catering and accommodation services	999 56%	770 44%	1769 100%
Manufacturing	1058 69%	468 31%	1526 100%
Agriculture	1030 80%	265 20%	1295 100%
Transport, storage and communication (mainly parastatal)	441 85%	79 15%	520 100%
Financial and business services	362 55%	292 45%	654 100%
Construction	452 94%	31 6%	483 100%
Mining	452 96%	19 4%	471 100%
Electricity, gas and water	83 87%	12 13%	95 100%
TOTAL	6151 62%	3799 38%	9950 100%

Commission on Gender Equality, 1999, p.4

4.3 Career Choices and Development

With regard to career choices, Rhodie (1989) states that women have a very restricted range of possibilities in South Africa, compared to the 26 industrial countries in the world. Women in South Africa also find themselves in the so-called “Pink Ghetto” when it comes to work categories.

Van Rensburg (1991, pp.210–211) found that there was a drastic change in career orientation amongst females in the 1980s. Enrolment of female students at the Rand Afrikaans University increased at the following rates during 1980 – 1989:

- “Natural Sciences 34% (1980) to 47% (1989)
- Economics 26% (1980) to 37% (1989)
- Law 25% (1980) to 40% (1989)”

Torrey (1976) found that men in higher ranking jobs sought to protect their territory from aspiring female managers as the progress of women colleagues was seen as a direct threat to their masculinity.

Fenn (1976) has stated that women are perceived as lacking ambition, low on motivation, unable to take risks and indecisive. As a result, they are traditionally placed in jobs with little prospect for progression up the senior management ranks, are paid less and seldom have the same training and development opportunities as their male counterparts. This, in turn, limits their potential to develop management skills, and they as a result might not expect nor strive for leadership positions. In many instances, both men and women have the same low level of confidence in the ability of women in general, and this belief becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy (Brest, 1991, p.38).

Career choices are influenced by various factors. Herr and Cramer (1972, p.29) refer to career development as “...various inputs – psychological, sociological, cultural, economic – which across time result in such outcomes as effective vocational behaviour, decision-making ability and vocational maturity. Vocationalization, in sum, has to do with those processes and factors, which aid or impede (young) people’s

acquisition of the values, knowledge and skills, which lead to effective vocational behaviour.”

Herr and Cramer (1972, p.4) see career choices and career development as “... in essence, ... the fitting of round pegs into round holes and square pegs into square holes”. Career choices and career development is therefore not a once off process that works in isolation.

4.4 Theories on Career Development

An Organisation can be viewed as a social collective that engages in purposeful exchange relationships with its environment. This implies many important elements and characteristics of organisations (Hrebiniak, 1978).

Theories on career development can be broadly divided into two categories, namely matching theories and process theories.

4.4.1 Matching Theories

This theory describes which kind of people enter which kind of occupations, based upon particular measures. The theories are based on the compatibility between the person’s personality and his or her chosen career. According to these theories a person will therefore choose a career that will enable them to meet their needs and express themselves (Hall, 1976). Hall (1976, p.11) continues by stating that research “indicates that there are four general personal characteristics which tend to be considerate in relation to job compatibility: (1) interests, (2) self-identity, (3) personality (e.g. needs, personal orientation, values) and (4) social background (e.g., socioeconomic status).”

According to Holland (1973), a person is the product of the interaction between a specific personality type and the different cultural and personal forces. A person’s behaviour will therefore be influenced by this interaction and that will impact on the later career choice.

Holland (Hall, 1976, p.13) made a few assumptions to support his theory. According to the first of these assumptions there "is an interaction between personality and environment, such that people gravitate towards environments congruent with their personality orientations". Holland (Hall, 1976, p.13) also proposed that people could be placed into six personality types and six matching occupational environments:

1. "Realistic. Involves aggressive behaviour, physical activities requiring skill, strength, and coordination. (Examples: forestry, farming, architecture)
2. Investigative. Involves cognitive (thinking, organizing, understanding) rather than affective (feeling, acting, or interpersonal and emotional) activities. (Example: biology, mathematics, oceanography)
3. Social. Involves interpersonal rather than intellectual or physical activities. (Example: clinical psychology, foreign service, social work)
4. Conventional. Involves structural, rule-regulated activities and subordination of personal needs to an organization or person of power and status. (Example: accounting, finance)
5. Enterprising. Involves verbal activities to influence others, to attain power and status. (Examples: management, law, public relations)
6. Artistic. Involves self-expression, artistic creation, expression of emotions, and individualistic activities. (Example: art, music education)"

The third assumption that Holland made is that people look for an environment that will fit their competencies and abilities. The last assumption is that a person's behaviour is influenced by the interaction between his / her personality type and the environment (Hall, 1976).

Holland developed various measurement instruments to investigate personality types to assess whether a person will fit in a specific career. The most well known tests are the Vocation Preference Inventory (VPI), the Self-Direct Search (SDS) and the Vocational Exploration and Insight Kit (VEIK) (Weinrach, cited in Brown and Brooks, 1984).

The problem with Holland's theory is that personality types could not be the only variable that influences career choice. It also does not describe how people acquire these specific personality types. The SDS is also very sex-oriented in that it places a woman in a specific area. This measurement has therefore not been developed objectively and has been influencing women to making choices that they might not have made otherwise.

Roe (cited in Brown & Brooks, 1984) is of the viewpoint that career choices are not only made on the basis of personality type. She iterates the fact that the child's early interaction with his/her parents is an influencing factor in the choice of a career. The attitude of parents impact higher on their offspring than the actual behaviour. According to her, parents have three types of attitudes towards children. These are emotional concentration, avoidance and acceptance of the child.

Emotional concentration can be the result of parents that are over-protective or who have very high expectations of the child. The over-protective parents bind a child by taking all the important decisions for them. Parents, who have very high expectations of children invariably play an important part in the child's career choice.

If a parent ignores a child, it will lead to emotional negligence of the child. Negligence leaves fewer scars than ignoring a child and not giving the child the guidance that he or she needs.

Loving acceptance of the child shows that the parent does not interfere in the child's life and prompts the child to self-discovery and self-expectance. This theory confirms the idea that people's self-confidence impacts in one way or another on the choice of a career.

This theory was formulated without having tested the practical implications, but has shown a correlation between career choice and the background of the child (Buchner, 1971 & Roe in Brown & Brooks, 1984).

Super (Super & Bohn, 1971) iterates the idea that career choice is all about compatibility. Super formulated a theory consisting of twelve steps.

Brown and Brooks (1984) and Buchner (1971) evaluated these twelve steps and came to the conclusion that Super is of the opinion that career development happens over a long period of time and that the career choice is influenced by various factors. The following twelve steps comprise this theory:

1. People differ with regard to their abilities, interests and personality.
2. These characteristics make each person fit for different types of careers.
3. Because of these combinations, each individual can choose different careers, and different individuals can be found in each job type.
4. Career choice and adaptation is an ongoing process because people build up experience, self-concepts change, expertise and career choice increase and the situations in which they live and work, change.
5. This process follows a specific pattern of growth, exploration, stability, and perseverance and finally declines. Characteristic stadia in the first part can be identified as fantasy, tentative and realistic development, followed by the expressive phase. The stability phase is characterised by seeking proof and accepting this proof and then having stability.
6. The person's parents are influencing the career pattern, his socio-economical level, intellectual capabilities, personality type and the opportunities he has been exposed to.
7. Development throughout the career stages can be focused by the encouragement of abilities and interests, as well as by assisting with reality testing and the developing of the self-concept.
8. The career development process can be described as being mainly the development and implementation of the self-concept. This usually happens by reaching a compromise between the inborn attached nerve and endocrine composition. Opportunities and different role concepts are evaluated and the extent of role realisation, personal satisfaction and the acceptance that peers and seniors have for the career are being analysed.
9. There are quite a few compromises that take place between the individual and social factors and the self-concept. This usually takes place through role-play.
10. Work and life satisfaction depends upon the individual's ability to express his/her emotions and capabilities, interests, personality trends, and moral values. Furthermore, it depends

upon his/her perseverance in a certain type of work and a work situation, which will be compatible with his/her interests due to the exploratory experience he/she gains in the work, and which will be most suitable to the specific worker.

11. The extent to which a person reaches satisfaction in his job, is proportional to the extent to which his self-concept can be implemented.
12. Work and career supply a focus point for personality organisation with most men and some women. These focus points do not exist for a lot of people and could be preferred or by chance. For these people, other focus points, such as realisation or home making, is central.

If the above is taken into consideration, it becomes clear that Super believes that career development happens over a period of time and that career choice is influenced by various factors.

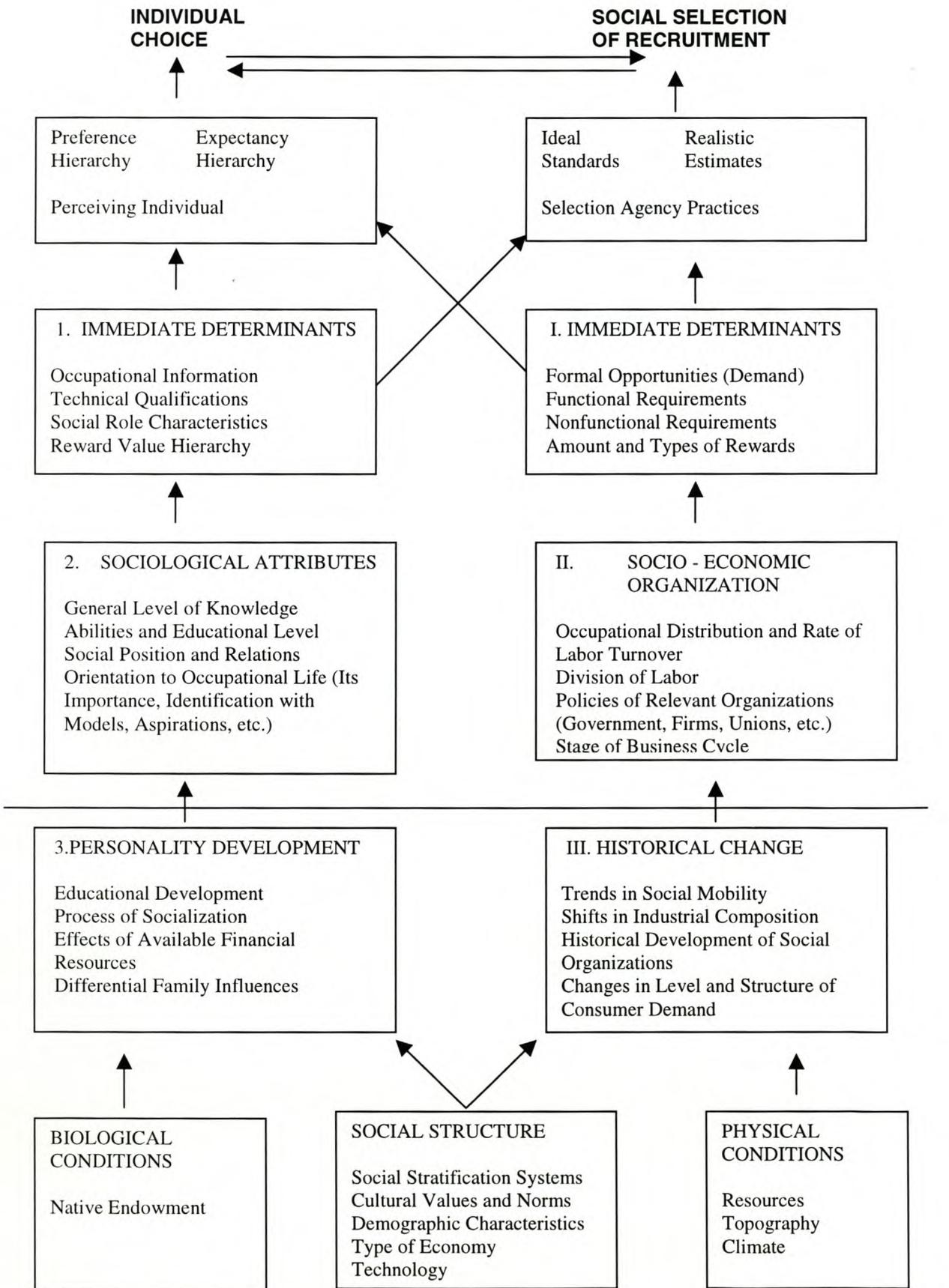
Blau and his colleagues (cited in Hall, 1976, p.21) see occupational choice as “being influenced by social structure in two ways”. Firstly they state that a person’s personality development is influenced by the social experiences of the person (his “needs, self-concept, orientation, interests, values”), which “in turn orients him toward particular fields”. Secondly they state that the “social and economic conditions of occupational opportunity influence (restrict or aid) the attainment of the person’s aspirations and choices”. They also iterate that a person’s career choice is not made “once and for all at one dramatic point (“the crossroads”) in life, but that choice is made and revised repeatedly throughout the course of a person’s working life”. The decisions that the individual makes are interrelated, “such that earlier choices generally restrict the range of future possibilities and thus influence later choices”. Finally Blau and his colleagues point out that “career choices are actually two separate choices: the choice of an occupation by the individual and the selection of that individual for the occupation (i.e., personnel selection and recruitment) (Hall, 1976, p.21).

Taking the aforesaid into consideration, Blau *et al.* developed a model to indicate the way career paths develop (Hall, 1976, p.20-21). This Model of Occupational Choice is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Blau et al.'s model of career choice

OCCUPATIONAL ENTRY



4.4.2 Process Theories

Process theories describe the process through which an individual goes before making a career choice. Ginzberg and Krumboltz support these theories. Other theories that can be classified as process theories involve the sociological approach to career choice.

Ginzberg (in Weinrach, 1979 and in Brown & Brooks, 1984) has developed a theory that addresses three concepts of career choice. He maintains that career choice is a process that starts before puberty and develops into the twenties. He feels that this career choice is irrevocable and that compromises are made among the person's different choices. Ginzberg adjusted this theory and stated later (in Weinrach, 1979 and in Brown & Brooks, 1984), that the process of a career choice not only stretches over one decade, but is an on-going process that can stretch over a person's whole life. According to Ginzberg the fact that career choice is an on going process, is especially applicable to women. The career choice for a woman goes on and on. She gets her training, works, marries, leaves work and might re-enter the working environment later on. The training a person receives also impacts on the career mobility of such a person. Should a person be upskilled in one way or another, that person becomes more marketable and has more career choices to choose from.

Ginzberg describes different stadia that a person goes through and how this impacts on his/her career choice. The first step is the fantasy stadium during which a child can dream about a career without taking the reality into consideration. Then there is the tentative stage when the child takes the realities into consideration, but reality does not necessarily hit home yet. The last stage is the reality stage when a realistic career choice is being made. During this stage the person tends to make compromises between abilities, interests, and values and between the opportunities and restrictions of the environment in which he/she lives. The impact of the current positions available in the employment market also plays a role here.

Krumboltz's Social Learning Theories (cited in Crites, 1981 and Mitchell & Krumboltz in Brown & Brooks, 1984) acknowledges that the individual is an intelligent being who can solve problems, who strives to understand his/her environment and who can control the environment to his/her advantage. This theory goes further by saying that during the individual's learning experiences the person's personality and actions are directly influenced by such actions. This learning experience exists because of the cognitive analysis of the positive and negative experiences. The particular learning theory describes three types of learning experience:

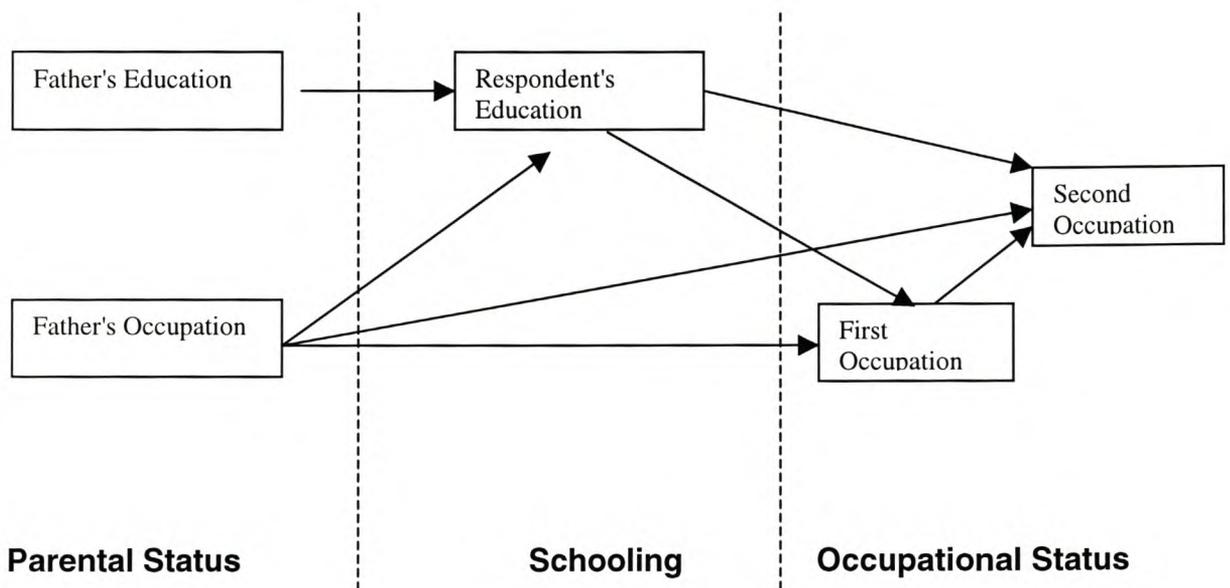
- Instrumental learning – This type of learning occurs when people get positive or negative reaction to their actions. When people are positively rewarded, they will repeat the behaviour and it will become a lifestyle. If they get negative reaction, they will avoid these actions.
- Associative learning occurs when a person associates specific stimuli with specific situations. A positive connotation with specific stimuli will evoke a positive reaction and people may even later choose a career that has been triggered by such a stimulus. The reverse is also true. If a person has a negative experience it may lead to the avoidance of such stimuli and related careers.
- Learning through observation - people will observe what other people do, evaluate this and decide to associate themselves with the type of situation.

This theory therefore focuses on the idea that a person's career choice is influenced mainly through learning.

Sociologists tend to focus more on the impact and influence of family, race, social status and changes in the environment and how these factors impact on career choice. The sociological approach fits into the Status acquisition paradigm. Career status, like training, career choice and income are carried over from one generation to the next, according to the status acquisition approach. Attitudes that are typical of specific status groups will be carried over from parent to child and from other adults to children and from peers to each other. This process is known as the "significant others influence" (Hotchkiss & Borow in Brown & Brooks, 1984, p.139).

Blau and Duncan developed a model for career acquisition. This basically illustrates the career choice of a child by means of a linear model. The parent's status leads to the child's training and that again leads to occupational status. Figure 4.2 outlines the Blau-Duncan Path Model.

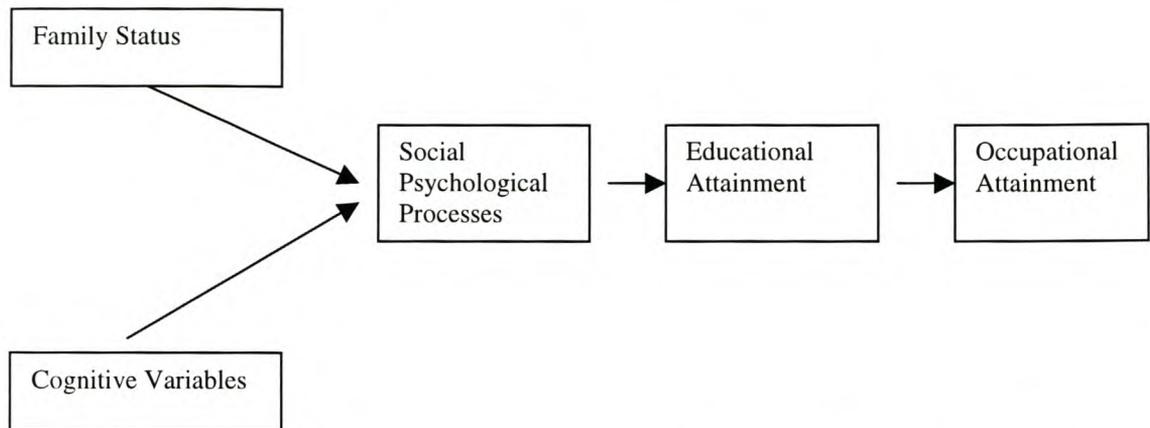
Figure 4.2
Blau - Duncan Path Model



Hotckins and Borow, 1984, p.143

Another sociologist, Wisconsin, took the Blau and Duncan model and developed the Status Acquisition Model, which uses the approach that the status of the parents will directly influence the career choice of a child. This process flows from the parents to the children and from the significant other to the child. This then flows to the child's career choice, his training and the success in his career. Figure 4.3 illustrates this process schematically.

Figure 4.3
Wisconsin Model of Status Acquisition



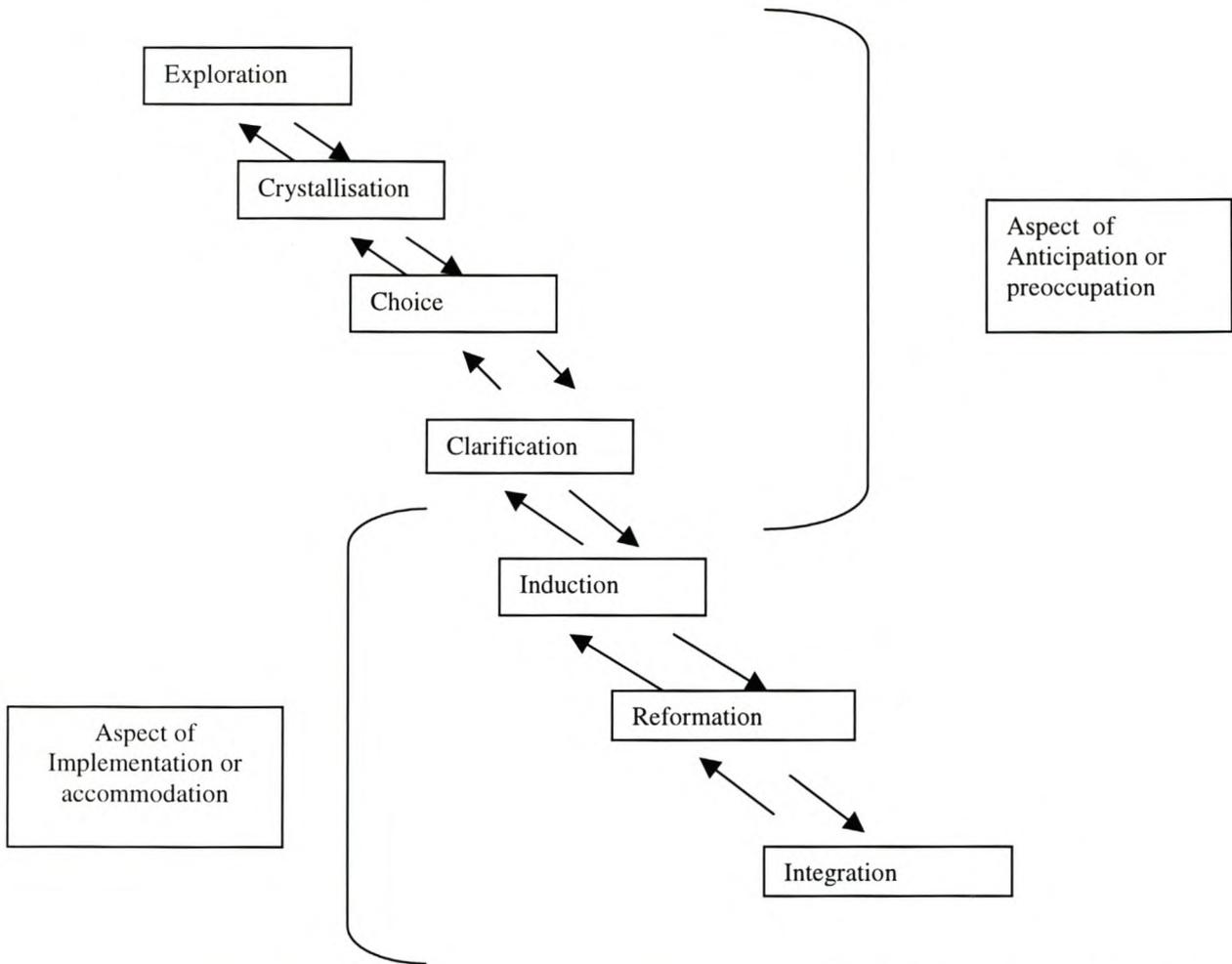
Hotchkins and Borow, 1984, p.144

The Decision-Making Approach of Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) maintains that career growth develops from ongoing differentiation and integration of the self-identity as it grows and develops. Differentiation occurs when a person is confronted with a specific choice. The person looks at all the pros and cons of a choice and then decides what he/she is going to do. Figure 4.4 graphically presents the approach of Tiedeman and O'Hara to the process of choosing a career. The process of career choice is basically split into two periods. The period of anticipating / deciding on a specific career and the period of implementing this choice.

The time dimension indicates that the normal process of personal development will take the individual towards a state of integration in the work environment. The double arrows indicate that the different stages are not irreversible and often blend into each other. New information may prompt the individual to an earlier stage in the career choice process.

