UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE GLASS CEILING: PERCEPTIONS OF ASPIRING FEMALE MANAGERS

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of
Master of Business Administration

Graduate School of Business
Faculty of Management Studies

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2011

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I, KIAYE E. RISPER declare that

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to

My loving mother Mrs Phoebe A. Kiaye

who was promoted to glory

on 9th June 2011

Thank you mama for being there for me

I miss you dearly

Jeremiah 29:11

Abstract

The glass ceiling has been defined as a subtle, intangible yet impenetrable barrier that hinders the accession of women to senior management positions. Its manifestations are unique to every country and organisation. The theoretical framework of the glass ceiling has pointed to person and situation centred theories, social role, interaction and human capital theory to try and provide explanations to the origin of the glass ceiling. The main aim of the study was to determine whether the existence of the glass ceiling was a myth or reality. Purposive and snowball sampling were the sampling methods used in this study. The questionnaire that was administered using the web based Question pro elicited a total of 117 responses from 290 questionnaires that were circulated to respondents, resulting in a 40% response rate. Due to the sampling method that was used, results obtained could not be generalised to the entire population of female managers in the Durban Metropolitan Area. Salient findings that emerged from this study were that 54% of respondents were aged between 35-44 years and were married (69%). In addition, the majority of respondents were White (41%), were employed in the Private Sector (62%) and held middle management positions (47%). Critical to this study, respondents felt that the glass ceiling was still firmly in place as female representation at senior management was minimal (86%). Some of the barriers to the upward career mobility of respondents were reluctance to relocate (48%), need to overachieve (52%) and consistently exceeding performance (64%). In addition, critical career mobility success factors were that respondents needed to be leaders geared towards high achievement (94%), be competitive and ambitious (90%), be confident and exhibit emotional suitability to hold senior management positions (84%), have a track record (77%), receive organisational support to balance their multiple roles (59%) and have a willingness to relocate (41%). For the ceiling to crack, it is essential for organisations' on one hand to commit to creating environments supportive of the roles of women (flexi time, work from home days, mentor staff) and women on the other hand need to have the desire to persevere and have faith in their abilities, cultivate their own leadership style, network and further their own education.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND STUDY OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

The involvement of women in the labour market in the World in general and in South Africa in particular has been on the increase. Though female representation at lower and mid-level management is on the increase, what remains alarming is that this involvement does not mirror the representation of women at senior management positions. The under representation of women at top management has been attributed to what several authors have termed the 'glass ceiling'. The concept of the 'glass ceiling' emanated from corporate United States (US) where a commission termed the Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) was set up to investigate why the involvement of women in labour in the US was not in proportion to their representation at top level management. The 'glass ceiling' has thus been termed an invisible barrier akin to a concrete ceiling that is impenetrable and prevents the accession of women to the upper echelons of management. The way the glass ceiling manifests itself is different in different countries and organisations. This study hence attempts to provide insights into the glass ceiling phenomenon and is limited to the experiences of women in management in the greater Durban Metropolitan Area. The perceptions of the existence of the glass ceiling are limited to the experiences women in management have had and continue to have. The foregoing Chapter provides a brief explanation of the importance of the study by motivating the idea behind the research. A statement of the major aim and a list of research objectives and questions help to define the scope of what this study aims to achieve. Limitations identified while conducting the study are listed. A chapter by chapter layout of the dissertation is provided at the end of this chapter to show how this study will unfold.

1.2 Motivation for the study

The involvement of women in the economy more so at senior management has been hindered by barriers termed the glass ceiling (April et al., 2007). The subtleness of the ceiling means that barriers that are perceived to exist may take different forms within organisations without the knowledge of management. As a result, women fail to reach their full potential at the

work place. In this regard, it therefore becomes essential to study the perceptions female managers aspiring for the top echelons of management have as to why the ceiling exists hindering their vertical career mobility. Through this study, management will become cognisant about the potential existence of internal growth barriers which contribute to women encountering a glass ceiling which prevents their upward mobility within organisations. Information obtained from this study will help potential employers to better understand female employee needs with regard to work cultures and environments that are perceived to be barriers to their advancement and thereby enable management to provide conducive environments which will be able to enhance greater involvement of women in leadership positions. Additionally, information so gained will act as inputs into the organisation's strategic decision making process leading to cracking or shattering of the ceiling if deemed to exist in an organisation. For organisations, inclusion of women in leadership roles has been known to have benefits especially with regard to decision making (Jain and Mukherji, 2010). A diversified team of top leaders in an organisation is an indication of top managements' commitment to enhancing women's vertical mobility in organisations and hence their inclusion in senior managerial positions.

For potential women aspirants and those already in leadership positions, this research will provide useful information on the types of barriers that exist in organisations and thereby enable women in leadership roles in organisations to better influence the cultivation of internal work environments that support the advancement of their fellow women. For women aspiring to leadership roles the information from this study will equip them with vital knowledge on how to overcome organisational barriers capable of hindering their upward mobility.

Research on the glass ceiling and how the barriers manifest themselves at organisational levels will assist policy makers at national level to introduce legislation geared to increasing the participation of women and minority groups in a country's economy owing to the changing dynamics of the labour force. By making it mundane for organisations to abide by certain empowerment legislation will help lead to organisational cultural changes which may in totality work towards enhancing the vertical mobility of women.

This study will also add to the already existing body of knowledge and will examine the issue of the glass ceiling using information gathered from experiences women have had and

continue to have while on the job that hinders their career mobility. Potential areas for further research that are included in Chapter 6 will help to further contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the glass ceiling issues.

1.3 Focus of the study

According to the Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) (1991), barriers like the glass ceiling presents themselves as societal, internal structural barriers and/or government barriers. For the purpose of this study, internal structural/organisational barriers in direct control of the business will represent the barriers of concern and will be collectively termed as "barriers to entry" to senior managerial positions. Such barriers as reviewed from literature may in part include lack of mentors, lack of opportunities for career advancement, existence of old boy networks, lack of promotions among others (Jain and Mukherji, 2010; April et al., 2007). In its entirety therefore, the study will try to unpack the perceptions that female managers have with regard to 'barriers to entry' which act as hindrances to their advancement to senior leadership positions. According to the GCC (1991), perceptions, are what people believe and ultimately becomes personal behaviour. Therefore emphasis on perceptions true or not will be confined to personal experiences women have had and continue to have while in employment which they perceive as being 'barriers to entry' to senior management positions. Additionally, managers will be defined as women who hold leadership positions, are involved in some form of decision making and have a number of subordinate staff reporting to them within their organisations.

1.4 Problem statement

Despite gender socio-economic equality statistics in South Africa (SA) showing improvement according to the Master Card Worldwide Index of Women's Advancement (MWIWA) (2010), disparity between the number of men and women holding managerial positions more so senior management positions still exists, alluding to the existence of invisible barriers that different authors have termed the glass ceiling. Mavin (2000 as cited in Van der Boom, 2003:132), defined the glass ceiling as " frustrations of working women at every level who can see where they want to go but find themselves blocked by an invisible barrier".

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A review of recent literature has pointed to person and situation centred, interaction, human capital and social role theories to provide explanations as to why the glass ceiling exists (Davidson and Burke, 2000; Powell, 2000). Though legislation more so Affirmative Action (AA) and Employment Equity Act (EEA) has done much to eliminate formal gender bias at the workplace, the concept of the glass ceiling shows that gender inequality is still rife and presents itself in a range of work practices and cultural norms that appear to be unbiased hence the term the glass ceiling (Research Focus, 2009). Further to this, the glass ceiling being a subtle barrier may exist within organisations without the knowledge of top executives in the firm. This is because the barriers may be organisational norms and practices that have become engraved as part of organisational cultures (Research Focus, 2009). By studying perceptions aspiring female managers have as pertains to the ceiling will help determine whether the glass ceiling's existence in this study is due to organisational barriers or not.

As long as the glass ceiling is perceived to exist in organisations, will women get a chance to reach their full potential in the workplace and will their participation in the upper echelons of management continue to remain limited?

1.5 Research questions

The aim of the study being to determine whether the existence of the glass ceiling is a myth or reality was achieved by providing answers to the major research questions listed below.

i)   Do work barriers have an influence on the vertical career progression of women?

ii) What are the different types of barriers/work practices that hinder female managers from vertical career progression?

iii) What personal traits must women possess to enable them assume leadership positions in organisations?

iv) How can the upward career mobility of women be facilitated?

1.6 Research objectives

The scope of this study was guided by the following objectives

- To determine whether work place barriers contribute to the creation of the glass ceiling.
- To identify what factors hinder the vertical progression of females to top management positions.
- To determine if work place barriers deter females from applying for promotions.
- To determine if female managers have the power to promote other females.
- To determine if personal traits influences vertical progression.
- To make recommendations to facilitate the upward mobility of women in organisations.

The achievement of the above objectives was dependent on the respondents' level of agreement or disagreement with questionnaire variables which were significant at p≤0.05.

1.7 Limitations of the research

Challenges that were experienced in the course of carrying out this study are as listed but discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

- The 40% response rate from the web based questionnaire powered by Question Pro that was achieved in this study was low despite constant reminders to respondents to respond.
- The inability to generalise the study findings to mirror the perceptions of female managers in the greater Durban Metro area was impossible due to the use of non probability sampling.
- The use of snow ball sampling though increased to some extent the number of respondents; it resulted in respondents recruiting other respondents who might have had similar views to themselves hence resulting in skewing the data on the basis of race and organisational cluster.
- The Likert scale made it impossible to find out why the respondents made the choices that they did when responding to the questionnaire statements, hence the research responses lacked variability.

1.8 The study structure

To ensure that there is continuity from one chapter to the next, each chapter has an introductory paragraph of the concept under review, a main body with several sub sections providing in depth information on the chapter content and a concluding summary that links a preceding Chapter to the next new chapter. In summary, the study is structured as follows:

Chapter 1 gives in detail the main purpose, focus and motivation for the study. In addition, a definition of the scope of the study, objectives and research questions are listed together with limitations that were encountered in carrying out this study.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the relevant literature as pertains to the glass ceiling. A theoretical background to the glass ceiling concept and its definitions are provided to give readers a better understanding of what the glass ceiling means. In addition, the magnitude of the ceiling, barriers that result in creating the ceiling, its effects and ways to counter it are discussed.

Chapter 3 details the research methodology adopted in this study. The aim and objectives, data collection methods and generally the research design and methods are discussed.

Chapter 4 presents the study findings of data that were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the findings of the study. It addresses the findings according to the objectives in order to determine whether they have been met or not.

Chapter 6 the final chapter concludes the study with a summary of the main findings, recommendations and potential areas for future research.

1.9 Summary

The under representation of women at senior management is attributed to subtle barriers termed as the glass ceiling. The subtleness of the barriers means that management may not be aware that barriers exist in organisations. Based on this premise, the motivation behind the study and the problem statement are detailed in this chapter. In addition, the focus of the study that was guided by research questions to be answered and limitations that were encountered are listed. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the glass ceiling concept.

CHAPTER TWO

THE GLASS CEILING OVERVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The main aim of this Chapter was to review relevant literature in order to provide insights into the concept of the glass ceiling. The chapter attempts to give some background information on the glass ceiling, define and quantify the extent of the ceiling, explain how the ceiling manifests itself, and lastly alternative strategy that can be used to crack or go beyond the glass ceiling.

2.2 Background to the origin of the glass ceiling concept

Globally, there has been an unprecedented change occurring in the composition and participation of the workforce in the world economy. This change has been propelled by the active involvement of more women in the economy than before (April et al., 2007). According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2004), out of the world's 2.9 billion workers, 40% are women. Studies done worldwide show that the increasing involvement of women in the work force is not synonymous with their representation at senior management levels (Cross and Linehan, 2006). This increase in female participation in the workforce is mirrored in the South African scenario where though women are entering the workforce in large numbers, a vast majority of senior leadership positions remain a male preserve (Stelter 2002 as cited in April et al., 2007 and Mok Kim Man et al., 2009). What this means is that on the surface women are being accepted as part of the workforce, but their reception into senior management levels is stifled due to subtle forms of discrimination that present themselves in compensation, training and/or socialisation networks (Billy and Manoochehri, 1995).

With there being a need to increase diversity in the workforce, a study done by Powell and Graves (2003 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009), indicated that the proportion of women holding managerial ranks in lower and mid-level management positions had increased, concomitantly with their greater demand for equality in the work environment. As a result, the proportion of women reaching top management positions has remained relatively small

pointing to the existence of 'barriers to entry' to top management that have been termed the 'glass ceiling' (April et al., 2007).

According to Insch et al., (2008), the concept of the glass ceiling originated from the United States and its usage gained popularity in the 1980s. The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) was created as part of the US Civil Rights Act of 1991 to carry out a study and prepare recommendations for the US Congress on how to eliminate artificial barriers that hindered the advancement of women to senior management positions. The glass ceiling was perceived to exist in Corporate America because it was observed that women participating in labour could only rise up to a certain level in organisations. Their 11% representation at top management and 2% representation in corporate boards did not mirror their 50% composition of the total US labour force (Taylor and Waggoner, 2008). Once at mid- level they stopped and got stuck owing to artificial barriers that were attributed to the glass ceiling. The GCC findings attributed the glass ceiling to women being hired to 'feminized' positions in the organisation, more so in human resources and personnel as opposed to holding top management positions in line positions like sales, marketing and production (Insch et al., 2008).

Compared to formal barriers to career advancement like lack of education or work experience requirements which may have relevance in the South African context, the subtleness of the ceiling means that glass ceiling barriers are less tangible and may be engraved in culture; society and psychological factors that work collectively to impede the advancement of women to upper managerial positions (Jain and Mukherji, 2010). What is critical to note is that the glass ceiling phenomenon exists even in the 21st century where globalisation and technological advances have resulted to flattening of hierarchies and the emergence of 24 hour economies (Jain and Mukherji, 2010).

2.3 Defining the glass ceiling

With research into the glass ceiling gaining momentum, several authors have attempted to coin their own definitions and to provide explanations as to why the ceiling exists. The glass ceiling is a metaphor that has been used to explore organisational discriminative processes that inhibit the advancement of women and minority groups to senior management positions (Bendl and Schmidt, 2010). The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) (1995 as cited in

Taylor and Waggoner, 2008) offered an initial definition of the glass ceiling concept and defined it as an "artificial, yet unseen and unreachable barrier hindering the advancement of women and minorities scaling the corporate ladder regardless of their qualifications or achievements". Additionally, according to the GCC's report, the glass ceiling disregards merit and achievements of women by reinforcing discriminatory barriers that may take the form of gender bias, harassment or organisational norms that do not favour women hindering their upward career mobility.

Powell (2000), defined the glass ceiling as a 'barrier so subtle and transparent, yet so strong that it prevented women and minorities from moving up the management hierarchy'. Mavin (2000 as cited in Van der Boom, 2003), described the glass ceiling as 'frustrations of working women at every level who can see where they wanted to go but find themselves blocked by an invisible barrier. Kreitner and Kinicki (2008) concurred with Powell and Mavin (2000) and defined the glass ceiling as an invisible barrier that hindered the advancement of women and minorities to senior leadership positions. Hoobler et al., (2009) concurred with Kreitner and Kinicki (2008) and asserted that the ceiling referred to barriers women faced that hindered their upward mobility in organisations, with the 'glass' metaphor referring to the invisibility and subtleness of the barriers.

Har-Even (2004), defined the glass ceiling as artificial barriers that are based on attitudinal bias of both individuals and organisations that prevented deserving women from advancing to positions that they were qualified for. The glass ceiling can exist at different levels in organisations even though originally it meant a barrier to entry into top-level management positions only (Har-Even, 2004). According to Oakley (2000), the glass ceiling is not a single barrier (ceiling or a wall) in one spot within the organisation but rather may take varied forms of gender bias which overtly or covertly serve to hinder the career progression of women. Broadbridge, (2001) argued that the glass ceiling is a barrier that hindered the progression of women past the middle management levels in organisations.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

In trying to explain why fewer women held management positions, different authors have devised theories to try and explain why the glass ceiling exists. Such theories are discussed below:

2.4.1 Person Centred Theory

First reviewers of person centred theories suggested that lack of socialisation practices and behavioural differences of men and women in leadership resulted in the glass ceiling (Rigger and Galligan 1980; Bartol 1978 as cited in Powell 2000). Additionally, women were said to lack the necessary qualities such as ambition and confidence when compared to their male counterparts as well as assertiveness and influential behaviour: that were critical qualities for leadership (Singh and Terjesen 2008). It was also postulated that women lacked the relevant experience and/or education needed to hold or assume leadership positions. Studies done by Cassell and Walsh (1994) challenged the person centred views as outlined by Galligan (1980) and Bartol (1978) and claimed that cultural factors mainly gender-based power dynamics, power in organisational bureaucracy and men's dominant norms and values resulted in the formation of barriers within organisations in the informal context (April, et al., 2007). These cultural factors according to Cassell and Walsh (1994 study as cited in April et al., 2007) are what appeared to strongly supersede the impact that individual differences in attributes between males and females may have as to cause the glass ceiling.

According to Morrison and Von Glinow's (1990 study as cited in Har-Even 2004), women's traits and behaviours, socialisation practices and attitudes do not make the woman inadequate or deficient in any way to assume a leadership position. Additionally, Morrison and Von Glinow's study refuted the assumption that women's risk averseness and fear of success made them unsuitable for leadership positions. Conclusions of that study showed that both male and female managers were more alike in personality, motivation and abilities. However, according to Simpson et al., (2004 as cited in April et al., 2007) situational organisational barriers are what can override individual characteristics like qualifications and skills to the extent that education alone may not be effective in securing career success for women.

With education being of relevance in the SA context, according to April et al., (2007) unless an appropriate person centred approach to education is adopted in South Africa (SA), access for women to executive careers will not be realised and women will remain lower down the management hierarchy in roles that offer no visibility and responsibility to the bottom/top line and hence impede career mobility. Davidson and Burke (2000) were of the opinion that women in top management positions in organisations had both a direct and indirect effect on the proportion of women at lower managerial levels in the organisation. Singh and Terjesen (2008) concurred with Davidson and Burke (2000) and asserted that the presence of females

at board level in organisations represented career opportunities for potential female employees, inspired female employees to seek senior management roles and helped engage women in networking through corporate networks that were all critical to enhancing the career visibility of women. As an example, a study done by Beckman and Philips (2005 as cited in Singh and Terjesen 2008) showed that law firms with key clients having female board representation were more likely to promote women to higher managerial positions within organisations. Another dimension that person centric theories attribute to why female representation at senior management is low are due to the cues that managers have about their female employees that then influences whether the female employee is selected for promotions or not based on what is recalled by the manager (Hoobler, et al., 2009).

2.4.2 Situation Centred Theory

According to Singh and Terjesen (2008), studies at individual and firm level assume an open and competitive labour market and focus on the individual's effort and the organisation to help females achieve senior management positions. On the contrary, situation centred theories are more concerned with the nature of the work environment faced by women aspiring for management positions that serve to determine their fate more than their own traits, skill or behaviour as advocated for in person centred theories (April et al., 2007). The work environment for women includes factors attributed to group dynamics that are directed towards 'token' female workers and attitudes of workers towards female managers (Powell, 2000).

Token appointments have been attributed to the unintended consequence of the employment equity (EE) legislation wherein the individuals meant to be empowered by the legislation are instead paying a heavy price of their empowerment with their career immobility (April et al., 2007). With Affirmative Action (AA) also contributing to empowering the previously disadvantaged, what is emerging is a phenomenon termed 'reverse discrimination' where the previously advantaged feel they are being discriminated against (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2008). Through AA, there is a perception that individuals who lack requisite qualifications and skills, networks and experience are being appointed to executive leadership positions without the needed support structures, leading to a situation where people are being consciously set up to fail, not because they are incompetent but due to the fact that they are being denied

access to education and the accompanying networks of further education and social networks (April et al., 2007). Another point of contention with regard to AA and EE legislation is the perception that some women are appointed by companies concerned with 'ticking off' their compliance to their black economic empowerment (BEE) and gender score card scores rather than the professional achievements of their appointees (Harris, 2010a).

Tokenism has created stigma for the previously disadvantaged especially women irrespective of whether they are competent in terms of possessing the requisite skills, experience, training and qualifications (Maddock, 1999 as cited in April et al., 2007). According to April et al., (2007) tokenism results in a lose-lose situation wherein those who are not affirmed withdraw psychologically and those who are affirmed are perceived by colleagues and other employees as having been appointed to their jobs on the basis of their EE status and not on merit or competence. This token predicament leads to women feeling isolated from their colleagues especially if they accept the position and for those who yearn for group acceptance/assimilation do their best to lose their visibility (April, et al., 2007).

2.4.3 Social Role Theory

According to April et al., (2007), the elements of social structure are reasons for the continued existence of the glass ceiling which hinders the vertical progression of women to senior management. Singh and Terjesen (2008) asserted that the existence of the glass ceiling was attributable to gendered social systems where work 'designed by men and for men' and where patriarchy defined work roles by gender led to gender discrimination and stereotyping. Where promotion systems work in a gender biased way, it is expected that career paths for corporate leaders are to be unbroken. Such systems work to exclude women who take maternity leave or part-time work or those who relocate due to their spouses' career moves leading to the creation of a glass ceiling (Singh and Terjesen 2008). Singh and Terjesen (2008) further explained that women's family responsibilities are what hindered or were perceived to hinder their commitment to the organisation and consequent lack of involvement in corporate networks that provided access to powerful people. Around mid-career, when a male counterpart is scaling the corporate ladder, the female may in most instances opt to take career breaks in order to raise a family or attend to family needs: breaks that indeed can prevent women from being seen as potential corporate candidates (April et al., 2007).

Hoobler et al., (2009), asserted that gender typical roles (breadwinner versus the homemaker) ascribed to men and women respectively shaped their behavioural expectations and beliefs about their talents and skills. This is in line with social role theorists who suggest that women are not associated with managerial effectiveness due to their nurturing, communal and supportive nature which is seen as not cognisant with top management astuteness, leading to a subconscious gender role stereotyping. This stereotyping that has associated women with being kind and caring and men as tough and achievement-oriented has been labelled 'think leader think male' (Hoobler et al., 2009). Social role theorists associate women with being more of care givers and hence less committed to their careers: a situation that is incongruent with leadership and less prospects for promotion creating a glass ceiling (Hoobler et al., 2009). Lewis (2001 as cited in Hoobler, et al., 2009), contradicts the assertion that females are more of care givers. Instead he states that professional women who concentrate more on their careers are less likely to get married and have children. However, those who do get married are likely to have fewer children. Other social theorists according to Hoobler et al., (2009) state that the presence of work and family conflict that exists more for the female manager than her male counterpart result in creating a glass ceiling. According to Harris (2010), women are at a higher risk than men of suffering from increased stress levels and burn out due to the multiple roles they play, terming women as their own worst enemies. On the contrary, results from Byron (2005 as cited in Hoobler et al., 2009) concludes that men and women to a similar level have work interference with family and family interference with work.

2.4.4 Interaction Centred Theory

With respect to women's lack of career advancement and the resultant glass ceiling, interaction centred theorists' explanation point to women's reluctance to self promote themselves or to actively manage their careers in organisations within informal promotional processes where one clearly states their career ambitions to gatekeepers (Singh, Kumra and Vinnicombe 1998 as cited in Singh and Terjesen, 2008). In this instance, women self limit their own advancement. The consequent result of this phenomenon is that management assumes that women are happy to continue with their present positions 'as is'. Male peers on the other hand according to interaction centred theorists give clear indications to promotional gatekeepers about their career ambitions, career successes and their readiness for the next

step making their movement higher up the hierarchy even faster, a phenomenon that has been termed the 'glass escalator' (Singh and Terjesen, 2008).

2.4.5 Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory's premise of the under representation of women in management is attributed to the free choices made by women with regard to their participation in the work force, the type of work and decisions they make to invest in their education and training (Hede and Ralston, 1993). According to human theorists, because women tend to place higher value on their domestic responsibilities, their voluntary choices as relates to work differs from those of their male counterparts (Hede and Ralston, 1993). According to Powell (2000 as cited in Davidson and Burke, 2000) the major flaw in this theory lies with the assumption of 'free choice', and the theory's failure to recognise the differences in power structure between the employer and employee that may serve to hinder the progression of the female worker. Additionally, the theory does not explain why women with uninterrupted careers do not reach top management (Broadbridge, 2008). As a result, this theory however has not been supported by empirical evidence.

2.5 Quantifying the extent of the Glass Ceiling

Globally, women comprise the fastest growing labour force segment, but they are disproportionately under represented at top management while being over represented in informal employment, unpaid work and in undesirable sectors of the economy (ILO, 2004).

2.5.1 Global perspectives

Generally, according to a census study done in the United States (US), Canada and Australia, female representation at top management falls below 20% (BWASA, 2010). In the US, only 8% out of the 46.5% of women making up the workforce hold top managerial positions (Beck and Davis, 2005 as cited in Jain and Mukherji, 2010). In the UK 49.7% of women constituted the workforce with 34.5% holding managerial posts constituting a 3 fold increase since 1988 (Eurostat 2006 as cited in Broadbridge, 2008). According to the Institute of Management (2001 and Hakim 2003 as cited in Broadbridge, 2008), reasons for the increased representation of women in management in the UK were attributed to their investment in

higher education, changing attitudes towards the acceptance for women with children to work and a decreasing fertility rate. In addition, organisational policies which promote equal opportunities for both men and women and the growth of an information and service-based economy supportive of women are factors that have helped to increase the representation of women in management in the UK (Powell, 2000). However, like the US, representation of women in top management positions in a majority of UK's economic sector remains limited pointing to the existence of barriers that to date still are firmly in place (Singh and Vinnicombe (2000) as cited in Broadbridge, 2008).

According to a study done by Katz and Katz (1997 as cited in Broadbridge, 2008), the retail industry in UK being a crucial employment sector comprises 41% of women in management. Though parity exists at the lower levels of retail management, higher up the hierarchy disparities in management are eminent (Broadbridge, 2008). According Broadbridge (2001) study, there was an inverse relationship between women and men based on levels in the organisational hierarchy. At departmental level, there were more women than men on a 2:1 ratio. Men on the other hand outnumbered women by a ratio of 3:1 at deputy management levels. Higher up the hierarchy at brand level management positions, the disparity between men and women was bigger reaching a ratio of 9:1 and 20:1 at area management levels. According to Broadbridge's (1998) study as cited in Broadbridge, 2008), barriers to the ascension of women were ascribed to their domestic responsibilities and organisational attitudes (Broadbridge, 2008). On the other hand, both male and female retail managers attributed the disparity in management as being related to company cultures that did not support women and those that embraced leadership styles not akin to women, long work hours, lack of flexible work hours at senior management level that did not support family commitments and unfair promotional practises (Broadbridge, 2008). At top management positions in the retail industry, a study done by Thomas (2001 as cited in Broadbridge, 2008) showed that though there was an improvement in the access of women to top management their representation at this level was limited. This was attributed to women in top leadership being relegated to secondary positions with no visibility rather than in high visibility positions at the centre of corporate influence in retailing (Broadbridge, 2008). At this point it is evident that the Glass Ceiling phenomenon is a worldwide phenomenon and not one unique to South Africa (SA).

