Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban

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DECLARATION

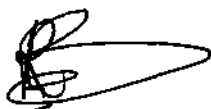The Registrar Academic
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Dear Sir/Madam,

I, Roshini Bob, Registration Number 200200097, hereby declare that the thesis entitled:

"Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban."

is the result of my own research and has not been submitted in part or full for any other degree or to any other University.

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Roshini Bob   **Date**

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DEDICATION

TO ·

THE MEMORY OF MY FATHER
MR BOB RAMDHANI

THE DIVINE MOTHER FOR YOUR GUIDANCE
AND DIVINE GRACE
THANK YOU! THANK YOU! THANK YOU!

AND

MY EXTENDED FAMILY (BOB/ PERRY) FOR THEIR
ENCOURAGEMENT, EMPOWERMENT AND SUSTENANCE
WITHOUT WHICH THIS THESIS WOULD NEVER HAVE
BEEN ATTEMPTED

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

This study utilises a multi-conceptual framework to critically and comparatively examine central issues and concerns relating to women in management generally and more specifically in the public and private sectors. The case studies of the banking and education sectors in the Durban area form the focus of this effort. Specifically, the main aspects of the primary research undertaken pertain to: perceptions of employees (both at management and non-managerial staff levels) in the banking and education sectors towards women in management; an appraisal from a management perspective, of existing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discriminatory practices within the private and the public sectors; an examination of the impact that gender equity practices has on human resource planning, especially at the management level, in the private and public sectors; and an assessment of training and support programmes in place to assist women managers. Questionnaire surveys were undertaken with 50 female managers from each sector, 25 male managers from each sector and 25 non-managerial staff from each sector. Therefore, in total 200 interviews were conducted. Additionally, participatory focus group discussions were conducted with groups of both female and male managers and non-managers.

The study reveals that women form an integral part of human resources in the banking and education sectors. For several decades women have entered jobs in these sectors and many women have moved up to managerial levels. However, most of these positions remain at lower and middle-management levels. Additionally, there are several problems that women in management experience. The main conclusion is that there are no notable and significant differences between women in management in the public and private sectors. This reinforces ILO's (1998) position that the challenges faced by women in management are ongoing and widespread. Problems facing women in management are complex and multidimensional. There are numerous factors that contribute to existing trends and explain the poor participation and performance of women in leadership positions. No single strategy or initiative can address the challenges faced by women in management and increase women's presence in leadership positions in both the public and private sectors. It is therefore imperative that issues pertaining to women in management be addressed from a range of perspectives: policy aspects, raising awareness of key considerations, improving skills and competencies of women (especially creating conditions and opportunities for development and capacity building), changing institutional and corporate structures and procedures as well as changing attitudes of men and women towards women in management and leadership positions. In essence, it is necessary to create a more enabling, women-friendly environment.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ILO: International Labour Organisation

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

US: United States of America

SGB: School Governing Body

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Women are better educated and hold more jobs worldwide than ever before. Yet most women continue to suffer from occupational segregation in the workplace and rarely break through the so-called 'glass ceiling' separating them from top-level management and professional positions...According to National Surveys, women's overall share of management jobs rarely exceeds 20%. The higher the position, the more glaring the gender gap. In the largest and most powerful organisations the proportion of top positions going to women is generally 2 – 3%.

(International Labour Organisation - ILO, 1998: 1)

Despite improvements during the recent decades, women's presence in management and decision-making more generally remains a problem in many countries. This is particularly acute in developing countries.

Women in management, both the increased presence of women as well as the limited but critical research, have contributed to a re-thinking of conventional theories and concepts that have informed management studies and practices. This study examines these largely international contributions. By using South African case studies in the private and public sectors, the banking and education (primary and secondary schools in Durban, South Africa) sectors specifically, this research will be used to make comparative analyses as well as understand better the issues pertaining to women in management in South Africa.

This chapter forwards the motivation for the study and briefly examines key issues pertaining to women and management pertinent to the research. Furthermore, the aim, research objectives and hypotheses of the study are outlined. Additionally, an overview of the methodology adopted in the study is presented.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

A great deal of research has recently focused on examining women's conditions and experiences. The examination of a society steeped in patriarchy and the resultant implications that this has on women's lives both in the home and the workplace are the basis for many of these studies (Addi-Raccah and Ayalan, 2002; Berch, 1982; Gutex, 1985; Gutex et al, 1991; Jacobs, 1992; 1995; Senter, 1982; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1995; Walby, 1986). Although questions about women's leadership positions and roles have often arisen, the gender gap in authority has been studied less than the gender gap in earnings. This is partly because data on authority relations at work are rarely available (Jacobs, 1995). Furthermore, there has been a dearth in studies that focuses specifically on women in management, especially in the South African context.

If women are also suited to management (and there are no indications that there are "natural" reasons for thinking otherwise), then it becomes important to raise the following critical questions related to the objectives of this study:

- Why are women disproportionately represented in management positions, especially upper management levels in both the private and public sectors?

This question focuses on underlying reasons and factors that contribute to women disproportionately accessing management positions. Further, the gendered occupational management segregation (that women managers are often clustered in certain positions and at certain levels) also highlights the way in which management positions and practices are reflective of gender discrimination. In both the banking and education sectors women

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managers are concentrated in lower and middle management positions. Also, the reasons why more women are not presently acquiring management positions (given their comparable qualifications, experience and seniority) will be addressed.

- How can women obtain management positions? How can women best enter and succeed at management positions?

This question assesses the differing strategies employed by women to enter managerial positions despite the hurdles they face. Another crucial aspect is their ability to survive and succeed in these positions.

- How can society benefit and harness "woman-power" at management and leadership levels more generally?

This research question examines whether women's ways of managing and leadership, as illustrated by Helgesen (1995), can be advantageous for companies and institutions. This entails identifying the specifics of how women manage (especially if there are gendered differences in the way men and women manage different contexts) and how women in management are changing the workplace and the nature of management. In part, this aspect also addresses the ways in which women balance and deal with conflicts in the private and public spheres of their lives and what are the lessons for management practice. In essence, do women's experiences as wives, mothers, sisters, daughters and friends help or hinder them from becoming managers? This question negates the taken for granted position that the best way for women to become managers is for them to start thinking and behaving as men.

- What perceptions and attitudes exist in the work place regarding women in management and policies aimed at addressing gender discriminatory practices?

In this question, the focus is on the way in which different groups (female managers, male managers and non-managerial staff) view women managers. Gender stereotypes, perceptions and attitude about and towards female managers are examined. Additionally, possible differences in the private and public sectors are examined. This is important in that the debates relating to which types of environments are more "gender-friendly" are addressed.

- What problems do women managers experience?

Here, the problems experienced by women managers are identified and critically examined. The underlying causes of the problems (insufficient training, gender discrimination, lack of co-operation from colleagues and inexperience) are also addressed.

- How are organisations responding to women's aspirations and concerns, especially with regard to management?

Lastly, this study looks at whether gender sensitive working environments and policies are being created in both the private and the public sectors. The reasons for and types of policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination will be discussed. The nature and extent of support for women (also potential women) managers are also examined. In this regard, implementation capacities and constraints are addressed.

The contexts for addressing women and management issues are best summarised by Wirth (2001: 1-2):

> While women have captured an ever-increasing share of the labour market, improvements in the quality of women's jobs have not kept pace. This is reflected in the smaller representation of women in management positions, particularly in the private sector, and their virtual absence from the most senior jobs. Wage differences in male and female managerial jobs stem from the reality that even when women hold management jobs, they are often in less strategic lower-paying areas of a company's operations. They are also linked to the fact that women managers tend to be younger on average, as most senior jobs tend to be dominated by older men. Despite the persistent inequalities at managerial level, continuous entry of women into higher-level jobs has been noted, although they remain under-represented in senior management. With few exceptions, the main challenge appears to be the sheer slowness in the progress of women into senior leadership positions in organisations, which suggests that discrimination is greatest where the most power is exercised.

1.3 KEYS ISSUES PERTAINING TO WOMEN AND MANAGEMENT

Management is the combined activities of planning, decision-making and directing others (Larwood and Wood, 1987). Acker (1990) asserts that management is by tradition and definition delegated preferentially to males. Furthermore, statistics indicate that few women consider or expect management positions (Fagenson, 1993; Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1993; Jacobs, 1992). Theoretical models relating to business and management practices have largely been androcentric (that is, male-centred) due in part to males dominating key decision-making positions as well as research processes and the academia. These models have informed the way management is perceived, the roles it is accorded and the policies that have been put into place to entrench management practices. However, as stated earlier, recent studies have started to examine the gender dynamics associated with the ways in which management as a functional process and managers are viewed (see Fagenson, 1993; Gutex, 1985; Helgesen, 1995, Human, 1991; Lather, 1991; Powell, 1988; Reskin and Ross, 1995).

There is sufficient evidence that demonstrates that women in similar job positions who display equal education and experience do not earn as much as men in comparable tasks (see Bird, 1990; ILO, 1998; Jacobs, 1995; Northcraft and Gutex, 1993; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1995). Additionally, as the U. S. Department of Labour (1991) glass ceiling report illustrates, in similar scenarios women are disproportionately promoted into higher positions. As Linda Wirth (cited in ILO, 1998: 1) states:

> Women represent more than 40% of the world's labour force. Yet their share of management positions remains unacceptably low, with just a tiny proportion succeeding in breaking through the glass ceiling to obtain top jobs.

Generally two perspectives are often cited as explaining the above situation (Gutex, 1985). The first, argues that women are not adapted to outside employment, are incapable of performing well and are therefore paid less. This position also justifies occupational segregation by asserting that women are naturally well suited to certain jobs. On the other hand, opponents offer the interpretation that women are widely discriminated against in a patriarchal and sexist society.

It is estimated that more than half of all working women can be found in just twenty-one occupations including secretarial jobs, retail sales, domestic work and school teaching (Jacobs, 1995). In the case of women in management, women are generally concentrated in lower or middle management positions. Larwood and Wood (1987) and Greenberger (1996) assert that women's liberation linked to increasing participation in the workforce has yet to produce meaningful occupational diversity and positions in key decision making structures for women.

In South Africa, as in many other parts of the world, women are increasingly entering managerial positions. As Fagenson (1993: 4) argues, women are becoming an increasing segment of the labour force as a whole and the management profession in particular. Yet, as the statistics reveal, while women's numbers in the management profession are on the rise, women are still largely clustered in lower and, to a lesser extent, middle management positions (Dipboye, 1987; U.S. Department of Labour, 1991; Human, 1991). Thus, the "glass ceiling" is an indication of gender discriminatory practices discernable in the management profession. Additionally, women who are able to crack through the "glass ceiling" often contend with various gender stereotypes. Furthermore, as shown by Freeman (1990), Gutex et al (1991) and Offerman and Armitage (1993) women managers, as do many working women generally deal with dual career dilemmas, double workloads (of having jobs but still being responsible for domestic responsibilities in the home), child-care concerns and maternity leave. Also, as Greenberger (1996) and Lee (1993) illustrate, documented cases of

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discrimination and sexual harassment of women managers have spearheaded organisational policies and legal reforms to help ensure that women are duly processed for promotions, pay and partnerships.

The literature indicates that there is also some debate regarding the environments that are more conducive to encourage the participation of women in management structures (Dipboye, 1987; Singh, 1995). Perumal (1994) asserts that in South Africa, the transformational goals inherent in affirmative action and equity legislation more generally have centralised issues pertaining to the employment of women and Blacks. Some studies suggest that the public sector is more embracing of policies and initiatives to bring women into management (Corton, 2000). This is attributable in part to government structures being easier to monitor and implement gender equity imperatives. Bell et al (1993) argue that the public sector is particularly more accepting of Black women in management positions, although this remains pronounced in lower and middle management positions as well as is confined to certain occupational categories. In the South African situation, the education sector (especially at school level) is a case in point. On the other hand, some studies indicate that women who enter management positions in the corporate sector are paid significantly higher salaries and have greater benefits (Freeman, 1990). A detailed, comparative perspective incorporating the range of concerns pertaining to women in management have yet to be rigorously examined in the South African context. This research aims to address this neglect.

This study is informed by the following conceptual frameworks arising out of the literature that focuses on gender discrimination generally and women in management more specifically:

- The psychological approach (see Gutex et al, 1991; Senter, 1982; Walby, 1986): This approach argues that the different patterns of socialisation and training often result in the formation of different concepts of appropriate behaviour, reward and experience

for women in contrast to men.

- Culturally biased perspective (see Epstein, 1985; Northcroft and Gutex, 1993): Linked to the psychological tradition is the culturally biased perspective. A role theoretic approach within this perspective suggests that men and women behave according to certain well-defined cultural and psychological processes. The key concepts are masculinity and femininity.

- The entitlement/ empowerment framework (see Greenberger, 1996; Lee, 1993): The issue of women's equality in all spheres of life is presented as a moral and ethical one. Equal opportunities, equal pay for equal work and ensuring that women and not disadvantaged to men are regarded as women's rights. The empowerment approach thus advocates social transformation.

- The bargaining perspective (see Helgesen, 1995): Studies show that men and women sometimes use different strategies in bargaining interactions. The differential leverage that men and women have often results in different strategy patterns adopted. A range of strategies including visibility, enhancing ability, fellowship and apprenticeship may be utilised by women for entering and advancing in management. These often result in altering the conditions surrounding the current management "masculine bias" and creating opportunities for women.

- The feminist political economy approach (see Berch, 1982; Elson, 1997; Folbre, 1995): Political economy focuses on the patterns of uneven development within a capitalist system and the differential economic and social effects that these have. Recently, feminist political economists have began to specifically look at the gender implications of these processes. They show that women have been more devastated than men by these processes which have contributed to occupational sex segregation in the work force at all levels.

1.4 AIM, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

AIM

This study is aimed at examining central issues and concerns relating to women in management generally and more specifically in the public and private sectors. The case studies of the banking and education sectors in the Durban area form the focus of this effort.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1. To determine the perceptions of employees (both at management and non-managerial staff levels) in the banking and education sectors towards women in management.

2. To critically appraise, from a management perspective, existing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discriminatory practices within the private and the public sectors.

3. To examine the impact that gender equity practices has on human resource planning, especially at the management level, in the private and public sectors.

4. To assess whether there are adequate training and support programmes in place to assist women managers.

5. To provide a comparative analysis of women in management issues and concerns in the public (education) and private (banking) sectors.

6. To forward recommendations based on the literature and research findings.

HYPOTHESES

1. Women managers are not clustered in lower and middle management positions.

2. The public sector does not have a more enabling environment for women managers than the private sector.

3. The general perceptions of women managers are that they are weaker, less assertive, emotional and inconsistent.

4. The current policy and training environments in both the banking and the education

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sector do not adequately support the development and advancement of women managers.

5.   Women and men do not have different management styles.

1.5 METHODOLOGY

Case studies of the education and banking sectors in Durban formed the focus of the research for the following reason:

- The author works in the banking sector and therefore, access to respondents in this sector is greatly enhanced.
- In terms of the education sector, access to schools is considerably easier than other public sector departments.

Both the education and banking sectors have more than 2 000 staff and therefore provide an ideal opportunity to intensively investigate the issues raised in this study. Questionnaire surveys were undertaken with 50 female managers from each sector, 25 male managers from each sector and 25 non-managerial staff from each sector. The breakdown across the two sectors is as follows:

Public (Education)			Private (Banking)		
Female managers	Male managers	Non-managerial staff	Female managers	Male managers	Non-managerial staff
50	25	25	50	25	25

Men and non-managerial staff were interviewed to compare their experiences and to gain their views of their female manager colleagues. In the education sector, the school locale was the focus of the study where managers are the head of departments, deputy principals and principals. Therefore, in total 200 interviews was be conducted. To ensure representation, random sampling was employed to choose the particular banks and schools that were

targeted. Lists of all bank offices and schools were compiled. Using a random table, at least 10 bank branches and schools were chosen. If at the time of the study the chosen sites declined to participate in the study, then an additional random number was generated to replace the initially chosen site. Within the chosen offices and schools, questionnaires were given to the staff and collected after a week, giving respondents ample time to respond. If any difficulties were encountered then respondents were encouraged to contact the researcher to address the problem.

It is important to note that in the education sector problems were encountered in terms of access. Specifically, former White schools (now Model C schools) refused to participate and it was difficult to gain access to previously African schools. Thus, despite the intention to have an unbiased sample, the reality was that most of the schools interviewed were former Indian schools. This accounts for the high proportion of Indian respondents in the education sector.

The questionnaires were comprehensive and incorporated both closed and open-ended questions (see Appendixes 1 and 2). The use of in-depth, comprehensive interviews allowed the researcher to gain insights and understanding of complex issues. They were structured in such a way as to facilitate comparative analyses. Broadly, the following sections comprised the questionnaires:
- Background of respondents
- Knowledge of gender discrimination
- Perceptions of gender affirmative action
- Implementation of programmes addressing gender discrimination
- Women in management: perceptions/ attitudes
- Management concerns
- General

Wherever possible, data was analysed using an SPSS programme. The main intention was to utilise descriptive statistics.

Although the sample size was relatively small, it is believed for the purposes of this study that the data gathered provides an in-depth, qualitative and quantitative understanding of issues pertaining to women in management as stated in the objectives and research questions. These types of approaches to research that focus on understanding underlying processes and reasons together with examining broad general trends (the focus of quantitative surveys) are strongly advocated by feminist researchers (see Hedman et al, 1996; Herod, 1993). Feminist researchers therefore encourage smaller-scale, in-depth research projects.

In addition to the questionnaire survey method, participatory focus group discussions were conducted with groups of both female and male managers and non-mangers. The main intention of the focus group discussions were to clarify issues emanating from the data analysis. The discussions tended to revolve around the following key issues: attitude towards female managers, good and bad managers as well as management practices, problems faced by female managers, women's styles of management and strategies used by female managers. Furthermore, the focus group discussions included an examination of issues emanating from the questionnaire surveys.

1.6 CONCLUSION

Given the patriarchal nature of most societies and households, and the double workloads that most working women experience (being responsible for domestic responsibilities despite entering the workforce); management is bound to have an impact on women's social and personal lives that are different from that of men. In fact these pressures may be increased for female managers whose entrance into the management domain is not viewed as being part of traditional, female occupations. Thus, as Larwood and Wood (1987) suggest, a woman entering management must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept.

Women represent only a small proportion of managers, managerial personnel or well-educated technical and professional personnel from where managers are often drawn (Fagenson, 1993). Across all vocation types, male managers on average earn more than female mangers. Additionally, female managers are less likely to advance to better positions. This general situation, however, is changing. In recent years more women are seeking the qualifications and training opportunities necessarily for management positions. Also, a significant number of women are entering management. Women managers play an important role in challenging gender stereotypes. However, many women will not have the advantage described above. This looks critically at women in management in the banking and education sectors.

This chapter provided the background information and motivation for the study. Additionally, the aim, objectives, hypotheses and methodological approach adopted were presented. The aim, objectives and hypotheses clearly underscore the main foci of the study in terms of examining perceptions and attitudes towards women and management. Chapter two presents the conceptual framework that synthesises four approaches utilised in this research endeavour: psychological, entitlement/ empowerment, bargaining and feminist political economy. Thus, an integrated, multi-conceptual framework guides the study. A comprehensive review of the women and management literature is undertaken in chapter three. This is followed by chapter four which specifically examines gender and management issues in the education and banking sectors in South Africa generally and Durban more specifically. Data presentation, analysis and discussion of the study results are provided in chapter five. Chapter six summarises the key findings, proposes recommendations and presents concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL/ CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a need to develop gender-sensitive conceptual frameworks that specifically focus on women and management. They need to reveal critical relationships and identify key factors that illuminate gender dynamics and aspects. This chapter draws on literature reviewed and establishes a conceptual framework for analysing women and management concerns in South Africa, specifically in the education and banking sectors. This dissertation research draws from four broad conceptual approaches: the psychological tradition, the entitlement/ empowerment framework, the bargaining approach and the feminist political economy approach. In particular, the approaches are informed by feminist thinking and theories. Thus, the dissertation embraces a multi-theoretical/ multi-conceptual approach that is advocated by numerous feminists (Agarwal, 1997; Dingell and Maloney, 2002; Nast, 1994).

This study is informed by the following conceptual frameworks arising out of the literature that focuses on gender discrimination generally and women in management more specifically. In this section the conceptual frameworks informing this study are examined. These include the psychological tradition, the culturally biased perspective, the empowerment/ entitlement framework, the bargaining approach and the feminist political economy perspective.

2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL TRADITION

Berthon and Human (1991) argue that the effective utilisation of managerial potential in organisational settings is a recurring theme in management literature. Furthermore, matching person, job type and job process is seen as a vital element of the effective organisation. This is related to a view that a person's psychological type is concomitant with certain behavioural patterns implying that the type of job a person is likely to

perform best would depend partially on that person's psychological type. Broadly speaking, four main dimensions comprising of two opposite modes or functions are viewed as being key to understanding individual psyche (Berthon and Human, 1991 summarising Jungian typology):

1. Extraversion   Introversion
2. Thinking   Feeling
3. Sensation   Intuition
4. Judgmental   Perceptual

The psychological approach argues that the different patterns of socialisation and training often result in the formation of different concepts of appropriate behaviour, reward and experience for women in contrast to men. Linked to the psychological tradition is the culturally biased perspective. A role theoretic approach within this perspective suggests that men and women behave according to certain well-defined cultural and psychological processes. The key concepts are masculinity and femininity. The different patterns of training often result in the formation of different concepts of appropriate behaviour, reward and experience for women in contrast to men. Not only is each sex likely to prefer different types of jobs, but their reactions and experiences in similar jobs are different. Additionally, these differences are viewed by society as being normal and acceptable. Thus, high levels of gender stereotypes pervade our societies and mental constructs.

This perspective suggests that there are individual psychological differences between men and women. Also, women who enter management are likely to perform differently from their male predecessors. Psychological differences and orientations may result in men and women behaving, on the average, somewhat differently in identical managerial situations. This often results in women being placed at a relative disadvantage from advancing upward in the managerial hierarchy. Thus, there is the recognition that although there are no innate mental or physical differences relevant to a managerial position between men and women, those resulting from socialisation processes and average differential learning experiences have substantial impacts on women's access to managerial positions and their roles, expectations and performance as managers. Learnt

gender differences in self-concept, aspiration level, acceptable behaviours, and anticipated economic and role exchanges are particularly important.

The person-centered perspective can also be viewed as being part of the psychological tradition. The person-centered perspective advances that the paucity of women in management is attributed to the psycho-social attributes, including personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioural skills of women themselves. The central concern is thus located at the individual women where women are generally expected to adapt to traditional, male concepts of management. This implies that women have to often compensate for their socialisation deficits. Some of the personal factors identified by Dipboye (1987) are: lack of self-esteem and self-confidence; limited aspirations in the field of management including lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges to go up the ladder; women's orientation to interpersonal relations with peers could impede their upward mobility; and promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership such as being less assertive, less emotionally stable and lacking ability to handle a crisis.

2.2.1 Culturally biased perspective

Linked to the psychological tradition is the culturally biased perspective. A role theoretic approach within this perspective suggests that men and women behave according to certain well-defined cultural and psychological processes. Epstein's (1985) argument that almost everyone, including women, are to blame for the pervasiveness of patriarchal values in most societies is still relevant today. In many cases both men and women have internalised gender roles and propagate what is expected behaviour, attitudes and aspirations of men and women. Socialisation processes tend to emphasis independence, work and career orientation for men while for women, dependency and sex orientation are emphasised. In most societies, tradition suggests that men should be the breadwinner and success in the workforce is closely linked with success "as a man" (Women and Youth Affairs Division, 1995: 7). The key role concepts are masculinity, femininity and management. Masculinity and femininity are seen to imply different values and

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behaviours relative to one another. The process of questioning long standing attitudes and expectations is a difficult one.

These stereotypes often define roles and studies show that a great deal of social pressure (such as ridicule, ostracism and loss of position) is often applied to those who choose not to ascribe to the gender roles (Northcroft and Gutek, 1993). Alternatively, the women who make it to management or leadership positions (outside the perceived feminine roles) may be accepted as unique and exceptional, unrepresentative of women in general. In these cases, as long as the women remain exceptions rather than the norm, they are not regarded as threats and are tolerated and often accepted into the patriarchal establishment.

Smulders (1998) asserts that the culture-centered perspective argues that gender-based social roles, irrelevant to the workplace are carried into the workplace. Smulders (1998) provides a gender-centered and organisational structure perspective. Gender-based roles which are often derived and shaped in the private sphere are carried into the workplace. Smulders (1998) states that institutions and organisational structures often reproduce gender differences via internal structures and everyday practices because of the cultural perceptions which determine the attitudes and behaviours of individual men and women and form barriers to the equal participation of women in management positions, especially at the senior levels. Furthermore, Smulders (1998) concludes that gender relations are kept in place because the actors involved, both dominant and subordinate, subscribe to social and organisational reality.

Bhatnagar's (1995) study found that the majority of male executives felt that women are "temperamentally unfit for management". Although managers have become progressively more cautious about expressing such opinions, Collinson (1987) shows that related attitudes persist and have been demonstrated consistently in experiments dealing with personnel policies. Also, some researchers have shown that favouritism may result in a systematic bias by male managers, who are control of most institutions, toward the unconscious (or conscious) selective grooming for rank advancements of male subordinates with whom the managers are more likely to share close friendships.

2.3 THE ENTITLEMENT/ EMPOWERMENT FRAMEWORK

This framework is advocated by Greenberger (1996), Lee (1993) and Moser (1993) and is influenced by development and planning thinking. The issue of women's equality in all spheres of life is presented as a moral and ethical one. Equal opportunities, equal pay for equal work and ensuring that women and not disadvantaged to men are regarded as women's rights. The empowerment approach thus advocates social transformation. Empowerment is a process that enhances the ability of disadvantaged individuals or groups to challenge existing power relations that place them in subordinate economic, social and political positions.

Rao and Kelleher (1995: 70) define women's empowerment as "the capacity of women to be economically self-sufficient and self-reliant with control over decisions affecting their life options and freedom from violence (and discrimination)." They suggest that women's empowerment must focus on increasing women's ability to be economically self-sufficient (that is, earn an income, own assets and manage their own finances), increasing women's confidence and ability to know and negotiate for their rights in the household and the community and increasing women's control over their bodies, their time and their movement. Furthermore, working towards gender transformation is conceptualised in terms of increasing women's and men's abilities to analyse and reshape socially constructed gender relations in order to transform power dynamics. Equitable access and control over public and private resources as well as equitable participation in the household, community and national decision-making are crucial aspects. Also, there is a need to reshape social institutions and organisations to include women's and men's varied perceptions to benefit both.

The entitlement and empowerment approach focuses on women's relative position to men and the ability of women to challenge male oppression. Equality of the rights over resources and opportunities is viewed as a fundamental aspect of the larger issue of gender equality as a measure of a just society. This approach calls for transformation of society and organisations by addressing women's practical and strategic needs.

According to Moser (1993), strategic needs are those needs that are formulated from an analysis of women's subordination to men. They focus on strategies and mechanisms that will lead to the restructuring of power in society. Practical needs, on the other hand, focus on survival strategies of women related to income earning activities. Practical and strategic needs are often not separable and often inform each other. For example, the more women earn the more independent they become in terms of survival as well as they are able to exert more power in decision-making.

2.4 THE BARGAINING APPROACH

The links between the bargaining and empowerment approaches are strong. The bargaining approach is derived from economics and attempts to explore women's relative positions in different contexts that either enhance or impede women's empowerment. As indicated earlier, the term gender relations refers to the relations of power between men and women. Gender relations are constituted by and help constitute various practices and ideologies in interaction with social processes such as class, race, sexuality and ethnicity. Gender relations are characterised by elements of both conflict and cooperation.

Agarwal (1997) asserts that a number of economists have in recent years proposed alternative models responding to the problems inherent in the unitary conceptualisation of the household as either a conflictual or consensual unit. She advances that the bargaining approach in particular provides a useful framework for analysing gender relations throwing some light on how gender asymmetries are constructed and contested.

Previous models, Agarwal (1997) argues, have tended to neglect critical aspects such as:
- What factors (especially qualitative ones) affect bargaining power?
- What is the role of social norms and social perceptions in the bargaining process and how might these factors themselves be bargained over?
- Are women less motivated than men by self-interest and might this affect bargaining outcomes?

It is also important to extend notions of intra-household dynamics to the workplace and

society at large.

Studies show that men and women sometimes use different strategies in bargaining interactions. The differential leverage that men and women have often results in different strategy patterns adopted. A range of strategies including visibility, enhancing ability, fellowship and apprenticeship may be utilised by women for entering and advancing in management. These often result in altering the conditions surrounding the current management "masculine bias" and creating opportunities for women.

The bargaining approach or model views organisations as a collective but suggests that individuals within the organisation operate both co-operatively and conflictually. Who wins and loses in these interactions, especially when conflict arises, depends on the relative bargaining power of the individuals involved. An individual's bargaining power is influenced by a range of factors including the person's fall-back position (the outside options available to an individual should co-operation cease), the social and legal legitimacy of the claim, as well as access to economic and political power. Bargaining, as Folbre (1995) illustrates, can range from open contestation to covert acts of resistance.

Studies show that men and women sometimes use different strategies in bargaining interactions. Although there needs to be some concern raised about labelling bargaining strategies as female, it is useful to provide an overview of negotiation strategies that women often use (Folbre, 1995; Manser and Brown, 1980):

- Withdrawal: Includes looking for alternative work options within or outside the organisation.
- Coalition formation: When the situation warrants it, it is useful to join forces with others who may support one's position or have similar interests.
- Competition: Those who choose to fight often do it aggressively (someone who desires the entire reward and who feels that there is a reasonable chance of successfully attaining it without the need for co-operating with others).
- Mobilising external forces like becoming familiar with rights and opportunities enshrined in affirmative action legislation. Also, often women use unions to

arbitrate on their behalf when disputes or disagreements occur.

2.5 THE FEMINIST POLITCAL ECONOMY APPROACH

The political economy framework originates from Marxist perspectives. Political economy focuses on the patterns of uneven development within a capitalist system and their differential economic and social effects of a global market economy that has been emerging since the 16th century (Merchant, 1992). Some political economists are now beginning to pay attention to the interrelation between macro-economic policies and social frameworks (Elson, 1997; Folbre, 1995). Recently, feminist political economists have began to specifically look at the gender implications of these processes. Schoeph (1992) highlights that these studies show that women have been more devastated than men by these processes which have contributed to occupational sex segregation in the work force at all levels. Understanding the social relations within organisations implies understanding power relations, struggles over access to positions in the workforce, who controls the decision-making processes as well as how labour is organised (Berch, 1982). These aspects are highly gendered and reflects the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to women and to men (Smulders, 1998).

Political economists who attempt to address gender concerns argue that there is a strong tendency for men's pattern of working life to be taken as the norm (Elson, 1997). Within households, communities and organisations the production processes and control over the means of production are organised in a patriarchal way. This occurs even if and when evidence suggests that this works against productivity and efficiency (Schoeph, 1992).

The feminist political-economy approach is in part influenced by an examination of the structures or organisations that exist in society and perpetuate a male bias. This structure-centered perspective, as articulated by Schoeph (1992), advances the view that it is the disadvantageous position of women in organisational structures (few numbers, little power, limited access to resources) which shape and define the behaviour of women. The

perspective is based on the premise that although men and women are equally capable and committed to assuming positions of leadership, the problem of gender discrimination is institutionalised in structures. A key aspect of eradicating gender discrimination in the workplace is that related to fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices. Elson (1997) identifies the following key structural factors: discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; male resistance to women in management positions; absence of policies and legislation to ensure participation of women; and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of the power structure in the workplace.

The political economy approach is extremely useful in highlighting the historical international and national dimensions of women's participation in the workforce. This perspective urges us to look at national and international imperatives that shape the existing environment and future intervention options and priorities.

2.6 CONCLUSION

The four perspectives reviewed in this chapter indicate that each approach contributes substantially to a greater understanding of women and management. The different approaches address issues relating to why women have been historically denied access to management positions, how women enter management positions and why it is important that women achieve equity. Furthermore, an integration of the different perspectives ensures that different issues and concerns relating to women and management are raised.

UNESCO (2002) indicates that although little evidence can be adduced about women's inability to perform on the job, real inequities exist in many areas that affect their performance in the workplace. The key factors contributing to creating and maintaining these inequalities are: absence of enabling conditions; discriminatory salary scales and fringe benefits; recruitment policies; segregation; and cultural and structural barriers.

The approaches presented above allude to the reality that generally the environment in which women function is often characterised by a lack of information about a range of opportunities including employment, promotion and training opportunities. They often experience isolation and lack of support from colleagues, especially their line managers who are often men. In essence, the approaches provide the framework for a gendered analysis that poses the following questions analytically and critically:

- Who has access to information?
- Who does and defines the work?
- Who makes decisions and develops policies?
- Who gets the benefits?
- Who controls the benefits?

The who can be men, women or both.

The next chapter undertakes a review of the women and management literature. In particular, three main broad thematic issues are examined. These are conditions faced by working women generally and women in management more specifically, management Sand managers, and that national arena/ dynamics in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section examines conditions faced by working women generally and women in management more specifically. The key focus areas pertain to occupational segregation, pay differentials, differences among women as well as job and life satisfaction levels. The second section briefly clarifies the concepts of management and managers as well as discusses issues pertaining to management and gender concerns. In this regard, the main issues considered are women's strategies for entering and advancing in management, the current position of women in management, women and management/ leadership styles, Black women in management, women in management and the issue of sexuality, gendered language in the management world, women managers and organisational structures, women and harassment in the workforce as well as training and development. The third section elaborates on the national dynamics in South Africa and the implications that these have on women in the workforce generally and women in management more specifically. A critical appraisal of affirmative action forms part of the discussion. Finally, some concluding comments are forwarded.

Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997: 136) illustrate that patriarchy is the gender arrangement in which men form the dominant social group:

> In a patriarchal society the male role is granted a higher status than the female role. While originally the term patriarchy was used to mean control by the father, critical multiculturalism employs the term in a more expansive sense to involve the power men gain by birthright to define reality and enjoy the rewards of privilege by way of their domination of subordinates.

Furthermore, Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997) argue that patriarchal power, as with most power, constantly interacts with the axes of class and race, finding itself either undermined or enhanced by the interaction. Also, in patriarchal societies men's claim to knowledge, its production and validation, carries more weight than women's. This results in a devaluation of women's experiences and knowledge. Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997) assert that in the workforce it is important to understand that the subjugation of women is regarded as being profitable and that the very foundation of an industrial society is based on patriarchal domination.

3.2 CONDITIONS FACED BY WORKING WOMEN GENERALLY AND WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT MORE SPECIFICALLY

Many studies show that women have historically performed four major types of economically productive activities (Berch, 1982; Folbre, 1995; Jacobs, 1992; 1995; Kanhere, 1995; Sinclair, 1991; Stromberg and Harkess, 1988). First, they have produced goods and services for the family's own consumption. Second, they have performed unpaid labour outside the home that is not related to family maintenance, that is, volunteer work. Third, they have produced goods and services in the home for exchange and/ or sale, that is, participation in the informal economy. And fourth, they have worked for wages outside the home in the formal economy. Many of the studies emphasise that although these types of work are productive, contribute significantly to the national economy and critical for household survival; much of the work performed by women in society remains unrewarded and unrecognised. This section briefly summarises the key issues and debates pertaining to women and employment to lay the groundwork for a more in-depth discussion relating to women in management.

Steinberg (1995: 57) states:

> Gender influences job content, the structure of authority and control, access to jobs, training opportunities, and mobility channels. It informs ideologies that legitimate work place arrangements and employer choices, and it even shapes what is noticed about jobs and the people who fill them.

The overall characteristics of the female workforce include the factors that contribute towards women's decisions to join the working world. Marital and family characteristics (especially a woman's status as a parent), educational level and job preference profoundly influence the likelihood of a woman's participation in the workforce. In general women are most likely to enter the workforce before they are parents and again after her children reach adolescent (Snipes et al, 1998). In terms of education, it is generally accepted that those having a better education are more likely to obtain and keep higher level, more interesting and higher paying jobs. However, the evidence of sex discrimination is discernable in that men earn higher salaries at every educational level (Barnum et al, 1995; England, 1992; Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1993; Jacobs, 1992; Jacobs and Steinberg, 1995, Miller, 1980; Reskin and Ross, 1995; Tomaskovic-Devey; Williams, 1989). Women must be demonstrably better than competing males despite similar qualifications. Jacobs (1995) asserts that there is considerable evidence of the need for women to be superior in order to achieve the same positions as their male counterparts. In terms of education more generally, many women feel (or are socialised to feel) uncomfortable with non-traditional education and vocations.

Orhan and Scott (2001) developed a model of the factors that motivate women to start their own business. They argue that the glass ceiling barrier experienced by many women who are formally employed often persuade women to leave larger businesses and institutions to start their own business operations because of an inability to obtain proper recognition by their

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employers.

> ...most research about women links this dissatisfaction (dissatisfaction with salaried jobs) with the 'glass ceiling' that impedes executive women from reaching more senior executive positions. A further gender-specific attribute that has been suggested as motivating female entrepreneurs that is also contained within the 'dissatisfaction with salaried job' factor is a woman's discomfort with a dominant masculine business culture, characterised by the hierarchy, the 'old-boys' networks and the use of directive power – as opposed to the 'soft' influence, based on consensus and empowerment of employees perceived to be more feminine.

They additionally identify a number of situations that relate to women's decisions to become entrepreneurs, namely dynastic compliance, no other choice, entrepreneurship by chance, natural succession, forced entrepreneurship, informed entrepreneur and pure entrepreneur. Their findings to do not reinforce the assumption that the majority of women become entrepreneurs for reasons of necessity. They identified antecedents to the generalised push, pull and environmental motives.

The following are some data pertinent to understanding women in the South African workforce (Corton, 2000: 3):

- Women make up just over half of the population in South Africa;
- 26% of all households are headed by women;
- In most families, women who have full-time jobs also take responsibility for housework and child care;
- 60% of men and only 40% of women have post-matric qualifications;
- Women have a higher unemployment rates than men – 4 out of every 10 women are unemployed;
- 35% of all African women are employed in the lowest paid category as domestic workers;

- **Less than 5% of women occupy management positions;**
- Of managers, 85% are White men, 9% are White women, 3% African men and 2% African women; and
- More than half of working women have been sexually harassed.

The statistics in part reflect global trends as demonstrated in the United States context. Robertson's (2002) reporting of findings of an analysis of key characteristics of women and men in management positions, examination of how women were represented in management positions compared to their representation in all positions within particular industries, and identification of salary differentials between men and women in full-time management positions is important to highlight. The findings were derived from data collected from the Department of Labour's Current Population Survey. This is a monthly survey of approximately 50 000 households that obtains key labour force data, such as employment, wages and occupations. The focus of the study was on ten industries which accounted for 70% of all salary and wage positions filled by women in 2000: communications; public administration; business and repair services; entertainment and recreation services; other professional services; educational services; retail trade; finance, insurance and real estate; hospital and medical services; and professional medical services. In this study, managers were defined as "all occupational titles that included the words administrator, director, manager, or supervisor" (Robertson, 2002: 1). The following were the key findings from the study (Robertson, 2002: 2):

- Female managers in the 10 industries generally had less education, were younger, were more likely to work part-time, and were less likely to be married than male managers. Female manager characteristics differed from those of male managers in terms of education, age, part-time status and marital status.

- In 5 of the industries there was no statistically significant difference between the percent of industry positions filled by women and the percent of management positions filled by women. For the other 5, however, statistically significant differences did exist. In 4 of the industries, women were less represented in management positions than they were in all other positions. In 1 of these industries,

women were represented in management positions to a greater degree than they were in all positions in the industry.

- Full-time female managers earned less than full-time male managers in all 10 industries, after controlling for education, age, marital status, and race.

Snipes et al's (1998) examination of sex-role stereotyping and gender biases show that although previous gender biases in job selection are declining, significant biases are still prevalent in the assessment of individual's long-term success on the job. Specifically, their findings show that while gender biases are found only slightly in the hiring decisions of male and female evaluators, the perception of the applicant's future job performance was generally less favourable toward the female applicant as compared to males.

3.2.1 Occupational Segregation

It is estimated that more than half of all working women can be found in just twenty-one occupations including secretarial jobs, retail sales, domestic work and school teaching. In the case of women and management, women are generally concentrated in lower or middle management positions. Stone (1995: 409) asserts that the link between segregation and the wage gap has been well-documented, with most estimates attributing about one quarter to one third of the gap to differences in jobs held by men and women. However, Tomaskovic-Dewey (1995) challenges this estimate and shows that when using specific features of jobs rather than broader categories of occupations to characterise work, as much as 75% of the gap is due to segregation. Tomaskovic-Dewey (1995: 33) also makes a useful distinction between the dual processes of segregation: allocation and valuation. Allocative processes are when women are channelled into less desirable jobs. Valuative processes are when women's jobs and the skills and responsibilities they entail are socially and economically de-valued. The U. S. Department of Labour (2000) indicate that although discrimination is a major reason for the differences in earnings between men and women, it is also important to consider that women choose certain occupations so that they can balance work and family obligations. Jalilvand (2000) also indicate that married women who work appear to have a

different personal-value structure from married women who do not work.

Snipes et al's (1998) study shows that both men and women who were surveyed sex-ranked organisations/ occupations from feminine to masculine as follows: education, retailing, media, government, financial institutions, manufacturing of consumer goods and service trades, manufacturing of industrial goods, defence, transportation and public utilities; and construction. In these occupational categories the respondents expected women to be more likely to fail when they try to move into higher positions in the construction industry than when they attempt to advance from teacher to school administrator.

The U. S. Department of Labour (2000) indicates that when women are crowded into a few job types, the abundant supply of women workers causes wages in these jobs to be depressed. They indicate that that in 1999 the six most prevalent occupations for women in the U. S. were, in order of magnitude, school teachers, secretaries, cashiers, miscellaneous managers and administrators, sales supervisors and proprietors and registered nurses. Furthermore, it is suggested that women choose these occupations because there tends to be less skill obsolescence for workers who leave and re-enter the labour force. Additionally, the educational commitment for employment in these fields is less than in others and workers can have more time at home for other responsibilities.

Stromberg and Harkess (1988: 54) suggest that one explanation for sex segregation is that women choose female-typed jobs because they are geographically dispersed and can be re-entered with greater ease after a period out of the labour force. This would make it easier for a woman to find work after following a husband in a long distance move or staying home to raise children for a few years. Furthermore, Beneria and Feldman (1992) and Kanhere (1995) show that women's home-related responsibilities such as cleaning, cooking and taking care of children affect the occupational choices of women. Traditionally female occupations such as sales clerk, waitress, school teacher and book-keeper can be part-time or have hours and seasonal schedules that are compatible with caring for children and completing household

tasks. Women who enter male dominant professions such as management often have higher earnings that allow them to pay for services to have these house-related responsibilities completed. However, from a gender perspective it must be noted that these responsibilities are mostly undertaken by other women such as maids or child-care workers and these are traditionally viewed as female occupations. Also, when families can afford to hire a maid or use child-care facilities it is usually the women in the households that manage these processes. This includes supervising help or being largely responsible for the transport needs of the children. Additionally, women often share in various household tasks even when hired help is available. This is particularly discernable in terms of preparation of meals.

The "glass ceiling" has become a familiar term to describe the barriers women continue to face when trying to climb the corporate ladder. ILO (1998: 1) states, "The term 'glass ceiling' was coined in the 1970s in the Unites States to describe the invisible artificial barriers, created by attitudinal and organisational prejudices, barring women from top executive jobs. It is deemed by the ILO (1998) and Wirth (2001) to be an apt definition for an ongoing problem. The glass ceiling, according to Reskin and Ross (1995: 128), "points to the widespread feeling that invisible barriers separate women from top jobs and genuine authority." Addi-Raccah and Ayalan (2002) and Morrison (1995) assert that the term glass ceiling suggests that the mobility chances of males increase as the percentage of females in the occupation rises, while women have hardly any access to the top positions. Maude (1999) illustrates that men who work in female-type occupations receive the benefits of a glass escalator into administration, whereas the glass ceiling victimises women. These positions support Wright and Baxter's (2000) hypothesis that the obstacles women face in promotion, compared with men, systematically increase as they move up the hierarchy. The glass ceiling perpetuates the traditional gender relations of power and authority.

Jacobs (1995: 11) states that one of the key obstacles to women's advancement up the corporate hierarchy is that the higher one climbs the corporate ladder, the more likely one is to have subordinates. Despite, legal and societal changes, they remains a great deal of

resistance to the notion of women having authority. Dingell and Maloney (2002: 10) indicate that occupational segregation "produces different levels of management and different management tracks, including tracks that lead nowhere".

3.2.2 Pay Scales: Sex Bias in Pay and Position

The sex differential in earnings reflects both occupational segregation and earning differentials within occupations. Jacobs and Steinberg's (1995) study indicates that the sex ratio for professional workers was 74%, managers 63%, clerical workers 68%, sales workers 53%, craft workers 64% and operators and labourers 65%. The particularly large differential for sales work can be attributed to the fact that men tend to be hired to sell large items such as cars and household appliances or are employed in wholesale trade which often involve higher turnovers, profits and commissions. Women on the other hand tend to be employed as retail store clerks. The ILO (1998) states that most female managers are still barred from the top levels of organisations wordwide, whether in the private, public or political sectors. Furthermore, when they manage to rise to the top, female executives nearly always earn less than men. On a national average, women's average earnings are lower than that of men's. Salaries offered to new graduates are consistently lower for women than for men with the same qualifications. As Jacobs and Steinberg (1995: 117) underscore:

> Women have had more difficulty than men in translating their skills, experience, and job characteristics into wages. This is not only because women have not achieved equal access to the best jobs in the best organisations, but also because the work in which they are concentrated is undervalued relative to its productive contribution to the work organisation. It is also because turnover is viewed as more acceptable in women's jobs than in men's jobs.

Budlender and Sutherland (n.d.) point out that in South Africa the same level of education does not bring the same return to men and women. For example, they show that African women earn on average 72% and 85% of what African men earn with the same level of

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education. Furthermore, women also generally tend to receive lower fringe benefits such as housing or cost of living allowances (UNESCO, 2002).

Dingell and Maloney's (2002) report to the United States General Accounting Office on the Status of Women in Management in Ten Selected Industries indicates that the majority of women managers were worse off, relative to men, in 2000 than they were in 1995. They state:

> Perhaps even more startling, the data show that in 7 of the 10 industries, the wage gap between male and female managers actually widened between 1995 and 2000. In other words, the majority of women managers actually did better, relative to men, in 1995 than they did in 2000. Occurring as it did during a time of economic prosperity, this increased wage gap is particularly troubling.
>
> (Dingell and Maloney, 2002: 1)

3.2.3 Differences among Women in the Workforce

Comparisons of occupational distributions among women reveal how race, ethnicity and sexual orientation further shape the labour market position and earnings of women (Bell et al, 1993; Crow et al, 1998; McGuire and Reskin, 1993; Smith and Tienda, 1988; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993). Black people are disproportionately represented in working class occupations and in the informal sector. Explanations for why Black women often end up in low-paying, low-status jobs range from individual's achievements in terms of investments in education and training to structural influences such as the implications of apartheid policies in South Africa. For Black women this becomes a double jeopardy because they suffer from discrimination because they are women and as a result of their race. Furthermore, Beneria and Feldman (1992) aptly illustrate that one's opportunities that often results in achievements are tied to structural influences. For example, the substantial educational advantage White women have over Black women can be directly linked to colonial and apartheid practices in South Africa. Within the category of Black women (inclusive of African, Indian and

Coloured South Africans) there are further differences since apartheid practices were largely hierarchical in nature with people of African descent bearing the brunt of the harshest oppressive measures.

Crow et al's (1998) assessment of work-related discrimination against women, Blacks and homosexuals illustrates that a Black, male homosexual is the most likely target of discrimination and the White, female heterosexual is the least likely to be discriminated against. In terms of differences among women, research to date tends to support the premise that females will place more stringent expectations on other females (Snipes et al, 1998). This phenomenon is often referred to as the queen bee syndrome. This theory supports the idea that women in authority positions place extremely high expectations on other women because successful women typically worked hard to achieve a position of rank and consequently feel other women should work equally as hard.

3.2.4 Job and Life Satisfaction

Studies have found that women who are more discriminated against, have limited opportunities for upward mobility, lack the ability to command a satisfactory wage and dislike their working conditions generally; are often dissatisfied with their jobs (Crittenden, 2001; Offerman and Armitage, 1993; Pandey et al, 1995). Many women disconnect job from life satisfaction, that is, refusing to allow their jobs to greatly influence their lifestyles. In general, women place less emphasis on their jobs as a vehicle for obtaining life goals. This finding or position is not only consistent with the pervasiveness of female discrimination but with the roles of women as homemaker and worker. There is evidence that for women managers a major source of conflict is between their roles as domestic homemakers (wife, mother and housekeeper) and as an employee external to the home environment. This public-private dichotomy of interests often mean that women have a lower probability of being employed in the first place to demanding positions such as those often characterising managerial tasks or advancing rapidly in specific professions.

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The ILO (1998) and Maushart (2001) indicate that for women with family responsibilities, their upward mobility may be hampered as they juggle time to devote to both career and family. This concern is especially relevant given the long working hours that often characterises professional and managerial work which is required to gain recognition and eventual promotion. For many women it is a real struggle to reconcile long, and often stressful, working hours with domestic demands linked to taking care of a home and family (Crittenden, 2001; Maushart, 2001). The ILO (1998) further asserts that in certain countries there are indications that women, more than men, forego marriage and children for the sake of their careers. Additionally, Bureau of Labour (2001) in the United States found that in 2000 the pay gap among all working women and men was widest among parents. Dingell and Maloney (2002) state that increasingly although both men and women managers need to reconcile work with family, combining parenthood with advancement into management is particularly difficult for women. They also show that women managers are more likely to work part-time than their male counterparts. However, opting to work part-time makes women's further advancement more difficult since part-time workers are generally viewed as "secondary employees and therefore not as important or crucial to a company's worth or growth" (Dingell and Maloney, 2002: 12). Additionally, part-time work limits networking. Further disadvantages of part-time work are ineligibility for healthcare, continued need to pay for childcare and a reduction in eventual retirement benefits.

The ILO (1998) proposes that the creation of workplaces which are more dynamic, flexible, value-diverse, and more people-oriented and family-friendly will assist to enhance women's career options and opportunities. Specifically, the ILO (1998: 4) calls for:

> The development of ways, which can include more flexible working hours, reduced hours of work and adequate child and elder care facilities, to enable both women and men to combine the building of a career and the raising of a family.

Schwartz (1994) states that research reveals a pattern of unequal access to family-supportive benefits. Employees with higher incomes, more education, and higher status jobs (such as managers, professionals and technicians) report greater access to work-family benefits than other workers. Additionally, the research shows that Whites generally report greater access than Blacks to flexible work schedule policies and leave benefits other than paid vacation. Shriner (2005) demonstrates that while women in the paid labour force take on additional responsibilities away from home, their household duties often remain the same. She asserts that the term 'double day' has been used to describe the dual work responsibilities that many women have. These responsibilities are complicated and are often conflicting. Furthermore, although the amount of domestic work performed by men in the United States has increased, women still carry the primary burden of household chores and husbands' contributions to domestic work are typically small.

Hessing (1994) examines how women organise their lives to undertake multiple responsibilities. She also notes, "Women with both paid and household responsibilities must appear to be successful in accomplishing both, or they risk censure or criticism as mothers and/ or employees" (Hessing, 1994: 612). She found that women use the following time management strategies to manager the demands and constraints in their lives: prioritisation, accommodation of time use, routinisation of activities, synchronisation of events, and preparation for contingencies. Dingell and Maloney (2002) state that studies show that women often select industries and occupations that enable them to combine work and family responsibilities, and that jobs where women predominate generally pay less than jobs where men dominate.

This section highlights that a number of social and demographic characteristics contribute to the likelihood that women will enter the workforce. These relate to familial responsibilities, racial characteristics, cultural attitudes prevalent, economic options available, educational status and personal characteristics.

Table 3.1. below illustrates some of the myths versus realities pertaining to women in the workforce identified by Larwood and Wood (1987: 42).

Table 3.1.: Myths versus realities

THE MYTH	THE REALITY
A woman's place is in the home.	Homemaking is no longer a full-time job for most women.
Women's participation in the workforce is primarily for supplemental income.	Most women enter and remain in the workforce in response to economic needs.
Women don't work as long or as regularly as the male co-workers: their training is therefore costly and largely wasted.	A declining number of women leave work for marriage and children. The majority who do leave for a short period and return to the workforce. Studies on labour turnover indicate that the net differences between men and women are generally small.
Married women take away jobs from men.	Most unemployed men do not have the education or the necessary skills and qualifications for many of the jobs held by women (such as secretaries, teachers and nurses). Furthermore, gender occupational segregation of jobs often means that the sectors in which women are dominant (for example, domestic work) are not viewed as viable options by men to enter the workforce.
Women don't want responsibilities associated with promotions on the job.	Relatively few women are offered positions of responsibility. Studies show, however, that when given these opportunities women, like men, do cope with job responsibilities in addition to personal or family responsibilities.
Men don't like to work for women supervisors.	Most men who complain about women supervisors have never worked for a woman.

A Catalyst Survey showed that women utilise a range of flexible work arrangements to accommodate work and family demands. Some of the arrangements include:

- Flexitime: regarded as the most widespread form of flexibility where employees chose starting and ending hours, but usually must be at work during a core period

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when all employees are present.

- Flexible week: a variation on the standard workday and workweek, for example, fewer but longer days (compressed work week) and shorter days in a six-day week.

- Work-at-home, flexplace or telecommuting: some or all work done at a location other than the worksite, usually and employee's home, or a satellite or branch office. Telecommuting implies that an employee is connected to the office by use of electronic equipment such as a computer.

- Flexible reduced time options: this involves fewer hours than full-time. These arrangements affect salary, benefits, and career advancement to varying degrees depending on the arrangement, its length and company policy.

- Part-time: a reduced work schedule that can take various forms: reduced weekly hours, reduced annual hours or transactional work (full-time on a specific project with time off between projects).

- Job sharing: two people share or divide the responsibilities of one full-time job.

3.3 MANAGEMENT AND MANAGERS

People are the employed or contracted workforce of an organisation. Managing this vital human resource component is important because it ensures that work gets done effectively, efficiently and in the optimal way (Schein, 1993). For the purposes of this study it is important to define who a manager is and what management entails. Management is the combined activities of planning, decision making and directing others. An important aspect of management is the concept of leadership. Blair (2002) argues that the concept of leadership is both varied and contested. However, it is worth outlining Beare et al's (1997) and Blair's (2002) ten generalisations for effective leadership in multi-ethnic contexts:

- Transformational rather than transactional leadership: leadership that takes action to change the culture of institutions and organisations in order to ensure that policies and practices take into account staff and client (including learners) diversity. Leaders are aware of established institutional practices that might disadvantage some groups

and so look primarily to their own practices, and not only to the community, to change.

- Outstanding leaders have a vision for their organisation: there must be a commitment to a shared vision which reflects different interests and concerns.

- Vision must be communicated in a way that secures commitment among members of the organisation: in multi-ethnic contexts, sharing and communicating a vision must take account of fears and anxieties, and must find ways of discussing and interacting that seek to remove feelings of guilt and to increase confidence.

- Communication of vision requires the communication of meaning: the use of appropriate and sensitive language is important in this regard.

- Issues of value (what ought to be) are central to leadership: what ought to be is needed to be centralised in terms of policies, decisions and practices.

- The leader has the important role of developing the culture of the organisation: the culture of an institution or organisation is one in which all values and beliefs focus on inclusion, on a deliberate consciousness of diversity and on practices that reflect this diversity. Practical strategies must be developed to deal with contentious issues.

- Collaborative decision-making within a framework of state and local policies: all stakeholders are given the opportunity to participate in discussions and decision-making and to express their concerns and fears. Directives are a last resort after full consultation and communication.

- Due consideration to different kinds of leadership forces: recognition that there are many kinds of leadership forces (technical, human, education, symbolic and cultural) and these need to be integrated and dispersed throughout the institution or organisation.

- Attention should be given to institutionalising vision if leadership of the transforming kind is to be successful: institutionalising vision involves the recognition of the basic need of all humans for respect, recognition and justice. The leader acknowledges historical processes of exclusion and places issues of diversity and difference at the centre of the institution's vision.

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- Both masculine and feminine qualities are important in leadership: a recognition that there are different type of leadership and managerial styles.

Reskin and Padavic (1988) assert that managerial categories are broad and include diverse occupations/ positions that vary considerably in the prestige and income they command, the qualifications they require and the kinds of persons they admit. Fagenson (1993) supports this contention and further argues that women within the managerial sector are disproportionately concentrated at levels that are less prestigious and have lower remuneration than those positions typically occupied by men. Women rarely hold managerial positions with the greatest power and are seldom on career ladders that lead to top management. Instead, Grant (1988) argues, they are tracked into departments or jobs that offer little opportunity for decision-making. Women managers tend to be concentrated in service-orientated departments. In the banking sector, women managers tend to be concentrated in lower management positions, especially as small branch managers. This implies that women managers are often physically segregated from the central organisation and the people who might further their careers.

3.3.1 Management and Gender

Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997) assert that racial, gendered and class forms of oppression need to be understood in a structural context. As illustrated earlier, there is sufficient evidence that demonstrates that women in similar job positions who display equal education and experience do not earn as much as men in comparable tasks. Singh (1995) and Snipes et al (1998) assert that generally two perspectives are often cited as explaining the above situation. The first, argues that women are not adapted to outside employment, are incapable of performing well and are therefore paid less. This position also justifies occupational segregation by asserting that women are naturally well suited to certain jobs. On the other hand, opponents offer the interpretation that women are widely discriminated against in a patriarchal and sexist society.

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The ILO (1998) asserts that the nature of women's career paths that blocks their progress to top positions since at lower management levels women are typically placed in non-strategic sectors, and in personnel and administrative positions, rather than in professional and line management jobs leading to the top. This is often compounded by women's limited access to formal and informal networks essential for advancement. The ILO (1998) also notes that in large companies and organisations where women have achieved high level managerial positions, these are usually restricted to those areas considered less vital and strategic to the organisation such as human resources and administration. Women's career trajectories do not result in them moving into strategic management areas such as productive development or corporate finance. There therefore exists a pyramid structure for women's presence in management and administrative positions with the powerful, strategic positions being almost exclusively the domain of males. The ILO (1998) also refers to these barriers as glass walls. Wirth (2001) states that the glass walls ensure that women are not being trained for and offered mid-level positions that prepare them for the top. She presents the case of the United Kingdom where a 1998 survey showed that women are more likely to be personnel managers (50%), actuarial, insurance and pension managers (44%) and marketing managers (38%). The survey indicates that there are very few research and development managers (3.4%) and manufacturing and production managers (3.5%) who are women.

Given the patriarchal nature of most societies and households, and the concomitant double workloads that most working women experience (being responsible for domestic responsibilities despite entering the workforce); management is bound to have an impact on women's social and personal lives that are different from that of men. In fact these pressures may be increased for female managers whose entrance into the management domain is not viewed as being part of traditional, female occupations. Thus, as Larwood and Wood (1987) suggest, a woman entering management must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept.

Although the usual definition of a manager is masculine, the management tasks are not strongly associated with either sex. Larwood and Wood (1987) and Legge (1987) therefore suggest that it is conformity to sex and work roles, rather that specific tasks and preferences, which largely determine the androcentric nature of management. This is especially true today as increasingly management is viewed more as the building and sustaining of team spirit and group work.

3.3.2 Strategies for Entering and Advancing in Management

A great deal of research has documented the difficulties women have experienced in advancing through the ranks of managers (Brooks and Brooks, 1997; David and Woodward, 1998; Dipboye, 1978; 1987; 1992; Epstein, 1985; Fagenson, 1993; Gordon and Strober, 1985; Henning and Jardim, 1977; Jacobs, 1995; Larwood and Wood, 1987; Miller, 1985; Powell, 1988; 1993; Powell and Butterfield, 1994). However, despite these challenges women are increasingly entering management positions in greater numbers. Three explanations, summarised below, have been forwarded that attempt to interpret this process. These are the glorified-secretary hypothesis, re-segregation hypothesis and title-inflation hypothesis (Jacobs, 1995: 154-156).

- Glorified-secretary hypothesis: Jacobs (1995) suggests that the Equal Employment Opportunity regulations have mandated a certain number of workers at certain levels in terms of gender, race and ethnic composition. Additionally, firms are expected to file reports in this regard. However, because the reporting categories are broad, employers are able to classify employees with little authority as managers. Miller (1980: 9) noticed in the United States that the representation of women in management rose rapidly largely because "there has been considerable retitling of positions in some large organisations: under the impetus of affirmative action the administrative secretary has become the administrative assistant or the business administrator and is therefore now classified as a managerial worker."

- Re-segregation hypothesis: This explanation is posited by Reskin and Ross (1990) who

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found that the entry of women into previously male-dominated fields neither represents true desegregation nor results in the gains in earnings and other rewards usually accorded to entry into management. It was found that generally the status of these occupations was declining before women started to enter management positions (men were already leaving or joining in diminishing numbers). Bird's (1990) study of bank branch managers is worth recounting here. The findings indicated that the growth of employment in banking during the 1970s, pressure from the Equal Employment Opportunity Council and the availability of highly educated young women interested in the field led to a rapid influx of women into bank management. However, women's gains were concentrated in lower management positions, generally as branch managers.

- Title-inflation hypothesis: This view simply holds that the entry of women into management coincides with the dissemination of managerial titles, alluded to in the discussion on the glorified-secretary hypothesis, to positions without significant status or authority.

A range of strategies outlined below may be utilised by women for entering and advancing in management. Brooks and Brooks (1997) derive strategies for advancement from the experience of successful female managers. Helgesen (1996) argues that these often result in altering the conditions surrounding the current management masculine bias and creating opportunities for women. As David and Woodward (1998) illustrate, these strategies are critical for negotiating the glass ceiling.

- Visibility: A woman is better off in a highly visible position except when her achievements are threatening to others or of a relatively poor quality.
- Ability: Women are in a better position to advance if they demonstrate their ability to do their job efficiently and effectively. The proof of ability is not easy for women who often have to demonstrate that they are better than their male counterparts and not only that they are able to do the job just as well as men. Some methods do exist for enhancing the demonstration of ability. Women are better able to advance if they invest in acquiring the necessary qualifications to support their aspirations.

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- Fellowship: Women can seek assistance from other women or supportive men. This development of a support network can be crucial for recognition, information and references if needed.

- Acceptance of opportunities: Women must find and take opportunities granted to them. This is particularly important as new equity and affirmative action laws often legislate that companies develop and create special opportunities for women and other previously disadvantaged groups.

- The apprentice: Service as an apprentice is virtually required at some point to successfully move up in an organisation. The evolution of the gate-keeping role in most organisations is viewed as being natural. Also, the apprentice often is expected to be loyal to the gate-keeper. Within the apprentice strategy, however, the woman finds someone to learn from and to help. Often, the woman's position is solidified and she is assured of continuing to advance as rapidly as her patron advances ahead of her.

- Communication strategy: Women need to develop and make better use of the grapevine in getting and giving jobs. The informal communications network provides a valuable mechanism for the exchange of ideas and information.

Surti (1995: 61) contends that new opportunities for education and employment, new socio-economic patterns and new equal political and legal rights given to women are slowly changing the traditional conceptions of the roles and the status of women in society. This is particularly playing a crucial role in the way women think of themselves and their abilities to exert more control over their choices and destinies. Chesterman (2004) argues that the most important issue in getting more women into management was explicit support from the senior executive. Additionally, it was important that women were present in a critical mass, particularly at senior management levels.

3.3.3. Current Position of Women in Management

There are critically few women executives and managers in proportion to the total number of women workers. Women represent only a small proportion of managers, managerial personnel or well-educated technical and professional personnel from where managers are often drawn (Arvery, 1997; Collinson, 1987; 1990). Across all vocation types, male managers on average earn more than female mangers. Additionally, female managers are less likely to advance to better positions. This general situation, however, is changing. Fagenson (1993) states that in recent years more women are seeking the qualifications and training opportunities necessary for management positions. Also, larger numbers of women are entering management. Women are entering the workplace in substantial numbers and assuming roles of substantial authority. These changes are bound to have significant effects in society and in the workplace.

However, many women will not have the advantage described above. For some of those who do, management will represent a conflict with family interests. Executive positions often make unusual time and social demands. Freeman (1990) states that in view of the time demands, many female managers hire domestic help. However, despite the domestic help, the fact that women are still responsible for reproductive responsibilities (even if it to plan and manage how they get done rather than do it themselves) women are less likely to have time for relaxation and leisure, especially at the end of a working day. Fagenson (1993) shows that female managers are only a third as likely as men to be married. Furthermore, married women executives are less likely than male executives to have children. If they do have children, however, they spend more time with their children than men. The table below summarises the pressures for and against changes affecting women's managerial aspirations (adapted from Loring and Wells, 1982: 37).

Table 3.2.: Pressures for and against changes affecting women's managerial aspirations

TOWARD CHANGE	AGAINST CHANGE
- Demographic changes in age, family size and life styles - More democratic, humanistic values among large groups of the population - Equity legislation which impact on the legal system - Vigorous *ad hoc* groups to focus on special groups and problems - Aspirations for moving upward and taking more responsibility - Power of knowledge, expertise and experience in specialised fields	- Traditional views of women - Rigid, authoritarian, hierarchical forms of organisations - Institutionalised power that is carefully guarded - Patterns of business and professional relationships that have not included women - Habits of discrimination and patronisation by men - Inertia of the *status quo*/ resistance to any change - Potential threat to self image and gender expectations - Concern for profitability as power and cost patterns shift

The issues outlined in Table 3.2. can be categorised as three key sources of gender inequality as identified by Addi-Raccah and Ayalan (2002: 158):

- Gender differentials at the individual level such as ambition, ability or concurrent responsibilities;

- Organisation or occupational context in which a person works such as screening procedures and occupational vacancies; and

- Wider social context such as labour-market structure or sex role stereotypes.

Women managers also play an important role in challenging gender stereotypes. The increasing numbers of women in management positions help erase the stereotypes of management as a masculine domain and of managers as males. Daughters and other younger females related to women managers are likely to approve and accept their roles. They will also be more likely to seek employment and strive towards higher paying, leadership positions. The effects of women's employment in managerial positions also impact on gender relations more generally. Husbands and male colleagues of professional women come to respect and support their achievements and ambitions. Thus, women who become managers

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serve as examples that help to break restrictive social and economic stereotypes, diminishes the likelihood of further female discrimination and allows other females to develop and apply their abilities and aspirations.

