

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

BREAKING THE GLASS CEILING - A CASE OF DURBAN CORPORATE WOMEN

By

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DECLARATION

I, Siphosenkosi Zanoxolo Makaula declare that:

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“I will give thanks to the LORD because of his righteousness; I will sing the praises of the name of the LORD Most High” (Psalms 7: 17 in the Holy Bible TNIV, 2005).

ABSTRACT

The glass ceiling is a concept that most frequently refers to barriers faced by women who attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions as well as higher salary levels in corporations, government, education and non-profit organisations; it can also refer to racial and ethnic minorities and men when they experience barriers to advancement. A glass ceiling appears to exist in many organisations and also maybe a glass cliff, in which women are promoted into risky upper-level positions in which failure and subsequent loss of the high-level position is likely.

This research investigated perceptions that Durban corporate women have towards the notion of glass ceiling barriers at work. A sample was chosen on a non-probability basis using convenience sampling of corporate women within Durban. Ninety participants completed the questionnaire. The data collected was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

The findings of the study differ to the statements made in the questionnaire to answer the objectives, the majority of respondents did not agree with the statements. The perception of women is that they do not experience glass ceiling barriers to career advancement. Women also feel confident and respected by colleagues, subordinates and leadership, are capable of executing their designated duties. Women also showed confidence in the Employment Equity Act, to suggest that the transformation charter is followed at their organisations.

Recommendations of the study suggested that; there is paucity of research done on this topic in South Africa. South African researchers and academics should research and write more about contemporary issues faced by South African corporate women. The term “glass ceiling” is generally viewed as a myth; there should be an academic and corporate debate around the issue of glass ceiling barriers so as to make non-academic members of the public understand the term and its impact in society. Outcries over gender-based transformation should not be viewed as sexist and racial issues but rather as a labour relations matter and a matter supported by the transformation charter

Table of Contents

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	x
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH	1
1.1 Background and Context	1
1.2 Problem Statement	1
1.3 Objectives	2
1.4 Limitations of the Study	2
1.5 Significance of the Study	2
1.6 Research Methodology	2
1.7 Structure of Study	3
1.8 Summary	4
CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW	5
2.1 Introduction	5
2.2 Definition of the “glass ceiling”	5
2.3 Career Advancement	5
2.4 Family versus Workplace Commitments	10
2.5 Confidence	12
2.6 Respect	15
2.7 The Employment Equity Act	16
2.8 Summary	19
CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	20
3.1 Introduction	20
3.2 Research Methodology	20
3.3 Aim and Objectives	20
3.3.1 Aim	20
3.3.2 Objectives	21
3.4 Respondents and Location of the Study	21
3.5 Sampling	21
3.5.1 Population	22
3.5.2 Sampling Design	22
3.5.3 Sample Size	25

3.6 Data Collection in Descriptive Studies	26
3.6.1 Questionnaires as a Research Instrument.....	26
3.6.2 Questionnaire Design	28
3.7 Pretesting and Validation.....	29
3.7.1 Pretesting of the Questionnaire	30
3.7.2 Validation of the Questionnaire	30
3.7.3 Reliability.....	31
3.8 Questionnaire Administration	31
3.9 Analysis of Data.....	32
3.10 Summary	33
CHAPTER FOUR - PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA.....	34
4.1 Introduction.....	34
4.2 Survey Overview	34
4.3 Section A – Demographic Profile of Respondents	35
4.3.1 Race.....	35
4.3.2 Highest Level of Education.....	36
4.3.3 Age	37
4.3.4 Level in Organisation.....	38
4.3.5 Industry	39
4.4 Section B – Responses to Set Objectives.....	40
4.4.1 Objective 1: To Assess if Women Experience the Glass Ceiling Barrier to Career Advancement.	40
4.4.2 Objective 2: To Assess How Women Balance Family Commitments and Workplace Commitments	45
4.4.3 Objective 3: To Assess If Women are Confident in Their Ability to Fulfil Their Roles at Work	50
4.4.4 Objective 4: To Assess If Women in the Work Place Think That They are Respected for Their Ability and Skills.....	58
4.4.5 Objective 5: To Assess Women’s Views on the Employment Equity Act	62
CHAPTER FIVE - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	65
5.1 Introduction.....	65
5.2 Conclusions and Recommendations for Set Objectives.....	65
5.3 General Recommendations Arising from this Research	68
5.4 Limitations of the Research	68
5.5 Recommendations for Future Research	69
5.6 Summary	69
REFERENCES	70

APPENDICES	85
a) Appendix One - Questionnaire	85
b) Appendix Two - Ethical Clearance.....	88
c) Appendix Three - Turnitin Report	89

List of Figures

Number	Description	Page
4.1	Survey completion overview	34
4.2	Race representation	35
4.3	Highest level of education	36
4.4	Age representation	37
4.5	Level in organisation	38
4.6	My work experience is not fully appreciated in a male dominated workplace	41
4.7	My academic qualifications do not mean much in a male dominated workplace	42
4.8	Higher level roles are reserved for men	43
4.9	I feel that male stereotypes hinder my potential to land better and influential positions	44
4.10	I give more priority to family commitments than work commitments	45
4.11	I am a mother first and a corporate woman second	46
4.12	I prefer working in an office close to home as I do not want to be away from my family for extended periods	47
4.13	I am reluctant to accept assignments that require long periods of time away from home, I would rather my male counterpart take up such assignments	48
4.14	I am not comfortable with corporate networking sessions that go beyond working hours	49
4.15	I am intimidated by male competition	51
4.16	Men are dominant at work as compared to women	52
4.17	I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by leadership	53
4.18	I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by peers	55
4.19	I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by	56

	subordinates	
4.20	As a woman I am not comfortable with giving men work instructions	57
4.21	I feel respected by male counterparts at work	58
4.22	I command respect at work	59
4.23	I do not get respect from female subordinates	60
4.24	I do not get respect from male subordinates	61
4.25	The Employment Equity Act is patronising to women	62
4.26	Employment Equity is nothing more than window dressing	64

List of Tables

Number	Description	Page
3.1	Advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire	27
4.1	Industry classification	39

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Background and Context

The term “Glass Ceiling” merely emphasises existing gender or racial inequalities, (Cotter, Hermesen, Ovadia, and Vanneman, 2001). Cotter et al (2001) however, agree with Lockwood (2004) and Baxter and Wright (2000) that the concept of the glass ceiling refers to artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities.

The motivation for undertaking this study is the plight of women in corporate environment. After 17 years of democracy in South Africa, women still experience gender discrimination at work. However, this phenomenon is not unique to South Africa.

1.2 Problem Statement

Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield, (2006: 22) say that “gender discrimination continues to occur, although progress has been made, they assert that a glass ceiling for women who aspire top management still exists”. Kreitner and Kinicki (2008) added that it is an invisible barrier that segregates women and minorities from climbing the corporate ladder to senior roles in organisations.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2008: 44) said that “women therefore, find themselves stuck in lower level jobs, ones that do not have profit-and-loss responsibility and those with less visibility and influence”. “With more single parents and dual-career couples, balancing the demands of home and work has become the great challenge is typical South African worker and their employer, when there is a conflict between work and family, the family is three times more likely to suffer than the employees job performance” (Grobler et al, 2006: 22 - 23).

In 2006 women were underpaid compared to their male counterparts; they also earned approximately 77% of what men earned, (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2008).

“The glass ceiling is a concept that most frequently refers to barriers faced by women who attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions as well as higher salary levels in corporations, government, education and non-profit organisations, it can also refer to racial and ethnic minorities and men when they experience barriers to advancement” (Lockwood, 2004:1).

Baxter and Wright (2000) asserted that glass ceiling implies an impenetrable barrier that blocks upward movement of women. They said that “below this barrier, women are able to get promoted, beyond this barrier, they are not” Baxter and Wright (2000:276).

Reskin and Padavic (1994:82) suggest that “a glass ceiling blocks the on the-job mobility of women of all classes, as well as minorities of both sexes”.

Harlan and Berhiede (1994) argue the glass ceiling applies to low-wage women workers, even those with very limited job-ladders. They suggest that these female workers face restricted job growth as witnessed by low wages, fewer benefits and being overlooked for promotion.

1.3 Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

1. To assess if women experience the glass ceiling barrier to career advancement
2. To assess how women balance family commitments and workplace commitments
3. To assess if women are confident in their ability to fulfil their roles at work
4. To assess if women in the work place think that they are respected for their ability and skills.
5. To assess women’s views on the Employment Equity Act

1.4 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited as it only focused on corporate women in eThekweni Metropolitan area. An additional limitation being that the research was quantitative in nature and as such did not determine reasons for the responses given.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study seeks to enquire about women perceptions to the notion of glass ceiling barriers at work. The study will probe their understanding of the term by asking questions related to it.

1.6 Research Methodology

This research is based on a quantitative methodology. The data will be obtained through the use of a questionnaire, for the selected sample of the population. The sample will have a minimum of 35 women from various industries in Durban such as the: petroleum, academics, manufacturing, local government and state owned enterprises. Women will be approached to participate in their personal capacities.

1.7 Structure of Study

The study is structured as follows:

- Chapter Two – Literature Review

Chapter Two discusses the literature relevant to the study. The literature is a secondary source of data available in public domain in the form of articles, academic and business journals and text books. The chapter will cover the following sections in an attempt to respond to the highlighted objectives:

- Definition of the “glass ceiling” term
- Career Advancement
- Family versus workplace commitments
- Confidence
- Respect
- The Employment Equity Act

- Chapter Three – Research Methodology

The data will be obtained through the use of a questionnaire, for the selected sample of the population. The sample will have as a minimum 35 women from various industries in Durban such as Petroleum, Academic, and Local Government and state owned enterprises. Women will be approached to participate in their personal capacities.

The questionnaire will be based on a five-point Likert scale that focuses on the following areas:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Uncertain
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Participants will respond to QuestionPro an online survey/questionnaire tool that will be sent via email.

- Chapter Four – Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Data

In this section participant responses from QuestionPro will be presented analysed and interpreted.

- Chapter Five – Conclusions and Recommendations

Lastly, this section will give recommendations and conclusion of the study.

1.8 Summary

This chapter introduced the research on challenges Durban corporate women encounter in the workplace. It outlines the nature of the research together with the direction that was followed in this research. The problem statement was formulated, the objectives of the study set, research questions developed and limitations of this study identified.

The subsequent chapter focuses on the literature review, which shaped the foundation for the pragmatic research.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter Two discusses the literature relevant to the study. The literature being a secondary source of data is available in public domain in the form of articles, academic and business journals and text books.

2.2 Definition of the “glass ceiling”

“The glass ceiling is a concept that most frequently refers to barriers faced by women who attempt, or aspire, to attain senior positions as well as higher salary levels in corporations, government, education and non-profit organisations, it can also refer to racial and ethnic minorities and men when they experience barriers to advancement” (Lockwood, 2004:1).

A glass ceiling appears to exist in many organizations and also may be a glass cliff, in which women are promoted into risky upper-level positions in which failure and subsequent loss of the high-level position is likely (Ryan and Haslam, 2007).

Women in leadership roles are not favourably accepted by shareholders (Lee and James (2007) and Atkinson, Baird, and Frye (2003)). Actually, their representation in leadership roles is often viewed as ‘tokenism’, a part of which may also explain why men are paid more than women in top management jobs (Paul and Sahni, 2009).

2.3 Career Advancement

The advent of the Employment Equity Act has resulted in an inflow of females into the place of work. Business Women’s Association Census (2007:16), “42.9 per cent of total employed population in the Republic of South Africa are women”. This achievement is to a degree a product of a statutory change in industry and employment equity yielding employers.

Claes (1999) abridges extraordinary paybacks of hiring, teaching and retaining women in top positions. Claes (1999) discussed that women, more than men, have the following place of work: thoughtful to colleagues, gratitude for fellowship, instinctive judgment and wisdom to society. Nonetheless, women are not represented in executive management positions although they represent 42.9 per cent of the overall working people. Baxter (2007) contends that the

numbers indicate that women in management and decision-making positions are still nowhere near representative of the probable female personnel. Actually, for the most part high level jobs are held by men. “Most organisations have moved towards equal representation in their employment equity status, but the same can seldom be said of their management and executive positions” (Baxter, 2007:81).

In terms of employment equity rules and guiding principles, female aspirants ought to be favoured more than their male equivalents. In other words, companies completely comprehend the requirement to immediately attend to sexual unfairness in the employment sector, principally at the apex echelons. Several firms have by now applied plans to fracture the glass ceiling by hiring females to top jobs.

The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission of the United States of America stated that, the glass ceiling consequence can be described as an invisible obstacle with the aim of retaining women and subgroups from getting higher up the company echelons irrespective of their accomplishments and education (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001). Otter et al. (2001) describe that the dissimilarities in sexual category and population groups to this obstacle cannot be clarified by any elements of learning, know-how, abilities, drive, and other occupation pertinent qualities.

Mathur-Helm (2006) stated, when women and minorities fail to land top jobs, they are viewed by some as experiencing the glass ceiling effect. Mathur-Helm (2006) contend that, the glass ceiling, viewed as a legend by countless people exists and is cultivated by the workplace philosophy, policies and strategies moreover women’s individual shortcomings.

McDonald and Hite (1998) contend that socialisation; categorising and bias are a few of the various fundamental reasons for the glass ceiling. Just the regionalised companies, symbolised by a philosophy that supports women’s high ranks, will help in cracking the glass ceiling, sideways with women’s determination to expand and give power to themselves through educational and professional growth (Mathur-Helm, 2006). While a small number of women are in management roles, companies have grasped that they abandon executive talent in almost half of their personnel if they refuse to hire females to such jobs.

Certain researcher's argue; this is as a consequence of womanly virtues of women, such as social coherence and collaboration that are appreciated in a more collective and ingenious management setting (Claes, 1999).

Conversely, a more pleasing purpose is that employment equity guidelines, in addition to the development of women, evidently declare that Blacks ought to be given primary precedence. As a consequence, small amounts of women in upper level jobs can be owing to the reality that businesses are focussed on targeting and budding Blacks male and female for management roles. A stimulating study by Joy and Wagner (2007) illustrate that, considering the return on equity, corporations with more women board directors outclassed those with the least by 53 per cent. The research what's more exhibit that, considering the return on sales and return on invested capital, corporations with more women on their boards of directors outclassed those with less women by 42 per cent and 66 per cent correspondingly.

These findings concur with what Baxter (2007) assumed that; women have an extra element in the place of work because they have a distinctive management methodology that increases substantial worth to the company. Baxter (2007) put in that women are more instinctive and, in an era where businesses gradually understand that a clever method to personnel management is desirable in the drive to greater efficiency and output, women are capable of tapping into their feminine side and bring out the best in people

There are more women in business today who hold senior executive positions and sit on corporate boards, and with the introduction of various forms of legislation protecting women's rights, for example pay protection, maternity leave and employment rights, the future looks promising for senior women executives (Heffernan 2002).

In South Africa, the Employment Equity Act has spearheaded the drive for employment equity and affirmative action within organisations, including the employment and progression of women. In some spheres these drives have been successful and the demographics within South African business have changed with more women holding senior executive positions than before. The question to ask however is how many of these women actually hold positions of power in top management, and the reality is very few.

The situation is particularly true for the investment banking industry where the number of women professionals in senior executive management positions (for example CEO's,

company board members, heads of divisions) is minimal compared to that of men. The reasons for this difference are varied in nature and often referred to as 'barriers' or 'obstacles' that women face in the advancement of their careers. These barriers are often based on the aspects of sex and race, and not on characteristics such as inability to cope at upper management levels (Cooper Jackson, 2001).

An article published in the 'Star' (Poulter, 2002) highlighted how many women are sacrificing marriage and a family for financial independence. It suggests that women are marrying later, putting off having children and more likely to get divorced as they concentrate on their careers. The article includes comment by the UK Economic and Social Research Council claiming that life in the fast lane for big city women comes with a high emotional price.

Another article, also published in the 'Star' (Halliwal, 2002), focuses on how women are giving up their careers to raise their families. The article includes a recent survey that found that 94% of women are sick of those who 'do it all' and more than 75% would leave their jobs if they could.

Hewlett (2002) conducted a nationwide survey in the US, which was targeted at the top 10% of women measured in terms of earning power. She summarised her findings in two points:

1. Even in organisations whose policies support women prevailing attitudes and unrelenting job pressures undermine them; and
2. Women's lives have been expanded, but the grudging attitudes of most corporate cultures weigh down and constrain what individual women feel is possible.

These findings are supported by Cooper Jackson (2001) who suggested that beliefs and attitudes held by organisational participants such as, females are not viewed as leaders, as well as contextual aspects of the organisation such as social structures add to the hurdles that obstruct women's career progression.

Various studies investigating barriers experienced by women have been conducted in South Africa. Wood (1993) investigated the problems that female managers experienced in the

workplace and the so-called ‘glass ceiling’ that seem to succeed in keeping women out of the top ranks of management.

Abrahams (1997) researched the challenges for women in management and found that structural, as well as inner obstacles to the progression of women still exist in the workplace. Other studies have focused on the barriers experienced by women in different industry sectors. For example Parsadh (2001) explored gender inequality in education management using a case study of four women educators’ experiences in applying for promotion to principal posts in schools.

Govender (1997) investigated obstacles to career advancement encountered by women in a road transport division. The greatest obstacles being lack of mentors, lack of role models, role conflict, males attitudes towards working women, lack of day-care facilities, lack of part-time employment, insufficient maternity benefits and re-entry into the market-place.

Birch and Datnow (1989) concentrated on the employment and advancement of women in the legal and advertising professions. Other research around this topic has been conducted by Gaddin (1995) and Peens (2000) who both considered the ‘glass ceiling’ phenomenon and its implications as well as differing perceptions of men and women in this regard.

Women believe they have the skills needed to be an entrepreneur (Urban, 2010). Examples in studies show that women principals in secondary schools are competent and possess the necessary skills to manage secondary schools effectively. With the necessary support to develop and enhance their management and leadership styles, women can become successful partners in transforming schools into institutions of teaching (Damons, 2009).

Incongruity exists in that women form the majority of the work force in education, yet they are underrepresented in its management (Klaas, 2008). Another example, demonstrated by Poee, is that there are not a significant number of professional women in the corporate communication environment occupying senior strategic roles, despite the fact that they possess the necessary abilities and skills (Poee, 2008).

“Women have a long tradition of moving in and out of the workplace in order to care for aging parents; they generally feel less stigma than men when they have taken periods off; with less seniority, women have less job security and so often have been the first casualties of

downsizing; they have been driven from large organizations at a faster rate than men by the persistence of the glass ceiling; they are more likely than men to seek retraining on their own time and using their own money. Thus, some of the very disadvantages that held women back in the industrial workplace are now often proving advantageous enabling women to the realities of the information economy, and pushing them to improvise individual solutions to the pervasive instability that confronts us all” (Helgesen, 1998: 46–47).