2.5.2 South African scenario

Coming closer home to Africa in general and SA in particular, despite the existence of empowerment legislation, gender equality is not taking place at the rate needed to impact positively on the economic wellbeing of women (BWASA, 2010). Although women form the majority of the population in SA, their participation in areas of the economy that are male dominated still remains limited (BWASA, 2010).

According to the National Labour Force Survey of 2009, 51.6% of women make up the total adult population in SA (Stats SA, 2009). Although a marginal increase of women in leadership positions is being experienced, women are still under represented in top management positions. Statistics from the Business Women's' Association of South Africa (BWASA) 2010 indicates that from the total adult population, 44.6% females are active labour participants. Only 19.3% and 16.6% constitute executive managers and company directors respectively as shown in Figure 2.1.
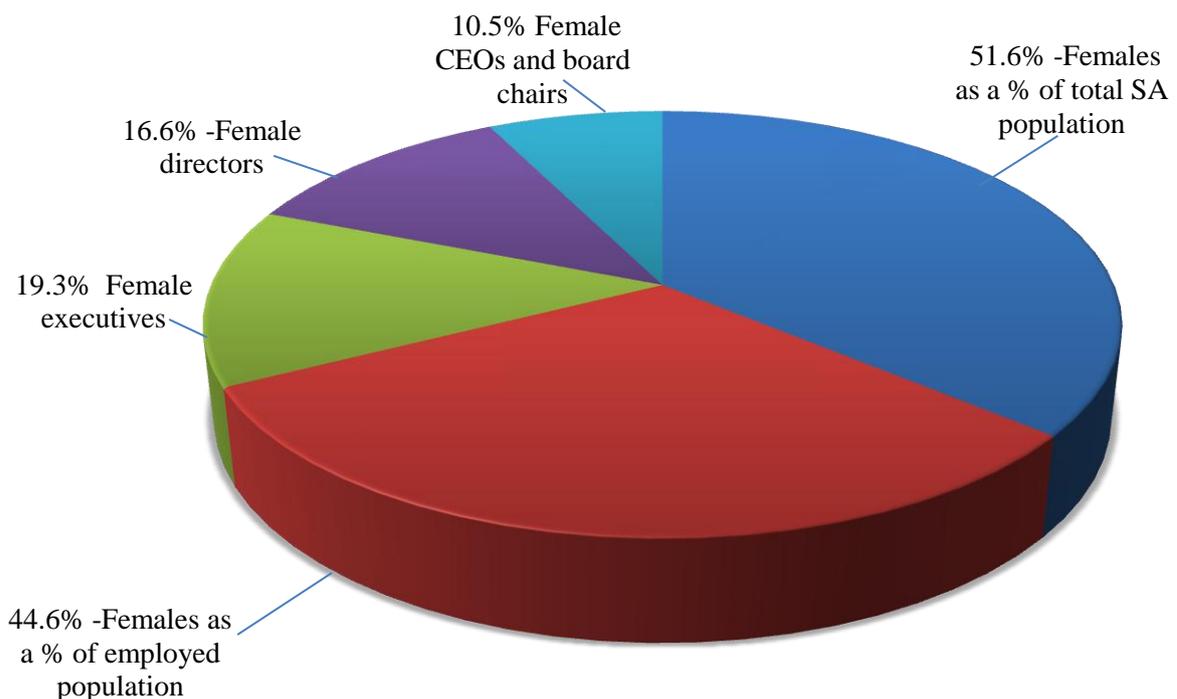
Figure 2.1 BWASA 2010 Census statistics

Adapted from: BWASA (2010). **Women in leadership census 2010**. In partnership with Nedbank and InWEnt [Online] Available at:

www.bwasa.co.za/Census/2010censusresults/tabid/14708/Default.aspx. (Accessed 20 July, 2011)

According to April et al., (2007), the 19.3% female representation at executive level falls way below the 30% parliamentary seats held by women, majority of whom are black. Reasons that have been cited for the increase of black female representation in Government is attributed to their active engagement in the liberation struggle and the affirmative action policies and Employment Equity Legislation that have served to empower the previously disadvantaged (April et al., 2007).

Comparing the female representation at executive management and directorship level to their male counterparts, the disparities come to light as shown in Table 2.1

Table 2.1: BWASA (2010) Management statistics by gender

ABSOLUTE NUMBERS				
EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT POSITIONS				
YEAR	**MALE**	**% Male representation**	**FEMALE**	**% Female representation**
2010	11832	80.7	2827	19.3
2009	12078	81.4	2761	18.6
2008	3618	74.7	1227	25.3
2007	5230	80.8	1243	19.2
2006	6567	83.2	1323	16.8
DIRECTORSHIP POSITIONS				
2010	5316	83.4	1056	16.6
2009	3366	85.4	574	14.6
2008	2505	85.7	419	14.3
2007	2547	86.9	385	13.1
2006	2777	88.5	362	11.5

Adapted from: BWASA (2010). **Women in leadership census 2010**. In partnership with Nedbank and InWEnt [Online]

Available at: www.bwasa.co.za/Cesus/tabid/9447/Default.aspx.

(Accessed 2 September, 2010)

From Table 2.1, the number of executive female managers increased from 16.8% to 19.3% from 2006 to 2010 respectively. Women holding directorship positions increased marginally from 11.5% to 16.6% from 2006 to 2010 respectively. In comparison their male counterparts held over 80% of both executive and directorship positions (MWIWA 2010; BWASA 2010). Though female representation is still dire locally, internationally, SA is tops with regard to female board representation in Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) listed companies with a representation of 16.6% when compared to United States of America (USA) Fortune 500 companies with a female representation of 15.2%, Canada's FP 500 with a 13.0% representation and Australia's ASX 200 with a 8.3% representation. Additionally, at the executive managerial level, SA's female representation is tops at 19.3%, followed by Canada- 16.9%, USA- 13.5% and Australia- 10.7% respectively (BWASA, 2010).

Shean (2010) asserted that despite there being disparities based on female representation in management, an improvement in the socio-economic equality between men and women was evident as per the MasterCard Worldwide Index of Women's Advancement (MWIWA) 2010 report. Four gender parity indicators that were used to assess this equality were labour force participation, tertiary education enrolment rate, incidence of management positions and above median income as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: MWIWA 2010 gender parity indicators

GENDER PARITY INDICATORS				
	2007	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Labour force participation	78.07	75.79	75.45	75.85
Tertiary education enrolment rate	125.87	127.87	129.91	131.98
Incidence of management positions	72.71	65.31	64.27	75.04
Above median income	108.59	104.16	82.22	91.12
MWIWA equality Index	96.31	93.28	87.96	93.50

Adapted from: **Master Card Worldwide Index of Women's Advancement (MWIWA), 2010**. [Online]

Available at: www.masterintelligence.com/viewRegionReport.jsp?hid....

(Accessed 2 September, 2010)

From Table 2.2, a gender parity score below 100 indicates gender inequality in favour of males while a score above 100 indicates gender inequality in favour of females. A score equal to 100 shows equality between the sexes. According to MWIWA (2010 as cited in Shane, 2010), there was an increase in the tertiary education enrolment rate among women relative to that of men. From 2007 to 2010, the national enrolment rate showed consistent growth increasing by 611 basis points (125.87 to 131.98), approximately 6% from 2007 to 2010 respectively for every 100 men enrolled in institutions of higher learning. Despite an improvement in gender parity, what was critical was that noticeably fewer women than men reported holding top managerial posts (Shean, 2010). The incidence of top management positions though low increased by approximately 11 basis points (64.7 to 75.04), which translates to approximately 0.11% from 2009 to 2010 respectively, a score which according to the index shows gender inequality in favour of men. Above median income increased by 9% from 2009 to 2010. Generally, according to the equality index, SA's score increased by almost six basis points (87.96 to 93.5) 0.06% between 2009 and 2010 respectively, overall, signifying an improvement in equality indicators between men and women. The above statistics clearly show that the glass ceiling is a global phenomenon that affects women the world over and is mirrored in their minimal representation in top management.

2.6 Glass ceiling barriers

The existence of legislation and equal opportunity (EE) policies has not done much to eliminate work place barriers since widespread inequality in the work environment is in existence (Jain and Mukherji, 2010). Eagly, Wood and Diekman, (2003 as cited in April, et al., 2007) argued that women's access to senior leadership positions is and still remains limited due to the existence of 'barriers to entry' to their advancement. Evidence from research carried out in the U.S, Europe and Hong Kong support this notion and states that women face career obstacles that their male counterparts do not face (Insch et al., 2008).

According to Oakley (2000), the causes of the lack of women in top/senior management positions can be explained from two perspectives:

- Barriers created by behavioural and cultural causes are subjective in nature and therefore internal. Such barriers stem from stereotyping: where the woman adopts

stereotypical views of how society views her, tokenism, power preferred leadership styles, and 'old boy' networks.

- Barriers created from corporate practices comprise barriers that are objective in nature hence easier to change. The gender imbalance that results from such barriers emanate from recruitment, training and career development, retention, compensation and promotion practices that favour males over females especially in jobs associated with line positions (Har-Even, 2004). Oakley (2000) termed corporate practice barriers as external barriers since they are artificial and discriminatory in nature. Additional external barriers include lack of access to higher education, lack of role models, mentorship and networks.

2.6.1 Non supportive corporate culture

Corporate culture according to Ross, (2000 as cited in Jain and Mukherji 2010) 'acts as the inter-personal glue that holds the organisation together and in turn helps to coordinate employee efforts'. If biased, corporate cultures can become engraved in organisations, and can at times hinder the advancement of women. According to Oakley (2000), corporate practices that do not support training, career development, compensation equity and promotion are major components that create a glass ceiling for women hindering them from vertical career progression. A 2002 Leaders Edge/Executive Women research survey revealed that unsupportive corporate culture was the number one reason women cited as contributory to their leaving company jobs (Insch et al., 2008).

2.6.1.1 Training and career development

The majority of women holding management positions lack line experience, a prerequisite for reaching the senior management (Oakley, 2000). A US survey that was done by Lublin (1996 as cited in Oakley, 2000) found that more than 60% of the women interviewed held staff support positions in human resources (HR) and public relations. To be a candidate for senior management, managers need line experience in marketing, manufacturing and operations by mid career for them to be included in the pipeline for top management (April et al., 2007).

Placing women in genderised/ support/staff positions like HR, as opposed to critical on track line positions (manufacturing) that contribute to the revenue side of the business results in a 'glass wall' which in turn hinders the vertical advancement of women (Mok Kim Man et al.,

2009). If women are not career tracked while at lower management levels, their exclusion from top management becomes even more eminent (Oakley, 2000). Globally, men hold 93.2 % of top line positions which contribute to the revenue side of the business with women and minorities holding the remaining 6.8% (April, et al., 2007).

According to Mondy et al., (2002 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009), training and development in organisations serve to improve employee competency levels which in turn later becomes the organisation's intellectual capital and source of competitive advantage.

2.6.1.2 Old boy networks

The 'old boy networks' are informal male social systems that stretch across and within organisations excluding less powerful males and all women from membership (Oakley, 2000). Old boy networks' according to Taylor and Waggoner, (2008:85) are informal associations formed over business lunches or deals made out on the golf course. Corporate practices that support 'old boy networks' are likely to exclude women from top positions who in turn do not benefit from the exposure that such networks offer (Ryan, et al., 2007). Women who indeed reach the top are perceived as threats by their male counterparts since they advocate for change from the status quo: 'inclusion into old boy networks' (Oakley, 2000).

According to similarity attraction theory, top level corporate culture is dominated by older, white males who tend to promote candidates who look, think and act like them, leaving the woman to have to fight twice as hard for career advancement opportunities against the prejudicial attitudes that this male culture supports (Insch et al., 2008). Results of a study done by Ryan et al., (2007) found that 'old boy networks' were real where selections for top jobs were based on who- knew- who. 'For women, belonging to an 'out group' is a negative factor for promotions especially in a case where the supervisor too belongs to a similar 'old boy network' as the subordinate. Women consequently lose out on the opportunities that the networks offer such as the exchange of inside information, planning platform for career strategies like knowledge of new assignments/promotions, professional and personal support, visibility and consequently upward mobility (Har- Even, 2004). Exclusion of women from 'old boy networks' is achieved through the process of competency testing where one is required to prove herself over and over again (Oakley, 2000). Responses from male executives in a study done by Rosener (1995 as cited in Oakley 2000), in North American

Corporations found that women in upper level positions were subject to rigorous competency testing much more than their male counterparts before they were considered for promotions.

As much as 'new girl networks' like Business Women's Association of South Africa (BWASA) for managerial and professional women are in existence to offer financial and emotional support to women, the existence of informal work place networks will still be a hindrance to the advancement of women especially where there is no access to such organisational insider networks.

Results of a study done by Ragin et al., (1998 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009) on why women thought they succeeded reported that 99% of female executives cited 'consistently exceeding performance expectations' as core to accessing the corporate ladder. This was attributed to the fact that women had to repeatedly prove their ability and over-perform in order to counter negative assumptions associated with their capabilities. The results of this study were negated by Levinson (1996 as cited in Har-Even 2004), who found that hard work that is supplemented by personal relationships and social networks is what helps to enhance a woman's career visibility and their resultant mobility.

2.6.2 Work-life balance

With work pressures associated with the top seat, women attempt to strike a balance between work and personal life which top management jobs do not encourage (April, et al., 2007). This presents a big challenge for South African women executives who try to maintain a balance between career and family (Booysen, 2007 as cited in April et al., 2007). While male executives have partners playing a primary role in managing the family and home, women executives by contrast have partners who are career driven. This means that the woman has to multi task. According to a report by Harris, (2010a), women were known to exhibit higher work place stress levels because of the multiple hats they wore and the roles they played. This view was supported by Tharenou (1997 as cited in Broadbridge 2008) and Linehan & Scullion (2008) who were of the view that combining work and family responsibilities is a precursor for causing work overload and conflict which both are potential barriers to career advancement. According to Linehan and Scullion (2008), work-life conflict is experienced when pressures from work and family responsibilities are incompatible to the extent that participation in one role makes it more difficult to participate in the other role. Broadbridge (2008) was of the view that multiple roles per se do not impede career advancement for

women, but it is family responsibilities that impede factors that lead to career advancement like putting off further education for a later date or never opting to undertake further education altogether (Broadbridge, 2008).

April et al., (2007) asserted that the impact of work-life balance on women's career decisions in SA is likely to be influenced by societal pressures and stereotypes around the notion of a women's role in child rearing. According to a study done by Har-Even (2004), females had been transferred less often than their male counterparts resulting in slower career advancement and lower income. In addition, findings of the study also showed that women managers would choose not to relocate if asked to, due to family commitments and social support systems (Har- Even, 2004). Despite career mobility being a prerequisite for top management, contrary to the study of Har-Even (2004), assumptions made by superiors that women are unwilling to relocate is what in essence hinders their career progress and results in the glass ceiling (Insch et al., 2008).

Burke (2001 as cited in Broadbridge 2008) was of the view that the concept of the work-life balance was an either-or concept: such that one is either committed to work or the family but not both. From Burke's study having a family is seen as a career limiting move yet for men who have learnt to separate the two domains this is not the case. With this in mind, women who want to advance their careers against this backdrop of how top managers are expected to perform might end up having a dilemma of whether to start or postpone having a family (Broadbridge, 2008). Powell (2000) acknowledged the fact that men unlike women's attitude to work had minimal connection with domestic and/or family life due to their uninterrupted careers. Generally, careers need to accommodate the needs of both men and women for there to be a positive contribution to both the organisation and the family, more so now when organisations become flatter and careers become more boundaryless (Broadbridge, 2008). With this in mind, the effective utilisation of all employees is what gives an organisation its competitive edge. However, with the recent economic slump that was evidenced the world over, the consequent corporate restructuring and downsizing meant that remaining staff including women had to take on additional responsibilities. This scenario becomes even more of a challenge for dual career couples. According to Broadbridge (2001), human capital theorists who base their theory on the premise of the family in the women's lives see the above scenario as one capable of becoming a self fulfilling prophecy for women who opt not to develop their careers because of the added responsibilities.

Generally, where corporate practices include training and development, mentoring, flexi-time, and other family initiatives, if well developed, they can be helpful to the woman in terms of helping her maintain a positive work-life balance (Mok Kim Man et al., 2009). On the contrary, where such practices are insufficient in mentoring and offering family friendly initiatives, the existence of the ceiling will indirectly get strong and hence hinder the progression of the career woman to higher managerial positions (Oakley, 2000).

2.6.3 Societal stereotyping

Women suffer from undue pressure placed on them by their social environment (Har-Even, 2004). Women are perceived as not being cut out for executive management positions (April et al., 2007). Due to the Employment Equity Act (EEA) and Affirmative Action (AA) policies, perceptions exist that women have been appointed to leadership positions not because of merit or experience but due to organisations wanting to score on their black economic empowerment (BEE) score cards (April et al., 2007). Additionally, roles ascribed to women as home makers, natural child bearers and care givers means that it is common norm for women to take career breaks, work reduced hours or otherwise devote their time to caring for children and family (April et al., 2007). This is usually done at mid career when unlike men these become their peak years for promotions (Taylor and Waggoner, 2008). With such interruptions, are women able to keep up with their male counterparts career wise? The pressures, time demands and responsibilities associated with the top seat call for considerable sacrifice in personal life. Males and females differ in how they perceive career success. According to Powell (2000), the male model emphasizes work life and objective career success measures (salary, title and possessions), a career that is uninterrupted thereby working against women who desire to take career breaks. These perceptions lead to the assumptions that women are less committed and not interested in career advancement which is dependent on personal preference (Broadbridge, 2008). The female model on the other hand ascribes to subjective measures which are related to women being satisfied with both their current and future jobs as pertains to non-work and/or work life (Powell, 2000). How these differing perceptions are incorporated into organisations will help determine the extent to which the ceiling is cracked or shattered. It is important to note that not all women ascribe to the female model of career success, nor do all men ascribe to the male model. This phenomenon for men has resulted to men ascribing to professions that were deemed feminine

like nursing, teaching and human resources, resulting to what is known as the 'reverse glass ceiling' (April et al., 2007).

2.6.4 Lack of female mentors

An additional barrier that serves to hinder the vertical movement of women up the corporate ladder is the lack of mentors more so women mentors. The importance of mentorship cannot be negated due to the fact that the process of mentorship in organisations is recognised as a vital career development tool (Har-Even, 2004). Mentors in organisations double up as 'career guides'- who coach, provide feedback, give challenging assignments, expose, sponsor and help their protégé's to learn the ropes needed to advance in management. Additionally, they act as counsellors who offer psychological support and act as role models for their protégé's (Har-Even, 2004). According to a study done by Walsh and Osipow (1993 as cited in Har-Even 2004), mentored candidates are better educated, better paid and more satisfied with their jobs. Taylor and Waggoner (2008) concurred with Walsh and Osipow (1993) and added that individuals with mentors had greater career mobility and advanced faster in organisations than those who did not have mentors. In addition, women needed mentors more than men because of their lower access to insider organisational information and developmental experiences which led to creating the glass ceiling for them (Har- Even, 2004).

Cross gender mentoring relationships are hampered by fears from men that the mentoring relationships may be perceived negatively (Pollard, 2005). According to a study done by Raggins and Scandra, (1994 as cited in Pollard, 2005), although women like men are willing to mentor, women experienced greater drawbacks to becoming mentors than men. Findings of the study showed that women were more likely than men to cite lack of time to mentor, not feeling qualified to be a mentor, not wishing to suffer from their protégé's failure and a fear of the costs associated with mentoring (Pollard, 2005). Conclusions from the above study showed that no evidence existed showing that executive women were unwilling to mentor and that both men and women were equally unwilling to engage the mentoring relationship depending on their level within the organisations (Pollard, 2005).

The role of mentors in the mentoring relationship cannot be negated. Reports cited in Pollard (2005) pointed to the fact that male mentors as compared to female mentors provided better

career support. Female mentors on the other hand were reported to provide more socio-emotional support to protégé's when compared to men. According to Pollard (2005), career support as an aspect of mentoring could help to provide an explanation to the advancement benefits that male protégé's benefited from. Conclusions from the above reports cited differences in both male and female mentoring needs and that what would be of benefit to the advancement of women is a woman mentoring a woman (Pollard, 2005). A study done by Linehan and Walsh (2001) negated the above assertions and concluded that the mentor's gender did not to a significant extent influence the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship.

With female role models being few, it is becoming increasingly difficult for women protégé's to get mentors. According to solidarity theorists, where female role models do exist at higher managerial levels, the entry and retention of women at lower managerial levels increases (April, et al., 2007). By being 'batters', women mentors mentor and nurture positive personal traits (self-confidence) in women holding lower management positions thus preparing them to assume leadership positions (Taylor and Waggoner, 2008).

2.6.5 Tokenism

Employment equity (EE) legislation has led to the misconception that affirmative action (AA) appointments lead organisations to hire individuals who lack requisite skills, qualifications, networks or experience (April et al., 2007). Individuals so appointed (tokens) are therefore set to fail due to lack of genuine support leading to stigmatisation that clings to all previously disadvantaged individuals especially women (April et al., 2007). The stigma emanates from the perceptions that any AA appointment done is for the organisation to score on its Black economic empowerment (BEE) score card, a situation that leads to a lose-lose situation for both the organisation and the token (Har-Even, 2004). Tokens are women who hold high leadership positions in organisations and consciously or unconsciously are viewed and treated as outsiders by their colleagues leading to them feeling isolated (Har-Even, 2004). The few dominant women who stand out from their colleagues have a hard time fitting in with their male colleagues and so experience additional stress due to sex role stereo-typing and performance pressures due to their visibility. As a consequence, the tokens become reluctant to share their knowledge with others for fear of losing their positions (Har- Even, 2004).

The 'queen bee syndrome' which was first proposed by Staines, Tavris and Hayagrante, (1973 as cited in April et al., 2007) negated the solidarists views (which pointed to the number of women holding management positions as being a function of women in top management positions) and stated that women in top management were reluctant to promote other women as this presented a potential risk to their careers if they promoted other women. April, et al., (2007:53) defined the 'queen bee' as 'an executive woman who is reluctant or unreceptive towards other women due to their desire to remain unique to the organisation'. The implication of the 'queen bee syndrome' is that most women who reach the top end up pulling up the ladder behind them thus they prevent and do not help other women to scale up the same ladder (Taylor and Waggoner, 2008). According to April et al., (2007), the 'queen bee syndrome' may be prevalent where access to opportunities is limited and hence it is driven by a fear of competition and thus may have some relevance in South Africa. With globalisation however, there is a realisation that window dressing by ticking off the gender score card and tokenism have no place in organisations if they are to retain their competitive edge (Harris, 2010b).

2.6.6 Leadership Style

The feminine leadership style which differs from that of men has been interpreted as weak and inadequate for top executive positions. This, according to Har-Even (2004) and the Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) (1991), has been attributed to the perception that power which comes with leadership for the woman is to be shared and not exercised in exclusion: building more on relationships and social responsibility through communication, listening and empowering rather than the male style of 'command- and- control'. According to the works of Jardim (2003 as cited in Har-Even 2004), the leadership style of women created centrarchies (circle-like organisations that involve participation and positive interactions) rather than hierarchies.

According to the GCC (1991 as cited in Har-Even, 2004), women did not rise to top leadership positions due to the perceptions that they possessed an inclusive managerial-style rather than leadership-style qualities needed to give direction to an organisation. This notion was refuted by a number of authors who asserted that women like men possessed leadership orientation though what contributed to the glass ceiling for women was that they were assigned to staff rather than to line positions which had more visibility (Har-Even, 2004).

The patriarchal nature of the environment at large and the male perceptions of leadership mean that for a woman to succeed in leadership, she had to be aggressive, competitive, decisive, rational, tough, risk taker, independent and firm as opposed to being emotional, intuitive, sentimental, dependent, soft and subjective (Har-Even, 2004). According to a study conducted by Walsh and Osipow (1993 as cited in Har-Even, 2004), male managers were perceived as authoritative, committed to the organisation's needs, outspoken, knowledgeable about the political and structural workplace aspects, firm and not temperamental. Women on the other hand were seen to be pushy, emotional and manipulative in their efforts to advance and had difficulty with not being nurturing. However, a positive side to feminine leadership was seen in their ability to balance productivity and sensitivity (Har-Even, 2004). A study by Har- Even (2004) showed that differences in gender attributions are still very much in existence today and negative perceptions attributed to women are what serves to hinder their prospects for promotion (Har-Even, 2004).

Another interesting aspect that comes with leadership is communication. Har-Even (2004) defined communication in this context as the 'glass ceiling's wall of words' which meant that for women their communication style stood in the way of them being seen as leaders and hence potential candidates for promotions. Qualities such as decisiveness, competence and ability to lead are associated with astute speech and communication. Women who lead by feminine traits such as consensus i.e. using 'we' and not 'I' when doing presentations as opposed to masculine traits (confidence, aggressiveness, competitiveness) served to minimise the credit they received for their accomplishments and hence overall women were seen as weak and incompetent for top managerial positions (Har-Even, 2004). This association of leadership with masculine attributes serves to put women in a disadvantaged position more so where top positions are in contention leading to the creation of the glass ceiling.

2.6.7 Access to higher education

Historically in SA, access to education more so high school and tertiary education had been the domain of the privileged minority. The implications of this is that the current managerial talent pool consists of women who were educated 10 to 15 years ago (April, et al., 2007). With the representation of women at top management increasing, organisations are faced with the challenge of meeting employment equity (EE) requirements with a limited talent pool of potential aspirants (April et al., 2007).

Education, more so higher education has been cited as a catalyst to the increase of women in management over the years. In SA, lack of access to quality high school and tertiary education has been cited as a potent threat to the advancement of women to positions of executive leadership (April et al., 2007). According to Leeming and Baruch (1998 as cited in April et al., 2007) qualification levels are objective merits likely to help enhance the credibility for women to assume managerial roles and hence help them break through the glass ceiling.

Human capital theorists suggest that the quality of the labour supply is influenced by investments in human capital which are likely to enhance future productivity and career prospects for women (Powell, 2000 as cited in Davidson and Burke, 2000). In particular, higher education is critical to enhancing an individuals' credentials by increasing their skills and knowledge (Powell 2000 as cited in Davidson and Burke, 2000). Women have taken significant steps to increase their intellectual capital through higher education. According to Wentling, (2003 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009), career advancement of women is directly related to increased knowledge, skill and professional development opportunities made available to women throughout their careers. For South Africa (SA), the skills gap that is eminent means that an appropriate approach to access to higher education must be adopted if movement vertically up the hierarchy by women is to be realised (April et al., 2007). According to a study conducted by Church and Zealy, (2006 as cited in April, et al., 2007), women were investing in their intellectual capital by enrolling for higher education. According to the Master Card Worldwide Index of Women Advancement (MWIWA), (2010), the number of women who enrolled for tertiary education increased by 2.07 basis points from 2008 to 2009 when compared to the male enrolment rate. Another finding from Church and Zealy (2006) study was that women were postponing or foregoing having a family and taking minimal maternity leaves all in the hope of investing in their intellectual capital. According to Taylor and Waggoner (2008), investments in intellectual capital and hence technical up skilling alone are not enough to catapult women to top management. What is critical is that women need to in addition to furthering their education, they must be in a position to improve and refine their communication skills and in turn build their social networks within companies in order to leverage the benefits that such associations render to members.