3.3.4 Women and Management/ Leadership Styles

Longenecker and Pringle (1981: 136) argue that there is a great deal of variation in decision-making styles that "reflect differences among managers in the way they perceive, organise, and understand their environment. These differences stem from dissimilar work backgrounds, educational experiences, social influences, value systems, and, particularly, psychological attributes." Plenderleith (2000) raises the questions whether women make better managers than men. Eagly and Johnson (1990) indicate that research either verifies or challenges that leadership styles may be attributed to gender differences. Chapman and Luthans' (1978: 229) study illustrated that women leaders exhibit a style that is more human-relationship-orientated than their male counterparts. On the other hand, the same study indicates that women may also exhibit a leadership style that is more task-orientated than their male counterparts because their very survival in a leadership position may be one of "getting-the-job-done". Additionally, Plenderleith (2000) asserts that many women entering the ranks of management still face the criticism on opposing fronts: either they are presumed to be too 'feminine' for effective leadership, or they are denigrated for more 'masculine' behaviour.

In one comprehensive study of the relationship between sex role stereotypes and management characteristics, Anderson (1989) found that successful middle managers are perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women. For example, successful managers were more similar to men in terms of emotional stability, aggressiveness, leadership ability, self-reliance, certainty, vigour, desiring responsibility, extent of knowledge and straight-forwardness. On the other hand, characteristics such as understanding, helpfulness and intuitiveness were more commonly ascribed to women. Another study by Dipboye (1987) revealed that out of a sample of 200

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women, only 15% indicated a preference of authoritarian or task-orientated leadership styles. The study concludes that women tend to be relationship- or participative-orientated as opposed to task-orientated. However, because this study did not ascertain male perceptions the assumption is that men are task-orientated. Thus, at best the conclusions are tentative.

Plenderleith (2000) cites two studies that illustrated that women are viewed to be better managers than men. The first was a study conducted by Lawrence A. Pfaff and Associates (Michigan-based) in 1999 which showed 2 400 managers rating women above men in 17 out of 20 skill areas. The second was a California-based study undertaken by Hagberg Consulting Group which showed more than 400 executives ranking women above men in more than 80% of skills. In these studies the main areas where women scored well were mentoring, productivity and decisiveness.

The ILO (1998) in advancing a position supporting breaking the glass ceiling for women in management argues that current debates on more flexible managerial styles and approaches (intended to maximise human resource utilisations) as well as serving the interest of enterprises attracting and retaining qualified and talented women in a competitive environment could provide positive perspectives for increasing women's share of managerial jobs in the future.

In terms of the literature reviewed pertaining to women's ways of leadership there remains central questions that are unresolved. Is it helpful to think in terms of specific qualities that women leaders bring to organisations? Does this process not reinforce gender role and behaviour stereotypes? As Plenderleith (2000: 1) states, "While recent studies give high marks to women as managers, some see these studies as creating stereotypes of their own." Furthermore, Plenderleith's (2000) study illustrates that subordinates generally say that their main concern is not the gender of their boss, but their management style.

3.3.5. Black Women in Management

Bell et al (1994) indicate that despite legislative mandates to eradicate racial discrimination in the workplace, African-American managers still encounter a number of interrelated barriers that operate at the individual, group and organisational level to restrict advancement. For Black and African–American women, the conditions are often worse (Davidson, 1997). At the individual level, the key barrier identified is subtle racism and prejudice. African-Americans work in an environment where Whites often hold negative stereotypes and attitudes about their suitability and competence for management and leadership responsibilities. There also experience racial harassment in the form of racial slurs, racial jokes and abusive language. Inter-group conflicts and exclusion from formal and informal networks are also deemed to create dynamics at a group level that restrict mobility and advancement. Within organisational systems African-American managers have less access to mentors, are subjected to bias in the rating of their performance and promotability, and are functionally segregated into jobs less likely to be on the path to top levels of management. Additionally, efforts to rightsize and/ or downsize operations have also had detrimental impacts on African-Americans prospects for advancement. The experiences highlighted here are particularly relevant in South Africa given its apartheid past.

While all women are generally under-represented in management, Black women are less well-represented than White women. Braddock and Bachelder (1994) state that in the United States White women have attained a critical mass in management, whereas non-White women have not. In South Africa, as a result of the apartheid legacy, African women in particular are disadvantaged. Bell et al (1993) illustrate that a review of much of the existing literature on women and management indicates that the scholarship primarily addresses the concerns and experiences of White women managers in the Western world. Black women in management concerns and interests tend to be neglected. This is partly as a result of the approaches and research being undertaken as well as the lack of accurate data pertaining to working women in developing countries. The outcome of this lack of information about Black women managers at the organisational level leads to women of colour not being fully

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integrated into significant management positions. Furthermore, the double advantage hypothesis as purported by Epstein (1973) remains unchallenged. There is the assumption that Black women benefit from affirmative action and equity programmes from two aspects: because of their race and their gender. This problematic position fails to adequately understand the double jeopardy that most Black women experience in contending with both racist and sexist norms and practices prevalent in society and the workplace. In terms of women and management, Bell et al's (1993) study illuminates that Black women are less likely to advance to managerial positions when compared to their White female counterparts. Furthermore, Black women managers are more likely to be concentrated in lower managerial positions.

3.3.6 Gendered Language in the Management World

Many studies have indicated that exclusionary language that reinforces gender roles and stereotypes are prevalent in the workforce (Collinson et al, 1990; Johnson and Kelly, 1978; Steinberg, 1995). Furthermore, Helgesen's (1996) study exposes that in the workplace, the term girls are often used to refer to adult females. Words such as "chairman" and "manager" tend to be gender specific. At the most basic level, literal language interpretation together with observation, reinforces perceptions that certain occupations and positions are best suited for males. The use of exclusionary language is also discernable in job advertising practices. It is unlikely that a woman will feel comfortable and confident applying for a job advertised for a "foreman" or a "salesman".

3.3.7 Women Managers and Organisational Structures

Culture refers to the behavioural patterns and values of a social group (Wheelen and Hunger, 1993). These values are socially transmitted and reflected in both formal and informal ways. Many studies (David, 1995; Norris, 1980) indicate that organisations are characterised by a distinctive ambiance or environmental ethos. The organisational culture has both formal and informal components. Egan (1994: cited in Mullins, 1996: 715) defines organisational culture as "the assumptions, beliefs, values and norms that drive 'the way we do things here'."

Organisational culture impacts staff morale, the extent to which conflicts are minimised or worsened, productivity as well as efficiency.

It is important to examine organisational climates since, as David (1995) asserts, organisational climates bring to light silent management philosophy and behaviour as well as implicit assumptions about what people are like and the inevitable results that will follow. In different climates, individuals may find their scope of activities limited or their growth potential depending on their ability to influence the working environment. Furthermore, Steinberg (1995) asserts that job evaluation systems as well as recruitment and promotion practices are ways in which organisational practices introduce cultural assumptions about men and women into the labour force. Generally, two different types of organisational climates impact on women's roles within the organisation. The more rigid and traditional the sex-role expectations the more authoritarian the climate. The more accepting of women as individuals and as people, the more egalitarian the climate. The more authoritarian the climate, the more likely will women be found in low-paying, low-skilled jobs. Fewer women would occupy management level positions and these will be heavily concentrated in lower management. The more egalitarian the climate, the more likely will women be found participating in a wide range of positions at management decision-making levels. The ILO (1998) identifies the predominance of male values and gender roles as a critical factor preventing women from rising to the top. The ILO (1998) cites a 1995 survey of 355 personnel managers and female bank managers in the European Union which illustrated that respondents ranked the dominance of male values as the biggest obstacle to recruiting and promoting women to management positions (68.8%) and family obligations as the second biggest (45.8%).

In addition to the formal environment, informal organisational structures affect prospects for female managers. When employees enter a new organisation they learn how to relate to the work norms, social attitudes and informal leadership. Anderson (1989) on professional women indicates that women do not benefit from informal interaction (over lunches, coffee,

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sports, drinks, conversations, etc.) to the same degree as men. Women are often left out of such activities and because they are fewer female managers, bonding with other female managers at the level of the male managers become difficult. It is these informal activities, however, that create and sustain the old boys network/ club. Thus, informal networks are critical in terms of communication with significant others within the organisation. This is often important for a person's upward mobility. Informal networks are also central to accessing information pertinent to the functioning of the organisation as well as to opportunities within and even outside the organisation. An interesting finding of Helgesen (1996) is that this exclusion of women is not only attributable to males excluding females but also a product of self-exclusion.

Litwin and Stringer's (1966 cited in Barker, 2001) research into leadership behaviour and workplace motivation suggests that leaders are prompted to adopt certain styles by their underlying characteristics and workplace motives. Barker (2001) extends this view and asserts that these styles have stable, consistent and predictable repercussions for the workplace climate for employees, strongly influencing their ability to perform well. Furthermore, it is imperative that to improve organisational climate and performance leaders must learn how to manage their own motives and select an appropriate combination of styles to motivate the workforce. The Table below summarises how leadership styles impact on organisational climate.

Table 3.3: How leadership style impact on climate (Barker, 2001: 69 based on Litwin and Stringer, 1966; 1968)

Climate	Style		
	(A) Control, rules, order; emphasis on standards; criticism of poor performance	(B) Informality, relaxed; emphasis on friendly relations; widespread rewards and cooperation	(C) Informality; rewards for excellent performance; high standards for individuals and organisation; cooperation, stress and challenge
Rules	<	>	>
Responsibility	<	>	>
Standards	>	<	>
Rewards outweigh criticism	<	>	>
Organisational clarity	>	<	>
Team spirit	<	>	>

>: style has a positive effect on organisational climate
<: style has a negative effect on organisational climate

Barker (2001) illustrates that organisation style A was led to arouse the need for power, defined as the need to control or influence others and to control the means of influencing others; organisation style B was directed to arouse the need for affiliation, defined as the need for close interpersonal relationships and friendships with other people; and organisation style C aimed to arouse the need for achievement; defined as the need for success in relation to an internalised standard of excellence. The study concluded that organisational style C proved to be the more successful.

Chesterman et al (2004) show that while many senior female executive managers had struggled against discrimination, over time they did not see themselves as tokens in leadership. The researchers demonstrate that initially it was apparent that that in applying for management positions many women had been, and some continued to be, reticent about their capabilities, doubting that they should apply for the jobs. Chesterman et al (2004) state that

the research project showed that women in senior positions were seen to have an impact on managerial cultures. They indicate that both men and women suggested that women approached management differently to men. Women were seen to encourage greater collaboration, more consultative decision-making processes and more collegial workplaces. They were described as encouraging to staff and colleagues and as showing more 'emotional intelligence'. Women were also believed to discourage competitive behaviour; to emphasise values such as honesty and integrity; and to focus on the welfare of the organisation, clients and co-workers.

McDougall (1998) explores the implications for gender equality of a decentralised organisational structure in which the key element is devolved responsibility to line managers. The central question raised is which this form of organisational structure provides and opportunity to integrate the importance of equality and the valuing of gender differences into organisational cultures or does it represent perfect conditions for opting out of addressing gender issues at work. A public sector organisation is used as a case study and McDougall (1998), based on an examination of the case study, proposes a model for devolvement of gender management and suggests strategies such as training, communication and reviewing processes.

3.3.8 Women and Harassment in the Workplace

Kincheloe and Steinberg (1997) assert that the resentment of women in the workforce expresses itself in a variety of pathological ways, the most visible of which is sexual harassment.

> Respect for ability and upward mobility aside, the power and status differential between women and men in workplaces, organisations and academic institutions provides many men with a perceived licence to 'handle' women in ways that are degrading and hurtful. Such harassment continues despite the social conversation about gender dynamics that has taken place over the past three decades.

Harassment of women in the workforce is a well documented and often cited problem limiting women's interest and tenure in male-dominated professions (Dunkel, 1994; Paul and Townsend, 1998; Stromberg and Harkess, 1988). However, it is difficult to ascertain the extent of harassment in the workplace since many cases of harassment goes undetected or unreported. The harassment takes many forms including physical, sexual and psychological abuse. In particular,

> Sexual discrimination refers to the process of responding differently to the members of each sex. Rather than necessarily signalling deliberate manipulation, discrimination may be unconscious and a genuine response to real or imagined differences between the sexes.
>
> (Larwood and Wood, 1987: xiv)

Pandey et al's (1995) study concludes that women managers experience stress in the banking sector in India as a result of insecurity problems related particularly to new places of work, sexual harassment at work, losing out on promotion opportunities and discrimination on the basis of gender from subordinates, peers and superiors. Women managers, like women in the working world generally, disproportionately face sexual exploitation and harassment in the workplace. Sexual harassment in the form of advances, threats and/ or appearance-based remarks is encountered by many working women. Although many laws are in place to protect women from sexual harassment, Benjamin (2000) asserts that women feel they might be jeopardising their positions by openly complaining about abusive co-workers and/ or superiors. Clarke (1986) illustrates that women managers often endure harassment from superiors. Furthermore, although women managers have been subjugated to harassment by peers and superiors, it is more likely that they will be exposed to the "hostile or offensive environment" (Clarke, 1986: 36) harassment that is inflicted upon them by co-workers, clients or subordinates.

3.3.9 Education, Training, Development and Capacity Building

Women's access to education is a critical factor in determining life opportunities, especially in the formal employment sector. Despite vast improvements in recent decades, women's access to education (especially higher education) remains a key challenge in developing countries. What is also important is women's poor access to higher education is often accompanied by under-representation of women in science and technology and a clustering of women in the traditional female studies of arts, humanities, languages, education and health care (UNESCO, 2002). Women generally lag behind men in management and business studies. Additionally, the number of women in postgraduate studies tends to decline. Budlender and Sutherland (n.d.) indicate that in South Africa women accounted for 49% of honours degrees awarded in 1993, but only 34% of masters and 29% of all doctoral degrees. UNESCO (2002) further indicates that even in countries where equity policies are well developed and special support programmes are in place, women are generally under-represented in all educational levels. They identify main factors which inhibits women's entry into education, especially in higher education. These are (UNESCO, 2002: 23):

- Economic-demographic factors: poverty (gender bias in education is sharper under poverty conditions); family size (gender discrimination in education is sharper in larger households), regional, class and caste differentials in economic and demographic conditions.

- Socio-cultural factors: conflict between women's productive and reproductive roles; conflict between women's immediate and delayed (career training) productive value; early marriage and child bearing; absence of positive role models; lack of appreciation of the overall value of education (including higher education); and fear of deterioration of social structure.

- Delivery-system factors: general male orientation/ preference at the primary and secondary levels; male-oriented curriculum biases; male mentors and staff; lack of female education and career counseling; lack of gender-specific facilities (toilets, domicile, transport); distance of educational facilities from home; and lack of women's safety in the educational environment.

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Hill and King (1995) show that while educational progress has been enjoyed by both sexes, the advances have failed to eradicate the gender gap. Education, they assert, enhances labour market productivity and income growth for all, yet educating women has beneficial effects on social well-being not always measured by the market. Improved education for women can increase women's productivity in and outside the home which in turn can enhance family health, child survival and the investment in children's human capital. Hill and King (1995) argue that the social benefits from women's education range from fostering economic growth to extending the average life expectancy in the population, to improving the functioning of political processes.

UNESCO (2002) asserts that women's lack of appropriate competencies and skills, both social and managerial, are important barriers to their ability to compete on an equal footing with men. Training programmes for women are an important strategy for developing the necessary competencies and skills that will improve their ability to compete with their male counterparts. Training can be defined as the acquisition of specific skills / knowledge that can be utilised in the work environment. Capacity building is a process related to training whereby you have the right people doing specific jobs/tasks, with the right skills and at the right time and place. This in turn leads to the ability of an organisation to carry out all its tasks/ functions. Furthermore, as illustrated by Mullins (1996) and Longenecker and Pringle (1981), training and capacity building plays an important role in increasing job satisfaction and enrichment. In essence, "training should be viewed as an investment in people" (Mullins, 1996: 636).

Arya (1990: 59) defines training as a short term process utilising a systematic and organised procedure by which non-managerial personnel learn technical knowledge and skills for a definite purpose. Training is the process of assisting personnel in increasing their efficiency and effectiveness at work. Development, on the other hand, is a long term educational process utilising a systematic and organised procedure by which managerial personnel learn

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conceptual and theoretical knowledge for general purposes.

Development opportunities are central to enter, advance and survive in managerial positions. Many studies show that training and development opportunities in organisations are highly gendered (Arya, 1990; Collinson et al, 1990; Greenberger, 1996; Helgesen, 1996; Strober, 1985). These studies illustrate that training and development opportunities are not equally accessible to all employees. Generally, men benefit from these opportunities.

The importance of management development and capacity building is critical since as Human (1991: 2) states:

> Development is a process in which ability can increase through the dynamic and complex interaction between the individual's perceived ability, his or her motivation and the way in which the person is managed. In other words, development is a process which also depends on the individual's motivation to develop and the extent to which he or she is 'allowed' to develop both by the environment in which he/ she works and by the expectations of other.

This conceptualisation of the process of development suggests that this in itself is a process that needs to be planned and managed. Particularly in relation to the development of previously disadvantaged groups for managerial positions, this requires a change in orientation not only in the minds of the targeted groups/ individuals but also those who occupy managerial and leadership positions. People management skills thus become critical for the development and retention of those with managerial potential.

For the development of managers, the transition period is particularly important. Transition, as Bowmaker-Falconer (1991) illustrates, is about the adjustment to, the assimilation into and the early development of newcomers within organisations. For any newcomer, especially women, it is about a step into the relatively unknown and about how both newcomers and the

organisations manage this adjustment and the early part of the development process. One's ability to adjust to organisational life and expectations can have a profound impact on longer term development. Evaluation reports of training programmes geared towards women indicate positive outcomes such as increased consciousness of the issues facing women, the formation of networks, increased motivation, increased knowledge and competencies, and significant career moves (UNESCO, 2002).

It is worth revisiting a model forwarded by Bowmaker-Falconer (1991) regarding the development process which is seen as the outcome of a dynamic interaction between ability, motivation/ willingness and the extent to which people are allowed to develop. In this model due consideration is given to individual ability as well as internal and external organisational dimensions. The dimensions of understanding and enabling competent performance in this model are:

- Able: potential, education, preparation and training
- Willing: personal motivation, personal commitment, challenge and self-esteem
- Allowed: opportunity, support and a culture of development

Training for women and management should include the following areas (UNESCO, 2002):

- Management development
- Leadership
- Managing personal and professional roles
- Women and governance

Another important aspect of development and building capacity among women is the strategy of mentoring. UNESCO (2002) states that recognising the important role of mentors in the careers of successful people has led an increasing number of organisations and corporations to establish formalised mentoring programmes. Mentoring programmes can play a pivotal role to orient new employees, foster executive and management development, assist in career advancement, improve job performance and decrease employee turnover.

3.4 THE NATIONAL ARENA/ DYNAMICS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Racial and sexual inequities characterise South African society and the economy. Relative to White men, men and women of colour as well as White women are more often unemployed or under-employed. Furthermore, when employed their positions, status and earnings are disproportionate to that of White males. In South Africa, the transformational goals inherent in affirmative action and equity legislation more generally have centralised issues pertaining to the employment of women and Blacks (Perumal, 1994). The practices of the past are no longer acceptable and various legal and governmental actions have declared that new approaches must be implemented. In terms of women in management, pragmatic pressures are being exerted on employers to implement goals and timetables to work more women into management structures and positions. However, despite this empowering legislative environment it is becoming obvious that there is a vast, easily observable difference between what some managers and political leaders are articulating about equal opportunity for women and what is really happening.

Human (1991: vi) states:

> Although we, like many South Africans, are looking forward to the time when
> race and gender become irrelevant in any discussion of the development of
> people, to ignore race and gender in the short term is to deny the reality of the
> racism and sexism which exist in our society.

According to Human (1991), organisations in South Africa are in the process of developing increasingly complex procedures to screen people out rather then to bring people in. Furthermore, organisations are constantly bemoaning the lack of competent people, especially from disadvantaged backgrounds, to fill managerial and supervisory posts. On the other hand, many employees are demotivated by the lack of development opportunities made available to them. Mazwai (1990) states that South Africa faces the choice between the

development or destruction of the strongest economy on the continent. Central to development is to enable Blacks and women to achieve their economic aspirations.

Blanchard and Crosby (1989) and Miller (1985) assert that the Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity legislation have assisted in accelerating the transition and increased the urgency to redress gender inequalities in the workplace in the United States of America. Another factor identified by Miller (1985) for the increasing demand for women managers is the growing belief in the importance of interpersonal skills. Women are thought more likely to be interpersonally aware than men because they have generally been socialised to do so. It is also hoped that these women will discover new styles of management, enlarging the inventory of managerial skills for men as well as women. The legislative framework under the affirmative action programme in South Africa together with the changing perceptions of the multiple and varied skills that managers should possess will positively impact on the demand for female managers. However, two concerns relevant in the context of South Africa need to be highlighted. The first is whether there are sufficient training and leadership building opportunities for women to respond to the demand, that is, will demand be balanced with the supply of adequately trained female managers? Second, a concern raised by Zimmer (1988), will the need to have women managers visible and reflecting the required numbers in terms of quotas lead to tokenistic appointments?

Any programme to advance women into decision-making levels will have varied levels of frustration for those involved. Perumal's (1994) study shows that male managers generally perceive these attempts as increasing the organisation's risk. On the other hand, women generally perceived the changes as being slow.

3.4.1 Legislative and Infrastructural Environment

> However strong are women's aspirations, and however much they support each other, progress will be extremely slow unless and until there is a public recognition that a problem exists and needs to be tacked.
>
> (Finch, 1997: 31)

The provision of appropriate legislation and infrastructural support is a critically important aspect for creating an enabling environment to address gender issues. However, it is important to note that gender equity legislations (as well as policies and programmes) represent good intentions. A real challenge is to ensure that these laudable intentions are put into practice and translates into real and meaningful change. As the ILO (1998) states, although governments, enterprises and organisations have over the years committed themselves to policies and programmes to advance women, they have met with varying degrees of success. A key area of positive effect has been the impact on younger generations of men and women. However, despite women's increasing level of qualification and work performance, they have generally not moved as quickly as expected up the career ladders. The ILO (1998) asserts that participation in decision-making is one of the most resistant areas for gender equality. Bagilhole (2002) argues that the issue of where power is located in an organisation (and who presides over it) is important because being relatively powerful allows individuals to confidently offer varying responses to policies including those that reduce their effectiveness, without fear of retribution.

> The implementation of policies relies on things like 'commitment, understanding, capability, resources' and ultimately power to effect change or in this case to inhibit change. Policies enter existing patterns of inequality. They impact or are taken up differently as a result. Policy is not exterior to inequalities, although it may change them, it is also affected, inflected and deflected by them, particularly by those with power.
>
> (Bagilhole, 2002: 23)

Among legislative frameworks which create an enabling environment for women in South Africa are:

- United Nations (1979) Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women: South Africa is a signatory to this international convention which sets out in legally binding form internationally accepted principles and measures to achieve equal rights for women everywhere. The Convention recognises that widespread discrimination of women solely on the basis of their sex and call for equal rights for women in all spheres of life: political, economic, social, cultural and civil. The Convention mandates the development of national legislation to ban discrimination. It also recommends temporary special measures and mechanisms to ensure equality between men and women and to modify social and cultural patterns that perpetuate discrimination. According to UNESCO (2002), other measures in the Convention provide for equal rights for men and women in political and public life; equal access to education and the same choice of curricula; non-discrimination in employment and pay; and guarantees of job security in the event of marriage and maternity. Furthermore, the Convention underlines the equal responsibilities of men with women in the context of family life as well as stresses the social services needed (especially child-care facilities) for combing family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life.

UNESCO (2002) states that equity policies and programmes are assured of greater success if they are backed by legislation at international, national or even institutional levels.

Examples of measures creating a supportive and enabling environment include the establishment of a Gender Commission under the President's Office and Equity Offices. The purposes of these structures are to ensure the development of gender policies and plans, raise awareness of equity issues, and to monitor and evaluate the implementation of gender equity plans. As UNESCO (2002: 108) forwards:

Support structures that are helpful are: preparation and distribution of clear guidelines on gender related topics; the setting of clear reporting procedures; the establishment of a monitoring and reporting agency; the establishment of equal opportunity offices; the setting up of special agencies and commissions to assist with achieving set objectives and targets.

3.4.2 Women in Management and Affirmative Action

Human (1991) states that the history of South African society is basically one in which life chances have been assigned, consciously and inequitably, along racial lines. This also has a distinctive gender pattern given the high levels of patriarchy in South African society. The factors that impact on the development of female managers in South Africa can be divided into those which affect the movement of women into managerial positions and the factors which impact on the development and ability to perform once they are there. An important trend in South Africa and in many parts of the world, especially in the United States of America and Europe, has been a concern with the integration of Blacks and women into the mainstream of organisational life. Affirmative action and employment equity legislation form the backdrop for counteracting the effects of past discriminatory practices linked to apartheid and patriarchal practices. Human (1991) argues that the main focus was on Black advancement and empowerment and centres around the needs for skills development and training since the major obstacles to Black development were perceived to be the deliberate inferior educational system and limitations imposed on Black people by their culture. Thus, training programmes were designed specifically to overcome perceived deficiencies in Blacks. However, this approach has failed to achieve anticipated results and the Black advancement school of thought has been criticised. This approach tends to neglect the effects of current discriminatory practices and the problem of marginality that persists in the workforce. Furthermore, the highly volatile socio-economic and political landscape that is constantly changing and being challenged also affects the way in which affirmative action is perceived, given prominence and being managed. The widespread and persistent negative attitudes towards the capabilities of Blacks and women is extremely disconcerting since the

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attitudes of White and/ or male managers (who currently dominate the decision-making structures) will impact significantly on performance, opportunity and the development of an enabling environment for the advancement of historically disadvantaged groups.

Day's (1991) study clearly reveals that discrimination on the basis of race and gender appears to be institutionalised in South African organisations and that White male managers as an elite group continue to maintain their privileged position by closing off opportunities to White women and Blacks.

Brook (1991) shows that addressing racial and gender concerns in relation to affirmative action and employment equity in the private sector tends to occur in a continuum in South Africa: some organisations are the leaders in the development and implementation of affirmative action, others pay lip service to affirmative action and practice tokenism, and some vehemently oppose affirmative action. However, public sector organisations tend to exhibit accelerated and reasonable consistent advancement policies because of the unique set of circumstances with which they are faced (Brook, 1991: 67):

- Widespread socio-economic and political reforms in South have coincided with the liberalisation and rationalisation of the Government's personpower strategy. As this is likely to be intensified with the realisation of a new political dispensation, public sector organisations can expect a formalised government policy with respect to 'Black advancement' to be implemented in the near future.

- Most civil service organisations have to expand rapidly to the meet the needs of a swiftly growing population. However, a severe shortage of skilled and semi-skilled employees is currently impeding enlargement and these vacant posts could easily be filled by Blacks in the future.

- Expanding Black urbanisation has resulted in a situation where many positions in the civil service would be filled more appropriately by Blacks than by Whites. Aside from the advantages of increased language and cultural empathy, workforce representativeness would augment the legitimacy and credibility of public sector

organisations.

These dynamics outlined more than a decade ago by Brook (1991) remains important features of South African society. Given this, it is likely that advancement programmes for previously disadvantaged groups will remain integral parts of public organisations' strategies.

Robinson et al (1998: 100) assert that affirmative action is a term which has been increasingly associated with the requirements for special or preferential treatment to individuals because of the membership with a particular group. Additionally, affirmative action implies the active recruitment of members who are part of under-represented or previously disadvantaged groups. These under-represented groups are identified by legislation and in most case include the disabled, non-Whites, women and homosexuals. Tougas and Veilleux (1989: 111) state: "Affirmative action programmes offer one well-recognised means of diminishing sex inequalities in the labour force." This remains true in South Africa today. Developing a climate for change of policies and practices in order to advance and accept women as managers usually means revising organisation-wide procedures and many attitudes.

Bringing in large numbers of women into managers is not costless (Blanchard and Crosby, 1989). Many of the processes (developing projects, training, information dissemination and education) required to effectively bring women into management are costly-both in terms of time and finances. As Stead (1978: 57) asserts in addressing the implementation of equal opportunity programmes for women in the United States:

> Implementing affirmative action takes budget commitment, trained staff, data collection, statistical analysis, careful record keeping, periodic evaluation and constant follow-up. In other words, it is just plain hard work.

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It is important to heed a warning by Strober (1985: 78) who states:

> A company that brings women into management only in order to comply with governmental requirements may be inclined to operate only a token affirmative action programme. A programme merely designed to avoid trouble, however, misses the opportunity to utilise a critical source of untapped ideas and talents.

In this regard, Strober (1985) highlights a range of strategies that need to be developed to bring women into management positions under affirmative action programmes. They are divided into two broad catagories: strategies for direct benefits and strategies for derivative benefits.

1. Strategies for direct benefits: breaking down institutional barriers requires increased attention in four areas: the encouragement of women employees, the improvement of interpersonal communication between male and female employees, the modification of employee search procedures and the modification of job design.

   - Encouragement of women: Because most women today have been socialised to believe that management is for men, women who aspire to managerial careers need frequent reinforcement of their aspirations. Encouragement of women also includes creating real opportunities for training and the acquisition of necessary managerial skills.

   - Improvement of interpersonal communication skills between men and women: Many of the barriers in the workplace between men and women arise because men and women generally do not know how to interact as competitors and colleagues. To address these problems it is important that corporations engage in gender sensitive education workshops and help in creating forums for open, healthy discussions around these types of tensions.

   - Modification of employee search procedures: The basic reason for suggesting modifications in search procedures tend to overlook potential talent, including women. Thus, Arvery (1997) asserts, the employee search and promotion

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environment needs to be transformed to attract women.

- Modification of job design: It is recommended that more flexibility be incorporated in job design. One aspect is to increase the numbers of women in middle and lower management, the pool for upper management positions.

2. Strategies for derivative benefits: The strategies discussed above are for the most part internal to a company. Long-term, derivative strategies refer to more general interventions that are likely to yield benefits primarily in the future. A main focus area is to change people's attitudes towards women and their role(s) in management.

- Product advertising: Companies need to examine their general advertising strategy to see whether it encourages female aspirations. In this regard, advertising stereotypes that reinforce gender roles need especially to be appraised.

- Activities in primary, secondary and tertiary education: Images of females in school curricula need to be challenged. Additionally, educational systems need to encourage females to pursue careers that have traditionally been male-dominated, including careers in management.

- Child-care: As more women enter the workforce, the provision of safe and affordable child-care facilities becomes important. In this regard, companies are urged to provide child-care facilities for their employees.

- Valuing the uniqueness of women: Studies show that women who are able to emulate masculine traits are often supported in organisations for further advancement. As Grant (1988: 58) argues, organisations tend to reproduce themselves by selecting, grooming, promoting and advancing employees, both male and female, who resemble the influential decision-makers (generally men). Thus, women tend to suppress their uniqueness and try and acquire and internalise attributes that have made their male colleagues successful. Hegelson (1995) asserts that female qualities, though learnt through social processes, need to be nurtured if organisations have to be humanised. Feminine traits of caring for other, encouraging cooperation rather than competition, expressing feelings,

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being empathetic and nurturing can help to build a climate of mutual respect and understanding at work.

The following are the key impediments affecting the occupational advancement of women (and Blacks):

- Educational
- Economic
- Organisational
- Legal
- Socio-cultural

These factors are in the context of a growing fear in the workforce that certain groups will replace jobs.

3.5 CONCLUSION

Women form an integral part of human resources in the banking and education sectors. For several decades women have entered jobs in these sectors and many women have moved up to managerial levels. However, as the literature reviewed indicates most of these positions remain at lower and middle-management levels. Additionally, there are several problems that women in management experience. These relate to:

- Women progress more slowly up the managerial hierarchy than men (lack of opportunities to advance and be promoted);
- Women are more likely than men to have their jobs interrupted, usually to take care of family responsibilities relating to motherhood;
- Women managers on average earn less than their male counterparts;
- Women experience the double burden of both participating in the workforce but remaining responsible to undertake or manage domestic chores;
- Women managers report similar or higher levels or job satisfaction as male managers in the same position;

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- Women managers tend to aspire to lower managerial positions;

- Women managers suffer from many forms of sexual harassment and discrimination;

- There are major differences among women managers related to factors such as age, race, ethnicity and educational levels; and

- Women use a range of strategies for entering and advancing in management.

Thus, the review of the literature demonstrates that much still needs to be done to advance women in management and address problems that are currently being experienced. The next chapter examines gender and management issues in the banking and education sectors.

CHAPTER 4

PRIVATE (BANKING) AND PUBLIC (EDUCATION) SECTORS IN SOUTH AFRICA: KEY MANAGEMENT AND GENDER ISSUES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Beijing Platform of Action listed priority areas where further action was vital to ensure the personal empowerment of women so that they could make their full contribution to social development. Women in decision-making posts in all sectors were amongst these priorities. In higher education, this problem needs urgent attention as very few women are national policy-makers or institutional leaders. As this sector undergoes rapid and far-reaching change, the contribution of well-qualified women is not only logical but also a matter of social and professional justice.

(Seddoh, 2002: Foreword)

In the South African context, where transformational and redress agendas are informing changes, the statement above is relevant to all sectors including the banking and education sectors more generally.

4.2 A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS IN SOUTH AFRICA

The colonial and apartheid eras in South Africa provided the basis for White labour market protection in South Africa in both the private and public sectors, although as Brook (1991) states, this was intensified in the public sector. In particular, O'Meara (1986) notes that this White labour protection was underpinned by a large, predominantly Afrikaans speaking White proletariat intended to improve the material circumstances of this group which as considered a very serious socio-political problem. A Department of Labour was created with one of the main objectives being to protect urban Whites from Black competition. Furthermore, inducements were offered to companies whose

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recruitment policies entailed observable efforts to employ Whites over Blacks and minimum wages for certain categories of work was set. Brook (1991) further asserts that successive White governments exploited their exclusive political control sustaining these efforts at mass White upliftment and vast resources were committed to the education, training and general socio-economic advancement of Whites at the expense of Black progress. During this period White, and particularly Afrikaner, state employment increased dramatically.