Figure 4.4

THE PROCESS OF DIFFERENTIATION AND INTEGRATION



Tiedeman and O'Hara, 1963, p. 40

The area of career development is continuously under revision. Stevens (2002) has postulated a more recent Model on Career Development. He developed The Stevens' Model of Career Development in 1981 (the early version). He revised it for the 1996 model, which will be discussed here. Stevens developed a Worklife(sic) Methodology to help the person to define their real self. This focuses more on the internal characteristics of the person than on the external. The methodology that is used demands that the person takes self-responsibility for their own employability and work life satisfaction. Stevens' Worklife (sic) Methodology consists of

three components, namely Stevens' Model of Career Development, Structured Analysis and Four Dimensional Analysis.

According to Stevens, the Stevens' Model of Career Development is "essentially a developmental based concept, not a matching process. Users are not led to a list of occupations on which to base their career action decisions. They are led to initiate career exploration (Opportunity Awareness) using the conclusions from their self-assessment phase and then apply detective, communication and research skills. The Model requires the user to be self-sufficient, but does not preclude the need for - in fact, encourages talking to and being helped by others during the self-search problem-solving and decision-making journey" (Stevens, 2002, p.2).

Stevens (2002) developed career assessment instruments for self-assessment, structured self-search and self-determination designs for each stage of the Model. The individual is supposed to go through a journey of self-exploration and evolution of their available career options, investigating the practical implications of the labour market and their personal opportunities and restrictions.

In his research, Stevens found that "many models designed to help a person neglected the difficulties of (i) making a decision between appealing options and (ii) how to implement a career action determination once it had been carefully and thoroughly identified". He therefore includes steps of Decision Learning and Transition Training in his model. Stevens also prides himself on the fact that his model "has an essentially practical approach which incorporates most of the aspects of a person's work and way of life in their career and transition making" (Stevens, 2002, p.2).

Figure 4.5 illustrates the sequence in which a person should proceed (according to Stevens) to deal with worklife direction problems. The model consists of six stages. Each stage is characterised by various activities that the individual can undertake. It is important that the

individual follows the stages in the same sequence as prescribed by Stevens. According to Stevens, the validity and quality of the outcomes could be jeopardised should the sequence be changed (Stevens, 2002).

Figure 4.5

The Stevens' Model of Career Development

Stage One: Self-Assessment

- Clarify issues and concerns
- Assemble an information base through structured analysis
- Review current job effectiveness
- Check:
 - Employment experiences ,
 - Abilities,
 - Interests,
 - Values,
 - Primary wants,
 - Employment environment preferences,
 - Lifestyle considerations

Stage Two: Interpreting Data

- Analysis
- Transferable skills identification
- Career requirements developed
- Resolve ambiguities
- Lifestyle integration
- Monetary needs and considerations
- Barriers to success : Identify perceived and real constraints

Stage Three: Opportunity Awareness

- Collect information
- Research
- Organisation information gathering
- Reality testing
- Cultivate a network
- Mentoring
- Evaluate results
- Select career action(s) options

Stage Four: Decision Learning

- Evaluate career action options
- Trade-offs
- Decide on goals
- Prepare Career Action Step Statement

Stage Five: Transition Training

- Schedule career transition actions
- Rehearse for negotiations
- Develop strategies for success
- Check career action preparation
- Prepare requests for approval
- Audit career transition progress

Stage Six: Transition Accomplished

- Review of completed career action steps
- Assessment of well-being

Stevens, 2002, p.1

By using a structured framework into which data can be fitted, the use of the model becomes easier. Stevens propose the use of an equation to provide a structure for the employees' self-review, so that the employees' "thinking is given a distinct focus and sense can be made of the complexities of their psychological make-up and the individuality of their personal needs. The use of an equation helps them to not only identify what is important to them but also determine how important each of these aspects is in their career determinations". Stevens continues by saying that: "Worklife (sic) Methodology incorporates the option of three levels of self-search and planning detail by the client. Level 1 is expressed as an equation: $M (PW) + V + I + PS - PC = \text{Career Action Step Decision}$. This self-assessed data via non-psychometric instruments does not point precisely to a particular occupation or job label, rather gives direction to the components of a compatible job role." Stevens found that some people often needed a "greater depth of analysis and data gathering about self and their employment situation.... Hence Levels 2 and 3" (Stevens, 2002, p.2-3).

According to Stevens (2002, p.3), this equation helps people to "explore themselves and to incorporate this information in a coherent way which will lead to improved understanding and comfort in choosing a particular career action. The formula comprises M for Motives, V for Values, I for Interests, PS for Preferred Skills or Competencies, PC for Perceived Constraints.

- "M = Motivation - is about establishing what our current primary wants (PW) are at this stage of our life and personal circumstances.
- V = Values - helps focus on what we value most consistently. Awareness of our values is critical so that we avoid affront or disappointment. Values are a critical factor in our quest for career fulfilment.
- I = Interests assessment which identifies the essential themes that need to be incorporated in our work for us to have a chance at deriving work satisfaction.
- PS = the talents, skills, competencies we prefer to use in our work, i.e. our specific set of motivated abilities which may or may not conform with our aptitudes.
- PC = Perceived Constraints. These feature in everyone's life. Listing them is important. The individual items can then be examined to

determine the degree to which each constraint exists and a conclusion can be reached as to whether it really is an obstacle or can be circumnavigated by adopting a particular strategy or attitude or acquiring more accurate information.”

Stevens (2002, p.3) also point out that “[c]onstraints are also personal choices about what the person wants to include in their framework of decision making, e.g. part-time work hours, child- or elder-care obligations and desires. In other words, the boundaries of our personal decision making.”

Figure 4.6

Career Analysis Levels

Level 1 :	M (PW) + V + I + PS - PC
Level 2 :	Structured Learning Workbooks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My Career, My Life, Myself (Stevens, Worklife) • The PIE Method for Career Success (Porot, JIST Inc.) • What Color is Your Parachute? Workbook (Bolles, 10 Speed)
Level 3 :	Life Management Review <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stop Postponing the Rest of Your Life (Stevens, Worklife) • What Color is Your Parachute? (Bolles, 10 Speed) • Life Skills (Leider, Prentice-H

Stevens, 2002, p.2

Structured analysis exercises that are provided emphasise learning through stimulated self-exploration. These exercises can be done privately, as “homework” and they can therefore be done at the individual’s own pace, during their career and life management “review journey”. But, a trainer can decide on particular exercises to be done as part of a workshop, or a counsellor can do this during counselling / career coaching meetings (Stevens, 2002).

The third and last component of Stevens' Worklife (sic) Methodology is the Four-Dimensional (4-D) Analysis process. Stevens (2002, p.5) states that "[t]his analysis requires a 4-D approach focussing on each of the following: Job Content, Employment Environment Type, Forms of Employment and Lifestyle Preferences." The employees proceed to assemble their data and decide on what requirements they need for each of the four dimensions, and the task of integrating each into a coherent career direction is addressed. "This 4-D approach within the Worklife (sic) Methodology extends the traditional person-job content only matching procedures and thereby redefines career planning as life management planning" (Stevens, 2002, p.4).

Stevens(2002) suggests that this methodology helps each person to answer the questions illustrated in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7

Stevens' Model of Career Development: Use of Methodology

Stage One: Searching Self / Analysing My Situation

- What is my current level of satisfaction at work?
- What broader life needs do I seek?
- What are my motivating skills, interests and values?
- What do I want in my worklife role?
- What new learning do I want?
- Which working environments am I most suited to?
- What techniques can I use to help me identify where I want to go with my worklife?

Stage Two: Exploring this Information

- How do I consolidate all my self-assessment information?
- Have I listed my work role and work environment preferences and my reasons for them?
- How do I use my self-assessment data to develop options?
- Do these options seem compatible with my lifestyle needs?
- What barriers / constraints do I have at this point?

Stage Three: Exploring Opportunities

- What worklife options are available to me?
- How can I learn more about these options?
- Who can I ask for a reality check on my options?
- How can I test the reality of my worklife options?

Stage Four: Making My Decision

- How do I decide between my researched worklife options?
- What techniques can I use to assist me in making my decision?
- Who will listen to me and assist me with my decision making?

Stage Five: Planning My Career Action Step

- Have I planned what I need to do now? And later on?
- What support is available to assist me in making it happen?
- How do I market myself?
- What should I put in my portfolio, résumé or proposal?
- Do my interviewing and negotiation skills need improving?

Stage Six: Auditing My Worklife Renewal

- Have my expectations been met?
- What are the results and benefits for me?
- What can I do to retain the benefits?
- What have I learned from this transition process?

Stevens, 2002, p.5-6

4.5 Conclusion

In reviewing the different approaches discussed in this chapter shows clearly that expectations influence career choice. Herr and Cramer have stated that compatibility of personality and career are important when factors such as background, interests and self-perception are brought into the issue.

Disparity in educational levels in South Africa is identified as an important factor when the under-representation of women in the working place is investigated. The greater disparities in favour of men in senior positions are further proof of the unacceptable situation in our country. One can assume that women do not have the exposure to these types of positions. They might not have access to it due to a lack of exposure to it, or role socialisation and discrimination or due to the fact that they have been socialised not to even consider these type of positions as a career choice.

Career choice is not a spontaneous process. The individual takes a conscious decision to follow a specific career path. Usually a person will choose a career that fits best with these individual abilities, needs and interests. Career choices are strongly influenced by the social environment from where the person comes, as well as the influence of parents on an individual's early life. The choice of a career eventually rests with the individual himself / herself. People, and for the purpose of this study, women, are influenced by various factors when they choose a career. This chapter specifically focused on how career choices are made. There is, however much more to the making of choices when an individual chooses a career path. The following chapter will identify the various factors and barriers that impact directly and indirectly on these career choices.

CHAPTER 5

IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS AND BARRIERS THAT IMPACT ON WOMEN'S CAREER PROGRESS

5.1 Introduction

There are various factors and barriers that may have an impact on the upward movement of females in the working environment. The Oxford advanced learner's dictionary describes a barrier as something "that prevents, hinders or controls, progress or movement" (Hornby, Crowie & Gimson, 1987, p.64).

In the previous chapters, various variables that have an impact on women and their mobility in the workplace were identified.

When the research that has been discussed is taken into consideration and the various suppositions and variables that might impact on a woman's career advancement in the corporate environment are evaluated, Swanson, Daniels and Thokar's article on Assessing Perceptions of Career-Related Barriers becomes relevant (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

The aforementioned researchers undertook an in-depth analysis of factors that interfere with the career development process and produced a psychological assessment instrument that "is intended to be a multidimensional assessment of potential barriers, measuring barriers assigned from a variety of origins, including internal, external, and interactional sources" (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p.289-239).

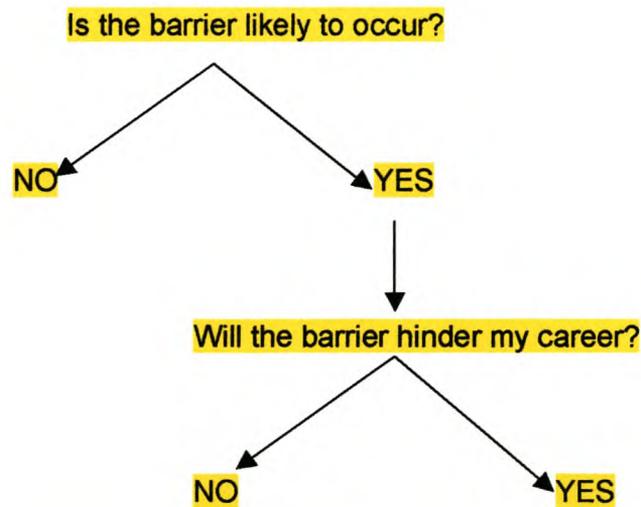
Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.23) conceptualised barriers as "external conditions or internal states that make career progress difficult". They continued by saying that they "do not adhere to a narrow definition of a barrier as being impenetrable".

In their view barriers can be overcome, "although with varying degrees of difficulty

according to the specific barrier and the individual” (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p.236). These researchers developed the Career Barrier Inventory (CBI), to assist them in the analysis of the identified career barriers. This instrument, and the development thereof, will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Figure 5.1 suggests that a two-step process operates when a person is confronted with a barrier. The individual will first ask, “Is this likely to happen to me?” If the response is positive, the following question is: “Can I overcome the barrier?” (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p.237).

Figure 5.1
Diagram of the hypothetical process occurring when individuals respond to barrier items



Swanson, Daniels and Tokar, 1996, p.238

In developing the CBI, the aforementioned researchers also considered where barriers occur in the social cognitive framework and self-efficacy. They focused on the existence of barriers, as well as on the effect that barriers might have on a specific individual (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

They recognized that there is a lack of consensus in the literature regarding the clear conceptualisation of the barrier construct, as well as the domain of potential barriers people might perceive. Crites has described barriers as “thwarting conditions” that may impede the career development process. He also distinguished two major categories of barriers, namely internal conflicts (e.g. self-concept) and external frustrations (e.g. discrimination in the workplace) (Crites, 1969 cited in Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1999, p.220).

According to Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996), writers tended to adopt Crites’s internal-external dichotomy. They then refer to O’Leary (1974), Farmer (1976) and Harmon (1977) who postulated various combinations of internal-external barriers. O’Leary hypothesized six internal (e.g. fear of failure) and four external (e.g. sex-role stereotyping) barriers to upward movement of women. Farmer postulated six internal (or self-concept) barriers and three environmental barriers to women’s upward movement and Harmon described both psychological and sociological barriers to women’s career development.

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.220) furthermore refer to the fact that: “More recently, researchers have begun to challenge the internal-external dichotomy that previously ... guided much of the discussion of barriers”. Swanson and Tokar (1991a, in Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1997) identified 1 098 student-generated barriers to common career-related experiences which they sorted into 109 categories and this categories were then further classified into three broad barrier clusters.

These Barrier Clusters were “social/interpersonal (e.g., multiple role obligations, job relocation), attitudinal (e.g., self-concept, attitudes toward work), and interactional (e.g., discrimination, lack of qualifications). Swanson and Tokar’s (1991b, cited in Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1997, p.220) subsequent research provided “only modest support for this three-way classification system” and “data were even less supportive of internal-external barriers dichotomy.”

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996) also evaluated the way that Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994) applied Badura’s (1982) social cognitive theory to career

development. According to the researcher, Lent *et al.* hypothesized that primary socio-cognitive mechanisms (i.e., self-efficacy and outcome expectations) figure prominently in the development of vocational interests. These mechanisms will then also impact on the career choice goals (e.g. the choice of a career). Lent *et al.* further hypothesized that certain *personal* (e.g., race, gender, ability), *contextual* (e.g., opportunities structure, emotional and financial support, discrimination), and *experiential* (e.g., social persuasion, modelling, prior failures / successes) factors may exert important influences on the development of self-efficacy and outcome expectation. Thus, these factors may moderate the hypothesized relationship among these socio-cognitive variables, interests, goals and choice behaviours).

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.221) postulated that Lent *et al.*'s social cognitive theory of career development seems to provide an ideal backdrop for the barriers construct. The reasons they give for this is that :

“First, barriers may be conceptualised as self-reflective processes (e.g., “Am I capable of succeeding?”) or as self-reflective perceptions of the academic or work environment (e.g., “Will I experience discrimination in my pursuit of this career?”). Thus, the barrier construct fits nicely into Lent *et al.*'s social cognitive framework, which emphasizes the role of cognitive appraisal processes in guiding vocational behaviour. In fact, certain types of barriers, for example Swanson and Tokar's (1991a) attitudinal barriers, appear to overlap considerably with the two social cognitive mechanisms Lent *et al.* hypothesized as particularly relevant to career development: outcome expectations and self-efficacy beliefs. Additionally, it is plausible that perceptions of barriers may contribute to, result from, or even represent some of the person, contextual, and experiential inputs that Lent *et al.* hypothesized to moderate key relationships among sociocognitive variables, interests, and choice behaviour. “

The empirical development of the Career Barrier Inventory - Revised, by Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996), will be discussed in Chapter 6.

5.2 Dealing with Discrimination

Analysis of the literature at hand reveals that some of the most prevailing factors impacting on a woman are definitely discrimination, whether sexual discrimination or racial discrimination. The assumption might still exist that a patriarchal system is still in operation in most corporate institutions in South Africa. Naidoo (1997, p.30) states that “our history spells out clearly that throughout all societies the patriarchal ideology based on the superior position of men pervades all spheres of life”. Naidoo points out “ a common belief that women are generally associated with certain so-called natural abilities and that they perform efficiently in those roles related to domesticity”.

Women’s lack of upward movement in a company is often referred to as the “glass ceiling effect”. This is a very difficult to define, yet clearly perceived barrier that typically blocks females from reaching upper management positions. Stereotype held about women in general and about women managers in particular might still play a significant role in how women advance in the workplace. Negative stereotyping of women influence how other managers perceive their work, how their employees perceive them and how they are selected for further training (O’Leary & Ickovics, 1992 and Thatenou, Latimer & Conroy,1994). If this is the case, a female within the workplace might be subjected to the male’s whims and rules. The question thus remains whether Apartheid of Sex (1995) as stated by Rothblatt is still in general operation in South Africa.

In her study, Morrison, back in 1988, found that, although the number of women advancing in organisations were increasing and they were progressing at a faster rate than their predecessors did, it remained a fact that women did not move up the ladder as fast as their male counterparts. Whether this is still the general case, given the background of vast changes in legislation in favour of women, will have to be researched (Morrison, 1988).

In the U.S.A., despite a vast increase in the percentage of women in the workplace and federal laws against discrimination based on gender, gender-related occupational restrictions still operated in the labour market. In Academia, for example, U.S. women remained at a disadvantage compared to men with respect to doctorates granted, salaries, and professorships. One reason is that women are more likely than men to believe that they deserve to earn a lower salary than others do, presumably because they have been taught to evaluate themselves in a less egotistical way. Far from taking such circumstances for granted within the South African situation, the research would have to focus on similar trends, if any of those are present (Norwood, 1992).

It seems that sex stereotyping has implications for women when they choose careers. The trend still continues that courses men do at university and other tertiary institutions are often more directly related to work and finding a job - for example the engineering and technology fields - whereas the faculties of language, arts and education consist mainly of female students.

To further complicate South African matters, Joubert (Rapport of 19 March 2000, p.1) in a sub-article on stereotypes states that research done amongst five-year-old children indicate that they stereotype the Black female as a housemaid. If that should be the case amongst such young children, one can only imagine what perception there might be amongst older people used to the traditional way of doing things in this country and the general resistance that might still exist against females of similar race in promotional positions. It seems to be the common case in forming opinions and stereotyping people.

According to Morgan and King in *Introduction to Psychology* (1971), many studies have shown that there is a high correlation between the prejudices of parents and those of their children. The correlation exists because parents often train their children to be prejudiced. For example, a study of children in rural Tennessee in the U.S.A. showed that parents warned them to avoid Negro children and even objects which had been handled by Negro children, and that the parents sometimes punished their children severely for violating these warnings (Morgan & King, 1971).

Craig (1996, p.394) also states that “children absorb the cultural attitudes of those around them”. Craig continues, stating that: “African American parents have had to accommodate themselves to a majority culture that holds them in low esteem. The children naturally sense this conflict, and it affects their attitudes toward society”.

The desire for the education of children enjoys high priority in Black societies. However, even in urban societies, the education of sons enjoys priority in most families, since the woman’s role traditionally is to marry and raise a family. Lucy Mvubelo highlights a third problem with regard to culture when she says that Black men believe they are discriminated against if a woman is paid the same as they and they are insulted if she earns more (Beeld, 27 August 1980, p.13). Morrison (1988) states that, according to Black cultural tradition, a woman is regarded as a perpetual minor. A woman always has to obtain permission from a male (father, husband, son, brother-in-law or any other male relative) if she wishes, for example, to travel or take up employment (Morrison, 1988).

Naidoo (1997) states that Black women in South Africa have in many ways been disabled in the past. Some restrictions on them were also common to white women, but some were specific to Black women. They were not only oppressed as Blacks, but faced double oppression in being Black women workers. According to Naidoo (1997, p.32) they, amongst other things, shared:

- “The experience of national oppression;
- With all other women the burdens of inequality and sexist behaviour; economic subordination;
- At the same time, as black women they were subjected to special disabilities and disadvantages.”

Morrison (1988) found that there was a lack of self-confidence amongst Black women. In view of their cultural background and the political system under which women lived, it was inevitable that the majority of women lacked self-confidence. A Black woman embarking on a career had to prove herself not only as a woman, but also as a Black woman. It was inevitable that the strain resulting from this situation had to affect one’s motivation and self-esteem.

White women had a relatively well-developed support system in terms of day-care facilities for children when compared to the Black women's situation back in 1988. With urbanisation, the traditional extended family, which used to help to raise children, was falling away very quickly. Morrison (1988) found that there was an acute shortage of day-care facilities in Black townships, and so care of the children was a huge problem for the working women. Travelling time was also an issue for Black working women. Townships were often far from the business centres and transport was unreliable, with the result that working women were not given the same priority in Black societies that White women received in their societies. However, even in urban societies, the education of sons enjoys higher priority in most families since traditionally the woman's role is to marry and raise a family. To further complicate things for the working Black women, Morrison came to the conclusion that a society which had for years discriminated against Blacks in general. Black women had a particularly low value. In view of their cultural background and the then political system under which women lived, it was inevitable that the majority of these women understandably could have had a problem in this regard.

The South African society consists of many different groups. The most important sub-divisions are made by means of a rough racial /ethnic separation. The majority, in order of importance, will be Blacks and Whites, with smaller groups such as people popularly called Coloureds, and Asians, consisting of Malays, Indians and Chinese. Although most of these different groups have adopted a western style of living, significant cultural differences might still exist. It seems that such differences stemming from religious prescriptions and racial traditions, could have an important effect on the performance of women within the workplace.

Barton and Byrne (1997) describe culture as the organised system of shared meanings, perceptions, and beliefs held by persons belonging to some group. Social behaviour, it is important to note, does not occur in a cultural vacuum. On the contrary, it is often strongly affected by cultural norms (social rules concerning how people should behave in specific situations), membership in various groups, and shifting societal values. Whom should people marry? How many children should they have? Should people keep their emotional reactions to themselves or

demonstrate them openly? How close should they stand to others when talking to them? Is it appropriate to offer gifts to public officials in order to obtain their favourable action on various requests? These are only a small sampling of the aspects of social behaviour that can be, and are, influenced by cultural factors (Baron & Byrne, 1997).

Craig (1996) states that there are real differences in the way men and women approach work in the U.S.A. Women managers may find themselves under a lot of pressure from peers or superiors to perform, or they may find that they are expected to conform to various stereotypes. She emphasizes, however, that there are also myths and stereotypes that belie women's real motivation and that stand in the way of their career advancement. For example, it is often thought that women in managerial, professional, or technical positions are less willing to take risks or make the sacrifices associated with career advancement. It is also thought that women do not want, need, or expect the same salaries as men, even when it comes to accepting a promotion. However, it has been found repeatedly that many women are similar to men in their attitudes about risk taking, salaries, and advancement in their professional careers.

Sometimes there is an assumption that women have less achievement motivation or less specific career plans, but in a recent comparison there were some striking differences were recorded. Women in traditionally male professions, such as business, law, and medicine, had career plans very similar to those of men pursuing the same careers. On the other hand, women in traditionally female fields, such as education, social work, and nursing, had somewhat different career plans. They were less ambitious, and they expected to make accommodation for marriage and family responsibilities that would cut into their lifetime career history (Craig, 1996).

A review of research on women in management indicated that situational factors, not the personality characteristics and behaviour of women, may account for their relative exclusion from managerial positions (Craig, 1996). Whether this is the case in South Africa, remains to be confirmed by means of thorough research.

James (1983) states that both Black and White male prejudices were felt to limit the woman's job performance. Men were often perceived as uncooperative and not really believing in women's ability to do the job. The women's suggestions were sometimes ignored or were not implemented immediately. Some male managers did not approach the women with problems directly related to the latter's sphere of work.

Others expected women to solve problems that were not their responsibility. These women felt they were the general dog's body and they did not get any thanks for what they did. Men perceived the women as a threat. Black men, especially the uneducated, were believed to be prejudiced against women (James, 1983).

James (1983) was of the opinion that Black women in South Africa were still being exploited by the systems of racial and sexual domination in the 1980's. The measures of racial discrimination, which maintained Blacks in subordinate positions, operated at five levels: political rights, property and residence rights, employment, education and income. These were legitimised by a racist ideology. The levels of sexual discrimination involved legal status, employment, education and reproduction (James, 1983). These in turn were legitimised by a sexist ideology. Cock (1980) referred to such an unfair system as established by forces which were generated by the capitalistic system of production and class structure, which operated to produce a complex pattern of inequality.

5.3 A lack of Confidence

The supposition that a man's successful performance of a task is generally attributed to skill, whereas a woman's identical performance is attributed to effort or luck, could well have an effect on the female's performance in the workplace. Another aspect in this regard is the negative influence the failure of a woman's efforts has on her trying the same or different innovations in an effort to increase her work performance. The suggestion might well be made that men's failure is attributed to bad luck, while women's unsuccessful efforts might be ascribed to low ability. Such assumptions, if

they still exist, might have an enormous impeding effect on the way in which women break through the barriers (Wallston & O'Leary, 1991).

Roe (1957) suggests that the relationship between parents and their children gives rise to attitudes, needs, and interests in children that are expressed through their choice of occupation. For example, children who are the centre of the family's attention may grow dependent on the need for belonging, love and esteem from others. In later years, these children will be very aware of the opinions and attitudes of others. Consequently, they will be attracted to occupations that will bring them in contact with people and that will hold out the possibility of gaining their esteem. Such individuals will move toward careers in which they can serve others, or they will gravitate toward culturally oriented work, perhaps the arts or the entertainment field (Roe, 1957).