2.7 Effects of the Glass Ceiling

If an economy is to compete successfully in today's global market, it is essential to unleash the full potential of labour more so to leverage the benefits that come with incorporating women's increasing yet underutilised talent, determination and competence into the workforce. Oakley (2000) asserted that as global competition intensifies, it becomes imperative for organisations to maximise the effectiveness of their human resource by including women in management.

According to the Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC) (1991), the business imperative of shattering the glass ceiling and including women in management more is attributable to an improved organisational financial performance. Insch et al., (2008) asserted that countering the effects of the glass ceiling makes good business sense because the glass ceiling may lead to disillusionment and high turnover among capable women in organisations. The high turnover then becomes critical to any organisation because of the potential loss of trained and experienced knowledge base that the organisation can leverage and benefit from. Additionally, the glass ceiling may influence negatively the views of both men and women about how an organisation treats its employees leading to the erosion of the potential future talent pool of the organisation, factors that can drastically affect any organisation in the long run (Insch, et al., 2008).

With male and female managerial qualities differing, the inclusion of women in management helps to provide a more balanced approach to management coupled with leadership styles that have been claimed to enhance organisational effectiveness (Broadbridge, 2008). Where the glass ceiling is known to exist, women have a full view of the top of the organisation but any attempt to reach the top is impeded by a barrier that though transparent and subtle is strong and impenetrable (Har-Even, 2004).

The existence of the glass ceiling serves to hinder the upward mobility of women to top managerial positions. According to Wrigley (2002), the glass ceiling where it is known to exist hinders the advancement of not only women but society as a whole. In effect, the existence of glass ceiling reduces the number of potential corporate leadership pool in an economy, depriving the economy of new leaders and new sources of creativity – the business intellectuals (BI). BI's according to Challenor (2010) are an organisations best business brains and talent pool.

Where the glass ceiling exists, women find themselves relegated to lower level jobs with less profit/loss responsibility hence less visibility and influence (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2008). The resultant lack of power and responsibility means that the female job holder neither advances in her career nor does she have control over resources or technology which are all critical to enhancing her visibility and upward career mobility.

The glass ceiling is also known to contribute to gender pay gap disparities more so for women who are close to the glass ceiling and for those who have shattered the glass ceiling (Pollard, 2005). However, for SA, economic gender parity according to MWIWA (2010) statistics showed that the above median wage had increased by nine basis points from approximately 82 to 91% in 2009 and 2010 respectively.

2.8 Beyond the Glass Ceiling

Despite the marginal increase in female board representation, the notion that the top is in sight and within reach is not a mirage any more (BWA, 2010; April et al., 2007). A study done by Linehan and Walsh (2001) showed that barriers for women appeared at much earlier stages of their career development than for men. As a result strategies that women can adopt to help them surmount barriers that may hinder them from vertical career success include:

2.8.1 Playing by male rules

According to Wrigley (2002), playing by male rules is a strategy that has been suggested by researchers to help women crack the glass ceiling and go beyond it. If women understand rules that are made by men, it becomes possible for them to then use the rules to their advantage. Playing by male rules may include social networking and finding a mentor (Hon, 1995 as cited in Wrigley, 2002). Due to the additional barriers that women face, their need for greater psycho-social support at work that networks offer cannot be negated.

Studies done by Huberlie (1996 as cited in Linehan and Walsh, 2001) suggested that for women, vertical career progress was not easy despite there being opportunities to do so. Men however found it easier to progress due to their networking capabilities. Additionally a study involving 50 executive female managers in the UK found that to break through the ceiling women needed to be well educated and qualified, more ambitious and more mobile than their male counterparts (Linehan and Walsh, 2001). The respondents in this study also cited being

assertive and persistently asking for the next career move rather than adopting a 'wait to offer' attitude (Linehan and Walsh, 2001).

Results of a survey that was done on Business women in the US showed that performance and style were critical to career success. Seventy seven percent (77%) of the respondents attributed their success to performance while 61% attributed developing a style with which male managers could identify with as critical to career success (Wellington, 1997). A study done by Insch et al., (2008), on women who had broken through the glass ceiling concurred with the results of the above study and in turn showed that the development of a professional style that male managers could identify with and were comfortable with was critical to career success for women. Thomas (1999) negated the above findings and stated that 'playing the man's game' was not a winning strategy in business. Critical to career success were communication skills, being politically savvy and adopting a risk taking attitude (Thomas, 1999).

2.8.2 Expatriate assignments

According to Insch, et al., (2008), research into the expatriate glass ceiling has shown that women's involvement in expatriate assignments was lacking. Looking at global statistics, in the UK, women pursuing international managerial careers at senior level stands at between 2-5% (Linehan and Walsh, 2001). This low representation of women in expatriate assignments is attributable to the passive nature of women in the work place. Specifically, female managers do not in a similar degree as their male counterparts actively engage in self promotion and development of social networks needed to be considered for expatriate assignments (Insch et al., 2008). According to a study done by Adler and Izraeli (1988 as cited in Linehan and Walsh, 2001), organisations though prepared to promote women domestically, were not supportive in giving women the opportunities to undertake international assignments. If this perception is true and women in lower levels perceive that opportunities to reach senior management are limited due to lack of expatriate experience, their motivation and drive to compete for senior /upper-level management positions may not materialise leading to what several authors have termed as the expartriate glass ceiling (Insch et al., 2008).

Looking at the flip side of the coin, the acceptance of career mobility may be the gateway to women cracking the glass ceiling. According to Guillaume and Pochic (2009), women have

opted to remain single or childfree in order to increase their mobility at the beginning of their career. For women who take the expatriation option, their family lifestyle changes and they are forced to temporarily separate from their spouse due to geographical splitting more so during the week. This scenario is complicated further when women have children (Guillaume and Pochic, 2009).

With the above facts in mind, if organisations are to differentiate themselves in the market and leverage the value of diversity, the inclusion of women in foreign assignments especially in pipe line positions like finance, marketing, sales and/or production is imperative if a crack in the glass ceiling is to be realised. Greater success for the expatriate woman is realisable if the company supports the woman's spouse too (Insch et al., 2008). In Multi National Corporations (MNC's), promotion to the higher echelons of management originates from a pool of middle level managers who have had international assignment exposure especially in pipeline positions (Insch et al., 2008). The prevalence of the expatriate glass ceiling phenomenon in SA needs further research to determine if indeed it exists and is relevant in the SA context.

2.8.3 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is an 'activity involving the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities that previously had not existed' (Shane, 2003:4). Entrepreneurs are self starters with a competitive attitude against self imposed standards and with a drive to achieve challenging goals (Timmons and Spinelli, 2009).

The global entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) measures the proportion of a country's adult population actively involved in new venture creation in order to come up with the Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) index (GEM, 2004). In 2005, South Africa's TEA was 5.1% compared to 8.4%: the overall average of 35 countries (April et al., 2007). South Africa's (SA) ratio of male to female entrepreneurs is 1.6:1. Peru and Chile stand at a ratio of 1:1. For SA, if the ratio of male to female entrepreneurs could be brought to 1:1, an improvement in the national TEA would be realised (April et al., 2007).

Recognising the role of women in the economy as entrepreneurs is vital if women are to crack the ceiling (Wrigley, 2002). A study done in corporate US in 1998 on female entrepreneurs found that women opted out of the board room and into entrepreneurship for

the following reasons: 47% of the respondents cited lack of recognition, 29% cited isolation at work, 34% cited the fact that they were not taken seriously at the work place and 29% cited being passed over for promotions as contributory factors to them opting to seek out on their own (Wrigley, 2002). According to Jain and Mukherji (2010), the 'push' factor of having to encounter a career barrier is what drives women to start new business ventures as opposed to the 'pull' of a new idea. The 'push' factor is driven by subtle forms of discrimination that hinder the advancement of women in the corporate world (Jain and Mukherji, 2010).

2.9 Summary

The glass ceiling is a phenomenon that women worldwide experience though at different magnitudes. In SA, the Employment equity (EE) and Affirmative Action (AA) policies have done little to alleviate the inequalities that still prevail in the workplace. The continual low incidence of women in senior management positions as the MWIWA statistics shows warrants critical analysis. What is true is that despite some progress being realised in gender parity/equity terms in SA, the glass ceiling due to its subtle forms is still firmly in place today. Breaking the glass ceiling will be possible when senior management have a good understanding of the experiences female/minority groups experience while in employment.

However, to make any meaningful analysis of the implications that the perceived or existing Glass ceiling may have on potential aspirants for the top seat, country specific hindrances must be assessed, evaluated and possible recommendations presented on how the barriers either overt or covert can be eliminated to enable women to crack the ceiling and reach their full potential at work. In addition, enabling environments can be created by Governments to help women move beyond the ceiling into sustainable entrepreneurial activities.

As delineated from literature, the concept of the glass ceiling was found to have originated from the US. An initial definition of this concept was presented by the Glass Ceiling Commission (GCC). Some of the barriers to the glass ceiling as discussed in this chapter were non-supportive corporate cultures, tokenism, lack of work life balance, lack of access to higher education among others. Effects of the ceiling were discussed after which strategies like playing by male rules, engaging in expatriate assignments and venturing into entrepreneurship are strategies that can help women surmount the subtle glass ceiling barriers. Chapter 3 provides in detail the research methods that will be adopted in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to detail the research process and methods used to carry out this research. The tenets of this chapter include a presentation of the study objectives, a discussion of the research design, the sample and sample frame, the research instrument used to collect data and the method used to analyse the data. The choice of each method is motivated and possible illustrations based on this study given where appropriate.

3.2 Aim and Objectives of the Study

Scientific research adopts the use of empirical methods to solve problems using quantifiable data that can be analysed and later used to draw valid conclusions (Ritchey, 2008; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The main aim of this study was to determine whether the existence of the glass ceiling is a myth or reality. This aim was to be realised by studying the perceptions that aspiring female managers have with regard to the glass ceiling.

With this study being descriptive in nature, the researcher was interested in determining the variables (dependent and independent) responsible for fewer women holding senior management positions in organisations. According to Ritchey (2008), variables are measurable phenomenon that over time vary and differ from place to place and between individuals. Perceptions are what people believe and ultimately become personal behaviour (Taylor and Waggoner, 2008). Therefore, for the purposes of this research, emphasis to perceptions true or not was confined to personal experiences women have had and continue to have while in employment which they perceive/d as being 'barriers to entry' to senior management positions. Additionally, managers were defined as women who held leadership positions, were involved in some form of decision making and had subordinates reporting to them. Aspirants were taken to mean women who had the desire to progress in their careers.

To achieve the aim of the study, the variables of interest were delineated in the form of six objectives as outlined below.

The research objectives for this study were:

- To determine whether work place barriers contributes to the creation of the glass ceiling.
- To identify what factors hinder the vertical progression of females to top management positions.
- To determine if work place barriers deter females from applying for promotions.
- To determine if female managers have the power to promote other females.
- To determine if personal traits influences vertical progression.
- To make recommendations to facilitate the upward mobility of women in organisations.

From the objectives, the researcher was able to develop research questions which the study being undertaken attempted to provide answers to. In some studies, this is the point where hypotheses are developed.

Following from the above objectives the research will therefore seek to answer the following research questions

i)   Do work barriers have an influence on the vertical career progression of women?

ii)   What are the different types of barriers/work practices that hinder female managers from vertical career progression?

iii) Is lack of promotions linked to the existence of work place barriers?

iv)   Do women in top leadership positions influence the number of women appointed to management positions?

v)   What personal traits must women possess to enable them assume leadership positions in organisations?

vi)   How can the upward career mobility of women be facilitated?

3.3 Sampling Technique and sample description

According to Lind et al., (2008), sampling is the process of making inferences about a population using a representative sample that is selected using an appropriate sampling

technique. A sample as opposed to analysing the general population is convenient as it is time saving, cost effective and if the sample is adequately selected, the results of the research become reliable, stable and consistent (Lind et al., 2008).

3.3.1 Sampling

Probability and non probability sampling are the two types of sampling techniques applicable in social research. In probability sampling, elements in a population have a likelihood of being selected while in non- probability sampling, the elements in the population have no likelihood of being selected as sample subjects and hence their inclusion in the study is left to the discretion of the researcher (Miller and Salkind, 2002; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Probability sampling techniques include simple random sampling, systematic, cluster, double and stratified sampling techniques. Convenience, purposive, judgement and quota sampling are techniques that are categorised under non-probability sampling (Lind et al., 2008). All these methods have their pros and cons and their applicability in research depends on the type of research being carried out. For example, in systematic sampling the researcher draws every n^{th} element in the population with the 1st element being randomly chosen from the population (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). According to Cooper et al., (2001), simple random sampling has the least bias and offers the most generalizability. However, simple random sampling can be cumbersome due to the fact that a population list (sample frame) may not always be easily available and the technique can be expensive to use (Cooper et al., 2001).

Purposive sampling was the sampling method used in this study. Purposive sampling involves the researcher obtaining information from specific target groups who conform to the researchers' specifications (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Respondents for this study were therefore selected on the basis of their suitability to the researchers' set research specifications and by judgement were best placed to provide the information that was needed by the researcher. Potential disadvantages of non- probability sampling techniques are that the results are not generalizable to the entire population (Hair et al., 2005). However as a sampling method, this method is usually considered the most logical and meaningful way to carry out a study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Initially the Business Womens' Association (BWASA) data base was considered a viable option to select the sample frame. This option was later dropped after it turned out that the

potential sample frame being women in entrepreneurial ventures could not suit this research. Since there existed no adequate population frame to sample, a sample was drawn from female managers in their individual capacities working in organisations situated in the Durban Metropolitan area (DMA) with an additional sample being drawn from females in a similar capacity who were part of the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN) MBA and alumni for which a Gate Keepers letter was obtained.

Snowball sampling was used to increase the number of respondents in this study. According to Bouma and Ling (2005), snowball sampling is used when access to a particular study group is needed but the researcher only knows a few of the respondents. The researcher then requests those he/she knows to nominate others that they may know who in turn are requested to nominate others in return. The sample consequently grows like a snowball with the most recently found contacts finding other potential contacts too (Cross and Linehan, 2006).

3.3.2 Sample description

The sample comprised female managers holding first line/supervisory, middle or senior management levels in their organisations. To be part of this study, respondents had to conform to the following specifications:

- Respondents had to be females.
- Respondents had to belong to either one of the following management tiers: first-line, middle or senior management.
- They needed to have the desire to progress in their careers.
- Be involved in some form of decision making.
- Respondents needed to have a top down and bottom up reporting structure.

Selection of an appropriate target population to sample was essential to ensure the researcher successfully achieved the study objectives and hence answered the research questions posed.

3.3.2.1 Sample size

With regard to the number of study participants, the representativeness of the sample to the general population is dependent on time availability, degree of precision desired and the budget available to carry out the research (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The sample should as

far as possible be representative of the general population. Statistically, the precision of the sample size selection is what leads to a smaller standard error deviation from the population mean hence enabling generalisations to be made with ease. However, with non-probability sampling as was the case in this study, the generalizability of the results to the whole population is not possible. According to Labour market shuts... (2010), 3, 245, 739 women occupy management positions. For a population of approximately 3, 000,000, an adequate sample size is 384 at the 95% confidence interval (CI) (MBA dissertation style guideline, 2011). For this study, a total of 117 completed responses were received from 290 surveys that were circulated. The non response rate was attributed to respondents who either viewed but did not participate in the survey or started the survey but did not complete it, resulting to a total response rate of 40%. The sample breakdown by management tier that was obtained is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Sample size by management level

Management level	Sample (n)
First line/supervisory	26
Middle line management	55
Senior/top management	32
Other	4
Total	117

From Table 3.1, the majority of respondents held middle management positions while first line had the least representation of respondents. The perceptions of respondents at the different levels of management resulted in increasing the variability within and between the responses obtained on some of the questionnaire variables.

3.4 Data Collection Strategies

Data collection strategies are grouped into primary and secondary sources. Primary data refers to data obtained first hand from respondents. Secondary data on the other hand is data obtained from sources that already exist like publications, journals, company records, websites or newsletters among others (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Sources of primary data

include questionnaires, interview sessions, focus group/panel discussions and observations, all of which are designed in specific ways to suit different research scenarios as per the objectives the researcher is trying to meet. Of these methods, the questionnaire is categorised as a quantitative method while interviews, focus group discussions, observation and panel discussions are qualitative methods of data collection.

Qualitative studies are exploratory in nature and their aim is to provide a better understanding of the research problem since few studies or research data exist (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Furthermore, facts may exist but additional information may be needed necessitating an exploratory study to be done to further develop a theoretical framework (Bouma and Ling, 2005). Hence qualitative studies will not give the researcher of this study an indication of the proportion of women who experience the glass ceiling, but it will present in detail what it is like for females to experience the glass ceiling. Interviews as a component of qualitative research are two-way conversations initiated by the interviewer to the interviewee to obtain information relevant to the topic of the study (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler 2005). Interviews are advantageous due to the fact that questions can be modified or changed as the interview process is going on (Bouma and Ling, 2005).

Quantitative studies are deductive in nature and attempt to develop hypotheses (null/alternate) which are then subjected to empirical scrutiny involving data collection and analysis (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Variables which are measurable phenomena that change over time are basically the features of the subjects under study which are used to quantify concepts (Ritchey, 1997). According to Hardy and Bryman (2009), the main premise of quantitative research is the exploration of variation in the units of analysis, finding out the causes of the variations and the correlation that exists between the variables. According to Morgan et al., (2007), when quantitative researchers describe variables, they specify what they mean by demonstrating how they measured the variable. Hence, variables form the fundamental focus of quantitative research and are categorised as either dependent or independent variables.

According to Ritchey (2008) the dependent variables are variables whose variation the researcher is interested in explaining. The independent variables are the predictor variables that are related to or predict variation in the dependent variable (Lind et al., 2008). Independent variables are categorised as active and attribute variables (Morgan, et al., 2007).

An active/manipulated independent variable is a variable the researcher controls and manipulates when a study is being carried out. An attribute/measured independent variable is one which cannot be manipulated, is a major focus of the study and hence the pre-existing attributes of the unit of analysis that are unchangeable (Morgan et al., 2007).

For this study, the attribute independent variables were

- Demographic information (age, marital status, number of dependants, race)
- Education level
- Organisational cluster
- Management level
- Subordinate number
- Work experience

Dependent variables are presumed outcomes of a study and may be questionnaire ratings or measures of physical performance among others (Morgan, et al., 2007). The dependent variables were guided by what the researcher is aiming to achieve through the study objectives. They were therefore

- Work place barriers that resulted in creating the glass c.
- Factors hindering the vertical progression of women in organisations.
- Barriers deterring women from applying for promotions.
- Role of female managers in promoting other women.
- Personal traits needed by women to vertically progress in their careers.

Questionnaires as quantitative data tools; if designed accurately are objective, unbiased and are efficient methods of data collection in terms of saving time, energy and costs for the researcher (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Based on this information and the need for objectivity in the research process, the questionnaire was the primary data collection tool used in this study.

3.5 Research Design and Methods

According to Mouton (2005) a research design is a blueprint of how the researcher intends to conduct the study. Bryman and Cramer (1997) posited that there are two basic types of

research designs, mainly experimental designs and survey/correlation designs. In experimental designs the researcher actively manipulates aspects of a study either in the field or the laboratory. Effects of the manipulation are then observed and compared to those of a control group. In correlation studies, no manipulation of variables of interest to the study is done and data relating to the variables are simultaneously collected. Additionally by implication a correlation study is one where the relationship between variables is sought (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Examples of correlation design tools are interviews and questionnaires.

3.5.1 Description and purpose

A questionnaire is the researchers' pre-written set of questions to which respondents record/rate their responses from a pre selected list of alternatives (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The researcher then codes the responses and subjects it to data analysis and interpretation. This is done in an attempt to provide answers to the research questions, meet the study objectives or test the authenticity of the null/alternate hypotheses and hence solve the research problem (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

Questionnaires containing closed and open ended questions can be administered personally, via mail or electronically (Ritchey, 1997). Personally administered questionnaires have a high response rate since the researcher is able to collect completed responses within a short time period and clarifications on issues is easily done on the spot (Bouma and Ling, 2005; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Mail questionnaires can cover a wide geographical area and respondents can complete them at their convenience. On the contrary, their main disadvantage is their low response rate and clarifications on issues respondents may not understand is not possible. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) suggests a 30% response rate as being adequate for mail surveys. To improve on the response rate, the researcher can give prior notice to respondents of the forthcoming survey to minimise the questionnaire being termed as an unsolicited email, send follow-up letters or keep the questionnaire brief. Electronic questionnaires on the other hand being global in scope are relatively inexpensive, easy to administer and respondents can give their responses at their own leisure. A disadvantage of the electronic questionnaire is that respondents must have the willingness to complete the questionnaire to ensure the credibility and generalizability of the data (Bouma and Ling, 2005). For online surveys to achieve their purpose, the researcher must have access to a list of contacts/ email addresses of people to act

as respondents for the research. For this research, the electronic questionnaire powered by Question Pro was chosen.

3.5.1.1 Construction of the Instrument

The construction stage of the questionnaire is the operationalization stage of the study concepts. According to Bryman and Cramer (1997), operationalization is the process of specifying the methods that will enable the researcher to identify the differences between the units of analysis in respect of the concepts of concern in a study: where the study concepts are translated into variables. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) concur with Bryman and Cramers' (1997) definition and add that operationalization involves translating abstract concepts into observable and measurable elements using a questionnaire.

The questionnaire was designed to analyse the perceptions/opinions of female managers as regards the glass ceiling phenomenon using both closed and open ended questions. The questionnaire constructs used were adapted from Bergman and Hallberg (2002 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), closed and open ended questions are meant to enable the researcher to gain insights into the topic of study from the respondents. Closed ended questions accord the researcher ease in coding responses and new issues cannot be raised by respondents hence respondents answer the questionnaire in a predetermined structured way (Gillham, 2000). To the respondent, the questions are easy and faster to answer. To the researcher, closed questions are easy to analyse and standardise; hence less error and no interviewer bias (Gillham, 2000). For this study, majority of questions were closed ended and were intended to make the respondents choose one answer among several alternatives. One open ended question allowed respondents to voice their opinions and offer recommendations regarding the glass ceiling phenomenon that the researcher may have not addressed in the course of carrying out this research.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections:

  i) Section A included the demographic section where respondents were expected to input their personal information by marking one response per question from the choices given. This section comprised 9 questions.
  ii) Section B the glass ceiling section consisted of 25 Likert scale questions that required the respondents to rate their level of disagreement and agreement to the glass ceiling perceptions that the researcher was interested in studying.

For this study, the 5 point Likert scale with end-points anchored by 'strongly disagree' and 'strongly agree' were used to operationalize the perceptions female managers had with regard to the glass ceiling. The ordinal rating scale was numbered 1-5 with 1- denoting strongly disagree and 5- denoting strongly agree) meaning that each number between 1 to 5 denoted some level of disagreement or agreement. The respondents in turn were expected to differ in their perceptions of the glass ceiling, with some respondents being in agreement and vice versa.

According to Gillham (2000), on the positive side, scaled questions are quick and easy to answer. On the contrary, weaknesses of scaled questions are that respondents in most cases do not use the whole scale, may give a positive rating even when this is not the case and reasons why a particular response is chosen is difficult to explain On the other hand, scaled questions are easy to answer. For this study, Likert scale questions that sought to rate the responses of respondents with regard to their level of disagreement and agreement to issues related to the glass ceiling phenomenon formed the majority of questions as shown below:

- Objective 1 had a total of 6 questions that attempted to answer the question whether work place barriers contributed to creating the glass ceiling.
- Objective 2 with 7 questions attempted to find out the factors that hindered vertical progression of females in organisations.
- Objective 3 with a total of 4 questions attempted to provide insight into why fewer women applied for promotions.
- Objective 4 with 2 questions was aimed at finding out whether women in top leadership helped to promote other women holding lower positions in their organisation.
- Objective 5 which attempted to delineate the personal characteristics needed by women for top leadership had 6 questions making a total of 25 closed ended questions in the questionnaire.
- Objective 6 being a comment question was supported by one open ended question that sought to find out what the respondents viewed as challenges that women in management faced that may have not been covered by the researcher and had the potential to add value to the recommendation portion of this research.

The responses from the Likert scale were then coded to ensure objectivity and ease during data analysis. Since ordinal scales are not inherently numerical in nature, coding helps to

ensure that such responses are transformed into numbers/quantities for ease in data analysis (Hardy and Bryman, 2009; Morgan et al., 2007). Pre-coded questions thus include categories from which respondents select responses that have a code attached to them.

Participation in this survey by respondents was purely on a voluntary basis with no assurances of monetary gain. However, an assurance of confidentiality of information was guaranteed and this was contained in the consent page that was attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaire and consent letter used for this study are attached in the Appendix.

For any research instrument that has a scale, the reliability and validity of the same must be assessed for results obtained thereof to be deemed credible, consistent, stable and factual.

3.5.2 Pretesting and Validation

Once measures have been assigned to study concepts through the process of operationalization, testing the goodness of the data is essential. The goodness of data can be ascertained by determining the reliability and validity of the measurement tool (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Pre-testing of the questionnaire was done by carrying out a pilot study. According to Hair et al., (2005) the accuracy and consistency of the scale responses can be achieved by pre-testing the questionnaire using 4 to 30 respondents with characteristics similar to those of the target population. Eight people participated in the pre-test. The pilot study questionnaire was posted on the Question Pro website. Using the Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS), the statistical tests for internal reliability was done to test the reliability of glass ceiling constructs in the pilot questionnaire (Pallant, 2007).

Pretesting and validation of the questionnaire by carrying out the pilot study was essential since it enabled the researcher to make amendments which otherwise if not made were likely to skew the research results and cause bias. According to Gillham, (2000), a pilot study is one which simulates the main study and involves a target population similar to those to be included in the main study. The following additional adjustments were made to the questionnaire based on the pilot respondents' recommendations:

- An additional question asking about the number of dependants was included in the demographic section of the questionnaire to form part of family responsibilities.
- The educational level was rephrased to read highest level of education.

- A recommendation was put forward to design the questionnaire in the mobile phone mode to help increase the response rate especially for respondents with smart phones.