2.4 Family versus Workplace Commitments

The barriers faced by women relate to: prejudice, stereotyping, cultural beliefs, and religious orders. All these barriers have the effect of maintaining women submissiveness (Damon, 2009). Male managers display negative attitudes toward the advancement of women in the industrial context, where white male managers exhibit a particular preference for hierarchical advancement, whilst black male managers show differing attitudes regarding white versus coloured and Indian versus coloureds (Van Aarde and Schepers, 1998).

Further research is therefore required to determine whether there are personal beliefs that may be located within cultural groupings that encourage prejudice in the treatment of women in the workplace. Hewlett (2002) wrote that in order to change the world, women need to face and deal with many challenges, for example figuring out what one wants their life to look like at 45, giving urgent priority to finding a partner, having their first child before 35, choosing a career that will give one the gift of time and choosing a company that will help one achieve work-life balance.

These are key life challenges, but facing these all at once is proving extremely difficult for women to achieve, especially when one looks at women pursuing senior front office or client facing positions (that do not respect personal time) within the investment banking industry whilst trying to raise a family and giving priority to one’s partner. Married women reported significantly higher family-work conflict than unmarried women. Working, married women however, tend to view paid work as more important than their household work, and reported that their working had a positive impact on their families (Patel, Govender, Paruk, and Ramgoon, 2006).

These women furthermore show a significant tendency to continue academic and professional development and embark on second careers once they return to work from maternity leave (Geber, 2000). Women view motherhood as their central life interest (Wallis and Price 2007) and (Franks, Schurink and Fourie, 2006), and this priority could lead to greater conflict between work and family demands.

Quality time spent with children and family, structure and planning, coping with guilt, support structures, and self-reliance could balance mothers' dual roles (McLellan and Uys, 2009). Naidoo and Jano (2002), however, found that women may experience work and home as complimentary rather than conflicting.

Whitehead and Kotze (2003) hold that if a woman is to balance her multiple life-roles, she needs to be physically and mentally healthy, balance is a life process with a cyclical nature, and is a useful tool for achieving personal growth.

Long (2008) in her research, showed that that there are no overall significant differences in the way in which men and women

- a) Perceive occupational stressors and
- b) Utilise coping resources.

Another study indicated that women view "service" as being their most important career anchor, however, if there is a lack of infrastructure and resources in the environment, it can become stressful to fulfil a job role (Van der Berg and Van Zyl, 2008). Furthermore, mergers, increasing job demands, and role conflict, the latter, according to Bezuidenhout and Cilliers (2010); being inherent in the female work experience, contribute extensively to the manifestation of stress. Due to Apartheid and international isolation, the gender-based social revolution that took place in the west during the same timeframe escaped South Africa. In South Africa, racial discrimination tended to overshadow other forms of discrimination. Due to this, a rift was created between white and non-white females, preventing them from uniting and acknowledging the existence of gender bias against them (Mathur-Helm, 2002).

Furthermore, cultural prejudices resulted in discrimination against women by members of their own culture (Tabudi, 2010). Aside from barriers relating to race and gender bias, there is a strong indication that the glass ceiling (an unofficially acknowledged barrier to

advancement affecting women and members of minorities) does exist in South Africa (Tokarczyk, 2008).

Limited support structures and networking opportunities hinder women's career advancement (Rowe and Crawford, 2003). A low salary average, and corporate culture and structure continue to pose a barrier to the advancement of female employees in the form of out-dated company policies regarding programmes such as part-time and flexi-time work options, job-sharing, and telecommuting (McCummond, 2008).

Just regionalised businesses, categorised by a traditions that promotes women's leadership positions, will aid in the demolition of glass ceiling, alongside women's own will develop themselves through academic and career development (Mathur-Helm, 2006).

2.5 Confidence

The recognised idea of interest is confidence/self-confidence. Self-confidence is defined as "firm belief; trust; reliance" (Neufeldt & Guralnik, 1991). Merriam-Webster Online (2010) has a more modern description and quotes self-confidence as "the belief in oneself and in one's powers and abilities."

"Self-confidence is a person's belief that he or she can succeed, self-confidence is context-specific to particular tasks and some people seem to display this characteristic through a wide range of activities" (Perry, 2011: 219). Self-confidence can be linked to self-efficacy philosophy (Perry, 2011). According to Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theory, self-efficacy is improved by four central aspects: "successful performances (competence), vicarious experience, verbal persuasion (including praise and encouragement), and arousal".

Self-confidence is merely a self-perceived quota of one's credence in one's own aptitudes, reliant on related upbringing and location (Perry, 2011). Out-dated models of confidence and data dispensation submit that individuals participate in greater processing activity when they feel uncertain as opposed to confident (Perry, 2011).

Tormala, Rucker, and Seger (2008) verified their theories that the usual undesirable effect of confidence on data processing will reverse when messages are outlined in terms of confidence. They established that when the message was outlined in confident terms, partakers engaged in better message processing when they felt confident rather than uncertain, as shown by superior argument quality effects on attitudes and thought favourability.

The social interaction that both women and men have with their supervisors and peers influences the development of social identification within an organisation (Witt, Patti, and Farmer, 2002). One problem that is evident in organisations is the lack of female mentors and role models (April, Dreyer and Blass, 2007). Many executive women are not willing to help and promote younger women in their careers (April et al, 2007). This is directly attributed to the “queen bee syndrome,” (Staines, Tavis and Hayagrante, 1973) where executive women are sometimes reluctant to help other women advance in their careers and instead surround themselves with men.

Mentoring is regarded as an important tool for employee development (Noe, 2010), and would thus enhance a woman’s work identity. Grant (1988) contends that talents such as “affiliation”, “attachment”, “cooperativeness”, “nurturance”, and “emotionality” that upkeep the style of the new business are traditionally developed in women.

Albert (1994) underlines the individual use of journaling and other forms of story assessments to document such talents. These narrative assessments function as a chart of the education process and self-definition and aid to transfer learning assessment from the business to the individual.

Recognising the strong points comprises the consent to use instinct in decision making. Intuition is described as information accomplished through the senses that is kept in the unconscious. Strong (1994) found that even though women have more extremely developed instinctive knowledge than men, they are cautious to use this ability since they feel the necessity to expound their judgment in coherent terms. Conversely, men base judgments more often on “hunches,” although these are more often foolish.

Working women occasionally protest of feeling socially secluded: that is principally spot on for women further up the business echelons; the feeling of societal seclusion can harmfully

impinge on women hoping for progress professionally (Soufi, Gilaninia and Mousavian, 2011). Contemporary scholars have exposed that coaching by fellow women support women to get the capabilities requisite to perform well (Keating, 2002). Coaching is valuable at any point in a professional setting (Soufi, et al, 2011).

“College-age women, women just entering the workforce and women changing careers are ripe for mentoring. It can boost your self-esteem, make you feel more competent and develop your professional identity” (Keating, 2002:28).

Hillman, Taylor-Robinson, O'Mara (1989), Greenhouse and Bordin (1994), Denmark and Guttentag (1987), Korman (1989), Crocker and Luhtanen (1990), all cited in Soufi, et al, (2011)

Examined the issue of women self-esteem that the main result is the following:

- Employed women have higher self-esteem more than housewives.
- Women who have high self-esteem show great desire to continue studying and achieve to aims.
- People who have high self-esteem choose further jobs and careers that they have more ability in it.
- One of the barriers to employment for women in them is lack of self-esteem or lack of accountability for employment.
- Barriers to acceptance of women in middle management level posts include: Organisational barriers ,
- Family, cultural and social barriers
- There are significant relationship among manager's attitudes than technical skills, human, perception, loyalty, organisation commitment and lack of promotion of women in their employment.

Confidence firmness talks to the magnitude of short-term oscillations that people experience in their direct, contextually based, feelings of self-worth (Rosenberg, 1986; Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993).

Unstable confidence divulges breakable, susceptible feelings of direct self-worth that are swayed by observed self-relevant dealings that are either superficially provided such as a praise or slur or self-generated such as reflecting on one's look. Unstable confidence has been connected to a diversity of maladaptive affective and behavioural response arrays, including

exaggerated leanings to experience rage and hostility (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989), sadness (Kernis, Grannemann, & Mathis, 1991), and defensiveness (Kernis et al., 1993), in addition to sub-optimal self-regulatory styles (Kernis, Brown, & Brody, 2000), low self-concept precision (Kernis et al., 2000) and low essential motivation (Waschull & Kernis, 1996). Prominently, steadiness of self-assurance forecasts these inclinations free of confidence level.

Grounded on relational methods, confidence should be related with the anticipation that optimistic responses will be forthcoming from others (Soufi et al, 2011). One might theorise that extraordinary confident persons have a generally positive opinion of social affairs and stride through the world seeing other people as reliably tolerant, whereas low confidence persons see others as habitually denying (Soufi, et al, 2011). Nonetheless, such a gross discrepancy in viewpoint appears questionable.

To keep essentially suitable social affairs, all of us must attend to: “if-then” eventualities of relational response, whereby certain behaviours such as sociability and kindness have a habit to lead to optimistic replies from others but other behaviours such as unfriendliness and unpleasantness have a habit of leading to undesirable replies (Soufi et al, 2011).

In contradiction to this setting, however, individual variances in feelings of self-worth might get up from fairly minor variances in if-then anticipations about the types or series of manners that lead to social acceptance and rejection (Soufi, et al, 2011). In modern research (Baldwin & Sinclair, 1996), a reaction-time instance exposed that low confidence persons were more probable than high confidence persons to liken failure with relational rejection, demonstrating that their confidence diffidence might have resulted in part from the hope that acceptance was vague, and eventually conditional on fruitful performances.

2.6 Respect

Respect is the exhibition of personal worth in associations and can be determined on the foundation of relational treatment, such as being taken sincerely, being appreciated, and being paid due courtesy (De Cremer and Tyler 2005; Laschinger and Finegan 2005; Simon and Strumer 2003).

Rawls (1971: 530) stated that, “one of the entitlements that individuals are due by virtue of their humanity is the right to be treated in a way that fosters positive self-regard”. In addition to nurturing optimistic egotism, reverence also overlays a mode for personal confidence, recognition and intra-group rank (Simon and Strumer 2003). Respect play a significant part in individual associations, and has been famous as key in the apprehension of close associations, like nuptials (Hendrick and Hendrick 2006). Inside the business area, although respect is considered as a “core value” (Laschinger and Finegan 2005), there is few research in the topic.

Facets of relational treatment such as respect and justice encourage individual feelings of pride and group recognition (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; De Cremer, 2002; Simon and Strumer, 2003). Meanwhile group partisanship is an imperative facet of communal being, people unremittingly feel the necessity for group partisanship, and grounded on the relational treatment their group identities get established and asserted (Sleebos et al., 2006; Simon and Strumer 2003). Consequently, in the lead to recognition with a group, individuals spoil in conducts that encourage group interests and happiness (Ashforth et al. 2008; Burke and Reitzes, 1991; Sleebos et al., 2006).

2.7 The Employment Equity Act

The purpose of the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998 is to achieve equity in the workplace, by:

- Promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
- Implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.

Employment Equity was seen as a long-term plan to ensure that all employees have a fair chance in the workplace (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003). It would be achieved when no person is denied employment opportunities or benefits for reasons unrelated to their abilities (Thomas, 2002, Toumishey, 2001, van Zyl and Roodt, 2003).

Affirmative action was seen as a short-term strategy by which equality (employment equity) in the workplace would be achieved through the active elimination of systemic discrimination (Thomas, 2002, Toumishey, 2001, van Zyl and Roodt, 2003). “Systemic Discrimination occurred when groups of people, e.g. women were excluded from the workplace for reasons not related to job requirements” (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003: 13). It resulted from entrenched policies/practices that were part of the normal operation of employment systems that unintentionally discriminated (Toumishey, 2001).

Human (1996) saw Affirmative Action as the process whereby equal employment equity was created – cutting across all human resources practices such as selection, recruitment, induction, development, etc. This referred to a more holistic focus such as diversity management (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003).

The Constitution of South Africa assured everybody the important right of equality, the abolition of biased judgment and the acceptance of positive measures to repair social inequalities, the Employment Equity Act was an essential stride to the accomplishment of the constitutional aims (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003). The Employment Equity Act was incrementally promulgated into law in 1999. Human (1996) indicated that South African organisations were also playing the numbers game. They did not realise that affirmative action is the process of creating equal employment opportunity and that it required fundamental changes to the human resource culture.

Human (1996) argued that affirmative action/employment equity both encompassed, and were encompassed by, the concept of managing diversity. Women marched to the Union Buildings in 1956 and they sang a song: “Wathint’ Abafazi, Wathint’ Imbokotho, Uzakufa!” Translated it means you have tampered with the women. You have struck a grinding stone. The Minister of Labour said that the Employment Equity Act gave the women another grinding stone – another powerful tool. According to him the Act was a pledge to spare no effort in the struggle for gender equity (Mdladlana, 1999a).

On the 29th of July 1999 Steve Tshwete (at a function to launch Affirmative Action Programme in the Police Force) made the following comment: “We do not only want to see leaders emerging from the male section. We want to see women being given positions in the command structures”. He also said that South Africa has not yet arrived – where men and women were treated equally (Mdladlana, 1999b).

Of the economically active population (EAP) women comprised 39, 85%, and only 27, 45% of management (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003). Thomas (2002), using the Breakwater Monitor results of 1998 indicated a lower percentage – only 14% of managers are women. Human (1996) showed that in South Africa, which has a tough macho attitude, male managers suspected the corporate capabilities of women. These attitudes headed to practices, which characteristically placed women at a detriment through extremely ingrained pigeonholing of gender (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003).

Gender Commission (1999) stated that, furthestmost businesses favoured employing men to women because of absence of gender programme, absence of reliance in females, traditional outlooks and antagonism from male workers (Mdladlana, 1999a). The publication as well shows a discrepancy in pay for men and women, in the same occupation (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003).

Thomas (2002) sustained this perspective by signifying that male earnings were 43% higher compared to that of female colleagues. There is a general belief prevalent in male dominated workplaces that men are superior than women, hence the special treatment and higher packages, women when recruited to these male dominated firms experience pressure to impress and work 110% more than male colleagues and were set up to fail all that was done by men to uphold the myth that a woman's place is in the kitchen at home. (Mdladlana, 1999a).

Dickens (1994) predicted that the projected labour force between 1994 and 2006 would be 1, 5 million of which 1, 3 million would be female. Van Zyl and Roodt (2003:15) said that “women with children will constitute a major component of labour supply”. Women could no longer be treated as second-class workers. Employers would need to recognise career ambitions and domestic responsibilities. The only way to know how organisations would fare is by means of an employment equity audit. However, there still may be a possibility that an instrument used for assessing employment equity could still be biased and thereby further entrenching gender discrimination. (van Zyl and Roodt, 2003).

2.8 Summary

As in the government and public sector, women reaching top-level positions are still uncommon in the corporate and private sector (Mathur-Helm, 2005).

In conclusion, despite women having the personal belief, professional skills, abilities, and experience necessary to be effective, women leaders are still held back.

Chapter Three which follows contains issues pertaining to the research methodology and fieldwork.

CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter's focal point is on the research design and methodology. It will concentrate on the salient issues associated with the research design, instruments, sampling procedures and processes as well as pretesting and validation. The chapter will be a 'gateway' to the analysis of data and is based on the understanding of the study's aims and objectives.

3.2 Research Methodology

When doing research it is important to select the method which is most likely to ensure that the objectives of the research are scientifically researched. The information that the researcher processor requires determines the type of the research method to be used. According to Bailey (2004: 34), research methodology means the philosophy of the research process. This refers to the approach that underpins the research (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2001: 59).

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2007:2) defined research as "a process that involves obtaining scientific knowledge by means of various objective methods and procedures." Kothari (2008) outlines that; research is a methodical and logical search for knowledge on a particular issue Research methodology specifies the methods and procedures for collection, measurement and analysis of data that that researcher used in the study Botha (2006). Since research is a process of finding out solutions to a problem it is important then to devise a methodology that would be best suited to achieve success.

3.3 Aim and Objectives

3.3.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to assess if corporate women in Durban encounter glass ceiling barriers to career development.

3.3.2 Objectives

- To assess if women experience the glass ceiling barrier to career advancement
- To assess how women balance family commitments and workplace commitments
- To assess if women are confident in their ability to fulfil their roles at work
- To assess if women in the work place think that they are respected for their ability and skills.
- To assess women's views on the Employment Equity Act

3.4 Respondents and Location of the Study

The next step is to select the method which is going to be deployed to collect data. This is complete when the research problem or statement has been established, limitations identified and the research design established and concluded.

According to Welman et al. (2007:56) "it is impractical and uneconomical to involve all the members of the population in the research project" given that the population associated with this research is large, a sample is used to collect data as this will both save time and other resources.

The process of sampling must be objective as it directly impacts on the quality of information collected.

The study will be regionally conducted in Durban. The research is confined to women working for Durban based companies and organisations.

3.5 Sampling

For correctness and uniformity it would be fitting to accumulate information from every member of the population, which is all Durban based corporate women. Worthwhile as this may be, it is not possible and sampling is used in its place.

In practice sampling is used for numerous reasons; it is impractical and uneconomical to involve all the members of the population in the research (Welman et al., 2007) and sampling

which if done scientifically is accurate and reliable, saving time and money (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Sampling fundamentally is the method of gaining data for the whole inhabitants by merely observing fraction of it. Sekaran (2003) described sampling as “a process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements.” Sampling inaugurates with outlining the target population.

3.5.1 Population

The population is the pool from which the sample elements are drawn, and to which the research wishes to generalise findings from (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Population refers to the complete collection of citizens, events, or items of notice that the investigator needs to look into (Sekaran 2003).

Sekaran and Bougie (2010:267) sated that, “the target population must be defined in terms of elements, geographical boundaries and time”. An element is a particular portion or component of the population (Sekaran & Bougie 2010).

The target population consisted of all women working for Durban companies and organisations, unfortunately there is no data to support the population numerically such as Statistics South Africa’s data on Durban working population.

3.5.2 Sampling Design

It has been said that “Generalisability is extremely important: it is only when results can be generalised from a sample to a population that the results of the research have meaning beyond the limited setting in which they were originally obtained” Welman et al. (2007:55). Sampling is the process of picking enough quantity of the accurate elements from the population, so that the research of the section makes it probable for one to take a broad view of the population elements, as well as those not chosen in the illustration (Sekaran & Bougie

2010). It is important for the sample to best represent the characteristics of the population Terre Blanche (2006).

According to Kothari (2008) the following are characteristics of a good sample design: “It must result in a truly representative sample. It should lessen sampling error. It must lessen systematic bias”. The outcomes from the sample ought to be useful to the population from which it was drawn with a rational level of assurance.

Sampling design comprises of probability or non-probability sampling.