Children who are neglected or avoided by parents often suffer from a lack of love and esteem gratification and do not develop the same kind of dependence. In later years, they will not seek out people to gratify their needs and may develop interests that are not people-orientated. They may be attracted to solitary activities and develop careers in science, technology, or other professions that do not primarily require interaction with people.

Families influence their children's career choice in other ways, too: they model certain lifestyles; they are sources of important values and beliefs; and the family system allows for certain levels of individuality and autonomy, reinforcing certain patterns (Bratcher, 1982). For example, girls with working mothers tend to have higher achievement motivation and career aspirations than girls whose mothers do not work outside the home (Hoffman, 1989).

The essence of the Self-Concept Theory is that people seek occupations that fit the concepts they have developed of themselves. By establishing themselves in occupations that fit their notions of self, individuals achieve self-actualisation. That is, act in a way that they believe is best for their own satisfaction and individual growth. A man who sees himself as quiet, scholarly, intelligent and eloquent, for example,

may become a college professor. A woman who sees herself as socially concerned, energetic and a leader with great magnetism might decide to go into politics.

Like the Self-Concept Theory, the Trait Factor Theory is concerned with the link between personality and occupational choice. Trait Theory, however, investigates actual, measured personality traits as opposed to the individual's perception of self. The main idea of the theory is that there is a loose fit between the kinds of occupations people choose and their personality traits.

5.4 Multiple role-conflict

According to James (1983) traditionally rural African women have contributed to the economic maintenance of their families, for example through growing crops. Many urbanised African women have had to work due to financial necessity. Traditionally, the separation of the home and the work place was not so clear and children were often cared for near the mother as she worked. Through the extended family system, care-givers other than the child's biological mother were the norm. Thus the position of the rural African woman in traditional society differs from that of contemporary African and White women. The environments and attitudes of African and White professional women may differ in some respects.

De Vries (1991) indicates that women come to the workplace with a diversity of skills and experiences. However, when women re-enter the job market after giving birth or after having running their own informal business from home, they are classified as employees with broken service. This normal work life pattern for women who marry, should be to their advantage, rather than to their disadvantage, as it was during the 1990s. The changing patterns of employment and of how work was organised should have broadened the scope of women's utilisation.

A review of the then current human resources management policies and practices was essential. Tasks like recruitment, appraisals, and career planning and job analysis needed to be evaluated to eliminate any gender bias therein. Whether this

is still the general case remains to be researched (De Vries, 1991).

Craig (1996) states that religion and ethnic traditions and moral values are conveyed to children at an early age. In complex, multi-ethnic societies many cultural traditions often oppose each other. Some parents struggle to instill their own values so that their children will not become assimilated into the culture of the majority. Parents express cultural values to their children in their attitudes toward such daily choices as food, clothing, friends, education and play.

A woman within a multi-cultural society such as in South Africa, when coming from minority groups into a foreign working environment, might have difficulties with adapting or accepting the new lifestyle within the workplace and might find that it clashes seriously with what she had for years believed as morally and religiously correct.

5.5 Myths and Stereotyping

Morrison (1988) states that the existence of myths about women, with specific reference to South African women, and the fact that they are seldom challenged, have resulted in so-called unconscious discrimination, - which is far more dangerous to the woman who wants to advance than conscious discrimination. Some of these myths are:

- Women are the weaker sex, based on man's sheer muscular strength to protect women. Apart from displaying a physical capacity for doing many things previously thought impossible to do, women's inner strengths have been acknowledged. This enforces the sexual discrimination issue.
- Women are over-emotional. They are seen as to be governed by their emotions and therefore unable to deal with the pace and resultant tensions of the business world. This implies that a woman does not always have the confidence to do the job.
- Women are short-term employees. Married women only work to enable the family to buy luxuries. The single women mark time until they marry. Therefore women occupy jobs, not careers. In this regard management often decides that it is a poor economic policy and procedure to train women. Few companies consider

that if women are trained, they start to feel a permanent part of the staff and are more likely to be committed to the company and their careers.

- A woman's place is in the home, and working women neglect their families and homes. According to Barlows (1987) nearly two-thirds of working women in South Africa are married and that almost half of them are mothers. The multiple role conflict that women have to deal with and dealing with the conflict between managing her career and children demands are huge.
- Career women lose their femininity. Non-working women most often perpetuate this idea. There is a huge gap between those women who work and those who do not - they have little common ground with different attitudes to work, life and each other. Whether this attitude of some housewives might have an influence upon their achieving husbands in management, remains an open question. Whether a researcher will be able through interviews and non-identified questionnaires to obtain honest answers, remains to be seen (Barlows, 1987).

There are also certain myths about women which disempower women and hamper them in their upward movement in the working environment. These myths, as discussed by De Vries (1991), link broadly to sexual discrimination, multiple role conflict, decision-making difficulty and disapproval by significant other. De Vries's (1991, pp.59–62) myths are identified as follows:

1. Women are uncomfortable in a man's world, therefore they would not aspire to move up in the hierarchy or be part of the decision-making corps.
2. Women are the weaker sex.
3. Women work as a hobby or for luxuries.
4. Women have high turnover and absenteeism rates.
5. Women do not understand statistics.
6. Career women lose their femininity.
7. Women are short-term employees.
8. The woman's place is in the house.
9. Rearing of children – women's responsibility.

De Vries (1991, pp.57-59) continued this train of thought and identified five stereotyping myths that exist in affirming the idea that management is a "male occupation". These stereotypes are:

- Stereotype 1: Men are intellectually superior to women. According to De Vries (1991, p.57) the belief exists “wrongly that men are not only more intelligent but also more competent than women. Yet as women are allowed into more male dominated careers like medicine and engineering they are managing on their own”.
- Stereotype 2: Men are emotionally more stable than women. De Vries (1991, p.57) states that men are “traditionally supposed to be tough, with no show of emotions or expression of doubt or fears. Women are allowed to express their emotions more freely whether it be fear, anxiety, disappointment or pain they are feeling, this led wrongly to the myth than men do not experience these emotions and are therefore more able to deal with it.”
- Stereotype 3: Men value achievement, promotion as well as meaningful work. According to De Vries (1991, p.58): “Hertzberg differentiated between hygiene factors of which are extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Women have been described as motivated by hygiene factors, namely money and security of work. Men, in comparison, value the desire to achieve, to be promoted and to assume responsibility. Several studies (Saleb, 1969 and Crowley, 1973) have indicated that there are no differences between gender with respect to intrinsic motivators. Furthermore, the studies showed that women were just as dissatisfied with under-utilised abilities as men. In terms of their commitment to work, the evidence indicates that women are as committed as men.”
- Stereotype 4: Men are inherently more assertive than women. “Men, because of the way they have been brought up as being dominant, leaders and superior to women, act more assertively than women. However, women can also be leaders and be assertive as the differences are not biological but rather related to cultural values which instil certain behavioral patterns” (De Vries, 1991, p.58).
- Stereotype 5: The successful manager processes masculine attributes. According to De Vries this stereotype “also influences woman’s confidence and esteem” (De Vries, 1991, p.58).

Erasmus (1998) concurs with the above-mentioned. In his article on Workplace Issues affecting women in Human Resources he states that there are nine perceived barriers, which prevent women from achieving their full potential in the career path of a human resources professional. These nine barriers, in order of priority, (arithmetic means are in brackets) are as follows:

1. Male culture within the organisation (7,3).
2. Lack of recognition and respect for work completed (6,6).
3. Gender bias by supervisors (6,3).

4. Lack of female mentor support (6,0).
5. Restriction on types of work given thus limiting experience (5,7).
6. Little allowance made for family commitments (5,2).
7. Lack of flexibility in working hours (4,8).
8. Requirement for long working hours (4,6).
9. Low salaries that cannot support child care payment (4,4).

However, Kassorla (1985, p.263) affirms, “the archaic stereotypes that have encouraged women to be passive and to fear excelling are unrealistic and unsubstantiated. Women who are high achievers in business can also be thoroughly happy as wives and mother”.

According to Van Rensburg (1991) a myth still existed in the 1990s that women were not good managers due to their lack of control over their emotions and indecisive attitudes when rational decisions have to be made. Add to that the myth that women were economic risks, as they were often ill and resigned as soon as they married. Resulting from this, the general myth existed that women at managerial level displayed a lack of commitment. They were only seen as committed after a long attachment with the same company (Van Rensburg, 1991).

5.6 Being discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers

It seems as if women are being discouraged from choosing careers outside the norm. The perception also still exists that women have difficulty in choosing a career, are not too sure about their career alternatives and may lack information on making career choices. Based on research in the U.S.A. it seems as if gender also affects expectancies. Subich and Colleagues (1986) presented information about three unfamiliar occupations - administrative assistant, information analyst, and traffic co-ordinator - to undergraduates. Participants in the research were asked to indicate how interested they were in these occupations. Compared to women, men expressed more interest in the relatively unknown fields, had higher expectations of succeeding, and placed more stress on salary. Men stressed extrinsic motives for job selection. There apparently is no reason to label either the motivation of men as somehow “better” than that of women (or the other way around), but there are clearly

defined differences in the way that men and women are motivated (Norwood, 1992).

Craig (1996) declares that African-American women in the U.S.A. are over - represented in some occupations and underrepresented in others. These groups tend to be over-represented in the lower-status, lower-paying fields and underrepresented in the high-salaried profession. Women occupy a significant majority of the so-called “pink-collar jobs”, which comprise the following, according to Naidoo (1997, p.31):

- “96% of registered nurses;
- 90% of occupational and radiotherapists;
- 86% of social workers;
- 78,6% of hairdressers;
- 67% of teachers and
- 96% of domestic workers”

At the other end of the spectrum, Naidoo (1997, p.31) states that women are under-represented in the following categories to the degree of:

- “5.1% of artisans and apprentices;
- 5.9% of communication and related occupations;
- 3.1% of registered engineers;
- 9.6% of judges / magistrates; and
- 0.8% of metal and engineering industry workers.”

Naidoo (1997) also refers to the fact that women only comprise 1.3% (49) of 3773 directors of the JSE 657 companies, and that women represent less than 1% of board members in the corporate world.

According to Craig (1996), researchers explain these distributions in two ways. One explanation assumes that workers make choices that ultimately lead to their occupation. This means that they cannot compete for the jobs that require higher education. Women also make choices when they question their competence in the sciences (Ware & Steckler, 1983) and, therefore, are reluctant to pursue science careers. Or women may opt for careers that provide flexibility to raise a family. They may choose part-time work; they may move in and out of the job market during their child-rearing years; and they may opt for employment with limited stress and time pressure, but that also has limited career and financial potential. Socialisation

(including role modelling) probably, also influences career choice. Hence, sex and race patterns may be self-perpetuating, to some extent.

The second explanation for these occupational patterns is discrimination. In the U.S.A. African-Americans and women may be subtly (or not so subtly) channelled into some jobs but not others. The better titles may go to men more frequently than to women - even when women have equal skills. Promotions may not be equally available. Certainly, discrimination is illegal. But it is evident that discrimination plays a role in the wages of both African-Americans and women. The same characteristics that predict high salaries for white men do not result in equally high salaries for African-Americans and women (Craig, 1996).

Jobs can be defined by the kinds of personality traits they seem to require. If an individual exhibits the traits demanded by a particular job, the job and the person are a good match. Holland (1973) developed a system of matching six individual personality traits with appropriate occupations. The traits are (1) realistic, (2) investigative, (3) social, (4) conventional, (5) enterprising, and (6) artistic. A person exhibiting traits 2 and 5, for example, might become a research scientist. Someone with traits 3 and 4 might become, say, a hospital worker.

The trait factor approach to occupational choice has stimulated considerable research. As one might expect, the matching of individuals and occupations by personality traits does not always work. The theory does, however, provide some general indication of the direction people will take in their working lives.

Sex and race, parental attitudes, the self-concept theory, and the trait factor theory explain in part how people choose their occupations. Other factors, however, are equally or more important. In times of recession and high unemployment, people may not have a choice and may make a career choice that they believe will allow them to find a job and pay the rent. It is not uncommon to hear about someone who wants to be an architect or a musician but who chooses instead to be a civil servant or a hospital worker. The need to support a spouse or children may also cause people to look for a job in a different field than they would choose if they did not have these

constraints. An artist, for example, may go into advertising or public relations work and paint only on weekends as a hobby.

Many people allow other family responsibilities to direct their choice of careers. Some children are groomed to take over a family business or to follow in a parent's footsteps, even though they prefer a different type of work. Finally, many people without definite plans or with varied interests and abilities may simply fall into an available job. Practical considerations, then, have as much to do with occupational choice as theoretical explanations.

Before joining the workforce, people acquire a number of new skills, values and attitudes, both formally and informally. Formal occupational preparations include structured learning in high school, vocational training programmes, college, or graduate school, as well as on-the-job instruction. Informal occupational preparation takes more subtle forms: It is the process of absorbing the attitudes, norms, and role expectations appropriate to a particular job. Long before we begin formal preparation, we are absorbing informal norms and values from our parents, teachers, members of the professions, and television and movie actors. We learn by observing others and by day-by-day experience in a particular social class. Informal socialisation is so pervasive and so critical that it often determines our conscious choice for formal career preparation.

For many people, college is considered a critical part of occupational preparation. But in many areas of study, particularly in the liberal arts, little or no training is specifically aimed at cultivating marketable skills. Rather, liberal arts curricula try to develop basic communication skills, expose students to a variety of ideas, and develop the ability to analyse. Although essential to intellectual maturity, these skills are not directly related to many specific job titles. In contrast, quantitative programs, such as those in engineering, medicine, and business, do provide substantive knowledge and practical skills. They usually attract motivated, determined students who have already defined their goals.

A survey of hundreds of thousands of college students in the early 1970s (Astin,

1977) found that, for most students, the emotional and attitudinal changes occurring during their college years are far more significant than any specific career preparation. Beliefs and self-concepts are revised. Students learn to rate and assess themselves in increasingly complex and realistic ways, and they become more specific in analysing various assets like originality, artistic ability, mechanical skill, effective writing skill, and personal communication. They tend to develop higher opinions of their intellectual abilities, leadership skills, and popularity. These changes are often more lasting than specific career training the students receive in a college and may help a student make better decisions about occupational choice (Craig, 1996).

5.7 Dissatisfaction with careers

Morrison (1988) concluded that it appeared as if discrimination against South African women started even before they were employed during the 1980s. Women therefore had less freedom of choice regarding choice of occupation and were forced into occupations offering lower rates of pay and few opportunities for career development (Morrison, 1988). Morrison (1992) also found that professional women leave companies mainly because they see limited career prospects for themselves. Women therefore experience severe job market constraints.

During the 1990s Baron and Byrne (1997) found that there were certain definite factors that impacted on women's expectations about careers in the U.S.A. In general, it seemed as if they expected less than men in the workplace did. They expected to receive lower starting and peak salaries. Women do view lower salaries for females as being somehow fair. Why do females hold these lower expectations?

Research findings indicate that several factors play a role.

- First, females employees expect to take more time off from work (for example, to spend with their children); this tends to lower their expectations of peak career salaries.
- Second, women place somewhat less importance on job outcomes generally,

including salary, than men do. To the extent that this is the case, they may find lower pay relatively acceptable.

- Third, women realise that females do generally earn less than males. Thus, their lower expectations may simply reflect their recognition of current reality and its likely impact on their own salaries.
- Fourth, women tend to perceive relatively low levels of pay as fair to a greater degree than males do.
- Finally, and perhaps most important, women tend to compare themselves with other women, and since women earn less than men in many instances, this leads them to conclude that they are not doing too badly after all.

Whatever the specific basis for women's lower salary expectations, it is a fact of life that, in general, people tend to get what they expect or what they request. Thus, the lower expectations of women, with respect to such outcomes may be one important factor operating against them in many organisations (Baron & Byrne, 1997). These are also the factors that will help to form certain conceptions when making career choices are made.

Brest (1991), in her study, came to the conclusion that the low level of progress of women in management at a time when the South African economy was experiencing a critical shortage of managerial skills was still low. Although she only concentrated on a certain target, namely the women in the Life Assurance Industry, it still gives an indication of what the researcher might expect on a broader scale. She concluded that there was a definite need for attitudinal and cultural change in the working environment, with the country as a whole still moving through a period of economic and political upheaval in the beginning of the 1990s.

Halcomb reported that there was a lingering belief in the U.S.A. in the 1980s that the woman's place was in the home, not in the House, the Senate, the judiciary or in the top-level government appointments, and certainly not in the White House (Halcomb, 1981).

In South Africa, according to Bingham (1986), there still was a lack of advancement

of women, due to the male-dominated social structure of the country. The result was that women found it exceptionally difficult to move into traditionally male dominated professional jobs, let alone be appointed from outside into such jobs.

Van Rensburg (1991) concluded, in her research, that certain definite factors played a role within the employment of women in South Africa during the 1990s. These factors were, amongst other things, the demographic distribution of the people, level of education, and career structure. The demographic distribution had an effect on employment. She found that 43% of white women were employed, compared to 33,7% Black females. That was generally due to demographic age distribution and the level of education. The tempo of participation within the economic activities also fluctuated, depending upon the racial group. This she found to be, 35,8% for Black women, 41,2% for Coloured women, 28,4% for Indians of the fairer sex and 36,2% for White women (Van Rensburg, 1991).

5.8 The impact of values on women in the workplace

Values play an important part in the socialisation of people. Values are defined by Huse (1979, p.430) as “relatively permanent ideals (or ideas) that influence and shape the general nature of people’s behaviour and determine what they will consider desirable or undesirable, good or bad. People use values as a guidance system when they are faced with a choice among various actions”. Values are usually acquired early in life. They reflect, amongst other things, cultural -, educational and family background and are influenced by the aforementioned factors.

While it is commonly acknowledged that values differ from culture to culture and even from person to person in a specific culture, their influence on people’s thinking and behaviour tends to be underestimated. McMurry (In Koontz & O’Donnell, 1972, p.578) lists six reasons why he believes that the influences of values are important;

1. They principally determine what he regards as right, good, worthy, beautiful, ethical, and so forth (thus establishing his vocation and life goals and many of his motivations, for it may be assumed that he will seek that which he deems desirable).

2. They also provide the standards and norms by which he guides his day-to-day behaviour. (In this sense they constitute an integral part of his conscience).
3. They chiefly determine his attitudes toward the causes and issues (political, economic, social, and industrial) with which he comes into contact daily.
4. They exert a powerful influence on the kinds and types of persons with whom he can be personally compatible and the kinds of social activities in which he can engage.
5. They largely determine which ideas, principles, and concepts he can accept, assimilate, remember, and transmit without distortion.
6. They provide him with an almost unlimited number and variety of moral principles, which can be employed to rationalise and justify any action he has taken or is contemplating. (If his stand is totally unrealistic, ludicrous, or even harmful, he can still defend it "on principle.")

Values usually play an integral part in how a person makes career choice. The impact of other people and their perceptions are also an influencing factor. If your significant other disapproves of your career choice, it does impact on your whole lifestyle.

5.9 Educational Background

Morrison (1988) emphatically stated that organisations were designed for men by men. She added, however, that the next decade promised to be a time of incredible change – most organisations were tremendously change-orientated at that stage and planning for the future (Morrison, 1988). How much of Morrison's predictions have been realised? Morrison (1992) concluded that career barriers in the 90s were much the same as they were in the 1980s.

De Vries (1991) stated that a review of the various popular degree paths for women indicated that the majority of women read for Bachelor of Arts degrees, which have no clear career orientation. This leads to the situation of women entering the labour market with the communication skills and philosophical ability to go into discourse about a variety of subjects without their being adequately equipped for jobs other than secretarial or clerical work.

However, when the qualifications of top managers in South Africa were surveyed by Finansies & Tegniek (1990), it was found that having a Bachelor of Arts degree should not be a deterrent as some managers had reached the highest position without being in possession of any degree.

In an evaluation of post-graduate degree enrolments in management, it was found that the number of women proportionate to men is still very low. In 1990 at the University of Stellenbosch Business School only five women enrolled for the MBA-degree on a full-time basis, compared to 35 men. Expectations were that, as women aspire towards managerial pastures, they would increasingly enrol for such a management qualification. At the University of the Western Cape, the 1991 enrolment of female candidates for the Honours degree in Accounting, which qualifies one to write the Chartered Account's board examination, numbered four out of a class of thirty-two. Yet they do not easily gain access to articulated clerk positions. In a discussion with the head of the department, it was revealed that the women were the top academic students in the class. Lack of education is a restriction for these women who are in the middle or lower level of management without any post-standard ten qualifications. When the number of women who graduate is compared to those in managerial positions, the situation seems somewhat unbalanced (De Vries, 1991, pp.124 –126).

5.10 Management styles

According to a 1986 report by Catalyst, a New York City non-profit organisation and respected source of information to corporations on women's advancement in business, gender differences in managerial style may be mainly in the eye of the beholder (Morrison, White & Van Velsor, 1987). Based on the results of various studies, Morrison *et al.* (1987) concluded that there is compelling evidence to support the premise that executive women are more like executive men than they are different in terms of their goals, motives, personalities and behaviour. Indeed, out of dozens of psychological and behavioural tests, only a few statistical significant sex

differences emerged, namely:

“Executive men are more likely to feel equal to the demands for time and energy, more in tune with their surroundings and more likely to perceive things as their peers do, more comfortable in an environment where conformity to intellectual authority is desirable and the criteria for excellence are clearly specified. Executive women are more likely to move in new and original directions, to behave as individuals and to personalise their experiences.” (Morrison, White & Van Velsor, 1987, p.49).

Furthermore, contrary to the findings of some researchers, Morrison, *et al.* (1987) found that executive women were not more impulsive, not better able to reduce interpersonal conflict, not more understanding or humanitarian, not more concerned with presentation of self, not more suspicious, not more touchy, not less dominant, not less self-confident, not less able to define and attain goals, not less optimistic about success, not less able to cope with stress, not less outgoing or sociable, not less self-disciplined or rational, not less intellectual, not less insightful, not less flexible and adaptable, not less even-tempered, not just as able to lead, influence, and motivate other group members, to be task-oriented and verbally effective when compared with their male counterparts (Morrison, *et al.*, 1987).

Schneier and Beatty (1978) maintain that many women are caught in a double bind as a result of stereotyping. Maddock (1999, p.46) supports this statement by saying that “many traditional cultures have socialized women to be humble and deferential. What have in the past appeared as female wiles or feminine ‘traits’ are in fact learned responses, many of which have been the only appropriate response for women given their powerlessness”. They are unable to optimally fulfil the role requirements for the more socially desirable, achieving individual and those for the ideal woman simultaneously. Added to this is the fact that society in general views their ideal woman as an expressive individual lacking in the male attributes of logic and drive. If she feels that, because she is not a man, she is not endowed with the competency characteristics ascribed to men, she may suffer from lack of confidence concerning her ability to do the job well.

Another possible result stems from the societal perception of men and women: many

women are afraid to show so-called masculine traits in case the display of such characteristics makes her appear less feminine. This analysis is supported by Lessing (1994), who argues that a complex web of management myths and values in exists in most organisations, that suggest that women are not fit to fulfil senior positions in an organisation.

On the other hand, Morrison (1988) states that results from initial studies done in the U.S.A. with a small group of high-level successful organisational women showed that these women had not submerged their so-called feminine traits or accepted the male-oriented values. These women retained values congruent with their nature – a high concern for the person rather than the task component on the Mouton-Blake matrix – but they have been able to integrate these values and traits effectively into their leadership styles.

This trend seems to be emerging in South Africa too, as was illustrated in an article in the in-house Barlow Rand magazine where a personnel and training consultant who ran a five-day training course stated that the qualities required in competent managers and supervisors were just as inherent in women as in men. Gender had nothing to do with it, and the key to becoming an effective, achieving manager was to behave like one (Barlows, 1987).

A White female manager stated that she, in practice, initially met with some resistance from the White male staff, but that it was soon sorted out when she proved she was capable of being the manager (Barlows, 1987).

Fenn (1976) concluded that the lack of progress of women derives from socialisation processes which emphasise independence, work, and career-orientation for males, and dependency and sex orientation for women. In support of this conclusion, Fenn (1976) referred to research conducted by the Human Engineering Laboratory of the Johnson O'Connor Research Foundation into the differences in inherent aptitudes and acquired knowledge between men and women. Results indicated that, of the 22 aptitude and knowledge areas measured, women excelled in six (among them finger dexterity, accounting aptitude, verbal persuasion, and abstract visualisation), men

excelled in two (grip structural visualisation) and there was no difference on 14 dimensions. This lead to the conclusion that there is no field of work, which based on aptitude, can claim to be the exclusive domain of either sex, based on aptitude (Fenn, 1976).

According to Bingham (1986), men were seen as the major stumbling block to the progress of women especially in the role of senior executive. Women felt these men were prejudiced and did not recognise their worth or accept them as people, first, and secondly as a woman. Women had to work harder to prove themselves, whereas man in a similar position was promoted naturally. It may well be that this prejudice is a major source contributing to the lack of advancement of women.

Respondents earning below R 40 000 (14%) consistently expressed lack of confidence, insecurity and inadequacy as problems, whereas only one of the women earning above this in salary mentioned these problems. Also of concern, was lack of acceptance and 21% of the respondents stated that they constantly had to prove themselves equal to or better than a male colleague. One of the junior managers felt that as women traditionally, in the past, would always be subordinate to men, whilst a senior manager saw inherent male domination as a major problem. This male prejudice was mentioned as a problem by 44% of the respondents (Bingham, 1986).