3.5.2.1 Reliability

The reliability of a test measure refers to the consistency of a variable: whether the instrument measures are stable and free from random error (Hardy and Bryman, 2009; Pallant, 2007). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), reliability refers to the questionnaires ability to provide consistent results when replicated in similar studies which is termed the 'goodness of a measure'. External and internal reliability are two separate aspects of reliability. If a variable is externally reliable, it does not fluctuate over time and is hence stable. This brings into focus the test-retest reliability where a test is administered on two occasions to the same group of subjects and an assessment is done to determine the degree to which the responses are similar on the two occasions (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). Parallel form reliability is when two measures measuring the same construct but with different wording or order of questions are correlated (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The error variability of wording and question order is what is established in this instance. If a strong correlation exists, the measure is said to be reliable and with minimal error caused by variability in wording or question orders (Ritchey, 2008).

Internal reliability refers to the coherence of a variable and concerns multiple item scales (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). By implication, it ascertains whether items making up a scale are measuring a similar attribute or are internally consistent. A variant of internal reliability is split-half reliability where items in the scale are divided into two groups either on an odd-even basis or randomly and the extent of correlation between the two groups is assessed (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). Inter-item consistency reliability is a test of the consistency of scale responses in a measurement scale. As long as items are independent measures of the same concept, they are correlated with one another and Cronbach's coefficient alpha measures the extent of the correlation (Hardy and Bryman, 2009).

According to Pallant (2007), the Cronbach alpha (α) values are dependent on the number of items in the scale. Cronbach α values ranging between 0 and 1 are recommended. The nearer the coefficient of Cronbach's alpha is to 1 and preferably at or over 0.7 the more the strength of the scale and its internal reliability. On the contrary if alpha is below 0.7, the scale may

need to be investigated further or readjusted (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Hardy and Bryman, 2009). On the other hand, scale items fewer than 10 usually generate low α values thus determining inter-item correlations is recommended. The mean values ranging from 0.2 to 0.4 are usually desirable for smaller scales items (Pallant, 2007). The cronbach α of the pilot perception scale is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Cronbach alpha of Glass ceiling perception scale

Cronbach Alpha	Cronbach alpha based on standardised items	Number of items
0.701	.664	25

Out of the 28 items that initially made up the scale, 3 items were deleted and the consequent α generated from 25 items in the pilot study was 0.701. The reliability measures discussed are represented in Figure 3.1.
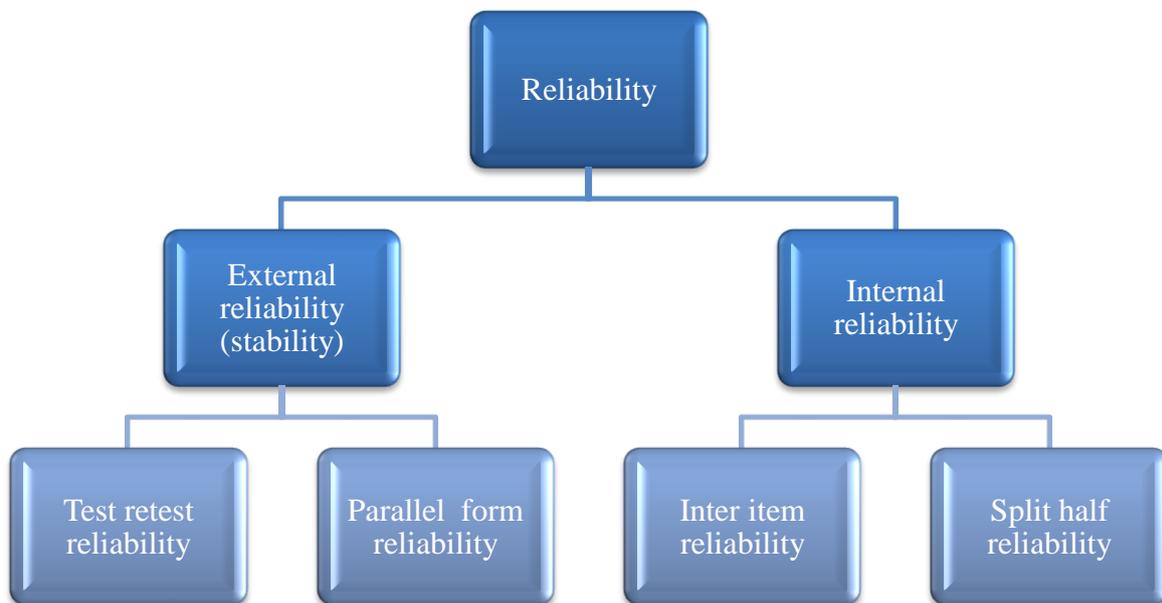
Figure 3.1 Reliability measures

Adapted from Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. 2010. **Research Methods for Business: A skill building approach.** 5th Ed. John Wiley and Sons Ltd. Pp 324.

3.5.2.2 Validity

The concept of validity is concerned with the capability of the test instrument to measure the concept that it is intended to measure (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). There are different categories of instrument validity. Face validity ensures that the instrument measure reflects the content of the concept in question (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). In this regard, the perceptions/opinion questions should at the very minimum address issues pertaining to the glass ceiling. Criterion-related validity tests the power of the measure to differentiate the responses of individuals who are known to be different (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Its two forms are concurrent and predictive validity. For example, the existence of the glass ceiling is known to be more pronounced for some individuals and not others due either to personal or work barriers. To establish concurrent validity of the glass ceiling in this case, the researcher might be interested in determining the extent to which female managers who are not experiencing the glass ceiling barriers are more likely than those experiencing barriers to have a higher educational level, work experience etc. If the result of this measure shows clearly that educational level/work experience does impact on the glass ceiling, then the researcher can conclude with confidence that the scale is measuring what it is intended to measure and vice versa (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). Predictive validity on the other hand relates a variable to a future criterion (Hardy and Bryman, 2009). In this instance, some months after administering the perceptions scale the researcher might re-contact respondents again to find out the relationship between educational level and glass ceiling creation. By expectation, the scale should be able to discriminate between the highly educated and those with minimum education.

Additional validity tests that a new instrument can be tested on include construct validity: where the researcher deduces hypotheses from theory relevant to the concept in question (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Convergent validity is concerned with the ability of a measure to harmonise with another measure (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). For example in addition to the researcher of this study devising a questionnaire to measure the glass ceiling perceptions, a researcher could use observers at different management levels to rate their experiences as regards the glass ceiling in an attempt to distinguish the different perceptions managers have with regard to the existence of glass ceiling. 'Discriminant validity is determined when two distinctly different concepts are not correlated with each other' (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010:327).

Generally, a measure that is valid is termed reliable. Thus an unreliable variable is not valid and hence an externally unreliable scale fluctuates over time and cannot provide a true indication of the concepts it purports to measure. An internally unreliable measure on the other hand does not measure genuinely the concept it is intended to measure (Hardy and Bryman, 2009).

For this study, concurrent validity of the questionnaire was ascertained by evaluating the responses from females holding first, middle and senior management positions. Their responses with regard to the glass ceiling were expected to differ with regard to some of the variables being investigated. If the scale was found not to discriminate between the different management tiers, with regard to some measurement items, then the scale was not a true valid measure of the glass ceiling concepts. After conducting the pilot study and determining the reliability of the measurement scale the administration of the questionnaire was done. A summary of the validity measures discussed are represented in Figure 3.2.
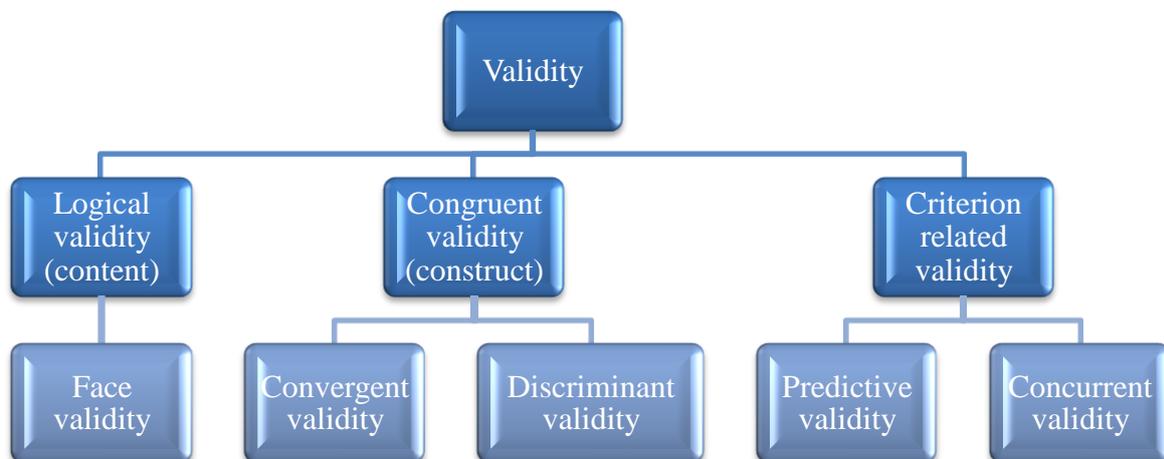
Figure 3.2 Validity measures

Adapted from Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. 2010. **Research Methods for Business: A skill building approach.** 5th Ed. John Wiley and Sons Ltd. Pp 327.

3.5.3 Administration of the Questionnaire

With inroads being made in information technology, software for questionnaire design, data entry, data analysis and e-mail surveys are now available. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), examples of survey software include Sum Quest, SQ Survey software, Professional Quest and Perseus.

For this study, the questionnaire was administered to respondents electronically through e-mail using Question Pro. The choice of using Question Pro was driven by the versatility, adaptability and customisability of the online survey tool. The versatility of Question Pro was attributed to its multiple functionalities as a networking tool, email managing and tracking tool, data storage portal and analytical tool. Respondents were able to complete the questionnaire online and results were made available to the researcher in real time thus saving on time and money that would otherwise be incurred if the questionnaires were in print format. The researcher was also able to view the results which were in a light compressed format offline (Online Survey Tool, 2011). The Question Pro programme also offered a data analysis option that made it easy for the researcher to interpret, infer and make correlations to data in an attempt to answer the research questions. The ability of the researcher to activate the tracking device in order to know who had not responded to the questionnaire and hence send reminders to solicit responses made the adaptability component of Question Pro functional. Additionally, the adaptability of the questionnaire to suit smart phone users helped to increase the response rate. The compatibility of this survey tool to the mobile phone enabled respondents to answer questionnaires in real time on their mobiles making the research process hassle free, fast and convenient. This option was only made possible when the researcher activated the mobile mode on the online survey. The neat presentation and legibility of the questionnaire on Question Pro also enabled the respondents to answer the questions with ease. The ability of the researcher to customise the URL to suit the research topic and present the questionnaire in a variety of attractive formats like Mira, Winter etc brought to life the functionalities of Question Pro. The ability to validate the questionnaire made it possible for respondents to answer all questions without skipping any. Progress to the next survey page was subject to all validated questions (*) being answered. An additional advantage of using Question Pro was the fact that the survey's email accepted only one reply from each respondent's address thus multiple responses to the questionnaire from one respondent was unlikely as the survey tool tracked the computer IP addresses. This helped to

reduce the occurrence of bias and data skewing that such an act can create. On the flip side of the coin, the ease in exiting the survey before completion was a disadvantage of question pro as an online survey tool since this made the response rate very low. The customised link for this survey was accessible at http://PerceptionsGlassCeiling.questionpro.com.

To help respondents understand what the study was about, the study title and the aim of the study was explained on the consent page of the survey. Once the respondents agreed at their own discretion to participate in the survey respondents needed to click the 'I agree' icon on the consent page to continue with the survey. If respondents did not want to participate in the survey, the option to exit the survey was provided. To increase the response rates, prior notice was given to respondents requesting their participation and reminder emails were sent to those who did not respond.

3.6 Analysis of data

The process of data analysis marks the last stage of the research process before discussions, recommendations and a concluding remark is given by the researcher about the research problem. According to Ritchey (2008), the first purpose of statistical analysis of data is to summarise categorical data into accurate mathematical numbers from which the researcher is then able to draw conclusive findings about a research problem. The second purpose of statistical analysis is to draw conclusions about the mathematical relationships between study variables. The two steps in data analysis that ensure the above two purposes of statistical analysis are achieved are descriptive and inferential statistics.

i)   Descriptive statistics give an indication of the number of observations recorded through frequencies which are presented in the form of figures, tables and narrative text (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

ii)   Inferential statistics: help to show the "relationships between variables and to test hypotheses and scientific theories" (Ritchey, 2008:8; MBA style dissertation guideline, 2011). Inferential statistics can be presented as correlations, regressions, analysis of variance (ANOVA) among others.

Once the data was collected, it was cleaned to eliminate outliers which are invalid data sets capable of skewing the results of the research (Lind et al., 2008). The cleaned data was then analysed using SPSS version 15 and presented as discussed below.

3.6.1 Data presentation

Presentation of data was done using descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.6.1.1 Descriptive statistics

Frequency tables and pie charts were used to present the demographic details of the respondents. The Likert scale responses from the perceptions section were also presented in the form of bar charts and frequency tables for ease in interpreting the sample responses. Cross tabulations were done to find out how the demographic variables varied between themselves and other questionnaire variables to generate in depth information from the data and answer the research questions.

3.6.1.2 Inferential statistics

Pearson product correlations (r), cross tabulations and ANOVA were done in order to provide in depth information on the study sample and how their perceptions differed after which conclusions were drawn.

3.6.1.2.1 Cross tabulations

Cross tabulations are used when the researcher intends to gain in depth information about the sample and how the variables differ in this respect by using percentages to delineate the extent of the difference. (Pallant, 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010) For example determining the percentage of respondents who agree/disagree on the one hand, and disagree/agree on the other hand with a variable under investigation.

3.6.1.2.2 Pearson product correlation coefficient (r)

Associations/relationships between variables were analysed using Pearson product correlation coefficients. The strength of the association between two variables may be positive or negative and is represented by the correlation coefficient (r) (Leech et al., 2008). A positive correlation means that an increase in one variable results to a corresponding increase in

another variable and vice versa. Such variables are said to be directly proportional. A negative correlation on the other hand results when an increase in one variable leads to a corresponding decrease in another variable meaning that the variables are inversely proportional to each other (Pallant, 2007).

The coefficient (r) may take any value between 1 (perfect positive correlation) to -1 (perfect negative correlation). An r value of 0 means that there exists no correlation between the two variables being compared (Pallant, 2007). According to Pallant (2007), guidelines to interpreting the r value are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Guidelines to interpreting the correlation coefficient (r)

Coefficient (r) value	r interpretation
0	No association/correlation
0.1 to 0.29	+ small/weak correlation
-0.1 to 0.29	- small/weak correlation
0.3 to 0.49	+ medium/moderate correlation
-0.3 to 0.49	- medium/moderate correlation
0.5 to 1.0	+ large/strong correlation
-0.5 to 1.0	- large/strong correlation

Modified from: Pallant, J. 2007. **SPSS Survival Manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS version 15.** 3rd Ed. New York. Mc Graw Hill. Pp 132.

3.6.1.2.3 Regression analysis

The most common types of regression analyses that can be performed are simple and multiple regression analyses. A simple linear regression is done when one independent variable (x) causes variability in the dependent variable (y) (Lind et al., 2008). Multiple regressions are done when more than one independent variable (x) causes the variability in the dependent variable (y) (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), regression is done when the researcher believes or postulates that that one independent variable affects a dependent variable. If a relationship exists, a regression equation termed the least squares function can be determined to express the strength of the linearity of the

variables (Lind et al., 2008). The goodness of fit of the least squares function is determined by obtaining the coefficient of determination (r²) which represents the extent to which the variability in the dependent variable is attributed to the independent variable (Lind et al., 2008). The closer r² is to 1 the greater the variability in the dependent variable (x) that is attributable to the independent variable (y) (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Simple linear regression analysis may be used in this study to determine the extent of the variation in reluctance to relocate or work experience (independent variables) that may be attributed to management level (dependent variable).

3.6.1.2.4 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

According to Pallant (2007), the analysis of variance (ANOVA) compares the variance between different groups with the variability within each of the groups using an F-ratio. The larger the F-ratio, the more the variability between the groups being investigated that is attributable to the independent variable exists as compared to that within each of the groups referred to as the error term. For example in this study, ANOVA may be used to compare the perceptions that the respondents in first, middle or senior management have regarding barriers they consider as contributing to the glass ceiling.

Objective 6 which had an open ended question was analysed using the procedure from www.intelligentmeasurement.wordpress.com/2007/12/18/...http://

3.7 Level of significance

According to Lind et al., (2008), the confidence interval (CI) also denoted as a p value is the range of values +/- constructed from sample data from which the population mean (μ) is likely to occur within a range of values at a specified probability. At 95% CI, sample means selected for the population will lie within 1.96 standard deviations from the μ. At the 99% CI mainly used in experimental studies, sample means lie within 2.58 standard deviations from the μ. The level of significance that was used for this study was p ≤ 0.05 for the inferential statistics. This level was used to determine whether there were any statistical differences in the variables being analysed, after which appropriate conclusions were drawn.

A schematic representation of the research process as discussed in section 3.1 through to 3.6 is summarised in Figure 3.3.
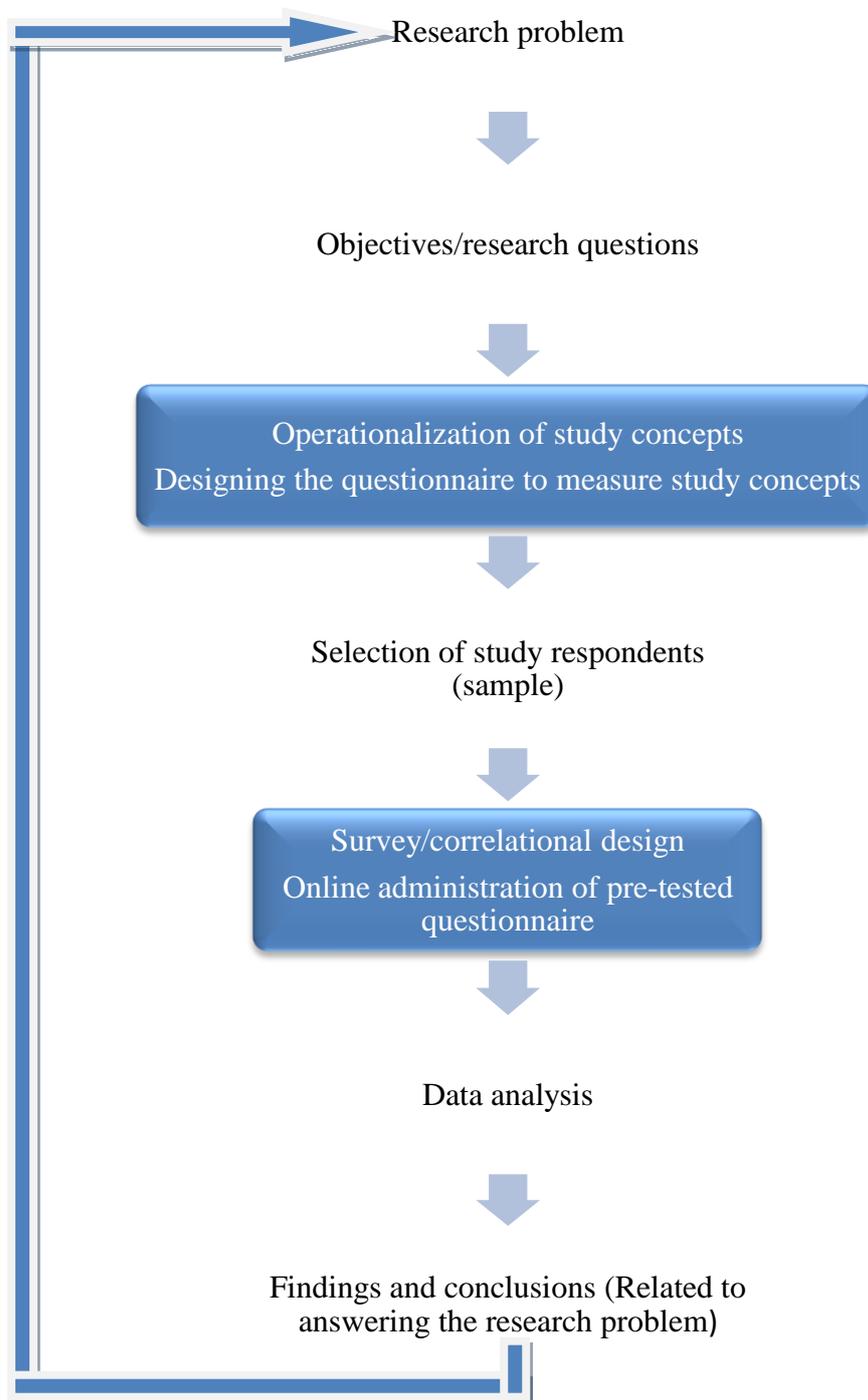
Figure 3.3 The Research Process

Modified from Bryman, A and Cramer, D. 1997. **Quantitative data Analysis with SPSS for Windows: A Guide for Social Scientists.** London. John Wiley & Sons. Pp3.

3.8 Summary

This Chapter detailed the research design process from the aims and objectives through to the data analysis stage. What is critical to note is that the choice of the research process and the tools and methods used are research specific. Purposive sampling a variant of non probability sampling was used to choose the target population after which snowballing was used to increase the sample size. Being quantitative in nature, the questionnaire was used to collect data. Pretesting and validation of the test instrument helped to ensure that the results obtained were reliable, consistent and stable. Online administration of the questionnaire was enhanced by web enabled Question Pro survey tool. The data that was collected was then cleaned and coded for ease in data analysis and presentation.

Chapter 4 presents the data in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics to help give clarity and meaning to the data from which the researcher can then discuss, deduce conclusions, make relevant recommendations and suggest areas for further research.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF STUDY RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides in detail the findings of the study according to the six research questions to be answered as outlined in Chapter 1 of this document. The data presented here are the perceptions true or otherwise of aspiring female managers as regards the glass ceiling phenomenon. The data collected was analysed and presented in the form of descriptive (frequencies, tables, graphs, pie charts) and inferential statistics (correlations, cross tabulations, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis) that were described in detail in Chapter 3.

4.2 Profile of respondents

The demographics of the sample (age, marital status, number of dependants, race, heighest education level) and the employment profile (organisation cluster, level in organisation, subordinate number and work experience) as represented in Table 4.1 and 4.2 helped the researcher to better understand the characteristics of the sample and how they related to the study.

4.2.1 Demographic profile

From Table 4.1, approximately 54% of respondents were within 35 to 44 years of age while approximately 1% of respondents were below 25 years of age. Thirty four percent (34%) were between 25-34 years while 11% were aged 45 years and over. With regard to marital status, the majority of respondents (69%) were married. Approximately 25% were single, 5% were either divorced or seperated and approximately 1% were widowed. Majority of respondents had a maximum of 2 dependants while approximately 21% had a maximum of 5 dependants. No respondents had 6 dependants or more. The mean number of dependants per respondent was two. The race composition of respondents showed that White respondents who were the majority were approximately 41%. Respondents who were African were 34% while Indian respondents were 23%. Approximately, 36% of respondents had a Bachelors degree as their highest level of education. Over 20% of respondents had both Masters and

Diploma level education respectively. Matriculants accounted for approximately 9% of respondents while the other 6% of the respondents were those holding other academic and professional qualifications like specialisation certificates, honours, HDE, post graduate diplomas and Chartered Accountant South Africa (CA/SA). No respondents had doctorate qualifications.

Table 4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

DESCRIPTION	PERCENTAGE
AGE	
<25	0.85%
25-34	34.19%
35-44	53.85%
45 and >	11.11%
MARITAL STATUS	
Married	69.23%
Single	24.79%
Widowed	0.85%
Divroced/seperated	5.13%
NUMBER OF DEPENDANTS	
0-2	79.13%
3-5	20.87%
6 and over	0.00%
RACE	
Whites	41.03%
African	34.19%
Indians	23.08%
Coloureds	1.71%
LEVEL OF EDUCATION	
Matric	9.40%
Diploma	23.93%
Bachelors	35.90%
Masters	24.79%
Doctorate	0.00%
Other	5.98%

4.2.2 Employment profile

The employment profile of respondents is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Employment profile of respondents

DESCRIPTION	PERCENTAGE
ORGANISATION CLUSTER	
Private sector	62.39%
Public sector	24.79%
Tertiary (educational institution)	11.97%
NGOs	0.00%
Other	0.85%
LEVEL IN ORGANISATION	
First line	22.22%
Middle management	47.01%
Senior management	27.35%
Other	3.42%
SUBORDINATE NUMBER	
Below 5	51.28%
5-10	20.51%
11-16	11.97%
Over 16	16.24%
WORK EXPERIENCE	
Below 5	6.84%
5-10	29.06%
Over 10	64.10%

From Table 4.2, a pproximately 62% of respondents worked in the private sector while 25% worked in the public sector. Respondents from the Tertiary Institutions were approximatley 12%. No respondents were from the Non Governmental sector while the other 1% were respondents from Parastatals. Middle management positions were held by 47% of respondents in their respective organisations. First line and senior management positions were held by 22% and 27% of respondents respectively. The remaining 3% was represented by respondents who were in support, entrepreneurship, administration and other specialised

fields in their respective organisations. More than half of the respondents 51% had less than five subordinate staff reporting to them. Twenty one percent (21%) of respondents had a maximum of 10 subordinates reporting to them while a maximum of 16 subordinates reported to approximately 12% of respondents. Over 16 subordinate staff reported to approximately 16% of respondents. Generally, the mean number of subordinates per manager was 2. Majority of respondents (64%) had over 10 years work experience while approximately 29% of respondents had between 5-10 years work experience. Seven percent (7%) of respondents had less than five years work experience.

4.3 Descriptive statistics of the Glass ceiling perceptions

The perception section of the questionnaire was also presented in the form of descriptive statistics to gauge the frequency of respondents' perceptions to the glass ceiling concepts using a 5 point Likert scale with end-points anchored by '1-strongly disagree' and '5-strongly agree'. The results were presented according to the 6 objectives of this research study as shown below.

4.3.1 Objective 1: Work place barriers and the glass ceiling

Objective 1 which was represented by 5 constructs as shown in Table 4.3 showed that over 50% of respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed that women were not assigned to high visibility positions, career developmental opportunities was lacking and that they were unfairly evaluated for their performance. However, on the other hand, more that 50% of respondents were in agreement that they received adequate organisational support to balance both their professional and domestic responsibilities and that disparities in management existed since men held more senior positions than women. The under representation of women in senior management as the above findings showed mean that invisible barriers do exist that hinder the progression of women to top management. A total of 52% of respondents concurred with question 6 that they had to overachieve in their respective roles for them to receive recognition. Of critical note is that thirty two percent (32%) of respondents were in disagreement that they had to overachieve to receive recognition. Non committal responses to the aspect of overachievement were 14%. In general, non committal responses with regard to the six constructs ranged from 2 to 14%.