Probability sampling is when elements in the population have a known chance of being chosen as a subject in the sample (Sekaran 2003). Probability sampling can be either unrestricted or restricted, unrestricted refers to simple random sampling and restricted refers to complex probability sampling (Sekaran & Bougie 2010).

Probability (random) sampling is the most attractive and viewed the paramount method of selecting an illustrative sample as it guarantees that all constituents have the same chance of addition in the sample (Welman et al. 2007).

One of the most used sampling methods is probability sampling which may be categorized as simple random sampling where each element of the population has an equal (unrestricted) chance of being included in the sample. In the case of complex random sampling, there is a no equal chance of being selected (restriction) of an element to be in a sample. Complex probability samples encompasses of “systematic sampling”, “stratified random sampling”, “cluster sampling”, “area sampling” and “double sampling” (Sekaran 2003).

Probability sampling was rejected in this study as there is no central database of all women working for Durban companies. For the purposes of this study certain companies will be selected and that is where the pool of participants will be drawn from.

In this study non-probability sampling remained the appropriate method of selecting the elements. In non-probability sampling designs, the elements in the population do not have any probabilities attached to their being chosen as sample elements (Sekaran 2003). Welman et al. (2007) stated that in some cases, certain members of the population may have no chance at all of being selected in a sample. Sekaran and Bougie (2010) stated that the outcomes from

non-probability sampling cannot be boldly generalised to the whole population. Even though narrow in terms of generalisability, non-probability sampling has the benefit of being less complex and inexpensive relative to time and cost (Welman et al. 2007).

Sekaran (2003) stated that such a sampling frame does provide a quick and inexpensive way of obtaining preliminary information. Terre Blanche (2007) indicates that in many cases nonprobability samples are more than adequate for research purposes of this type. Non-probability sampling designs fit into two broad categories that is convenience or purposive sampling (Sekaran 2003).

Convenience or haphazard sampling refers to collection of information from members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it (Welman et al. 2007). According to Sekaran & Bougie (2010) convenience sampling is the least reliable of all sampling designs in terms of generalisability. This is because it is prone to bias and influence that is beyond the control of the researcher because the elements that appears in the sample are easy to obtain (Welman et al. 2007).

The research was designed to use purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is confined to specific types of people i.e. restricted element selection, who can provide the desired information, either because they are the only ones who have it or who conform to criteria set by the researcher (Sekaran 2003).

Purposive sampling designs comprise “judgment sampling”, “quota sampling” or “snowball sampling”.

Snowball sampling is used when the researcher selects respondents or approaches a few elements from the relevant population and these individuals act as informants and identify other elements from the population for inclusion (Welman et al. 2007).

This process will carry on gradually accumulating in size like a rolling snowball and would stop when the element numbers are sufficient in the sample (Terre Blanche 2007). Snowball sampling restricts generalisability of the findings (Sekaran & Bougie 2010).

The problem with this method is that researchers are not consistent in the ways they obtain the sample; it therefore becomes a challenge to evaluate the extent to which the sample represents the relevant population (Welman et al. 2007).

Due to time and cost constraints and despite its restrictions, snowball sampling was accepted as the most suitable for this research. The respondents were selected on non-probability snowball sampling from the population of Durban corporate women and respondents that were known to the researcher and subjects assisted by identifying potential respondents who were then other respondents that were invited to participate in the research.

3.5.3 Sample Size

Only rarely can a researcher look at everything that has potential relevance for the research problem in most cases than not it is impracticable and uneconomical to involve all members of the population (Welman et al. 2007). Sekaran (2003) stated that both the sample size and sample design are important for the representativeness of the sample for generalisability. The large sample size will not compensate for an inappropriate sample design and in itself allow findings to be generalised to the population.

Likewise unless the sample size is adequate for the desired level of precision and confidence however well the sample design maybe it cannot be useful to the research in meeting the objectives of the study (Sekaran 2003).

Welman et al. (2007) stated that the choice of a sample size is governed by:

- The confidence that is needed from data- that is, the level of certainty that the characteristics of the data collected will represent the characteristics of the whole population.
- The margin of error that the research can tolerate – that is, the accuracy we require for any estimates made for our sample.
- The type of analysis that is going to be undertaken- in particular the number of categories into which the data would be subdivided as different statistical techniques have minimum threshold cases for each variable.
- The size of the total population from which the sample is being drawn.

Cooper and Schindler (2006) specified that a sample ought to permit several virtual associations to the magnitude of the population from which it is drawn.

Hair, Money, Samouel and Page (2005) make a point that irrespective of how the sample size is determined it is essential that it should be sufficiently sizable and of suitable and quality to yield results that are seen to be credible in terms of their accuracy and consistency.

Huysamen 1991 (cited in Welman et al. 2007) point out that a sample that is less than 15 units of analysis should not be used; preferably a sample with more than 25 units can be used.

In addition it was stated further that in random sampling a sample of more than 500 units of analysis was not necessary. Roscoe 1975 (cited in Sekaran & Bougie 2010) proposed that sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research. Given the above authors confirming that a sample of 30 is acceptable and given the time and resource constraints the sample size was limited to 90.

3.6 Data Collection in Descriptive Studies

Data can either be collected from primary or secondary sources. “Primary data refers to information obtained first hand by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study whilst secondary data refers to information gathered from sources that already exists e.g. literature” (Sekaran & Bougie 2010:180).

The method used to collect data will be informed by the type of data required. According to Sekaran (2003) the data can be collected by the use of interviews, administering questionnaires or surveys, observations or focus groups.

3.6.1 Questionnaires as a Research Instrument

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010:197) “questionnaires are an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest”.

There are structured questionnaires and unstructured questionnaires. In this study a structured questionnaire was used.

When it is well-known at the onset what data are mandatory, structured questionnaires should be used with final, concrete and scheduled questions. Structured questionnaires limit the respondents own words and the questions and answers are itemized. There are numerous ways accessible to the researcher to manage questionnaires.

Questionnaires can be personally administered, inserted in magazines periodicals, or newspapers, mailed to the respondents, or electronically distributed (Sekaran and Bougie 2010).

The advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires are shown in Table 3.1

Mode of data collection	Advantages	Disadvantages
Personally administered questionnaires	Can establish rapport and motivate respondents. Doubts can be clarified. Less expensive when administered to groups of respondents. Almost 100% response rate ensured. Anonymity of respondents is high	Organisations may be reluctant to give up company time for the survey with groups of employees assembled for the purpose.
Mail questionnaires	Anonymity is high Wide geographic regions can be reached. Token gifts can be enclosed to seek compliance. Respondents can take more time to respond at convenience. Can be administered electronically, if desired.	Response rate is almost always low. A 30% rate is quite acceptable. Cannot clarify questions. Follow-up procedures for nonresponses are necessary.
Electronic questionnaire	Easy to administer. Can reach globally. Very inexpensive. Fast delivery. Respondents can answer at their convenience like the mail questionnaire.	Computer literacy is a must. Respondents must have access to the facility. Respondents must be willing to complete the survey.

Table 3.1 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires (Adapted from Sekaran and Bougie, 2010, Research methods for business, Wiley, West Sussex)

An electronic questionnaire was chosen as a research instrument.

The questionnaire was administered on the web through ‘Questionpro’. Electronic questionnaires are easy to administer, inexpensive, fast and have a global reach.

3.6.2 Questionnaire Design

Sekaran (2003) states that sound questionnaire design should focus on three areas:

- Wording of the questions;
- Planning of issues of how variables would be categorized, scaled and coded after the receipt of the responses; and
- General appearance of the questionnaire.

All the three aspects of the research design are important as they can minimize biases in the research. The design of the questionnaire substances was founded on collating information from respondents which was viewed to be significant to the research.

Sekaran (2003) provides some insight on the quality of the questions that are posed on a questionnaire with reference to the following subjects:

- Content and purpose of the question – the purpose of each question should be carefully considered so that the variables are adequately measured and yet no superfluous questions are asked.
- Language and wording of the questionnaire – the language of the questionnaire should approximate the level understanding of the respondents. Choice of words should be determined on their educational level and usage of terms and idioms in the culture, and the frames of reference of the respondents.

Sequencing of questions is very important, Sekaran and Bougie (2010) emphasized the necessity to use the “funnel approach” to questioning, and that is, beginning at more broad to more explicit and from simple to more tricky assists with a even movement through the items on the questionnaire.

In developing the questionnaire for this research a sequencing method was adopted.

Questions can either be “open-ended” or “closed”.

Closed questions require the respondents to formulate alternatives among a set of alternatives provided by the investigator, and are usually comparatively simple to adapt to a arithmetic format required for statistical investigation.

Open ended questions permit respondents to respond them in any approach they choose (Welman et al. 2007).

A closed type questionnaire was used in this research.

Careful consideration is important when deciding response format as this has implications for statistical analysis of the results of the questionnaire. Variables need to be measured in some manner and as such scales are applied to measure different variables.

A scale is defined as “a tool by which individuals are distinguished as to how they differ from one another on the variables of interest to our study” Sekaran (2003: 185).

Scales consist of “nominal scales” and “interval scales”.

Nominal scales permit the investigator to assign topics to certain groups, while interval scales permits the investigator to do certain mathematical functions on the information gathered.

A five – point “Likert scale” was adopted in this research. It was intended to scrutinize whether participants “strongly disagreed”, “disagreed”, “uncertain”, “agreed” and “strongly agreed” with the statements.

When the variables have been defined and proper scaling techniques have been carefully chosen, it is vital afterwards to guarantee that the research instrument used, did indeed precisely measure that notion. This was achieved by pretesting and validation. Questionnaires are a well-organised data collection tool, however, can be useless if incorrectly targeted (Sekaran 2003). If information is not collected from the objects that can provide the correct answers to solve the problem, the questionnaire will be useless (Sekaran & Bougie 2010).

3.7 Pretesting and Validation

Pretesting and validation is prepared to discover imperfections in the design of the research apparatus. This component is divided into two elements that is, “steps taken to pretest the questionnaire” and “warranting reliability and validity of the questionnaire”.

3.7.1 Pretesting of the Questionnaire

It is important that before the questionnaire is sent out to respondents that it is evaluated for the accuracy and consistency of the responses. The accuracy and consistency of the responses can be achieved by pre-testing the questionnaire using a small sample of the respondents with characteristics similar to the target population (Hair et al. 2007).

The questionnaire was discussed with the supervisor who suggested that the number of questions be reduced, changed and rephrased. The supervisor suggested some grammatical changes. Having done that the questionnaire was tested on a small batch of respondents, feedback was positive and no changes were made.

3.7.2 Validation of the Questionnaire

In order to establish the reliability and validity of the research instrument it is necessary firstly, to clarify these concepts and secondly to relate it to this study. The validity and reliability of a measuring instrument are concerned with the findings of a research (Collis and Hussey 2003).

According to Hair et al. (2007) validity of an instrument is the determination of the extent to which the instrument actually measures what it is supposed to measure. There are different ways in which the validity of research can be assessed. This research will explore only two, content validity and construct validity.

- Content (face) validity ensures that the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept (Sekaran 2003). The more the scale items represent the domain or universe of the concept being measured, the greater the content validity stated Sekaran (2003:206)
- The construct validity of a measuring instrument refers to the degree to which it measures the intended construct rather than irrelevant constructs or measurement error

(Welman et al. 2007). The measuring instrument must measure that which it is supposed to measure.

With the feedback from the respondents who participated in the pre-test and the pilot study, minor changes were made to remove vagueness and leading questions. Respondents from the pre-test and pilot study confirmed that the questionnaire satisfactorily covered the objectives of the research and was consequently compliant with the criterion for face validity.

3.7.3 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with the findings of the research and relates to the credibility of the findings (Welman et al. 2007). The reliability of a measuring instrument indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free) and hence offers consistent measurement across time and across various items in the instrument (Sekaran 2003).

A measuring tool is dependable if it produces consistent results. There are two important aspects in reliability namely, “stability” and “consistency”.

According to Sekaran (2003) stability relates to the ability of a measure to remain the same over time despite uncontrollable testing conditions or the state of the respondents themselves, and consistency is pinpointing of the homogeneity of the objects in the measure that strike the construct.

Stability of measures is attained by, “test–retest reliability” to measure the tool on at least two instances to the matching huge, representative sample from the population for which the tool is anticipated (Welman et al. 2007) and the test-retest coefficient shows to the reliability and stability across instances. The reliability test was not performed in this research as a result of lack of sufficient time.

3.8 Questionnaire Administration

Questionnaires are the most useful and easy to administer data collection tool when dealing with large numbers spread over geographical dispersed locations.

Sekaran and Bougie (2010) stated that questionnaires can be managed individually, positioned in periodicals or through the press media, mailed to respondents or electronically disseminated by email.

Online questionnaire surveys are easily designed and administered when computers are connected to networks (Sekaran and Bougie 2010) hence in this study an online survey was used.

According to Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) online surveys can offer tempting benefits compared to other methods of administration such as:

“Easy access to the population with a extensive geographical reach”, “Saves time as no personal supervision of the tool is necessary and with proper software and coding, answers can be automatic thus avoiding the tedious task of coding and capturing data”. “Expenditure for web based surveys is about one third the cost of a postal survey”. “Cost reduction”.

There are two types of online surveys, “email” or “web based” surveys. Email surveys are surveys which the questionnaire is set in or attached to the email (Dornyei and Taguchi 2010). Software based online questionnaires allows the investigator to create more visually attractive questionnaires, with particular features to avert troubles such as lost information, and easier reply formats.

Web based surveys are more well-organized and eye-catching hence in this study the web based online software programme was used. The choice selected was to email the URL link to possible respondents. This was done using the respondents email addresses and reminders were sent to their emails.

3.9 Analysis of Data

After the data has been collected from the sample the next step is to analyse it (Sekaran and Bougie 2010). It has to be ensured first that the data is accurate, complete and suitable for further analysis (Sekaran 2003). The point of departure is data coding which involves assigning a number to the participants’ responses so that they can be entered into a database. The data in this research is already in an electronic form since the questionnaire was created

using Questionpro which is web based. According to Blaxter et al. (2010) “data analysis usually involves reducing accumulated data to manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and applying statistical techniques”

3.10 Summary

This chapter thoroughly discussed the research methodology used in this research. Dissimilar research methods were discussed and the foundation following the methods selected for this research was discussed. The questionnaire was debated; its administration and information scrutiny.

Chapter Four deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of results obtained from completed questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR - PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

The analysis of data will follow the sequence of the questionnaire. It will be accompanied by relationships with existing literature and previous research where applicable. In this way the reader will be able to understand the perceptions that corporate women have over the concept of glass ceiling. The presentation and analysis of the results are approached in two sections. The first section discusses the demographic profile of the respondents and the second section focuses on the findings related to the objectives of the study.

4.2 Survey Overview

Figure 4.1 show that 107 respondents started the survey and 90 completed the survey, representing 84% completion. The incomplete questionnaires were discarded and only data from the completed questionnaires was used.

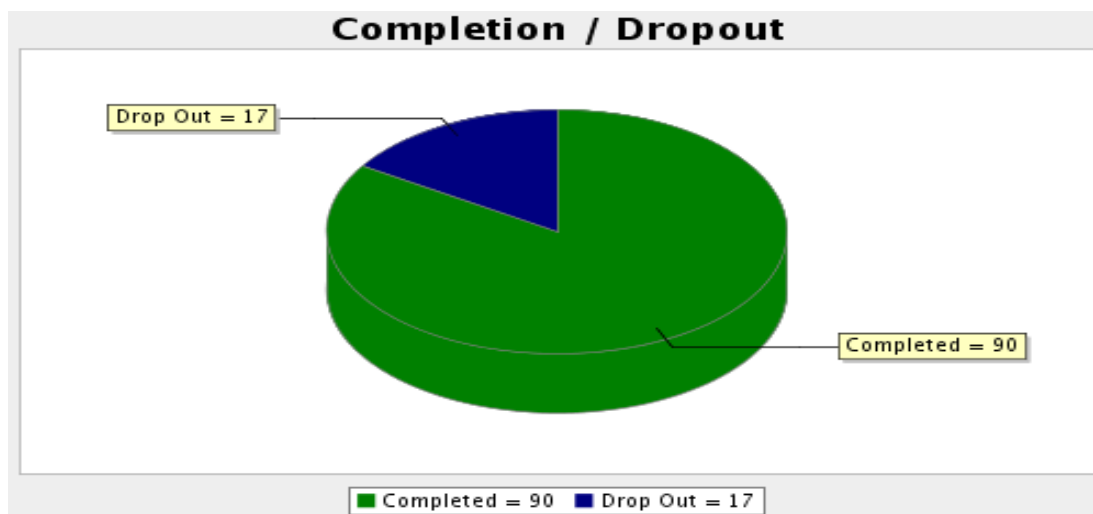


Figure 4.1: Survey completion overview

4.3 Section A – Demographic Profile of Respondents

4.3.1 Race

Figure 4.2 shows race representation in percentage form. 75% respondents were Black or African, 13.1% respondents were Indian, 7.14% respondents white a low number of responses from Coloured and Asian respondents was witnessed.

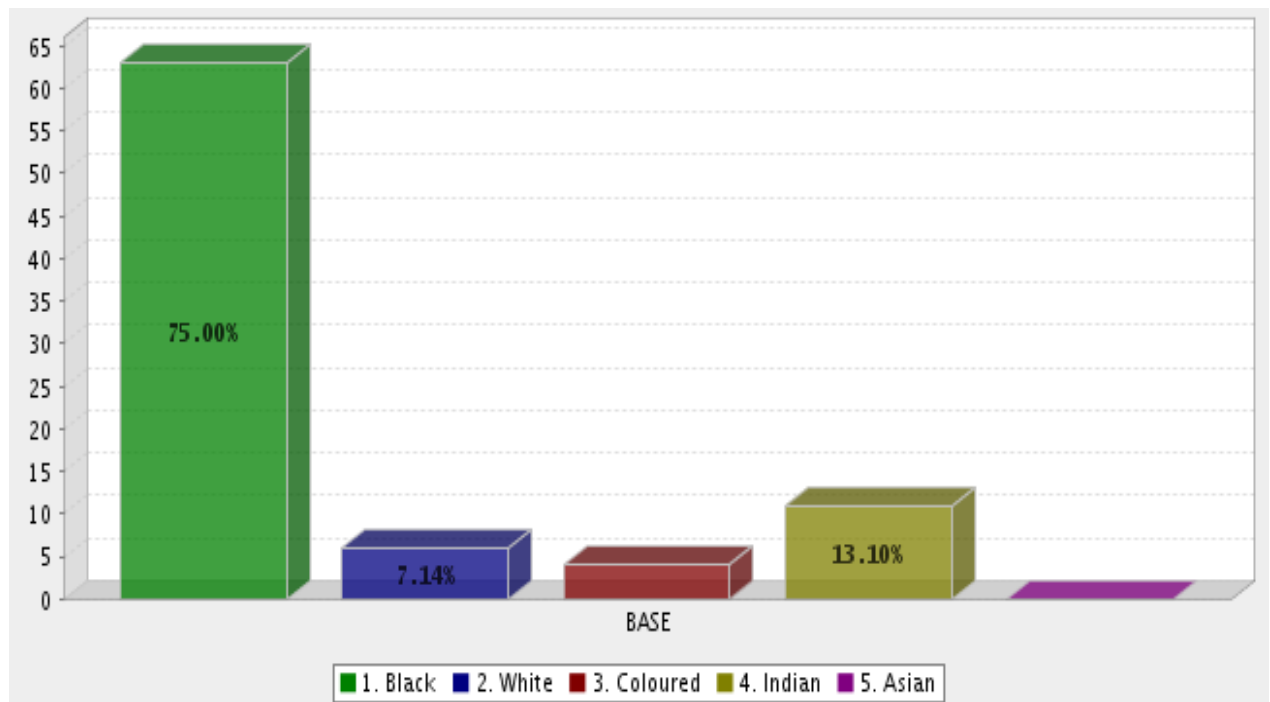


Figure 4.2: Race representation.