Although most of the overt White protectionist mechanisms and legislature encouraging and rewarding discriminatory practices have been removed, persistent and widespread attitudes pertaining to the employment of disadvantaged groups at all levels coupled with power still being largely concentrated in male, White hands results in significant barriers existing in the workplace. This has resulted in the gendered and racially-based structure of institutions and organisations remaining generally unchanged. Furthermore, given the often geographical separation of work spaces and limited opportunities for engagement, there is a lack of exposure of certain groups to women and Blacks of equivalent educational standing which contributes significantly to the reinforcement of traditional racial and gender stereotypes. Public sector employment statistics attest to the gendered and racial structuring of jobs in public sector organisations. This includes clearly discernible patterns in relation to occupational segregation and concentration.

It is worth highlighting that the private sector is also characterised by a turbulent environment linked to complexity, rapid change and high levels of uncertainty. The socio-political and economic milieu was entrenched in conflict and external pressures which included consumer boycotts, sanctions, disinvestments and union-organised protests.

4.3 MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOLS AND THE BANKING SECTOR IN SOUTH AFRICA

Aitken (1996) states that managing a school, a private business or a government agency involves developing strategies, determining goals, providing means to achieve them, using resources efficiently, managing people and ensuring the quality of outputs. Although the broad framework of laws governing banks and schools is the same for both, there are also specific laws and regulations for each sector. For instance, public schools are not profit-driven unlike the commercial banking sector. Furthermore, public schools are run by State appointed people and those selected from the local parent community (the School Governing Body) rather than by directors elected by the shareholders who have invested money directly in a particular business such as the banking sector.

Aitken (1996) further states that professional leaders are responsible for ensuring the good reputation of the profession is protected and for maintaining standards of service and conduct. She outlines two important roles of professional leaders:

- Firstly, they must manage the day-to-day maintenance of their profession. This involves ensuring that members of the profession behave in accordance with codes of conduct.

- Secondly, in order to ensure the profession is always at the cutting edge of its field and justified in its monopoly over the skills it controls and the services it provides, the leaders of the profession must promote its ongoing development. This implies guiding the members of their profession towards new practices and keeping members in touch with new developments. Professional leaders, in order to maintain the status of their profession, therefore, control the operation of the profession (a management function) and promote development and change (a leadership function).

4.3.1 Management in the Education Arena/ Schooling Sector

Barker (2001) states that the belief that leadership and management are important permeates the literature of school effectiveness. Schools, and the public sector more generally, are complex social, administrative and political settings. Halliday (1990) asserts that the debates pertaining to management in education are located within the general area of the philosophy of education and the specific area of epistemology which is rooted within the logic of the relationship between educational theory and practice. Furthermore, the educational enterprise is viewed as having three key components:

- Vocationalism: the idea that the central purpose of education is to prepare people for work (and life more generally).

- Managerialism: the idea that the vocational preparation described above can be managed. Outside schools it is even assumed that the preparation can be managed by those who are not intimately concerned with the practice of teaching.

- Consumerism: the idea that education should be led by the demands of the "market".

Blair (2002) states that the literature on schools has emphasised the importance of leadership for the effectiveness of institutions. Key characteristics of effectiveness in schools include the following: strong leadership, a positive learning environment, high expectations, order, structured teaching, and positive relationships with learners and with parents and communities. However, Blair (2002) argues that discussions of school leadership have neglected to examine the specific challenges for leaders in multi-ethnic contexts (relevant to South Africa) and the qualities necessary to reverse the trend of underachievement among identified groups.

Sutherland (1997) asserts that in relation to women in education management in Europe the pyramid and the glass ceiling are found everywhere. If women do find themselves in management, the positions they hold within the management hierarchy do not necessarily permit them to influence policy and decision-making. Louis and Miles (1990) state that

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the role of managers, especially principals, in schools also complicates school improvement efforts. Reorganising the responsibilities of principals may be essential to the success of most improvement efforts. Louis and Miles further asset (1990: 19):

> There is uneasiness in the general administration and management literature with the dominant models of how to organise. Throughout the '70s and '80s, theorists have been pointing out that most organisations – and particularly schools – do not look like the rational, predictable, well-controlled settings that the textbooks on planning and administration tell us they should.

This remains largely true today. Hartshorne (1999) argues that the lack of good management in educational institutions contributes significantly to the deficiencies in the State education system. Thus, creating more effective schools requires a significant change in patterns of leadership and management at the school level.

Addi-Raccah and Ayalan (2002) illustrate that men are promoted to senior positions such as high school principals, supervisors and heads of local education departments more than women, who are promoted mainly to administrative positions in schools. They also indicate that the patterns of the two genders are different. While men acquire their managerial experience in other administrative roles (such as vice-principals), women acquire it in pedagogic roles such as counselling. They also spend more time than men do in intermediate positions.

Halliday (1990) indicates that a central problem that managers experience in schools is that it is not obvious just what the inputs and outputs to the education system are. In part, the input consists of finance/ resources and the output consists partly of overall economic prosperity, yet there is no formula or model by which these two can be related, let alone measured. Recently, to address the above limitation a range of performance indictors have been developed to aid in assessment and provide some level of objectivity. Halliday (1990) further warns that the managerial component of education is not simply a

methodological device to improve the basis on which educational decisions are made, rather it is in itself evaluative and is likely to create tensions among teachers.

The context of management and leadership in South African government schools is characterised by accountability for improving the educational outcomes of learners; accountability to super-ordinates (Department of Education) and accountability to the school community (via the School Governing Body). Silcox and Cavanagh (2002) assert that the exercise of leadership and management within schools are complex phenomenon and this complexity is evidenced in the multiplicity of theoretical orientations that have been proposed to explain the phenomenon. They argue that the development of educational leadership theory has been strongly influenced by business and corporate leadership and by theories of administrative and organisational behaviour. Furthermore, they note that educational leadership theory has also developed in response to changing temporal and environmental contexts.

There are similarities between the leadership functions of education managers and the leadership functions of business and corporate leaders in South Africa. Although there are differences between the educational and business environment, both are exerting pressures for change and organisational reform. This is similar to the Australian context where, as Silcox and Cavanaugh (2002) illustrate, leadership of schools and business can be viewed as leadership of change which is in contrast to traditional leadership that focused on attainment of well-defined long-standing organisational objectives through maintenance of existing organisational structures and operational systems. In South Africa, this shift in leadership commenced in the 1990s when apartheid was dismantled. Additionally, business corporations and the public sector are forced to re-organise in response to global market forces.

Silcox and Cavanaugh (2002) suggest that contemporary conceptions of school leadership are a blend of constructs derived from the study of corporate leadership and organisational change in conjunction with those derived from scholarship of how schools enable. It is also assumed the reform of education and the improvement of schools can be

effected by application of corporate leadership practices. Although Sergiovanni (2000) challenges the endurance of this leadership paradigm and indeed of how schools are conceptualised, Fullan (2001) argues that the fusion of corporate and school leadership theory has persisted.

4.3.1.1 Expectations of the management and leadership roles

Cangelosi (1997) in discussing classroom management strategies highlights five aspects that are relevant to management more generally:

1. Organise responsibilities at different levels and in different contexts.
2. Focus on time management linked to activities and timeframes.
3. Reflect on the myriad of individual differences among staff and students.
4. Examine personal commitment to gaining and maintaining cooperation.
5. Heighten awareness of factors that need to be considered when designing a school-wide management strategy.

Wise and Bennet (2003) assert that the concept of role can be defined as what an individual – the 'role holder' – understands their job to be. One aspect of this is derived from formal requirements such as their job description, but much more important is what the role holder perceives as the expectations of a range of different people with whom they interact when carrying out their job – their 'role set'. Some of these expectations might be stated explicitly, whilst others are observed and inferred by the role holder from the actions of others who have similar titles and positions. Members of the role set are often not be aware that they are communicating role expectations and the role holder may not always view others' expectations as legitimate. Some of the expectations are those that the role holder brought with them to the post through their experience, values and beliefs.

Wise and Bennet (2003) suggest that clearly, when an individual is subject to a range of expectations, deriving from formal requirements, a range of colleagues, and their personal experience and value system, it is likely that there will be conflicting expectations that the role holder has to resolve in order for them to be able carry out their

work. They refer to this as 'role strain' or 'role conflict' which can create significant problems for the role holder.

Wise (1999) developed a classification which categorises tasks performed by managers in schools, especially middle managers, into four quadrants created by using two axes, one moving from tasks having an individual perspective to those having a wider community perspective and the other moving from paperwork type tasks to those involving people. This quadrant is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 4.1: Classification of tasks from Wise (1999)