Table 4.3 Objective 1: Work place barriers and the glass ceiling

OBJECTIVE 1	LIKERT SCALE RATING				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
i) Lack of assignment to high visibility positions	5.13%	**47.86%**	9.40%	29.06%	8.55%
ii) Lack of adequate professional career developmental opportunities	11.11%	**58.97%**	2.56%	23.93%	3.42%
iii) Lack of fair performance evaluation	15.38%	**58.12%**	7.69%	16.24%	2.56%
iv) Receipt of adequate organisational support to balance multiple roles	13.68%	19.66%	7.69%	**52.14%**	6.84%
v) More male representation in senior management	5.13%	6.84%	1.71%	35.90%	**50.43%**
vi) I have to overachieve to receive recognition	1.71%	32.48%	13.68%	**34.19%**	17.95%

4.3.2 Objective 2: Hindrances to upward career mobility

Table 4.4 showed that more than half of respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed that receipt of their career developmental opportunities was linked to their gender, that their visibility was hindered by the department they worked in and that they felt isolated due to their positions. Respondents in agreement with each of the three constructs were approximately over 20%. More than a total of 50% of respondents felt that they needed to work twice as hard to prove their worth; felt respected by their male colleagues and also expressed their consensus that work experience had an influence on their selection for promotions. Respondents who felt they did not have to work twice as hard to prove their worth were 28%. With regard to relocation, a 50-50 split existed between respondents who were reluctant to relocate (48%) and those who were willing to relocate (41%). Non committal responses to the seven constructs ranged from 9% to 14%.

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Table 4.4 Objective 2: Hindrances to the upward career mobility

	LIKERT SCALE RATING				
OBJECTIVE 2	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
i) Receipt of fewer opportunities for development because I am female	3.42%	**55.65%**	13.68%	17.95%	9.40%
ii) Lack of departmental visibility	11.97%	**54.70%**	11.11%	16.24%	5.98%
iii) Working twice as hard to prove worth	2.56%	24.79%	8.55%	**48.72%**	15.38%
iv) Work isolation due to position	5.98%	**59.83%**	10.26%	17.09%	6.84%
v) Reluctance to relocate if required to	9.40%	32.48%	9.40%	**32.48%**	16.24%
vi) Respect by male colleagues	1.71%	6.84%	13.68%	**69.23%**	8.55%
vii) Work experience as influencing promotional prospects	2.56%	7.69%	12.82%	**65.81%**	11.11%

4.3.3 Objective 3: Work place barriers and promotions

Table 4.5 showed that a majority of respondents disagreed with the four constructs under this objective. Educational level did not seem to hinder the career mobility of 73% of respondents. Eighteen percent (18%) of respondents were however in agreement that their educational level hindered their career mobility. Managers as hindrances to the promotional prospects of women were not seen as a significant factor as approximately 61% of respondents disagreed with this construct. Of significance however is that 16% of respondents were non committal. A total of 88% of respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed that they were not up to the challenges that promotional opportunities presented. Family responsibilities seemed not to hinder approximately 68% of respondents from seeking promotional opportunities in senior management positions. On the other hand, 23% of

respondents felt held back from taking advantage of promotional opportunities due to their domestic responsibilities. Respondents who were undecided about this construct were approximately 10%.

Table 4.5 Objective 3: Work place barriers and promotions

	LIKERT SCALE RATING				
OBJECTIVE 3	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
i) Educational level as a career mobility inhibitor	12.0%	**60.7%**	10.3%	14.5%	2.6%
ii) Manager as a hindrance to promotion	15.4%	**45.3%**	16.2%	17.9%	5.1%
iii) Not up to the challenge of promotions	27.4%	**60.7%**	7.7%	4.3%	-
iv) Not seek promotions due to family responsibilities	18.8%	**48.7%**	10.3%	19.7%	2.6%

4.3.4 Objective 4: Role of female managers as promotion agents

Descriptive statistics of the two continuous dependant variables used to answer the fourth objective above are presented below. From Table 4.6, it is evident that the influence of organisational politics as a hindrance to female managers applying for promotions was opposed by approximately 62% of respondents. Twenty six percent (26%) of respondents were however in agreement that organisational politics played a part in them not seeking promotional opportunities in male dominated departments. The notion of women in top leadership doing little to promote fellow women was supported by a majority (51%) of respondents. Thirty eight percent (38%) of respondents however agreed that women in top leadership positions helped to promote other women lower down the hierarchy. Twelve percent (12%) of respondents were non committal to the two constructs above.

Table 4.6 Objective 4: Women in senior management as promotional agents

	LIKERT SCALE RATING				
OBJECTIVE 4	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
i) Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated environments	11.97%	**49.57%**	11.97%	21.37%	5.13%
ii) Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower management levels	7.69%	29.91%	11.97%	**35.90%**	14.53%

4.3.5 Objective 5: Personal characteristics and vertical career progression

The 6 questions used to try and answer the above objective are as presented below. Table 4.7 showed that there was strong consensus among respondents with regard to the six constructs used to try and answer objective 5. A total of 84% of respondents agreed and/or strongly agreed that they were emotionally suited to assume top management positions in organisations. Eleven percent (11%) of respondents were however non committal about their emotional suitability to assume leadership positions. Ninety percent (90%) of respondents in agreed that they were competitive and ambitious at work. Respondents who felt they were confident in their roles were 84% while 10% were unsure about their confidence levels. Ninety percent (90%) of respondents felt their subordinates had confidence in them as managers. Respondents who felt they were high achievers were 94% while almost 100% of respondents considered themselves as leaders. Non committal responses ranged from 4 to 11% over the six items in the personal qualities constructs.

Table 4.7 Objective 5: Personal characteristics

OBJECTIVE 5	LIKERT SCALE RATING				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
i) Emotional suitability for top management	-	4.3%	11.1%	**57.3%**	27.4%
ii) Competitiveness and ambitiousness	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	**58.1%**	31.6%
iii) I exude confidence in my area of responsibility	-	6.0%	10.3%	**54.7%**	29.1%
iv) Subordinates have confidence in me as manager	-	1.7%	7.7%	**68.4%**	22.2%
v) High achiever	-	0.9%	5.1%	**58.1%**	35.9%
vi) I consider myself a leader	-	1.7%	4.3%	**60.7%**	33.3%

4.4 Inferential statistics

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done to determine whether a difference in perception with regard to the questionnaire variables was evident between and within respondents in the 3-tier management levels. To further understand the relationship between the questionnaire variables Pearson product correlation coefficient (r), cross tabulations and regression analysis were done. Results of the above analysis are presented below.

4.4.1 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The one-way ANOVA between the 3- tiers of management revealed that there was a significant difference among the mean scores on the dependent variable (relocation/work experience) for the 3 management levels (independent variables) with regard to Question 11: reluctance to relocate and Question 16: Influence of work experience on promotions as shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4.8 ANOVA between relocation and management level

11. I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean squares	F	Sig
Between groups	30.070	3	10.023	6.917	0.000
Within groups	163.742	113	1.449		
Total	193.812	116			

From Table 4.8, there existed a significant difference (p≤ 0.05) among the 3 levels of management with regard to reluctance/willingness to relocate if the job requires it (dependent variable). Significant differences existed between respondents holding first line and those in senior management (p=0.000) and those between respondents at middle management and senior management levels (p=0.032).

Table 4.9 ANOVA between work experience and management level

13. My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotions	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom (df)	Mean squares	F	Sig
Between groups	5.932	3	1.977	2.869	0.040
Within groups	77.880	113	0.689		
Total	83.812	116			

From Table 4.9, a significant value of 0.040 showed that a significant difference existed among the 3 levels of management with regard to work experience and its influence on promotions (p≤ 0.05). Significant differences existed between respondents in first line and those in senior management (p=0.022). There was no significant difference in perception between the 3- tiers of management with regard to the other questions in the questionnaire.

4.4.2 Cross Tabulations

To obtain in depth information on the study variables, cross tabulations were done on some of the key variables in the study as presented below.

4.4.2.1 Objective 1: Work place barriers and the glass ceiling

Cross tabulations of some of the key variables under each objective are presented below.

4.4.2.1.1 Cross tabulation: Assignment to challenging positions with overachievement

Table 4.10 shows that 21% of respondents were in agreement that women were not assigned to high visibility projects and at the same time they conceded to overachieving to receive recognition. However, 25% of respondents were in disagreement that women were not assigned to high visibility positions and also that they did not have to overachieve to receive recognition (p≤0.05).

Table 4.10 Overachievement and challenging assignments

		Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility projects					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female	**Strongly disagree**	0.0%	0.85%	0.0%	0.85%	0.0%	1.71%
	Disagree	3.4%	22.22%	5.12%	0.85%	0.85%	32.48%
	Undecided	0.85%	8.55%	3.4%	0.85%	0.0%	13.68%
	Agree	0.0%	11.97%	0.85%	17.95%	3.4%	34.19%
	Strongly agree	0.85%	4.27%	0.0%	8.55%	4.27%	17.95%
	Total	5.1%	47.9%	9.4%	29.1%	8.5%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.2 Cross tabulation: Assignment to challenging positions with senior management

Table 4.11 shows that though approximately 22% of respondents disagreed that women were not assigned to high visibility positions they were in agreement that more males held senior management positions than females (p≤0.05). However, a total of 27% of respondents were in agreement that as much as women were not assigned to high visibility positions they strongly agreed that the representation of women at senior management was meagre.

Table 4.11 Representation at senior management and challenging assignments

		Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility projects					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
More males than females hold senior management positions	**Strongly disagree**	0.85%	2.56%	0.0%	0.85%	0.85%	5.13%
	Disagree	0.0%	6.84%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.84%
	Undecided	0.0%	1.71%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.71%
	Agree	0.85%	20.51%	5.13%	9.40%	0.0%	35.9%
	Strongly agree	3.42%	16.24%	4.27%	18.80%	7.69%	50.43%
	Total	5.1%	47.9%	9.4%	29.1%	8.5%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.3 Cross tabulation: Development opportunities with challenging assignments

Table 4.12 shows that 40% of respondents in disagreement that women were not assigned to challenging high visibility positions also opposed the notion that they lacked adequate career developmental opportunities. On the other hand, approximately 16% of respondents who agreed that women were not assigned to challenging positions also conceded to lacking adequate opportunities for professional development of their careers ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.12 Development opportunities and assignment to challenging positions

		I do not have adequate opportunities at work for professional development of my career					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility projects	**Strongly disagree**	2.6%	1.7%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	5.1%
	Disagree	5.1%	35.0%	0.9%	6.8%	0.0%	47.9%
	Undecided	0.9%	8.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.4%
	Agree	0.9%	11.1%	1.7%	14.5%	0.9%	29.1%
	Strongly agree	1.7%	2.6%	0.0%	1.7%	2.6%	8.5%
	Total	11.1%	59.0%	2.6%	23.9%	3.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.4 Cross tabulation: Development opportunities with visibility

Approximately a total of 47% of respondents disagreed that they lacked departmental visibility and at the same time they did not have adequate opportunities for professional career development. On the other hand however, a quarter of this percentage of respondents conceded to lacking adequate opportunities for professional career development and also departmental visibility.

Table 4.13 Development opportunities and visibility

		I do not have adequate opportunities at work for professional development of my career					
The department I work in does not help to make me visible		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Strongly disagree	6.8%	5.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.0%
	Disagree	3.4%	44.4%	1.7%	4.3%	0.9%	54.7%
	Undecided	0.9%	3.4%	0.9%	6.0%	0.0%	11.1%
	Agree	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%	11.1%	0.9%	16.2%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	2.6%	1.7%	6.0%
	Total	11.1%	59.0%	2.6%	23.9%	3.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.5 Cross tabulation: Development opportunities with overachievement

Thirty percent (30%) of respondents were in disagreement that they had inadequate career developmental opportunities and also that they had to overachieve because they were female ($p \leq 0.05$). However, almost 15% of respondents who conceded to lacking professional developmental opportunities also needed to overachieve to be recognised.

Table 4.14 Overachievement and career development opportunities

		I do not have adequate opportunities at work for professional development of my career					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female	Strongly disagree	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%
	Disagree	9.4%	20.5%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	32.5%
	Undecided	0.0%	10.3%	0.9%	2.6%	0.0%	13.7%
	Agree	1.7%	17.1%	1.7%	12.8%	0.9%	34.2%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	9.4%	0.0%	6.0%	2.6%	17.9%
	Total	11.1%	59.0%	2.6%	23.9%	3.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.6 Cross tabulation: Organisational support with working twice as hard

Twenty eight percent (28%) of respondents who conceded to receiving adequate opportunities at work to balance both their professional and domestic responsibilities were also able to work twice as hard to prove their worth ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.15 Working twice as hard due to organisational support

		I receive adequate organisational support at work to manage my professional and domestic responsibilities					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I take on more work to prove my worth	Strongly disagree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	2.6%
	Disagree	1.7%	0.9%	1.7%	16.2%	4.3%	24.8%
	Undecided	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%	5.1%	0.0%	8.5%
	Agree	6.0%	11.1%	4.3%	25.6%	1.7%	48.7%
	Strongly agree	3.4%	6.0%	1.7%	4.3%	0.0%	15.4%
	Total	13.7%	19.7%	7.7%	52.1%	6.8%	100.0%

4.4.2.1.7 Cross tabulation: Race with overachievement

From Table 4.16, respondents of all races were in agreement that they needed to overachieve to be recognised. However, though White respondents expressed the most disagreement that

they needed to overachieve at work because they were female, the results were not significant (p≤0.05).

Table 4.16 Overachievement according to race

		I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Race	**African**	0.85%	8.55%	5.13%	11.97%	7.69%	34.19%
	Indian	0.0%	6.84%	2.56%	10.26%	3.42%	23.1%
	White	0.85%	15.38%	5.98%	11.97%	6.84%	41.03%
	Coloured	0.0%	1.71%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.71%
	Total	1.7%	32.5%	13.7%	34.2%	17.9%	100.0%

4.4.2.2 Objective 2: Hindrances to upward career mobility

The seven constructs used to try and answer the above objective are presented below.

4.4.2.2.1 Cross tabulation: Race with opportunities for development

From Table 4.17, White respondents expressed their disagreement to a greater degree with respect to receiving fewer opportunities for development because of their gender. On the other hand, African respondents were the majority in agreement that they received fewer opportunities for career development (p≤0.05).

Table 4.17 Lack of opportunities for development according to race

			Race				
			African	**Indian**	**White**	**Coloured**	**Total**
I receive fewer opportunities for development than I wish for because I am female		**Strongly disagree**	0.9%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	3.4%
		Disagree	17.1%	14.5%	23.1%	0.9%	55.6%
		Undecided	5.1%	1.7%	6.8%	0.0%	13.7%
		Agree	9.4%	4.3%	4.3%	0.0%	17.9%
		Strongly agree	1.7%	2.6%	5.1%	0.0%	9.4%
		Total	34.2%	23.1%	41.0%	1.7%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.2 Cross tabulation: Visibility with assignment to challenging positions

Table 4.18 showed that approximately 39% of respondents disagreed that they lacked departmental visibility and also that women were not assigned to challenging high visibility positions. On the other hand, eleven percent (11%) of respondents agreed to lacking departmental visibility and also that women were not assigned to challenging high visibility positions in their organisations. The above results were significant at p≤0.05.

Table 4.18 Visibility and assignment to challenging positions

		The department I work in does not help to make me visible					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility positions	**Strongly disagree**	1.7%	2.6%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	5.1%
	Disagree	6.0%	32.5%	4.3%	4.3%	0.9%	47.9%
	Undecided	1.7%	6.8%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	9.4%
	Agree	0.9%	12.0%	6.0%	7.7%	2.6%	29.1%
	Strongly agree	1.7%	0.9%	0.9%	2.6%	2.6%	8.5%
	Total	12.0%	54.7%	11.1%	16.2%	6.0%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.3 Cross tabulation: Visibility with organisational politics

Results from Table 4.19 showed that 34% of respondents disagreed that they lacked departmental visibility and that organisational politics did not hinder their promotional prospects (p≤0.05).

Table 4.19 Departmental visibility due to organisational politics

		The department I work in does not help to make me visible					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments	**Strongly disagree**	5.1%	4.3%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	12.0%
	Disagree	4.3%	29.9%	6.0%	6.8%	2.6%	49.6%
	Undecided	0.9%	10.3%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	12.0%
	Agree	0.9%	7.7%	4.3%	6.0%	2.6%	21.4%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	2.6%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	5.1%
	Total	12.0%	54.7%	11.1%	16.2%	6.0%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.4 Cross tabulation: Education level with working twice as hard

From Table 4.20, there was consensus from respondents that they had to take on more work to prove their worth. The level of agreement increased as the level of education increased from Matric (3%) up to Bachelors level (27%) then decreased slightly at Masters level (17%) (p ≤0.05).

Table 4.20 Working twice as hard according to educational level

		I take on more work to prove my worth					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Highest education level	**Matric**	0.0%	6.0%	0.0%	3.4%	0.0%	9.4%
	Diploma	0.0%	5.1%	6.0%	10.3%	2.6%	23.9%
	Bachelors	0.9%	6.8%	1.7%	18.8%	7.7%	35.9%
	Masters	1.7%	5.1%	0.9%	13.7%	3.4%	24.8%
	Other	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	2.6%	1.7%	6.0%
	Total	2.6%	24.8%	8.5%	48.7%	15.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.5 Cross tabulation: Working twice as hard with overachievement

Table 4.21 showed that 27% of respondents were in agreement that they had to overachieve to receive recognition and also felt that they had to take on more work to prove their worth (p≤0.05).

Table 4.21 Working twice as hard and overachievement

		I take on more work to prove my worth					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female	**Strongly disagree**	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	1.7%
	Disagree	0.9%	17.1%	4.3%	10.3%	0.0%	32.5%
	Undecided	0.0%	2.6%	1.7%	8.5%	0.9%	13.7%
	Agree	0.0%	4.3%	2.6%	22.2%	5.1%	34.2%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	0.9%	0.0%	6.8%	9.4%	17.9%
	Total	2.6%	24.85	8.5%	48.7%	15.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.6 Cross tabulation: Isolation with organisational politics

From Table 4.22, 34% of respondents disagreed to feeling isolated due to their positions and also that organisational politics hindered their application for promotions. However, 11% of respondents did not feel isolated due to their positions but consented to the existence of organisational politics which hindered them from applying for promotions in male dominated departments (p≤0.05).

Table 4.22 Isolation due to organisational politics

		I feel isolated due to my position					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments	Strongly disagree	3.4%	5.1%	0.0%	0.9%	2.6%	12.0%
	Disagree	0.9%	33.3%	5.1%	7.7%	2.6%	49.6%
	Undecided	0.9%	8.5%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	12.0%
	Agree	0.9%	10.3%	2.6%	6.8%	0.9%	21.4%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	5.1%
	Total	6.0%	59.8%	10.3%	17.1%	6.8%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.7 Cross tabulation: Level in organisation with relocation

From Table 4.23, there was a 50-50 split between respondents who were willing to relocate and those who were reluctant to relocate. The level of agreement with the above statement significantly increased from 6% at first line level to 21% at middle management level then decreased slightly to approximately 19% at senior management (p ≤0.05). Greater willingness to relocate was expressed by approximately 22% of respondents at middle management expressed their willingness to relocate.

Table 4.23 Reluctance to relocate according to management level

		I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Level in organisation	First Line	6.0%	6.8%	3.4%	6.0%	0.0%	22.2%
	Middle management	3.4%	18.8%	3.4%	15.4%	6.0%	47.0%
	Senior management	0.0%	6.0%	2.6%	10.3%	8.5%	27.4%
	Other	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	3.4%
	Total	9.4%	32.5%	9.4%	32.5%	16.2%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.8 Cross tabulation: Marital status with relocation

From Table 4.24, there was a 50-50 split between respondents who were willing to relocate and those who were reluctant to relocate. Approximately 40% of respondents who were married expressed their reluctance to relocate which was significant at $p \leq 0.05$. On the other hand, over 18% of single and married respondents expressed their willingness to relocate.

Table 4.24 Relocation according to marital status

		I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Marital status	Married	4.3%	17.1%	8.5%	26.5%	12.8%	69.2%
	Single	4.3%	13.7%	0.9%	4.3%	1.7%	24.8%
	Widowed	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%
	Divorced/separated	0.9%	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	5.1%
	Total	9.4%	32.5%	9.4%	32.5%	16.2%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.9 Cross tabulation: Relocation and family responsibilities

From Table 4.25, there was a 50-50 split between respondents who though disagreed that family responsibilities hindered them from applying for promotions were in turn either willing to relocate and/or reluctant to relocate ($p \leq 0.05$). Respondents in agreement that family responsibility hindered them from applying for promotions were also significantly reluctant to relocate.

Table 4.25 Relocation due to family responsibilities

		I do not seek promotions to top management because of family responsibilities					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it	Strongly disagree	7.7%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.4%
	Disagree	3.4%	20.5%	3.4%	5.1%	0.0%	32.5%
	Undecided	2.6%	3.4%	2.6%	0.9%	0.0%	9.4%
	Agree	1.7%	18.8%	3.4%	8.5%	0.0%	32.5%
	Strongly agree	3.4%	4.3%	0.9%	5.1%	2.6%	16.2%
	Total	18.8%	48.7%	10.3%	19.7%	2.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.10 Cross tabulation: Level in organisation with respect from male colleagues

Perceptions of being respected by fellow male colleagues were expressed by respondents in first line to senior management levels. However, the level of agreement increased from approximately 14% (agree and or strongly agree) at first line management to over 20% at middle and senior management levels respectively ($p \leq 0.05$) as shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Respect from male colleagues according to management level

		I am respected by my male colleagues					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Level in organisation	First Line	0.9%	5.1%	1.7%	11.1%	3.4%	22.2%
	Middle management	0.0%	0.9%	8.5%	35.0%	2.6%	47.0%
	Senior management	0.9%	0.0%	3.4%	20.5%	2.6%	27.4%
	Other	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	3.4%
	Total	1.7%	6.8%	13.7%	69.2%	8.5%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.11 Cross tabulation: Respect from male colleagues with promotion challenge

Majority of respondents (50%) were in agreement/strong agreement that despite being respected by male colleagues they were up to the challenges that promotional opportunities presented.

Table 4.27 Respect by male colleagues according to promotional challenge

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">I do not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge</td><td colspan="6" align="center">I am respected by my male colleagues</td></tr>
<tr><td>Strongly disagree</td><td>Disagree</td><td>Undecided</td><td>Agree</td><td>Strongly agree</td><td>Total</td></tr>
<tr><td>Strongly disagree</td><td>1.7%</td><td>3.4%</td><td>2.6%</td><td>14.5%</td><td>5.1%</td><td>27.4%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Disagree</td><td>0.0%</td><td>3.4%</td><td>7.7%</td><td>47.9%</td><td>1.7%</td><td>60.7%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Undecided</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.0%</td><td>3.4%</td><td>3.4%</td><td>0.9%</td><td>7.7%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Agree</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.0%</td><td>3.4%</td><td>0.9%</td><td>4.3%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>1.7%</td><td>6.8%</td><td>13.7%</td><td>69.2%</td><td>8.5%</td><td>100.0%</td></tr>
</table>

4.4.2.2.12 Cross tabulation: Level in organisation with work experience

From Table 4.28, the majority of respondents in middle management level consented to their work experience as having a bearing on whether they were selected for promotions or not (p=0.011).

Table 4.28 Management level and work experience

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Level in organisation</td><td colspan="6" align="center">My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotion</td></tr>
<tr><td>Strongly disagree</td><td>Disagree</td><td>Undecided</td><td>Agree</td><td>Strongly agree</td><td>Total</td></tr>
<tr><td>First Line</td><td>1.7%</td><td>1.7%</td><td>6.0%</td><td>11.1%</td><td>1.7%</td><td>22.2%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Middle management</td><td>0.9%</td><td>5.1%</td><td>5.1%</td><td>30.8%</td><td>5.1%</td><td>47.0%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Senior/top management</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.9%</td><td>0.9%</td><td>21.4%</td><td>4.3%</td><td>27.4%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Other</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.0%</td><td>0.9%</td><td>2.6%</td><td>0.0%</td><td>3.4%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>2.6%</td><td>7.7%</td><td>12.8%</td><td>65.8%</td><td>11.1%</td><td>100.0%</td></tr>
</table>

4.4.2.2.13 Cross tabulation Work experience with educational level

From Table 4.29, respondents holding Matric, Diploma, Bachelors, Masters and other qualifications were in agreement that work experience had an influence on their promotional prospects. However, the degree of consent increased as the level of education of the respondents increased (p≤0.05).

Table 4.29 Work experience and level of education

Highest level of education		My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotion					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Matric	0.0%	.9%	0.0%	8.5%	0.0%	9.4%
	Diploma	0.0%	2.6%	7.7%	12.0%	1.7%	23.9%
	Bachelors	0.9%	3.4%	2.6%	24.8%	4.3%	35.9%
	Masters	1.7%	0.9%	2.6%	17.1%	2.6%	6.0%
	Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.4%	2.6%	6.0%
	Total	2.6%	7.7%	12.8%	65.8%	11.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.2.14 Cross tabulation: Work experience with organisational politics

Majority of respondents (41%) disagreed that organisational politics hindered their decisions to seek promotions, but however agreed that work experience was vital.

Table 4.30 Organisational politics and work experience

Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments		My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotion					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	7.7%	3.4%	12.0%
	Disagree	0.9%	1.7%	6.0%	37.6%	3.4%	49.6%
	Undecided	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	8.5%	0.9%	12.0%
	Agree	0.0%	4.3%	3.4%	11.1%	2.6%	21.4%
	Strongly agree	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	5.1%
	Total	2.6%	7.7%	12.8%	65.8%	11.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.3 Objective 3: Work place barriers and promotions

Cross tabulations of significant constructs to try and answer the above objective are presented below.

4.4.2.3.1 Cross tabulation organisational cluster with education

From Table 4.31, respondents from the private, public and tertiary sectors disagreed that their educational level hindered their career mobility (p≤0.05). While forty four percent (44%) of respondents from the private sector expressed discontentment that their educational level hindered their career mobility, 10% of respondents from the same sector were also in agreement that their education hindered their career mobility.

Table 4.31 Education level by organisational cluster

		My educational level hinders my career mobility					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Organisational Cluster	**Private**	5.1%	38.5%	8.5%	10.3%	0.0%	62.4%
	Public	5.1%	15.4%	1.7%	2.6%	0.0%	24.8%
	Tertiary institutions	1.7%	6.0%	0.0%	1.7%	2.6%	12.0%
	Other	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%
	Total	12.0%	60.7%	10.3%	14.5%	2.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.3.2 Cross tabulation: Managerial hindrance with working twice as hard

Table 4.32 showed that 29% of respondents felt that though their managers did not hinder their promotional prospects they had to take on more work. However, approximately 11% of respondents agreed that though their managers hindered their promotional prospects, they had to take on more work to prove their worth (p≤0.05).