Race classification in South Africa is somewhat confusing as illustrated in Fig. 4.2. it is not clear whether the low representation of Coloured and Asians is attributed to their low representation in Durban or from the fact that they generally classify themselves as Black. A High Court in South Africa in 2008, ruled that Chinese South Africans who were residents during the apartheid era (and their descendants) are to be reclassified as "Black people" solely for the purposes of accessing affirmative action benefits, because they were also "disadvantaged" by racial discrimination, Chinese people who arrived in the country after the end of apartheid do not qualify under this law (Mbola 2008).

4.3.2 Highest Level of Education

Figure 4.3 show the highest level of education of respondents. 43.37% respondents held a Bachelor's degree while 25.30% of respondents held diplomas and 20.48% with Honours degrees.

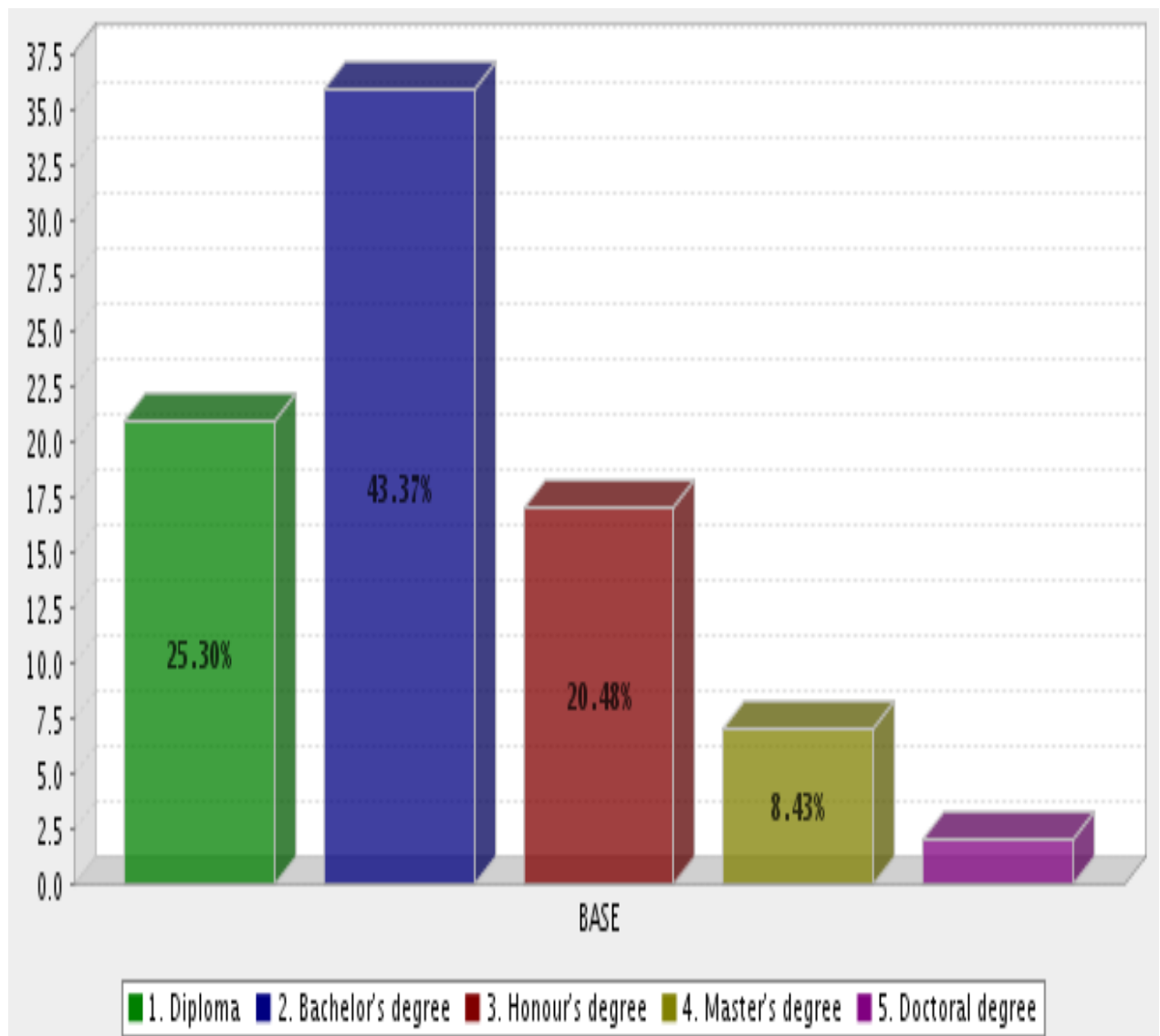


Figure 4.3: Highest level of education

4.3.3 Age

Figure 4.4 show that 33.73% of respondents were between 31-35 years old while only 4.82% were above 46 years.

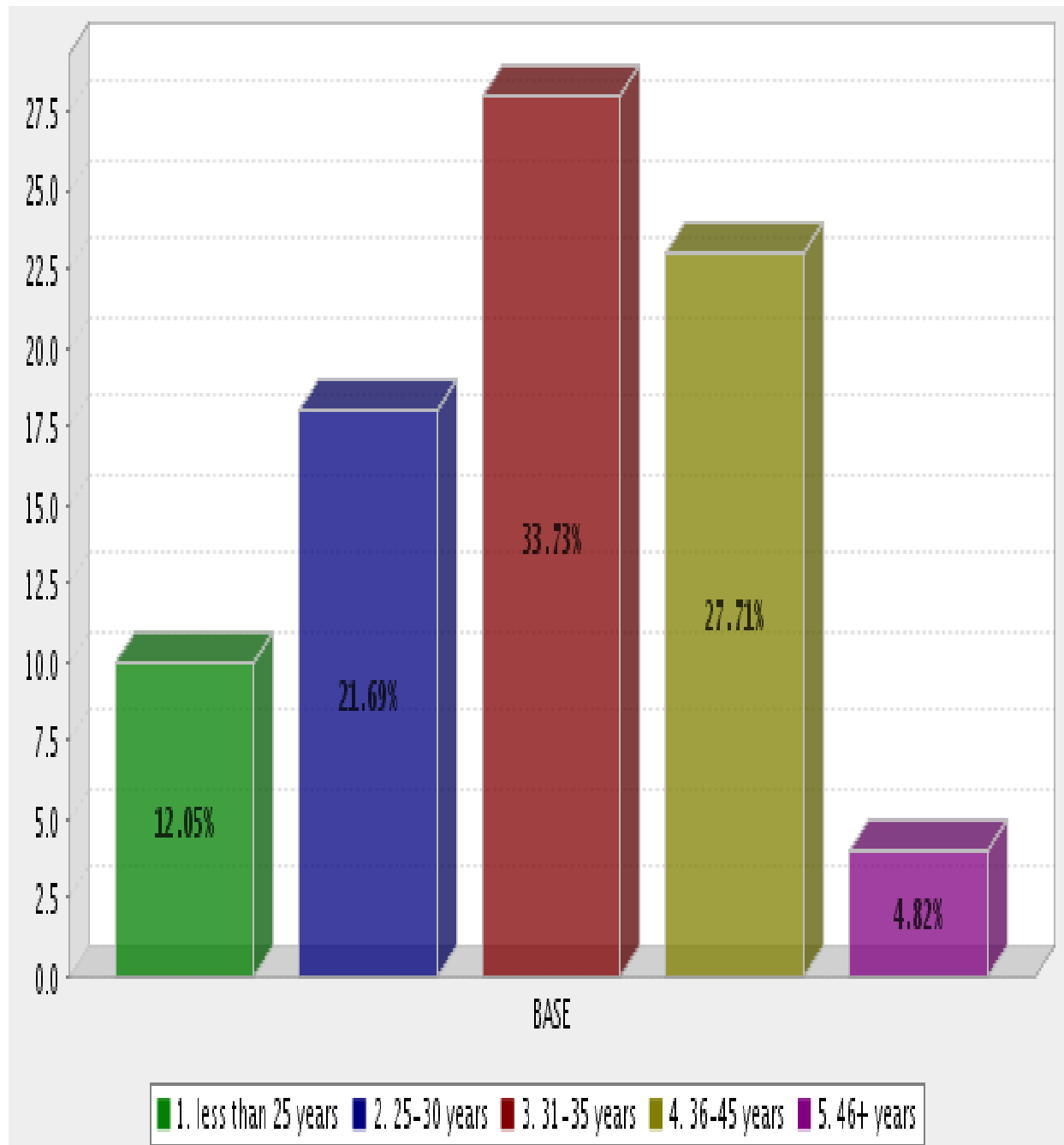


Figure 4.4: Age representation.

4.3.4 Level in Organisation

Figure 4.5 show that 45.12% respondents were in middle management positions, while 6.10% and 7.32% were in executive and board levels respectively.

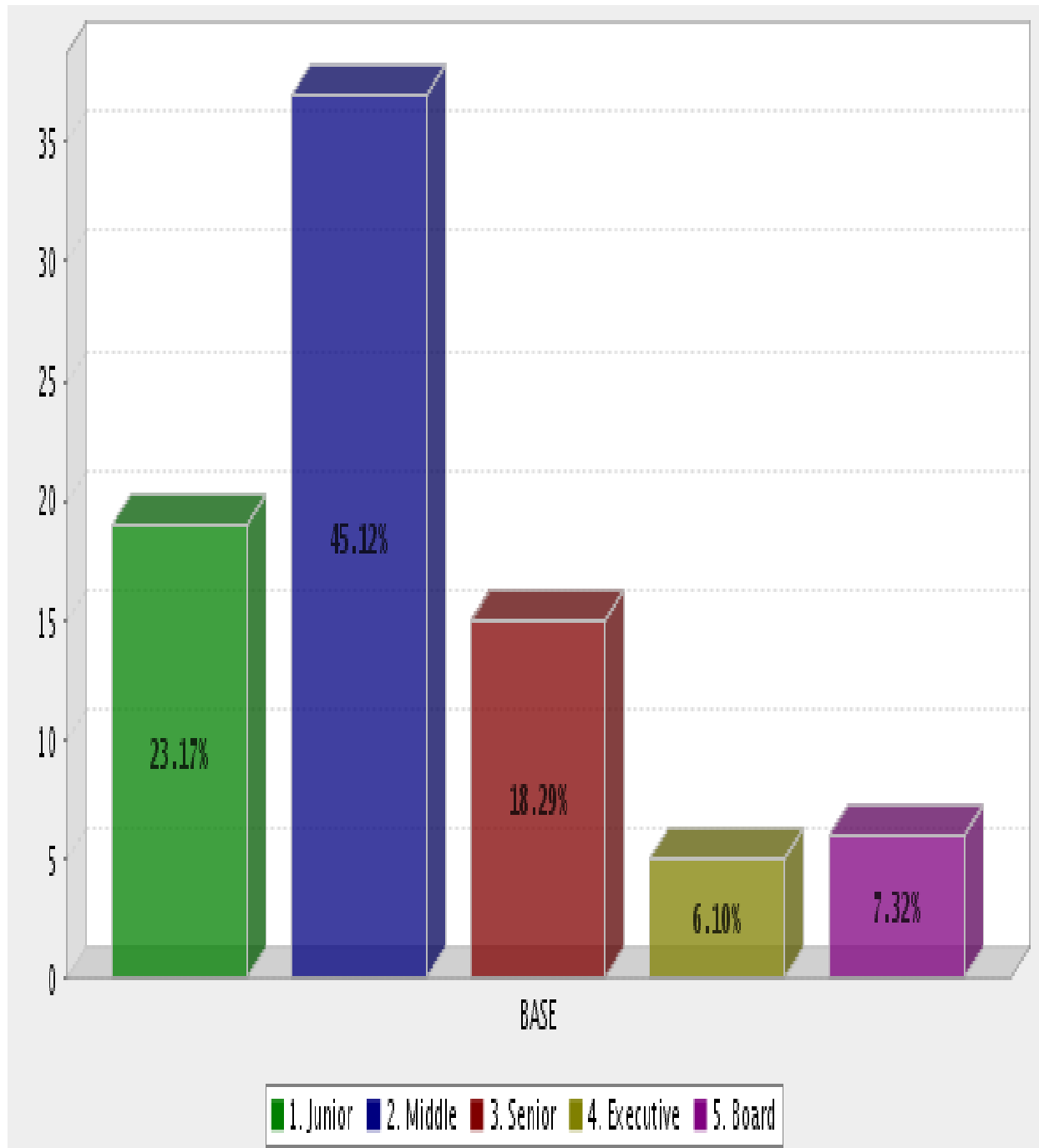


Figure 4.5: Level in organisation

The research was limited to Durban corporate women and hence low responses from senior, executive and board members as they are mainly based in Johannesburg and Cape Town at corporate head-quarters of their organisations.

4.3.5 Industry

Table 4.1 presents the respondents respective industries.

Industry	No. of Respondents
Engineering	10
Accounting and Finance	13
Energy	8
Banking	6
Petrochemical	8
Manufacturing	3
Logistics and Transport	8
Higher education	11
Policing	3
Information Technology	1
Government department	6
Media	1
Human Resources	1
Agriculture	1
Construction	4
Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG)	1
Health and Safety	3
Hospitality	2
Total	90

Table 4.1 Industry classification

4.4 Section B – Responses to Set Objectives.

The objectives of the study are:

- To assess if women experience the glass ceiling barrier to career advancement
- To assess how women balance family commitments and workplace commitments
- To assess if women are confident in their ability to fulfil their roles at work
- To assess if women in the work place think that they are respected for their ability and skills.
- To assess women's views on the Employment Equity Act

4.4.1 Objective 1: To Assess if Women Experience the Glass Ceiling Barrier to Career Advancement.

Objective 1 had the following statements to be answered by the research:

- My work experience is not fully appreciated in a male dominated workplace
- My academic qualifications do not mean much in a male dominated workplace
- Higher level roles are reserved for men.
- I feel that male stereotypes hinder my potential to land better and influential positions.

4.4.1.1 My work experience is not fully appreciated in a male dominated workplace.

Figure 4.6 show 29.63% of respondents disagreed and 16.05% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 22.22% agreed and 14.81% strongly agreed to the statement. In total 17.28% were uncertain. These results present neutrality in general as far as women perception towards being appreciated for their efforts in a male dominated work setting.

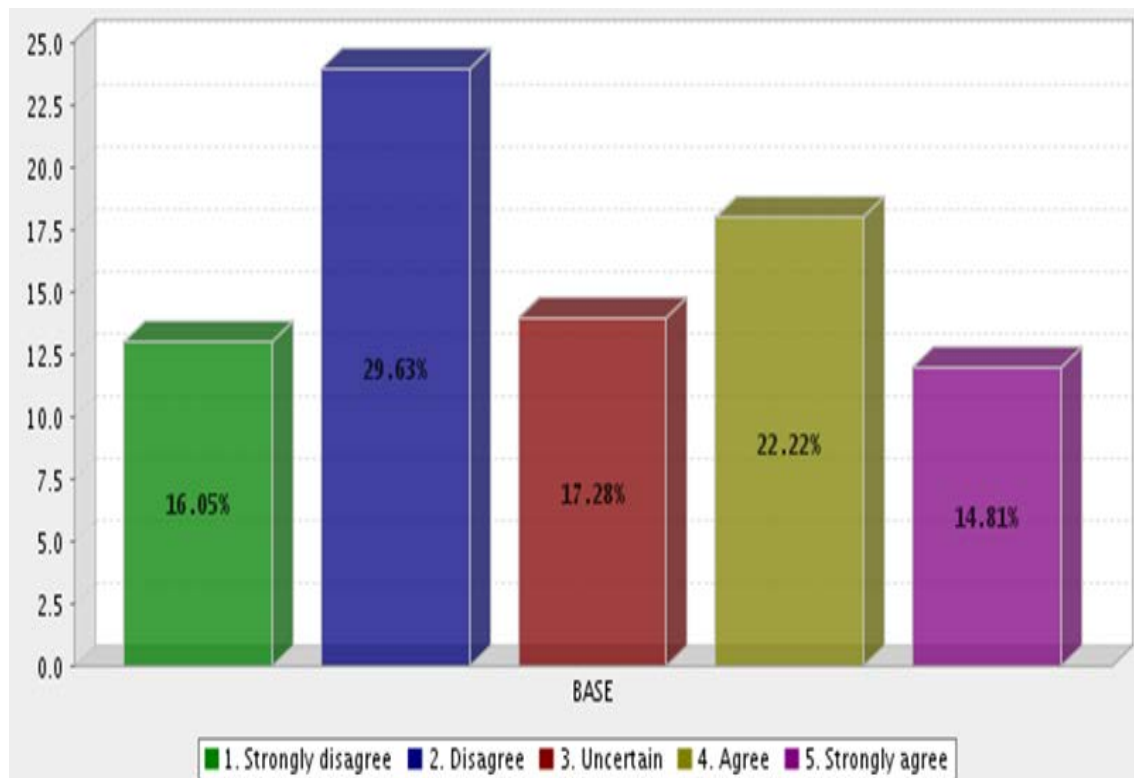


Figure 4.6: My work experience is not fully appreciated in a male dominated workplace.

Past research endorses that occupation has a positive result for women and families, even though this conclusion; women are still challenged by difficulties and misunderstandings that affect their performance in the workplace (Jacobs and Schain 2010). There is certainty that men and women have diverse leadership styles, leadership styles accredited to women are said to reduce their efficiency in the workplace, precisely, women are believed to be more people-oriented in their leadership style and men more task-oriented (Jacobs and Schain 2010). The people-oriented leadership style of women is viewed as less likely to arouse productivity among workers (Jacobs and Schain 2010).

4.4.1.2 My academic qualifications do not mean much in a male dominated workplace.

Figure 4.7 show that a majority of respondents 42.68% disagreed and 17.07% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 26.83% agreed and 4.88% strongly disagreed to it. The respondent's majority do not agree that their academic qualifications are not recognised in a male dominated work setting.