5.11 Cultural Background

Culture can be seen as playing an integral role in the way people plan and shape their lives. Unfortunately, culture is a very difficult concept to define. Kluckhohn and Kelly (in Koontz & O'Donnell 1972, p.90) "group all definitions of culture into two categories: (1) "By 'culture' we mean those historically created selective processes which channel men's reactions both to internal and to external stimuli;" and (2) culture as a descriptive concept: " A 'culture' is a historically derived system of explicit and implicit designs for living, which tends to be shared by all or specially designated members of a group."

The learning culture must also be taken into consideration. Here researchers refer to culture meaning “the norms and values that pervade the learning event, expressed by statements like ‘this is the way we like to do things in this programme/course/activity’. Culture, in other words, is about the ways in which tutors or managers of the learning situation and the learners themselves are expected to behave in relation to one another, and to the learning event; it is also about the values they share in relation to the learning event” (Harrison, 1988, p.243).

Within the culture of an apparently still male-dominant society, mainly men will evaluate women in promotional positions. It is of the utmost importance that objective systems of appraisal should be put in place to avoid a stereotyped approach. De Vries (1991) is of the opinion that objectivity could only be obtained if such systems are clearly outlined for those doing such evaluations.

Appraisal systems are seen to be necessary for the objective evaluation of employees’ performance and their subsequent promotion. Ideally, performance appraisal should be linked to specific criteria. Many jobs, however, have only a small proportion of definite task-orientated aspects. The essence of many jobs is thus not fully accounted for or captured.

In most cases men are responsible for conducting performance appraisals. The feeling is that, appraisals are often based on subjective judgements because of gender bias. This allows for discrimination to creep in. Vague definitions of specific person or a task-related dimension of jobs e.g. the ability to transform to management style, become very subjective. Task-related dimensions in appraisals are therefore sometimes seen as not sufficiently trustworthy to form the basis of an appraisal system. Various lawsuits have been won on gender discrimination in subjective appraisal systems.

Higher up in the managerial hierarchy specific personality factors would cease to be valid as performance criteria. For middle or lower levels of non-managerial staff, these subjective criteria are often linked to performance appraisals, which are also pay-related.

Women generally perceive a more progressive climate in some organisations than in others. The number of women already employed by an organisation, as well as the proportion of women relative to men in the top positions of an organisation, strengthens this perception. Women would think of the banking and retail sectors as being more favourable towards their advancement because of this factor (De Vries, 1991).

Moerdyk (in Taylor, 1987) came to the conclusion that most companies try to be fair in their evaluation and promotional policies. It is clear, however, that there are different points of view about the term fair, and that different policy implications might sprout from the specific presumptions that are concluded (Taylor, 1987 cited in Van Rensburg).

Van Rensburg (1991) states that one of the reasons for segregation in careers on grounds of gender, is the presumption that women should be restricted to a small number of careers due to the preference of employers to who themselves are committed to the employment of women. A kind of hesitation on the part of employers to appoint certain types of people has been described as statistical discrimination – an expression referring to a wrong decision made in regard to a person due to characteristics of the group to which he or she belongs.

The widespread acceptance of the presumption that levels of productivity differ between the two genders, is the basis on which employers make themselves guilty of statistical discrimination (Van Rensburg, 1991).

There are diverse opinions with regard to the influence of the size of organisations on the advancement of women as a group. Smaller organisations, because of more personal inter-staff relationships, are able to differentiate between potential for growth and ability to perform as workers. Advancement in smaller organisations could thus be more attainable than in bigger organisations. Larger organisations are seen as more bureaucratic and concerned about preserving the status quo.

The other hypothesis, that exists, is that larger firms have the finances as well as the organisational support structure to ensure the advancement of women. The hierarchy in larger organisations may be seen as an obstruction to removing discrimination or even knowing about the existence of discrimination within their ranks (De Vries, 1991).

Van Rooyen in his paper "Preparing Women For Management" presented to the Congress of the South African Society for Training and Development in 1983, argued that, due to the effects of socialisation and sex-role stereotyping, women do not see themselves as capable of fulfilling managerial roles beyond the first level of management. Due to this lack of managerial consistency, men and women are using different but complementary approaches in achieving their job objectives (Van Rooyen, 1983).

Van Rensburg is of the opinion that management in many cases believes that men and women's performance differ in the workplace. Therefore employers may be inclined to favour one group above the other. Jobs needing dexterity of hand will be given to women, whilst those needing physical strength will be passed on to men. Secondly, if the employer expects that women would leave the employment rather than the males, for example to raise children, he or she will rather engage them in work where little or no on the job-training will be needed, or compel them to pay for their own training. Witness of such career segregation can be found in sex-prejudiced job descriptions in the mass media. In spite of the efforts to make such post descriptions more neutral, advertisements for vacancies quite often are still connected to gender (Van Rensburg, 1991). In 2002, the researcher scrutinised various newspaper advertisements and could not find any unjustified advertisements related to gender -specific mentioning.

Brest (1991) feels that many women prevent themselves from reaching higher management positions due to the lack of confidence. One of the interventions required for increasing the advancement potential of women therefore relates to improving the self-esteem and self-confidence of women who are targeted for development into management.

As the survey results indicate that men and women are *ad idem* on what is required of them to succeed in their managerial roles, it can be argued that the drive to succeed in meeting managerial objectives amongst women could be lower than that of men, due to the low self-esteem and confidence of women. Men and women managers in the work situation could only confirm this theory after further research into the application of skills.

There is a clear distinction between the way in which people who have an internal orientation or a state of mind approaches success and the way that the people with a trait approach orientation, interpret success factors. The trait approach suggests that inherent female qualities prevent the female manager from succeeding. The alternative proposed above, however, suggests, that whilst women themselves are part of the problem, the impact of their negative self-perceptions can be reversed. This could not be achieved if women did not have the biological make-up required for managerial success (Brest, 1991).

Van Rensburg (1991) finds the attitudes of male managers very disturbingly negative in regard to female promotion in the business world. This, says Van Rensburg, is totally unacceptable. There are no grounds for discriminating against women in this regard (Van Rensburg, 1991).

Brest (1991) states that a supportive business environment for the development of the female managerial resource may involve structural changes in the organisation. For example, remuneration and benefit policies could be reviewed to ensure that the needs of working women are addressed as far as possible. Facilities such as child-care and maternity benefits are two examples of benefits, that have received increasing attention, since more women have become economically active.

In the seventies already, Fenn (1976) and Meyer (1975) commented on the need for organisations to provide positive role models for aspiring female managers. This can be achieved by allowing women access to horizontal and vertical development opportunities, that have traditionally been occupied by men, and ensuring that these

women have a supportive environment, that allows them to learn by their mistakes. Bennette (1998) reports, in an article in *Business Times*, that a lack of mentor support from women is still a huge issue in the working environment. Van der Merwe and Stander (2002) found, in their study on Women in IT, that the respondents to their study strongly indicated that women role models are important, but that “management positions are still dominated by men, making women role models a scarcity” (Van der Merwe & Stander, 2002, p.7).

An interpretation that is contrary to the survey results suggested above may be offered. This approach would suggest that, if men and women have the same perceptions, and these perceptions are based on their experiences as managers, factors inhibiting the progress of women do not exist in the organisational environment. Were this the case, one would expect to find evidence of the same mechanisms employed by both women managers and male managers, to overcome these obstacles in their perceptions of critical managerial competencies. As such, coping mechanisms would not be applicable to male managers. One would expect to find corresponding differences in male perceptions of critical managerial competencies. However, this interpretation is not supported by prior research in this area. Once again, it could be tested through further research into the way in which men and women apply their management skills in practice (Brest, 1991).

5.12 Conclusion

The South African woman, especially in the new political-social dispensation, has a totally new role to play in the workplace. Although motivation within a working place, as pointed out by Atchison (1990), is actually a global issue, the South African women of the present has to face quite acute problems which may be inherent to this country.

The issue of demographic profile as identified by James (1983), especially in the case of the African woman, may be a major stumbling block. The learning culture as emphasised by Harrison (1989) can play a significant role in changing of attitudes

towards women. To kill stereotyping myths as stipulated by De Vries (1991) could only hasten the process of establishing the woman's position in the workplace.

The South African working experience has been an uphill battle for most women. Socialisation, cultural orientation and the patriarchal system in which the South African market functions, are all factors that impact, negatively on women's upward movement in companies.

To bridge this problem, there will have to be real commitment from management as well as from women in general. Mothers will have to start educating their sons and daughters in different ways so that the traditionally accepted norms and standards do not play such an important role any more. Only through such an approach will we be able to break the stranglehold that culture has on the socialisation of our children and the impact that this role assumptions have in their adult lives.

In this chapter various factors and barriers that may impact on a woman's upward movement in the workplace have been discussed. The most relevant factors and barriers identified were, *inter alia*, discrimination (on the basis of race and gender); a lack of confidence in their own ability in playing a role in women's advancement in a company; and multiple role conflict (the conflict that a woman experiences with her role as mother, caregiver, employee, etc.). Other factors that impact on women are the various myths about their ability and commitment, as well as the generalisation and stereotyping that happens on an ongoing basis.

Another factor that plays an important role in how women make their career choices and on how they progress in a company is the fact that women are often discouraged from choosing so called non-traditional careers. Women are therefore also not encouraged to study in certain directions and they lack training in so-called male jobs. Women are also often dissatisfied with the way their careers progress and this may also impact on their upward mobility in the company. Values have been identified as a key factor in shaping the behaviour of people, the choices they make and the way they live their lives.

The cultural background of women also impact on their career choices and how they perceive their own worth in the job market. Another factor that needs to be taken into consideration is the management style that prevails in most companies. The way that managers (male managers, more often than not) perceive women and their role in the workplace, impacts directly on women in the working environment

The media will play an integral part in the education of people for changing the traditional roles. The geographically isolated women in rural areas will have to have more feedback and exposure on what happens out there in the real world. Is it possible through this type of exposure to bridge the problems of the past?

The following chapter will analyse the different research strategies that can be used to isolate the problems identified in the previous chapters. A hypothesis will be presented, which will be analysed in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH STRATEGY

6.1 Introduction

This research project has elements of both exploratory and confirmatory elements built into the system. Exploratory in this sense has to do with efforts for the purpose of finding out more about the elements, which have an effect on women's movement within the workplace. The word confirmatory in the full sense of the meaning within this thesis serves the purpose of either confirming or disregarding certain popular suppositions.

The choice of the type of research that is used depends on what the researcher hopes to achieve in the research document. There are three general types of research that can be undertaken, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and explanatory research. A short overview of these three types of research is discussed (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

6.1.1 Exploratory Research

The purpose of exploratory research is to examine a new interest or to analyse a subject of study which is relatively new and unstudied. The objectives of exploration research, according to Babbie (1992) and Mouton and Marais (1988) are:

- To satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding
- To test the feasibility of undertaking a more careful study
- To develop the methods to be employed in a more careful study or to act as a pre-survey
- To explicate central concepts and constructs
- To develop new hypotheses about existing phenomena.

The main shortcoming of exploratory research is that it seldom provides satisfactory answers to research questions.

6.1.2 Descriptive Research

With descriptive research the major purpose is to describe situations and events. The focus can also be on the description of the frequency with which specific variables are present in a sample. Descriptive research focuses on the precise measurement and reporting of the characteristics of some portion of a population or phenomenon under study (Babbie, 1992).

6.1.3 Explanatory Research

The focus of explanatory research is the discovering and reporting of the relationships among different aspects of the phenomena under study (Babbie, 1992).

6.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Quantitative research focuses on the “hard science” of research. It also focuses on the collection and analysis of numeric information under tight control. It usually focuses on a small sample of specific concepts and starts from preconceived ideas about relationships of concepts. It follows a structured data collection method and there is some form of control in place. The emphasis is placed on objectivity and there is a numerical analysis of the data (Highfield, 2001).

Qualitative research is the so-called “soft science”. It focuses on the collection and analysis of subjective and narrative information with less control. The entire phenomenon (not only specific concepts) is being examined. It stresses the importance of a person’s interpretation, not the researcher’s interpretation. Unstructured data collection methods are used in the analysis of data and it focuses on the total context, not on control. Qualitative research attempts to capitalise on the subjective and analyses narrative information in intuitive fashion (Highfield, 2001).

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods have merit in the study of the upward movement of women in the workplace. Babbie (1992, p.283) emphasises

that one of the key strengths of field research lies in “the comprehensiveness of perspectives it gives researchers. By going directly to the social phenomena under study and observing it as completely as possible, they can develop a deeper and fuller understanding of it”. Qualitative research may therefore recognise several nuances of attitude and behaviour that might escape a researcher using purely quantitative research methodology (Orford, 1992).

The value of quantitative analysis is that data can be validated and can assist in the “numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect” (Babbie, 1992, p.G5).

6.3 Choice of Research Method

The type of information that a researcher would like to assemble and what needs to be done with this information will mainly influence the topic of a research method. Each of the different methods of research has its strengths and weaknesses, and certain concepts are more appropriate for specific studies than others. The most commonly used research methods, as described by Babbie (1992) and Mouton and Marais (1985) are experiments, unobtrusive research, evaluation research and survey research. These four types of research methodologies will be discussed briefly.

6.3.1 Experiments

Experiments are usually used when a researcher wants to analyse the testing of causal processes. Experiments involve the taking of action and the observing of the consequences of that action. Experiments are well suited to research projects that involve relatively limited and well-defined concepts and propositions. It is often used for testing a hypothesis and is better suited to explanatory rather than descriptive purposes. Experiments can also be used for the study of small group interaction. The main problem with experiments is that they are often used in simulated environments and therefore do not

describe real life (Babbie, 1992; Mouton & Marais, 1985).

6.3.2 Unobtrusive Research

Unobtrusive research measures refer to ways of studying social behaviour without affecting it in the process. The main problems with this type of research are reliability and validity (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

6.3.3 Evaluation Research

Evaluation research refers to the research purpose rather than a specific research method. It is a good example of applied research in social science and is especially appropriate whenever a social intervention is undertaken. Evaluation research typically uses experimental or quasi-experimental designs. Evaluation research entails special logistical and ethical problems because it is embedded in the day-to-day events of real life (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

6.3.4 Survey Research

Survey research is one of the oldest and also one of the most used research methodologies known to man. Surveys may be used for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory purposes. This method can also be used to study groups or interactions between groups. This method of research is mainly used in studies that have individual people as the units of analysis. Survey research is probably the best method available for collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly. This method of research is often referred to as sample surveys. Careful probability sampling provides a group of respondents whose characteristics may be taken to reflect those of the larger population (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

Surveys can be classified by the following methods of obtaining information; Self-administered questionnaires telephone surveys, personal interviews, and panel interviews (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

For the purpose of this study, the self-administered questionnaire will be utilised and discussed.

The self-administered questionnaire has several advantages and disadvantages. One of the major benefits of using the self-administered questionnaire is that the instrument is completed without the influence or bias of the researcher impacting on the respondent. Greater privacy is also assured, but the increased likelihood of incomplete questionnaires is a threat to the study (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

The low response rate on the return of self-administered questionnaires is a major stumbling block for a researcher. To try and overcome this stumbling block researchers sometimes apply incentives by which the respondents are rewarded with a prize or some monetary returns to encourage them to complete the survey. Unfortunately this sometimes leads to the perception that confidentiality cannot be maintained. Another way of persuading people to participate, is to ensure that they receive feedback on the survey. It is also very important to remind respondents to return their questionnaires. This can be done through message flags, postcards or by sending follow-up letters (Dane, 1990 and Kerlinger, 1986). The main idea behind such an approach is the fact that respondents feel co-responsible for the successful outcome of such a study; **we** do the study instead of **I** alone (Babbie, 1992 and Mouton & Marais, 1985).

6.4 Hypothesis

After an analysis of the literature was conducted (Chapter 5), various career barriers were identified, as indicated in the previous sections of this thesis. An analysis of all the career barriers discussed indicated that various categories of career barriers could be analysed. The researcher felt that the classification by Swanson, Daniels and Tokar fitted into the parameters set for this research document. It was decided to test the thirteen broad career barriers as classified into categories by Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996). These career barriers will be tested by examining the

following hypothetical statements:

Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to the following thirteen identified career barrier categories:

1. Lack of Confidence
2. Sex Discrimination
3. Multiple-Role Conflict
4. Conflict between children and career demands
5. Racial Discrimination
6. Inadequate Preparation for the job
7. Disapproval by Significant others
8. Decision-Making Difficulties
9. Dissatisfaction with Career scale
10. Discouraged from Choosing non-traditional careers
11. Disability / Health Concerns
12. Job Market Constraints
13. Difficulties with Networking / Socialisation

The alternative Hypothesis will be that:

H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to the following thirteen identified career barrier categories:

1. Lack of Confidence
2. Sex Discrimination
3. Multiple-Role Conflict
4. Conflict between children and career demands
5. Racial Discrimination
6. Inadequate Preparation for the job
7. Disapproval by Significant others
8. Decision-Making Difficulties
9. Dissatisfaction with Career scale
10. Discouraged from Choosing non-traditional careers
11. Disability / Health Concerns
12. Job Market Constraints
13. Difficulties with Networking / Socialisation

6.5 The Research Design

6.5.1 Analysis of Existing Policies, Procedure and Practices

During 1999, the Sample Company and its two subsidiaries embarked on an Employment Equity Process. To this end, an Employment Equity Forum was established to evaluate, examine and make recommendations to the management committee of the company with regards to various issues pertaining to the employment relationships within the company. Appendix C (on page 194) gives an overview of the Employment Equity Forum's constitution.

An external consultant was contracted to evaluate all the policies, procedures and practices within the company. The mandate of the consultant was to establish whether the policies, procedures and practices within the company were fair and equitable, and excluded discriminatory practises. The consultant went about analysing the written policies and made recommendations with regard to the policies, that contained discriminatory practices. She then went about interviewing people and establishing work groups to investigate the practices and procedures within the company. Where discriminatory practices were identified, recommendation was made to the Employment Equity Forum with regards to the elimination of these practices.

The evaluation of policies and procedures also included contacting competitors in the market to find out what they were doing with regard to policies and procedures. The committee looking at policies and procedure found that the company's policy and procedure were very progressive in the market place. As a result of this evaluation, recommendations were made in 2001 to change the companies Maternity Leave Policy to give the company a bit of a competitive edge when looking at female employees. The main competitors in the market place offered 75% of total salary for a female employee with three years or more in service. The Sample Company's policy on maternity leave at this stage was that all female employees up to

Grade 7 qualified for the difference between UIF payment and 60% of their salaries during maternity leave and senior (Grade 9 and above) employees qualified for the full 60% (this policy was for people with more than one year service but less than three years). Everybody with three years or more of service, qualified for 75% of their salary (within the guidelines of UIF as supplied by Government). After a cost analysis was done, the recommendation was made that all female employees with one year or more of service should qualify for four-months' full pay during their maternity leave. This policy ensured that all females are treated equally, irrespective of their level in the company, and also ensured that people were not dependant on the UIF contributions any more. This policy was put into place from 2001 and is one of the policies that gives the company a competitive edge in the market.

It was also found that very few of the competitors had a disability policy in place and that the Companies Employment Equity Process was much more inclusive than that of the competitors.

It was also found that the company's leave policy was among the best in the market place. The company offers twenty working days' leave for employees up to grade 7, twenty-five working days' leave for employees in grades 9 – 12 and 28 days' leave for grades 13 and above.

The fact that the Sample Company is linked to a Bank and offers all the Banking Benefits to its employees is also a plus. Most of the competitors in the market are not linked to Banks and can therefore not offer the Staff Banking Benefits.

The Employment Equity Forum was disbanded in August 1999 after the Employment Equity Plan was submitted to the department of Labour. An Employment Equity Monitoring Committee was put in its place, with the mandate to *inter alia* focus on the following items:

- This committee will operate within the guidelines recommended by the Code of Good Practice for the Preparation, Implementation, and Monitoring of Employment Equity Plans and the provisions of the Employment Equity Act, of 1998.
- The committee is charged with the following responsibilities:
 - Ensure the provisions of the Act are enforced
 - Review the equity plan and report prior to submission
 - Report and make recommendations to the Executive Committee regarding non-compliance with the Equity Plan
 - Ensure full and sufficient records are kept
 - Review disputes relating to equity that remain unresolved after the usual channels have been followed
 - Agree appropriate benchmarks

The researcher serves as the secretary of this committee. For the Full Employment Equity Monitoring Committee Mandate, please see Appendix D, page 202.

The Employment Equity Monitoring Committee and The Company has committed itself to the following mission statement, as published in The Newsletter (March 2001):

"The Company is committed to creating, developing and maintaining an equitable and non-discriminatory culture in an environment that promotes and values openness, human dignity, diversity and superior performance for all its people."

One of the objectives of the Company's Employment Equity Plan is to send all the employees on a Valuing Diversity Workshop. These Workshops focus on all the differences and similarities of the different races, cultures, religions, gender issues and the impact of the past on the current behaviour of employees. For purposes of consistency, the same external facilitator is used to present all workshops. Each workshop is representative of the mix of employees in the company.

The Employment Equity Monitoring Committee has received a considerable amount of feedback regarding Equity issues from people attending the

Valuing Diversity Workshops. Some of the feedback received refers to specific barriers that are still experienced within the company. The Employment Equity Monitoring Committee has committed itself to completing the Valuing Diversity Workshops for all staff; to analyse the trend that comes out of these workshops; and to give feedback to all staff regarding the issues that have arisen. One of the other actions to which the Employment Equity Monitoring Committee has committed itself, was to identify and conduct a focused Employment Equity survey to get honest feedback from staff regarding possible and perceived barriers in the company.

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, the Employment Equity Monitoring Committee has a standing item on their Agenda to discuss the extent to which there still are discriminatory practices in the company and a “non-compliance” item to evaluate and discuss the possibility of business units implementing discriminatory practices and procedure outside policy. The Employment Equity Monitoring Committee gave the researcher the mandate to do an analysis of possible barriers that might still exist in the company after two years of formal eradication of all discriminatory practices, procedures and policies.

6.5.2 Drawing the sample

Before the researcher was allowed to do this study, a full proposal on the content and purpose of the study, as well as the questionnaires that were to be used, had to be presented to the Risk Committee of the Company. Anything that might impact on the company, the company’s image, or expose the company in any way whatsoever, had to be approved by the Risk Committee. The Risk Committee then supplied guidelines within which a person was allowed to operate. Regular feedback had to be given to the Risk Committee as well.

The researcher did evaluate the possibility of looking at doing a comparative study in the market place, but the Risk Committee did not want to approve this, seeing that all companies that participate in such a study have to be

willing to provide their results to all the participating companies. The Risk Committee did approve the using of the Sample Company as well as its two Subsidiaries, for the purpose of this study. The Risk Committee also demanded that the Sample Company, and the Subsidiaries would not be identifiable in any way. To ensure that some comparison is done in the study, the researcher decided to solicit the Subsidiaries to participate in the study as well. For the purpose of this study, they will be called Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B. Subsidiary A had 108 permanent employees and Subsidiary B 123 permanent employees as at 28 February 2001. For the purpose of this study, all permanent employees (N = 428), excluding the Namibian Operation, in the working environment of the Sample Company were solicited to participate in the study. Statistics from the Payroll Department showed that the company had 428 permanent employees (excluding the 17 people from the Namibian Operation) as at 28 February 2001.

6.5.3 Data Collection Method

Although the likelihood of misunderstanding of items, and of people ignoring the survey was a major threat to the collection of data, it was decided, from a practical point of view, to administer the questionnaires by means of a mail survey. All the respondents in the company have access to an internal e-mail system and it was decided to utilize this means of distributing the questionnaire.

During the first week of March 2001, the Self-Administered Questionnaires were distributed, via the company's internal e-mail system, to all the permanent employees in the Sample Company, Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B. This Questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter (See Appendix A, page 186) explaining the purpose of the study, what it was about and why it was important for the employees to complete the questionnaire for the survey. Weekly messages flags were posted on the system to remind all

respondents that had not completed and returned the questionnaires, to do so.

The anonymity of the respondents and the confidentiality of the study were emphasized to further encourage people to take part in the study. The commitment and endorsement of the company's Employment Equity Forum were emphasized and the respondents were given the commitment that feedback would be made available to the whole company. The researcher's contact details were supplied in case respondents had questions or queries regarding the content of the questionnaire, or if they just wanted to contact her to discuss their personal experiences.

The respondents were allowed a three-week period in which to complete the questionnaires and return them to the researcher. Respondents were also given the option to print out the questionnaires and complete them by hand, should they have any concerns regarding the confidentiality of return via the internal e-mail system.

An analysis was conducted on the number of returns received during the first week in April 2001. The researcher personally visited the areas that showed a low return rate and an overview of the importance of the research was discussed with the people. They were again requested to complete the questionnaires and send them back to the researcher, no later than 30 April 2001.

6.5.4 Data Analysis

The resultant data from the study were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer package (Healey, Babbie & Halley, 1997 and Kirkpatrick & Feeney, 2001). Cross tabulation was applied with the demographical items in order to compile a profile of the respondents to the survey. This was followed by a frequency distribution analysis to determine the extent of the impact of the thirteen categories of barriers on the respondents. A correlation analysis was done to determine

whether there was any correlation between gender and the extent to which the barriers impact on respondents' lives.

6.5.5 Measures

Various measurement instruments are available to measure career barriers and the perceived impact on upward mobility. Quite a few instruments were investigated before the decision was made to use the Career Barrier Inventory, Revised of Swanson, Daniels and Tokar. These instruments will be discussed briefly later in this chapter.