Table 4.32 Managerial hindrance and working twice as hard

		My manager hinders my opportunities for promotion					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
I take on more work to prove my worth	**Strongly disagree**	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	2.6%
	Disagree	3.4%	17.1%	1.7%	2.6%	0.0%	24.8%
	Undecided	1.7%	1.7%	2.6%	1.75	0.9%	8.5%
	Agree	6.8%	22.2%	8.5%	10.3%	0.9%	48.7%
	Strongly agree	1.7%	4.3%	3.4%	3.4%	2.6%	15.4%
	Total	15.4%	45.3%	16.2%	17.9%	5.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.3.3 Cross tabulation: Promotional challenge with family responsibilities

Majority of respondents approximately (44%) were in disagreement that they were not up to the challenge of promotional opportunities their family responsibilities seemed not to hinder them from applying for promotions to top management (p≤0.05).

Table 4.33 Promotional challenge and family responsibilities

I do not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge		I do not seek promotions to top management because of family responsibilities					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Strongly disagree	17.1%	5.1%	0.9%	3.4%	0.9%	27.4%
	Disagree	1.7%	41.9%	6.0%	10.3%	0.9%	60.7%
	Undecided	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	4.3%	0.9%	7.7%
	Agree	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%	4.3%
	Total	18.8%	48.7%	10.3%	19.7%	2.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.3.4 Cross tabulation: Family responsibilities with emotional suitability

Table 4.34 showed that though approximately 38% of respondents disagreed that family responsibility hindered them from applying for promotions; they agreed to being emotionally suited to hold top management positions. However, approximately 15% of respondents agreed that though they were emotionally suited to assume senior management positions, their family responsibilities hindered them from applying for promotions (p≤0.05).

Table 4.34 Family responsibilities and emotional suitability

I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions		I do not seek promotions to top management because of family responsibilities					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	2.6%	0.0%	4.3%
	Undecided	0.0%	4.3%	3.4%	0.9%	2.6%	11.1%
	Agree	6.8%	30.8%	5.1%	14.5%	0.0%	57.3%
	Strongly agree	12.0%	12.8%	0.9%	1.7%	0.0%	27.4%
	Total	18.8%	48.7%	10.3%	19.7%	2.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.4 Objective 4: Women in senior management as promotional agents

Cross tabulations of significant questions to answer the objective above are presented below.

4.4.2.4.1 Cross tabulation: Organisational politics with working twice as hard

While 19% of respondents disagreed that organisational politics hindered them from seeking promotional opportunities in male dominated departments and also that they needed to work twice as hard, 16% of respondents were in agreement that though organisational politics existed they needed to work twice as hard ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.35 Organisational politics and working twice as hard

		Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I take on more work to prove my worth	Strongly disagree	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%
	Disagree	2.6%	16.2%	4.3%	0.9%	0.9%	24.8%
	Undecided	0.0%	4.3%	1.7%	1.7%	0.9%	8.5%
	Agree	4.3%	23.1%	6.0%	12.8%	2.6%	48.7%
	Strongly agree	2.6%	6.0%	0.0%	6.0%	0.9%	15.4%
	Total	12.0%	49.6%	12.0%	21.4%	5.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.4.2 Cross tabulation: Organisational politics with women in top leadership

While 24% of respondents agreed that organisational politics did not hinder their application for promotions they disagreed that women in top leadership did little to promote women lower down the hierarchy. On the other hand, 13% of respondents were in agreement that women in top leadership did little to promote women in lower management and also that organisational politics hindered their application for promotions ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.36 Organisational politics and women in top leadership

Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower levels of management		Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
	Strongly disagree	1.7%	5.1%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%
	Disagree	2.6%	21.4%	0.9%	4.3%	0.9%	29.9%
	Undecided	2.6%	4.3%	2.6%	2.6%	0.0%	12.0%
	Agree	3.4%	12.8%	6.8%	12.0%	0.9%	35.9%
	Strongly agree	1.7%	6.0%	0.9%	2.6%	3.4%	14.5%
	Total	12.0%	49.6%	12.0%	21.4%	5.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.4.3 Cross tabulation: Work experience with women in top leadership

From Table 4.37, as work experience increased perception that women in top leadership did little to promote other women increased to approximately 23% for respondents with over 10 years of managerial work experience.

Table 4.37 Women in top leadership according to work experience

Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower levels of management		Work experience			
		Below 5 years	5-10 years	> 10 years	Total
	Strongly disagree	0.0%	2.6%	5.1%	7.7%
	Disagree	0.9%	7.7%	21.4%	29.9%
	Undecided	4.3%	2.6%	5.1%	12.0%
	Agree	1.7%	11.1%	23.1%	35.9%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	5.1%	9.4%	14.5%
	Total	6.8%	29.1%	64.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.4.4 Cross tabulation: Women in top leadership with working twice as hard

Table 4.38 showed that the majority of respondents (25%) concurred that women it top leadership did little to promote other women and therefore they had to work twice as hard to prove their worth ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.38 Women in top leadership and working twice as hard

		Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower levels of management					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I take on more work to prove my worth	Strongly disagree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	2.1%
	Disagree	0.0%	12.8%	4.3%	6.0%	1.7%	24.8%
	Undecided	0.9%	0.9%	0.0%	5.1%	1.7%	8.5%
	Agree	5.1%	13.7%	5.1%	19.7%	5.1%	48.1%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	2.6%	2.6%	4.3%	5.1%	15.4%
	Total	7.7%	29.9%	12.0%	35.9%	14.5%	100.0%

4.4.2.5 Objective 5: Personal traits and vertical career progression

Cross tabulations of significant questions are presented below.

4.4.2.5.1 Cross tabulation: Emotional suitability with education

From Table 4.39, as the level of education increased, feelings of emotional suitability to hold senior managerial positions increased reaching approximately 23% at Bachelors level up from 7% at Matric level. At Masters Level however, emotional suitability was expressed by 15% of respondents. These results were however not significant.

Table 4.39 Emotional suitability according to education

		I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions				
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Highest education level	Matric	0.9%	0.9%	6.8%	0.9%	9.4%
	Diploma	0.0%	6.8%	10.3%	6.8%	23.9%
	Bachelors	1.7%	1.7%	23.1%	9.4%	35.9%
	Masters	1.7%	0.9%	15.4%	6.8%	24.8%
	Other	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	3.4%	6.0%
	Total	4.3%	11.1%	57.3%	27.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.2 Cross tabulation: Emotional suitability with organisational support

The level of emotional suitability to hold senior management positions at work were felt by approximately 46% of respondents who agreed that they received adequate organisational support to balance work and family responsibilities ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.40 Emotional suitability and organisational support

		I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions				
		Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
I receive adequate organisational support in order to manage my professional work and domestic responsibilities	**Strongly disagree**	0.0%	1.7%	2.6%	9.4%	13.7%
	Disagree	2.6%	1.7%	6.8%	8.5%	19.7%
	Undecided	0.0%	3.4%	2.6%	1.7%	7.7%
	Agree	1.7%	4.3%	40.2%	6.0%	52.1%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	1.7%	6.8%
	Total	4.3%	11.1%	57.3%	27.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.3 Cross tabulation: Emotional suitability with working twice as hard

Approximately 42% of respondents who were emotionally suited to hold senior management positions agreed that they had to work twice as hard to prove their worth ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.41 Emotional suitability and working twice as hard

		I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions				
		Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
I take on more work to prove my worth	**Strongly disagree**	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	2.6%
	Disagree	1.7%	1.7%	17.1%	4.3%	24.8%
	Undecided	0.0%	3.4%	3.4%	1.7%	8.5%
	Agree	2.6%	4.3%	31.6%	10.3%	48.7%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	1.7%	4.3%	9.4%	15.4%
	Total	4.3%	11.1%	57.3%	27.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.4 Cross tabulation: Emotional suitability with work experience

Approximately 54% of respondents who agreed that their work experience had an influence on their selection for promotions also felt that they were emotionally suited to hold senior management positions ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.42 Emotional suitability and work experience

My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotion	I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions				
	Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	2.6%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	2.6%	7.7%
Undecided	0.0%	3.4%	7.7%	1.7%	12.8%
Agree	4.3%	7.7%	40.2%	13.7%	65.8%
Strongly agree	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	8.5%	11.1%
Total	4.3%	11.1%	57.3%	27.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.5 Cross tabulation: Emotional suitability with women in top leadership

Approximately 30% of respondents who agreed that they were emotionally suited to hold senior management were also in agreement that women in top leadership did not help to promote women in lower management ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.43 Emotional suitability and women in top leadership

Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower levels of management	I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions				
	Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	5.1%	7.7%
Disagree	1.7%	4.3%	17.9%	6.0%	29.9%
Undecided	0.9%	1.7%	7.7%	1.7%	12.0%
Agree	1.7%	4.3%	23.9%	6.0%	35.9%
Strongly agree	0.0%	0.9%	5.1%	8.5%	14.5%
Total	4.3%	11.1%	57.3%	27.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.6 Cross tabulation: Age with competitiveness and ambitiousness

Table 4.44 showed that approximately 40% of respondents aged between 35 to 44 years felt they were competitive and ambitious at work (p≤0.05).

Table 4.44 Competitiveness and ambitiousness according to Age

		Age (years)				
		Below 25	**25-34**	**35-44**	**45 and over**	**Total**
I am competitive and ambitious at work	**Strongly disagree**	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.9%
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	0.9%	3.4%	5.1%
	Undecided	0.9%	0.9%	2.6%	0.0%	4.3%
	Agree	0.0%	17.9%	33.3%	6.8%	58.1%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	14.5%	16.2%	0.9%	31.6%
	Total	0.9%	34.2%	53.8%	11.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.7 Cross tabulation: Competitiveness and ambitiousness with working twice as hard

Table 4.45 showed that 43% of respondents felt that they worked twice as hard to prove their worth because they were competitive and ambitious at work (p≤0.05).

Table 4.45 Working twice as hard because I am competitive and ambitious

		I am competitive and ambitious at work					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
I take on more work to prove my worth	**Strongly disagree**	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	2.6%
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	17.1%	6.8%	24.8%
	Undecided	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	2.6%	2.6%	8.5%
	Agree	0.0%	2.6%	2.6%	33.3%	10.3%	48.7%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	4.3%	10.3%	15.4%
	Total	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	58.1%	31.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.8 Cross tabulation Competitiveness and ambitiousness with relocation

A 50-50 split existed between respondents who though competitive and ambitious were either reluctant to relocate (27%) and/or willing to relocate (29%) (p≤0.05).

Table 4.46 Reluctance to relocate though competitive and ambitious

		I am competitive and ambitious at work					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it	Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	8.5%	9.4%
	Disagree	0.9%	1.7%	0.9%	18.8%	10.3%	32.5%
	Undecided	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	5.1%	3.4%	9.4%
	Agree	0.0%	1.7%	3.4%	21.4%	6.0%	32.5%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	12.0%	3.4%	16.2%
	Total	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	58.1%	31.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.9 Cross tabulation: Competitive and ambitiousness with promotional challenge

While fifty five percent (55%) of respondents significantly agreed to being competitive and ambitious they disagreed that they were not up to the challenge of promotional opportunities.

Table 4.47 Competitive, ambitious and up to promotional challenges

		I am competitive and ambitious at work					
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
I do not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge	Strongly disagree	0.9%	0.9%	0.0%	11.1%	14.5%	27.4%
	Disagree	0.0%	1.7%	4.3%	40.2%	14.5%	60.7%
	Undecided	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	4.3%	1.7%	7.7%
	Agree	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	2.6%	0.9%	4.3%
	Total	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	58.1%	31.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.10 Cross tabulation: Exuding confidence with organisational support

Forty two percent (42%) of respondents who agreed that they were confident conceded to receiving adequate organisational support to balance work and family responsibilities (p≤0.05).

Table 4.48 Exuding confidence due to organisational support

		I exude confidence in my area of responsibility				
I receive adequate organisational support in order to manage my professional work and domestic responsibilities		**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Strongly disagree	0.0%	1.7%	5.1%	6.8%	13.7%
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	9.4%	9.4%	19.7%
	Undecided	0.0%	2.6%	3.4%	1.7%	7.7%
	Agree	5.1%	5.1%	33.3%	8.5%	52.1%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	0.0%	3.4%	2.6%	6.8%
	Total	6.0%	10.8%	54.7%	29.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.11 Cross tabulation: Exuding confidence with work experience

From Table 4.49, 52% of respondents agreed that in addition to being confident in their roles, their work experience had an influence on their promotional prospects (p≤0.05).

Table 4.49 Exuding confidence and work experience

		I exude confidence in my area of responsibility				
My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotions		**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	1.7%	2.6%
	Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	2.6%	7.7%
	Undecided	0.9%	1.7%	6.8%	3.4%	12.8%
	Agree	5.1%	8.5%	40.2%	12.0%	65.8%
	Strongly agree	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	9.4%	11.1%
	Total	6.0%	10.3%	54.7%	29.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.12 Cross tabulation: Exuding confidence with education level

Table 4.50 showed that approximately 52% of respondents agreed that though they felt significantly confident in their roles; their educational level did not in any way hinder their career mobility.

Table 4.50 Exuding confidence and education level

My education level hinders my career mobility	I exude confidence in my area of responsibility				
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Strongly disagree	0.9%	0.0%	4.3%	6.8%	12.0%
Disagree	4.3%	5.1%	36.8%	14.5%	60.7%
Undecided	0.0%	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	10.3%
Agree	0.0%	4.3%	8.5%	1.7%	14.5%
Strongly agree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	2.6%
Total	6.0%	10.3%	54.7%	29.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.13 Cross tabulation: Exuding confidence with emotional suitability

Fifty percent (50%) of respondents who were significantly confident in their roles also felt emotionally suited to hold senior management positions.

Table 4.51 Exuding confidence and emotional suitability

I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions	I exude confidence in my area of responsibility				
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Disagree	1.7%	0.9%	1.7%	0.0%	4.3%
Undecided	0.0%	4.3%	6.8%	0.0%	11.1%
Agree	4.3%	3.4%	41.0%	8.5%	57.3%
Strongly agree	0.0%	1.7%	5.1%	20.5%	27.4%
Total	6.0%	10.3%	54.7%	29.1%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.14 Cross tabulation: Organisational cluster with confidence from subordinates

Fifty seven percent (57%) of respondents from the private sector perceived to a significant extent that their subordinates had confidence in them.

Table 4.52 Confidence from subordinates according to organisational cluster

Organisational cluster	My subordinates have confidence in me as manager				
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
Private sector	1.7%	3.4%	44.4%	12.8%	62.4%
Public sector	0.0%	2.6%	17.9%	4.3%	24.8%
Tertiary	0.0%	0.9%	6.0%	5.1%	12.0%
Other	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%
Total	1.7%	7.7%	68.4%	22.2%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.15 Cross tabulation: Race with high achievement

From Table 4.53, majority of White respondents agreed that they were high achievers (p≤0.05).

Table 4.53 High achievement according to race

I am a high achiever	Race				
	African	Indian	White	Coloured	Total
Disagree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%
Undecided	2.6%	1.7%	0.0%	0.9%	5.1%
Agree	17.1%	11.1%	29.1%	0.9%	58.1%
Strongly agree	13.7%	10.3%	12.0%	0.0%	35.9%
Total	34.2%	23.1%	41.0%	1.7%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.16 Cross tabulation: Level in management with high achievement

Table 4.54 showed that perceptions of being a high achiever increased from approximately 20% in First line management to double this percentage at middle management. At senior level management, 27% of respondents felt they were high achievers (p≤0.05).

Table 4.54 High achievement according to management level

I am a high achiever		Level in organisation				
		First Line	**Middle Management**	**Senior Management**	**Other**	**Total**
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%
	Undecided	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	5.1%
	Agree	11.1%	28.2%	17.9%	0.9%	58.1%
	Strongly agree	9.4%	16.2%	9.4%	0.9%	35.9%
	Total	22.2%	47.0%	27.4%	3.4%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.17 Cross tabulation: High achievement with organisational support

Approximately 40% of respondents who agreed that they were high achievers also agreed that they received organisational support to balance their professional and domestic responsibilities (p≤0.05).

Table 4.55 High achievement and organisational support

I am a high achiever		I receive adequate organisational support at work to manage my professional and domestic responsibilities					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.9%
	Undecided	0.9%	0.0%	2.6%	1.7%	0.0%	5.1%
	Agree	6.0%	8.5%	3.4%	36.8%	3.4%	58.1%
	Strongly agree	6.8%	11.1%	1.7%	12.8%	3.4%	35.9%
	Total	13.7%	19.7%	7.7%	52.1%	6.8%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.18 Cross tabulation: High achievement with competitiveness and ambitiousness

From Table 4.56, approximately 51% of respondents who agreed to being competitive and ambitious also agreed to being high achievers at work (p≤0.05).

Table 4.56 High achievement if competitive and ambitious

I am a high achiever		I am competitive and ambitious at work					
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.9%
	Undecided	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	3.4%	0.0%	5.1%
	Agree	0.0%	4.3%	2.6%	41.9%	9.4%	58.1%
	Strongly agree	0.9%	0.9%	0.0%	12.0%	22.2%	35.9%
	Total	0.9%	5.1%	4.3%	58.1%	3.6%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.19 Cross tabulation: Work experience with leadership

Table 4.57 showed that the level of agreement with the perception of leadership was directly proportional to work experience. As work experience increased so did the perceptions of leadership. Feelings of leadership increased from 6% in respondents with less than five years of work experience to approximately 62% in respondents who had more than 10 years of work experience ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.57 Leadership according to work experience

Work experience		I consider myself a leader				
		Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
	Below 5 years	0.9%	0.0%	6.0%	0.0%	6.8%
	5-10 years	0.0%	3.4%	15.4%	10.3%	29.1%
	Over 10 years	0.9%	0.9%	39.3%	23.1%	64.1%
	Total	1.7%	4.3%	60.7%	33.3%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.20 Cross tabulation: Leadership with working twice as hard

Approximately 47% of respondents agreed and also did so strongly that as a leader you had to work twice as hard to prove your worth ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.58 Leadership and working twice as hard

I take on more work to prove my worth	I consider myself a leader				
	Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	0.9%	2.6%
Disagree	0.9%	0.9%	17.1%	6.0%	24.8%
Undecided	0.0%	1.7%	3.4%	3.4%	8.5%
Agree	0.95%	0.9%	35.0%	12.0%	48.7%
Strongly agree	0.0%	0.9%	3.4%	11.1%	15.4%
Total	1.7%	4.3%	60.7%	33.3%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.21 Cross tabulation: Leadership with promotional challenge

Fifty eight percent (58%) of respondents who considered themselves leaders disagreed that they were not up to the challenge that comes with promotion.

Table 4.59 Leadership and promotion challenge

I do not apply for promotions to top management because I am not up to the challenge	I consider myself a leader				
	Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	13.7%	13.7%	27.4%
Disagree	0.9%	1.7%	40.2%	17.9%	60.7%
Undecided	0.9%	0.9%	5.1%	0.9%	7.7%
Agree	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	0.9%	4.3%
Total	1.7%	4.3%	60.7%	33.3%	100.0%

4.4.2.5.22 Cross tabulation: Leadership with emotional suitability

Almost half of the respondents agreed and did so strongly that to be a leader you had to be emotionally intelligent to assume top management positions ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4.60 Leadership and emotional suitability

I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions	I consider myself a leader				
	Disagree	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Total**
Disagree	1.7%	0.0%	2.6%	0.0%	4.3%
Undecided	0.0%	2.6%	7.7%	0.9%	11.1%
Agree	0.0%	1.7%	44.4%	11.1%	57.3%
Strongly agree	0.0%	0.0%	6.0%	21.4%	27.4%
Total	1.7%	4.3%	60.7%	33.3%	100.0%

4.4.3 Correlation coefficients

The association relationships between the questionnaire variables were correlated to determine the strength of their linear associations.

4.4.3.1 Objective 1: Work place barriers and the glass ceiling

Significant correlations (r) between the 6 constructs as shown in the questionnaire schedule in the annexure that was used to try and answer the above objective are presented below:

4.4.3.1.1 Correlation between assignment to challenging positions, development opportunities and overachievement

The assignment of women to challenging positions correlated moderately with lack of adequate career developmental opportunities (r=.404) and the need to overachieve (r=.498).

Table 4.61 Association relationship of non assignment to challenging positions

Question		Inadequate career development opportunities	need to overachieve
1. Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility projects	r	.404**	.498**
		.000	.000
	n	117	117

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

4.4.3.1.2 Correlation between development opportunities, fair evaluation, visibility and overachievement

The more respondents felt they lacked opportunities for career development, the more they felt unfairly evaluated (Q3: r=.509); lacked developmental opportunities because they were female (Q7: r=.533); lacked departmental visibility (Q8: r=.640) and needed to overachieve (r=.441).

Table 4.62: Association relationship of professional development opportunities

Question		3	7	8	6
2. I do not have adequate opportunities at work for professional development of my career	r	.509**	.533**	.640**	.441**
		.000	.000	.000	.000
	n	117	117	117	117

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

4.4.3.1.3 Correlation between fair evaluation and development opportunities

The linear relationship showed that the more respondents felt they were not fairly evaluated the more their perceptions were linked to receipt of inadequate career opportunities because they were female (r=.515).

Table 4.63 Association relationship between evaluation and career opportunities

Question		**Lack of career developmental opportunities because I am female**
3. I am not evaluated fairly based on my performance	Correlation	.515**
	Sig.(2 tailed)	.000
	n	117

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

4.4.3.1.4 Correlation between organisational support, overachievement, development opportunities and working twice as hard

The more respondents felt they received adequate organisational support to balance their multiple roles, the less they felt they needed to overachieve (r=-.425); lacked career development opportunities (r=-.355); and needed to work twice as hard (r=-.317).

Table 4.64 Association relationships of organisational support

Question		6	7	9
4. I receive adequate organisational support at work to manage my professional work and domestic responsibilities with other questionnaire variables	r	-.425**	-.355**	-.317**
		.000	.000	.001
	n	117	117	117

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

4.4.3.1.5 Correlation between overachievement, development opportunities and working twice as hard

The strong linearity relationship showed that the need to overachieve was associated with females receiving inadequate career development opportunities (r=.614) and working twice as hard (r=.533).

Table 4.65 Association relationship of overachievement

Question		7	9
6. I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female	Correlation	.614**	.533**
	Sig.(2 tailed)	.000	.000
	n	117	117

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

4.4.3.2 Objective 2: Hindrances to upward career mobility

The correlations (r) between significant constructs to try and answer the objective above are presented below.

4.4.3.2.1 Correlation between development opportunities and visibility

The strong linear relationship showed that the more respondents felt they received fewer career opportunities because of their gender the more they felt they lacked departmental visibility (r=.558).

Table 4.66 Association relationship between career opportunities and visibility

Question		Lack of departmental visibility
7. I receive fewer opportunities for development than I wish for because I am female	Correlation	.558**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000
	n	117

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

4.4.3.2.2 Correlation between visibility and organisational support

The more respondents felt they received organisational support the less they felt they lacked departmental visibility (r=-.353).

Table 4.67 Association relationship between visibility and organisational support

Question		Adequate organisational support
8. The department I work in does not help to make me visible	Correlation Sig.	-.353**
	(2 tailed)	.000
	n	117

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

4.4.3.2.3 Correlation between relocation, family responsibilities and emotional suitability

The more respondents were reluctance to relocate the less they were emotionally suited to assume leadership positions (r=-.280) and the less they sought promotional opportunities due to family responsibilities (r=.357).

Table 4.68 Association relationship of reluctance to relocate

Question		17	20
11. I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it	Correlation Sig.	-.353**	-.280**
	(2 tailed)	.000	.000
	n	117	117

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

4.4.3.2.4 Correlation between work experience and organisational politics

The more work experience had an influence on the selection of respondents for promotions the less organisational politics hindered respondents from applying for promotions (r= -.340).

Table 4.69 Association relationship between work experience and organisational politics

Question		Organisational politics
13. My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotions	Correlation Sig. (2 tailed) n	-.340** .000 117

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

4.4.3.3 Objective 3: Work place barriers and promotions

Association relationships between variables to try and answer the objective three are presented below.

4.4.3.3.1 Correlation between promotions and family responsibilities

Respondents who were not up to the challenges that promotional opportunities presented also did not apply for promotions due to their family responsibilities (r=.445).

Table 4.70 Association relationship between promotion challenge and family responsibilities

Question		17
16. I do not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge	r	**.445****
		000
	n	**117**

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

4.4.3.3.2 Correlation between family responsibilities and emotional suitability

The negative linear relationship showed that the more respondents did not seek promotional opportunities due to their family responsibilities the less they were emotionally suited to assume leadership positions (r=-.444).

Table 4.71 Association relationship between family responsibilities and emotional suitability

Question		20
17. I do not seek promotions to top management because of my family responsibilities	r	-.444**
		.000
	N	117

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

4.4.3.4 Objective 4: Women in senior management as promotional agents

The correlation coefficient between the 2 questions used to answer the above objective is presented below:

4.4.3.4.1 Correlation between organisational politics, women in top leadership and working twice as hard

The more respondents felt organisational politics hindered them from applying for promotions the more women in top leadership did little to promote women lower down the hierarchy (r=.294) and the more respondents felt they had to work twice as hard to prove their worth (r=.242).

Table 4.72 Association relationship of organisational politics

Question		women in leadership	working twice as hard
18. Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments	Correlation	.294**	.242**
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000
	n	117	117

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

4.4.3.5 Personal traits and vertical career progression

Correlation coefficients of the 6 questions used to answer the above objective are presented below.

4.4.3.5.1 Correlation between age and competitiveness and ambitiousness

Respondents who were young were more competitive and ambitious (r=-.246).

Table 4.73 Association relationship between competitiveness and ambitiousness according to age

Question		Age
21. I am competitive and ambitious at work	Correlation Sig. (2 tailed)	-.246**
		.005
	n	117

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

4.4.3.5.2 Correlation between personal traits

The more respondents felt they were emotionally suited to assume leadership positions, the more they exuded confidence (r=.529), were high achievers (r=.526), considered themselves leaders (r=.612) and in turn their subordinates had more confidence in them (r=.445). Feelings of being more competitive and ambitious were congruent with high achievement (r=.327) and leadership (r=.276). Respondents who exuded confidence were high achievers (r=.480), considered themselves leaders (r=.525) and had to a greater extent subordinates who were confident in them (r=.382). Subordinates on the other hand had more confidence in managers who were high achievers (r=.603) and considered themselves leaders (r=.598). Respondents who were high achievers considered themselves as leaders (r=.655). Non committal responses ranged from 4 to 11% over the six items in the personal qualities construct discussed above.