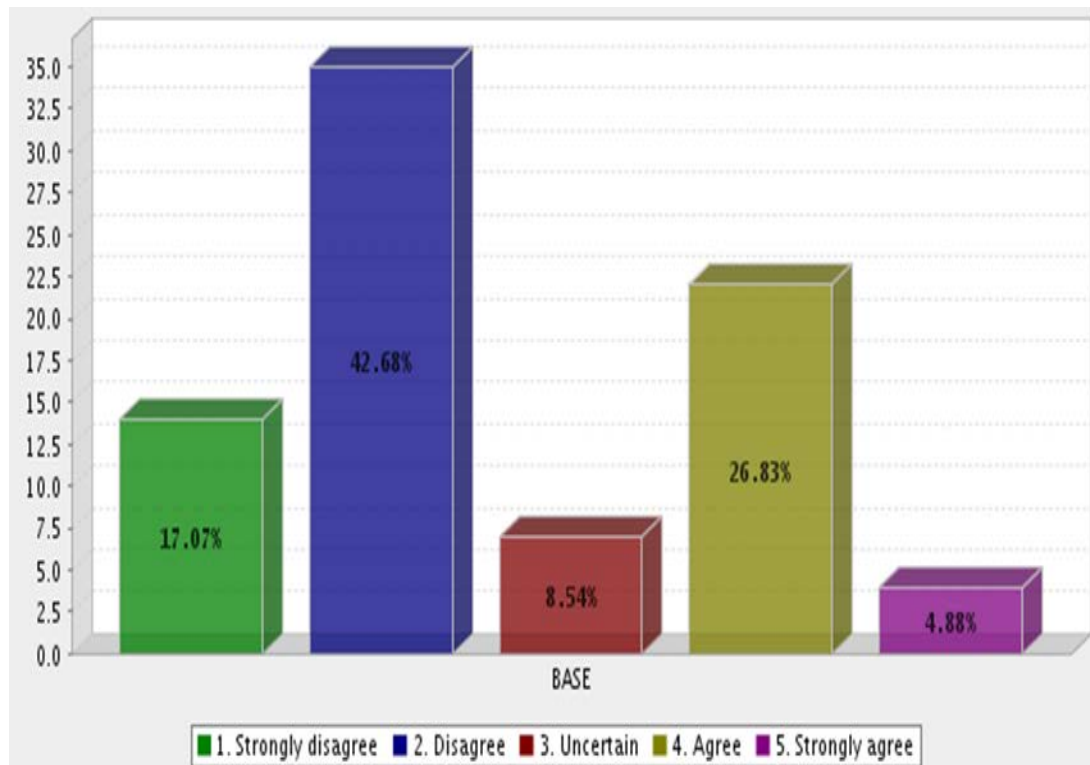


Figure 4.7: My academic qualifications do not mean much in a male dominated workplace.

Careers where women are considered to be subgroups require discovery of ways to assist women in their efforts to prosper professionally (Jacobs and Schain, 2010). The American Bar Association produced the Commission on Women in the Profession in 1987 to find difficulties women attorneys face in their efforts to progress, the commission presented recommendations for eliminating blockades to the progression of female attorneys (Jacobs and Schain, 2010). They have established gender-neutral appraisal procedures and also created a handbook that contains the policies and practices developed by law firms to assist the advancement of women (Jacobs and Schain, 2010).

4.4.1.3 Higher level roles are reserved for men.

Figure 4.8 show that 33.33% of respondents disagreed with the statement while 14.81% strongly disagreed to the statement. 28.40% of respondents agreed with the statement and 14.81% strongly agreed. There was a mix in women perception about promotion. There was almost a balance between respondents who agree and those who disagree to the statement.

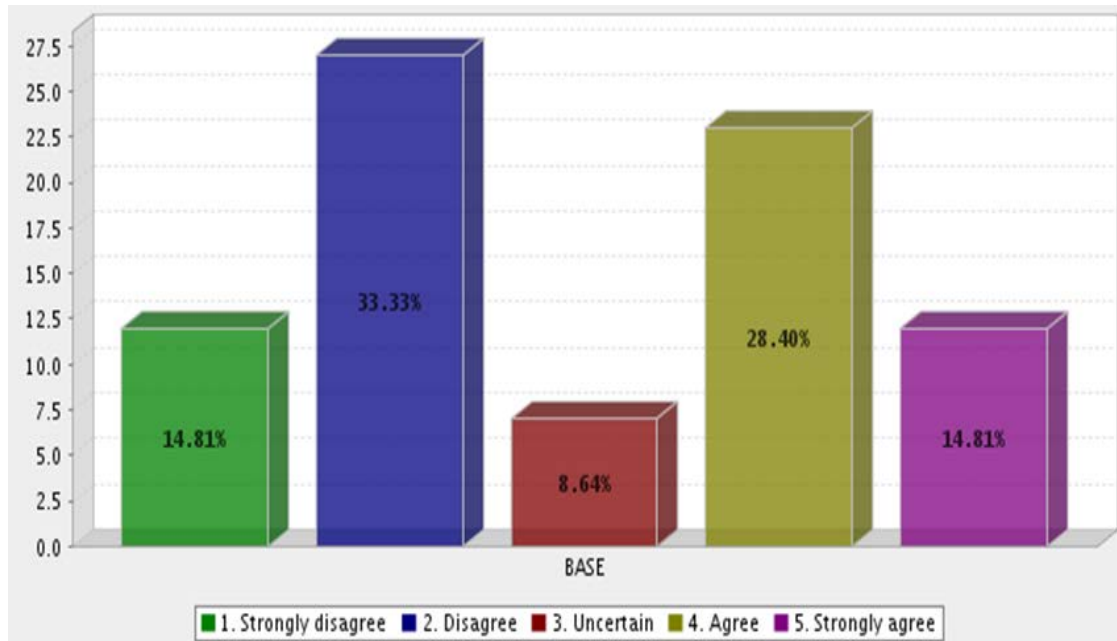


Figure 4.8: Higher level roles are reserved for men.

The drawbacks that women are subjected to seem to have nothing to do with the requirements for positions of leadership, except only to prolong a false opinion that women lack the personality and the experience needed when faced with tough situations (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). Puzzling circumstances request firm decisions and actions taken by any person holding qualities such as “determination”, “fairness”, “confidence”, “honesty”, “assertiveness”, “discipline”, “steadfastness”, “decisiveness” and “aggressiveness” (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). In placing the difficulties confronted by women into perspective, Wisker (1996:90) appositely contends that “women are under-represented in higher and middle management positions in higher education, even in the current post-feminist climate when many people claim there is no need to assert that equality must continue to be striven for.”

Women who desire to turn out to be cream of the crop should be given equal treatment, this means that their applications for any raise, should receive equal devotion and thought that is, and this should be done without discrimination based on unconnected matters (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). Else, let women who want to turn out to be leaders be assessed in the same way as their men comparable (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001).

4.4.1.4 I feel that male stereotypes hinder my potential to land better and influential positions.

Figure 4.9 show that a 40.78% disagreed with the statement and 11.11% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 28.40% agreed with the statement and 9.88% strongly agreed. Women generally disagree to a perception that male stereotypes hinder their potential to be promoted.

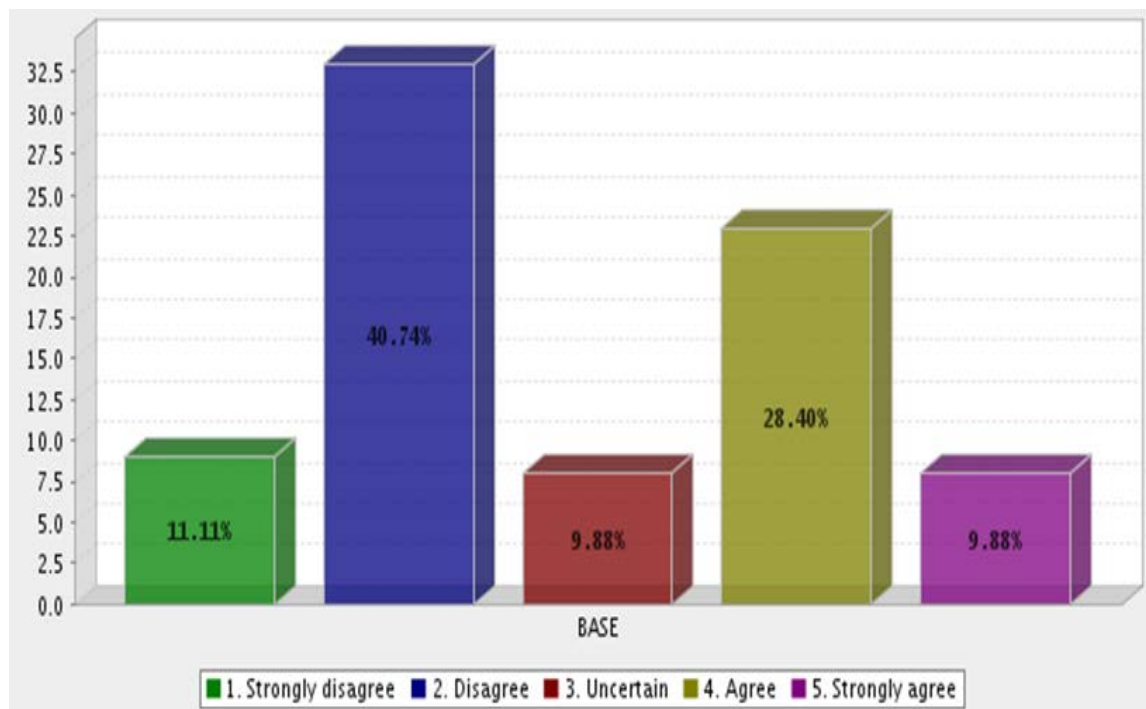


Figure 4.9: I feel that male stereotypes hinder my potential to land better and influential positions.

Gender pigeonholing is a challenge that employed women must deal with. Barnett and Hyde, (2001), conclude that the empirical studies they reviewed challenge gender variances expectations of past philosophies; the conduct of men and women in the workplace is related they said. Differences may have occurred previously but these variances are rapidly vanishing (Jacobs and Schain 2010). Grogan (1996:25) said that “women must make their demands and their claim along with others; make them powerfully and passionately. Only then can discrimination and stereotyping be effectively eliminated.”

4.4.2 Objective 2: To Assess How Women Balance Family Commitments and Workplace Commitments

Objective 2 had the following statements to be answered by the research:

- I give more priority to family commitments than work commitments.
- I am a mother first and a corporate woman second.
- I prefer working in an office close to home as I do not want to be away from my family for extended periods.
- I am reluctant to accept assignments that require long periods of time away from home; I would rather my male counterpart take up such assignments.
- I am not comfortable with corporate networking sessions that go beyond working hours.

4.4.2.1 I give more priority to family commitments than work commitments.

Figure 4.10 show that 40.74% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 13.58% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 24.69% agreed with statement and 14.81% strongly agreed. Women disagree to the statement and the implication is that those with family have a good balance for work vs. family commitments.

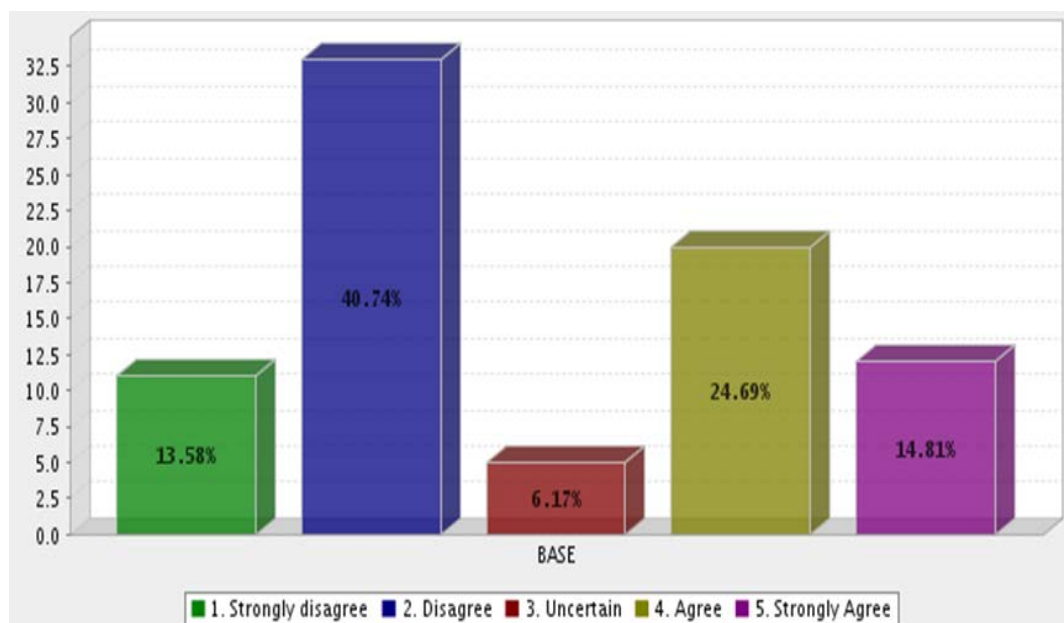


Figure 4.10: I give more priority to family commitments than work commitments.

Women encounter tension produced by role clash or numerous roles. Past research suggested that, the use and choice of coping strategies may be a factor in reducing such tension (Billings and Moos, 1981; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, and Gruen, 1986; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978). A coping reserve that has been recognized to decrease tension is social support (Eckenrode, 1991; Eckenrode and Gore, 1990; Greenhaus, 1988). The precise social support tools most helpful to employed women are emotional support and tangible support. Tangible support is defined as providing some kind of help for another person (Jacobs and Schain, 2010).

4.4.2.2 I am a mother first and a corporate woman second.

Figure 4.11 show that 35.37% of respondents agreed to the statement and 18.29% strongly agreed with statement. Some 25.61% disagreed and 10.98% strongly disagreed. The general perception to the statement is that maternal responsibilities are primary to women. This statement somewhat contradicts the previous one as women felt they have a struck a balance between family and work commitments.

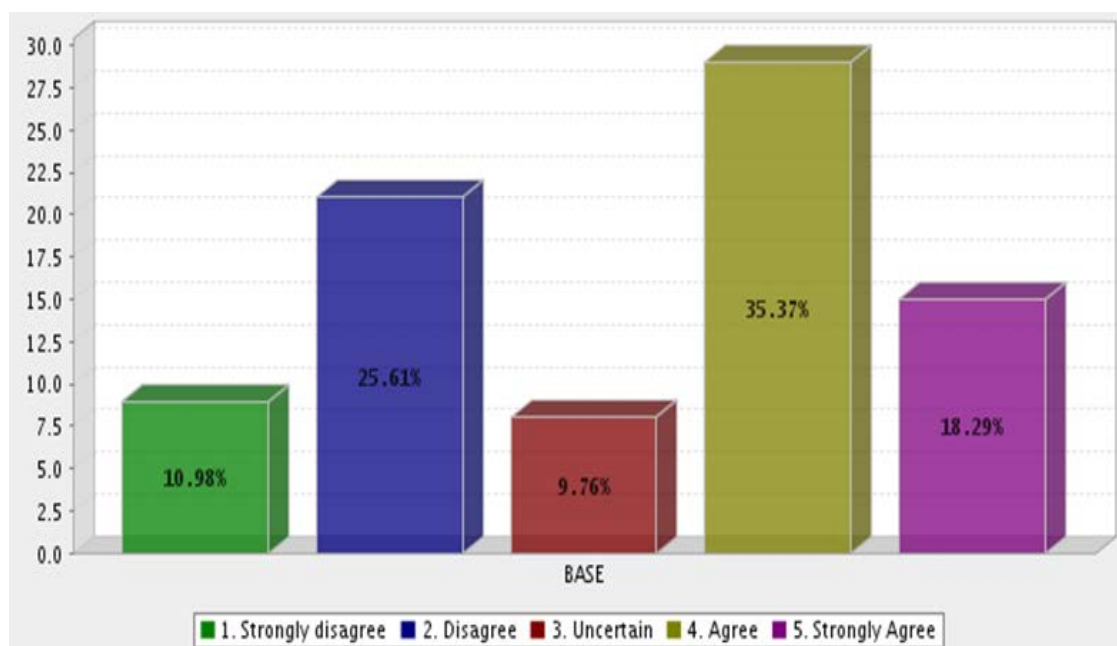


Figure 4.11: I am a mother first and a corporate woman second.

Work-family fit is a fairly new notion in work-family writings. Fit defines the connection between the stresses placed on people and their determinations to meet those demands (Pittman, 1994). If individuals can effortlessly meet their work, personal, and family goals, given current stresses, then they have good “fit.” If they do so with effort, they do not have

good fit (Barnett, 1998). Good fit hypothetically leads to positive work-family results, including job gratification, marital gratification, and gratification with work-family balance (Clarke, Koch and Hill, 2004). Women experience significantly more occupation and family related stressors than men (Anderson and Leslie, 1991, Tausig and Fenwick, 2001). Yet, most recent literature has not established major differences between the quantity of the work-to-family struggle men and women experience (Frone, 2003; Hill, Hawkins, Märtinson, and Ferris, 2003).

4.4.2.3 I prefer working in an office close to home as I do not want to be away from my family for extended periods.

Figure 4.12 show that 36.71% of respondents agreed with the statement and 26.58% strongly agreed with statement. Some 24.05% disagreed with the statement and 11.39% strongly disagreed. Women generally prefer being close to their families and not be away for extended periods.

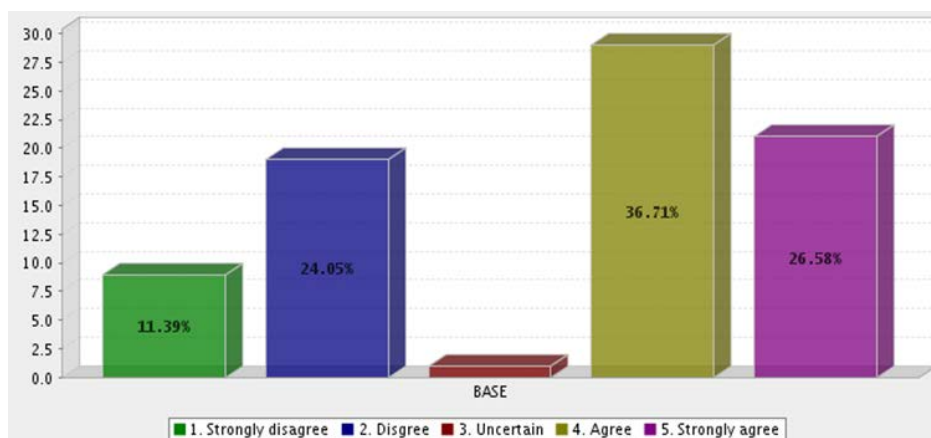


Figure 4.12: I prefer working in an office close to home as I do not want to be away from my family for extended periods.