The Career Transition Inventory (CTI) is “a 40-item, Likert-type instrument designed to assess an individual's internal process variables that may serve as strengths or barriers when making a career transition. The responses of the items range between 1 (strongly agree) and 6 (strongly disagree). Factor analytic studies revealed five factors: (a) Career Motivation (Readiness), (b) Self-Efficacy (Confidence), (c) Social Support (Support), (d) Internal/External (Control) and (e) Self vs. Relational Focus (Independence-Interdependence). High scores are positive and indicate that the person is perceiving him/herself to be doing well in that area, low scores indicate barriers”. This instrument provides a “vehicle for understanding the assumptions and perceptions that an individual hold about themselves and the work world” (Hepner, 1997, p.2-3).

Jopie van Rooyen and Partners [s.a.] compiled a catalogue of products that assist in assessing the career concerns, beliefs, decision-making processes and attitudes of people when making career choices. These products were reviewed for use in this study. It was decided not to use any of these products in assessing the career barriers experienced on a day-to-day basis. These products will be briefly discussed to indicate the types of barriers that they do assess.

The Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI) developed by Super, Thomson and Lindeman [s.a.] helps to determine the employees' career development

and life stages. They identified four life stages, namely “exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement”. The career development of an employee can be tailored to the available opportunities within that stage of development (van Rooyen *et al.*, s.a., p.1). The focus of this instrument is to narrow, focussing more on life stages than on barriers and it therefore is not sufficient for this type of research.

Another product that Van Rooyen and Partners [s.a.] advertise in their catalogue is the Career Attitudes and Strategies Inventory (CASI). This instrument was developed by Holland and Gottfredson and focuses on identifying attitudes related to career and career-related problems. The CASI is a self-administered and self-scoring instrument that profiles nine aspects of career or work adaptability. These nine aspects are “job satisfaction, work involvement, skill development, dominant style, career worries, interpersonal abuse, family commitment, risk-taking style and geographical barriers”. These scales prove a “brief survey of attitudes, barriers, expectations, or strategies that may merit further exploration”. The CASI also makes provision in a special section on the answer sheet, to allow respondents to “check specific areas of concern from a list of 21 potential career obstacles (e.g. health or emotional problems, financial worries, education).” This instrument was carefully evaluated, but seemed too cumbersome for the target population to complete. The statistical analysis from this was also in question, seeing that there were no norms against which to benchmark the outcome (Van Rooyen & Partners, [s.a.], p.4).

Another instrument that were considered was the Life Role Inventory (1993, p.1, supplied by the HSRC). “The LRI is an instrument with 170 items divided into three components, namely Participation, Commitment and Value Expectation, each examining the importance of five life-career roles: student, worker, community service, home and family (homemaker) and leasurite. The aim of the LRI is to assess the relative importance that an individual attaches to the five major life roles in order to lead a fulfilling and self-actualising life. The LRI is helpful in evaluating the individual’s

orientation to the various life roles, their readiness for career decisions and exposure to work and occupation.”

The Occupational Stress Inventory–Revised (OSI-R) (Samuel & Spokane, 1998, p.1): “...is a battery composed of three questionnaires, which measure occupational stress, psychological strain and coping resources. The instrument yields scores on 14 different scales ranging from “Role Overload” and “Interpersonal Strain” to “Self-Care”. The OSI-R is comprised of 140 items in total, written at a seventh grade reading level. Respondents indicate on a 5-point rating scale the frequency of a stress-related event.” This instrument is limited in its application and would not meet the requirements for this study on its own.

Another instrument that was evaluated was the Self-Directed Search (SDS) by Holland (1996). The SDS is a tool that was “designed to assist students and adults with career exploration, educational and career planning. This instrument is based upon the Holland “RIASEC” theory that people are most satisfied in work environments that reinforce their personalities. The SDS categorizes (sic) people as one of 6 personality types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional. This questionnaire was also found to be too narrow in its focus to be used as a gauge for impact of career barriers on upward movement in the company” (Holland, 1996, p.1).

The possibility of testing different work styles and how that relates back to perceived and real barriers were also evaluated. The tool that could be utilised for this is the Survey of Work Styles (SWS). This questionnaire focuses on a 96-item multidimensional measure of the Type A behaviour pattern. Respondents are asked to rate each item, on a 5-point Likert scale, how characteristic a described activity is of their work-related behaviour. The scoring of the test consists of summed 5-point weights for the “positively and negatively keyed items for each of six scales: **Anger, Time Urgency, Job Dissatisfaction, Impatience, Work Involvement, and Competitiveness.**

The SWS has been shown to be significantly more highly associated with the Rosenman Structured Interview than are other popular measures of the Type A behaviour pattern” (Jackson & Gray, 1997, p.1). The results of this questionnaire provide managers with an enhanced understanding of their work behaviours, assisting them in the development of effective work styles and personal relations. This survey again only measures some of the identified career barriers.

Seeing that discrimination has been highlighted as one of the major components that could impact on a woman's upward movement in the company, it made sense to evaluate the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES). This instrument “was developed to measure attitudes toward the equality of men and women and contains items that require judgement about both men and women assuming non-traditional roles. The instrument contains 95 attitudinal statements which are answered on a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The SRES contains five 19-item scales covering the following domains: **Educational Roles, Employment Roles, Marital Roles, Parental Roles, Social-Interpersonal-Heterosexual Roles**” (King & King, 1993, p.1).

The instruments used in this study included a Demographic Data Questionnaire designed for the purpose of the study and the Career Barriers Inventory-Revised (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996) to determine the extent to which barriers impacted on the career advancement of female employees in the working environment of the sample company and its subsidiaries.

- **The Demographic Data Questionnaire (Appendix A, on page 186)**

The Demographic Data Questionnaire consisted of thirteen (13) fields with various subfields, designed by the researcher to obtain the demographic data relevant to the sample description and the family situation, educational level, seniority level, gender and department location of the respondents.

- **Career Barrier Inventory - Revised (CBI-R) (Appendix B on page 190)**
Professor Jane Swanson (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996) did extensive research on the issue of career barriers (Swanson, 1992; Swanson, 1994; Swanson & Daniels, 1994; Swanson & Daniels, 1995; Swanson & Ryan, 1995; Swanson & Tokar, 1991; Swanson, Daniels & Tokar 1996). Initially her studies focused only on the career psychology of women, but she expanded her more recent studies to address the applicability of the barriers construct to other populations.

The initial instrument was called the Career Barrier Inventory, or CBI. The scales of the original CBI “were formed by factor analytical methods, and, although purity of factors and clarity of interpretation were important in choosing a factor solution (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b), the definition of scales was determined by the empirical results of factor analyses. In the most recent version of the CBI, resulting in the current version (CBI-R), the goal evolved so that the rational aspects of content and definition of the scales were considerate on an equal footing with empirical consideration and, at times, took precedence over empirical evidence” (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p. 223).

Swanson's (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996) research up to date has focused primarily on the development of a psychometric sound instrument. The initial instrument was lengthy and therefore precluded its use in many research projects. A shortened version was therefore needed to further the study of career-related barriers. The other major problem with the CBI was that the item content of several scales needed revision. Items were rewritten for clarity and items that overlapped in content were deleted or re-assigned to different item scales. A shortened version of the CBI was developed to address these concerns (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

The revision of the CBI was completed in two steps. The initial goal was to reduce the length of the instrument and further to that many scales

seemed considerably longer than was necessary to adequately measure the construct to be tested. Some items were subsequently rewritten to clarify the meaning and some items were shifted from one scale to another within the instrument, based either on empirical or rational reasons. The original length of 112 items was reduced to an 84-item version of the CBI with 16 scales.

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.224) describe the revision of the CBI as follows:

“The original development and validation sample of 558 college students (Swanson & Tokar, 1991b) was used to develop a shortened version, the CBI-Short (CBI-S; Swanson, 1994). Items were evaluated based on item-scale correlations, items intercorrelations (sic) within scales, and item content. Three types of revision were made: (a) Twenty-eight items were deleted, reducing the number of items from 112 to 84 and reducing the number of scales from 18 to 16; (b) 7 items were reassigned to other scales; and (c) 6 items were rewritten to increase clarity. In deleting items, care was taken to eliminate redundancy and maintain unique content. A series of factor analyses was conducted to examine the underlying structure of the CBI-S. Based on the factor solutions, a 16-scale structure was retained.

These decisions were then evaluated using several data sets. The primary source of information was a sample of 222 college students (79 men and 143 women) who took the 84-item CBI-S (Swanson & Daniels, 1994b). Two additional samples were used to provide supplementary information: (a) a sample of 177 college students (76 men and 101 women) who took the original 112-item CBI (Subich & Tokar, 1995) and (b) a sample of 279 college women who took the original 112 item CBI (Shuttleworth, 1992). Subjects in both of these secondary data

sets responded to the original 112-item CBI, so the decisions to eliminate items could be re-examined in these samples, allowing us to determine whether our revision decisions were based on idiosyncrasies of the original development sample. In general, the decision to eliminate or reassign items were (sic) not contraindicated by data obtained in these three samples."

The second phase in the revision of the CBI focused on shortening the instrument to incorporate a more extensive evaluation and revision of the structure and definition of the CBI scales. Based on the analysis of the sample described earlier, Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.224) describe this phase as follows:

" ... the CBI was thoroughly re-evaluated and revised. Five types of revisions were made: (a) 12 new items were written to expand the scope of coverage (such as increasing the number of items on the Racial Discrimination scale and creating a new Job Market Constraints scale), (b) 21 items were eliminated, (c) 4 items that initially had been dropped in the previous phase of the revision were reinstated, primarily to insure adequate coverage of specific content, (d) all of the items were reviewed for clarity of wording, and (e) the items were presented in random order on the instrument rather than with other items from the same scale.

In the current version of the CBI, reassignments of items were usually based on rational consideration of the content and occasionally meant overriding the prevailing empirical evidence. For example, in the original version, " Experiencing sex discrimination in hiring for a job" loaded on a factor with items related to racial and age discrimination in hiring and so was placed on the Age and Racial Discrimination scale where its content clearly fit better."

The changes that were made to the wording were minor and were focused on making items more personally relevant or to clarify the intent of the item. The final changes made in the current version of the CBI was to:

“... randomise the order of presentation of items within the instrument. Previously, items were arranged according to approximate stages of career development, such as choosing a major, getting a job, advancing in career, and balancing work and family concerns. However, items occasionally seemed to be empirically related to one another primarily because of their contiguous placement, so we decided to rearrange the items to remove this effect (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p.225).

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.223) also refer to the fact the CBI "is beginning to be acknowledged as a useful instrument, particularly as researchers are increasingly recognizing the potential role of perceptions of barriers in career choice (Hackett & Lonborg, 1993 and Russell & Eby, 1993)".

Taking the aforementioned into consideration, the researcher contacted Prof. Swanson regarding the utilisation of the specific questionnaire in the South African context and was given the kind approval to go ahead and utilise it, providing that the statistical analysis was fed back to Prof. Swanson for further research and inclusion in her database.

Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996, p.289-239) found in their research that: "The CBI is intended to be a multidimensional assessment of potential barriers, measuring barriers assigned from a variety of origins, including internal, external, and interactional sources. Certain barrier scales clearly are most closely related to the person factor (e.g. lack of confidence and decision-making difficulties), where other barrier scales (e.g. racial discrimination, sex discrimination, discouraged from choosing

nontraditional careers, disability/health concerns) are more appropriately considered contextual influences."

The CBI-R is a comprehensive, psychometrically sound tool for the assessment of career related barriers (Swanson, Daniels, & Tokar 1996). The CBI-R consists of 70 items scored on 13 scales. It was standardised on a sample of 100 college students. Respondents rated the potential impact on their careers of each of the 70 barriers using a 7-point Likert-type scale. The seven points that were provided were: (1) the item would not hinder the respondent at all; (2) the item would not hinder the respondent that much; (3) the item would not hinder the respondent; (4) neutral; (5) the item would hinder the respondent somewhat; (6) the item would hinder the respondent; (7) the item would hinder the respondent completely (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996).

The internal consistency coefficient of the CBI-R ranges from .64 to .86, with a median of .77 (Swanson & Daniels, 1995b in Swanson & Daniels 1996, p.231).

Intercorrelations among the CBI-R scales were generally high, ranging from .27 to .80, with a median of .60 (Swanson & Daniels, 1996, p.231).

The Career Barrier Inventory-Revised was found to be the most useful tool for assessing and understanding the factors that interfere with the career development process. An analysis was conducted of tools that were available to assess people's perceptions of career barriers and how these barriers impact on the career choices of people in general.

The questions related to these scales are depicted in Appendix B (on page 190). These 13 scales are:

1. Lack of Confidence (four items)
2. Sex Discrimination (seven items)
3. Multiple-Role Conflict (eight items)
4. Conflict between children and career demands (seven items)

5. Racial Discrimination (six items)
6. Inadequate Preparation (five items)
7. Disapproval by Significant others (three items)
8. Decision-Making Difficulties (eight items)
9. Dissatisfaction with Career scale (five items)
10. Discouraged from Choosing non-traditional careers (five items)
11. Disability / Health Concerns (three items)
12. Job Market Constraints (four items)
13. Difficulties with Networking / Socialisation (five items)

6.6 Conclusion

The incorporation of both quantitative and qualitative research methods, together with sound research methodology, should contribute to the value of the research findings and the recommendations made.

Chetty (1999) found that gender discrimination was still rife in South Africa in the 1990s. The stereotypical attitudes of men and certain women in the work environment still existed in a variety of gender related issues (Chetty, 1999, p.147). Attitudes and circumstances are fast changing in the country. What was still valid at the beginning of 1999, as concluded by, for example Chetty, might have entirely changed within a year.

The evaluation of the employee's perceptions with regard to the thirteen barriers, taking into consideration that the company went through an intensive audit process to eradicate all possible discriminatory policies, procedure and practices, will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS, TYPOLOGIES AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will focus on the analysis of the data to support or reject the set hypotheses. All permanent employees (excluding the Namibian operation) in the working environment of the Sample Company were solicited to participate in the study. Statistics from the Payroll Department showed that the company had 428 permanent (excluding the 17 people from the Namibian operation) employees as on 28 February 2001. 126 employees returned completed questionnaires for a 29% response rate.

For purposes of comparison the subsidiaries of this company were also solicited to participate in the study. For the purpose of this study, they will be called Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B. Subsidiary A had 108 permanent employees and 27 returned their questionnaire for a response rate of 25%. Subsidiary B had 123 permanent employees and 25 returned their questionnaire for a response rate of 19%.

All respondents were assured that the participation in the research project was voluntary, that anonymity would be protected and that responses would be confidential.

7.2 Socio-Demographic information regarding the respondents

In this section, the results of the frequency analysis of the demographical characteristics of the respondents will be discussed.

7.2.1 Frequencies

Descriptive statistics merely summarise a set of sample observations. It can describe either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship among variables in a sample (Babbie, 1992). The objective of descriptive statistics, according to

Kinner and Taylor (1991, p.546) is to “provide summary measure of the data contained in all the elements of a sample”.

The frequency distribution “is the device generally used to describe a large set of data” (Summers & Peters, 1973, p.26). A frequency distribution shows the number of observations falling into each of several ranges and values. Frequency distributions can be portrayed as frequency tables, histograms or polygons. Frequency distributions can show either the actual number of observations falling in each range or can portray the distribution as a percentage of observations. If it is portrayed as a percentage of observations, the distribution is called a relative frequency distribution.

The preparation of a frequency distribution usually occurs in four steps. Summers and Peters (1973, p.26) describe those steps as:

1. Subdivide the range of values into convenient classes.
2. Sort the observations into these classes.
3. Count and record the number of observations in each class.
4. Summarize the results in a table, graph or both.

In this study, quantitative data were utilized. Quantitative data usually come in two formats, which relate to frequencies and continuous measures. Table 7.1 formalises the ranges that were used in this study, showing the observations and the amount of responses, and summarises this information in a percentage format.

TABLE 7. 1
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
SAMPLE COMPANY

	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL	%
RACE						
WHITE	36	69%	51	69%	87	69%
INDIAN	2	4%	6	8%	8	6%
COLOURED	10	19%	12	16%	22	17%
AFRICAN	4	8%	5	7%	9	7%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
AGE						
19 – 25	1	2%	4	5%	5	4%
26 – 30	6	12%	15	20%	21	17%
31 – 35	13	25%	20	27%	33	26%
36 – 40	8	15%	17	23%	25	20%
41 – 50	20	38%	16	22%	36	29%
51 – 60	4	8%	2	3%	6	5%
60 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
MARITAL STATUS						
NEVER MARRIED	7	13%	9	12%	16	13%
DIVORCED	3	6%	12	16%	15	12%
MARRIED	39	75%	46	62%	85	67%
LIVING TOGETHER	2	4%	6	8%	8	6%
WIDOWED	1	2%	1	1%	2	2%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN						
0	15	29%	20	27%	35	28%
1- 2	26	50%	50	68%	76	60%
3 – 4	11	21%	3	4%	14	11%
5 - 6	0	0%	1	1%	1	1%
6 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 18						
0	17	33%	22	30%	39	31%
1- 2	28	54%	50	68%	78	62%
3 – 4	7	13%	2	3%	9	7%
5 - 6	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
6 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%

	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL	%
<u>INCOME PER ANNUM</u>						
< R 40 000	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
R 40 001 - R 60 000	1	2%	3	4%	4	3%
R 60 001 - R 80 000	4	8%	5	7%	9	7%
R 80 001 - R 100 000	2	4%	9	12%	11	9%
R 100 001 - R 130 000	3	6%	16	22%	19	15%
R 130 001 - R 160 000	1	2%	9	12%	10	8%
R 160 001 - R 200 000	2	4%	8	11%	10	8%
R 200 001 - R 250 000	6	12%	8	11%	14	11%
R 250 001 - R 300 000	8	15%	2	3%	10	8%
R 300 001 - R 400 000	14	27%	9	12%	23	18%
R 400 001 >	11	21%	5	7%	16	13%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
<u>LANGUAGE</u>						
ENGLISH	38	73%	57	77%	95	75%
AFRIKAANS	10	19%	13	18%	23	18%
OTHER	2	4%	1	1%	3	2%
XHOSA	1	2%	1	1%	2	2%
ZULU	1	2%	2	3%	3	2%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
<u>QUALIFICATIONS</u>						
STD 8	2	4%	2	3%	4	3%
STD 10	8	15%	26	35%	34	27%
DEGREE	13	25%	10	14%	23	18%
POSTGRADUATE DEGREE	15	29%	12	16%	27	21%
DIPLOMA	11	21%	16	22%	27	21%
CERTIFICATE	3	6%	8	11%	11	9%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
<u>TOWN OF RESIDENCE</u>						
JOHANNESBURG	22	42%	50	68%	72	57%
CAPE TOWN	29	56%	19	26%	48	38%
DURBAN	1	2%	3	4%	4	3%
PORT ELIZABERTH	0	0%	2	3%	2	2%
	52	100%	74	100%	126	100%
<u>GRADE</u>						
NIB 2 - 5	5	10%	10	14%	15	12%
NIB 07	4	8%	23	31%	27	21%
NIB 09	5	10%	16	22%	21	16%
NIB 10	19	37%	14	19%	33	26%
NIB 11	8	15%	4	5%	12	10%
NIB 12	5	10%	2	3%	7	6%
NIB 13	3	6%	2	3%	5	4%
NIB 13 >	3	6%	3	2%	6	5%
	52	100%	128	100%	126	100%

From TABLE 7.1, it is very clear that the majority of the male and female respondents in the Sample Company were white (69%), followed by coloured respondents (16%).

The majority of the respondents were in the age group 31 to 35 years old (27%). The male respondents were predominantly in the age category 41 - 50 (38%) and 25% of the female respondents fell in the age group 31 to 35 years old.

Sixty-eight per cent of the Sample Company respondents have one to two children and 68% have children below the age of 18 years. This might be a result of the age distribution of the company, which is quite young (78% of the males fell in the 31 to 50 year age category and 72% females were distributed around the 31 to 50 year group)

Twenty-seven per cent of the male respondents in the Sample Company earned between R300 000 and R400 000 per annum, and only 12% of the female respondents fell in this category. The bulk of the female respondents (22%) earned between R100 001 and R130 000 per annum, and only 6% of their male counterparts earned an equal salary. A possible explanation for the salary discrepancies is that 22% of the female respondents fell in the Grade 9 grading category (supervisory level), while the bulk of the male respondents (73%) were above the supervisory level (Grade 10 and above). Only 20% of the female respondents fell in the Managerial and Senior Managerial Levels of the company. We can therefore not conclude that the males in the Sample Company are better compensated than the females.

The language distribution in the Sample Company shows a clear tendency towards English-speaking people responding to the survey (73% male and 77% female). The next biggest group of respondents was Afrikaans-speaking (19% male and 18% female). 75% of the male respondents in the Sample Company have some kind of diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification, while only 38% of the female respondents have a diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification.

Although the bulk of the Sample Company's people were based in Johannesburg, the responses were distributed quite evenly for the males (42% based in Johannesburg and 56% based in Cape Town) while the female respondents were predominantly from Johannesburg (68%) with 26% coming from Cape Town.

TABLE 7.2
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
SUBSIDIARY A

	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL	%
<u>RACE</u>						
WHITE	5	63%	10	53%	15	56%
INDIAN	1	13%	3	16%	4	15%
COLOURED	2	25%	5	26%	7	26%
AFRICAN	0	0%	1	5%	1	4%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
<u>AGE</u>						
19 - 25	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
26 - 30	1	13%	0	0%	1	4%
31 - 35	3	38%	7	37%	10	37%
36 - 40	1	13%	2	11%	3	11%
41 - 50	1	13%	6	32%	7	26%
51 - 60	2	25%	4	21%	6	22%
60 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
<u>MARITAL STATUS</u>						
NEVER MARRIED	2	25%	3	16%	5	19%
DIVORCED	0	0%	3	16%	3	11%
MARRIED	6	75%	13	68%	19	70%
LIVING TOGETHER	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
WIDOWED	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
<u>TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN</u>						
0	4	50%	7	37%	11	41%
1 - 2	3	38%	9	47%	12	44%
3 - 4	1	13%	3	16%	4	15%
5 - 6		0%	0	0%	0	0%
6 +		0%		0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%

TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 18						
0	4	50%	8	42%	12	44%
1- 2	3	38%	8	42%	11	41%
3 – 4	1	13%	3	16%	4	15%
5 - 6		0%	0	0%	0	0%
6 +		0%		0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
INCOME PER ANNUM						
< R 40 000	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
R 40 001 - R 60 000	1	13%	3	16%	4	15%
R 60 001 - R 80 000	0	0%	2	11%	2	7%
R 80 001 - R 100 000	0	0%	3	16%	3	11%
R 100 001 - R 130 000	0	0%	4	21%	4	15%
R 130 001 - R 160 000	2	25%	2	11%	4	15%
R 160 001 - R 200 000	1	13%	1	5%	2	7%
R 200 001 - R 250 000	1	13%	2	11%	3	11%
R 250 001 - R 300 000	2	25%	2	11%	4	15%
R 300 001 - R 400 000	1	13%	0	0%	1	4%
R 400 001 >	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
LANGUAGE						
ENGLISH	7	88%	16	84%	23	85%
AFRIKAANS	1	13%	2	11%	3	11%
OTHER	0	0%	1	5%	1	4%
XHOSA	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ZULU	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
QUALIFICATIONS						
STD 8	0	0%	1	5%	1	4%
STD 10	2	25%	5	26%	7	26%
DEGREE	1	13%	2	11%	3	11%
POSTGRADUATE DEGREE	1	13%	1	5%	2	7%
DIPLOMA	2	25%	6	32%	8	30%
CERTIFICATE	2	25%	4	21%	6	22%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
TOWN OF RESIDENCE						
JOHANNESBURG	2	25%	5	26%	7	26%
CAPE TOWN	5	63%	13	68%	18	67%
DURBAN	1	13%	1	5%	2	7%
PORT ELIZABERTH	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%
GRADE						
NIB 2 - 5	1	13%	5	26%	6	22%
NIB 07	0	0%	5	26%	5	19%
NIB 09	2	25%	6	32%	8	30%
NIB 10	2	25%	1	5%	3	11%
NIB 11	2	25%	2	11%	4	15%
NIB 12	1	13%	0	0%	1	4%
NIB 13	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
NIB 13 >	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	8	100%	19	100%	27	100%

From TABLE 7.2, it is very clear that the majority of the male and female respondents in Subsidiary A were white (56%), followed by coloured respondents (26%).

The majority of the respondents were in the age group 31 to 35 years old (37%). The male respondents were predominantly in the age category 31 - 35 (38%) and 37% of the female respondents fell in the age group 31 to 35 years old.

Forty-four percent of the Subsidiary respondents have one to two 2 children and 41% have children below the age of 18 years. 50% of the male respondents did not have any children and 37% of the female respondents did not have any children at all.

The Earnings Distribution for the male respondents of Subsidiary A did not provide a clear distribution due to the low response rate. The female respondents were very evenly distributed amongst the different earning categories, although the bulk of the female respondents (84% of female respondents) were in the junior and up to supervisory level in the company.

The language distribution in Subsidiary A shows a clear tendency towards English-speaking people responding to the survey (88% male and 84% female). The next biggest group of respondents was Afrikaans-speaking (13% male and 11% female).

Fifty per cent of the male respondents in the Subsidiary A have some kind of diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification, while 47% of the female respondents have a diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification.

The bulk of the respondents of Subsidiary A are based in Cape Town and the response rate reflected this as well (25% male respondents based in Johannesburg and 63% based in Cape Town) while the female respondents were also predominantly from Cape Town (68%), with 26% from Johannesburg.