Table 4.74 Association relationships of personal traits

Question		22	23	24	25
20. I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions	r	.529**	.445**	.526**	.612**
		.000	.000	.000	.000
	n	117	117	117	117
21. I am competitive and ambitious at work	r			.327**	.276**
		-	-	.000	.003
	n			117	117
22. I exude confidence in my area of responsibility	r	1	.382**	.480**	.525**
			.000	.000	.000
	n	117	117	117	117
23. My subordinates have confidence in me as a manager	r	.382**	1	.603**	.598**
		.000		.000	.000
	n	117	117	117	117
24. I am a high achiever	r	.480**	.603**	1	.655**
		.000	.000		.000
	n	117	117	117	117

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

4.4.4 Regression analysis

Linear regression helped to determine the extent that one variable caused the variation in another variable.

4.4.4.1 Relocation and family responsibilities

Approximately 12% of the variation in reluctance to relocate (dependent variable) can be attributed to not seeking promotions due to family responsibilities. As a result, family responsibilities are responsible to a significant extent towards respondents' reluctance to relocate.

Table 4.75 Variation in relocation due to family responsibilities

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std error of estimate
1	.357[a]	.127	.120	1.213

[a]Predictor: I do not seek promotions to top management due to family responsibilities

4.4.4.2 Level in organisation and relocation

Fifteen percent (14%) of the variation in reluctance to relocate (dependent variable) can be attributed to management level. As a result, the respondents' level of management was to a significant degree responsible for their reluctance to relocate.

Table 4.76 Variation in relocation due to management level

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std error of estimate
1	.389[a]	.152	.144	1.196

[a]Predictor: Management level

4.4.4.3 Work experience and organisational politics

Approximately 11% of the variation in work experience as a promotional inhibitor (dependent variable) can be attributed to organisational politics which hinders respondents from seeking promotional opportunities in male dominated departments. As a result, organisational politics are responsible to a significant extent towards work experience not influencing the respondents' selection for promotions.

Table 4.77 Variation in work experience due to organisational politics

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std error of estimate
1	.340[a]	.116	.108	.803

[a]Predictor: organisational politics in male dominated departments

4.4.4.4 Visibility and career development

The 41% variation in lack of departmental visibility (dependent variable) can be attributed to lack of adequate opportunities for career development. As a result, a significant lack of

adequate career developmental opportunities can to a significant extent lead to lack of departmental visibility.

Table 4.78 Variation in departmental visibility due to career development

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std error of estimate
1	.640ᵃ	.410	.405	.839

ᵃPredictor: Opportunities for career development

4.4.5 Objective 6: Recommendations to facilitate the upward career mobility

Using an open ended question, respondents were asked to state additional challenges they faced while in management and provide suggestions on how to counter the challenges. The results of the suggestions are as presented in Figure 4.1.
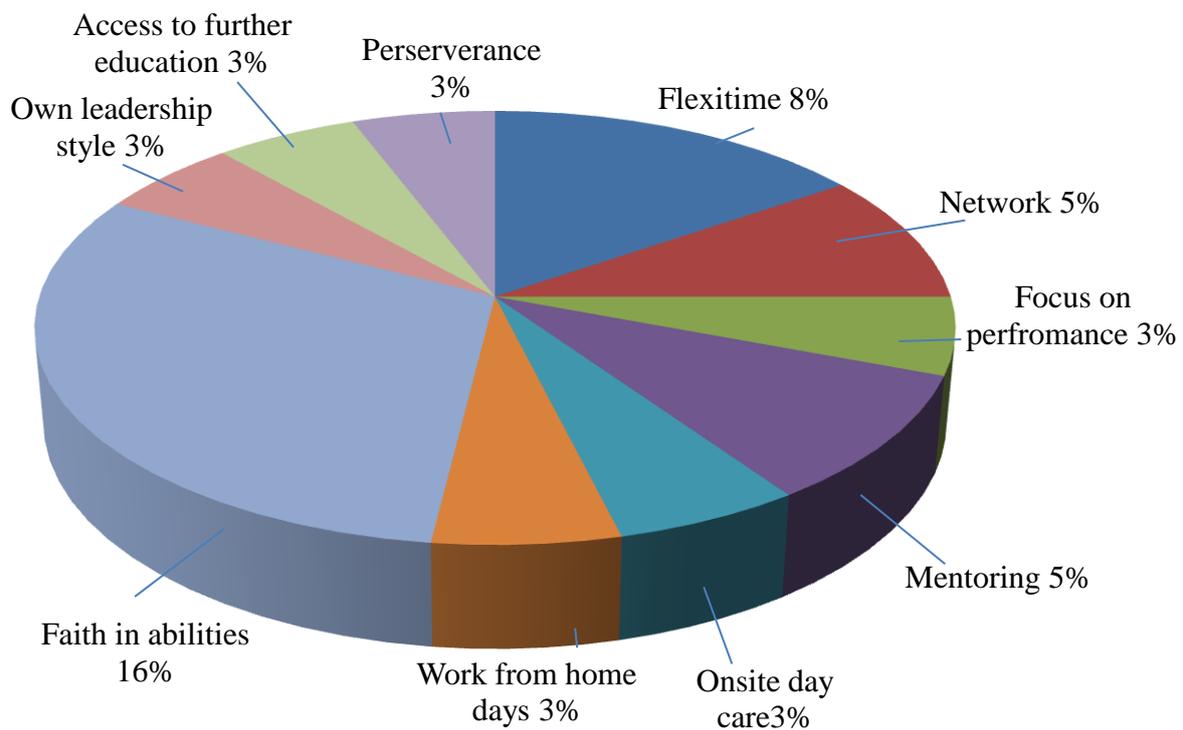

Figure 4.1 Countering the glass ceiling

To help counter the challenges that respondents in management faced, in order of priority, 16% of respondents stated that women should have greater faith and confidence in their abilities, have access to flexi time (8%), and take advantage of networking and mentoring opportunities (5%). In addition, 3% of respondents recommended that women should gain access to further education, cultivate their own leadership styles and not emulate their male counterparts, persevere while focusing on their performance in their pursuit of career growth, gain access to onsite day care facilities and work from home days respectively. Section 6.3 provided in detail discussions of the above recommendations.

4.5 Summary

The main emphasis of Chapter 4 was to present the findings of this research study. Results were presented using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics provided insight into the demographic profile of the respondents. Any significant difference in the study variables was determined at $p \leq 0.05$. Some salient features that emerged were that the majority of respondents held middle management positions in their respective organisations. The respondents were also mainly from the private sector and majority of them were white. Inferential statistics provided an in depth information of the relationships and causes of variation between the study variables. Discussions of the data are presented in Chapter 5 in an attempt to answer the research questions posed in this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF STUDY RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 that preceded this chapter presented the results using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descritpive statistics helped to give insight into how sample characteristics influenced constructs under review in this study. Inferences were used to further drill down into the data to help determine the interelationships if any between the different constructs. A detailed discussion of these results are presented in this Chapter. Empirical evidence from the literature review helped to provide further insight and explanations into the research findings. Arguements for or against the findings are discussed as per the objectives set out in Chapter 1 of this study. A concluding summary to highlight in brief the study findings is provided at the end of this chapter.

5.2 Sample characteristics

The majority of respondents were significantly young with approximatley 89% being under 45 years of age. Most of the respondents (54%) were within 35-44 years of age while those aged 45 years and over were 11%. Though the majority of respondents aged 35-44 years worked in the private sector, others also worked in the public and tertiary sectors. A study done by Guillaume and Pochic (2009), study on work/life balance and access to top management found a similar sample charactrisitcs by age in that 44% of respondents were aged 35-44 and only 15% were aged 45 and over. According to April et al., (2007), the 35-44 age bracket is the mid-career age where vertical career progression begins for both male managers in general and female managers in particular; especially those who have uniterrupted careers. Guillaume and Pochic (2009) asserted that the 35-44 age bracket is a key stage before entering senior management where the visibility of the glass ceiling becomes more pronounced.

For the female worker, family responsibilities and hence a work life balance is critical to vertical career progression. Out of 69% of respondents who were married, 51% had a maximum of two dependants while approximately 19% had a maximum of 5 dependants. Single (23%) and divorced (5%) respondents had a maximum of two dependants while 1% of

widowed respondents had a maximum of five respondents. White and Indian respondents had a maximum of 2 dependants. The mean number of dependants was two. Though not significant, out of the 34% of African respondents, 23% had a maximum of two dependants while the remainder had a maximum of 5 dependants.

The uniquesness of South Africa's racial diversity can not be ignored. The heterogeneity and homogeneity of the four main racial groups: Whites, Africans, Indians and Coloureds, is testimony that within these racial groups, differences in tribe, cultural practices and religion prevail. By race, the sample was composed of 41% Whites, 34% Africans, 23% Indian and approximately 2% Coloureds. The higher proportion of Whites may be a reflection of their dominant positions and earlier participation in the economic strata of South Africa (April et al., 2007). As much as this study may be seen to support this fact as Whites were the majority of the respondents, at this point, it may be premature to generalise the race composition to mirror the South African scenario as the sample was drawn using non-probability sampling.

Due to the fact that credentials are a critical component of a managers' competence basket, the majority of respondents (36%) held Bachelors degrees, approximately slightly over 20% held diplomas and Masters level education respectively, 9% had Matric while the other 6% held certificate level qualifications in their respective areas of specialisation. No respondents held doctorate qualifications. Though not significant, Africans had the highest proportion of respondents holding Bachelors (16%) while the majority of Whites (15%) held diploma level education.

Though the glass ceiling phenomenon emanated from corporate America, other sectors are also experiencing the effects of the ceiling in different ways. Most of the respondents (62%) in this study were employed in the Private sector, while 25% were employed in the Public sector and 12% were employed in Tertiary institutions. Though not significant, Whites and Indians were predominantly from the private sector while Africans were from both public and tertiary institutions. The other 3% of respondents were in family owned businesses. Middle managment positions were held by 47% of respondents, while 27% in senior management and 22% in firstline/supervisory positions. According to Jain and Mukherji (2010), middle management is the level that most women reach and do not surpass. For most women, middle management is the level where they can have both a substantial career and at the same time have some degree of flexibility to carry out their multiple roles. Hence middle management is not a barrier to advancement but a level where women make choices to either further pursue

their careers or look after family (April et al., 2007). Thirty two percent (32%) of respondents at middle management had over ten years of work experience. The majority of White (30%) and Indian (18%) respondents had over ten years of work experience while 17% of Africans had 5-10 years work experience. Coloureds had the least work experience with only 1% having more than 5 years work experience. According to April et al., (2007), having a track record coupled with work experience of 20 years and more are the requisites for entry to the company board. Most of the respondents at middle management had less than five subordinates reporting to them.

5.3 Glass ceiling perceptions

Six objectives are discussed below in an attempt to provide answers to the broad aim of this study: whether the glass ceiling indeed exists or not.

5.3.1 Objective 1: To determine whether work place barriers contribute to the creation of the Glass ceiling

The six variables on the questionnaire converging on the objective above are as discussed herein. From descriptive statistics on the one hand, more than half of respondents were in disagreement and 38% in agreement that women were not assigned to high visibility positions. There was vehement opposition to this statement by 22 % of respondents who also disagreed to overachieving to receive recognition. On the other hand, 18% of respondents who agreed that women were not assigned to high visibility positions saw the need to overachieve as critical (r=.498). This observation shows a clear division of opinion between the respondents in agreement and those in disagreement with this construct. However, findings of a study done by Ragin et al., (1998 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009), showed that respondents regarded undertaking high visibility projects as an important career success factor which had to be sought more than their male counterparts did. According to one respondent in the current study, assigning women to high visibility positions could be taken to mean that organisations are embracing the concept of diversity as a key strategy driver and are thus actively recruiting women to fill key company positions. Cross tabulation of demographic variables and managements' hesitance to assign women to high visibility projects showed no significant relationship (p≤ 0.05).

Though a majority of respondents (70%) disagreed that they did not receive adequate career developmental opportunities strong linear relationships with lack of fair evaluation (r=.509) and departmental visibility existed (r=.640). The 41% variation in departmental visibility among respondents was attributed to lack of career developmental opportunities as shown in Table 4.78. This question has relevance in the South African context post apartheid where up skilling and empowerment of the previously disadvantaged means that for most organisations, it is a requirement to empower staff by offering training and education opportunities. According to Jain and Mukherji (2010), career developmental opportunities emerge through training and experience gained in diverse functional areas in an organisation. A conclusion of Wentlings' (2003 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009) study was that to advance to senior management, women needed to have the knowledge, skills and access to professional developmental opportunities throughout their careers. This finding was corroborated by one respondent in the current study who asserted that "due to equity requirements in South Africa at present, women have greater opportunities for career development than before". Additionally, a woman's career developmental prospects were affected by rotational job assignments to which management exposed them especially in areas related to the top line which if otherwise not provided resulted in the creation of 'glass walls'.

While the majority of the respondents (73%) disapproved the notion of unfair evaluation based on performance, strong linearity relationships existed with receipt of fewer opportunities for career development (r=.515). The Employment Equity Act of 1988 and affirmative action initiatives are gazetted Acts that ensure the rights of the employee in the work place both male and female are protected in order to minimise work place discrimination more so against women who are prone to overt or covert forms of discrimination that may lead to their unfair evaluation of performance at the work place.

Organisational support to balance multiple roles was received by more than half of the respondents (59%), who in addition felt to a lesser extent that they lacked departmental visibility (r=-.353) and that their managers hindered their promotional prospects (r=-.343). A corporate culture that is supportive of women gives them the flexibility to adjust their work schedules while at the same time according them avenues to make meaningful contributions to both the organisation and their families by allowing the effective reconciliation of their multiple roles (Jain and Mukherji, 2010; Mok Kim Man et al., 2009). Receipt of

organisational support by respondents (22%) was, however, moderately congruent with a reduced desire to overachieve (r=-.425) and to work twice as hard (r=-.317). Of importance was that 34% of respondents disagreed to receiving adequate opportunities at work to balance both their professional and domestic responsibilities. The majority of those who disagreed were from the public sector though findings were not significant at p≤ 0.05. According to Jain and Mukherji (2010), if organisational support to balance professional and domestic responsibilities is nonexistent, a woman's career advancement can be negatively impacted. The current research supports these findings since the more respondents felt they received organisational support the less they felt that they lacked career developmental opportunities (r= -.355). The majority of respondents who received adequate organisational support were between 35-44 years though results were not significant at p≤0.05.

The under representation of females at senior management was supported by 86% of respondents. According to Broadbridge (2001), the under representation of women was due to the reluctance of companies to change organisational culture and attitudes towards women's roles. Findings of a study done by Singh and Terjesen (2007), showed that the greater exposure women were given to more lateral growth opportunities which unlike vertical career growth allowed for greater job specialisation, autonomy and heightened satisfaction led to women feeling a reduced desire if any for career aspirations leading to their under representation at senior management. Contrary to this, Linehan and Scullion, (2008) asserted that the under representation of women to senior management in Ireland was aggravated by the fact that most hiring, including the choice of individuals for global assignments was done by men who were reluctant to offer career advancement opportunities to women subordinates due to the fear men had of women infiltrating their 'old boy networks' and changing the status quo with respect to top leadership positions which have for long been a male preserve. The more women were not assigned to challenging high visibility positions the more their representation at senior management was lacking (r=.270). These findings support Singh and Terjesen's assertions made above. Two respondents in the current study were of the view that "unfortunately senior management positions were dominated by males who had a greater hearing in boardrooms hence making it difficult for women to be recognised". The second respondent felt that "women lacked opportunities to prove themselves because men liked having fellow men in top management/directorship positions".

Half of the respondents were in agreement that they had to overachieve to be recognised. The more respondents felt they needed to overachieve the more they had to work twice as hard to prove their worth (r=.533) as a result of the existence of inadequate opportunities for career development (r=.614). This finding was corroborated by Ragin et al., (1998 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009) whose study concluded that women's need to consistently exceed performance expectations was necessitated by their desire to repeatedly prove their ability and over perform to negate negative assumptions that were ascribed to them. The negative stereotypes that label women as not being able to cut it in management by their male colleagues places greater demands on their performance making them to work twice as hard (Billy and Manoochehri, 1995). Additionally, according to Oakley, (2000), the need by women to overachieve was necessitated by their exclusion from informal organisational networks via competency testing which required the woman to prove herself over and over again even more so for women at a senior level. These findings were corroborated by one respondent in the current study who felt that "though women were given career development opportunities it was mundane for them to overachieve in order to supersede expectations set by society." There was agreement among all races (approximately 10%) except Coloureds that they needed to overachieve to be recognised though results were insignificant (p≤0.05). In this current study, two respondents commented that their race and more so being 'Black' was more of a limiting factor to their career mobility than their gender in the corporate arena. The 14% of respondents who were non committal to the aspect of overachievement could be respondents who were young and had only started their careers recently hence overachievement was not of prime concern.

In summary, work barriers (non assignment to visibility positions, lack of career development opportunities and fair evaluation) did not seem to hinder the upward career mobility for respondents. Though more men than women still occupied senior management positions, respondents felt that while they received adequate organisational support; they needed to overachieve to be recognised.

5.3.2 Objective 2: To identify what factors hinder the vertical progression of females to top management positions

The seven items on the questionnaire that converged on the above objective as rated on a five point Likert scale showed that 59% of respondents disagreed to receiving fewer developmental opportunities because of their gender. There was however a significant difference (p=0.047) between race and lack thereof of developmental opportunities (p≤ 0.05). Though a large proportion of Black, White, Indian and Coloured respondents expressed their disagreement; Whites were the majority in disagreement (23%). A strong positive linear relationship showed that the more career developmental opportunities lacked, the more departmental visibility existed (r=.558). Findings of a study done by Cooper (2001 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009) concluded that the career developmental opportunities for women are affected in part by the lateral growth assignments they get exposed to. Additionally, Mok Kim Man's findings showed that organisations that offer developmental opportunities to women do so by informing them of both training and career developmental prospects while at the same time according them access to such programmes.

There was vehement opposition by respondents (67%) that they lacked departmental visibility. A moderate association relationship with lack of career developmental opportunities showed that the more respondents felt they received career developmental opportunities the less they felt they lacked departmental visibility (r=-.353). According to a study done by Oakley, (2000), on-the-job visibility was experienced by 'tokens', who due to their heightened visibility were subject to more scrutiny and job pressures than other colleagues resulting in performance pressures. Contrary to these findings, a study done by Mok Kim Man et al., (2009) in Singapore revealed that respondents felt that their placement in genderised roles that did not enhance their career visibility; limited their exposure to top line career opportunities. No significant differences were observed with regard to the demographic variables and lack of departmental visibility.

Sixty five percent (65%) of respondents felt that working twice as hard to prove their worth was important. There was a significant difference with regard to the level of education and working twice as hard to prove one's worth. The level of agreement increased with increase in education from Diploma (13%) to Bachelors level (27%) and decreased slightly at Masters Level (17%). The need to work twice as hard, is necessitated by the need for women who though with the requisite skills and competence; must work harder than her male counterparts

in order to counter negative precepts from colleagues that appointments accorded to them are done based on merit and not on the colour of their skin (April et al., 2007). According to Harris, (2010d), the need to constantly prove ones competence leads to increased levels that can ultimately affect the overall performance of the woman negatively, resulting in failure for the female leader, frustration for the team and overall losses for the organisation leading to lose-lose situation for all parties. Like the need to overachieve, there was no significant difference with regard to race and the need to take on more work (p≤ 0.05).

More than half (66%) of the respondents did not feel isolated at work due to their positions. Cross tabulation of the demographic variables and feelings of isolation showed no significant differences (p≤ 0.05). Isolation in management is usually as a result of tokenism where women holding management positions are isolated by their colleagues who perceive them as having been appointed to their positions not because of their ability, but by affirmative action initiatives (April et al., 2007). Approximately 33% of respondents who did not feel isolated due to their positions also significantly disagreed that organisational politics hindered them from applying for promotions in male dominated departments and hence they felt they received more respect from their male colleagues (r=-.468). On the contrary, 11% of respondents who agreed that they were isolated were, however, in agreement that organisational politics hindered them from applying for promotions. This finding was supported by one respondent in the current study who felt that "since moving to a senior position, the politics which was caused by female managers had become fiercer and made her feel more isolated".

There was a 50-50 split between respondents who on the one hand were willing to relocate (41%) and on the other were reluctant to relocate (48%) if required to by their jobs. These results showed that the respondents' opinions were somewhat divided on the issue of relocation. This observation is in support of human capitalist theory which states that choices women make has an influence on their career mobility. There was however a significant difference between reluctance to relocate and marital status (p=0.043), level in organisation (p=0.005) and not seeking promotions due to family responsibilities (p=0.000) at p≤ 0.05 level of significance. The majority of respondents (40%) who were married expressed their reluctance to relocate. Possibly for married women, the home support structure provided by the immediate and extended families alike in helping them manage their domestic responsibilities may play a part to them being reluctant to relocate. According to the findings

of Hede and Ralston (1993) study, female managers who though expressed their reluctance to relocate geographically; were no more reluctant to change organisations. As a result, Ralston and Hede concluded that family obligations do present a career barrier to female executives particularly those with dependants. The results of this study were contradicted by findings of the current research which revealed that though the majority of respondents had dependants, their family obligations were not a significant hindrance to them seeking top management positions ($p \leq 0.05$). The majority of respondents (21%) at middle management expressed their reluctance to relocate on the one hand and another 22% at a similar level were open to relocation if the opportunity arose. This difference in opinion could emanate from the fact that respondents who were willing to relocate were those who were single and/or married but with no dependants. The split in opinion with regard to respondents willing to relocate partly negated April et al., (2007) assertions that at middle management women become less upwardly mobile because of the choices they make between either pursuing their career or looking after their family. Consequently, working mothers see middle management as the career level that gives them some flexibility to handle their multiple roles. Respondents at first line level (6%) and those at senior level (19%) expressed the least desire to relocate if their jobs required them to in comparison to respondents at middle management. At senior level the need to relocate was not felt as much when compared to respondents at middle level management. According to findings from April et al., (2007) study, as one approaches senior management, there is a greater reliance on the home support structure like au pairs, full-time domestic helpers, spousal support and/or extended family support that accords the female executive time and flexibility to focus on their careers. There is the probability that upon relocation the stability that such a support structure presents may be destabilised hence the reluctance to relocate especially if the woman is to relocate with her family. Tables 4.75 and 4.76 showed that the variations in relocation were attributed to family responsibilities (12% and/or level in management (14%). The more respondents expressed their reluctance to relocate, the more family responsibilities was not seen as a hindrance to seeking domestic promotions ($r=.357$) and hence the less emotionally suitable they were to hold top management positions ($r=-.280$). According to Har- Even (2004), one of the requirements for advancement for executives is career mobility. While the 1st Glass Ceiling Commission report of 1991 stated that women were assumed by their superiors as not willing to relocate, results of Har- Even (2004) study showed that women's reluctance to relocate was attributed

to their reluctance to disrupt their children's education, social support systems they received and consideration they had for their spouses' careers.

While seventy eight percent (78%) of respondents conceded to being respected by their male colleagues at work, the level of agreement increased significantly (p≤0.05) with management level. Respondents who were competitive and ambitious agreed that they were respected by their male colleagues though the results were not significant. According to Billy and Manoocherhi (1995), expectations of success are more at senior management. Contrary to this, women who portray themselves as assertive are labelled as too aggressive while those displaying feminine traits are seen as weak. Respect that the female is accorded by male colleagues is received when she displays an acceptable range of behaviour that results in her gaining loyalty from colleagues (Billy and Manoocherhi, 1995).

Work experience was seen to have more of an influence to the respondents' selection for promotions when compared to education level. Level of agreement was more among respondents holding middle management positions and those having a higher level of education. In the initial stages of career progression, education level may have a stronger bearing than work experience. However, as one starts to scale the corporate ladder work experience (track record) becomes more of a career mobility influencer. Whites had more work experience more so due to their involvement much earlier in the economic arena of SA. According to a study done by Singh and Terjesen (2007), the appointment of women to UK boards was based on previous work experience that the women had in either the financial institutions, Public sector or in Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs). Contrary to these findings, April et al., (2007), asserted that the gateway for women to executive positions is linked to their access to tertiary education more so higher education. Broadbridge, (2008) concurred with April and asserted that the acquisition of higher education and professional training are organisational success measures on which decisions about career advancement are based. A study done by Hede and Ralston (1993) found that though women in management had higher formal qualifications than males, it was the lack of a track record that hindered their upward career mobility. What is important to note was that the more organisational politics was perceived to exist the less work experience had an influence on the respondents' selection for promotion (r=-.340). To some extent the existence of organisational politics (11%) had a significant influence on whether respondents' work experience was considered when choosing applicants to fill promotional positions, as shown

in Table 4.77. Though according to April et al., (2007), work experience and education are formal barriers to the career progression of females, findings from this study showed that educational level per se was not seen as a significant barrier to the upward career mobility by respondents. The 14% non committal response to the aspect of work experience as influencing promotions could be attributed to fresh recruits having no track record.

In summary, lack of departmental visibility and isolation were not significant factors that hindered the mobility of respondents. However though respondents felt a greater urge to work twice as hard, they felt that their male colleagues respected them more when they held senior management positions. Despite the significance that having a track record has on enhancing the career mobility of respondents, they were reluctant to take advantage of the opportunities that geographical relocation presented.

5.3.3 Objective 3: To determine if work place barriers deter females from applying for promotions

The four constructs that were rated on the Likert scale by respondents showed that the level of opposition to the constructs was more than 50%. Seventy three percent (73%) of respondents were in disagreement that their education hindered their career mobility. Though there was a significant difference (p=0.004) with regard to organisational cluster and whether educational level had an influence on the managers selection for promotion, results showed that the majority of respondents (44%) in disagreement were from the private sector. These findings contradict partially the results of a study conducted by Singh and Terjesen (2008) who concluded that the reason female managers did not apply for promotions was that they lacked the necessary credentials which Ryan et al., (2007) positively attributed to enhancing managerial advancement. A respondent in the current study was of the view that in academic institutions recognition is given to academic qualifications as opposed to work experience or professional qualifications. Whether this statement is true or not opens the doors to further investigation.

Though respondents felt that their managers did not hinder their promotional opportunities they were in agreement that they needed to work twice as hard to prove their worth. On the flip side of the coin, 23% of respondents who felt that their managers hindered their opportunities for promotion also agreed to working twice as hard to prove their worth. A

possible cause of concern is the 16% non committal response rate to this construct which needs further investigation.