There is a work/family conflict that predominantly affects working women, it is prolonged labour hours. (Piotrkowski, Rapoport and Rapoport, 1987). There is research that advocates that a child's well-being is affected as an outcome of nonexistence of time with parents (Piotrkowski et al 1987). Precisely, "the lack of sensitive, responsive, and consistent care from overworked parents or substitute providers can lead to decreased cognitive and social

skills (Percele and Menaghan 1994), and can promote attachment insecurity in children (Belsky, 1990)” (Glass and Estes, 1997: 295). Some book-keeping firms are aggressively involved in encouraging the progression of women. For example, Ernst and Young have an entire Web site dealing with flex time. The company reports that 2300 workers have flex time provisions. KPMG has increased the chances for women to get high profile projects which are part of the career ladder to promotion. They necessitate that at least one woman be considered for each high profile task (Swanson, 2004).

4.4.3.4 I am reluctant to accept assignments that require long periods of time away from home; I would rather my male counterpart take up such assignments.

Figure 4.13 show that 36.25% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 25.00% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 15.00% of respondents agreed with the statement and 11.25% strongly agreed with the statement. In total 12.50% of respondents were uncertain. Women disagree with the statement; the responses show that they are generally comfortable with expatriate assignments.

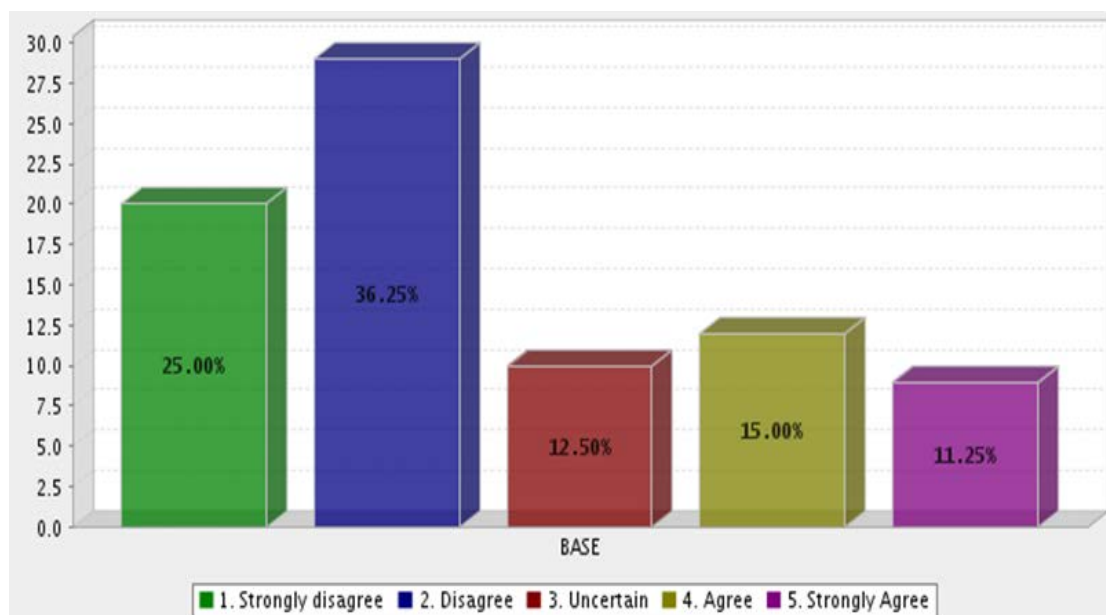


Figure 4.13: I am reluctant to accept assignments that require long periods of time away from home; I would rather my male counterpart take up such assignments.

Past research has determined that employed women with tight diaries report extra family difficulties than employed women with flexible diaries (Ralston, 1990). It has been determined that there is a connection between the absence of job flexibility and sadness

(Googins, 1991). It has been reported that, “when family responsibilities expand, mothers are more likely than fathers to change jobs, to work part-time, or exit the labour force for a spell because families cannot afford to lose fathers’ wages, the result is often a decrease in mothers’ financial and occupational attainment” (Glass and Estes, 1997:297).

4.4.2.5 I am not comfortable with corporate networking sessions that go beyond working hours.

Figure 4.14 show that the majority of respondents 44.44% disagreed with the statement and 17.28% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 18.52% agreed with the statement and 11.11% strongly agreed. Women disagree with the statement, the majority of responses show that women are comfortable with networking sessions that happen after hours and on weekends.

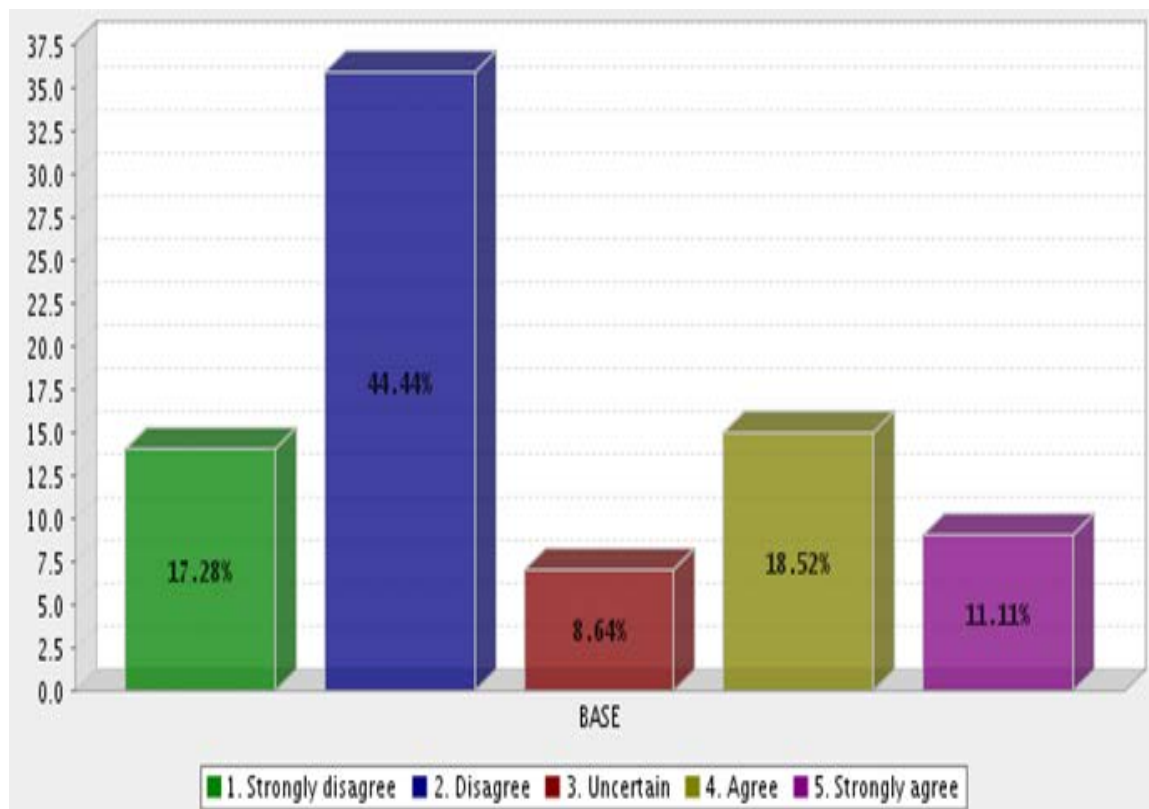


Figure 4.14: I am not comfortable with corporate networking sessions that go beyond working hours.

Business interacting comprises of individuals trying to develop and maintain connections with those thought to have the possibility to help them in their careers. Efficacious networking can positively impact a multiplicity of occupation results such as increased job

chances, job performance, pay, raises and career gratification. Networking is also tremendously significant in providing other perceptible benefits, such as access to data, acquiring prominence, career guidance, relationships, social support, business leads, wealth, teamwork, career planning and strategy making, and professional support and encouragement (Green, 1982).

Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz, (1988) determined that managers engaged in four types of activities:

- old-style management,
- mundane communication,
- human resource management
- networking.

Networking was defined as interrelating with strangers and mixing or campaigning. Of the four types of actions, Luthans et al (1988) found that a manager's ability to network was the strongest forecaster of managerial success.

4.4.3 Objective 3: To Assess If Women are Confident in Their Ability to Fulfil Their Roles at Work

Objective 3 had the following statements to be answered by the research:

- I am intimidated by male competition.
- Men are more dominant at work as compared to women.
- I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by leadership.
- I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by peers.
- I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by subordinates.
- As a woman I am not comfortable with giving men work instructions.

4.4.3.1 I am intimidated by male competition.

Figure 4.15 show that 44.44% and 38.27% of respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. Only a small number of respondents were positive with only 6.17% for both agreed and strongly agreed. According to the responses women are not intimidated by male competition.

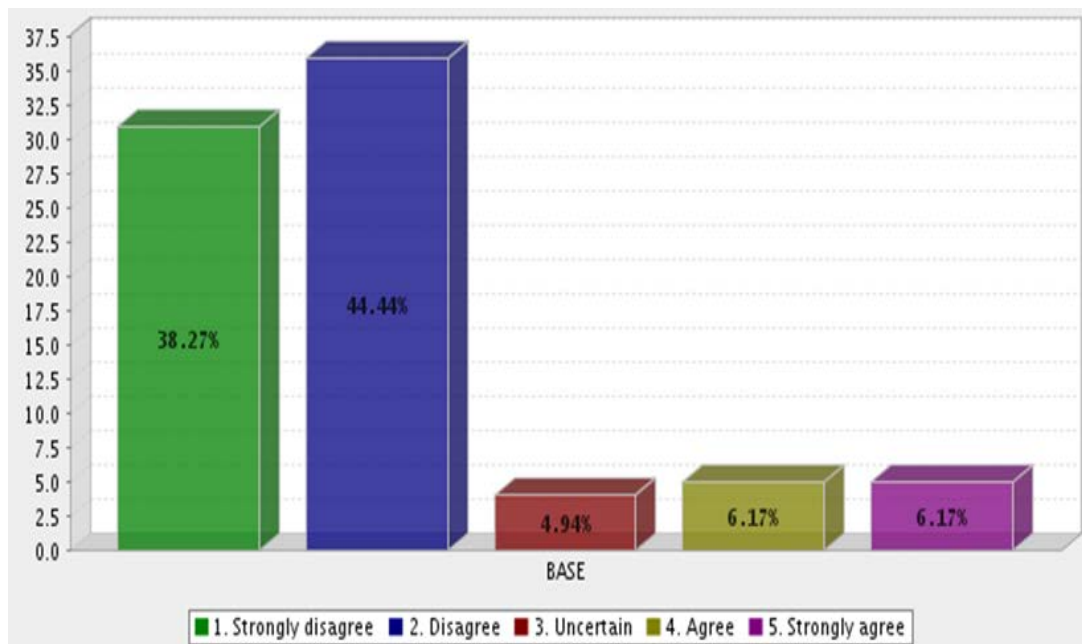


Figure 4.15: I am intimidated by male competition.

Men and women communicate differently and; therefore, negotiate differently (Miller, 2003). The prosperous feminine professional must not only comprehend the sex differences in communication but be talented to use them to her improvement as well.

Miller (2003) labels a man's system of communicating as "guy speak."

She explains:

"For example, when a man leaves a meeting and you ask him how it went, he will probably say great. He is not really conveying any information about what happened at the meeting; rather, he is simply acting confident. A woman, in contrast, might answer the same question with, "Okay, but I could have handled the cost issue a little better. Like the man's comment, hers does not necessarily describe what happened at the meeting. Rather, it reflects her desire for perfection. If you rely on what each actually says, without taking into the account the gender of the speaker, you are liable to draw erroneous conclusions. The same is true when men and women negotiate. The different negotiating styles men and women tend to exhibit are a natural corollary to these different communication styles. The relational style usually associated with women focuses on the relationship between the parties. Inherent in that negotiating style is a desire not only to achieve substantive objectives but also to develop the relationship between two sides. The competitive style usually associated with men focuses more on the substantive outcome of the negotiation. Some women who are

more comfortable with a relational style adopt a competitive one because they believe it to be more effective, especially in business settings, you, not only need to be able to move from one to the other depending upon whom you are negotiating with” (Miller, 2003:49).

4.4.3.2 Men are more dominant at work as compared to women.

Figure 4.16 show that 28.40% of respondents agreed with the statement and 18.52% of respondents strongly agreed. 25.93% of respondents disagreed and 20.99% strongly disagreed. There is almost a balance between respondents who agreed and those who disagreed that men are more dominant at work.

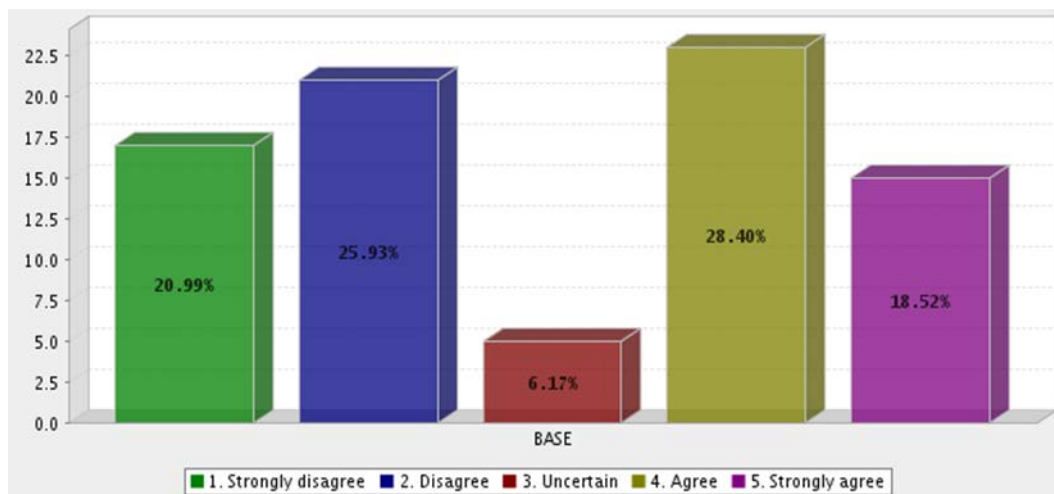


Figure 4.16: Men are more dominant at work as compared to women.

Ouston (1993:9) states that “women have difficulty in developing an authoritative voice, they tend to be modest about their achievements and knowledge and to only speak assertively when concerned about others.” Conceivably, the women’s absence of forcefulness on matters affecting them is a consequence of their predisposition to be kind, fond, accepting, understanding, enduring, accommodative, and zealous even when trials and conditions mandate otherwise (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). Leadership is a challenging job, for amongst other things it demands attentiveness, certainty, inquisitiveness, undertaking, daringness and forcefulness (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001).

Back and Back, in Armstrong (1991:27), describe assertiveness as “standing up for your own rights in such a way that you do not violate another person’s rights, expressing your needs, wants, opinions, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways.”

4.4.3.3 I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by leadership.

Figure 4.17 show that 35.37% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 13.41% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 26.83% agreed with the statement and 14.63% of respondents strongly agreed. 9.76% of respondents were uncertain. Women responses show that they almost disagreed with the statement that leadership does not take women seriously.

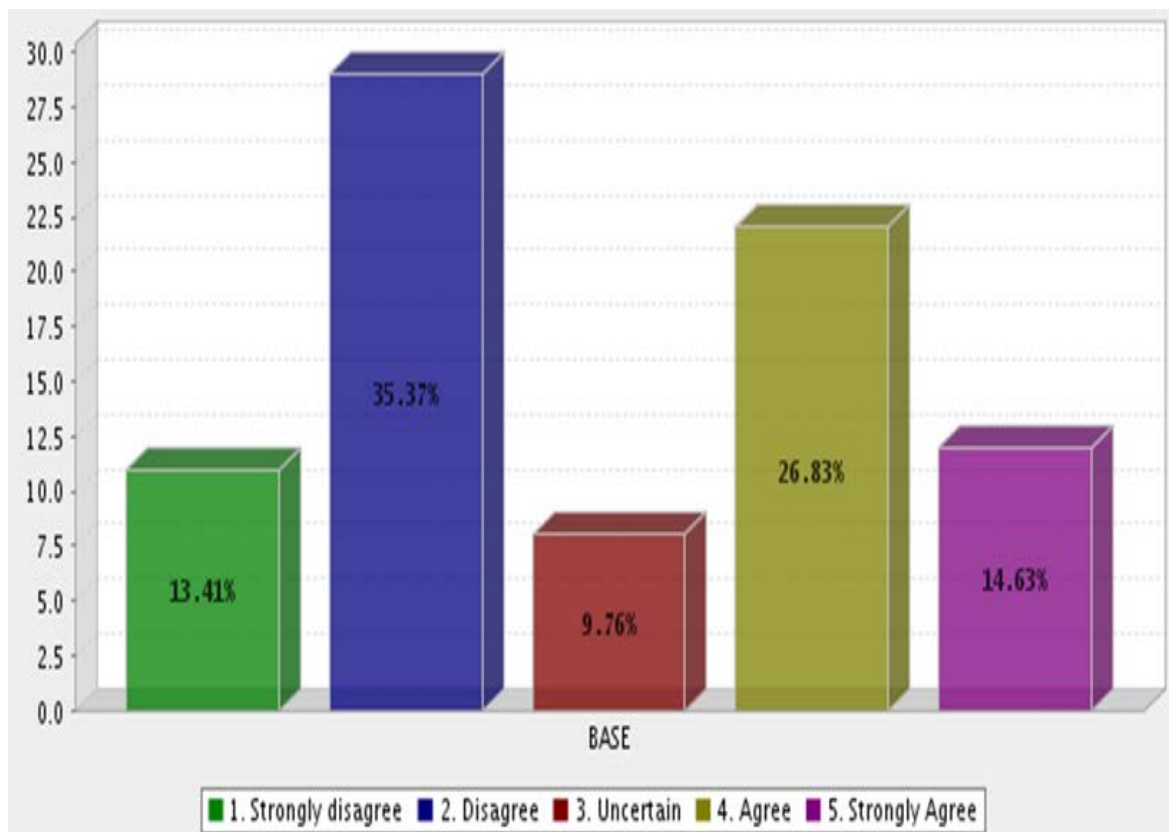


Figure 4.17: I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by leadership.

It is professed that women lack leadership, henceforth; it is observed as one of the blockades that count against them when applicants are considered for raises (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). McCulloch (1984:14) introduces to this debate a worrying reflection which says “when the roles of women are considered in social life, they are characterised as passive and emotional.” Meaning, this observation simmers down to the simple supposition that women are driven by sentiments and inaction instead of significant leadership elements such as, certainty, morality, resoluteness, justice, inquisitiveness and undertaking (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). Seemingly, women are less inquisitive, daring and intrusive to explore new territories (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). In this context, Waitley (1996:1) described “perhaps it’s inherent

in human nature to seek the security of living and working in a known environment, but in order to achieve success today you simply can't remain in your carefully constructed comfort zone." Unless women are daring, like most efficacious men they cannot expect to make any expressive imprint into the leadership positions (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001).