TABLE 7.3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
SUBSIDIARY B

	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL	%
RACE						
WHITE	12	80%	9	90%	21	84%
INDIAN	2	13%	0	0%	2	8%
COLOURED	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
AFRICAN	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
AGE						
19 – 25	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
26 – 30	4	27%	6	60%	10	40%
31 – 35	0	0%	1	10%	1	4%
36 – 40	1	7%	2	20%	3	12%
41 – 50	10	67%	1	10%	11	44%
51 – 60	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
60 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
MARITAL STATUS						
NEVER MARRIED	4	27%	1	10%	5	20%
DIVORCED	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
MARRIED	10	67%	7	70%	17	68%
LIVING TOGETHER	1	7%	2	20%	3	12%
WIDOWED	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN						
0	7	47%	3	30%	10	40%
1- 2	7	47%	6	60%	13	52%
3 – 4	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
5 - 6	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
6 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 18						
0	7	47%	4	40%	11	44%
1- 2	7	47%	5	50%	12	48%
3 – 4	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
5 - 6	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
6 +	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%

INCOME PER ANNUM						
< R 40 000	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
R 40 001 - R 60 000	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
R 60 001 - R 80 000	1	7%	0	0%	1	4%
R 80 001 - R 100 000	1	7%	2	20%	3	12%
R 100 001 - R 130 000	1	7%	2	20%	3	12%
R 130 001 - R 160 000	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
R 160 001 - R 200 000	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
R 200 001 - R 250 000	1	7%	3	30%	4	16%
R 250 001 - R 300 000	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
R 300 001 - R 400 000	1	7%	0	0%	1	4%
R 400 001 >	8	53%	1	10%	9	36%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
LANGUAGE						
ENGLISH	13	87%	9	90%	22	88%
AFRIKAANS	1	7%	1	10%	2	8%
OTHER	1	7%	0	0%	1	4%
XHOSA	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ZULU	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
QUALIFICATIONS						
STD 8	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
STD 10	2	13%	3	30%	5	20%
DEGREE	4	27%	2	20%	6	24%
POSTGRADUATE DEGREE	8	53%	1	10%	9	36%
DIPLOMA	1	7%	3	30%	4	16%
CERTIFICATE	0	0%	1	10%	1	4%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%
TOWN OF RESIDENCE						
JOHANNESBURG	0	0%	1	10%	1	4%
CAPE TOWN	14	93%	9	90%	23	92%
DURBAN	1	7%	0	0%	1	4%
PORT ELIZABERTH	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
	15	100%	10	100%	25	100%

From TABLE 7.3 it is clear that the majority of the male and female respondents in Subsidiary B were white (80%), followed by coloured respondents (26%).

The majority of the respondents were in the age group 41 to 50 years old (44%). The male respondents were predominantly in the age category 41-50 (67%) and 60% of the female respondents fell in the age group 26 to 30 years old.

Fifty-two percent of the Subsidiary's respondents have one to two children and 48% have children below the age of 18 years. Forty-seven percent of the male

respondents did not have any children and 44% of the female respondents did not have any children at all.

The Earnings distribution for the male respondents of Subsidiary B did not give a clear distribution due to the low response rate. Although eight respondents (53%) indicated that they earned above R 400 001 per annum, only one female fell in this category. The female respondents were very evenly distributed amongst the different earning categories.

The language distribution in Subsidiary B shows a clear tendency towards English-speaking people responding to the survey (87% male and 90% female). The next biggest group of respondents was Afrikaans-speaking (7% male and 8% female).

Eighty-seven per cent of the male respondents in Subsidiary B had some kind of diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification, while 60% of the female respondents had a diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification.

The bulk of the respondents from Subsidiary B were based in Cape Town and the response rate reflected this (93% based in Cape Town), while the female respondents were also predominantly from Cape Town (90%) with 10% from Johannesburg.

7.3 Results of Hypotheses tested

The questionnaires were presented to all permanent employees in the Sample Company, Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B, to determine the extend to which barriers impact on the career advancement of employees.

The CBI-R was used to measure the respondents' perceptions of their experience of thirteen career barriers.

7.3.1 Cronbach Alpha Values

The reliability of the questionnaire was statistically determined with the use of the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient is a measure of the correlation between observed scores and true scores. Reliability is therefore measured in terms of the ratio of true score variance to observed score variance (Winer, 1971 and Yu, 2001, p.2). Both Nunally and Cronbach (cited in Kline, 2000, p.43), "consider coefficient alpha to be the most important index of test reliability".

Taking the above into consideration, the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha values were calculated per division for all the variable groupings (e.g. Decision making difficulties, inadequate preparation, etc.) and tabulated below.

TABLE 7.4
CRONBACH ALPHA VALUES

DECISION MAKING DIFFICULTIES						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	27.04	12.149	126	0.887627	0.889407	0.510201
SUBSIDIARY A	26.37	13.613	27	0.926802	0.927851	0.631825
SUBSIDIARY B	30.84	13.505	25	0.91373	0.918643	0.612618
DISSATISFACTION WITH CAREER						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	18.516	8.2963	126	0.833184	0.833528	0.5058
SUBSIDIARY A	17.815	9.3769	27	0.88592	0.883652	0.620324
SUBSIDIARY B	19.16	6.7742	25	0.660638	0.654387	0.293443
DISCOURAGED FROM CHOOSING NON-TRADITIONAL CAREERS						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	12.873	7.1811	126	0.783562	0.78466	0.426231
SUBSIDIARY A	13.444	8.0112	27	0.853587	0.863639	0.570774
SUBSIDIARY B	12.4	6.8191	25	0.804211	0.799391	0.470704
DISABILITY/HEALTH CONCERNS						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	10.349	5.808	126	0.79528	0.797295	0.568608
SUBSIDIARY A	9.2222	5.8857	27	0.889341	0.887587	0.763229
SUBSIDIARY B	10.76	5.1662	25	0.70813	0.713117	0.46758

JOB MARKET CONSTRAINT						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	13.984	7.1498	126	0.85928	0.860731	0.611523
SUBSIDIARY A	13.333	6.989	27	0.820375	0.822342	0.537802
SUBSIDIARY B	14.792	6.9781	24	0.829594	0.826752	0.573926
DIFFICULTIES WITH NETWORKING						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	17.825	7.8242	126	0.820753	0.820826	0.482147
SUBSIDIARY A	16.296	8.6194	27	0.877114	0.878578	0.593513
SUBSIDIARY B	18.08	8.3911	25	0.858602	0.859846	0.561453
SEXUAL DISCRIMINATION						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	22.889	12.337	126	0.894891	0.897011	0.57457
SUBSIDIARY A	24.889	13.594	27	0.91534	0.915703	0.636534
SUBSIDIARY B	22.28	12.178	25	0.905945	0.908307	0.629365
LACK OF CONFIDENCE						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	12.516	6.9498	126	0.867356	0.867883	0.625005
SUBSIDIARY A	12.259	7.2938	27	0.843357	0.849656	0.594363
SUBSIDIARY B	13.4	7.1181	25	0.85193	0.852212	0.603528

MULTIPLE ROLE CONFLICT						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	25.691	11.697	126	0.868854	0.871506	0.467911
SUBSIDIARY A	27.074	14.804	27	0.937169	0.93949	0.680905
SUBSIDIARY B	27.8	11.273	25	0.875136	0.875269	0.485352
CHILDREN & CAREER						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	19.222	10.797	126	0.882544	0.882146	0.525874
SUBSIDIARY A	21.818	11.476	27	0.900573	0.902592	0.590218
SUBSIDIARY B	20.04	10.561	25	0.836805	0.829153	0.430712
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	21.818	11.175	126	0.882577	0.882723	0.566575
SUBSIDIARY A	22.741	12.916	27	0.938632	0.938706	0.740359
SUBSIDIARY B	22.76	11.501	25	0.907001	0.906681	0.63284
INADEQUITE PREPARATION						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	17.833	8.8569	126	0.8794	0.880022	0.602256
SUBSIDIARY A	17.407	9.6765	27	0.901425	0.902266	0.657125
SUBSIDIARY B	18.64	9.4202	25	0.93804	0.94045	0.768424

DISAPPROVAL BY SIGNIFICANT OTHERS						
	MEAN	STD.DV	VALIDITY	CRONBACH ALPHA	STANDARDISED ALPHA	AVERAGE INTER-ITEM CORRELATION
SAMPLE COMPANY	6.373	4.1966	126	0.791615	0.803689	0.586961
SUBSIDIARY A	6.1111	3.5877	27	0.666335	0.69147	0.43187
SUBSIDIARY B	5.92	3.0946	25	0.650017	0.672277	0.406136

7.4 Analysis of variance

The purpose of analysis of variance is to simultaneously test “for differences among several population means” (Summers & Peters, 1973, p.265). A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to test the hypothesis. The following six groups of respondents were formed and the 13 variable groupings’ means for these groups were compared.

- 1: Sample Company male
- 2: Sample Company female
- 3: Subsidiary A male
- 4: Subsidiary A female
- 5: Subsidiary B male
- 6: Subsidiary B female

The mean values, as well as the p-values are printed in the tables. The hypothesis, in every case, is that the mean value of group 1 = mean of group 2 = ... = mean of group 6. Thus, that all means are equal. In all cases the hypothesis fails to be rejected (at alpha level of 0.05), thus we cannot say that the means are significantly different. It therefore seems as if there is no real difference between the responses received from male and female respondents to the survey. The only area where there is a slight differentiation is in Subsidiary A. This might be explained by the fact that there were only eight male respondents and there were 19 female respondents.

TABLE 7.5.1
Decision Making Difficulty

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .94; p<. 4534
Groups	Decision Making Difficulty
1	27.44
2	26.76
3	32.25
4	23.89
5	31.00
6	30.60

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if the female respondents of Subsidiary A experienced slight problems with decision making as they came out as the lowest group in this set of questions.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Decision Making Difficulty, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Decision Making Difficulty, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.2
Dissatisfaction with Career

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .49; p < .7810
Groups	Dissatisfaction with Career
1	19.12
2	19.09
3	21.63
4	16.58
5	19.67
6	19.00

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if only the male respondents in Subsidiary A showed relative dissatisfaction with their careers. The female respondents in Subsidiary A showed relatively low dissatisfaction levels in comparison with the rest of the response groups.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Dissatisfaction with Career, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Dissatisfaction with career, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.3
Discouraged form following
Non-Traditional Careers

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .42; p<. 8326
Groups	Discouraged from Following Non- traditional Careers
1	12.15
2	13.38
3	14.75
4	12.89
5	11.47
6	13.80

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, only Subsidiary A shows some kind of variance between the responses from male and female respondents. It seems as if there might be a slight tendency for female respondents to feel that they are discouraged from following non-traditional careers, but the variance is not high enough to be significant.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Discouraged from following Non-Traditional Careers, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Discouraged from following Non-Traditional Careers, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.4
Disability /Health concerns

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .79; p< .5612
Groups	Disability / Health Concerns
1	10.88
2	9.97
3	11.63
4	8.21
5	11.00
6	10.40

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if the males in Subsidiary A show a small consideration for how their health impacts on their careers.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Disability / Health Concerns, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Disability / Health Concerns, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.5
Job Market Constraints

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .32; p < .8992
Groups	Job Market Constraints
1	14.12
2	13.89
3	15.50
4	12.42
5	14.71
6	14.90

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample either, it seems as if the female respondents of Subsidiary A feel that there are some job market constraints on them and their marketability.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Job Market Constraints, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Job Market Constraints, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.6
Difficulty with Networking

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .59; p<. 7046
Groups	Difficulty with Networking
1	18.35
2	17.46
3	19.00
4	15.16
5	18.93
6	16.80

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if the female Respondents of Subsidiary A and B find it slightly more difficult than the Male respondents to network with colleagues in the industry. That could be explained by the fact that the industry is a white male dominated environment.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Difficulty with Networking, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Difficulty with Networking, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.7
Sexual Discrimination

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .91; p<. 4733
Groups	Sexual Discrimination
1	20.50
2	24.57
3	27.75
4	23.68
5	21.93
6	22.80

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if the females in the Sample Company as well as in Subsidiary A experienced slightly more sexual discrimination than the males, but again, not at a significant rate.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Sexual Discrimination, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Sexual Discrimination, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.8
Lack of Confidence

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .43; p<. 8298
Groups	Lack of Confidence
1	12.81
2	12.31
3	14.88
4	11.16
5	13.53
6	13.20

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, it seems as if the Female Respondents in Subsidiary A lack confidence in themselves. The difference between the females of Subsidiary A and the rest of the respondents (excluding the males of Subsidiary A) is not significant.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Lack of Confidence, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Lack of Confidence, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.9
Multiple Role Conflict

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = 1.02; P < .4081
Groups	Multiple Role Conflict
1	25.83
2	25.59
3	33.63
4	24.32
5	25.87
6	30.70

Although the results in this particular sample are not significant, it does seem as if multiple role conflict does impact on the females in Subsidiary A and B.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Multiple Role Conflict, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Multiple Role Conflict, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.10
Children and Career

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = 1.29; P < .2702
Groups	Conflict Between Children and Career Demands
1	17.71
2	20.28
3	25.88
4	20.11
5	17.67
6	23.60

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, the statistic reflects that the male respondents of the Sample Company and Subsidiary B are the least affected by having children. It does seem as if having children impacts on the rest of the respondents. This factor needs to be investigated further.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Conflict between Children and Career Demands, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Conflict Between Children and Career Demands, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.11
Racial Discrimination

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .68; p < .6418
Groups	Racial Discrimination
1	22.67
2	21.22
3	26.38
4	21.21
5	25.07
6	19.30

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, the male respondents in Subsidiary A show a slight indication of experiencing possible racial discrimination in their area. The response rate was, however, too low to draw any real conclusions from this statistic (only eight male respondents).

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Racial Discrimination, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Racial Discrimination, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.12
Inadequate Preparation

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .61; p<. 6919
Groups	Inadequate Preparation
1	18.40
2	17.43
3	21.38
4	15.74
5	17.87
6	19.80

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample either, it seems as if more attention needs to be given to the preparation of females for their roles in the areas of responsibility.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Inadequate Preparation for the Job, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Inadequate Preparation for the Job, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

TABLE 7.5.13
Disapproval by Significant Others

Stat General Manova	Means F (5, 172) = .66; p<. 6552
Groups	Disapproval by Significant Others
1	6.02
2	6.62
3	7.88
4	5.37
5	5.80
6	6.10

Although the results are not significant in this particular sample, the responses received from the respondents show that respondents from the Sample Company do not indicate a significant problem with disapproval by significant others. In Subsidiary A, though it might be a problem from a male point of view.

The hypothetical statement Ho: There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Disapproval by Significant Others, can therefore not be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

The alternative Hypothesis H1: There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to Disapproval by Significant Others, can therefore be rejected at the alpha level of 0.05.

7.5 Correlation between the Thirteen Categories of Barriers.

The correlation between two variables reflects the degree to which the variables are related. According to Nunally (cited in Kline, 2000, p.176), Pearson's product Moment Correlation is "the best correlation coefficient for items with multi-point response modes". Pearson's correlation reflects the degree of linear relationship between two variables. It ranges from +1 to -1. When a correlation of +1 is obtained, it means that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between variables. The indicator: -1, shows a perfect negative (inverse) correlation and 0.0 show that there is no correlation at all (Hoaglin, Mosteller & Tukey, 1985 and Kline, 2000).

In TABLES 7.6.1 – 7.6.6, the correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers will be analysed for the Sample Company Males, Sample Company Females, Subsidiary A Males, Subsidiary A Females, Subsidiary B Males and Subsidiary B Females.

TABLE 7.6.1
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Sample Company Males

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.57*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers	.70*	.58*	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.72*	.61*	.62*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.74*	.62*	.72*	.72*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.64*	.67*	.51*	.59*	.49*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.76*	.69*	.88*	.75*	.71*	.65*	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.72*	.59*	.74*	.75*	.68*	.61*	.76*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.71*	.64*	.74*	.75*	.79*	.52*	.75*	.72*	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.50*	.54*	.66*	.56*	.59*	.39*	.66*	.58*	.67*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.69*	.60*	.72*	.74*	.69*	.66*	.86*	.71*	.62*	.56*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.76*	.62*	.71*	.76*	.76*	.66*	.80*	.84*	.72*	.51*	.73*	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.59*	.58*	.73*	.58*	.63*	.53*	.71*	.66*	.77*	.72*	.61*	.64*	-

* p < .05000.

N=52 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for the Sample Company Male Respondents, we find that the highest correlation is between Sexual Discrimination and Discouraged from Choosing a Nontraditional Career (.88). The lowest correlation was found between Conflict between Children and Career Demands and Difficulties with Networking / Socialization (.39).

TABLE 7.6.2
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Sample Company Females

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.89*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers	.75*	.76*	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.66*	.67*	.74*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.69*	.67*	.77*	.64*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.87*	.83*	.73*	.52*	.70*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.78*	.78*	.84*	.77*	.69*	.67*	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.82*	.77*	.83*	.70*	.78*	.78*	.79*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.84*	.74*	.75*	.71*	.64*	.68*	.74*	.77*	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.73*	.65*	.66*	.63*	.58*	.59*	.70*	.73*	.82*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.76*	.75*	.86*	.75*	.81*	.74*	.85*	.83*	.73*	.66*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.81*	.79*	.79*	.75*	.71*	.75*	.78*	.81*	.76*	.66*	.85*	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.55*	.51*	.73*	.61*	.62*	.49*	.60*	.67*	.72*	.69*	.62*	.56*	-

* p < .05000.

N=74 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for Female Respondents of the Sample Company, we find that the highest correlation is between Dissatisfaction With Career and Decision Making Difficulties (.89). The lowest correlation was found between Disapproval by Significant Others and Difficulties with Networking / Socialisation (.49).

TABLE 7.6.3
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Subsidiary A Males

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.88*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Careers	.62	.65	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.80*	.85*	.71*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.69	.65	.83*	.89*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.93*	.94*	.68	.91*	.80*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.85*	.82*	.66	.92*	.81*	.89*	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.94*	.91*	.59	.84*	.64	.89*	.81*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.87*	.85*	.79*	.93*	.90*	.92*	.96	.82*	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.76*	.61	.75*	.84*	.91*	.74*	.86	.71*	.91*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.80*	.83*	.72*	.97*	.89*	.92*	.96	.77*	.95*	.83*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.74*	.90*	.74*	.828	.78*	.89*	.71	.74*	.84*	.62	.81*	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.95*	.80*	.69	.84*	.74*	.89*	.85	.93*	.85*	.81*	.81*	.66	-

* p < .05000.

N=8 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for the Subsidiary A Male Respondents, we find that the highest correlation is between Multiple Role Conflict, Racial Discrimination and Sex Discrimination (.96). The lowest correlation was found between Conflict between Children and Career Demands and Dissatisfaction with Career (.61).

TABLE 7.6.4
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Subsidiary A Females

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.91*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Career	.77*	.92*	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.79*	.82*	.77*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.79*	.90*	.86*	.79*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.92*	.92*	.85*	.84*	.89*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.85*	.89*	.81*	.81*	.80*	.85*	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.81*	.84*	.79*	.93*	.85*	.84*	.82*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.85*	.89*	.68*	.77*	.72*	.76*	.81*	.74*	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.85*	.94*	.81*	.75*	.80*	.78*	.85*	.79*	.95*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.87*	.93*	.93*	.87*	.83*	.89*	.84*	.84*	.80*	.83*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.79*	.84*	.82*	.81*	.82*	.81*	.81*	.90*	.70*	.79*	.84*	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.66*	.57*	.49*	.53*	.57*	.57*	.69*	.63*	.50*	.62*	.46*	.51*	-

* $p < .05000$.

N=19 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for the Subsidiary A Female Respondents, we find that the highest correlation is between Conflict between Children and Career Demands and Multiple Role Conflict (.95). The lowest correlation was found between Disapproval by Significant Others and Inadequate Preparation (.46).

TABLE 7.6.5
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Subsidiary B Males

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.85*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Careers	.578	.57*	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.598	.77*	.66*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.71*	.67*	.77*	.76*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.68*	.46	.64*	.40	.62*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.53	.50	.84*	.77*	.74*	.46	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.70*	.62*	.73*	.66*	.94*	.65*	.67*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.80*	.84*	.80*	.75*	.83*	.53	.74*	.81*	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.54*	.57*	.87*	.67*	.68*	.44	.79*	.67*	.84*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.41	.33	.77*	.58*	.64*	.38	.85*	.53	.54*	.75*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.79*	.66*	.61*	.67*	.87*	.64*	.62*	.88*	.67*	.50	.52	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.30	.29	.59*	.34	.49	.52	.44	.53	.50	.62*	.36	.27	-

Correlations are significant at $p < .05000$.
 N=14 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for the Subsidiary B Male Respondents, we find that the highest correlation is between Lack of Confidence, and Job Market Constraints (.94). The lowest correlation was found between Disapproval by Significant Others and Inadequate preparation for the job (.27).

TABLE 7.6.6
Correlation between the thirteen categories of barriers for
Subsidiary B Females

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
1. Decision-Making Difficulties	-												
2. Dissatisfaction with Career	.91*	-											
3. Discouraged from Choosing Non-traditional Careers	.72*	.80*	-										
4. Disability / Health Concerns	.75*	.71*	.91*	-									
5. Job Market Constraints	.91*	.87*	.88*	.89*	-								
6. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.92*	.79*	.79*	.80*	.94*	-							
7. Sex Discrimination	.71*	.67*	.92*	.95*	.89*	.84*	-						
8. Lack of Confidence	.95*	.86*	.63	.68*	.85*	.83*	.65*	-					
9. Multiple Role Conflict	.74*	.65*	.78*	.87*	.79*	.82*	.82*	.63	-				
10. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.78*	.67*	.63	.71*	.72*	.80*	.68*	.76*	.91*	-			
11. Racial Discrimination	.81*	.79*	.95*	.96*	.96*	.88*	.95*	.71*	.83*	.66*	-		
12. Inadequate Preparation	.98*	.90*	.69*	.74*	.87*	.86*	.69*	.93*	.73*	.78*	.77*	-	
13. Disapproval by Significant Others	.73*	.75*	.88*	.79*	.85*	.82*	.79*	.53	.68*	.46	.90*	.67*	-

* p < .05000.

N=10 (Casewise Deletion of missing Data)

If we analyse the correlations for the Subsidiary B Female Respondents, we find that the highest correlation is between Inadequate Preparation and Decision-Making Difficulties (.98). The lowest correlation was found between Disapproval by Significant Others and Conflict between Children and Career Demands (.46).

TABLE 7.7**Inter correlations of the 13 CBI-R Scales**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Sex Discrimination	-												
2. Lack of Confidence	.62	-											
3. Multiple-Role Conflict	.76	.65	-										
4. Conflict between Children and Career Demands	.68	.57	.71	-									
5. Racial Discrimination	.80	.63	.71	.66	-								
6. Inadequate Preparation	.64	.71	.70	.73	.69	-							
7. Disapproval by Significant Others	.40	.39	.48	.52	.37	.42	-						
8. Decision-Making Difficulties	.60	.71	.63	.57	.66	.75	.39	-					
9. Dissatisfaction with Career	.68	.68	.76	.59	.66	.71	.35	.71	-				
10. Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers	.46	.40	.47	.56	.51	.53	.68	.44	.37	-			
11. Disability / Health Concerns	.55	.63	.51	.49	.63	.60	.27	.54	.50	.40	-		
12. Job Market Constraints	.64	.57	.63	.53	.59	.72	.29	.59	.60	.41	.55	-	
13. Difficulties with Networking / Socialization	.65	.61	.64	.57	.63	.71	.29	.68	.72	.41	.47	.64	-

"Note. Correlations were derived from a sample of 100 college students (Swanson & Daniels, 1995a). Decimal points have been omitted" (Swanson, Daniels & Tokar, 1996, p. 232).

The analysis of the intercorrelations among the CBI scales is shown in TABLE 7.7 (Swanson, Daniels and Tokar, 1996). Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1996) found that the correlations ranged from .27 to .80, with a median of .60. The highest correlation found by the aforementioned researchers, were Racial Discrimination, with Sex Discrimination, and the lowest correlation was Disapproval by Significant Others, with Disability / Health Concerns.

7.6 Conclusion

For the company as a whole, not one of the 13 variable groupings came out as an area of concern. The scale that was used was a 7-point Likert scale. The respondents indicated how much a specific item hindered them in their working environment on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represented "did not hinder at all and 7 indicated "will completely hinder". An analysis of all 13 variable groupings showed that, in looking at the Sample Company, Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B, there was not one area of concern or one area that indicated an average of 4 or above!

The only area that we might have to look at is Subsidiary A males (Sexual Discrimination, Lack of Confidence, Finding it difficult to network). This conclusion is hampered by the fact that a small number (only 8) of males responded to the survey.

The only other area of concern relates to the males' in Subsidiary B who experienced Racial Discrimination (4.18) and the males in Subsidiary A (4.4). This is just slightly above the mean for the group in total (mean for group 3.72). So, again, not really an area of concern.

The outcome of the survey was quite surprising in that it did not highlight any real area of concern for the Sample Company, Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B on any of the 13 categories. The conclusion that one can draw is that people are:

1. either happy with the environment that they are working in;
2. so apathetic that they did not see any value in completing the survey;
3. self-sufficient in coping with the 13 variable categories that had been investigated;
4. comfortable that there is no real difference between the way the males and the females within the various areas of the Sample Company, Subsidiary A or Subsidiary B experience the 13 variable categories.