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                        Tasks about
                          things
                             │
        Administrative       │       Academic
                             │
                             │
                             │
 Tasks about wider ──────────┼──────────      Tasks about
    community                │                 individuals
                             │
        Managerial           │       Educational
                             │
                             │
                             │
                        Tasks about
                          people
```
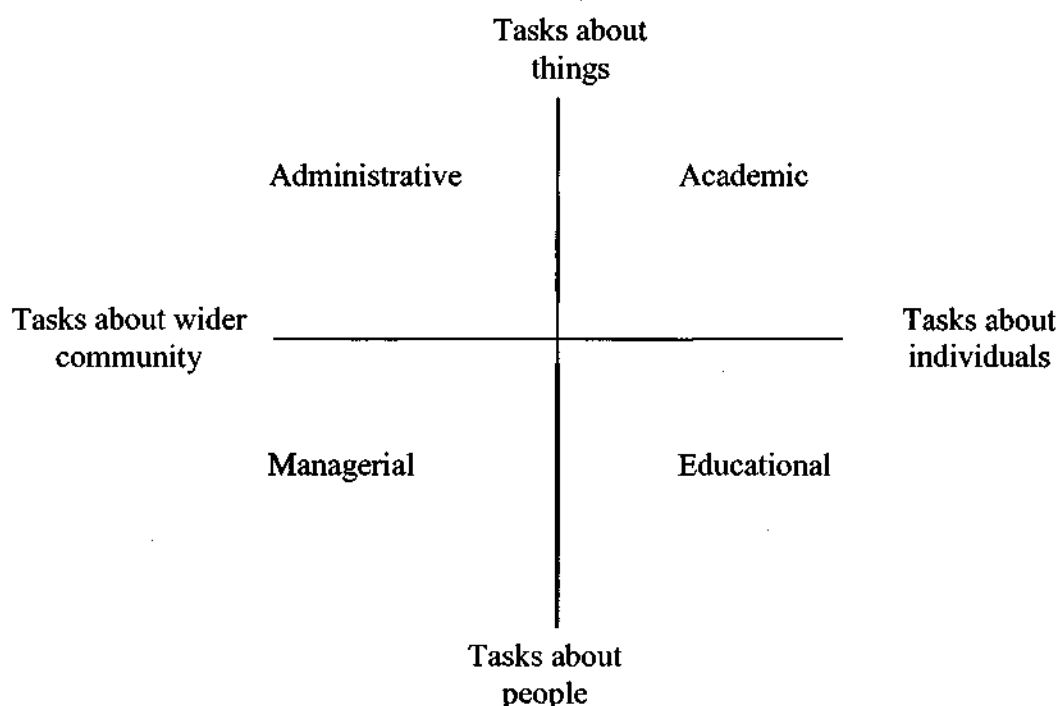
Wise (1999) also stated that other research suggest that, when asked, the middle leaders are most likely to state that the academic and educational tasks are at the centre of their role but when pushed for time are most likely to complete the administrative tasks because these are the most visible aspects of their role to others outside their area.

Wise and Bennet's (2003) study reveal a range of academic, administrative, managerial and educational tasks that middle managers often perform in schools. These are summarised below.

Main academic tasks

- Maintaining knowledge of subject area
- Ensuring that courses cater for the range of abilities
- Checking that teaching focus and methods are in line with school policies
- Formulating curriculum aims, objectives and content
- Ensuring continuity in education between schools and phases

Main administrative tasks

- Making or influencing decisions on what resources to buy
- Maintaining records of schemes of work and minutes of meetings
- Maintaining records of classroom and school observations
- Organising the storage area of resources
- Ensuring that teaching rooms are suitable and offer adequate resources

Main managerial tasks related to staff

- Keeping staff informed of school matters and other relevant information from the Department of Education
- Monitoring the teaching of staff
- Inducting new staff
- Leading and/ or promoting the development of staff's professional abilities
- Providing support for colleagues facing disciplinary and other learning problems in their teaching

Main educational tasks

- Organising the testing of pupil attainment
- Providing support to pupils facing personal difficulties that affect their school work and behaviour
- Monitoring classes' progress through syllabuses or schemes of work
- Deployment of pupils into teaching groups
- Implementing a homework policy

From the above, it is clear that managers in schools (especially principals) perform multiple roles. As Aitken (1996) illustrates, they manage the day-to-day operation of the school, lead the development of improved teacher performance and education quality, as well as they are responsible for activities that extend beyond the management of teaching and learning in the school to a leadership function at the centre of the school community.

4.3.1.2 Problems experienced by managers in schools

Studies (Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989; Wise, 2001; Wise and Bennet, 2003) reveal that managers in schools experience a range of problems that include:

- Additional responsibilities

Managers in schools tend to have additional responsibilities over and above those expected as part of the role. Examples of the extra duties include co-ordination of teaching and learning groups; professional tutoring; in charge of specific school functions; staff induction and assisting.

- Lack of time

Lack of time is a frequently voiced concern (Wise, 2001; Earley and Fletcher-Campbell, 1989) and the low non-contact time some managers are allocated must be a considerable amount of role strain for these people.

4.3.1.3 Management in South African schools

In South Africa school principals are responsible on a day-to-day basis for the learning opportunities of pupils; the efficient management of funds and resources (generally from the State); and the performance of teachers. Silcox and Gavanagh (2002) state that the theoretical grounding under-pinning empirical investigation of school leadership need to be chosen in cognisance of the context in which this leadership is exercised and the influence of contextual factors on leadership behaviour. Thus, this section undertakes a brief examination of some of the key features of management in South Africa schools.

Management and leadership issues in South African public schools are characterised by accountability for improving the educational outcomes of students and communities; responsiveness to transformational goals heralded by post-apartheid imperatives and

embedded in concerns relating to redress and equity; responding to market and economic needs; and compliance with legislation and regulations stipulated in government, public service and Department of Education policies concerning management of finances, resources and staff. However, the impetus for change and improvement of schools is tempered by limited human and physical resources as well as widespread disparities within the system. Managers within the school system, especially those located in schools are responsible for the school being effective in attaining teaching and learning objectives and also being organisationally efficient.

There are similarities between the leadership functions of school managers at different levels and the leadership functions of business and corporate leaders. Although there are differences between the educational and business environment, both are exerting pressures for change and organisational reform. Mendez-Morse (1992) argues that corporate reform was based upon economic rationales which were subsequently adopted by governments and applied in the reform of public institutions including education. Economic rationalism impacts on schools and school leadership. This is clearly evident in South Africa today were social reform together with economic imperatives are the key driving forces in the education sector.

Mendez-Morse (1992) synthesised the literature on school leadership and school change. In reviewing the history of leadership, attention was drawn to the inadequacy of leadership trait and factor models in identifying specific personality traits associated with leadership as distinct from followership. Alternatively, leadership was viewed as a consequence of the situation or setting in which it was exercised with both organisational task requirements and the needs of individuals influencing leadership behaviours. This approach was extended by proposition of a contingency model in which the leader needs to respond to multiple situations. Further refinement of theory resulted in recognition of the importance of leadership throughout the organisation; focus on multiple leadership rather than on one leader with multiple followers. Mendez-Morse (1992) recognised similarities between the characteristics of leaders of educational change and leaders of change in other organisations. These common characteristics included leadership vision,

fostering of a shared vision, valuing human resources, proactivity, risk taking, and most importantly, a sense of purpose and mission.

South Africa retains a highly differentiated schooling environment from private schools to extremely under-resourced public schools. In part, this differentiation is reflective of the apartheid induced configuration: former White schools are now private or semi-private (Model C) schools and former African schools are seriously neglected and under-resourced. Additionally, rural schools are generally worse off than schools located in urban areas. Teacher-student ratios also differ significantly with classroom sizes range from less than 20 to in excess of 60 learners per class. However, despite these stark differences, all school managers are responsible for school curriculum, allocation and use of resources, implementation of policies, reporting and accountability to the Department of Education and the School Governing Body.

In South Africa, the School Governing Body (as stipulated in the South African School's Act) serves the following functions:

- has formal responsibility for the running of the school
- together with the principal, draws up and carries out a development/ management plan for the school
- delegates authority but not responsibility to the principal
- deploys resources and ensures they are used appropriately
- determines the number of teaching and support staff
- appoints and dismisses staff (in consultation with Department of Education if staff is State appointed)
- formulates school policies, for example, budget, health and safety, use of facilities, discipline, etc.
- provides such information as the Department of education requires
- approves and monitors the school's budget
- reports to parents annually on its stewardship of the school's finances.

The principal is central to the functioning of the school. Specifically, the principal's main roles are to:

- manage the school's financial position at a strategic and operational level
- have responsibility for the day-to-day running of the school, including effective systems of internal control and other financial issues
- have a key role in helping the Governing Body draw up a development plan for the school, and carry it out
- ensure financial statements are properly presented and adequately supported
- have responsibility for all tasks delegated by the Governing Body.

In the public schooling sector the same level of performance in a similar range of activities is expected of the principal of a small rural school as is expected of the principal of a large urban secondary school.

The disproportionate number of principals who are men is likely to have ramifications for the ongoing recruitment of school principals. Given that a high proportion of primary teachers are women, the failure to appoint them to principal positions is likely to indicate that patriarchy and gender occupational segregation are influencing appointments.

4.3.2 Management in the Banking Sector

Arya (1990: 155) states:

> Banks are the establishments that perform one or more of the such following functions as accepting the custody of money, lending money, extending credit, issuing currency, or facilitating the transfer of funds by means of cheques, drafts, bills of exchange, or such other instruments of credit. Some banks perform nearly all of these functions, while others specialise in one or a select few functions.

There are many banks and subsidiaries present in South Africa. Despite their different names, all banks provide generally the same type of services and products. Bankers compete in a variety of ways, including the interest rates and fees they charge on loans,

the interest rates they pay on deposits, package deals with other products, transaction costs, and the convenience they offer in terms of location and hours of service. The banking industry in South Africa is forced to become responsive to change that is a fundamental part of a transforming nation.

The three banks (Nedbank, Permanent Bank and Peoples Bank) that form the focus of the study are part of a larger organisation, NedCor. The offices in Durban house several branch banking divisions as well as services, technology and operations departments, foreign exchange offices, product specialists, treasury departments, car finance units and corporate divisions. With the exception of the first function (branch banking divisions), the rest of the departments are located in the main offices in the Central Business District of Durban. The number of branches in the Durban region are:

- Nedbank: 20
- Permanent Bank: 10
- Peoples Bank: 8
- **TOTAL:**   38

Clearly, Nedbank forms the largest group.

Throughout many changes, NedCor has positioned itself as one of the three major financial institutions in South Africa. NedCor's market share has in the last decade been close to that of the largest competitor in the financial industry, ABSA Bank. Branches are located throughout South Africa as well as internationally. NedCor has a well established banking presence, especially in the corporate sector. Nedbank, Permanent Bank and Peoples Bank's core products are chequing, investments and loans. Nedbank particularly focuses on corporate loans while Permanent and People's bank are geared towards home and personal loans. However, NedCor's strategic positioning recognises that the utilisation and the potential for cross-selling are providing new opportunities for the banking industry. For example, NedCor's credit card marketing and general advertising are linked to partnerships with South African Airways (voyager miles programme), Avis

car rental and the Wildlife World Fund.

The tables below illustrate the race and gender mix of NedCor staff (in %) as at 30 May 2000 (NedCor Bank Limited, 2000). Management positions are reflected from grades NB09 and up. Grades NB06-08 are supervisory positions while grades NB01-05 denotes technical, clerical and elementary posts.

Table 4.1: NedCor race mix

	NB13+	NB12	NB11	NB10	NB09	NB06-08	NB01-05
White	95	88	89	85	71	60	30
Black	5	12	11	15	29	40	70

The table illustrates that the majority of the posts are retained by Whites. It is only at the technical, clerical and elementary levels that the majority of the staff are Black. As the status and decision-making levels of the post increases (towards upper-management levels) so do the proportion of Whites increases. This trend is also discernable in the table below when gender is considered. Males dominate significantly management positions. The exception is grade NB09 where the percentage of males and females are the same (50%). It is here that most of the branch manager positions (the lowest managerial position) are located. Thus, White males dominate decision-making structures and employment positions in NedCor.

Table 4.2: NedCor gender mix

	NB13+	NB12	NB11	NB10	NB09	NB06-08	NB01-05
Males	92	82	77	71	50	29	27
Females	8	18	13	29	50	71	73

Collinson et al (1990) argue that despite the feminisation of many banking functions, men's traditional domination in decision-making and management structures has persisted because the vast majority of female recruits have been incorporated and confined within lower clerical and management positions. This remains largely true in

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NedCor today and is reflected in the table above.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter illustrates that both the banking and education sectors face several complexities and challenges, some unique to the specific sector, that impact on management concerns generally and women in management issues more specifically. In the South African context, transformation and the array of social as well as political pressures impact on both sectors. However, these are particularly acute in the education sector. It is also evident that although key legislation pertaining to addressing discriminatory practices, including gender inequalities, have been introduced; decision-making power is still vested in the hands of a few, especially those who have been formerly advantaged. This is especially true in the banking sector. What is also clear from the above discussions that an array of issues raised in the literature review in relation to women in management are experienced in both the public and private sectors.

The next chapter presents and analyses the primary data collected. The main aspects examined are positions held, socio-economic and demographic characteristics, knowledge of gender discrimination, perception/ attitudes to gender affirmative action, programmes to address gender discrimination, attitude/ perceptions of women in management and finally management concerns.

CHAPTER 5
DATA DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The research findings of this study are organised to provide an understanding of the issues pertaining to women in management in two sectors, education and banking. Both subjective and objective assessments were undertaken to identify women's positions, problems, attitudes and perceptions using factual analysis of data and other information that provides insights into the empirical data outlined in this chapter. The empirical data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) by which descriptive statistics were generated. The basic format of the data analysis follows the issues raised in the questionnaire survey and utilises the following thematic foci: positions held, socio-economic and demographic characteristics, knowledge of gender discrimination, perception/ attitudes to gender affirmative action, programmes to address gender discrimination, attitude/ perceptions of women in management and finally management concerns.

5.2   SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

5.2.1 Age and sex of managers and non-managers

The majority of educational managers (41.4%) were in the younger middle age category (31-40 years) whilst there was an equal proportion (40%) of bank managers in the younger and older middle-aged category. The predominance of females in the younger middle age category amongst the education managers and males in the banking sector is also evident. It is also clear that there were no young education managers (21-30 years) and this category was small, comprising only of women, in the banking sector (Fig. 5.1).

Fig.5.1: Age and sex of managers

Fig.5.2: Age of non-managers
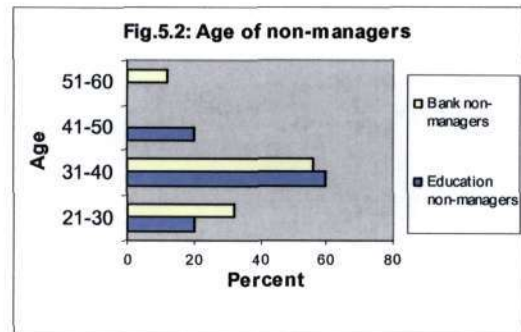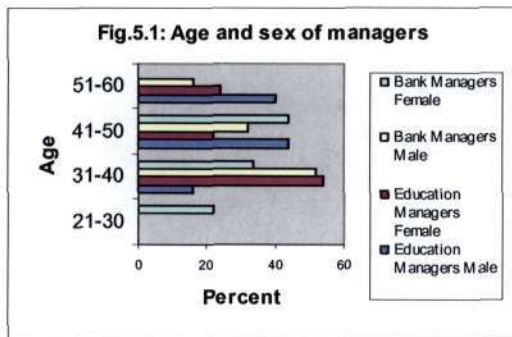
Fifty-eight percent of non-managers in both sectors were in the younger middle-aged cohort group, 60% in the education sector and 56% in banking. There were no education non-managers over 51 years of age but there existed a small proportion of this age group (12%) in the banking sector (Fig. 5.2). Amongst non-managers, females predominated with proportions ranging from 56% in education to 84% in banking (Fig. 5.3). The results indicate that female managers are starting to enter positions as they are concentrated in the younger age cohorts.

Fig.5.3: Sex of non-managers in both sectors
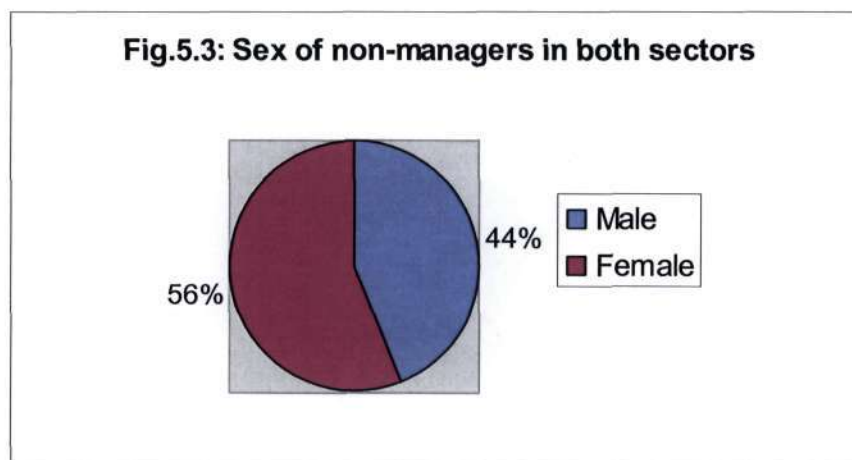
5.2.2 Race of managers and non-managers

In discussing the racial classification of managers, it should be noted that the previous apartheid racial classification is used to determine the degree of change in the two sectors under investigation. Amongst all managers and non-managers, it is obvious from Tables 5.1 and Tables 5.2, that not much change has taken place with regard to proportion of African and Coloured management staff, especially in the education sector with the proportion of these two race categories being slightly higher in the banking sector.

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Whites comprise the majority in banking (46.7%) whilst Indians among the respondents dominate the management of education (84%) with a high proportion of both sexes (Table 5.1). The latter is largely attributed to the schools under study being predominantly from former Indian schools. In contrast, there is an almost equal proportion of White males and females and a significant proportion (44%) of Indian males but a smaller proportion of females in banking (Table 5.1). Indians formed the majority non-managers in both sectors (78%) with a very high proportion in education (96%) than banking (60%). However, the proportion of Africans in the banking (28%) was higher than that of education. There is also a glaring absence of Coloured non-managers in both sectors (Table 5.2).

Table 5.1: Race of managers in two sectors (in %)

Race	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
African	-	4	2.7	12	18	16	9.3
Indian	100	76	84	44	26	32	58
Coloured	-	4	2.7	-	8	5.3	4
White	-	16	10.6	44	48	46.7	28.7

Table 5.2: Race of non-managers in two sectors (in %)

Race	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	Total
	N=25	N=25	N=50
African	4	28	16
Indian	96	60	78
White	-	12	6

5.2.3 Education level of managers and non-managers

The majority of managers in education (56%) have postgraduate qualifications with twice the number of males than females, 84% and 42%, respectively (Tables 5.3). In banking, degrees were most prevalent and (42.6%) with few persons having postgraduate degrees. It is also evident in the banking sector that about 14% of managers (all females and White) only had a secondary education but were appointed as managers. Considering that most of these persons worked in the banking sector for less than ten years (Fig. 5.7) this indicates that White females are still being employed with just secondary education. In terms of sex, there were more women who had higher education qualifications than men

in bank management positions (78% females and 64% males) in contrast to education where males predominated by 100% to 88% respectively (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Educational level of managers (in %)

Education	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Secondary	-	-		-	22	14.7	7.3
Certificate	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
Diploma	8	24	18.7	36	-	12	15.3
Degree	8	22	17.3	52	38	42.6	30
Post Grad	84	42	56	12	22	18.7	37.4
Other	-	-	-	-	18	12	6

Non-managers in the education sector (teachers are generally required to have a professional tertiary level qualification) had higher educational qualifications than those in the banking sector. The highest qualification attained in banking was a diploma with the majority (48%) having a secondary education. In education 36% have degrees and 24% postgraduate qualifications. However, there were an equal proportion of diploma holders (40%) in both sectors (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Educational level of non-managers (in %)

Education	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	Total N=50
Secondary	-	48	24
Certificate	-	12	6
Diploma	40	40	40
Degree	36	-	18
Post Grad	24	-	12

5.2.4 Marital status of managers and non-managers

Fig. 5.5 illustrates that there were a high proportion of female divorcees amongst bank managers (60%) in contrast to the majority of female education managers who are still married (80%). A small proportion of single persons of both sexes amongst bankers were also evident. Single persons in education (10%) were confined to females. Overall, the majority of managers (60.7%) in both sectors were married. However, it is important to note that 35% of the female managers compared to only 7% of the male managers interviewed were divorced.

Amongst non-managers in education there was a similar trend in terms of married persons (80%). However, in the banking sector, 84 % of non-managers are single (Fig 5.6).

Fig.5.5: Marital status of Managers

Fig.5.6: Marital Status of non-managers
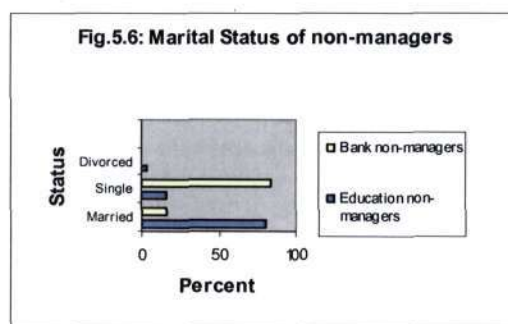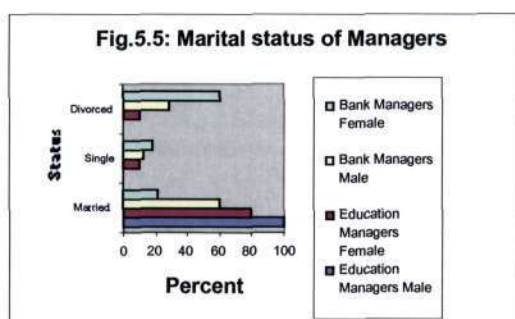
5.2.5 Positions held by managers and non-managers

A significant proportion of women managers (30%) are in acting positions. Generally, though, the representation of men is greater in the top three management positions in schools (Table 5.5). In the banking sector, women dominated three positions, that is, regional managers, branch managers and relationship managers. The majority (60%) of these persons were relationship managers (Table 5.5). In terms of race most of these managers were White, with a sizeable proportion of Indian, and a few African and Coloured persons.

Table 5.5: Management positions held (in %)

Position	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Principal	32	22	25.3	-	-	-	12.7
Deputy principal	28	20	22.7	-	-	-	11.3
Head of Department	40	28	32.0	-	-	-	16.0
Acting Principal	-	8	5.3	-	-	-	2.7
Acting Deputy	-	12	8.0	-	-	-	4.0
Acting HOD	-	10	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
Regional Manager	-	-	-	16	18	17.3	8.7
Branch Manager	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
Relationship Manager	-	-	-	48	60	56	28
Operational Manager				36	-	12	6

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The majorities of non-managers, in education (84%), are permanent employees whilst tellers, administrative and clerical personnel comprised the bulk of non-managers in banking, the majority of whom (44%) were tellers (Table 5.6) and of Indian origin with a few Blacks and Whites (see Table 5.2 above).

Table 5.6: Positions held by non-managers (in %)

Position	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	Total
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Level one permanent	84	-	42
Level one temporary	12	-	6
Temporary teacher	4		2
Tellers		44	22
Administration	-	32	16
Clerical	-	24	12

5.2.5.1 Period of employment

The period of employment of education managers spanned a time of six years to twenty-five years whilst those managers in banking were in their positions from less than five years to twenty-five years. The category 16-25 years was prominent in the education and banking sectors with almost equal proportions of 66% and 67%, respectively (Fig. 5.7). Thirty-two percent of bankers were employed from less than five years to ten years and this could have been because of the necessity of employing Blacks to conform to the equity policies of the country. However, there was still the predominance of employing males over females as is clear from Fig. 5.7.

Fig.5.7: Employment period of managers and non-managers in both sectors
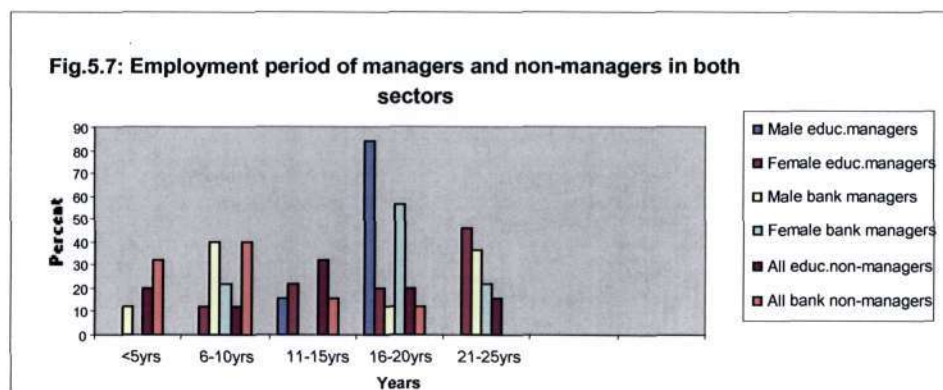
Seventy-two percent of non-managers in banking worked in the sector for less than ten years and the reasons could be as mentioned above for managers or the restructuring of the banking sector in line with new trends. However, it is most likely to be the former in line with equity considerations and affirmative action policies. In contrast, most non-managers (69.3%) in education were in their positions over 11 years (Fig. 5.7).

5.3 AWARENESS OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE WORKPLACE

This section indicates respondents' level of awareness of institutions formal opposition to discriminatory practices in relation to:

- race
- gender
- sexuality
- disability

5.3.1 Awareness of formal opposition to racial discrimination

A higher proportion of managers in banking stated that they were aware of their institutions being formally opposed to racial discrimination than those managers in education, 72% as compared to 60%. In both sectors, however, the proportions were high. In terms of gender, most opposition responses stemmed from females in banking (78%) and males in education (68%). The number of responses of those who stated that they were not aware of their institutions being formally opposed to racial discrimination was, however, higher in the education sector than in banking. Generally though, the majority of managers in both sectors (66%) stated that their institutions were formally opposed to racism (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to racial discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	68	56	60	60	78	72	66
No	32	44	40	40	22	28	34

Table 5.8: Non-managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to racial discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	68	12	40
No	32	76	54
No comment	-	12	6

Regarding the non-managers response to awareness of institutions formal opposition to racial discrimination, the trend in responses is in contrast to those of managers, especially in the banking sector. Seventy-six percent of non-managers stated that they were not aware of their institution being formally opposed to racial discrimination whilst in the education sector the proportion was almost similar (68%) (Table 5.8) to the managers in the banking sector (Table 5.7). Overall, over half of the non-managers (54%) stated that they were not aware of their institution's formal opposition to racial discrimination.

5.3.2 Awareness of formal opposition to gender discrimination

Almost similar proportions of males in both managerial sectors (68% in education and 60% in banking) stated that they were aware of their institutions being formally opposed to gender discrimination (Table 5.9). Amongst female managers the proportion was far higher in the banking sector (72%) as compared to education (54%). Overall, over 65% agreed that their institutions were opposed to gender discrimination (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9: Managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to gender discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	68	54	58.7	60	78	72	65.3
No	32	46	41.3	40	22	28	34.7

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Table 5.10: Non-managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to gender discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	72	12	42
No	28	76	52
No comment	-	12	6

Among the non-managers, in the education sector (72%) were aware of formal opposition to gender discrimination in their institutions compared to only 12% in the banking sector (Table 5.10). Non-managers in banking (76%) stated that they were not aware of their institutions being formally opposed to gender discrimination and this high proportion distorted the average results on institutional opposition to gender discrimination. Consequently, 52% of all non-managers are of the opinion that their institutions are not formally opposed to gender discrimination.

5.3.3 Awareness of formal opposition to sexual discrimination

It is clear from Table 5.11 that the majority of managers (66%) were aware that their institutions were formally opposed to discriminatory practices based on sexuality. Both male and female majorities from both sectors were aware of this practice (Table 5.11). In contrast, only 38% of the non-managers interviewed were aware of their institutions' formal opposition to sexual discrimination (Table 5.12). However, on further examination of the data in Table 5.12, it is evident that a high proportion of non-managers in the banking sector were aware of formal opposition to sexual discrimination in the workplace in contrast to those in the education sector, the majority (60%) stating that their institution was opposed to any type of sexual discriminatory practice (Table 5.12).

Table 5.11: Managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to sexual discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	68	56	60	60	78	72	66
No	32	44	40	40	22	28	34

Table 5.12: Non-managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to sexual discrimination (in %)

Awareness	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	60	16	38
No	32	72	52
No comment	8	12	10

5.3.4 Awareness of formal opposition to discriminatory practice on the basis of disability

About 55% of managers in both sectors indicated that they were aware of their institutions being formally opposed to discriminatory practices based on disability (Table 5.13). Furthermore, these positive responses to their institution's opposition to discrimination based on disability stemmed mainly from the males in both sectors. With regard to the non-managers on this issue, it is evident from Table 5.14 that 58% of respondents stated that they were not aware of their institutions being formally opposed to discrimination based on disability and a higher negative response (76%) was received from non-managers in the banking sector in comparison to education (40%) (Table 5.14).

Table 5.13: Managers awareness of institution's formal opposition to discriminatory practice on the basis of disability (in %)

Awareness	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150
Yes	68	44	52	60	56	57.3	54.7
No	32	56	48	40	44	42.7	45.3

Table 5.14: Non-managers awareness of institution's formal opposition discrimination on the basis of disability (in %)