Mathipa and Tsoka (2001:326) classify preconceptions that are mostly produced by leading decision makers who happen to be male; the hypotheses that regard women as missing boldness are the following:

- women tend to be violent instead of being forceful;
- women tend to be sorry when they are expected to be pivotal;
- women turn out to be easily annoyed when they should be cool;
- women are tend to wonder when they should be concentrate;
- women tend to become negative when they should be positive

Properly, all these agree that men and women are not the same, but exist as they do in order to balance each other (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001).

4.4.3.4 I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by peers.

Figure 4.18 show that 41.98% and 16.05% of respondents disagree and strongly disagree with the statement respectively. 20.99% and 14.81% of respondents agree and strongly agree respectively. 6.17% of respondents were uncertain. Women disagreed with the statement in general.

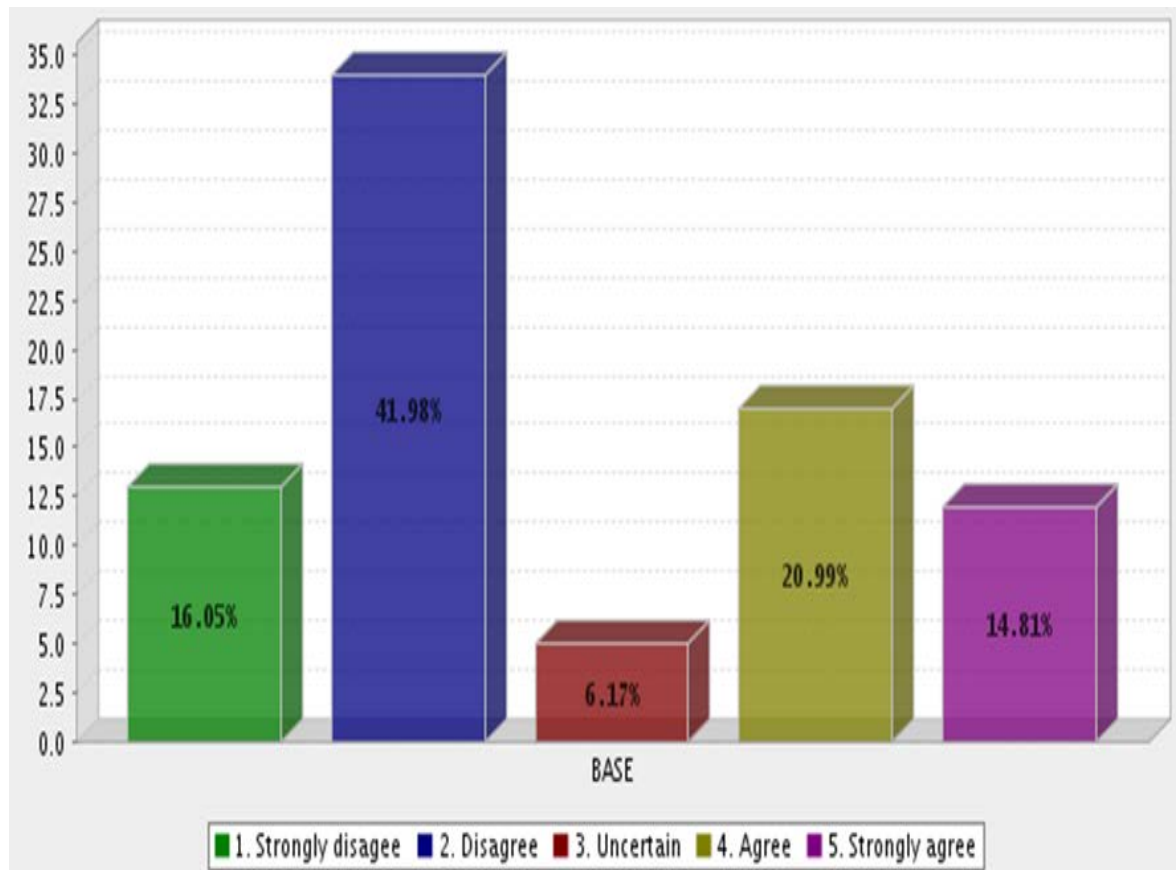


Figure 4.18: I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by peers.

Employed women recurrently protest of feeling socially secluded. This is predominantly spot-on for women in senior positions. The feeling of social seclusion can destructively distress a woman seeking to advance professionally. Fresh studies have shown that mentoring by other women may help women obtain the skills needed to succeed (Keating, 2002). The mentoring relationship is valuable at any point in a career.

“College-age women, women just entering the workforce and women changing careers are ripe for mentoring. It can boost your self-esteem, make you feel more competent and develop your professional identity” (Keating, 2002:28).

4.4.3.5 I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by subordinates.

Figure 4.19 show that 43.21% and 20.99% of respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement respectively. 18.52% of respondents agreed with the statement while only 7.41% of respondents strongly agreed. 9.88% of respondents were uncertain. The respondents disagreed to the statement.

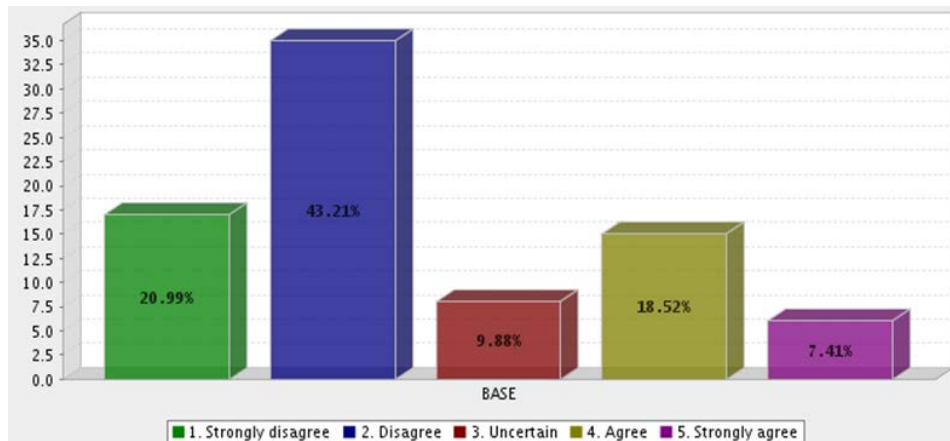


Figure 4.19: I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by subordinates.

Powney and Weiner in Ouston (1993:9) said that “confidence is the key to becoming and remaining a manager.” Yet, the solitary physical method in which one could better comprehend how the notion confidence operates, is by observing how an individual who is persuaded that he or she holds the needed know-how, and also believes in his or her competences, and therefore has self-confidence, executes particular roles when called upon to do so (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001). Grogan (1996:165) states that “the behaviour of a leader does not constitute leadership until it is perceived to do so by an observer.” In this respect, it could be said that, confidence is married to performance, for through performance one is able to reveal his or her understanding and abilities (Mathipa and Tsoka, 2001).

“The implication is that, action speaks louder than words, meaning that the taste of the pudding is in the eating. In other words, confidence is manifested by the ability to perform rather than to talk. Briefly, confidence as a character is perceived to constitute a perfect example of what a positive minded leader can accomplish through performance” (Mathipa and Tsoka 2001: 327).

4.4.3.6 As a woman I am not comfortable with giving men work instructions.

Figure 4.20 show that 43.90% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 29.27% of respondents strongly disagreed. Some 6.10% of respondents agreed and 13.41% strongly agreed. Women generally disagreed with the statement.

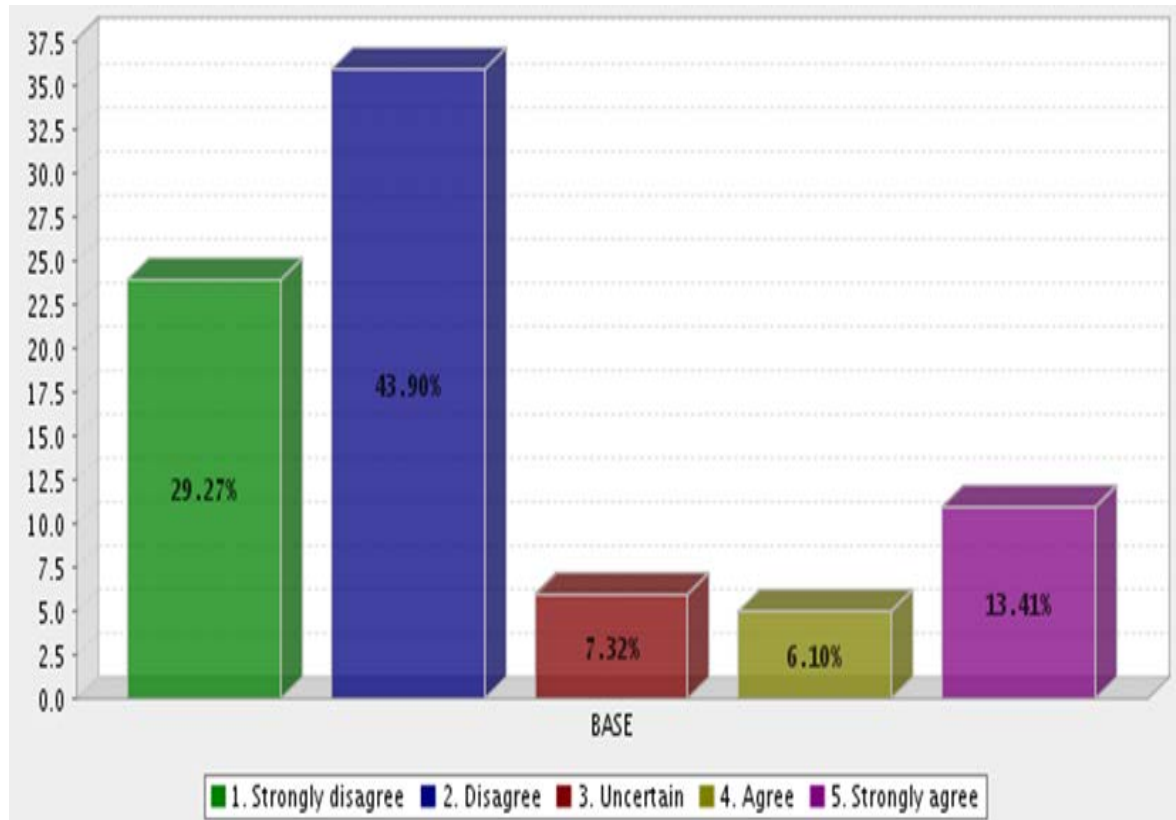


Figure 4.20: As a woman I am not comfortable with giving men work instructions.

Ouston (1993:5) says that “men are still the prime barrier to women in management. Despite some progress, old fashioned sexist attitudes are still common and represent a real, not imagined, barrier to the progress of women.” Negative reactions to female authority may stem, in part, from an inherent model for male leaders and the attendant belief that it is more natural for men to take control (Rudman and Kilianski, 2000). Individuals may be comforted by male leadership for the simple fact that they are used to viewing men as authority figures and women as assistants. Therefore, women who occupy male-dominated leadership positions may be unpopular both implicitly and explicitly because they crack beliefs that men (not women) occupy powerful roles (Rudman and Kilianski, 2000).

4.4.4 Objective 4: To Assess If Women in the Work Place Think That They are Respected for Their Ability and Skills.

Objective 4 had the following statements to be answered by the research:

- I feel respected by male counterparts at work.
- I command respect at work.
- I do not get respect from female subordinates.
- I do not get respect from male subordinates.

4.4.4.1 I feel respected by male counterparts at work.

Figure 4.21 shows that the majority of respondents 48.75% agreed with the statement and 12.50% strongly agreed. Some 22.50% of respondents were uncertain. 7.50% of respondents disagreed and 8.75% strongly disagreed with the statement. Women generally agreed and have a perception that they are respected by their male counterparts.

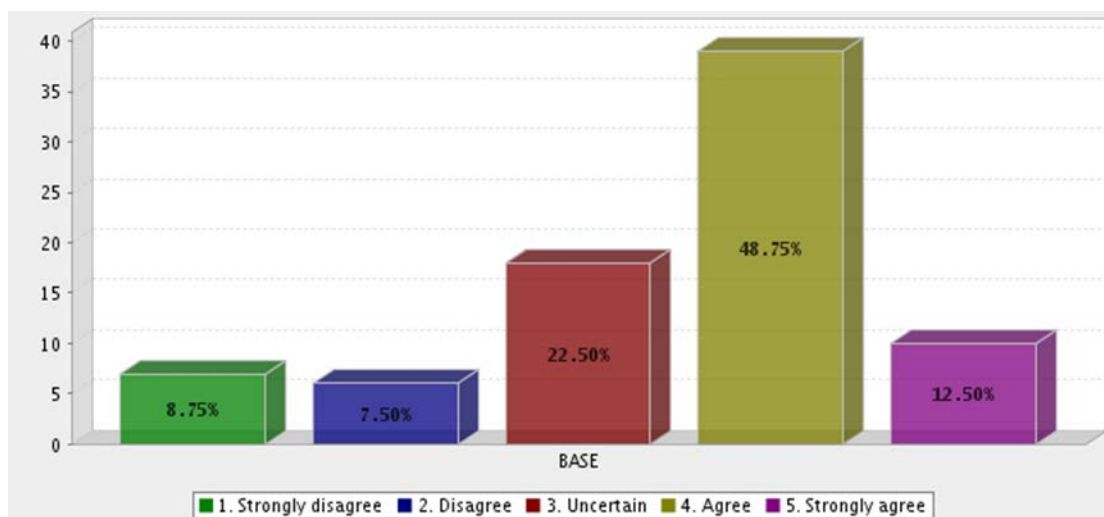


Figure 4.21: I feel respected by male counterparts at work.

Jonkheid and Mango (2008) in a research on Gender Equity for the National Gambling Board found that; a fair number of female managers felt that their younger male colleagues especially on the middle and lower management level were supportive of gender equity initiatives. The male colleagues in fact respected the women, recognised and valued their skills and abilities and treated them professionally as equal partners and valuable members of the group. A few respondents believed that the positive feedback depended on their own attitude towards their male counterparts – men tended to find it easier to relate to competent

and assertive women that possessed good listening skills and cultivate amicable relationships with their male colleagues (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008).

4.4.4.2 I command respect at work.

Figure 4.22 shows that the majority of respondents 45.00% agreed with the statement and 22.50% strongly agreed. Some 18.75% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 3.75% strongly disagreed. 10.00% of respondents were uncertain. The respondents generally felt that they commanded respect at work.

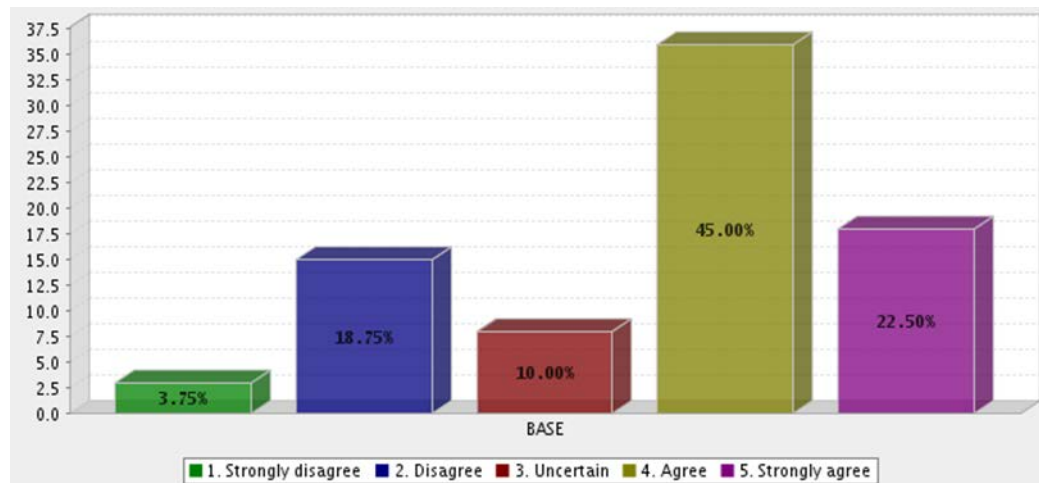


Figure 4.22: I command respect at work.

Past research reveals that, female managers complained about certain unpleasantness that sprung from the primarily male-orientated workplace (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). These, they said, centred on issues like disrespect towards women and intimidation, male chauvinism and paternalism, obvious exclusion from the 'old boys' network, obvious favouritism towards males, professional jealousy, miscommunication and women being viewed as a threat (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). Some men appeared totally ignorant of the concept of gender equity and there were even some cases of sexism (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). A few respondents believed that some men still totally disregard the potential of women as leaders and saw the appointment of women in senior positions as mere tokenism and something to be tolerated only in the name of the political game (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). The older male generation was most often guilty of giving their female colleagues a hard time through constant criticism and an undermining of ideas proposed by women, being unapproachable and showing a reluctance to accept instructions from women (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). Women felt that they had to be on the defence all the time, fight to get their

point across and work just that bit harder to prove their value to the company (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008).

4.4.4.3 I do not get respect from female subordinates.

Figure 4.23 shows that the majority of respondents 54.32% disagreed with the statement and 22.22% strongly disagreed. 7.41% of respondents agreed with the statement and 11.11% of respondents strongly agreed with the statement. The respondents in general disagreed with the statement.

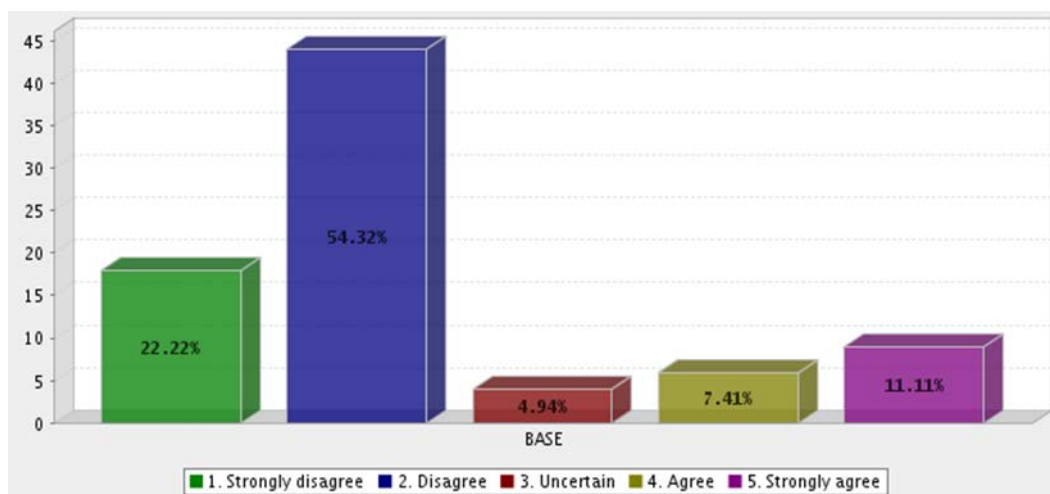


Figure 4.23: I do not get respect from female subordinates.