There is always a possibility that a survey of this kind might encounter problems that could hinder clear-cut answers to certain questions. Limitation might have been encountered, preventing clear results. Chapter 8 will focus on the limitations of the research and will present recommendations that can be made for the future.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

In analysing the content of this research document it is important to note whether the research aims of this study have been reached. In Chapter 1 the following research aims were postulated;

1. To undertake a literature study of selected variables to gain a better understanding of the possible impact of these variables on women's upward movement in the workplace;
2. To identify perceived variables that may impact on women's upward movement in the working environment;
3. To examine the current legislation in South Africa and report on the impact that this legislation has on women in the working environment;
4. To examine company policies, procedure and practices and analyse the impact they might have on the women in the company;
5. To evaluate whether the modern working environment does provide equal opportunities for females and to look at the perception that women have about their equality in the working environment;
6. To analyse how and why women make certain career choices; and
7. To make recommendations for future research;

In looking at the first research aim, one can safely say that an in-depth literature study was conducted in identifying various variables that impact on woman's career advancement in the company. The second research aim was also achieved in that perceived variables have been identified and classified as career barriers. The thirteen most important categories of career barriers identified were:

1. Lack of Confidence

The research has not clearly indicated whether the companies involved focus on gender policies specifically and consistently. Together with that, information obtained through the questionnaires did not clearly reflect whether the female

respondents felt inadequate while performing in their jobs. There might have been a feeling of fear of being exposed in some or other way, targeting them as females as a specific group by focusing on them as not feeling confident about themselves in general.

Other aspects that did not come out clearly were the respondents' possible lack of maturity, which conceivably might interfere with their career, or the possibility of having low self-esteem.

Although the above aspects were not spelled out clearly, the female respondents in Subsidiary A seem to lack confidence in themselves. The difference between the females of Subsidiary A and the rest of the respondents, excluding the males of Subsidiary A, is not really significant.

2. Sex Discrimination

The expectation was that this most important issue would have been clearly highlighted by female respondents in filling in their questionnaires. It lies at the heart of being happy or dissatisfied in the workplace. Issues such as discrimination by employers because the female respondents planned to or already have children, marital status, a boss or supervisor being biased against females and sexual harassment were clearly set out in the questionnaire. Nonetheless, the female respondents did not clearly indicate that any of the issues bother them to such an extent that it has an impeding effect on their work performance. Again, the aspect of fear of exposure might have played an important role in the response.

The overall impression that the researcher gets is that the companies involved are fully involved in implementing non-discriminatory practices through the Sample Companies Policies and Procedures in their day-to-day management, resulting in the respondents in the Sample Company not having problems in this regard. Still, the females in the Sample Company, as well as in Subsidiary A, experienced slightly more sexual discrimination than the males, but again, not at a significant rate.

3. Multiple Role Conflict

Multiple role conflict without doubt is a reality when female employees are involved. The researcher could expect that female respondents would come to the fore, at least about issues such as relocation due to the respondent's spouse or partner shifting between jobs.

Conflict between the respondent's job and family, with specific reference to a spouse and or children could be quite a distressing problem, resulting in feeling pressurised to live up to all expectations by the respondent.

The researcher was not disappointed in this regard. There was definite response through the questionnaires. It does seem as if multiple role conflict might have an impact on the female respondents of Subsidiary A.

4. Conflict between children and career demands

Female respondents in this case also could not remain apathetic about a real issue such as the extra responsibility of having children and also working. In this regard, aspects such as needing to take time off when children are ill, or during school breaks, not being able to find good day-care services for children, a feeling of guilt because of having to work while their children are young, were clearly stated in the questionnaire.

Although the male respondents of the Sample Company, as well as of Subsidiary B, are the least affected by having children, it does seem as if having children impacts upon the rest of the respondents. This factor therefore needs to be further investigated.

5. Racial Discrimination

In the questionnaire, the researcher clearly stated aspects such as experiencing racial discrimination in being hired for the job, having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of other racial or ethnic groups, experiencing racial harassment on the job and so forth. Unfortunately the response was rather disappointing in that the information that was obtained did not make it possible for

the researcher to draw a clear picture of the situation within the ranks of the companies involved in the research.

The response rate was really too low to draw real conclusions from the feedback statistics. For example, only eight male respondents reacted in this regard. However, the male respondents in Subsidiary A gave a slight indication of experiencing possible racial discrimination in their area.

6. Inadequate Preparation for the job

It seems as if the female respondents generally lack the required skills for their jobs, for example communication, leadership, decision-making. Furthermore, there seems to be an inability to deal with the physical or emotional demands of their jobs. It also seems as if respondents in some instances lack the necessary educational background for their jobs.

As the questionnaire clearly indicated a problem area in this regard, attention might have to be given to the preparation of females for their roles in particular areas.

7. Disapproval by Significant Others

People such as spouses, partners, parents, family or friends who did not approve of the respondents' choices of careers had been highlighted in the questionnaire.

The responses showed that the respondents from the Sample Company do not indicate a significant problem with disapproval of significant others.

Again, it might be a problem, from a male point of view, for respondents from Subsidiary A.

8. Decision-Making Difficulties

Issues such as being unsure of career goals, work-related issues, indecision about what job the respondent likes, lack of information about possible careers, and not being sure what he/she wants out of life had been targeted in this section.

The greatest difference between males and females were exposed in this category. It seems as if female respondents from Subsidiary A experienced slight problems with decision making as they came to the fore as the lowest-ranked group in this set of questions.

9. Dissatisfaction with Career Scale

The researcher placed questions about possible boredom with the job, not wanting to re-locate for the sake of a career, disappointment with career progress, losing interest in the job, and being dissatisfied with the jobs under this section.

The female respondents from Subsidiary A showed relative low dissatisfaction. On the other hand, the male respondents in Subsidiary A showed a relative degree of dissatisfaction with their careers.

10. Discouraged from choosing non-traditional careers

The researcher wanted to establish whether respondents were being discouraged from pursuing fields non-traditional for them. Issues such as fear that people would consider the respondent's job as "unfeminine" or "unmasculine" because the job or career was non-traditional for the respondent's sex, and lack of opportunities for people of his/her sex in non-traditional fields had been added to the questionnaire.

There seems to be a slight tendency amongst female respondents to feel that they were discouraged from following non-traditional careers. However, the variance was too slight to be of any significance.

11. Disability/ Health Concerns

Disability in the workplace might take many different forms. Therefore the researcher deemed it necessary to include questions about a disability that limited a respondent's choice of career, problems experienced with health that interfered with the job or career, and, probably most important of all, whether such disability resulted in discrimination being hired for a job.

The males of Subsidiary A showed a small consideration for the impact of their health on their careers.

12. Job Market Constraints

Under this section, difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market, difficulty in planning a career due to changes in the economy, the discouraging outlook for future employment in his/her field of work and lack of demand for his/her area of training or education were highlighted for possible respondents.

The companies involved apparently have very modern ideas concerning the workplace environment. Nonetheless, the female respondents from Subsidiary A indicated that there was some job market constraints on them and their marketability.

13. Difficulties with Networking/ Socialization

Issues such as not having a role model or mentor at work, not having opportunities for advancement in his/her career, uncertainty about how to sell himself/herself to an employer, doubt about how to advance in his/her career and not knowing the right people for getting ahead in his/her career were classified under this section.

The third research aim was to analyse current legislation in South Africa. In analysing existing legislation it was found that legislation does have a direct impact on how companies structure their policies and procedure, which directly impact on how people, theoretically, should be treated in a company.

The fourth research aim focused on policies and procedure and how those impact on women in a company. It was found that flexible career policies impact positively on women at work. Some companies also have gender policies in addition to their employment equity policies, to ensure that women are treated fairly and equitably in the workplace. Although the outcome of the sample drawn that is investigated in the research document shows that there were no theoretical unfair policies and procedures, the researcher still feels that theory and practice do not always match.

Consideration of the next research aim, which focused on equal opportunities for women in the working environment and on what women's perceptions about their equality were, it was found that this item could be classified as one of the career barriers (sex discrimination). This item was analysed and reported on in the research document. Some of the items that could be classified under this research aim were identified as, *inter alia*, multiple role conflict, which relates to women having to balance their careers with the role of mother, housekeeper, wife and caregiver.

Inherent discrimination, negative perceptions and myths also play a part in how women perceive their equality in the working environment. Legislation prohibits discrimination of any nature, and this research project also showed that, when confronted with a questionnaire, people are very quick to say that there is no real discrimination in the working environment. The researcher found that women were not willing to commit themselves, in filling in the questionnaire, by saying that there was discrimination in the sample companies. What the researcher did find was that when there were informal meetings, training in managing diversity and general discussion among women, female employees in the sample companies did believe that they were still discriminated against. An indication of this is the perception among female employees that women were paid less than men, that meetings were arranged for Saturdays and after hours, that their promotion would be jeopardised if they took their rightful maternity leave and that men did business on the golf course.

The sixth research aim was to analyse how and why women make certain career choices. Various models of career choice were presented and possible influences on the process of career choice were looked at. This research aim was discussed in Chapter 4 and the conclusion was that career choice is not a spontaneous process. Various factors influence the way in which a person makes a career choice and there are numerous factors that impact on the way a person's career choice changes during working life. The making of a career choice and the following of a specific career path therefore is a complex process influenced by the environment, perceptions, interests, values, awareness of opportunities in the environment, legislation, as well as perceived and real internal and external career barriers.

The last research aim was to make recommendations for future research. This will be discussed in Chapter 8.

8.2 Research Frustrations

Whenever a study of this nature is conducted, the researcher is faced with various frustrating constraints. These constraints might impact significantly on the outcome of the results of the study. No researcher can conduct a survey successfully if potential respondents remain uninvolved. Without feedback, no conclusions can be reached about fieldwork.

The first serious problem that was encountered had to do with the completion and return of the questionnaires. Response was based on a voluntary level. All respondents were assured that participation in the research project was voluntary. This in itself could mean that potential respondents, who were under no work-related obligation in this regard whatsoever, could take an "I don't care" attitude and ignore the extra workload of filling in another set of forms.

To protect employees, the matter of anonymity was stressed. This ironically, most probably opened another door to poor response; if employees could not be traced when they did not respond, potential respondents could more easily neglect putting in the extra effort of filling in questionnaires.

In order to overcome the possibility of low response, the researcher assured potential respondents that they would receive definite feedback on the survey. By this process the researcher tried to comply with the main idea proposed by Babbie (1992) and Mouton and Marais (1985) according to which respondents would feel co-responsible for the successful outcome of such a study. Research conducted in such a way could lead to a feeling of **we** do the study instead of **I** alone. As was also indicated earlier, the questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study, what it was about and why it was important for the employees to complete the questionnaire.

The researcher went further by using the system of message flags suggested by Dane (1990) and Kerlinger (1986). Weekly message flags were posted on the system to remind all respondents who had not completed and returned the questionnaires, to do so. Furthermore, the anonymity of the respondents and the confidentiality of the study were emphasised to further encourage people to take part in the study. Despite the fact that the researcher's details were supplied, in case potential respondents had queries or questions about the content of the questionnaire, the results were most disappointing.

Even the time factor could not have played a significant role. The respondents had a three-week period in which to complete the questionnaires and return them to the researcher. Participants were also given the option of printing out the questionnaires and completing it by hand if they were concerned about leakage of information regarding their position within the company.

The researcher visited the areas of low return and discussed the importance of participating in the research, urging employees to complete the necessary forms. All was to no avail, as the response still resulted in a great disappointment.

To some extent the low response rate and the moderate results are both to irritating, frustrating and a cause of disappointment to the researcher. But, one could still feel satisfied that there at least was response.

A more autocratic approach, with management putting pressure on potential respondents, could have resulted in a greater return of completed questionnaires. In such a case the research would have been doomed from the start, as it would most probably have resulted in a false reflection of what really went on in the company.

Whichever way a researcher looks at obtaining information through democratic ways, he or she is always faced with the human factor of employees not responding simply because they are not compelled to complete such questionnaires. Nonetheless, when one looks at the research from this point of view, much more satisfactory results have

been obtained. Seen in this light, one would rather have a low response rate with willing respondents and a *true reflection* of what goes on within a company than a pile of completed questionnaires not producing a true image.

Response could, however, have been impeded by other factors also. These impacting factors need to be analysed and discussed to ensure that a holistic picture is formed of the study and the environment in which the study was conducted.

8.3 Limitations of the research

The limitations of the study refer particularly to the nature of the case study. The sample was drawn from a financial institution with very progressive policies and procedures. The company went through an intensive audit with the Employment Equity Process and eliminated all discriminatory policies and procedures within the company. The company also reviews all policies and procedures on an annual basis to ensure that it is in line with legislative changes. If and when legislative changes come through, the company reviews its policies and procedures immediately, these changes are communicated via the company's internal communications system and the impact of such changes are explained and discussed with the management team at the Human Capital Steering Committee, which meets once a quarter.

This intensive process might lead to a sense of false security in the company, as the company might have the idea that there are no real areas of concern. The impression that one gets is that the company, by going through all these processes, ensures that there are no discriminatory practices in place. Subsidiary A and Subsidiary B use the Sample Company's Policies and Procedures in managing their Human Resources.

The Sample Company also went through a huge outsourcing process. All the Back Office Functions (and staff) were outsourced. This means that the traditional lower level, and by implication less empowered staff, have left the company. The people that form the bulk of the employees in the company are mostly specialists in their field

and as a rule have some form of tertiary education. The perception that is created by these people is that they are empowered enough to handle problematic issues if and when they arise. This perception might have originated from a value system that could have been established firmly and long before this research was attempted.

If that is the case, Huse's (1979) conclusion might be relevant. He defines values as relatively permanent ideas that influence and shape the general nature of people's behaviour and influence what they consider desirable and determine what they will consider desirable or undesirable, good or bad. McMurry (in Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972), amongst other things lists, reasons why he believes that the influence of values are important. A respondent will react to a questionnaire in a way deemed to be desirable, especially if he/she feels empowered to do so. Such a person's perceptions and value system will therefore chiefly determine his/her attitudes toward political, economic, social and industrial causes and issues when such questionnaires are completed.

It seems quite clear that the feeling of empowerment has had a significant influence on the feeling of security amongst respondents in the present study. The low level of Union Membership confirms this perception. Only 12% of the company's staff belonged to the union, and those are mostly clerical staff. Subsidiary A has a 22% union membership and Subsidiary B only an 8% union membership rate.

The low response rate may also have impacted on the results obtained. As mentioned in the previous chapter, this might be the result of various external factors, e.g. the uncertainty that always accompanies the down-sizing of a specific area within the company, in this case the down-sizing of the Cape Town offices of the Sample Company. The back office staff was outsourced and most of the front office staff moved to Johannesburg.

Subsidiary A also went through the process of acquisition of a new partner, and that might have created uncertainty among the people within the company. The concern that positions might become redundant due to duplication is always present when a new partner is acquired.

Subsidiary B also went through substantial changes in that they acquired a new Chief Executive Officer. This new CEO might have impacted on the work environment, seeing that he had specific ideas on the size of the company and the way the company should be run. This company also acquired a small partner. That led to duplication of services in certain areas, which led to retrenchments.

Another problem that was encountered was that the people might have had "questionnaire fatigue". The three companies that were analysed go through a questionnaire process twice a year. People have to fill in a Culture Survey and a Climate Survey questionnaire. Filling in another survey questionnaire, although it focused on totally different issues, might have been viewed as unimportant. The Sample Company and Subsidiary B also have high-level employees. Entry level requirements usually include that a person must have obtained at least a B. Degree. Subsidiary A required a different set of skills and has more matriculants than the other two companies.

Due to the nature of the company, people also tend to ignore questionnaires, as they do not see the direct value that it will add to their day-to-day functioning. The impression that is created in all three companies is that these companies are bottom line driven. If they cannot see how a questionnaire will add to the bottom line and increased income of the division (which directly impacts on the amount of money that this people earn), it is of no value to them and can be ignored.

It might also be that people were so apathetic that they did not see any value in taking part in the survey. They might have felt that filling in a questionnaire was not going to change anything. The bulk of the people in the company have been in the company for longer than three years. They might have felt that things would never change. (This sentiment was confirmed in the Valuing Diversity Workshops that the company ran in 2001. People in general felt that nothing would change unless management changed).

Seen from a woman's point of view within the workplace, the above is probably a global trend. For example, in the U.S.A., despite a huge increase in the percentage of women in the workplace and federal laws against discrimination based on gender, gender-related occupational restrictions still operate in the labour market. Most probably the root of this apathetic attitude towards completion of the questionnaire lay in the belief amongst the potential women respondents, that they, like their sisters in the U.S.A., that they deserve to earn a lower salary than others do, presumably because they have been conditioned to evaluate themselves in a less egotistical way. In other words, nothing would change for the better for them, at least not through the completion of a simple questionnaire, simply because they are female employees.

Employees might have felt professionally exposed and unprotected, and therefore impeded in filling in such a sensitive questionnaire. Although the assurance was repeatedly given that the feedback would be treated confidentially, and that there was no way in which the researcher would be able to trace the paper-based questionnaire to the respondents, people might have perceived the risk of participation as too high.

If that was the case, Blau and his fellow researchers (in Hall, 1976) were most probably correct by assuming that a worker's decisions are interrelated in such a way that earlier choices generally restrict the range of future possibilities and thus influence later choices. In this regard Ginzberg (in Wienrach, 1979 and in Brown and Brooks, 1984) also describes the reality stage when realistic career choices are made. During this stage the person tends to make compromises between abilities, interests and values, and between the opportunities and restrictions of the environment in which the individual lives. Krumboltz's Social Learning Theories (in Crites, 1981 and Michell & Krumboltz in Brown & Brooks, 1984) stress the fact that the individual is an intelligent being who can solve problems, who strives to understand his/her environment and who can control the environment to his/her advantage. During the individual's learning experiences the person's personality and actions are directly influenced by such actions. This learning exists because of cognitive analysis of the positive and negative experiences. Thus, if potential

respondents have in the past had negative response experiences after airing their views, they would be less likely to expose themselves in any way again, especially by filling in a questionnaire with no real assurance of reward in the immediate future.

The other side of this coin is that employees might be so self-sufficient in coping with the 13 variable categories that were investigated that they feel that there is no need to participate in such a study, as there are no problems.

All the abovementioned might have played a substantial role in the way people responded to the questionnaire or in whether they responded at all. The attitudes of individual people might therefore have impacted quite substantially on the outcome of the research.

It is also impossible to measure the effect of the thirteen barriers or the perceived effect of these barriers on the career growth of either male or female employees that have not responded to the questionnaire.

It will add value to the field of research to do a cross company research, with the net of research spread outside the rather formalised and very professional financial sector. A totally different outcome might be found, should such research be undertaken and compared with this study.

8.4 Recommendations for future research

According to Swanson and Tokar (1996) little is known about the perception of barriers for employed adults. This is even truer in South Africa with its diverse cultural set-up.

Seeing that the study was quantitative in nature, it will add value to future research to do a qualitative study to support and supplement the findings of a quantitative study. If focus groups were to be used, it could have added value in giving information that is not tested in the questionnaires. People might confirm the underlying assumptions

that the questionnaires do not confirm. Focus groups also allow the researcher to probe and investigate areas further, which allows for more information to flow.

It is also recommended that a study of this nature should preferably be conducted in a stable environment. Where a company goes through as many changes as this company did, people are not interested in filling in questionnaires. People are also more scared of being open and honest because immanent job losses are always on their minds – they do not want to jeopardise their career prospects in the company by being critical. They may not want to be seen as somebody that is attacking the system. The policies and procedures say that everybody in the company is equal and that there are no discriminatory policies and practices in place. If somebody speaks up, they might be worried about being targeted and have the perception that by their speaking up might directly or indirectly impact on the decision-making process when positions are being filled.

The utilisation of an external researcher might also add value in an investigation of such a sensitive topic, as people might feel less threatened in participating in such a study when the researcher does not know them. In an environment such as this there are only so many females on the different grading levels in the company and the females participating in the study could work out that, if the researcher wanted to, she could work out who completed the questionnaires, who were critical of the system, and even report those individuals to top management.

Besides the recommendations for future research, the following recommendations are made on a practical level:

- The company's current performance management system can be utilised to address any dissatisfaction with current career growth (for both male and female employees). The performance management system should incorporate a section for career aspirations and career path planning. The training and development of employees to achieve goals and objectives should also form part of the performance management process. By utilising the performance management system to its full potential, the career prospects and aspirations of all employees could be addressed.

- The performance management process, incorporated without the company's existing bursary programme, can also open new careers for people who were previously discouraged from following specific career paths. This action will make people more marketable and will open up more prospects for them within the company, as well as within the wider group of companies and the broader market place.
- By implementing an effective mentoring programme, the company could address the problem that people might experience with networking and socialising. This process would also help new employees to be better prepared for their jobs and could help them to settle into the company's culture and ways of doing things.
- The company should encourage their employees through the available means (the company newsletter, intranet site and regular updates on their e-mail system) to contact the Employment Equity Monitoring Committee or their Employment Equity Representative if they should experience (or suspect) any form of gender or racial discrimination in their area or within the company. The Chair of the Employment Equity Monitoring Committee would then investigate it further and address the issue with the relevant manager.
- The confidence levels of employees can be improved by sending them on training courses dealing with life skills, Seven Habits of Highly Effective People and Assertiveness. This should also be incorporated in the Performance Management Process.
- Multiple role conflict can be addressed through more flexible working practices. Currently the company and its Subsidiaries are very inflexible regarding their working hours and working practices. By investigating those jobs that lend themselves to flexible office hours, assessment of the potential for employees to work part time and the assessment of potential to allow employees to work from home via the virtual office idea, could help assist in the elimination of multiple role conflict.
- The whole company should also be sent on Diversity Training. This training should focus on and include issues such as sensitising people to gender, racial and cultural differences. This should also focus on the difficulties of single parents and people in difficult family situations.

- The current company practices, e.g. the scheduling of meetings at 16h30, should be investigated reviewed, and scrapped where it impacts on employees with family responsibilities.
- The females in the company could also form a woman's Forum that could address all the pertinent issues relevant to the female in the working environment. By addressing, investigating and investigating alternatives to existing problems, female employees can be involved pro-actively in shaping their own and the company's future regarding issues pertaining to females in the corporate environment. These issues could then be discussed and the recommendations be tabled for the Employment Equity Monitoring Committee for discussion and approval.

The company should also review its current succession planning process. Traditionally, in merchant and investment banking, succession planning has never been a meaningful and integrated practice and talent is usually "bought in" from other organisations, when needed. Currently, the minimum is done at the company to comply with the Parent Company process for grades 13 and above. However, due to organisational growth and requirements of the new century, the company has to recognise that it is necessary to review the succession planning process and formulate a workable model. This is also important in terms of corporate governance requirements.

An efficient succession planning system is dependent on the support/commitment of senior and line management. In the interest of the company, the early identification and development of people who exhibit advancement potential should be the priority of all concerned.

A succession planning system must always be integrated effectively with other human resources activities, such as employment and career planning, employee equity (affirmative action), training and development, etc.

Succession planning and career development is a strategic management function that should be aimed at developing the human potential of the company in order to:

- manage the risk of losing key people;
- ensure that attention is also focussed on team performance and not only on a few high potential employees;
- provide career development and advancement for individuals. Succession planning refers to the organisation's capacity plan, whilst career planning is the mirror process, but from the employees point of view; and
- supply leadership talent within the group at senior level.

Succession planning also has other benefits for organisations as it:

- Engages senior management in a disciplined review of leadership talent;
- Guides development activities of key executives;
- Links development areas to competencies in a structured manner;
- Brings selection systems, reward systems and management development into alignment with the process of leadership renewal;
- Assures continuity of leadership;
- Avoids transitional problems; and
- Prevents premature promotion.

In order to be successful, succession planning should be:

- Based on the competencies that reflect the organisations specific future business needs;
- Tailored to the organisation's needs;
- Driven by top management – top managers must be involved with and support the succession planning process. The process should be owned by line managers and guided by the Human Resources Division;
- Focused on development opportunities with the greatest impact – international exposure, cross-functional job assignments, coaching and mentoring. Individuals should be responsible for their own development with strong management support;
- Focused on future strategy and culture – ideal organisational culture should be identified and succession planning aligned with future strategic direction;

- Supported by the use of objective multi-rater assessments to ensure high feedback reliability; and
- Focused on the development of talent pools, not queues.

To have an effective succession planning effort the company needs to:

- Ensure that job structure, job requirements, competencies and demands (including minimum criteria) are determined and documented;
- Employees should be assessed against the identified competencies. Their assessments may involve 360-degree feedback, psychological tests, and self-assessment. The use of potential/performance may also be beneficial to identify employees that have potential for promotion within 6 to 12 months and those not yet ready, but who have correct attributes to be successors in the future;
- Ensure that potential successors to key positions are identified and that appropriate evaluative data are available;
- Develop existing managers in order to enhance current performance, and prepare selected managers for promotion;
- Reinforce the existing managerial core with external appointments;
- Actively encourage the appointment and promotion of people from disadvantaged groups to ensure that succession planning and development contribute to a human resources profile which is congruent with the target market composition, and in line with the company's Affirmative Action (AA) policy;
- Actively identify those employees who are not seen as current potential successors but who show high potential; and
- Actively address individual needs as identified in the succession planning and career development process through individualised needs-based training, incorporated into the performance management process.

By addressing the above, all employees in the company will be helped to achieve their top potential in the corporate environment. The fear of respondents about possible disapproval of their significant other will also be addressed if confidence levels are roused, career goals achieved and people become sufficiently skilled to perform their tasks within their current roles.

8.5 Conclusion

Two opposing hypothetical statements were tested in this research.