Awareness	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	52	12	32
No	40	76	58
No comment	8	12	10

5.3.5 Policies/ programmes aimed at gender discrimination

The majority of managers (70%-80%), both male and female, in both the education and banking sectors, were in agreement that policies/ programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination were being implemented in their respective institutions (Table 5.15). Non-managers in the education sector (64%) were of the opinion that policies programmes dealing with gender discrimination were being implemented whilst the majority non-managers in banking (72%) stated that this situation was not the case in their institutions (72%) (Table 5.16).

Table 5.15: Managers response to the introduction of policies/ programmes aimed at gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	80	70	73.3	84	78	80	76.7
No	20	30	26.7	16	22	20	23.3

Table 5.16: Non-managers response to the introduction of policies/ programmes aimed at gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	64	28	46
No	34	72	54

5.3.6 Definition of gender discrimination

In terms of definition of gender, most managers (46%) correctly defined gender discrimination as a "preference which is gender based." This was more prevalent amongst female education managers (66%) and both sexes in banking, having almost equal proportions (40% and 44% respectively) (Table 5.17). Other responses that had significant proportions were:

- Discrimination (18.7%)
- Particular groups being overlooked (22.7%)

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Table 5.17: Managers definition of gender discrimination (in %)

Gender Definitions	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150
No comment	28	-	9.3	16	-	5.3	7.3
Discrimination	44	34	37.3	-	-	-	18.7
Preference which is gender based	16	66	49.4	40	44	42.7	46
Equal treatment of all sexes	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Particular groups overlooked	-	-	-	24	56	45.3	22.7
Restricting equal opportunities for men and women	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.3

Non-managers outlined similar responses to that of managers as indicated in Table 6.25. Responses that were not forthcoming from managers but was evident amongst non-managers in the banking sector was the non-employment of females (14%), choosing males over females (8%) and hating the opposite sex (8%) (Table 5.18).

Table 5.18: Non-managers definition of gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Particular group overlooked	20	40	30
Discrimination	28	-	14
Preference based on gender	40	-	20
Unfavourable practice	4	-	2
Women's acceptance as equals	4	-	2
Not employing females	-	28	14
Choosing males over females	-	16	8
Hating opposite sex	-	16	8
No comment	4	-	2

The above responses indicate that the respondents' definition of gender discrimination included:

- Giving male preference over females

- Discrimination on the basis of sex/ sexual preference

- When candidates apply for a position preference may be given to particular sex despite qualifications/ women are not considered for promotion (glass-ceiling effect)

- Where promotion or advancement is not on merit or ability due to the sex of a candidate

5.3.7 Understanding of Sexual Harassment

Table 5.19: Managers understanding of sexual harassment (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150
No comment	12	-	4	16	-	5.3	4.7
Not only physical	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Unwelcome attention	16	12	13.3	40	78	65.3	39.3
Verbal/ physical abuse/ remarks	12	44	33.3	-	22	14.7	24.0
Placing of undue pressure	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Intimidation	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Taking advantage	8	32	24	-	-	-	12
Sexual advances	16	-	5.3	12	-	4	4.7
Asking for sexual favours	8	-	2.7	32	-	10.7	6.7

Table 5.20: Non-managers understanding of sexual harassment (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Taking advantage	8	32	20
Unwelcome attention	12	12	12
Physical or verbal abuse	48	56	52
Placing undue pressure on individual	8	-	4
Using position to request sexual favours	12	-	6
Demanding	4	-	2
No comment	8	-	4

A wide range of responses was received for managers' understanding of sexual harassment as is evident in Table 6.26. Unwelcome attention (39.3%), verbal/ physical abuse and remarks (24%) and taking advantage (12%) were some of the more favoured responses. There was a high concentration of responses in two categories amongst females in both sectors. Amongst the education female respondents, 44% cited verbal/ physical abuse and remarks whilst female respondents in banking (78%) cited unwelcome attention as their understanding of sexual harassment (Table 5.19).

Physical or verbal abuse (52%), taking advantage (20%) and unwelcome attention (12%) was also non-managers' understanding of sexual harassment. Other responses received only from the education non-managers was the use of positions to request sexual favours (12%), and being demanding (4%) (Table 5.20).

The respondents' definition of sexual harassment generally included aspects pertaining to:

- Unwanted physical or emotional/ verbal advances persistently
- Any form of attention that causes a person to feel uncomfortable/ when an action or touch makes you feel uneasy
- Making sexual overtures to women and using their position to gain sexual favours
- Promising promotion in return for sexual favours
- Any remark, gesture or comment that belittles or embarrasses a person of the opposite sex
- Any sexual approach whether verbal, physical or merely insinuated made to a person of either sex

5.3.8 Institutional Promotions

Fig.5.8: Managers and non-managers response to promotions on merit
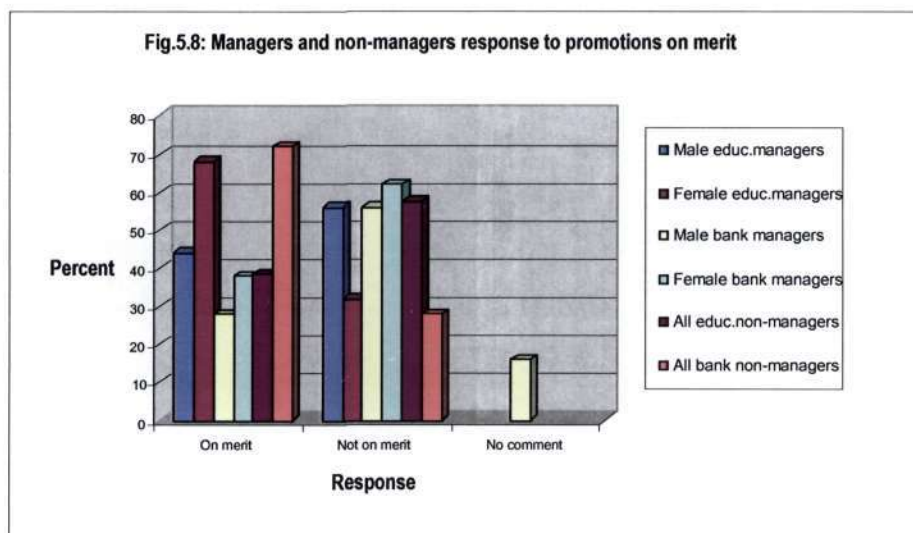
Almost half of managers in both sectors (47.3%) stated that promotions at their institutions were based on merit. A lower proportion of managers in the banking sector

(34.7%) supported this position as compared to the education managers (60%) (Fig.5.8). However, among the non-managers the majority in the education sector (57.7%) indicated that promotions were not done on merit alone while in the banking sector the majority (72%) indicated that promotions were on merit alone. It is interesting to note that more females than male managers felt that promotions were being done on merit alone (Fig.5.8).

Table 5.21: Managers response to the criteria used for promotions if not on merit (in %)

Promotion Criteria	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150
No Response	44	78	66.6	44	38	40	53.3
Race	8	-	2.7	20	22	21.3	12
Unfair practice	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Gender	-	12	8	12	-	4	6
Who you know/ friends	8	-	2.7	12	40	30.7	16.7
Affirmative action	20	-	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
Performance during interview	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Favouritism	-	-	-	12	-	4	2

Table 5.22: Non-managers response to criteria used for promotions if not on merit (in %)

Response	Education Non-Managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Race	8	-	4
Unfair practice	4	-	2
Skills, experience & background	24	12	18
Nepotism	8	-	4
Affirmative action	4	-	2
Depends on friends	-	16	8
Personal qualities	4	-	2
Rotation	4	-	2
Don't know	4	-	2
No response	40	72	56

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Over half the managers from both sectors (53.3%) did not respond to the question on the criteria used for promotion if merit was not considered (Table 5.21). The main responses from the remaining managers included the following:

- Who you know/ friends (16.7%)
- Race (12%)
- Gender (6%)
- Performance during interview (4.7%)
- Affirmative action (3.3%)

As with the managers, most non-managers (56%) did not respond to this issue (Table 5.22). However, skills, experience and background (18%) received the majority responses. The other responses on criteria ranged from 2% to 8% and included criteria such as race, unfair practice, nepotism, affirmative action, personal qualities and rotation (Table 5.22). It is also noteworthy that dependence on friends (16%) was only mentioned by personnel in the banking sector whilst personal qualities, rotation and nepotism were raised by those in the education sector (Table 5.22).

5.4 PERCEPTION OF GENDER AFFIRMITIVE ACTION

5.4.1 Impacts of Addressing Gender Discrimination

Perceptions on whether attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in the workplace have a positive or negative impact on key aspects are presented. The areas under consideration are personnel productivity, personnel morale, gender relations, race relations, understanding between workers, tensions and conflicts among workers, profit margins, and client base and retention.

5.4.1.1 Impacts on personnel productivity

The responses on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on personnel productivity were very positive from all managers (72.7%). What is revealing is that a significant proportion of bank managers (16%) did not comment on this issue. Moreover, there was almost an equal proportion of responses from both male and female bank managers whilst the positive responses in the education sector was higher amongst

females than males (90% as compared to 72%) (Fig.5.9). Over 75% of all non-managers were also positively inclined on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination in their respective institutions. As opposed to the managerial sector that indicated a higher response in the education sector, there was a higher positive response in the banking sector but higher negative response by education non-managers (Fig. 5.9).

Fig.5.9:Impact of attempts to address gender discrimination on personnel productivity
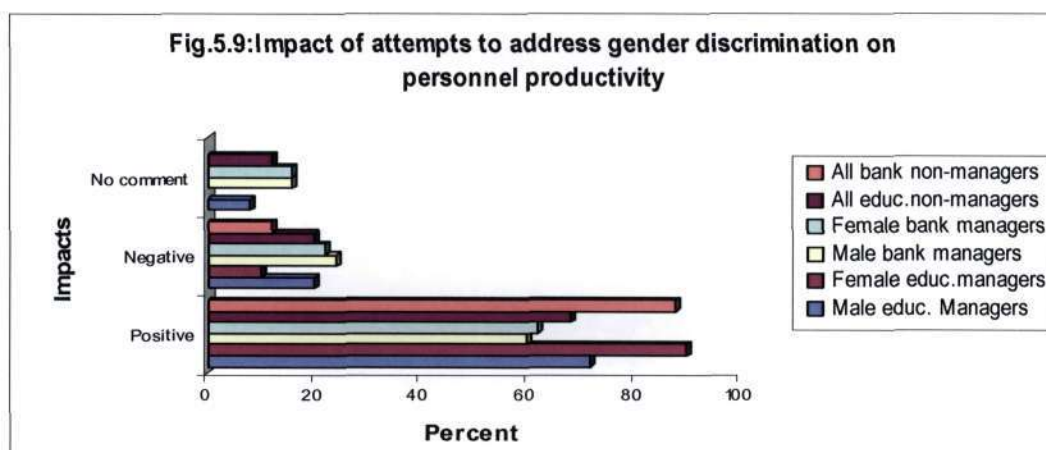
5.4.1.2 Impacts on personnel morale

Attempts to address the issue of gender inequalities/ discrimination on personal morale also received high responses from both managers and non-managers, 72% and 84% respectively) (Table 5.23 and Table 5.24). However, there were a higher proportion of female responses as compared to banking where male responses were slightly higher. All non-managers in banking were positive as compared to 68% of education non-managers (Table 5.23 and Table 5.24).

Table 5.23: Managers response to the impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on personnel morale (in %)

Impacts	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150
Positive	56	90	78.7	72	62	65.3	72
Negative	36	10	18.7	12	22	18.7	18.7
No comment	8	-	2.7	16	16	16	9.3

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Table 5.24: Non-managers response to the impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on personnel morale (in %)

Impacts	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Positive	68	100	84
Negative	20	-	10
No comment	12	-	6

5.4.1.3 Impacts on gender relations

On the issue of institutional attempts to address gender inequalities by focusing on gender relations, there were a high proportion of positive responses by managers (72.7%)) and non-managers (84%) (Fig.5.10). Also clearly evident is the more than double the number of negative response amongst managers than non-managers (Fig.5.10).

Fig.5.10: Impacts of attempts to address gender discrimination on gender relations
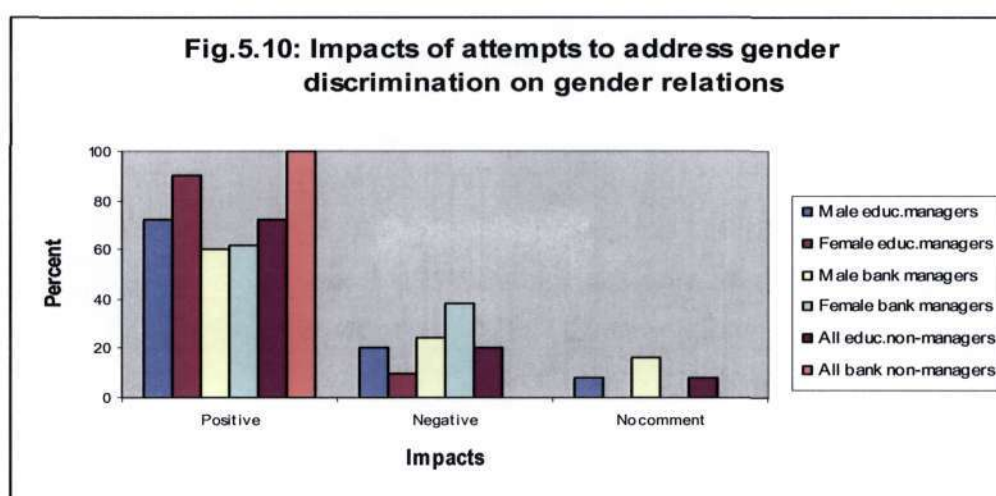
5.4.1.4 Impacts on race relations

According to managers and non-managers, the attempts to address the issue of gender inequalities on race relations in their respective institutions are likely to have positive impacts (73.3% and 84%, respectively) (Table 5.25 and Table 5.26). There were higher positive responses received from bank non-managers than those in education (Table 5.26). This was opposed to higher positive responses amongst education managers, especially females, than bank managers (Table 5.25).

Table 5.25: Managers response to the impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on race relations (in %)

Impacts	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Positive	64	90	81.3	28	84	65.3	73.3
Negative	20	10	13.3	56	-	18.7	16
No comment	16	-	5.4	16	16	16	10.7

Table 5.26: Non-managers response to impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on race relations (in %)

Impacts	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Positive	68	100	84
Negative	12	-	6
No comment	20	-	10

5.4.1.5 Impacts on understanding between workers

Although there was a high proportion of positive responses (70.7%) amongst all managers, it is clearly evident from Table 6.40 that the majority of positive responses were among the education sector managers (84%) in contrast to 57.3% amongst bank managers (Fig. 5.11). Thus, the negative responses were significantly higher in the banking sector. Additionally, high positive responses were received from both sectors in relation to non-managers (88%) (Fig. 5.11).

Fig.5.11: Impacts of attempts to address gender discrimination on understanding between workers
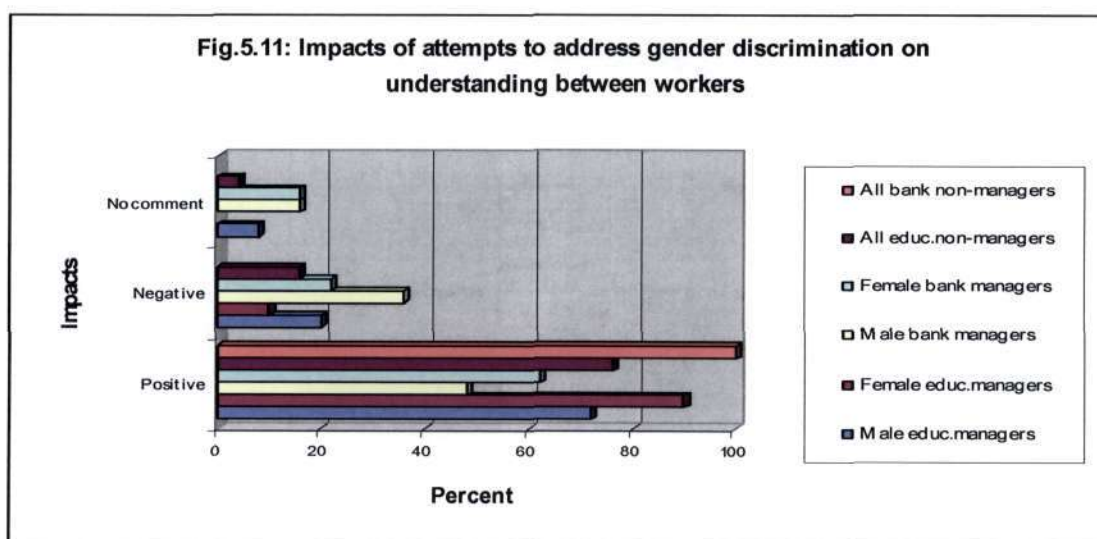
5.4.1.6 Impacts on tensions and conflicts among workers

Regarding the question of addressing gender inequalities and concomitant impacts on tensions amongst workers in the two different sectors, the proportion of positive responses ranged between 60% to over 75% with an average of 70% (Table 5.27). Females in both sectors had a much higher positive response rate than males. Alternatively, males had a higher negative and no comment response (Table 5.27). Table 5.43 indicates that non-managers also had a majority of positive responses (70%) and were almost evenly distributed in both sectors (68% in education and 72% in banking) (Table 5.28).

Table 5.27: Managers response to the impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on tensions and conflicts among workers (in %)

Impacts	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Positive	36	78	64	60	84	76	70
Negative	44	10	21.3	24	16	18.7	20
No comment	20	12	14.7	16	-	5.3	10

Table 5.28: Non-managers response to impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on tensions and conflicts among workers (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Positive	68	72	70
Negative	16	28	22
No comment	16	-	8

5.4.1.7 Impacts on profit margins

The attempts to address gender inequalities and perceptions on impacts on profit margins also received high positive response from respondents, although, as anticipated, higher responses were received from managers in the banking sector than education. Most responses in education were not applicable. On average, 58% of all managers stated that addressing gender inequalities/ discrimination did have a positive impact on profits (Fig. 5.12). A similar trend was noticeable among non-managers, 68% of who were of the

opinion that profits were positively impacted by addressing the issue of gender inequalities with all bank non-managers positively inclined (Fig. 5.12)

Fig.5.12: Impacts of attempts to address gender discrimination on profit marfins
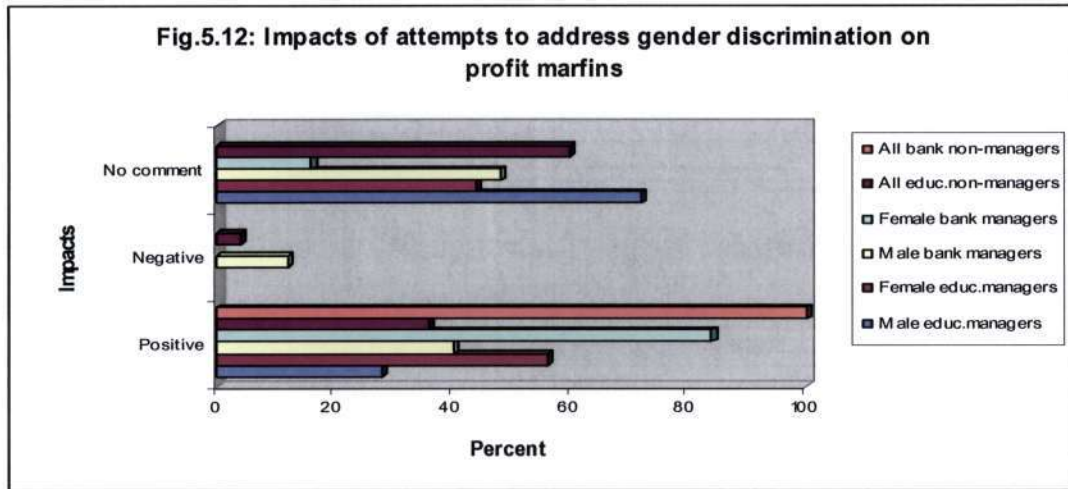
5.4.1.8 Impacts on client base and retention

Sixty-four percent of all managers positively responded that attempts to address gender inequalities impacted on client base and retention. This was especially so amongst bank managers (76%) as opposed to education managers' responses (52%) (Table 5.29). All non-managers in banking reported that addressing the question of gender discrimination in the institution impacted positively on the client base and retention. Most education sector non-managers (60%) could not comment on this issue (Table 5.30).

Table 5.29: Managers response to the impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on client base and retention (in %)

Impacts	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Positive	20	68	52	60	84	76	64
Negative	8	-	2.7	12	-	4	3.4
Not applicable	72	32	45.3	28	16	20	32.6

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Table 5.30: Non-managers response to impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination on client base and retention (in %)

Impacts	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Positive	36	100	68
Negative	4	-	2
No comment	60	-	30

5.4.1.9 Reasons for negative responses on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination

The reasons for negative responses regarding the impacts of attempts to address the question of gender inequalities/ discrimination in the workplace are illustrated in Table 5.31 and Table 5.32. For most managers and non-managers this issue was not applicable. However, some reasons such as less qualified persons being appointed, merit not being considered, occurrence of conflict, jealousy amongst staff, previously disadvantaged given opportunity and the use of gender to cover-up the lack of people of colour were cited by the minority of managers (Table 5.31). Additional reasons given by non-managers included issues such as employment on merit, productivity being affected, males being outnumbered, training required for senior staff and disciplinary matters (Table 5.32).

Table 5.31: Managers reasons for negative responses to impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination (in %)

Reasons	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	36	90	72	44	82	69.3	70.7
Employment on merit	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Less qualified person appointed	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Merit sidelined for other reasons eg. affirmative action	8	10	9.3	-	8	5.3	7.3
Conflicts could occur	36	-	12	-	2	1.3	6.7
Jealousy amongst staff	-	-	-	12	2	5.3	2.7
Previously disadvantaged given opportunity	-	-	-	12	6	8	4
Use of gender to cover up lack of people of colour	-	-	-	32	-	10.7	5.3

Table 5.32: Non-managers reasons for negative responses to impacts of attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Employment on merit	4	-	2
Productivity can suffer	8	-	4
Males are outnumbered	4	-	2
Merit sidelined	4	-	2
Refrain from disciplinary issues	4	-	2
Training required for senior staff	-	16	8
Jealousy amongst staff	-	12	6
Not applicable	76	72	74

5.4.1.10 Reasons for positive responses on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination

Table 5.33: Managers reasons for positive responses on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination (in %)

Reasons	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	28	22	24	28	18	21.3	22.7
Good for morale	12	-	4	20	16	17.3	10.7
Better understanding	16	12	13.3	-	4	2.7	8
Encourage staff to improve performance for promotion	16	10	13.3	-	-	-	6.7
Personal observation reveals satisfaction	12	10	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Sharing duties	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Those discriminated strive for excellence	8	22	17.3	-	-	-	8.7
Eliminate gender discrimination	-	24	16	-	22	14.7	15.3
Creates positive outcome	-	-	-	36	6	16	8
Required by legislation	-	-	-	16	34	28	14

Some of the reasons for the positive responses by managers that had significant proportions included the following:

- Good for morale
- Required by legislation
- Eliminate gender discrimination
- Those discriminated against strive for excellence (Table 5.33).

Table 5.34: Non-managers reasons for positive responses on attempts to address gender inequalities/ discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Good for morale	4	-	2
Better understanding	8	48	28
No problem with female managers	4	-	2
Creates positive outcomes	4	-	2
Good impact	8	-	4
Decrease female majority on staff disciplinary committee	12	-	6
Good to have gender equality	4	-	2
Equal opportunity for all	-	24	12
Not applicable	56	28	42

Important reasons given by non-managers were better understanding (28%) and equal opportunity for all (12%) (Table 5.34). Other reasons given were: no problem with female managers, creation of positive outcomes, good impact, decreases the female majority on staff disciplinary committee and the fact that it was good to have gender equality (Table 5.34).

The responses above were reinforced and elaborated upon during the focus group discussions. The main reasons cited during the focus group discussions included language barriers, client perceptions, men not accepting women being in charge and that affirmative action creates perceptions in the minds of some employees that alternative forms of discrimination are being practised. Thus, the findings of Perumal (1994), Robinson et al (1998), Strober (1985) and Zimmer (1988) are supported.

The positive responses were supported during the focus group discussions by arguments that related to perceptions that there is increased respect for diversity, improved relationships/ work environment, redress opens up channels for communication and that the changes are progressive and in keeping within the context of a new South Africa. Furthermore, some of the respondents indicated that the majority of staff in the banks and schools are female anyway.

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5.4.1.11 Women who most benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination

Fig.5.13: Manager's response to groups of women who most benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination
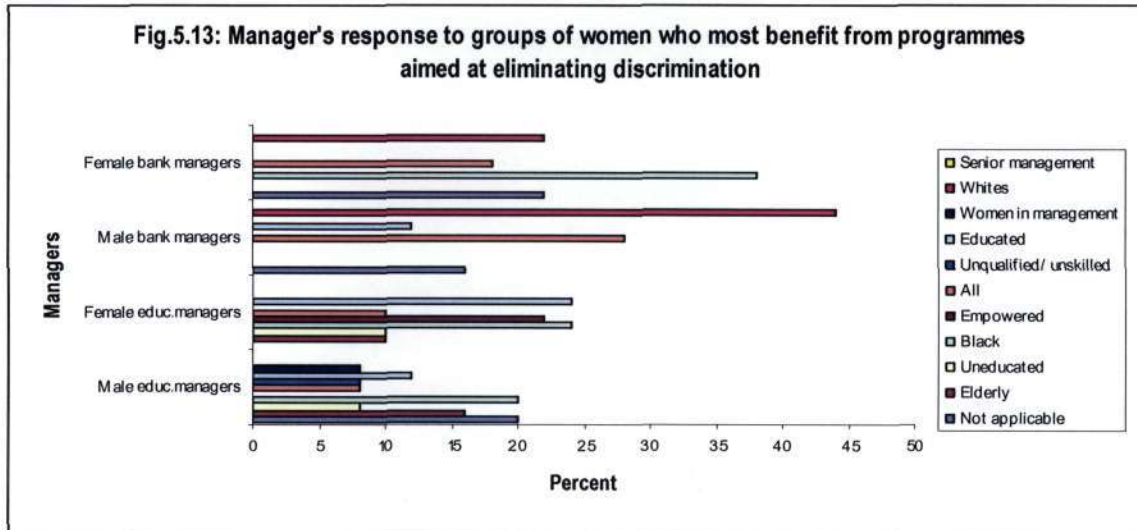
Managers responses on which group of women they perceived to benefit the most from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination received numerous responses. When calculated, most responses were received for Blacks (24%), all race groups (15%) and educated women (12%). However, responses varied between and within sectors as illustrated in Fig. 5.13. For example a significant proportion of male bank managers (44%) and female bank managers (38%) stated that Whites and Blacks respectively benefited, indicating that in this sector itself there was different opinions. In the education sector, both males and females (20% and 24% respectively) mentioned Blacks. Additionally, females (22% and 24%) named those women who were empowered and educated, respectively (Fig.5.13). The main reasons given by managers for choosing the women indicated in Table 6.52 are: previously disadvantaged (8.7%), good results (7.3%), view staff holistically (5.3%) and affirmative action (5.3%) (Table 5.35).

Table 5.35: Managers reasons for choosing groups of women who benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination (in %)

Reason for choosing women	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Manager
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	20	12	14.6	16	56	42.7	28.7
Previously disadvantaged	8	-	2.7	-	22	14.7	8.7
Aware of current legislation	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Affirmative action	12	10	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Equal or higher qualification required for promotion	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Good results	8	12	10.7	12	-	4	7.3
Fulfils desire to move up in careers	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Equal opportunities for all	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
They are responsible	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Increase in number of blacks in management	-	24	16	-	-	-	8
Juniors still establishing themselves	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Chance to prove themselves	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
All women face this to some degree	-	-	-	28	-	9.3	4.7
Females in higher positions white	-	-	-	32	-	10.7	5.3
View staff holistically	-	-	-	-	22	14.6	7.3

According to non-managers, the women who most benefit are also Blacks (44%), a proportion that is far higher than that obtained from managers. All women (12%), White women (14%), educated and Indian with 6% each were also cited (Fig. 5.14). The main reasons given for the choice of women was that these women were previously disadvantaged (38%), females in high positions (14%) and the ratio of women is higher (8%) (Table 5.36).

Fig. 5.14: Non-managers response to groups of women who most benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination
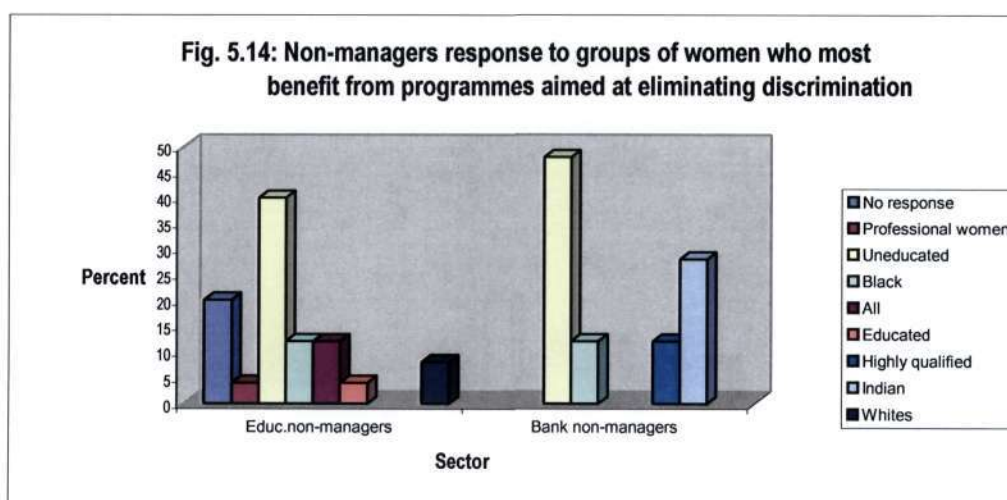
Table 5.36: Non-managers reasons for choosing groups of women who benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
Previously disadvantaged	28	48	38
Most positions were male dominated	8	-	4
Men jealous of females	4	-	2
Affirmative action	8	-	4
Only working women involved in gender discrimination	8	-	4
Set goals and limits	8	-	4
Ratio is higher	4	12	8
Programmes at work in place	8	-	4
Not class based	4	-	2
Self confident	4	-	2
Equal opportunities	4	-	2
Chance to prove themselves	-	12	6
Females in higher positions white	-	28	14
Not applicable	12	-	6

5.4.1.12 Women who least benefit from programmes

Table 5.37: Managers response to groups of women who least benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination (in %)

Women who least benefit	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	28	48	41.3	28	40	36	38.7
Uneducated	20	10	13.3	12	-	4	8.7
All Whites	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
White women	-	-	-	-	38	25.3	12.7
Indian	8	12	10.7	32	-	10.7	10.6
Unqualified/ unskilled at lower levels	8	10	9.3	22	-	14.7	12.0
Ambitious	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Young	16	10	12	-	2	1.3	6
None	-	-	-	16	10	12	2.6
Black	-	-	-	12	10	10.7	2.0

According to all managers, the women who least benefit from programmes are White women (12.7%), unqualified/ unskilled (12%), Indian women (10.6%) and various other

categories as indicated in Table 5.37. The most important reasons for choosing these groups of women were: not previously disadvantaged (20%), capable but overlooked (7.3%) and laws protecting certain groups (5.3%) (Table 5.38).

Table 5.38: Managers reasons for choosing groups of women who least benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination (in %)

Reasons	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	28	48	41.3	44	62	56	48.7
Capable but overlooked	-	22	14.7	-	-	-	7.3
Laws protecting certain groups	12	10	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Not previously disadvantaged	12	10	10.7	12	38	29.3	20
Not eligible for post	16	-	5.3	-	-	-	2.7
Content with position held	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Lack of skills/ knowledge	16	10	12	12	-	4	8
Few in high profile positions	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Previously disadvantaged	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Many women are silent majority	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.4

Generally, non-managers were of the opinion that the women who least benefit were White (20%), Indian (24%) and Blacks (14%). Higher responses were received from the banking sector personnel than that of education in the following categories: White women (28% and 12%), Indian (32% and 16%) and Black (28% and 0%). Other categories of women focused on by the education non-managers were: uneducated (16%), unskilled (16%), non-participants (4%) and working women (4%) (Fig. 5.15). The main reasons for choosing these categories of women were: they were not previously disadvantaged (14%), women are for middle positions (16%), no senior Black women (8%) and liberated women (8%) (Table 5.39).

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Fig.5.15: Non-manager's response to groups of women who least benefit from programmes aimed at eliminating discrimination
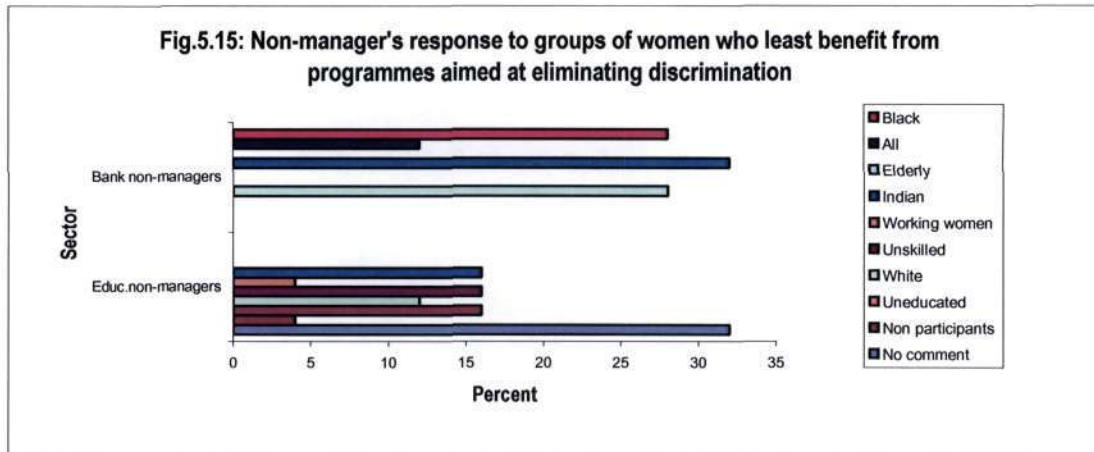
Table 5.39: Non-managers reasons for choosing groups of women who least benefit (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-managers N=50
Successful women targeted	4	-	2
Not previously disadvantaged	16	12	14
Previously disadvantaged	-	12	6
No benefit for unemployed	4	-	2
Uninformed about rights	12	-	6
Don't venture out	8	-	4
Silent majority of women	8	-	4
Dependent on spouse	8	-	4
Incapable of doing job	4	-	2
Women are for middle positions	-	32	16
Portrayed as weaker sex	-	12	6
No senior black women	-	16	8
Liberated	-	16	8
Not applicable	36	-	18

The above illustrates that they were a range of responses to who benefited mostly from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination. During the focus group discussions the most popular responses were White and Indian women followed by Black women generally. One respondent stated that mature women with school-going children who had settled in a stable lifestyle were prime candidates. It appears that White and Indian women are seen as being more skilled. Also, Black women are a major grouping in the designated previously disadvantaged categories identified by the Employment Equity Act. However, there remained the general perception, especially among the non-managerial staff, that White women tended to be promoted and had access to

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opportunities. Thus, the racial undertones of addressing gender discrimination are clearly discernable.

A major concern raised during the focus discussions with female managers was the issues that there appears to be a common perception that women have all to gain and men all to lose in a gender affirmative action environment. The responses from the study indicated that some supported this position while others did not. Most women managers and some male managers indicated that women's abilities to perform management functions are "something that is long overdue" or "proves that men and women can perform well given an opportunity". However, one of the male managers stated that he felt that female managers where tokenistic appointments and most of them "cannot do the jobs as well as their male counterparts can".

5.4.1.13 Knowledge of persons who have benefited and ways in which persons benefited from programmes to end gender discrimination

Almost equal proportions of education managers had some knowledge or did not have knowledge of persons who benefited from programmes/ policies aimed at eliminating gender discrimination. In contrast the majority of bank managers (64%) did not have such knowledge (Fig. 5.16). Overall, over 54% of all managers were unaware of people who have benefited from programmes. Four ways in which people benefited were cited by managers and these were: person given top position not competitive (21.3%), promotion (16%), females placed first although males had higher scores (10%) and the opportunity to exploit people's full potential (2%) (Table 5.40).

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Fig.5.16: Managers knowledge of persons who have benefited
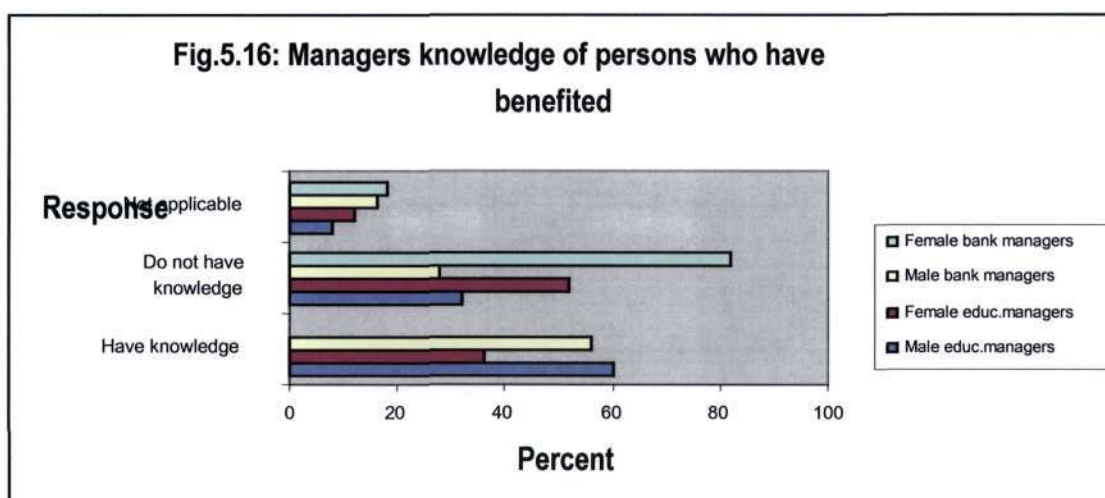
Table 5.40: Managers response to way/ s in which person/ s have benefited from programmes/ policies aimed at ending gender discrimination (in %)

Way person/s benefited	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not applicable	36	12	20	44	100	81.3	50.7
Top position- person not competitive	12	52	38.7	12	-	4	21.3
Promotion	24	24	24	24	-	8	16
Female placed first – males had similar scores	16	12	13.3	20	-	6.7	10
Opportunity to exploit their full potential	12	-	4	-	-	-	2

Most non-managers in the education and banking sector did not have any knowledge of persons who benefited from programmes/ policies aimed at ending gender discrimination. The proportionate numbers were 76% and 88%, respectively (Fig. 5.17). Those who did have knowledge (18%) stated three ways in which benefits accrued: females placed first with similar scores (4%), more enlightened (6%) and given equal opportunity to prove themselves (6%) (Table 5.41).

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Fig.5.17: Non-managers response to persons who have benefited
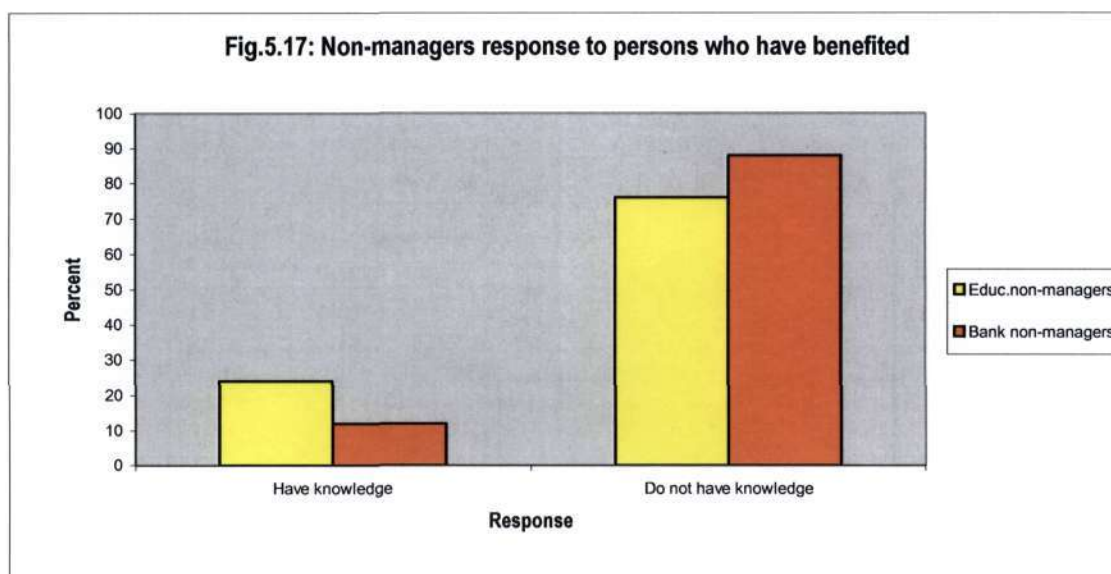