Motivated women's unease is that they will be observed harmfully by co-workers and may recognise it essential to cover-up their determinations so as not to feel embarrassed of their thirst for power (Heifetz, 2007). Heifetz continued, "Keeping these desires under wraps generates a self-defeating dynamic in which many women remain inhibited in trying to get the power they want" (2007:316). He also admitted that even if women received jobs of power in professional settings, it would not cure the matters surrounding the accomplishments of women in the workplace and, more precisely, the development of helpful relations between women (Heifetz, 2007). Relations among women do not look to be reassuring (Jones and Palmer, 2011). Heim and Murphy (2003:2) found that, women steadily failed to support other women and even vigorously challenged their authority and trustworthiness and aggressively damaged each other. Women are the first to attack other women who are promoted (Heim and Murphy, 2003). "Competition is caused by feelings of inadequacy, which is fostered by a very real societal situation: woman's restrictive roles"

(Tanenbaum, 2002:39). Women will limit other's entrance to "important meetings and committees; withhold information, assignments and promotions," or will block connections with mentors and other people of impact (Klaus, 2009: 5), in order to uphold their symbolic jobs and hold back their rivals, their female co-workers (Jones and Palmer, 2011). Older women can dislike those younger than them, specifically when the older women identify that they are not being given the admiration they are due (Mooney, 2005). This insight of insolence could be produced by female supervisor's lack of successful relationships in their progressive years (Jones and Palmer, 2011).

4.4.4.4 I do not get respect from male subordinates.

Figure 4.24 show that the majority of respondents 50.00% disagreed with the statement and 14.63% strongly disagreed with the statement. Some 9.76% agreed with the statement and 13.41% strongly agreed with the statement. 12.20% of respondents were uncertain. The respondents generally disagree with the statement.

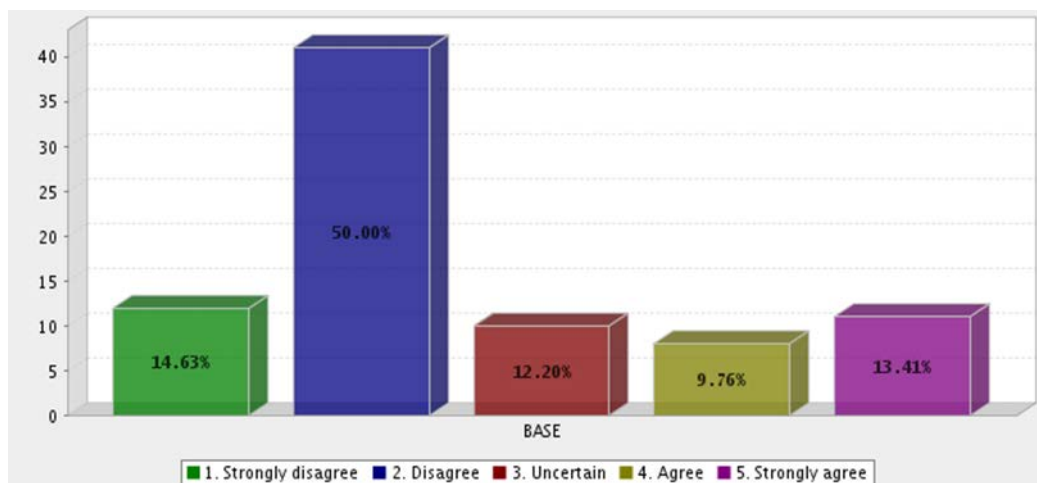


Figure 4.24: I do not get respect from male subordinates.

In past research by Jonkheid and Mango (2008), all female respondents reflected that the communication and relationships with male subordinates was much easier and more comfortable. The male subordinates were more liberal in their acceptance and acknowledgement of the superior wisdom, experience and authoritative power of the female managers and often saw them as role models (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). "They were cooperative and supportive even though the relationships stayed professional" (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008: 21). Teams worked well together because relationships were based on mutual respect for competences, tasks were equally shared and co-workers empowered each other

(Jonkheid and Mango, 2008). The female managers felt that this good working relationship was, amongst others, the positive result of the emotionally intelligent and empathetic way in which they conducted themselves, shared and implemented their ideas and also used their knowledge and experience to educate their male subordinates (Jonkheid and Mango, 2008).

4.4.5 Objective 5: To Assess Women's Views on the Employment Equity Act

Objective 5 had the following statements to be answered by the research:

- The Employment Equity Act is patronising to women.
- Employment Equity is nothing more than window dressing.

4.4.5.1 The Employment Equity Act is patronising to women.

Figure 4.25 show that 45.00% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 17.50% of respondents disagreed. Some 8.75% and 7.50% of respondents agreed and strongly agreed to the statement respectively. 21.25% of respondents were uncertain. Women disagreed with the statement that the Employment Equity Act is patronising to women.

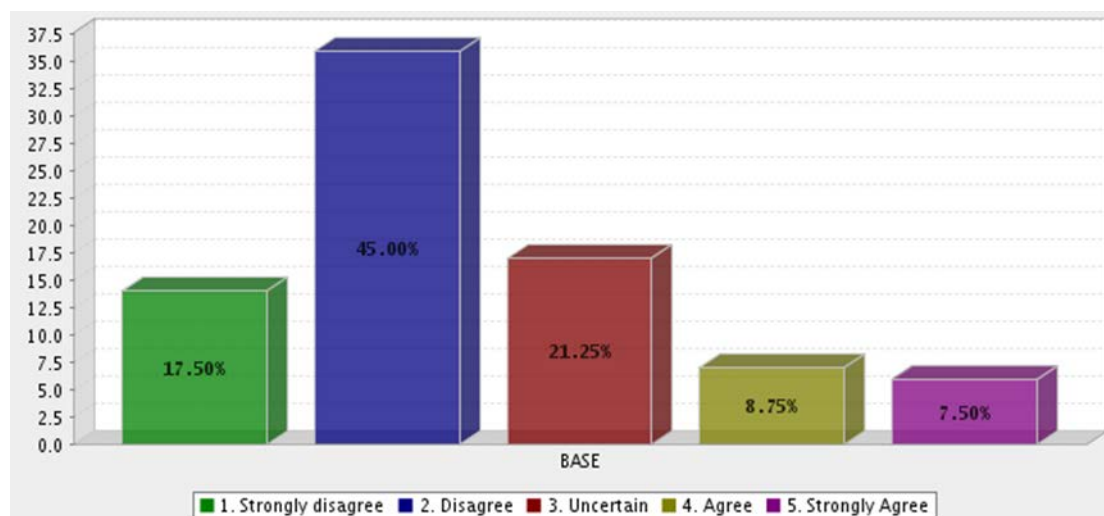


Figure 4.25: The Employment Equity Act is patronising to women.

A disturbing trend noticed in the South African Employment Equity (EE) Commission reports (2002, 2003, 2004, 2006) and established in other reviews and studies (Bennet 2001; Commission for EE 2006; Kilian, Hukai and McCarty 2005; Sadler and Erasmus 2003; Selby and Sutherland 2006; Temkin 2003; Thomas 2004) that is related to organisational climate and philosophy is that the retaining rate for black workforce has dropped and

countless South African businesses are losing black people as fast as they hire them. The following is a summary of suggested reasons for these high erosion rates, identified in the above studies:

- Slow EE growth at management level and unpredictable growth across departments in organisations
- Low pledge to EE from top management, with lip service by leadership about the need for EE
- Hopeless talk and communication around EE progress and implementation
- A lack of cultural sympathy where new recruits are expected to integrate into the current organisational culture
- A lack of cultural consciousness programmes and of an organisational culture that values multiplicity
- A white male leading organisational culture that continues to exclude (formally or informally through exclusionary network practices) black recruits
- Black people are selected as tokens and not fully integrated into companies because of little delegation of real responsibility or decision-making authority, owing to the persistence of stereotypes
- Black staff are not systematically developed and trained – no effective talent management Lack of black mentors and role models

4.4.5.2 Employment Equity is nothing more than window dressing.

Figure 4.26 show that 28.40% of respondents disagreed with the statement and 11.11% of respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. 22.22% of respondents agreed with the statement and 11.11% strongly agreed. Some 27.16% of respondents were uncertain. There was uncertainty about the statement that Employment Equity is nothing more than a window dressing.

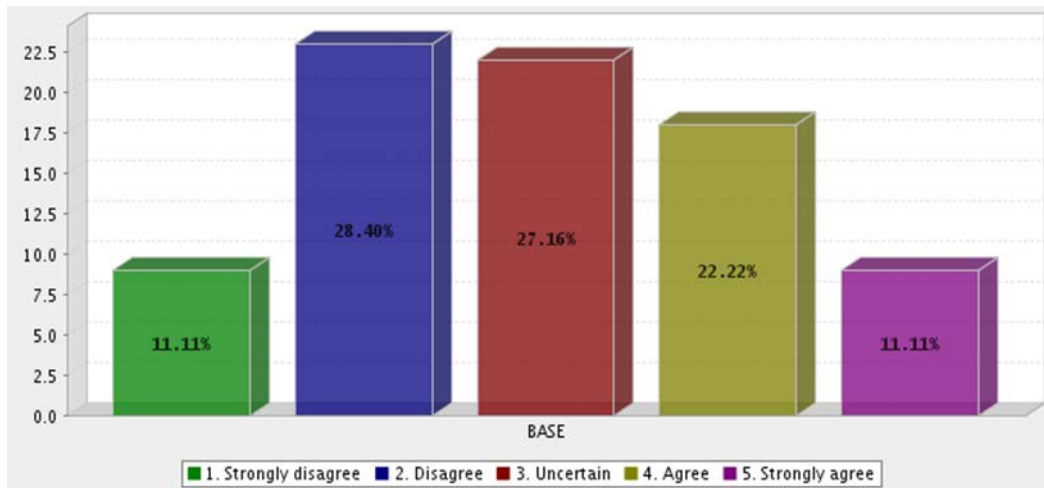


Figure 4.26: Employment Equity is nothing more than window dressing.

Black women appointments are perceived as tokenism and it is a major barrier to the retention of black employees and effective EE implementation (Booyesen, 2007). Black workers are not fully incorporated into most businesses because there is little assignment of tangible accountability or decision-making power (Booyesen, 2007). Black workers are often reminded that they are Affirmative Action (AA) or EE appointments and their input is not seen as appreciated and they are professed to be inept, by some whites (Booyesen, 2007).

Corporate organisations do not fully grip staff mixture. Diversity is not simply a repackaging of equal employment opportunities and AA. However, both the latter practices have key repercussions for managing workforce diversity in South Africa (Booyesen, 2007). An organisation that highlights quota filling as a major part of its diversity effort will wane the real intent of valuing diversity (Booyesen, 2007). In its place, importance should be put on hurried training and development of the previously disadvantaged groups to equip them with skills that will enable effective performance. There is a need to mix EE and skills development planning to ensure that these support one another to facilitate staff mixture management initiatives in South Africa (Booyesen, 2007).

CHAPTER FIVE - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the research findings and the perceptions of corporate women to the notion of glass. This chapter discusses the conclusions with reference to the problem statement and objectives outlined in Chapter One. Further to that it provides the recommendations that could be considered in addressing the glass ceiling. Finally, it provides areas for future research.

5.2 Conclusions and Recommendations for Set Objectives

This section combines the objectives in Chapter One with the findings in Chapter Four of this study. The objectives of the study were answered by unpacking the responses from the questionnaires by the respondents.

5.2.1. Objective 1: To assess if women experience the glass ceiling barrier to career advancement

Conclusion,

Generally, the sample of women who responded to the questionnaire did not feel that they experience a glass ceiling to career advancement. The respondents leaned more on disagree and strongly disagree to statements made, that suggests that they could be experiencing barriers to career advancement. This could be attributed mainly to the transformation at the corporations at which they work as well as the positions the sampled women occupy.

Recommendations,

- a) Women should read more and understand what the glass ceiling is and what it means.
- b) Women must aim higher and not settle for less influential positions.

5.2.2. Objective 2: To assess how women balance family commitments and workplace commitments

Conclusion,

There was a balance to this objective with women disagreeing and some agreeing to the statements. This suggests that as much as women are child bearers and family oriented, they fulfil work roles equally to their male counterparts. This also suggests that women are not willing to entertain the thought of being side-lined or overlooked for demanding and influential roles just because they are mothers.

Recommendations,

- a) Organisations must allow women an opportunity to work on key or strategic accounts equally to men.
- b) Child-bearing women must be given space to attend to their children without a fear of losing key occupations.

5.2.3. Objective 3: To assess if women are confident in their ability to fulfil their roles at work.

Conclusion,

The respondents generally felt confident in their roles and were not intimidated by male dominance at workplaces. Women, through their responses to questionnaire statements demonstrated that they were in indeed confident in their ability to fulfil work roles. The respondents also demonstrated that they were confident that senior leadership, peers and subordinates took them seriously.

Recommendation,

- a) The lessons and perceptions of Durban corporate women from this research are shared nationally to promote women confidence at corporate level.

5.2.4. Objective 4: To assess if women in the work place think that they are respected for their ability and skills.

Conclusion,

The respondents were generally positive in their responses. The responses reflected that women are respected by male counterparts, peers and subordinates. The respondents also felt that they command respect and their professional capabilities are respected.

Recommendation,

- a) The lessons and perceptions of Durban corporate women from this research are shared nationally to promote a culture of workplace respect specifically gender based respect.

5.2.5. Objective 5: To assess women's views on the Employment Equity Act

Conclusion,

The respondents seemed unsure of the role of the Employment Equity Act. The respondents did not agree with the statement that the EE Act is patronising to women, however, the respondents had mixed feelings about the role of the Act, some (26%) were even uncertain about its function.

Recommendations,

- a) Women associations and forums such as BWA, coach women on workplace transformation with the view to educate on the transformation charter and the South African quota system.
- b) Women should understand the role and objectives of the EE Act.
- c) Women should not be content with accepting meaningless senior appointments; they should rather accept appointments of strategic value to the organisation where there is a likelihood of exerting impact in the organisation.

5.3 General Recommendations Arising from this Research

This study investigated perceptions of Durban corporate women towards glass ceiling. The data was analysed in order to generate recommendations that could apply to close the gaps in literature and practices. The following recommendations are suggested:

- There is paucity of research done on this topic in South Africa. South African researchers and academics should research and write more about contemporary issues faced by South African corporate women.
- The term “glass ceiling” is generally viewed as a myth; there should be an academic and corporate debate around the issue of glass ceiling barriers so as to make non-academic members of the public understand the term and its impact in society.
- Outcries over gender-based transformation should not be viewed as sexist and racial issues but rather as a labour relations matter and a matter supported by the transformation charter

5.4 Limitations of the Research

All studies are challenged by some or other limitations. The following limitations were identified:

- Due to time and funding constraints, the data was collected from a small sample of corporate women in Durban; the results hopefully can be applied to the population of South African corporate women.
- The outcomes of the study could not be generalised to all corporate women due to the sampling design and small sample size. Whereas the techniques of sampling used for this study were proper, non-probability purposive sampling is the least reliable in terms of generalisation.
- The study was quantitative and not qualitative.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

The recommendations for future research are based on the conclusion and restrictions well-known in this study. Notwithstanding its limitations, the present study offers a point of departure for more research in this subject. Recommendations for further research include:

- Future research should use probability sampling methods so that the outcomes of such research are more trustworthy and may be used with greater precision in generalising the findings to the whole population of corporate women.
- Although the research included executive and board members of corporations; the responses were not forthcoming. Future research should include cities such as Johannesburg and Cape Town as the corporate leaders are naturally based in the two cities since that is where the headquarters are based.
- A qualitative study might compliment this quantitative one.

5.6 Summary

This research explored the perceptions of Durban corporate women to the concept of the glass ceiling. Notwithstanding the limitations acknowledged above, the research objectives have been achieved and the study has raised numerous most important issues. The implications arising from this research are that: Durban corporate women sampled have a positive perception about their corporate settings. The respondents demonstrated that they did not experience nor perceive their organisation to be male dominated. The respondents seemed to be aware of the glass ceiling concept but did not experience it at their organisations. Based on the research, suitable conclusions were needed and appropriate recommendations have been made within the context of this small scale study.

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APPENDICES

a) Appendix One - Questionnaire

1.

Race

Black		White		Coloured		Indian		Asian	
-------	--	-------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--

2. Highest level of education

Diploma		Bachelor's degree		Honours degree		Master's degree		Doctoral degree	
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3.

Age

Less than 25 years		25-30 years		31-35 years		36-45 years		46 + years	
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4. Level in organisation

Junior		Middle		Senior		Executive		Board	
--------	--	--------	--	--------	--	-----------	--	-------	--

5.

Industry

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6. My work experience is not fully appreciated in a male dominated workplace.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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7. My academic qualifications do not mean much in a male dominated workplace.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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8. Higher level roles are reserved for men.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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9. I feel that male stereotypes hinder my potential to land better and influential positions.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

10. I give more priority to family commitments than work commitments.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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11. I am a mother first and a corporate woman second.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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12. I prefer working in an office close to home as I do not want to be away from my family for extended periods.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

13. I am reluctant to accept assignments that require long periods of time away from home; I would rather my male counterpart take up such assignments.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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14. I am not comfortable with corporate networking sessions that go beyond working hours.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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15. I am intimidated by male competition.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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16. Men are more dominant at work as compared to women.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

17. I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by leadership.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

18. I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by peers.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

19. I sometimes feel that because of my gender I am not taken seriously by subordinates.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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20. As a woman I am not comfortable with giving men work instructions.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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21. I feel respected by male counterparts at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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22. I command respect at work.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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23. I do not get respect from female subordinates.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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24. I do not get respect from male subordinates.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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25. The Employment Equity Act is patronising to women.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
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26. Employment Equity is nothing more than window dressing.

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Uncertain		Agree		Strongly agree	
-------------------	--	----------	--	-----------	--	-------	--	----------------	--

b) Appendix Two - Ethical Clearance



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27 May 2012

Mr SZ Makaula (209511496)
Graduate School of Business

Dear Mr Makaula

Protocol reference number: HSS/0233/012M
Project title: Breaking the glass ceiling – A case of Durban corporate women

In response to your application dated 22 May 2012, 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 Science Research Ethics Committee

cc: Supervisor: Mr Alec Bozas
cc: Academic Leader: Dr Shamim Bodhanya
cc: Wendy Clarke

Professor S Collings (Chair)
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c) Appendix Three - Turnitin Report

Turnitin Originality Report

sm by Siphosenkosi Makaula

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