Almost all respondents (88%) felt that they were up to the challenge that a promotional opportunity presented. Though family responsibilities did not seem to hinder their application for promotions, there was agreement from the respondents that despite being emotionally suited to handle senior management (r=-.444), geographical relocation to take advantage of promotional opportunities was not an option. Respondents who had dependants were not constrained by family responsibilities when applying for promotions. Contrary to human capital theory, respondents in this study were not hindered from seeking promotions due to family responsibilities. There is a possibility that respondents in this study were able to balance their multiple roles; making them better able to counter challenges that promotions presented (r=.445). These findings contradict the study of Kamenou (2008) which concluded that for the woman, career aspirations change when one has children and for a long while career aspirations are not considered due to the fact that the woman decides to settle longer where she works and not seek promotions internally or externally. Kamenou's findings contradict the study of Burke, (2001 as cited in Broadbridge 2008), where findings showed that the female employee was either committed to the organisation or to the family but not committed to both simultaneously. Further to this, Kamenou (2008) concluded that for the woman unlike the man, having a family became a career mobility hindrance. A study done by Broadbridge (2008) negated Burke's findings and concluded that the multiple roles that women played per se did not impede their career mobility but their family duties were what influenced factors that could otherwise increase the woman's career advancement like putting off their higher education to care for the family. The findings of this study corroborate Broadbridges' (2008) results since respondents felt that their family responsibilities per se did not hinder them from seeking promotions to top management. Another contradiction was a study done by Lewis (2001 as cited in Linehan and Scullion, 2008) who found out that economically active women especially those working full time, were married and had dependants' assumed greater family responsibilities than males and as a result spent on average 4 hours a day doing house hold chores. Further to this, women with dependants less than 13 years experienced more conflict in achieving work-life balance. Results of a longitudinal study conducted by Leupp (2011), found that where working women were not accepting of their additional roles and in turn pressured themselves too much to be overachievers at home were more likely to suffer from depression as opposed to those who

had realistic expectations about their ability to balance work and family. Comments made by respondents in the current study were that whilst raising a young family, family commitments are a career mobility inhibitor especially when the female has to take time off work to raise children or tend to them when they are ill. However, later in life when children are older, achievement of higher goals becomes possible.

From this objective it is evident that respondents do not perceive their educational level or their managers as hindering their upward career mobility. Additionally, respondents' family obligations do not seem to hinder them from applying for promotions as much as they are up to the challenges that such opportunities presented.

5.3.4 Objective 4: To determine if female managers have the power to promote other females

Organisational politics didn't seem to hinder respondents from seeking promotional opportunities in male dominated departments. What is worth noting, however, is that in addition to respondents disagreeing to the existence of organisational politics they also disagreed that they had to work twice as hard to prove their worth. On the other hand, respondents in agreement that organisational politics hindered them from seeking promotion opportunities agreed to working twice as hard to prove their worth. These results point to a difference in opinion between respondents in agreement and those in disagreement regarding the existence of organisational politics. Results of a study done by Veale and Gord (1998 as cited in Jain and Mukherji, 2010), showed that women managers from a Metropolitan Council in the UK did not take up promotions accorded to them in order to avoid working with councillors whose style of management was not supportive but about control and power. Additionally, Jain and Mukherji found out that women working in male dominated environments were appraised under very strict criteria than their male counterparts, earned promotions with difficulty and lacked a stable network back-up that was critical to enhancing their upward mobility. A respondent in the current study asserted that the *"internal/unspoken politics within her organisation was what impacted negatively on her career prospects and not necessarily her gender"*.

Women in top leadership were viewed as not helping to promote women lower down the hierarchy. The extent of agreement with this statement significantly (p=.005) increased as

work experience increased to greater than 10 years ($p \leq 0.05$). According to a study done by Staines, Tavris and Hayagrante (1973 as cited in April et al., 2007), the reluctance by women in executive positions to promote other women was exacerbated by their fear of competition from other women whom they perceived as threats to their careers. According to Linehan and Scullion (2008), women in top leadership though few are expected to mentor other women, lower down the hierarchy. Mentoring while important for men is more essential for females as they experience to a larger extent greater organisational, interpersonal and individual barriers that hinder their upward career mobility (Linehan and Scullion, 2008). Linehan and Scullion further state that the benefits of a mentoring relationship which are meant to occur in the early stages of the woman's career accord the woman a point of contact and support especially during expatriation and repatriation, helps to improve self esteem, increase visibility and promotional prospects for the woman. A respondent's view in the current study corroborated the above findings by commenting that the challenges women faced were those posed by fellow women who did not help mentor nor pull fellow women up in organisations but only groomed their own friends and family members leaving out deserving individuals; making competition rather than team work more pronounced.

Respondents who felt organisational politics existed also agreed that women did not do their part in promoting other women ($r=.294$). Another finding revealed that 25% of respondents who agreed to the existence of organisational politics also conceded to having the urge to work twice as hard. Contrary to the findings of this research, conclusions from Singh and Terjesen's (2008) study showed that where women in top leadership promoted other women, a positive spill over effect existed resulting to a greater representation of females at lower management positions. Results of Bilimoria (2006 as cited in Singh and Terjesen 2008) study also found out that the presence of females on boards represented career growth opportunities for other female employees lower down the hierarchy since they acted as inspirational sources and provided opportunities for networking and mentoring. April et al., (2007) study negated Bilimoria's findings and concluded that women in senior positions would at times resent younger female colleagues whom they perceived as threats and deliberately held them back or hindered their career mobility prospects.

In summary, respondents felt that though women in senior management did not play their role in helping other women organisational politics did not hinder their application for promotions in male dominated departments.

5.3.5 Objective 5: To determine if personal traits influence vertical progression

There was consensus (agree/strongly agree) among respondents that they exhibited the personal traits of confidence, competitiveness, ambitiousness and emotional suitability that are important leadership traits. These findings contradict the premise of person centred theories which state that women lack the above qualities and are thus not suited to assume leadership roles. Though feelings of emotional suitability seemed to increase with increase in education and work experience, results were not significant ($p \leq 0.05$). Over 80% of respondents who felt that they were emotionally suited to hold top management positions agreed that work experience had an influence on their selection for promotions and at the same time while receiving adequate organisational support to balance their multiple roles, were confident in their roles as managers (r=.529), were high achievers (r=.526), felt strongly that they were leaders (r=.612) and concomitantly the trickle effect was that their subordinates had confidence in them as managers (r=.445). According to Harris, (2010c), emotional suitability of a manager is the managers' ability to strike the right balance with regard to emotional distance: either trying to be everyone's friend or being unapproachable. The 11% non committal response could be attributed to respondents who with no track record felt they lacked emotional suitability to assume leadership positions within senior management. In addition, respondents who were emotionally suited to assume leadership roles were in agreement that though women in top leadership did little to promote other women; they needed to work twice as hard to prove their worth. Contrary to the findings of this study, conclusions drawn from a study done by Mok Kim Man (2009) revealed that women in top leadership positions were critical to mentoring women lower down the hierarchy by boosting their emotional support and confidence which led to greater career satisfaction.

Feelings of competitiveness and ambitiousness were significant (p=0.000) as the respondents advanced in age ($p \leq 0.05$). The majority of respondents who felt they were competitive and ambitious were aged between 35-44 years of age. Respondents who felt they were competitive and ambitious agreed that they needed to work twice as hard to prove their worth and were thus open to challenges that promotional opportunities presented but were, however, reluctant to geographically relocate to take advantage of promotional opportunities. A study done by Niederle (2005 as cited in Jain and Mukherji 2010) corroborated the above results and found that women who were not competitive avoided competition and

consequently competitive environments which led to them missing out on the opportunities that competing for promotions and more lucrative jobs presented. However, there was consensus that competitive and ambitious respondents while exuding confidence, were high achievers (r=.327) and were leaders who in addition had subordinates who had confidence in them.

From literature, self confidence is a critical leadership quality. The majority of respondents felt that they exuded confidence in their managerial roles. Respondents who were confident on the one hand and agreed that their work experience had an influence on their selection for promotions significantly disagreed (p≤0.05) on the other hand that their educational level was a hindrance in their selection for promotion. Exhibiting self confidence was associated with feelings of leadership (r=.525) and high achievement traits (r=.480). Presence of organisational support to balance multiple roles; while boosting self confidence enabled respondents to work twice as hard to prove their worth. Jain and Mukherji (2010) asserted that lack of self confidence in women stems from having to balance their multiple roles in unsupportive work environments. Additionally, Broadbridge (2001) asserted that where women did not receive organisational support or career developmental advice and felt their organisations did not support their ambitions lacked confidence and hence did not apply for promotion positions. The 10% non committal response to exuding confidence could be attributed to the 8% of respondents who felt they lacked organisational support and hence they were not confident. According to Jain and Mukherji (2010), self confidence and assertiveness which are vital components of leadership attract praise in males. On the contrary, confident and/or assertive women on the other hand are perceived as over confident and are thus judged harshly by their colleagues and seen as improper leaders. The trickle effect of the uncertainties in perception about what constitutes effective leadership qualities makes the woman lose self-confidence especially those exposed to these perceptions; thereby causing a lose-lose situation for both the woman whose mobility is hampered and the organisation that relies on skills the woman has who falls short in delivering results due to the negative perceptions.

The majority of subordinates with managers from the private sector felt they had confidence in their managers who were both leaders (r=.598) and high achievers (r=.603). White respondents who were the majority felt that they were more of high achievers (p=0.044) than Indian, African or Coloured respondents. Coloureds who were the minority agreed to a lesser

extent (1%) that they were high achievers. As respondents progressed up the career ladder towards senior management, feelings of high achievement significantly increased. High achievement oriented individuals were those inclined towards tasks with a reasonably high probability of success that helps them to demonstrate their competence (Jain and Mukherji, 2010). The combined effect of success and fear of failure determines to a large extent whether on the one hand a high achiever approaches a challenging task or avoids an achievement task altogether. High achievers also significantly considered themselves as leaders (r=.655).

There existed a significant difference (p≤0.05) between perceptions of being a leader and work experience. Respondents at senior management with over 10 years work experience felt more inclined that they were leaders when compared to respondents at first line or middle line level (p≤ 0.05). Feelings of leadership though significantly congruent with working twice as hard and being up to the challenge that promotional opportunities presented; leaders were not open to geographical relocation and the opportunities that such exposure presented.

Generally, respondents felt to a great extent that they were competitive and ambitious, were high achievers, confident and were emotionally suited to assume leadership positions.

5.4 Summary

The majority of respondents in this study were White, aged between 35-44 years of age, were married and had a maximum of 2 dependants, worked in the private sector and had on average 5-10 years work experience. Findings showed that work barriers that may present themselves in the form of unfavourable corporate practices did not seem to hinder the advancement of respondents in this study. However, despite agreement that organisational support was being offered, respondents felt that though they needed to overachieve and work twice as hard, they felt more respected by their male colleagues which increased with an increase in management level. Having a track record was seen as critical to influencing the upward career mobility of respondents as opposed to education level, managerial hindrance, family responsibilities and organisational politics. However, though respondents were open to the challenges that promotion opportunities presented, they felt that the role of women in top leadership as influencing the promotion of other women lower down the hierarchy was lacking. The majority of respondents were, however, reluctant to take advantage of the

promotional opportunities that geographical relocation presented. Most of the respondents conceded to exhibiting the personality traits that were explored in this study. Organisational support to balance work and family was critical to respondents exhibiting the qualities of emotional suitability, confidence and high achievement. All in all there was consensus that minimal female representation at senior management existed pointing to the existence of subtle barriers to the upward career mobility of respondents in this study.

Chapter 6 that follows provides an in depth interpretation of the relevance of the findings made in this chapter and provides recommendations as proposed by respondents as to how the upward career mobility of women can be enhanced. While providing further areas for potential research, a concluding summary to sum up the study was provided at the end of this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The glass ceiling is a phenomenon experienced by women in management worldwide albeit at varying degrees. While the manifestations may be country specific, its existence is still prevalent well into the 21st century as this study showed. Findings from this study showed that the while the representation of females at senior management was dire when compared to their male counterparts, respondents felt the urge to overachieve to be recognised in their workplaces with the urge being greater among female managers at senior management level pointing to the existence of subtle barriers in the work place that hinders the upward career mobility of females. The enactment of the Employment Equity Acts (EEA) and affirmative action initiatives has helped to ensure that females are not discriminated against based on their gender or otherwise (April et al., 2007). In this regard, since women in top leadership were seen as not helpful to women lower down the hierarchy, it is probable that the emotional suitability of respondents to handle top management positions may have been provided by the favourable corporate practices which enabled them to be fairly evaluated for their performance, receive adequate career developmental opportunities and organisational support to balance their multiple roles. Factors that seemed to influence the vertical career progression of respondents in this study were working twice as hard to prove their worth, having a track record (work experience) which increased with the level of education, reluctance/willingness to relocate and feelings of respect by male colleagues which increased with level in management. In addition respondents felt that they not isolated nor were they in departments that hindered their visibility. The majority of respondents felt they were high achievers and in turn displayed leadership qualities like competitiveness, ambitiousness and confidence.

6.2 Recommendations to increase the upward mobility of women

If women are to reach critical mass at senior management, the following recommendations as being answers to objective six should be implemented.

6.2.1 Faith and confidence in abilities/perseverance and focus on performance

While organisations cannot make employees blind to differences in race, gender and culture, they can help counter discrimination in the work place by enforcing merit based performance measures and behaviour internally. Respondents were of the assertion that women should have faith and confidence in their abilities and through perseverance, hard work and networking their efforts would pay off in the long run.

6.2.2 Flexitime/onsite day care and work from home days

If organisations are interested in reaping the benefits that come with diversity, a change in organisational culture is paramount. Diversity is an asset that when managed well in an organisation can result in employees performing at their full potential. To benefit from the full potential of the female employee, organisations should include flexi time, onsite day and/or work from home days among other services as part of the employees' benefit package. A study done by Knutson and Schmidgale (1999 as cited in Mok Kim Man et al., 2009) showed that favourable corporate practices that include networking, mentoring, career training and development and family friendly initiatives like flexible work hours, nursery services and day care centres enable the female employee to balance her multiple roles. On the contrary, insufficiencies of the above practices indirectly lead to strengthening the existence of the glass ceiling. Harris and Shevel (2010), assert that savvy businesses are now incorporating flexible work arrangements and other family friendly initiatives for their female employees in order to increase their productivity.

6.2.3 Networking and mentoring opportunities

A network is an informal internal relationship that accords the protégé' valuable information exchange opportunities, strategic career planning, support, visibility and heightened career mobility (Mok Kim Man, 2009, Har- Even, 2004). Since most organisations are male-led, the 'old boy networks' have for a long time excluded women. As a recommendation for women to also gain the benefits that such networks offer, organisations should try and ensure that their female employees gain access to insider networks to enable them to learn new things and also interact with promotional gatekeepers and mentors. According to Mok Kim Man et al., (2009), organisations must while giving women access to career information, keep them informed of training and career development opportunities in order to heighten their career mobility prospects. A mentor is an influential individual in a position of seniority with experience and knowledge and who is committed to providing career support and mobility to

their protégés (Linehan and Scullion, 2008; Okurame, 2007). While men have for long benefited from the mentoring relationship, research has found that the mentoring relationship may be equally beneficial to women since they face more barriers to their advancement than men. Though the mentors' gender may not have a significant bearing on the mentoring relationship, lack of female role models strengthens more the perception of women as followers and not leaders due to their under representation at senior management (Jain and Mukherji, 2010). Respondents were of the assertion that through the mentoring relationship, women who had risen through the ranks would in turn assist other women to climb the corporate ladder by acting as role models. According to Har-Even (2004) women managers need women role models to help boost their confidence by helping them cope with their experiences in the work place. According to Manoocherhi (1995), formal and informal mentoring and networking opportunities while being the link to senior management and upward mobility, offer employees avenues to learn from the experience and knowledge of someone who has proven their worth.

6.2.4 Access to further education

Lack of further education is a formal barrier to career progression. Respondents were of the assertion that to increase their career mobility, access to further education was mundane. Conclusions of a study done by Gordon and Whelan (1998 as cited in Mok Kim Man 2009), proposed that organisations should try and focus on recruiting talented women with no work experience but with suitable credentials for jobs to tip the balance of the under representation of females at top management. However, when men and women have similar educational qualifications, a study done by Kamenou (2008) found out that investments in education yielded higher returns for men than women in terms of career advancement.

6.2.5 Cultivating own leadership style

Stereotypes are negative connotations people hold about something which has negative consequences on individuals who are affected by the stereotypes (April et al., 2007). While a study done by Klenke (1996 as cited in Mok Kim Man, 2009) showed that male and female respondents agreed that aggressiveness, objective thinking, competitiveness, decisiveness and dominance were favourable leadership characteristics, when women display these traits, they are judged harshly as being too pushy and aggressive. On the other hand, women who display feminine traits are seen as ineffective leaders. This mismatch in gender roles and male leadership characteristics is what leads to a gender imbalance at senior management. In this

regard respondents were of the assertion that instead of emulation male leadership traits, women should cultivate their own leadership style that helps to bring out their softer style of leadership. With more emphasis being placed on softer skills and transformational leadership qualities focussing on greater communication, empathy and motivation of which women possess organisations can to a large extent leverage on the benefits that women bring to management. What is critical however is that a survey of successful American women who had broken through the glass ceiling had developed a professional style of leadership that male managers could identify and were comfortable with (Insch et al., 2008). Contrary to this finding, a study done by Jain and Mukherji, (2010) on Indian female managers concluded that women opted not to emulate their male colleagues but to use their differences to add value to the organisation and to carve a niche for themselves using their strengths for the organisations' benefit and not competing with their male colleagues on similar grounds. In addition, Harris, (2010c) asserted that a woman's greatest strength at the work place is her ability to empathise, listen to and make decisions within reason especially if such decisions have an impact on the bottom line.

6.3 Implications of research findings

The implications of these findings to organisations' is that while formal tangible barriers like unsupportive corporate practices, lack of career training and development and lack of work experience are objective, less tangible subtle barriers are still existent in the work place which makes women feel they need to overachieve to be recognised and to work twice as hard to prove their worth. The subtleness of such barriers may be engraved in corporate culture without the knowledge of management further impeding the upward career mobility of women. Incorporation of the suggested recommendations as proposed by respondents like access to mentoring and networking opportunities, flexi time arrangements, onsite day care while on one side helping women to balance their multiple roles, women on the other hand must have faith in their abilities, persevere and cultivate their own leadership style if their presence at senior management is to be felt and recognised.

6.4 Limitations of the study

The limitations that arose in the course of undertaking this study and recommendations to help solve the problems are discussed herein.

6.4.1   Sample size

While the results of this study represent the opinions of 117 respondents who participated in this study, they are not generalisable to the larger population of female managers in the Durban Metro area. Use of larger sample sizes could help ensure that the results obtained can be extrapolated to mirror the perceptions of female managers in the greater Durban Metropolitan area.

6.4.2 Sampling technique

Purposive sampling a non probability sampling technique and snowballing were the techniques of choice in this study. Snowball sampling allowed for a quicker and easier recruitment of respondents as it resulted in respondents finding other respondents who were known to them. While this technique resulted in an increase in the number of respondents, on the contrary it allowed for the recruitment of respondents who might have held similar views about certain issues. Recruitment of other women not known to the respondents or the researcher who may have had significantly different opinions that may have added some variation to the data obtained was not possible. As a result, there is a possibility that the results were skewed towards the perceptions of white respondents who formed the majority of respondents in this study. In future, use of probability sampling techniques like stratified sampling could help to alleviate the possibility of skewness based on race and organisational cluster that this study experienced.

6.4.3   Questionnaire measurement scale

The scale of choice for this study was the Likert scale. The Likert scale while simple and easy to comprehend, the data is easy to analyse. It is also subject to rigidity due to the inflexible nature of the scale. Respondents in this study were not able to state why they agreed or disagreed with questionnaire constructs. To help add some element of variability and insights into why respondents made the choices they did, use of a mixture of rank order, multiple

choice questions and/or more open ended questions can help researchers to make more meaningful sense of the data while attempting to arrive at study conclusions.

6.4.4   Response rate

The questionnaire was disseminated to respondents via the internet. The web based questionnaire powered by Question Pro was the method of administration that was used. The advantages of the web questionnaire that was discussed under section 3.5.3 enabled respondents to respond to the questionnaire in their own time and convenience. A draw back to the web questionnaire that was also experienced in this research is the low response rate that was realised. To help counter this drawback, use of other questionnaire administration methods like manual questionnaire administration can help ensure that respondents complete the questionnaires while you wait thus helping to some extent to increase the response rate.

6.5 Recommendations for further research

- Since a majority of the respondents were from the private sector, barriers to the career progression of females in other sectors like tertiary institutions should be investigated.
- Respondents in this study were open to take on promotional opportunities; it may be worthwhile to further investigate the reasons why female managers seek promotions.
- Respondents expressed their reluctance to geographically relocate. While relocation is a career mobility enhancer, reluctance to relocate hinders the upward career mobility of women leading to the creation of an expatriate glass ceiling. Further investigation in to the expatriate glass ceiling in South Africa may shed some light on why there is reluctance to relocate by female managers.
- In addition there was a high non committal response rate with regard to the construct "my manager hinders my opportunities for promotion". A study into the factors that influence the promotability of women from the perspective of their bosses may help shed some light on why this is so.
- There was consensus among respondents that women in top leadership did little to promote other women. From literature, mentoring is one such activity that women in top leadership can undertake to help other women lower down the hierarchy. In this regard, respondents were asked to propose recommendations to help counter some of the challenges they faced in management. While mentoring was one such

recommendation, with the advent of technology, future research can look at the prospects of e-mentoring and implications that such a technique could have on employees.

- Future research can in addition look at practices organisations are developing in relation to meeting the special needs of women in the work place so as to help increase their presence at senior management given the changing demographic shifts that are occurring in the work place.

- An initial summary conclusion which needs further investigation is factors other than unsupportive corporate practices that are responsible for creating the glass ceiling for women.

6.6 Summary

Answers to the six objectives as discussed in Chapter 5 of this study showed that the precepts of the glass ceilings' existence are supported by the fact that respondents felt that female under representation at senior management are still rife. At the same time respondents felt the need to overachieve to be recognised and to work twice as hard to prove their worth though they expressed their reluctance to relocate. Respondents felt to a great extent that they received adequate organisational support to balance their multiple roles, and thus their family obligations did not hinder them from seeking promotions as much as they were up to the challenges that such opportunities presented. The trickle effect of women in top leadership as helping other women was not felt to exist by respondents as much as they felt they were high achievers, confident, competitive and ambitious individuals who were emotionally suited to assume leadership positions. The aim of this research was achieved since respondents felt that barriers were in existence which hindered their upward mobility.

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APPENDIX-1

LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT AND QUESTIONNAIRE

THIS ACADEMIC RESEARCH SURVEY IS POWERED BY QUESTIONPRO.COM · FREE UNIVERSITY ACCOUNT

Questions marked with a * are required

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL- GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (MBA)ResearchProject
Researcher:KIAYE E. RISPER(071 1590 881)
Supervisor: PROF. ANESH M. SINGH (+2731-260 7564)
Research Office:Ms P Ximba (031-2603587)

Dear Respondent,

I, Kiaye E. Risper an MBA student, at the Graduate School of Business of the University of KwaZulu Natal invite you to participate in a research project entitled THE GLASS CEILING: PERCEPTIONS OF ASPIRING FEMALE MANAGERS. The aim of this study is to find out whether the Glass Ceiling phenomenon is indeed a myth or reality.

Through your participation I hope to gain insights into why the Glass Ceiling phenomenon exists by studying the perceptions true or otherwise that female managers have with regard to challenges they face in management that hinder them from vertically progressing in their careers.

SHARE THIS SURVEY:

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey/focus group. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Graduate School of Business, UKZN.
If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

This questionnaire should take you about 10-15 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey. If you consent to taking part in this survey please click on the I AGREE and CONTINUE button and you will be directed to the questionnaire and if you do not accept to take part please click on the EXIT survey button at the top right hand side corner and you will be exited from this survey.

Yours Sincerely,

Kiaye E. Risper
29th June 2011

☐ I Agree

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please complete the following questions by marking your response against the relevant box.

1) Age*

Below 25 ☐   25-34 ☐   35-44 ☐   45 and over ☐

2) Marital Status*

Married ☐   Single ☐   Widowed ☐   Divorced/separated ☐

3) Number of dependants*

0-2 ☐   3-5 ☐   6 and over ☐

4) Race*

African ☐   Indian ☐   White ☐   Coloured ☐   Other (specify) ☐

5) Highest Level of Educational*

Matric ☐   Diploma ☐   Bachelors ☐   Masters ☐   Doctorate ☐

Other (specify) ☐

6) What cluster does your organisation fall?*

Private sector ☐   Public Sector ☐   Tertiary (Educational institution) ☐

NGO's ☐   Other (specify) ☐

7) Level in the organisation*

First line/supervisory ☐   Middle Management ☐

Senior/top Management ☐   Other (specify) ☐

8) How many subordinates do you have in your area of responsibility?*

Below 5 ☐   5-10 ☐   11-16 ☐   over 16 ☐

9) Work experience in years*

Below 5 ☐   5-10 ☐   over 10 ☐

SECTION B: PERCEPTIONS OF GLASS CEILING

Please rate your response according to the scale provided for each of the statements that follow. Choose only one response per question.

1) Management has a tendency not to assign women to challenging/high visibility projects*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

2) I do not have adequate opportunities at work for professional development of my career*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

3) I am not evaluated fairly based on my performance*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

4) I receive adequate organisational support at work in order to manage my professional work and domestic responsibilities*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

5) More males than females hold senior management positions at work*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

6) I have to overachieve to receive recognition because I am female*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

7) I receive fewer opportunities for development than I wish for because I am female*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

8) The department I work in does not help to make me visible*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

9) I take on more work to prove my worth*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

10) I feel isolated due to my position*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

11) I am reluctant to relocate if the job requires it*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

12) I am respected by my male colleagues at work*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

13) My work experience has an influence on my selection for promotions*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

14) My educational level hinders my career mobility*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

15) My manager hinders my opportunities for promotion*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

16) I do not apply for promotions because I am not up to the challenge*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

17) I do not seek promotions to top management because of my family responsibilities*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

18) Organisational politics hinders me from applying for promotions in male dominated departments*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

19) Women in top leadership do little to promote women in lower levels of management*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

20) I am emotionally suited to hold top management positions*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

21) I am competitive and ambitious at work*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

22) I exude confidence in my area of responsibility*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

23) My subordinates have confidence in me as manager*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

24) I am a high achiever*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

25) I consider myself a leader*

Strongly Disagree○   Disagree○   Undecided ○   Agree ○   Strongly agree ○

Please make any additional comments you may have regarding the challenges that women in management face:

_____

_____

_____

END

THANK YOU FOR TAKING TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX-2

ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

Research Office, Govan Mbeki Centre
Westville Campus
Private Bag x54001
DURBAN, 4000
Tel No: +27 31 260 3587
Fax No: +27 31 260 4609
mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

26 May 2011

Mrs ER Kiaye (209511565)
Graduate School of Business
Faculty of Management Studies
Westville Campus

Dear Mrs Kiaye

PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: HSS/0270/011M
PROJECT TITLE: The Glass Ceiling: Perceptions of aspiring female managers

In response to your application dated 25 May 2011, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL.**

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.
PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

....
Professor Steven Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc. Supervisor: Prof AM Singh
cc. Mrs C Haddon

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APPENDIX-3

TURNITIN REPORT

Turnitin Originality Report

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Gary S. Insch, "The Expatriate Glass Ceiling: The Second Layer of Glass", Journal of Business Ethics, 11/2008

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