Table 5.41: Non-managers responses to the way/ s in which person have benefited from programmes/ policies aimed at ending gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Females placed first with similar scores	8	-	4
More enlightened	12	-	6
Short listed for promotion	4	-	2
Only in terms of parity	4	-	2
Able to be discerning	4	-	2
Given equal opportunity to prove themselves	-	12	6
Not applicable	68	88	78

During the focus group discussions, managers gave specific examples of how the women benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination. These were knowledge of an accelerated training programme that allowed women to progress through the ranks to manager within a five year period in the banking sector and the mapping out of career paths for women with specific time frames. Additionally, one respondent stated that a major concern was not the existence of policies and programmes but the effective implementation of these.

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5.4.1.14 Justification for attempts to address gender discrimination

Over 95% of education managers and 72% of bank managers, both male and female, stated that attempts at addressing gender discrimination were justified. The minority that thought that it was not justified were from banking sector. A similar positive trend in responses was received from non-managers in both sectors. However, the proportion was higher in the education sector than the banking sector (Fig. 5.18).

Fig.5.18: Managers and non-managers opinions on justification of attempts to end gender discrimination
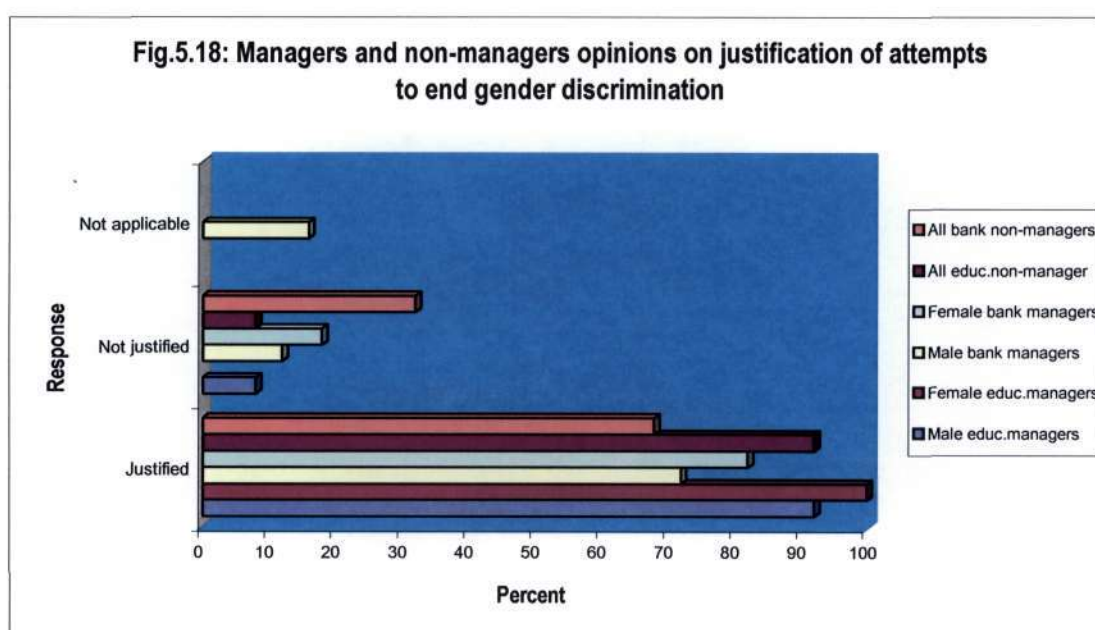
5.4.1.15 Opinions on whether attempts to remove gender discrimination are exaggerated

The question of whether attempts to address gender discrimination were exaggerated received opposing views from male and female managers within the education sector. On the one hand, a large proportion of female education managers agreed that it was exaggerated whilst male managers in this sector disagreed with this viewpoint. Most bank managers, especially females (82%) in relation to males (56%) also disagreed that gender discrimination was exaggerated. Taking the overall responses of managers from both sectors, it is evident that there was an almost equal proportion that was for and against this issue (Table 5.42).

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Table 5.42: Managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination are exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	24	88	66.7	28	18	21.3	44
No	76	-	25.3	56	82	73.4	49.3
Not applicable	-	12	8	16	-	5.3	6.7

Sixty percent of education non-managers were of the opinion that attempts to address gender discrimination were not exaggerated as opposed to bank non-managers, the majority (56%) of whom agreed that these attempts were not exaggerated. Even in this sector, the proportion of negative and positive responses did not differ significantly (Table 5.43).

Table 5.43: Opinions of non-managers on whether attempts to address gender discrimination are exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	40	56	48
No	60	44	52

5.4.1.16 Attempts to address gender discrimination as discrimination against men

When managers were posed with the question of whether the attempts to address gender discrimination were discrimination against men, the majority of all managers (69.3%) disagreed with this suggestion. The data in table 6.68, however, reveals that a significant proportion of males in sectors, education (44%) and banking (48%) agreed that men were discriminated against in the process (Fig.5.19).

Eighty percent of non-managers in education and 56% in banking did not consider the attempts as being discriminatory even though there was a large number in banking (44%) who were in agreement that men were being discriminated against (Fig.5.19).

Fig.5.19: Manage's and non-managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination is discrimination against men
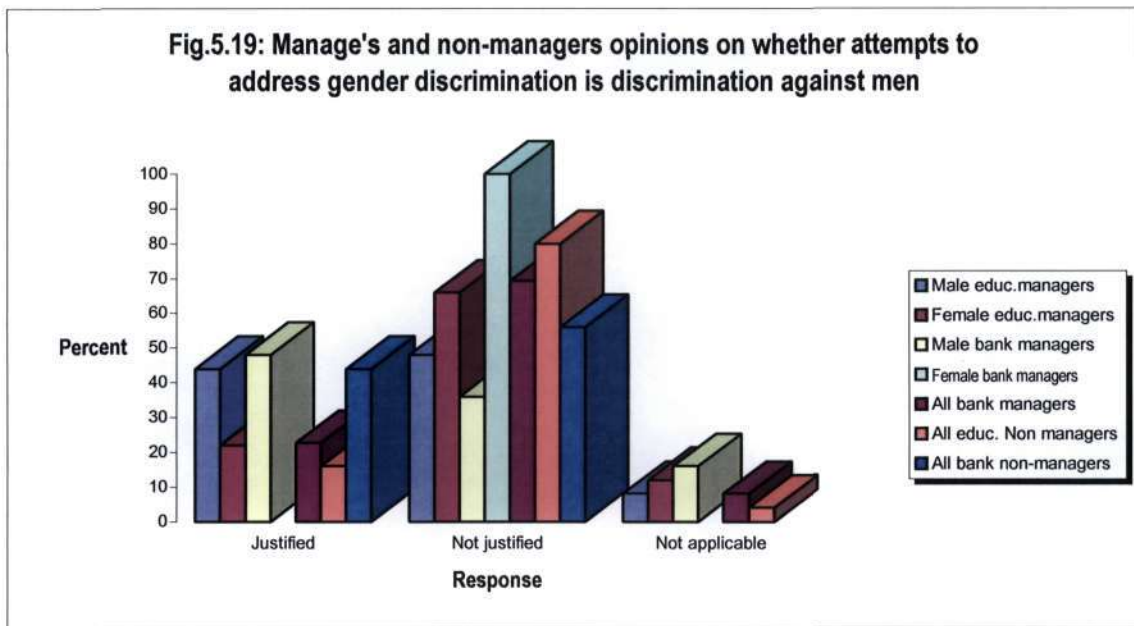
5.4.1.17 Attempts to address gender discrimination as a detriment to the economy

Opposing opinions were forthcoming from education male and female managers on the detrimental effects of attempts to address gender discrimination on the economy. Males in education (72%) stated that it was detrimental whilst females stated that it was not (88%) (Table 5.44). In banking, both males and females (72% and 78% respectively) were of the opinion that it was not detrimental (Table 5.44).

Table 5.44: Managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination is detrimental to the economy (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	8	88	61.3	12	22	18.7	40
No	72	-	24	72	78	76	50
Not applicable	20	12	14.7	16	-	5.3	10

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Table 5.45: Opinions of non-managers on whether attempts to address gender discrimination is detrimental to the economy (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
Yes	24	56	40
No	72	44	58
No comment	4	-	2

Seventy-two percent of education non-managers and 44% of those in banking did not consider attempts to address gender discrimination to be detrimental to the economy. It is clear that proportionately the numbers were higher in the education sector as compared to banking (Table 5.45). Generally though, 58% of all non-managers stated attempts to address gender discrimination were not detrimental to the economy.

5.4.1.18 Attempts to address gender discrimination as a detriment to the home

Fig. 5.20 graphically illustrates that over 80% of all managers did not view attempts to address gender discrimination as impacting negatively on the home environment. This was also the case with non-managers in both sectors (60% in each sector) who had similar opinions. It is, however, significant that about a third of non-mangers (34%) considered gender discrimination to be detrimental in cases where one or more children are left without parental care (Fig. 5.20).

Fig. 5.20: Managers and non-managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination impacts on the home
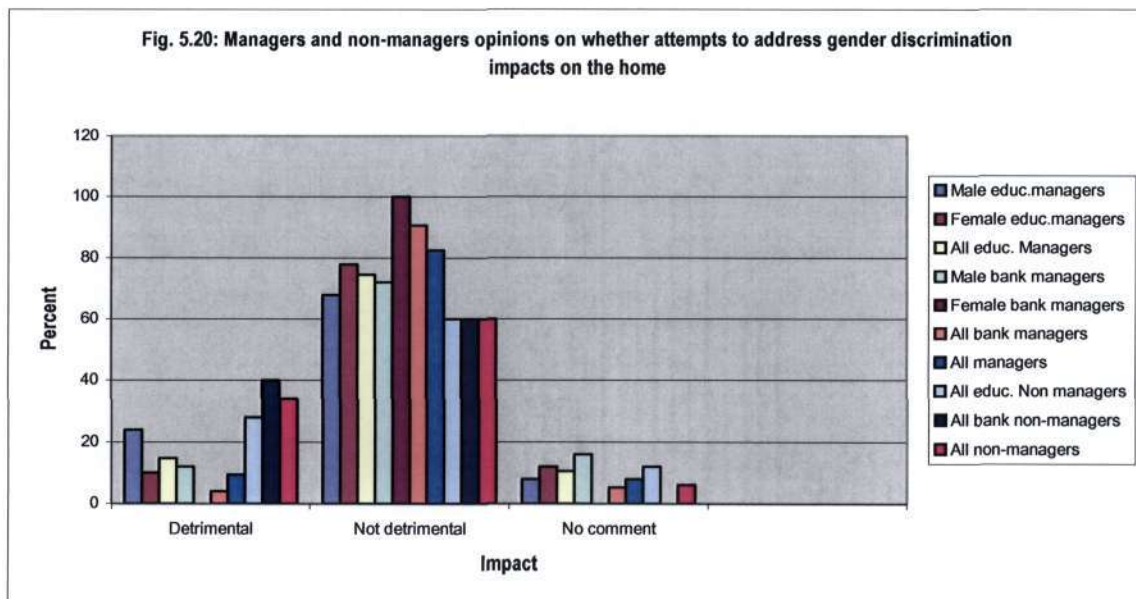
5.4.1.19 Attempts to address gender discrimination raise false expectations

Seventy-two percent of all managers with majorities among both males and females did not believe that attempts to address gender discrimination would raise false expectations among women (Table 5.46). Viewpoints on this issue differed amongst non-managers in education and banking. Most respondents in education (64%) did not believe that there would be any false expectations raised whilst 56% of those in banking stated that false expectations amongst women could be raised (Table 5.47).

Table 5.46: Managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination raise false expectations among women (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	24	32	29.3	32	16	21.3	25.3
No	76	68	70.7	52	84	73.3	72
Not applicable	-	-	-	16	-	5.4	2.7

Table 5.47: Opinions of non-managers on whether attempts to address gender discrimination raise false expectations among women (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	32	56	44
No	64	44	54
No comment	4	-	2

5.4.1.20 Attempts to address gender discrimination result in poorly qualified women managers

Opinions on the relationship between attempts to address gender discrimination and the appointment of poorly qualified women in managerial positions were also sought from respondents (Table 5.48). Over 60% of managers stated that this situation would not arise. Proportions were higher amongst male education managers and female bank managers. In a similar vein, as illustrated in Fig. 5.21, 58% of all non-managers sided with this assertion. A sizeable proportion of all managers (36%) (Table 5.48) and non-managers (38%) (Fig.5.21) stated that there was a likelihood that poorly qualified women

would be placed in managerial positions due to attempts at addressing gender discrimination in the workplace.

Table 5.48: Managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination results in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	36	46	42.7	44	22	29.3	36
No	64	54	57.3	40	78	65.4	61.3
Not applicable	-	-	-	16	-	5.3	2.7

Fig.5.21: Non-managers opinion on whether attempts to address gender discrimination results in poorly qualified women being placed in management
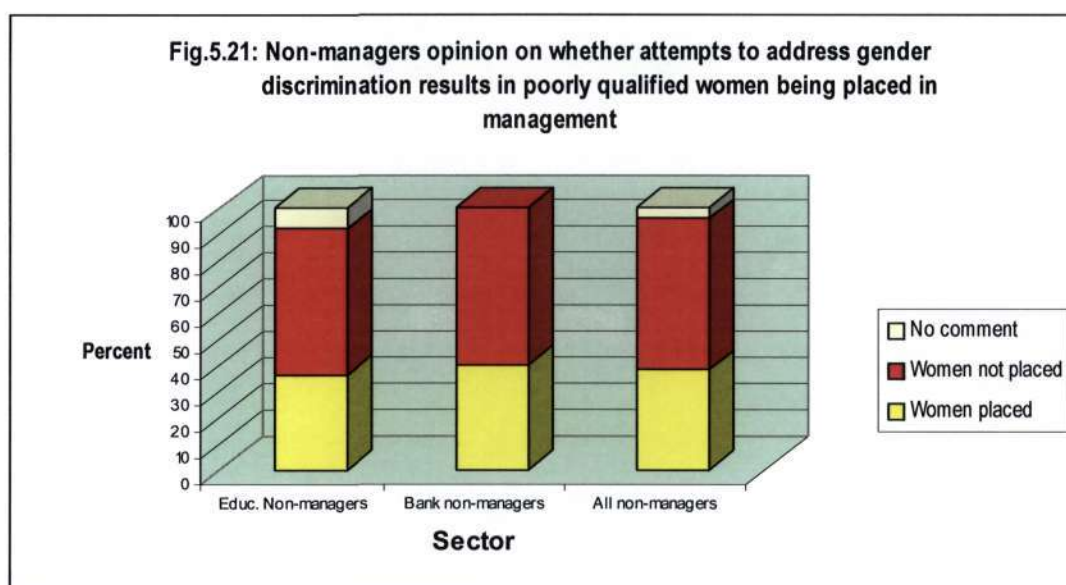
5.4.1.21 Attempts to address gender discrimination and the employment of poorly qualified women

Most managers (64%) and non-managers (56%) expressed the opinion that institutional attempts to address gender inequalities will not result in poorly qualified women being employed (Table 5.49 and Table 5.50). However, there were significant numbers of managers (32%) and non-managers (40%) that opposed this view (Table 5.49 and Table 5.50).

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Table 5.49: Managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination results in poorly qualified women being employed (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	36	34	34.7	44	22	29.3	32
No	56	66	62.6	40	78	65.4	64
Not applicable	8	-	2.7	16	-	5.3	4

Table 5.50: Opinions of non-managers on whether attempts to address gender discrimination results in poorly qualified women being employed (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	40	40	40
No	52	60	56
No comment	8	-	4

5.4.1.22 Attempts to address gender discrimination and being forced by government

In the education sector managers (58.7%) were of the view that gender discrimination was being forced on institutions by the government. This was not the case in the banking sector where managers (66.7%) considered the issue of gender discrimination as voluntary and not forced. However, non-managers in banking (56%) were of the opinion that it was forced whilst those in education (60%) had similar opinions to those of managers, that is, it was voluntary (Fig. 5.22).

Fig.5.22: Managers and non-managers opinions on whether attempts to address gender discrimination are being forced by government
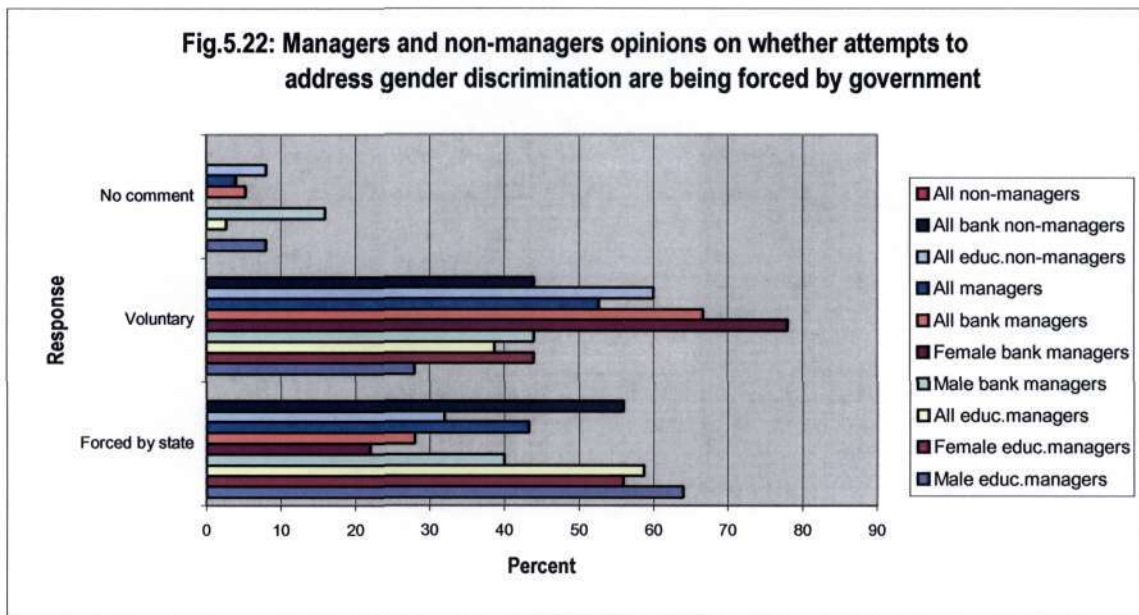
During the focus group discussions, the majority of participants believed that attempts to address gender discrimination are justified given past discrimination against women. However, many also believed that it was being forced by government in ways that may not be appropriate on the ground. One participant warned:

> They are deep-seated and widespread anxieties about affirmative active that includes the preferential appointment of women. The fact of the matter is that we are talking about peoples' jobs and livelihoods. This is particularly a problem here (in South Africa) were jobs are so limited.

The above illustrates that there remains sentiments that view attempts to address gender discrimination, and affirmative action more generally, negatively.

5.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

5.5.1 Difficulty of implementing and managing programmes to address gender discrimination

Table 5.51: Managers opinions on whether it is difficult to implement policies/ programmes challenging gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	24	54	44	12	38	29.3	36.7
No	76	46	56	72	44	53.4	54.6
Not comment	-	-	-	16	18	17.3	8.7

Table 5.52: Opinions of non-managers on whether it is difficult to implement policies/ programmes challenging gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	32	12	22
No	68	88	78

Over 50% of managers thought that it was not difficult for institutions to implement policies/ programmes challenging gender discrimination (56% in education and 44% in the banking). It is interesting to note that females managers in education (54%) and 38% of female managers in banking stated that there were difficulties in implementation of such policies/ programmes (Table 5.51). The majority of non-managers in education (68%) and banking (88%) said that there were no difficulties in relation to implementation of policies and programmes (Table 5.52). However, it is important to note that as indicated earlier most were not aware of gender policies and programmes.

Table 5.53: Managers opinions on whether it is difficult to manage policies/ programmes challenging gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	12	32	25.3	48	54	52	38.7
No	88	56	66.7	52	42	45.3	56
Not applicable	-	12	8.0	-	4	2.7	5.3

Managers in education (66.7%), especially male (88%), felt that it was not difficult to manage the policies/ programmes that challenge gender discrimination. The situation was not the same in the banking sector, although the overall results from Table 5.53 indicate that 56% of all managers had no difficulties. In banking, 52% of all managers stated that there were difficulties experienced (Table 5.53). This issue was not discussed with non-managers for the obvious reason that they were not in a position to manage these programmes and policies.

It is important to state that during the focus group discussions many managers (both male and female) indicated that they had personally not been involved in the implementation of any policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination. Thus, the views expressed above may be more of a belief in the management abilities rather than from tangible experiences.

During the interviews managers did indicate that they experienced various difficulties in the implementation of programmes and policies and these are outlined in Table 5.54. Eight of the difficulties given had significant proportions that ranged from 17% to 35%. These problems/ difficulties experienced by managers were:

- top management are male (35.3%)
- insufficient opportunities for training and skills development (27.3%)
- lack of support from management structures (25.3%)
- lack of commitment from the institution (25.3%)
- resistance from male workers (24%)
- lack of management skills (22.7%)
- conflict among workers (22%)
- resistance from all workers (17.4%)

Resistance from all workers was only cited by bank managers whilst the rest of the difficulties/ problems identified were common to both sectors although proportions varied with regard to a few of the identified difficulties/ problems according to each sector (Table 5.54).

Table 5.54: Managers response to problems/ constraints if it is difficult to manage policies/ programmes challenging gender discrimination (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Resistance from all workers	-	-	-	60	22	34.7	17.4
Resistance from male workers	24	22	22.7	-	38	25.3	24
Lack of management skills	12	34	26.7	12	22	18.7	22.7
Lack of support from management structures	-	44	29.3	12	38	29.4	29.3
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	12	54	40	-	22	14.7	27.3
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	-	34	22.7	12	-	4	13.3
Conflict among workers	24	32	29.3	-	22	14.7	22
Top management are male	28	32	30.7	-	60	40	35.3
Lack of commitment from institution to implement programme	-	32	21.4	12	38	29.3	25.3
Policies vague and difficult to understand	-	20	13.4	-	-	-	6.7
Other	-	12	8	-	-	-	4

5.5.2 Fairness of recruitment and promotion policies

Most male managers in both sectors were of the opinion that recruitment and promotion policies were fair (Fig. 5.23). Females in education were divided on this issue (44% each for and against) whilst the majority of female managers in banking (78%) stated that the policies were unfair. Overall, over half the respondents in both sectors stated that policies for recruitment and promotion were unfair (Fig. 5.23).

Almost equal proportions of responses from non-managers were received for policies being fair (48%) and unfair (52%) in the education sector (Fig. 5.24). In the banking sector the predominant responses (72%) were that the policies were fair. Amongst all non-managers, 60% considered the policies to be fair (Fig. 5.24).

Fig.5.23: Managers opinion on whether recuitment and promotion policies are fair

Fig.5.24: Non-managers opinion on whether recuitment and promotion policies are fair
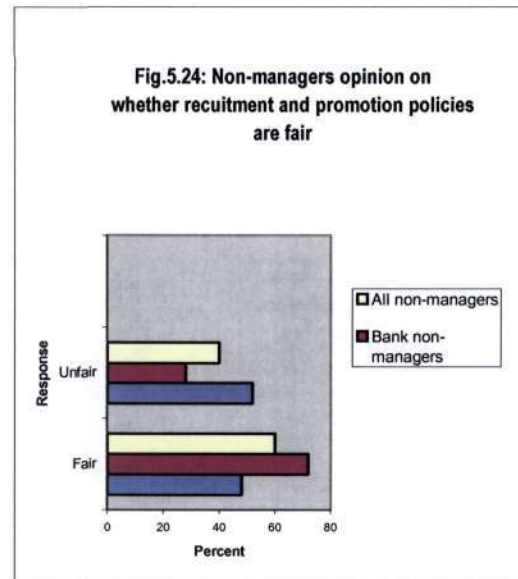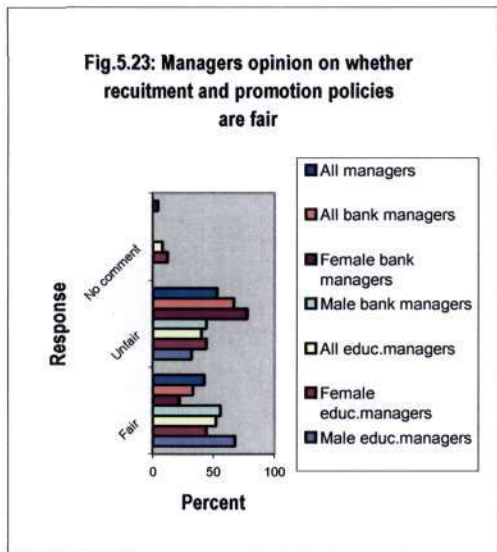
Bank managers forwarded more explanations for the recruitment and promotion policies being unfair than those in education. The explanations given by educationalists were: interference by the School Governing Body (SGB) (4%), SGB did not assess candidates well (16%) and incompetent people promoted (20%). The important explanations from managers in the banking sector were: incompetent people promoted (10.6%), male domination (14.7%) and no people in top management (14.7%). As is evident, one explanation, that of incompetent people being promoted had an overall 15.4% (Table 5.55).

Non-managers gave six explanations for the policies being unfair. Four of these came from education respondents and two from the banking sector. There was one commonality. In banking, incompetent people being promoted (16%) and favouritism (12%) were explanations forwarded. Favouritism by the governing body (16%), women being favoured by women managers (4%), bias (16%) and male orientation (12%) were explanations given by non-managers in education (Table 5.56).

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Table 5.55: Managers explanation for recruitment and promotion policies not being fair (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Interference by SGB	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
SGB do not assess candidates well	-	24	16	-	-	-	8
Incompetent people promoted	20	20	20	-	16	10.6	15.4
Still bias	-	-	-	24	-	8	4
Favouritism still practised	-	-	-	20	-	6.6	3.4
Still bias	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Male dominated	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
No people in top management	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
No comment	68	56	60	56	22	33.4	46.6

Table 5.56: Non-managers explanation for recruitment and promotion policies not being fair

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Incompetent people being promoted	-	16	8
Favouritism still being practiced	-	12	6
Governing body favours certain candidates	16	-	8
Women favoured by women managers	4	-	2
Still bias	16	-	8
Still male orientated	12	-	6
No comment	52	72	62

During the focus group discussions it was evident that there was a strong feeling that favouritism was rife in the banks and the selection and promotion procedures remained highly subjective. This was especially strongly expressed by the female managers. In the education sector, participants stated that there was an increase in employing people to meet diversity targets rather than merit.

In the education sector the majority of managers (78.7%) were in favour of personnel being granted equal opportunities regardless of gender. This situation was not prevalent

in banking where the majority of respondents (70.7%), especially women (78%), stated that gender differences should be considered when opportunities arise (Fig. 5.25). Non-managers in banking differed from their managers and agreed that gender differences should not be a factor in granting equal opportunities to personnel. Similar responses were received from non-managers in education (72%) (Fig. 5.25).

Fig.5.25: Managers and non-managers opinions on whether personnel, regardless of gender are granted equal opportunities
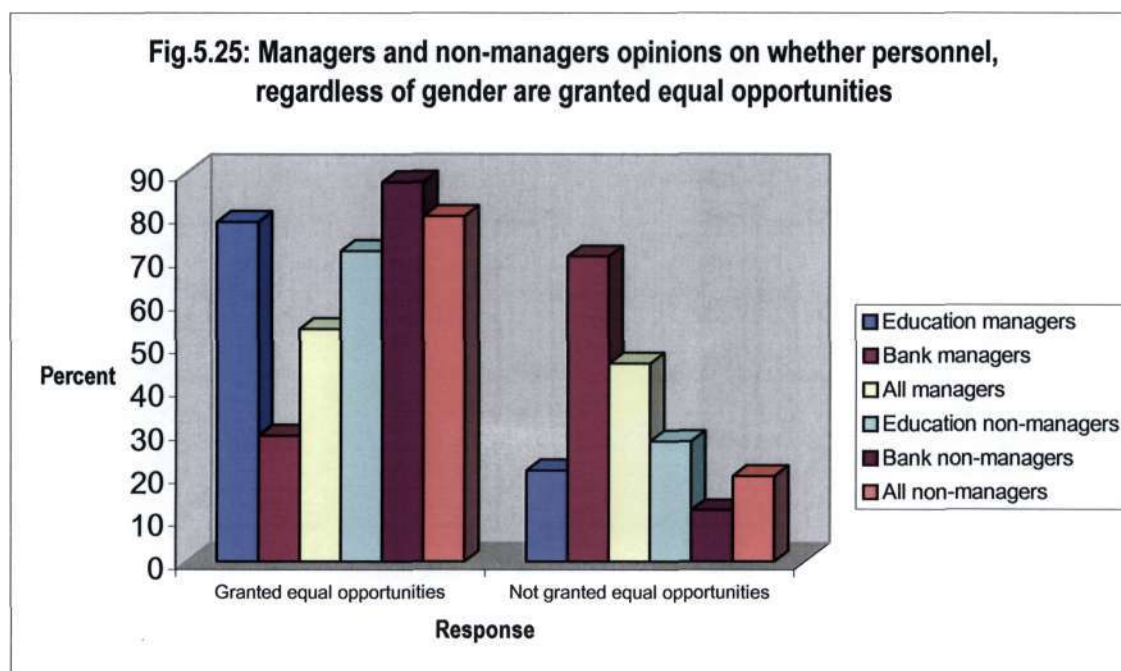
Although there was a majority (68.7%) of all managers, especially in banking (92%), who stated that there were equal opportunities for personnel to access bursaries and other funding, in the education sector, males (72%) agreed that this was the case whilst females (56%) disagreed. Proportionately, there were almost an equal number of males and females in education who agreed and disagreed (45.3% and 42.7% respectively) (Table 5.57). Most of the non-managers in both sectors (76%) stated that there were equal opportunities for all in their institutions (Table 5.58).

Table 5.57: Managers opinions on whether there are equal opportunities to access bursaries and other funding (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	72	32	45.3	76	100	92	68.7
No	16	56	42.7	24	-	8	25.3
No comment	12	12	12	-	-	-	6

Table 5.58: Non-managers opinions on whether there are equal opportunities to access bursaries and other funding (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	64	88	76
No	28	12	20
No comment	8	-	4

5.5.3 Communication of policies and programmes aimed at gender discrimination

A large number of managers (71.4%), mostly in banking (86.7%,) stated that policies aimed at gender discrimination have not been communicated to all staff (Fig. 5.26). Despite the fact that over half the education managers gave comparable responses, about 60% of males and females in education had opposing viewpoints on this issue (Fig.5.26).

Fig.5.26: Managers opinion on whether policies to end gender discrimination have been communicated
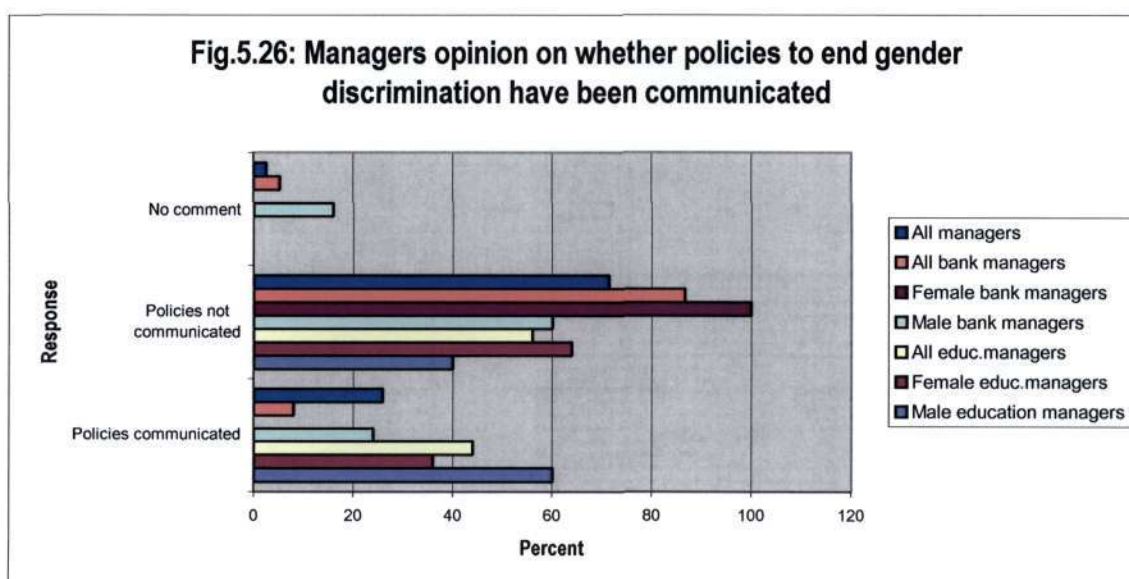
Table 5.59: Managers response to method of communication of policies aimed at ending gender discrimination (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Staff meetings	40	24	29.3	-	-	-	14.7
Branch meetings	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Women only meetings at branch/ school level	-	12	8	12	-	4	6
Newsletter/ circulars/ memos	16	12	13.4	24	-	8	10.7
Notice boards	16	-	5.4	12	-	4	4.7
Workshops/ seminars jointly with men	28	76	60	-	-	-	30
Women only workshops/ seminars	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.4
E-mails	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Not applicable	-	-	-	-	100	66.7	33.4
No Response	-	-	-	28	-	9.4	4.7

According to managers, staff meetings (14.7%), newsletters/ circulars/ memos (10.7%), workshops/ seminars (30%) were the most important means used to communicate policies aimed at ending gender discrimination (Table 5.59). It should also be mentioned that the workshops/ seminars held jointly with men did not take place in the banking sector and was only prevalent amongst educationalists (Table 5.59). The main reasons for policies aimed at ending gender discrimination not being communicated to staff were that staff were not interested (10.7%), policies not developed completely (46.7%), preference to implement policies quietly (29.4%), fear of male discontent (18%) and the avoidance of pressure from other groups (20.7%) (Table 5.60).

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Table 5.60: Managers reason for details of policies aimed at ending gender discrimination not being communicated (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Employees not interested	8	12	10.7	-	16	10.7	10.7
Policies not developed completely	32	52	45.4	12	66	48	46.7
Prefer to implement action quietly	16	12	13.4	48	44	45.3	29.4
Do not want to raise expectations	-	-	-	12	16	14.7	7.4
Fear of male discontentment	12	-	4	20	38	32	18
Avoid pressure from other groups	12	-	4	24	44	37.3	20.7
Other	-	30	20	12	-	4	15.4

Fifty-eight percent of non-managers were of the opinion that policies aimed at gender discrimination were communicated to staff and there were almost equal proportions in both sectors (Fig. 5.27 and Fig.5.28). Amongst all non-managers there was also a higher proportion (58%) stating that policies were communicated as reflected in Fig. 5.29.

Fig. 5.27: Education non-managers opinions on communication of policies

- Policies communicated
- Policies not communicated
- No comment

Fig.5.28: Bank non-managers opinions on communication of policies

- Policies communicated
- Policies not communicated
- No comment

Fig.5.29: All non-managers opinions on communication of policies

- Policies communicated
- Policies not communicated
- No comment

According to non-managers, the main methods of communication were: staff meetings (26%), branch meetings (22%), newsletters/ circulars/ memos (40%), workshops/ seminars held jointly with men (32%) and E-mails (14%) (Table 5.61). Staff meetings (52%) and the use of the notice board (20%) were only used in the education sector whilst branch meetings (44%) were only held in banking (Table 5.61). Non-managers reasons for policies not being communicated are outlined in Table 5.62. The main reasons given were: employees not interested (10%), policies not developed completely (40%), fear of male discontent (18%) and the avoidance of pressure from other groups (12%) (Table 5.62).

Table 5.61: Non-managers response to method of communication of policies aimed at ending gender discrimination (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Staff meetings	52	-	26
Branch meetings	-	44	22
Newsletter/ circulars/ memos	36	44	40
Notice boards	20	-	10
Workshops/ seminars jointly with men	36	28	32
Women only workshops/ seminars	4	-	2
E-mails	-	28	14
Other	-	16	8

Table 5.62: Non-managers reason for details of policies aimed at ending gender discrimination not being communicated to all staff (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Employees not interested	20	-	10
Policies not developed completely	24	56	40
Prefer to implement action quietly	16	-	8
Do not want to raise expectations	4	12	8
Fear of male discontentment	8	28	18
Avoid pressure from other groups	8	16	12
Other	20	-	10

According to managers, when policies were not in written form various methods were used, especially in the education sector, to communicate information as is evident in Table 6.98. The highest proportions of responses were received for staff association/ unions (16.7%) and upper management (10%). Upper management and unions were used by both sectors and is broken down in the education sector into the principal/ deputy principal, head of department, circuit inspectors and Department of Education (DOE) officials (Table 5.63).

Non-managers, on the other hand stated that upper management and government officials were the channels of communications (Table 5.64). Additionally, policies were communicated through other important channels such as staff associations/ unions (38%) and human resource personnel (22%), especially in banking (44%) (Table 5.64).

Table 5.63: Managers response to the method of communication of policies if not in written form (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Principal/ deputy	48	-	16	-	-	-	8
Head of department	16	12	13.4	-	-	-	6.7
Circuit inspectors	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.4
Other DOE officials	28	12	17.4	-	-	-	8.7
Staff associations/ unions	40	24	29.4	12	-	4	16.7
Other government officials	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.4
Upper management	-	-	-	12	22	20	10
Other	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Not applicable	-	-	-	76	78	77.4	38.7

Table 5.64: Non-managers response to method of communication of policies if not in written form (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Principal/ deputy	56	-	28
Head of department	36	-	18
Circuit inspectors	4	-	2
Other DOE officials/ govt. officials	12	16	14
Staff association/ unions	44	32	38
Other government officials	4	-	2
Branch managers	-	16	8
Upper management	-	6	8
Human resource personnel	-	44	22
Other	-	16	8

5.5.4 Specification of affirmative action or other terminology in job advertisements

According to Fig.5.30, 56% of managers specified that there was no affirmative action in job advertisements for vacant posts. This was more obvious in the banking sector (77.3%). Amongst non-managers, there was an equal proportion (56%) in both sectors ho stated that there were specifications of affirmative action in job advertisements (Fig.5.30). Regarding this issue, it seems that there are contradictory responses from managers and non-managers points of view and the status at the moment is not clear from the available data. However, those managers who had a positive response to the application of affirmative action stated that implementation took place for all (20.7%)

and some (13.4%) job advertisements (Table 5.65). The proportionate response from non-managers on this matter was 30% (all) and 20% (some) (Table 5.66).

Fig.5.30: Managers and non-managers specification of affirmative action in job advertisements for vacant posts
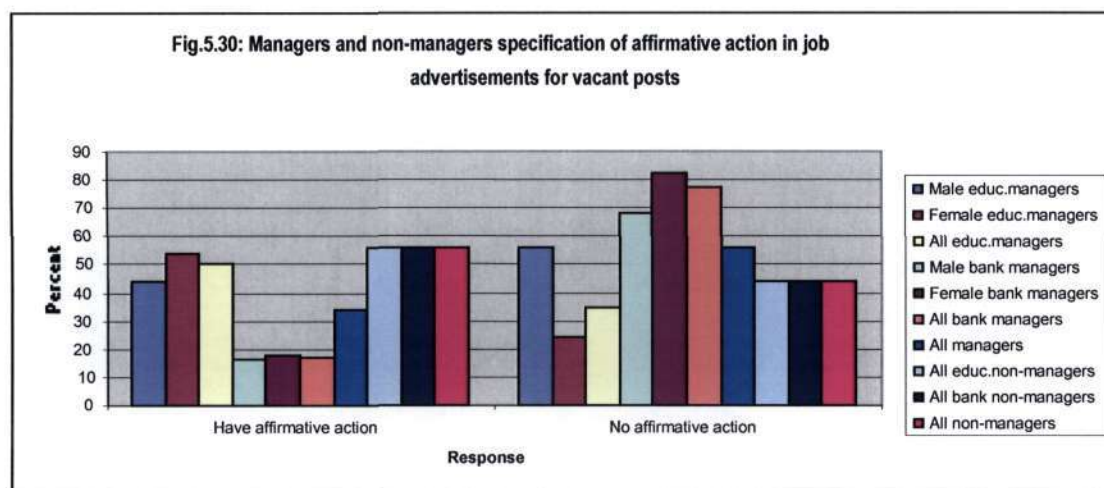
Table 5.65: Opinions of those managers having a positive response to the application of affirmative action on whether the practice is implemented for all positions (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
All	28	22	24	16	18	17.4	20.7
Some	16	32	26.7	-	-	-	13.4
N/ A	56	46	49.3	84	82	82.6	66

Table 5.66: Opinions of non-managers having a positive response to the application of affirmative action on whether the practice is implemented for all positions (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
All positions	28	32	30
Some positions	4	36	20
N/ A	68	32	50

A significant number of managers (47.3%) in both sectors stated that gender neutral terminology was never used in advertisement (Fig.5.31). However, a quarter of all the managers interviewed disagreed with viewpoint and responded that gender-neutral terminology was always used. Even amongst the non-managers, a large proportion (32%) did not agree that gender neutral terminology was used. The balance of the respondents that formed the majority stated that it was always used (28%), mostly (20%) or

sometimes (20%) (Fig. 5.31). The use of gender-biased terms (usually male-biased) creates the impression, as demonstrated by Collinson et al (1990) and Helgesen (1996), that jobs/ positions are for males.

Fig.5.31: Managers and non-managers response to use of gender neutral terminology in advertisements
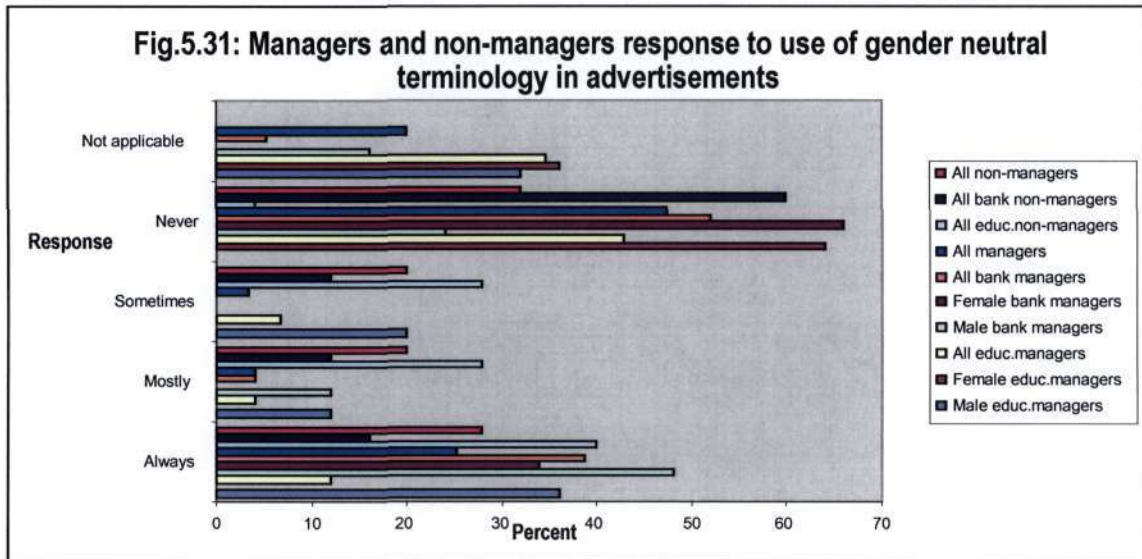
The female managers during the focus group discussions stated that women's entrance into management positions did not lead to any significant organisational changes. However, they cited numerous attempts to reduce sex-role bias and misconceptions linked to women managers. This was often done in meetings where inappropriate language such as "chairman" was often used. Also, they asserted that there was the need to deliberately ensure that women managers were offered similar responsibilities as their male colleagues.

5.6: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES PERTAINING TO WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT

5.6.1 Female managers and their contributions to personal growth

Almost equal proportions of managers, 41.3% and 42.7%, were of the opinion that more female managers in their institutions would and would not contribute to their personal growth (Fig.5.32). In the case of non-managers, over half (54%) were of the opinion that more female managers would not contribute to their personal growth (Fig.5.33).

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Fig. 5.32: Managers opinions on contribution of female managers to personal growth

- Contribute
- Do not contribute
- No comment

Fig.5.33: Non-managers opinions on contribution of female managers to personal growth

- Contribute
- Do not contribute
- No comment
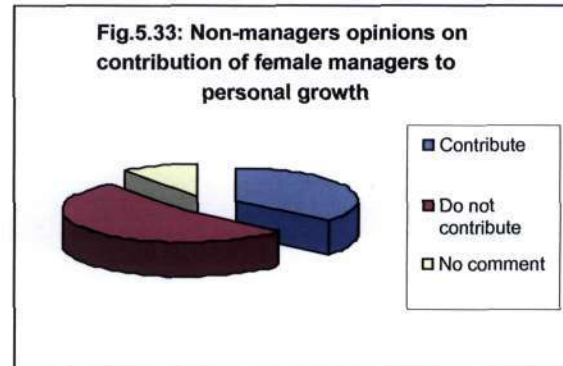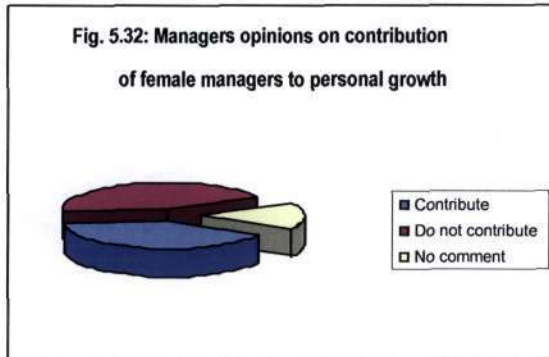
Table 5.67: Managers opinions on whether more female managers in institution will contribute to professional growth (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	20	64	49.3	-	60	40	44.7
No	60	24	36	84	22	42.7	39.3
No comment	20	12	14.7	16	18	17.3	16

Table 5.68: Opinions of non-managers on whether more female managers in institution will contribute to professional growth (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
Yes	56	16	36
No	32	84	58
No comment	12	-	6

Managers were also equally divided on whether female managers would contribute to their professional growth, 44.7% and 39.3%, respectively (Table 5.67). Male managers particularly, in both sectors - education (60%) and banking (84%), were not convinced that more females in management would contribute to their professional growth.