The first hypothesis had been set as a reality to be proven:

- **There are no significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to thirteen identified career barrier categories.**

On the other hand, the research could also have indicated quite a different trend, validating a different hypothesis:

- **There are significant differences between the way that males and females experience career barriers in a corporate environment with respect to thirteen career barrier categories.**

The outcome of this study showed that the hypotheses could not be rejected. The level of confidence with which these conclusions were reached was also sufficiently high. What this study did show us is that, in the current economic environment, both males and females found the thirteen identified barriers equally daunting or undaunting. The environment used for this study might be an exemption rather than the rule. The conclusion that one can also draw is that people might be more willing to take responsibility for their own career paths and career growth. People might not be as vocal in blaming outside influences on their career advancement, as was previously the case.

The researcher feels that the postulated model in Chapter 1, which shows that career choice is underpinned by factors like the environment, perceptions, interests, values, awareness of opportunities in the environment and legislation, are still very important. Once the career choice is made, various factors and barriers influence the way in which people progress towards top positions in the workplace. Although this study showed that there are no real barriers that influence the upward movement of women, the researcher feels that women still perceive barriers to their advancement.

The mere factor that women might perceive there to be barriers to equal opportunities in the workplace, shows that we still have a long way to go before perceptions change.

Although the samples drawn in this study showed that there are now significant factors and barriers that keep women from reaching top positions in the modern workplace, the researcher still believes that Chetty (1999) is correct in his assumption that gender discrimination is still rife in South Africa. The discrimination might not be as direct as in earlier years, but South Africa still needs to go a long way before absolute equality is reached in the workplace.

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DEFINITIONS

A "barrier" is a factor that interferes with progress in your job or career plans.

Barriers can be "external" or "internal."

External barriers are found in the environment -- for example, discrimination in applying for a job, or financial rewards.

Internal barriers are more psychological in nature -- for example, low self-esteem, leadership style, etc.

These barriers may occur regarding your choice of career, in finding a job, while you are working in your job or career, or in how you balance your career with other aspects of your life.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please complete the survey by:

Filling in the demographical section (Section A)

Complete the item bank (Section B) by marking the appropriate sections

The Demographical section will help us analyse the trends in the different areas within

the Organisation and will also help us analyse the trends across different gender and grade levels within the organisation.

For each of the common barriers listed, think about how much it would hinder your career progress.

In other words, how much would this barrier interfere with your career progress, or make your progress difficult?

Mark your answers on the scanning sheet, using the following scale:

1 Would not hinder at all

4 Would hinder somewhat

7 Would completely hinder

Upon completion, return all surveys to René Nel (3rd Floor, 24 Wale Street, Cape Town) via internal mail,

e-mail (if you are comfortable with this medium of return) or fax it to her (021- 488 2600) by no later than 12 April 2001.

If you have any questions or concerns do not hesitate to contact René at 021 - 488 2306.

SECTION A

OFFICE	USE
	1
RECORD NUMBER	
	2 - 5

DEMOGRAPHICAL DATA

Would like to get some general information about you for statistical purposes only.
 Put a (x) in the block describing you.

GENDER

Male	
Female	6

RACE

African	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	7

AGE

18 and younger	
19 - 25 years	
26 - 30 years	
31 - 35 years	
36 - 49 years	
41 - 50 years	
51 - 60 years	
Older than 60 years	8

MARITAL STATUS

Married	
Divorced	
Widowed	
Never married	
Living together	9

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

None	
1 - 2	
3 - 4	
5 - 6	
More than 6	10

NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 18

None	
1 - 2	
3 - 4	
5 - 6	
More than 6	11

YOUR ANNUAL INCOME (TOTAL COST TO COMPANY)

Less than R 40 000	
R40 001 - R 60 000	
R60 001 - R 80 000	
R 80 001 - R 100 000	
R 100 001 - R 130 000	
R 130 001 - R 160 000	
R 160 001 - R 200 000	
R 200 000 - R 250 000	
R 250 001 - R 300 000	
R 300 000 - R 400 000	
R 400 001 and above	12

HOME LANGUAGE

English	
Afrikaans	
Xhosa	
Zulu	
Other (specify).....	13

HIGHEST QUALIFICATION

Std 8	
Std 10	
Certificate	
Diploma	
Degree	
Postgraduate Degree	14

TOWN WHERE YOU ARE WORKING

Johannesburg	
Cape Town	
Durban	
Port Elizabeth	
Other	15

FTNIB GRADE (If you are in FTNIB Please complete 1.12)

NIB 02 - 05	
NIB 07	
NIB 09	
NIB 10	
NIB 11	
NIB 12	
NIB 13 and above	16

FTNIB (ONLY TO BE COMPLETED BY FTNIB I)

187	17
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NIBSEC	
Corporate Business Development	
Corporate Equity	
Corporate Finance	
Corporate Project Management	
Corporate Support	
Corporate Transformation	
Economics	
Group Finance	
Human Resources	
Int Struc Finance	
IT	
Legal	
Marketing	
Multi Manager	
Off shore/Namibia/Capital Acc	
Private Sector Finance	
Property Finance	
Property Investments	
Risk	
Secretariat	
Tax	
Treasury Admin	
Treasury Dealing	
Treasury Funding	
STL Wills	
STL Trusts	
STL EBTS	
STL TAX	
STL Structured planning	
STL Executors	
STL S and A	
STL Management	
STL Finance	
FTNIBI Management	
FTNIBI Legal	
FTNIBI Office Administration	
FTNIBI BD Institutional	
FTNIBI BD M&PD	
FT NIBI BD Retail	
FT NIBI CCC	
FTNIBI CLO	
FTNIBI Dealing	
FTNIBI Fund Acc	
FTNIBI Ops & support	
FTNIBI PCAM	
FTNIBI PM Institutional	
FTNIBI	
FTNIBI Validations	
FTNIBI SICAV Ops	
QUANTS	
ENF	
UNSPECIFIED	18

Section B

For each of the common barriers listed, think about how much it would hinder your career progress.

In other words, how much would this barrier interfere with your career progress, or make your progress difficult?

Mark your answers onto the scanning sheet, using the following scale:

1 = Would not hinder at all; 3 = Would hinder somewhat; 7 = Would hinder completely

ITEM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	OFFICE USE
1. Unsure of my career goals								19
2. Needing to take time off work when children are sick or on school breaks								20
3. Experiencing racial discrimination in applying for a job								21
4. Needing to relocate because of my spouse's/partner's job								22
5. Changing my mind again and again about my career plans								23
6. Having a disability which limits my choice of careers								24
7. Discrimination by employer because I have, or plan to have, children								25
8. Unsure of how to "sell myself" to an employer								26
9. Becoming bored with my job/career								27
10. Being discouraged from pursuing fields which are non-traditional for my gender (e.g., engineering for women, nursing for men)								28
11. Feeling a conflict between my job and my family (spouse and/or children)								29
12. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my racial/ethnic group								30
13. Experiencing problems with my health that interfere with my job/career								31
14. Unsure of my work-related values								32
15. Allowing my spouse's desire for children to take precedence over my career goals								33
16. Difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market								34
17. Feeling pressure to "do it all" - expected to do well as parent, spouse, career person, etc								35
18. Not feeling confident about my ability on the job								36
19. Not being able to find good day-care services for my children								37
20. My spouse/partner doesn't approve of my choice of job/career								38
21. Not feeling confident about myself in general								39
22. Not wanting to relocate for my job/career								40
23. Feeling guilty about working while my children are young								41
24. Experiencing racial harassment on the job								42
25. Experiencing discrimination in hiring for a job because I have a disability								43
26. Not being paid as much as co-workers of the opposite sex								44
27. Being undecided about what job/career I would like								45
28. Stress at home (spouse or children) affecting my performance at work								46
29. Lacking the required personality traits for my job (e.g., assertiveness)								47
30. Disappointed in my career progress (e.g., not receiving promotions as often as I would like)								48
31. Other people's beliefs that certain careers are not appropriate for people of my sex								49
32. Losing interest in my job/career								50
33. Difficulty in re-entering job market after taking time off to care for my children								51
34. Difficulty in planning my career due to changes in the economy								52
35. Lacking the required skills for my job (e.g., communication, leadership, decision-making)								53
36. Experiencing racial discrimination in promotions in job/career								54
37. Difficulty in maintaining the ground gained at my job after having children								55
38. Not being sure how to choose a career direction								56
39. Unsure of what my career alternatives are								57
40. Conflict between marriage/family plans and my career plans								58
41. Lack of maturity interferes with my career								59
42. Not having a role model or mentor at work								60
43. Experiencing sex discrimination in hiring for a job								61
44. Not receiving support from my spouse/partner								62
45. Having low self-esteem.								63
46. Discrimination due to my marital status								64
47. My parents/family don't approve of my choice of job/career								65
48. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my sex								66
49. People of the opposite sex receive promotions more often than people of my sex								67
50. No opportunities for advancement in my career								68
51. Not being paid as much as co-workers of another racial/ethnic group								69
52. My belief that certain careers are not appropriate for me because of my sex								70
53. Having children at a "bad time" in my career plans								71
54. People of other racial/ethnic groups receive promotions more often than people of my racial/ethnic group								72
55. Lacking information about possible jobs/careers								73
56. The outlook for future employment in my field is not promising								74
57. Being dissatisfied with my job/career								75
58. Unable to deal with physical or emotional demands of my job								76
59. Unsure of what I want out of life								77
60. Having an inflexible work schedule that interferes with my family responsibilities								78
61. Unsure of how to advance in my career								79
62. Lacking the necessary educational background for the job I want								80
63. Experiencing sexual harassment on the job								81
64. Fear that people will consider me "un-feminine"/ "un-masculine" because my job/career is non-traditional for my sex								82
65. Not knowing the "right people" to get ahead in my career								83
66. Lacking the necessary hands-on experience for the job I want								84
67. Lack of opportunities for people of my sex in non-traditional fields								85
68. No demand for my area of training/education								86
69. Stress at work affecting my life at home								87
70. My friends don't approve of my choice of job/career								88

APPENDIX B

CBIR SCALES

Sex Discrimination

- 7. Discrimination by employer because I have, or plan to have, children
- 26. Not being paid as much as co-workers of the opposite sex
- 43. Experiencing sex discrimination in hiring for a job
- 46. Discrimination due to my marital status
- 48. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my sex
- 49. People of the opposite sex receive promotions more often than people of my sex
- 63. Experiencing sexual harassment on the job

Lack of Confidence

- 18. Not feeling confident about my ability on the job
- 21. Not feeling confident about myself in general
- 41. Lack of maturity interferes with my career
- 45. Having low self-esteem

Multiple-role Conflict

- 4. Needing to relocate because of my spouse's/partner's job
- 11. Feeling a conflict between my job and my family (spouse and/or children)
- 17. Feeling pressure to "do it all" - expected to do well as parent, spouse, career person, etc.
- 28. Stress at home (spouse or children) affecting my performance at work
- 40. Conflict between marriage/family plans and my career plans
- 44. Not receiving support from my spouse/partner
- 60. Having an inflexible work schedule that interferes with my family responsibilities
- 69. Stress at work affecting my life at home

Conflict between Children and Career Demands

- 2. Needing to take time off work when children are sick or on school breaks

15. Allowing my spouse's desire for children to take precedence over my career goals
19. Not being able to find good day-care services for my children
23. Feeling guilty about working while my children are young
33. Difficulty in re-entering job market after taking time off to care for my children
37. Difficulty in maintaining the ground gained at my job after having children
53. Having children at a "bad time" in my career plans

Racial Discrimination

3. Experiencing racial discrimination in hiring for a job
12. Having a boss or supervisor who is biased against people of my racial/ethnic group
24. Experiencing racial harassment on the job
36. Experiencing racial discrimination in promotions in job/career
51. Not being paid as much as co-workers of another racial/ethnic group
54. People of other racial/ethnic groups receive promotions more often than people of my racial/ethnic group

Inadequate Preparation

29. Lacking the required personality traits for my job (e.g. assertiveness)
35. Lacking the required skills for my job (e.g. communication, leadership, decision-making)
58. Unable to deal with physical or emotional demands of my job
62. Lacking the necessary educational background for the job I want
66. Lacking the necessary hands-on experience for the job I want

Disapproval by Significant Others

- 20. My spouse/partner doesn't approve of my choice of job/career
- 47. My parents/family don't approve of my choice of job/career
- 70. My friends don't approve of my choice of job/career

Decision-making Difficulties

- 1. Unsure of my career goals
- 5. Changing my mind again and again about my career plans
- 14. Unsure of my work-related values
- 27. Being undecided about what job/career I would like
- 38. Not being sure how to choose a career direction
- 39. Unsure of what my career alternatives are
- 55. Lacking information about possible jobs/careers
- 59. Unsure of what I want out of life

Dissatisfaction with Career

- 9. Becoming bored with my job/career
- 22. Not wanting to relocate for my job/career
- 30. Disappointed in my career progress (e.g. not receiving promotions as often as I would like)
- 32. Losing interest in my job/career
- 57. Being dissatisfied with my job/career

Discouraged from Choosing Nontraditional Careers

- 10. Being discouraged from pursuing fields which are non-traditional for my sex (e.g., engineering for women, nursing for men)
- 31. Other people's beliefs that certain careers are not appropriate for people of my sex
- 52. My belief that certain careers are not appropriate for me because of my sex
- 64. Fear that people will consider me "unfeminine"/"unmasculine" because my job/career is non-traditional for my sex
- 67. Lack of opportunities for people of my sex in non-traditional fields

Disability/Health Concerns

- 6. Having a disability which limits my choice of careers
- 13. Experiencing problems with my health that interfere with my job/career
- 25. Experiencing discrimination in hiring for a job because I have a disability

Job Market Constraints

- 16. Difficulty in finding a job due to a tight job market
- 34. Difficulty in planning my career due to changes in the economy
- 56. The outlook for future employment in my field is not promising
- 68. No demand for my area of training/education

Difficulties with Networking/Socialization

- 8. Unsure of how to "sell myself" to an employer
- 42. Not having a role model or mentor at work
- 50. No opportunities for advancement in my career
- 61. Unsure of how to advance in my career
- 65. Not knowing the "right people" to get ahead in my career

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APPENDIX C

THE EQUITY FORUM CONSTITUTION

1 PARTIES

- 1.1 The parties who are bound by this constitution are:
 - 1.1.1 The employee representatives nominated to represent all designated and non-designated persons at all levels within the workforce, as listed in annexure A attached hereto (“The equity forum representatives”);
 - 1.1.2 *The Company* a Company duly incorporated in the Republic of South Africa (“The Employer”).

2 INTRODUCTION

- 1.2 The purpose of the Employment Equity Act and Consultation in terms of the Act is to:
 - 1.2.1 Promote equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
 - 1.2.2 To implement affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation at all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.
- 1.3 The employer and the equity forum representatives are required to consult in terms of section 16, the Employment Equity Act 1998, (“the Act”).
- 1.4 This constitution accordingly regulates the workings of the equity forum in relation to the following:
 - 1.4.1 Its objectives and purpose;
 - 1.4.2 Its meetings;
 - 1.4.3 Administration and facilitation;
 - 1.4.4 The roles, powers and rules pertaining to the parties;
 - 1.4.5 Dispute resolution;
 - 1.4.6 Its function;
 - 1.4.7 Sub forum appointments;
 - 1.4.8 Notices;
 - 1.4.9 Termination.

2. INTERPRETATION

- 2.1 In this constitution, unless the context clearly indicates a contrary intention:
 - 2.1.1 The headings are for reference purposes only and shall not affect the interpretation of any aspect of this constitution;
 - 2.1.2 The singular includes the plural and vice versa;
 - 2.1.3 A reference to one gender includes the other gender.

3. DEFINITIONS

- 3.1 “Designated groups, persons or people” means:
black people, women, and people with disabilities as defined in the Act.
- 3.2 “Black people” means:
Africans, Coloureds and Indians as defined in the Act.
- 3.3 “People with disabilities” means:
people who have a long-term or recurring physical or mental impairment which substantially limits their prospects of entry into, or advancement in, employment.
- 3.4 “An Alternate” means:
A person nominated to replace a representative in terms of clause 14.
- 3.5 “The Act” means:
the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998;
- 3.6 “The Administrator” means:
the person appointed to perform the functions and duties as set out in paragraph 7.
- 3.7 “The equity forum” means:
The assembly made up of the representatives and the employer gathered to achieve the objectives and purpose as set out in paragraph 5 below.
- 3.8 “The employer” means:
The Company represented by *the Senior HR Manager*, duly authorised, for the purpose of this constitution;
- 3.9 “The equity forum representatives” means:
the persons consulting at the constitution forum meetings chosen to represent the employees of the employer from both

designated and non-designated groups at all levels in the workforce, as listed in annexure A.

3.10 “The Facilitator” means:
the person appointed to perform the functions and duties as set out in paragraph 7.

3.11 “The Chairperson” means:
the person appointed (as per paragraph 6.1.7) to chair the Consultation Forum meetings in an impartial and organised manner. This function includes managing discussions to remain within the agenda, managing participation, timekeeping and co-ordinating the fair and effective flow of meetings.

4. **OBJECTIVES AND PURPOSE**

4.1 The purpose of this constitution is to regulate all matters pertaining to the consultation between the employer and the equity forum representatives.

4.2 The purpose of the consultation forum and the meetings is to enable the parties to consult and attempt to reach agreement on:

4.2.1 The conduct of the analysis of employment policies, practices and procedures in the workplace to identify employment barriers which adversely effect people from designated groups;

4.2.2 The conduct of the analysis of the profile of the employers workforce within each occupational category and level to determine the degree of under representation of people from designated groups;

4.2.3 The preparation, presentation and implementation of the Employment Equity Plan;

4.2.4 The preparation and content of the report to be submitted to the Director General of the Department of Labour.

5. **MEETINGS**

5.1 In order to achieve the objectives and purpose set out above the employer will arrange meetings with the consultation forum to consult on the aspects reflected in paragraphs 5.2.1 - 5.2.4 above:

- 5.1.1 Such meetings will take place once a month for a full day in Johannesburg and Cape Town in alternate months.
- 5.1.2 The employer will notify all representatives timeously of the dates, times, location and venue of such meetings.
- 5.1.3 Accommodation and transport to the meetings will be arranged at the employer's expense should the meetings take place outside of the province where an equity forum representative is employed.
- 5.1.4 A quorum for any meeting of the consultation forum shall be seven (7) of the equity forum representatives personally present including the employer representative.
- 5.1.5 For the purpose of clause 6.1.4 above, equity forum representatives are only those persons as defined in this constitution as listed in annexure A, or their alternates.
- 5.1.6 The employer will prepare the agenda for discussion at the meetings.
- 5.1.7 The facilitator will be the chairperson and will chair all the consultation forum meetings.

6. ADMINISTRATION AND FACILITATION

- 6.1 For the purposes of administration, an administrator ("the administrator"), has been appointed to arrange venues, facilities, taking of minutes, notification, etc. (See "Annexure A").
- 6.2 The administrator is not an equity forum representative as defined for the purpose of consultation and accordingly has no standing in terms of quorums, consultation etc.
- 6.3 In order to ensure that the forum has access to expert information relating to the Act, a facilitator ("the facilitator"), has been appointed to assist the consultation forum achieve its objectives set out in paragraph 5 above.
- 6.4 The facilitator is not an equity forum representative as defined for the purpose of consultation and accordingly has no standing in terms of quorums, discussion etc.

7. ROLES AND POWERS OF REPRESENTATIVES

- 7.1 The equity forum representatives are present in their capacity as representatives of the employees of the employer.
- 7.2 All equity forum representatives are required, where possible, to report back to all the employees within their occupational level and category within the workforce and from the same designated or non-designated group.
- 7.3 The equity forum representatives are expected, where possible, to receive mandates from such persons in relation to achievement of the objectives as set in paragraph 5 above.
- 7.4 The equity forum representatives must prepare and report back on all issues delegated to them at consultation meetings on the dates as agreed in consultation.
- 7.5 The equity forum representatives are required to consult in a positive and constructive manner within the framework and objectives of the consultation forum and constitution and must refrain from raising concerns and issues outside of the constitution and the Act's purpose and objectives.
- 7.6 The employer is required to consult in a positive and constructive manner within the framework and objectives of the consultation forum and constitution and must refrain from raising concerns and issues outside of the constitution and the Acts purpose and objectives.
- 7.7 The equity forum consultation discussions are confidential. The minutes of such meetings will not identify the identity of the individuals who raise issues. The minutes will summarise points raised in general and decisions made or to be responded to.

8. **DISPUTE RESOLUTION**

- 8.1 Should any representative have a grievance relating to the process of consultation as governed by this constitution, such grievance must be referred to the employer in term of the *Companies* grievance procedure attached hereto ("annexure B").

9. **FUNCTION**

- 9.1 The function of the forum is to consult on the issues referred to in paragraphs 5.2.1 – 5.2.4 above.
- 9.2 In terms of the Act the employer must take reasonable steps to consult and attempt to reach agreement with the equity forum representatives on the issues referred to in paragraph 5.2.1-5.2.4 above.
- 9.3 Consultation for the purpose of this constitution and the Act does not require consensus.
- 9.4 The employer and the equity forum representatives must be committed to attempting all reasonable means of reaching consensus.
- 9.5 Should consensus not be reached, the employer must consider all representations made by the equity forum representatives before making a final decision.

10. **SUB FORUM APPOINTMENT**

- 10.1 Where the consultation forum feels that a sub forum should be appointed to investigate an aspect outside of the consultation forum meeting agenda, the forum may appoint a sub-forum to investigate and report back to the consultation forum.
- 10.2 Appointment, functions and details of such sub-forums will be made by agreement amongst the consultation forum.
- 10.3 Should agreement not be reached, a vote by all the representatives present at that meeting will determine the representatives and details of the sub-forum.

11. **NOTICES**

- 11.1 Minutes of all consultation meetings will be typed and made available to all employees, in the appropriate manner (by email or notice) at each region of the employer.
- 11.2 It is the duty of the administrator to ensure that such minutes are typed and made available to all employees of the employer.
- 11.3 Minutes must be finalised by the administrator within 14 days of each consultation meeting.

12. **TERMINATION**

- 12.1 The consultation forum will only remain constituted until the final consultation meeting presently scheduled for November 1999.
- 12.2 On 30 November 1999, the forum shall be dissolved, subject to paragraph 13.3 and 13.6 below.
- 12.3 Should the employer feel that a further meeting is required after the month referred to in paragraph 13.1 above, a further meeting or meetings may be scheduled and the forum termination date may be extended to a date agreed between the employer and the representatives.
- 12.4 Should the employer and the representatives fail to reach agreement on such a date, the employer will put forward two alternate dates and those representatives present during the meeting will vote on such date.
- 12.5 On completion of the further meeting or meetings referred to in paragraph 13.3 above, the forum shall be dissolved, subject to paragraph 13.6 below.
- 12.6 The forum will be reconstituted from time to time after the date in paragraph 13.1 or extended date, on an ad hoc basis should the employer require input in consultation from representatives within the workforce on any aspect relating to the objectives and purpose of this constitution and the Act.

13. **ALTERNATES**

- 13.1 If an equity forum representative:
- 13.1.1 Leaves the employ of the employer; or
- 13.1.2 Cannot substantially perform their role as an equity forum representative as required by this constitution and the Act, such representative must, in consultation with the employer, nominate an alternate from the same level and designated or non-designated group to replace him/her in all future consultation meetings.

14. **CONCLUSION**

- 14.1 This constitution, with all the annexures, constitutes the whole constitution governing the relationship between the employer and the equity forum representatives as to the process of

achieving the objectives as set out in paragraph 5.2 and the Act.

- 14.2 No agreement, representation or warranties between the parties other than those set out herein are binding on the parties, unless reduced to writing and signed by the employer and a quorum of the equity forum representatives as described in paragraph 6.1.4 above.
- 14.3 No amendments may be made to this constitution unless an amendment is suggested by the employer and reduced to writing and signed by the employer and a quorum of the equity forum representatives as required in paragraph 6.1.4 above.

APPENDIX D

EMPLOYMENT EQUITY MONITORING COMMITTEE MANDATE

1. PURPOSE

1.1 The main purpose of the Monitoring Committee is to ensure that the Equity Plan for *THE COMPANY* is implemented and progress is monitored at regular intervals.

1.2 The committee provides a vehicle to demonstrate to both internal and external stakeholders that equity decisions are formulated through an objective process and that disclosure requirements are met.

2. AUTHORITY AND MEMBERSHIP

2.1 This committee has been constituted for the tenure of the current Equity Plan with the membership as follows :

- Chairperson
- Executive Committee (Exco)
- Secretary
- SUBSIDIARY A
- SNR HR MANAGER
- UNION REP
- STAFF MEMBER

2.2 Should one of the committee members resign, an alternate may be sought from the members of *THE COMPANY* Equity Forum.

3. SCOPE OF ACTIVITIES

3.1 This committee will operate within the guidelines recommended by the Code of Good Practice for the Preparation, Implementation, and Monitoring of Employment Equity Plans and the provisions of the Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1998.

3.2 The committee is charged with the following responsibilities :

- Ensure the provisions of the Act are enforced
- Review the equity plan and report prior to submission
- Report and make recommendations to the Exco regarding non-compliance with the Equity Plan
- Ensure full and sufficient records are kept
- Review disputes relating to equity that remain unresolved after the usual channels have been followed
- Agree appropriate benchmarks
- Ensure appropriate communication is carried out to relevant stakeholders

4. **MEETING TIMEABLE**

The Committee will meet quarterly in February, May, August and November of each year.

5. **FEEDBACK**

The Exco representative of the Monitoring Committee will provide quarterly feedback to the Exco. The Secretary will provide feedback to *THE COMPANY* Remuneration Committee, a sub-committee of the Board. The Committee will ensure that appropriate feedback is given to staff.

Constituted : 07 February 2000, updated May 2001