The majority of non-managers in education (56%) stated that more female managers would contribute to their professional growth whilst their counterparts in the banking sector (84%) were opposed to this viewpoint (Table 5.68).

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5.6.2 Female managers and their contributions to institutional growth

With regard to the contribution of more female managers to institutional growth, male managers in both sectors disagreed with this notion (48% in education and 84% in banking respectively) (Table 5.69). On the other hand, the majority of female managers (66% in education and 60% in banking) were positively inclined to the contribution of more female managers to institutional growth. Non-managers in general (56%) were of the opinion that more female managers would not contribute to institutional growth (Table 5.70). On closer examination of the data in Table 5.70, it is clear that the majority of disagreement to the institution contribution of females stemmed from the banking non-managers (84%) and not from those in education (64%) who were positively inclined to the role of female managers in contributing to institutional growth.

Table 5.69: Managers opinions on whether more female managers in institution would contribute to institutional growth (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	32	66	54.7	-	60	40	47.4
No	48	12	24	84	-	28	26
No comment	20	22	21.3	16	40	32	26.6

Table 5.70: Opinions of non-managers on whether more female managers in institutions would contribute to institutional growth (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Yes	64	16	40
No	28	84	56
No comment	8	-	4

5.6.3 Opinion on whether males or females make better managers

Fig. 5.33 clearly illustrates that no preference category was predominant amongst both education and bank male managers with equal proportions of 84% each in relation to whether males or females make better managers. Female managers in education opted for males (66%), whilst females in banking were mostly divided between females (40%) and the no preference category (38%) (Fig.5.34). On average, the response of all managers was predominantly for the no preference category (48.7%) (Fig.5.34). All managers who

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chose males as being better managers forwarded four reasons as is illustrated in Table 5.71. Two main reasons were that males make better managers (25.3%) and that males are empathetic (13.3%) (Table 5.71). The majority of non-managers (80%) also had no preferences (Fig.5.34). Those who did choose males or females as being better managers forwarded some reasons, which appear in Table 5.72. Two of the reasons were forwarded by those in banking, that is, males have more control (16%) and females are thorough (12%). In the education sector 16% of non-managers stated that students respond well to males (Table 5.72).

Fig.5.34: Managers and non-managers opinions on who makes better managers
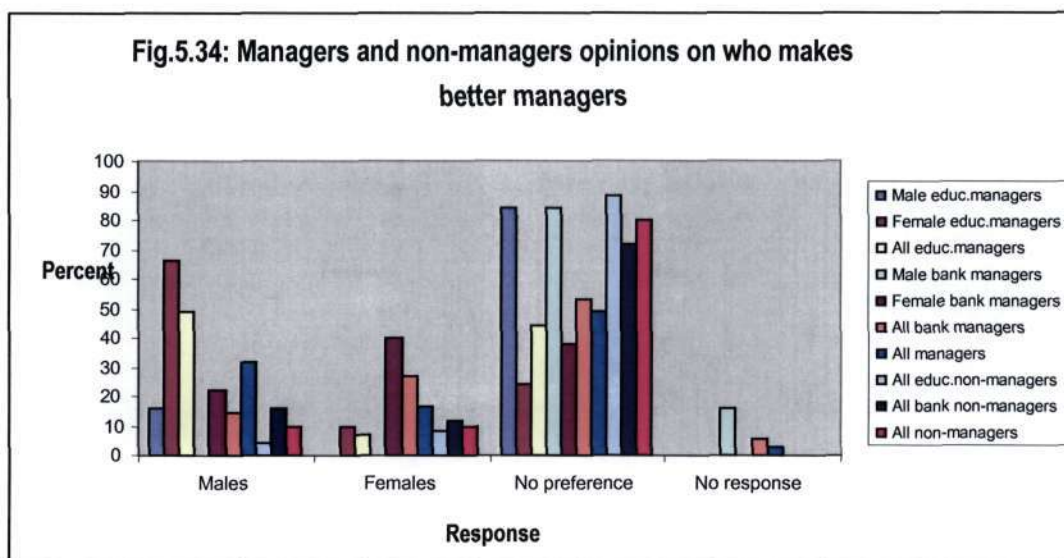
Table 5.71: Managers reasons for choosing males or females (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Males more flexible	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Males make better managers	-	54	36	-	22	14.7	25.3
Males empathetic	-	-	-	-	40	26.7	13.3
Males more efficient	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.4
Not applicable	92	46	61.3	100	16	43.9	52.7

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Table 5.72: Non-managers reasons for choosing males or females (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
Males have more control	-	16	8
Females are thorough	-	12	6
Students respond well to males	16	-	8
Not applicable	84	72	78

During the focus group discussions some of the aspects were elaborated on. Females felt that women managers are better at understanding their aspirations and concerns. They were more flexible. Also, their role as mentors was highlighted as many women stated that women managers made them feel that they have something to strive towards at work. Additionally, the female non-managerial staff hoped that female managers would deal with the empowerment of other females through constant interaction and encouragement. Women managers were viewed as being more approachable and committed to their jobs. One respondent stated that if women managers were properly remunerated then there would be less staff turnover with more productivity. The male respondents indicated that irrespective of gender everyone should be offered equal opportunities. However, there are sentiments expressed that reinforce typical expectations of women in the workforce (especially in leadership positions) which reinforce Chapman and Luthans (1978), Dipboye (1987), Fagenson (1993) and Reskin and Ross' (1995) findings.

A look at some of the responses reveals the traditional expectations held for women in regard to their place or position in the public and private sectors.

The requirements for a manager - toughness and business acumen - do not mix with the cultural roles that we expect of women. Women stand for compassion and tolerance. We look towards women for this.

Male Manager: Education

When women who are in management try to act as if they are more intelligent and better then the men, then they make it difficult for all of us.

Female non-managerial staff: Education

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It's still a fact that most women want a home and a family. A company invests too much resources in a women who then decides to raise a family. This creates problems for the company as well as other staff members.

Male staff: Banking

There are very few women that I know that can handle the stress and strain of the business environment today without it badly affecting their family relationships. Women enjoy working so that taking care of the home and the family is not the only thing they do. However, to rise too high (like becoming a manager) affects women's relationships and they are not then able to do their jobs well.

Female non-managerial staff: Banking

The above statements, and the inherent assumptions and implications, amplify gender role expectations:

- A woman's place is primarily in the home
- Women are emotional and men are not
- Kindness and compassion (women's characteristics) have no place in the business world
- Women personify valuable qualities that are needed to take care of the family while men do the important work
- If some women try to work as hard or are better than men then this hurts all women
- Competition is for men while co-operation is for women
- Aggressiveness, a critical aspect of leadership, is a male quality

5.6.4 Opinions on the difficulties experienced by female managers

Multiple opinions were obtained from managers on the difficulties experienced by female managers as is evident in Table 5.73 and these are proportionately prioritised from the highest to the lowest. Accordingly, the greatest difficulties faced by female managers were time constraints (64.7%), followed by insufficient personal time (42.7%), not respected by males (38.7%), few opportunities for upward mobility (34.7%) and not

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respected by females (28.6%) (Table 5.73). In addition to the issue of time, female managers, it seems, did not command respect from not only male employees but also from females as well.

Non-managers also forwarded responses on the difficulties experienced by female managers (Table 5.74) and these were similar to those of managers (Table 5.73). However, much smaller proportions were received for each category. The most important categories were in the lower 30% and this comprised of time constraints (36%), not respected by male (34%) and females (30%). Even with non-managers, the issue of respect by males and females for the female managers was highlighted as a key difficulty (Table 5.74).

Table 5.73: Managers opinions on the difficulties experienced by female managers (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Time constraints	56	66	62.7	76	62	66.7	64.7
Insufficient personal time	20	34	29.3	-	84	56	42.7
Not respected by male employees	28	24	25.3	-	78	52	38.7
Few opportunities for upward mobility	8	10	9.3	24	78	60	34.7
Not respected by female employees	44	52	49.3	24	-	8	28.6
None	28	76	60	-	-	-	3
Other	-	-	-	12	-	4	2

Table 5.74: Non-managers response to difficulties experienced by female managers (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Time constraints	44	28	36
Insufficient personal time	24	28	26
Not respected by male employees	52	16	34
Not respected by female employees	36	24	30
Few opportunities for upward mobility	40	24	32
None	4	32	18

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From the focus group discussions with the female managers it was clear that many women aspire for both a meaningful career as well as a family. A significant proportion of the participants stated that they wanted to have children as well as be promoted to management positions. The majority of female managers interviewed (65%) had children. In terms of the responses, it is important to state that most of the women interviewed indicated their preference for smaller family size.

5.6.5 Reasons for women obtaining managerial positions

Table 5.75. illustrates that there exists a range of perceptions relating to why women get managerial positions. According to managers in both sectors women generally get management positions because of three reasons:

- they work hard and deserve the job (62.6%);

- they are affirmative action candidates (42%); and

- because they are more sensitive and understanding(37.4%).

Almost equal proportions of males and all females in banking but a minority of females in education chose the first reason. More than half the male and female educationalists but a lesser proportion of both genders in banking suggested that women obtained management positions because of affirmative action. It is also important to note that besides the males in banking, an almost equal proportion of respondents cited the reason that women were more sensitive and understanding (Table 5.75). Also significant is that 21.3% of the mangers in the banking sector (none in the education sector) stated the reason that women flirt/ sexual relations with male decision-makers.

Table 5.75: Managers opinions on why women generally get managerial positions (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Work hard and deserve job	64	22	36	68	100	89.3	62.6
Affirmative action candidates	52	56	54.7	44	22	29.3	42.0
More sensitive and understanding	40	42	41.3	12	44	33.3	37.4
Better at team work	-	12	8	16	66	49.3	28.6
Flirt/ sexual relations with male decision-makers	-	-	-	20	22	21.3	10.7

Table 5.76: Opinions of non-managers on why women generally get managerial positions (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Work hard and deserve job	68	84	76
More sensitive and understanding	52	68	60
Better at teamwork	40	68	54
Affirmative action candidates	40	16	28
Flirt/ sexual relations with male decision makers	4	-	2

In the opinion of non-managers, the first two reasons given by managers were also forwarded with significant proportions, 76% and 60% respectively (Table 5.76). Affirmative action, rated as third by managers was fourth amongst non-managers. Being better at teamwork (54%) was rated third by these respondents but was not even mentioned by managers (Table 5.76).

During the focus group discussions it was clear that none of the women interviewed wanted to be selected for promotion or appointment solely because they are women. On the other hand, the female respondents expressed frustration that often they are not being promoted solely because there are women.

5.6.6 Reasons for women being disproportionately represented in management

Various reasons were forwarded by managers for women being disproportionately represented in management positions as is indicated in Table 5.76. The overall proportions ranged from over 4% to 18%. For educators, three reasons with significant proportions were: positions were male dominated (22.6%), females not given opportunity in the past (18.7%) and females were considered the weaker gender (17.3%). Amongst bank managers, lack of policies for gender equity (20%), affirmative action (14.7%) and positions being male dominated (13.3%) received the most number of responses (Table 5.77).

As with the managers, non-managers suggested numerous reasons for disproportionate representation of women. Most of the reasons had minor proportions except for the following: women less dictatorial (14%), not given an opportunity in the past (18%) and positions are male dominated (10%) (Table 5.78).

Table 5.77: Managers reasons for women being disproportionately represented in management (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Positions male dominated	24	22	22.6	-	20	13.3	18.0
Not given opportunity in past	36	10	18.7	12	-	4	11.3
No policies for gender equity	8	-	2.7	-	30	20	11.3
Considered weaker gender	8	22	17.3	-	-	-	8.7
Affirmative action	-	-	-	12	16	14.7	7.3
Gender bias still practiced	-	-	-	12	12	12	6.0
Depends on Governing body perceptions	8	12	10.6	-	-	-	5.3
Hard to deal with stress/ pressure	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Historical	-	-	-	28	-	9.3	4.7
Entered corporate world later than men	-	-	-	20	4	9.3	4.7
No comment	8	24	18.7	16	18	17.3	18

Table 5.78: Non-managers reasons for women being disproportionately represented in management (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-managers N=50
Women less dictatorial	-	28	14
Sensitive and emotional	-	16	8
Not given opportunity in past	20	16	18
Gender bias still practiced	-	12	6
Females will not feel comfortable alone	-	16	8
Level of competence	4	-	2
Happy with positions	8	-	4
Positions male dominated	20	-	10
Gender bias still practiced	12	-	6
Family commitments	4	-	2
Weaker gender	4	-	2
No comment	28	12	20

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The responses above were generally supported during the focus group discussions. Participants stated that women are disproportionately represented in managerial positions because of past discriminatory practices based on perceptions about females as well as linked to apartheid legislation, especially in the case of the appointment of non-White managers. The former perceptions relate to women being viewed as emotional and that they cannot make decisions. Additionally, some respondents felt that women break their service to have children and this jeopardises their upward mobility. Also, lack of exposure and job reservation for males were also identified as reasons.

5.6.7 Ways in which women can best succeed in management and sacrifices made

Managers identified the following most important ways in which women can best succeed in management positions (Fig.5.35):

- work hard (20% among education managers and 56% among bank managers)
- be positive (22.6% among education managers)
- obtain training and better qualifications (24% among bank managers)
- be more assertive (17.3% among education managers

Differences among the sectors and the genders are discernible.

Three distinct sacrifices were made by managers to achieve the position that they occupied (Table 5.78). These included studying (28.7%), working hard (27.3%) and being dedicated to work (24%). For education managers studying received the highest proportion (42.7%), mostly amongst females, whilst dedication to work was highly rated by bank managers (45.3%), especially with females. Males in both sectors seemed to focus on hard work, 44% in the education sector and 76% in the banking sector (Table 5.79).

Fig.5.35: Managers opinions on ways in which women can best succeed in management positions
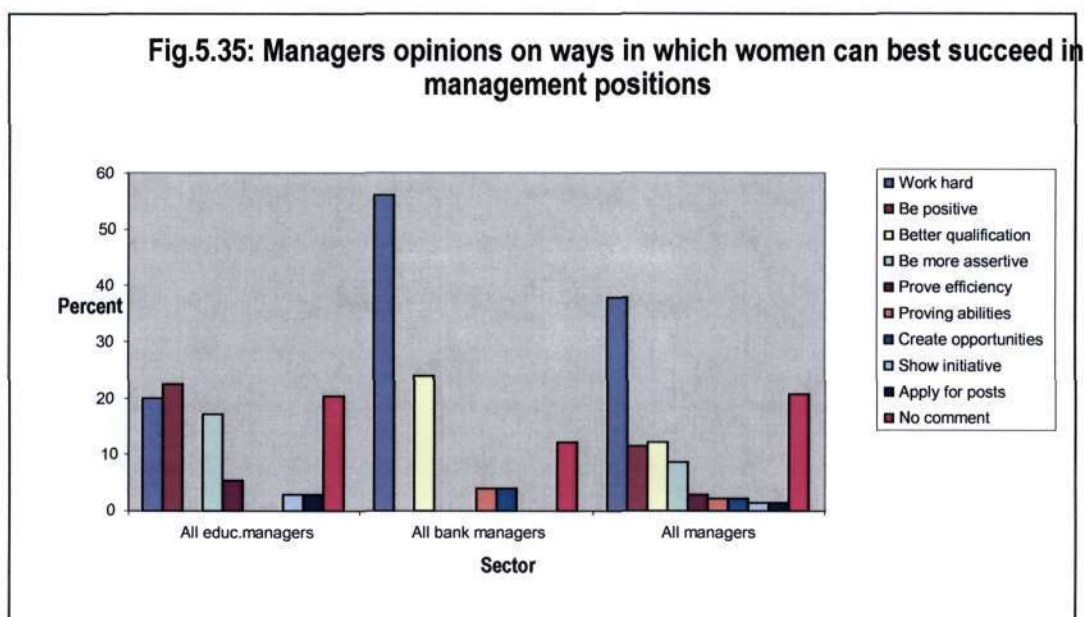
Table 5.79: Managers response to sacrifices made to become a manager (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Studied	20	54	42.7	-	22	14.7	28.7
Worked hard	44	22	29.3	76	-	25.3	27.3
Dedicated to work	8	-	2.7	24	56	45.3	24
Exploited personal strength	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
No comment	16	24	21.3	-	22	14.7	18

5.6.8 Relationship between age, sex and the obtaining of management positions

The age at which respondents became managers ranged from 20 years to 60 years. Over 70% of managers in the banking sector took their present position from 20 years to 40 years and this range increased by 10 years in education. There were also a small proportion of females in the banking sector taking up their positions between 51 to 60 years (Fig.5.36). In education females were almost equally distributed in the first three cohort groups whilst males were concentrated from the ages of 31 years to 50 years (92%) (Fig.5.36). The results show that women tended on average to take longer than men to become managers. The longer time taken for females to become managers is indicative of the gender discriminatory practices in management.

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Fig. 5.36: Age at which respondent became manager
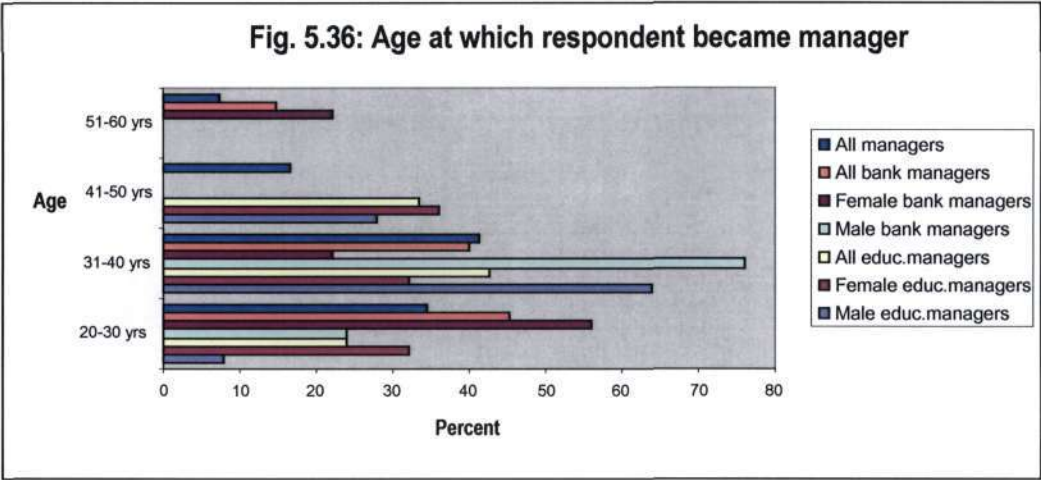
5.6.9 Strategies used to become a manager

The majority of managers (70.7%) in both sectors used several strategies to obtain their present positions and the proportions were higher in the banking sector than in the education sector, more especially amongst females (Fig.5.37).

Fig.5.37: Use of strategies to pursue ambition of becoming a manager
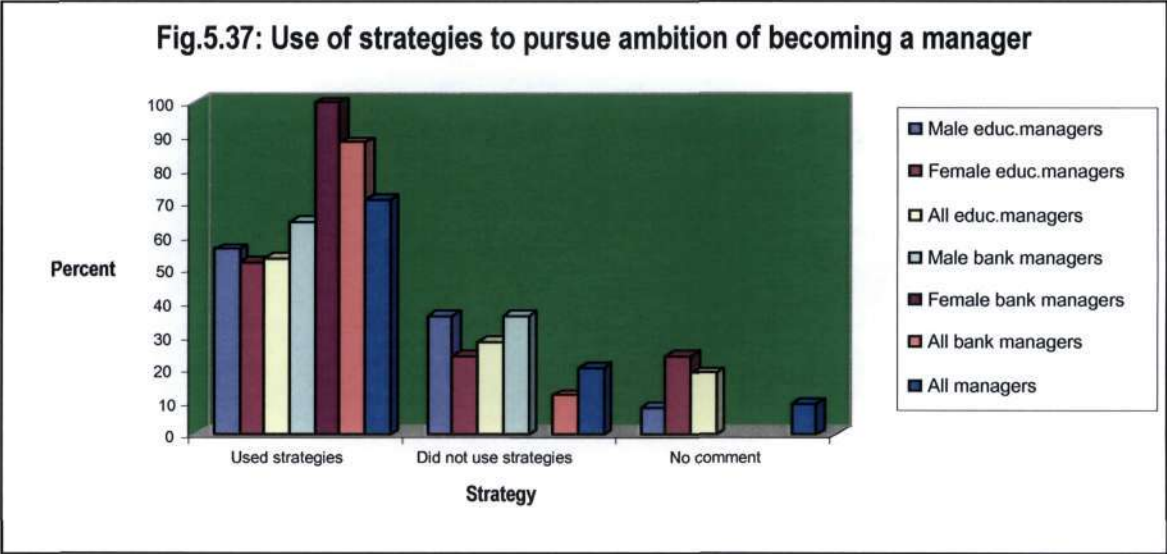
Two key strategies used by managers stand out (Table 5.80). These were studying (27.3%) and working hard (17.3%). Other strategies used included producing targets, setting goals, gaining expert knowledge, being a leader, gaining experience, taking up an acting position and being involved in activities (Table 5.80).

Table 5.80: Type of strategies used to pursue ambition of becoming a manager (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Studied	20	32	28	-	60	40	27.3
Worked hard	8	22	17.3	52	-	17.3	17.3
Produced more than targets	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
Set goals	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Gained expert knowledge on subject	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Be a leader	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Gained experience	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Took up acting position	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Involved in activities	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
No comment	36	36	36	36	-	12	24

The strategies that women managers use to become a manager were also examined during the focus group discussions, especially with the female managers focus group. The participants identified many sacrifices and strategies that they engaged in to become a manager. These included reducing personal time at home. Social and personal life had to take second place. Many of the participants felt that they had to work harder than their male counterparts. Some female managers indicated that they deliberately made themselves known to management and attended training courses whenever possible. Additionally, they invested time and money in furthering their studies. Also, one women manager stated that they endured (and continue to endure) personal humiliation as a manager citing being called a bitch and labelled as being aggressive. The men on the other hand did not make any sacrifices except for one African manager who stated that they he to prove themselves many times over and had to work harder. He worked longer hours thereby sacrificing his family and personal time. Also, there was an investment in pursuing studies.

5.7 MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

5.7.1 Impact of female managers on employees, family and friends

An important aspect that was investigated was the opinion of respondents on such issues such as their impact on other employees, family and friends, gender discrimination, attendance of training programmes/ workshops to empower women and focus of training programmes. When female managers were questioned on their impact on other employees, being role models (28%) and providing opportunities (22%) were cited by respondents in the banking sector. Female managers in the education sector only stated that they had a more compassionate impact on others (Table 5.81).

Regarding female managers impact on their family and friends, it is evident that respondents in banks were also role models (34%) and decision makers (22%) and provided encouragement (22%). Female education managers only provided a challenge to male family and friends (Fig. 5. 38).

Female managers who participated in the focus group discussions indicated that they saw their roles as being mentors and role models to female staff generally. This role was also extended to their family and society. This was particularly strongly felt in the education focus group. One participant stated that her having made it would give hope to other females, especially the youth.

During discussions with the non-managerial focus groups, two of the female non-managerial participants stated that female managers were more reluctant to help them than male managers. They felt that female managers tend to demand more from their subordinates. On the other hand, the rest of the non-managerial female staff participating stated that female managers were more willing to listen and support them. Additionally, they indicated that female managers tended to be less critical than male managers. Also, female managers were sympathetic to personal, home-related problems that female staff experience from time to time. An example repeated by many participants was related to female managers being understanding when children are sick.

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Table 5.81: Opinions of female managers on their impact on other employees (in %)

Response	Female Education Managers	Female Bank Managers	Total
	N=50	N=50	(N=100)
Role model	-	56	28
More opportunities for lower level staff to progress	-	22	11
More compassionate	32	-	16
None	24	-	12
Not applicable	44	22	33

Fig. 5.38: Opinions of female managers on their impact on family and friends
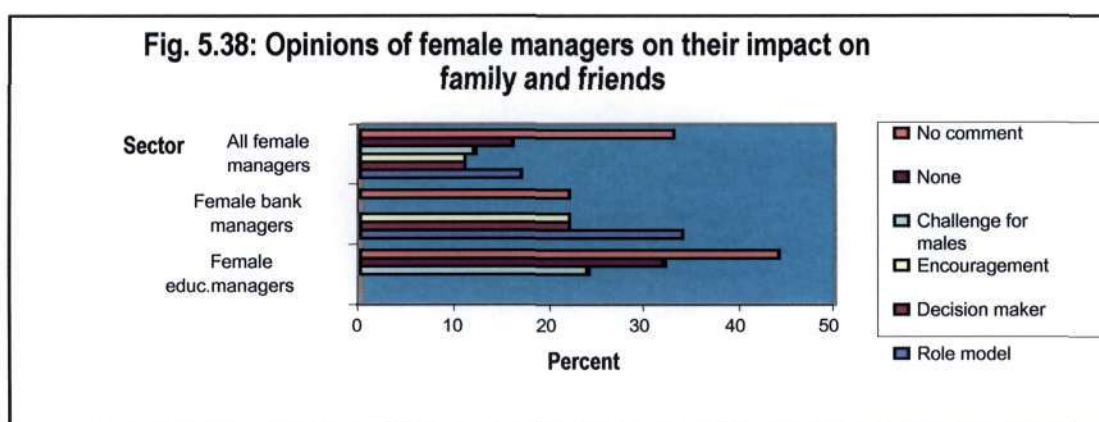
5.7.2 Opinions on the affect of gender discrimination on managers

Table 5.82: Opinions of female managers on the affect of gender discrimination on themselves (in %)

Response	Female Education Managers	Female Bank Managers	Total
	N=50	N=50	(N=100)
Males have concerns reporting to females	-	18	9
Condescending tone at meetings	-	16	8
No promotion for many years	-	22	11
Not taken as seriously as male counterpart	12	-	6
No effect	20	-	10
No comment	68	44	56

Sixty-eight percent of female education managers and 44% of female bank managers did not respond to the question of gender discrimination on themselves. Female bank managers reported that males have concerns reporting to them (18%) and use

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condescending tones at meetings (16%). Moreover, because of gender discrimination they were not promoted for many years (22%). Twenty percent of female education managers stated that gender discrimination had no effect on them whilst others (12%) were of the opinion that they were not taken as seriously as males (20%) (Table 5.82).

Table 5.83: Managers response on the affect of policies and programmes aimed at gender discrimination on themselves (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Not at all	12	44	33.3	36	-	12	22.7
Not taken as seriously as male counterpart	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
More compassionate-took years to be promoted	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
Forced to include short listing	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
White females given top positions	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.3
White males still get all opportunities	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
No response	80	32	48	44	78	66.7	57.3

Eighty percent of male education managers and 78% of female bank managers did not respond to the question on the affects of policies and programmes aimed at gender discrimination on them (Table 5.83). However, female education managers (44%) and male bank managers (36%) stated that such policies and programmes did not affect them (Table 5.83). A few respondents identified the following:

- White males still get all the opportunities (7.3%)
- Not taken as seriously as male counterpart (4%)
- More compassionate – took years to be promoted (4%)
- White females given top positions (3.3%)
- Forced to include in short-listing (1.3%)

5.7.3 Views on the attendance of training programmes and content of programmes to empower women

Seventy-two percent of education managers comprising mostly of females (100%) attended programmes/ workshops to empower women managers. Male education managers (84%) did not attend training programmes. The situation in the education sector

was directly opposite to that in the banking sector where over 90% of males and female respondents did not attend workshops/ programmes (Fig.5.39) and they were therefore unable to comment on the focus of the workshops/ programmes (Table 5.84). The aspects that were focused on in the programmes/ workshops for education managers were on management training (21.3%), women in management issues (20%), gender policies and programmes (5.3%), conflict resolution and mediation (13.3%), supervision/ leadership (13.3%), recruitment and training aspects (13.3%) and other gender issues (38.7%) (Table 5.84).

Fig.5.39: Managers response to attendance of training programmes/ workshops to empower women managers
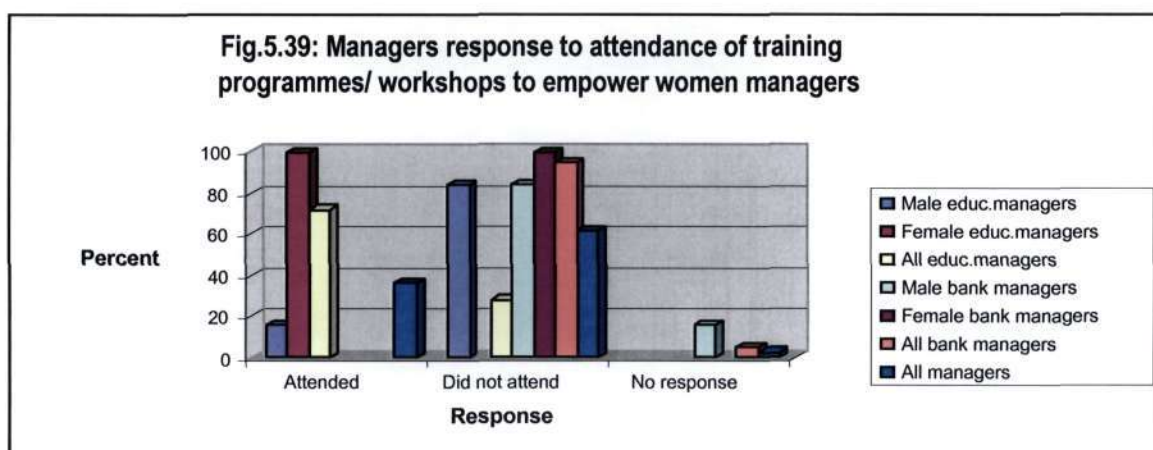
Table 5.84: Education managers response to focus of training programmes/ workshops to empower women managers (in %)

Response	Education Managers		
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)
Management training	16	24	21.3
Women in management issues	16	22	20
Gender policies and programmes	16	-	5.3
Conflict resolution and mediation	16	12	13.3
Supervision/ leadership	16	12	13.3
Recruitment and training aspects	16	12	13.3
Other gender issues	8	54	38.7

The majority of non-managers (72%) did not attend training programmes/ workshops to empower women (Fig. 5.40). This situation was higher amongst bankers (88%) than educationalists (56%) (Fig.5.40). However, a minority of respondents knew the focus areas of the workshops were to empower women. Three focus areas had commonality

with the responses of managers and these were: management training, conflict resolution and mediation, supervision/ leadership training. Other focus areas cited by non-managers, especially from the education sector, were gender policies and programmes as well as recruitment and promotion (Table 5.85).

Fig.5.40: Non-managers attendance of training programmes/ workshops to empower women
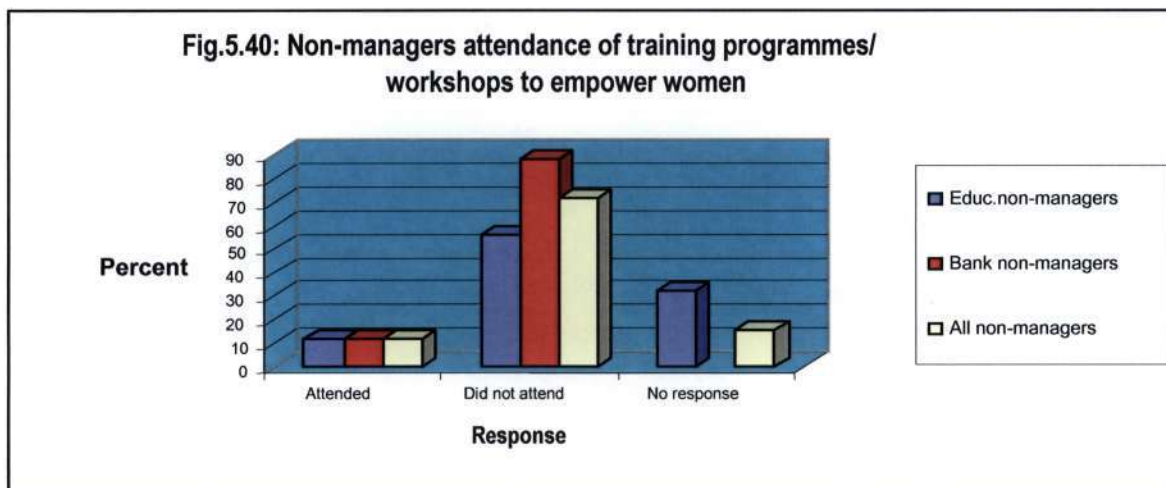
Table 5.85: Non-managers response to the focus of training programmes/ workshops to empower women (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Management training	12	12	12
Conflict resolution and mediation	8	12	10
Supervision/ leadership	4	12	8
Gender policies and programmes	8	-	4
Recruitment and promotion	4	-	2
Other	4	-	2
Not applicable	60	65.4	64

5.7.4 Opinion of managers and non-managers on the sufficiency of opportunities to develop and empower women managers

Over sixty percent of all managers stated that there were sufficient opportunities in their sectors to develop and empower women managers. A high proportion of responses were received from both genders in the education sector and only males in the banking sector. Females in the banking sector (56%) stated that these opportunities did not exist (Fig. 5.41). The overall proportion of responses amongst non-managers on this issue was almost similar to that of managers (63.3%) but the data varied on closer inspection of

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individual sectors. Amongst education non-managers, the proportion of positive, negative responses and no comment responses were in the 30% range as compared to a significantly high proportion (84%) amongst the banking non-managers (Fig.5.41).

Fig. 5.41: Managers and non-managers opinions on whether there are sufficient opportunities to empower women and develop women managers
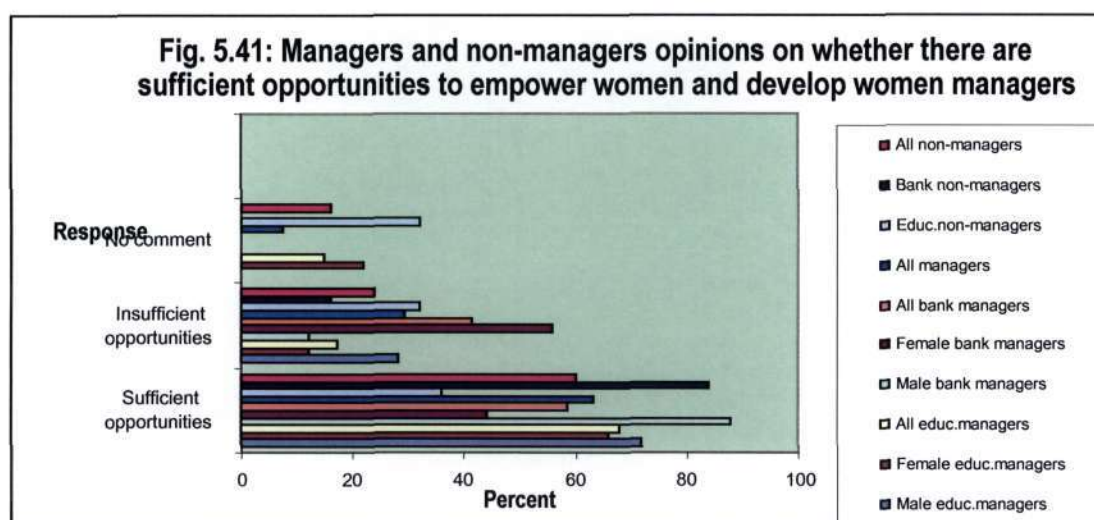
5.7.5 Comfort in implementing gender discrimination policies/ programmes and training

All male managers in both sectors and females in the banking sector were comfortable in implementing policies/ programmes that were aimed at eliminating gender discrimination. The majority of females in the education sector (54%) stated that they had discomfort when it came to implementing programmes to eliminate gender discrimination (Table 5.86).

Table 5.86: Managers comfort in implementing policies/ programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Comfortable	100	46	64	100	100	100	82
Uncomfortable	-	54	36	-	-	-	18

According to Fig. 5.42, it is clear that the majority of managers in the banking sector does/ did not receive training regarding discrimination in the workplace (81.3%). Except for males (92%) in the education sector who received training, most of the females (56%)

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were in a similar situation to respondents in the banking sector. The overall data for all managers in both sectors indicates that 60% of managers did not/ do not receive training regarding discrimination in the workplace (Fig.5.42).

Fig.5.42: Training of managers regarding discrimination in workplace
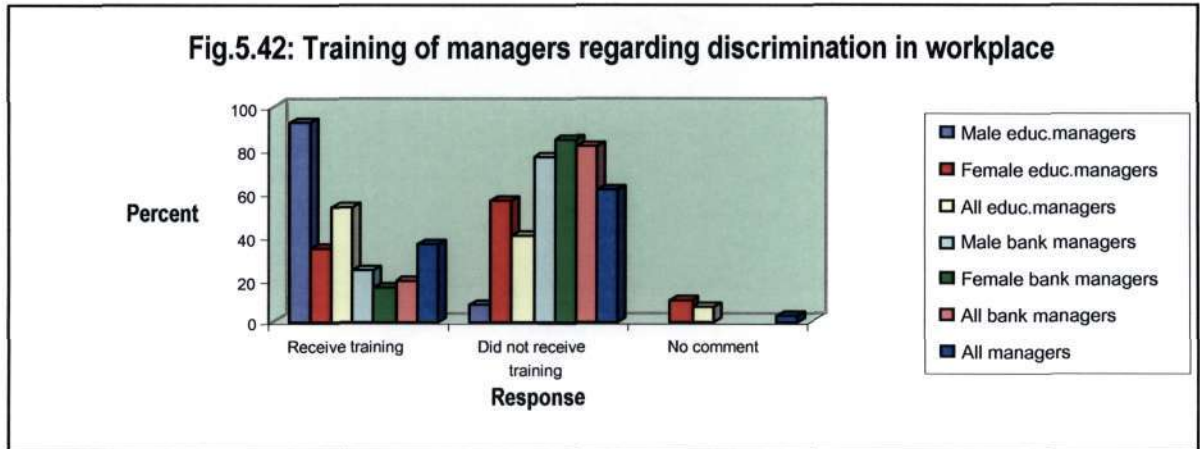
5.7.6 Adequacy of managers and non-managers to handle sexual harassment

Only the male education managers (84%) seemed to be able to handle sexual harassment in the workplace. Female education managers (78%) and both males (78%) and females (85.3%) stated that they were inadequately equipped to handle sexual harassment (Fig. 5.43). However, non-managers in banking (84%) stated that they had adequacy to handle sexual harassment in the workplace (Fig.5.43).

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Fig.5.43: Adequacy of managers and non-managers to handle sexual harassment
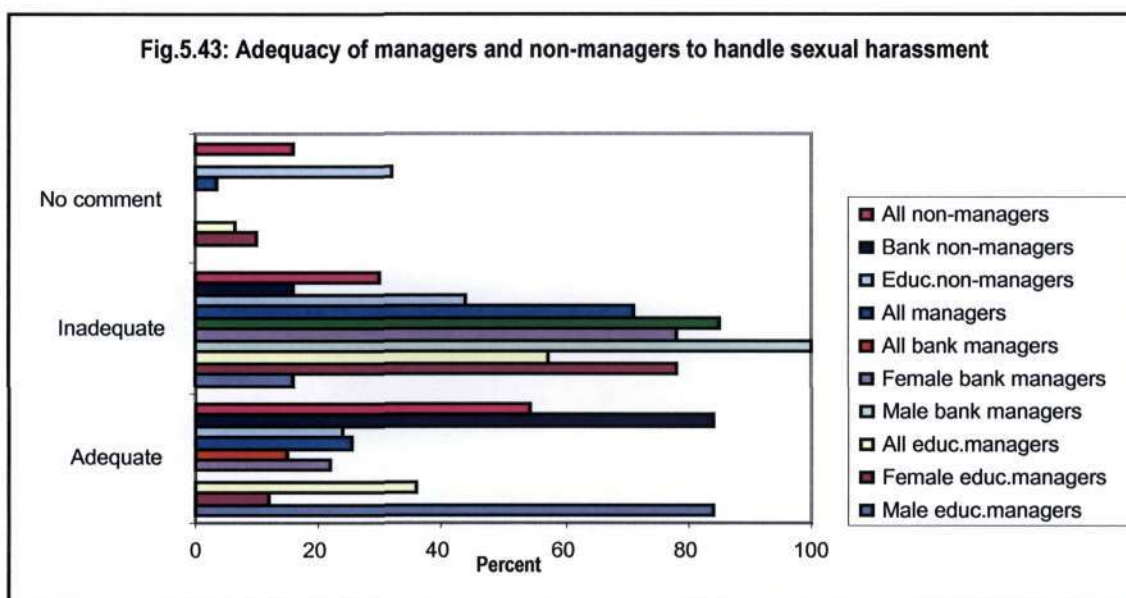
Despite the perceptions expressed above, it is important to underscore that during all group discussions, not a single manager had actually handled a sexual harassment or gender discrimination case in the past. Additionally, none of the respondents were clear about what they themselves should do if they were sexually harassed or discriminated against. A few participants stated that they would approach the unions.

Table 5.87: Managers handling of sexual harassment/ gender discrimination cases (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Handled cases	28	76	60	-	-	-	30
Did not handle cases	72	24	40	100	100	100	70

None of the bank managers and 72% of the male education managers handled sexual harassment/ discrimination cases. However, a majority (76%) of female educational managers handled such cases (Table 5.87) and only 34% were satisfied with the case outcomes (Table 5.88). Overall, 70% of managers in both sectors did not handle cases (Table 5.87).

Table 5.88: Managers satisfaction with the outcome of cases (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Yes	28	34	32	-	-	-	16
No	-	44	29.3	-	22	14.7	22
Not applicable	72	22	38.7	100	78	85.3	62

5.7.7 Female managers familiarity with and knowledge of steps to be taken when sexually harassed

Fig. 5.44: Female managers familiarity on what to do when sexually harassed or discriminated against
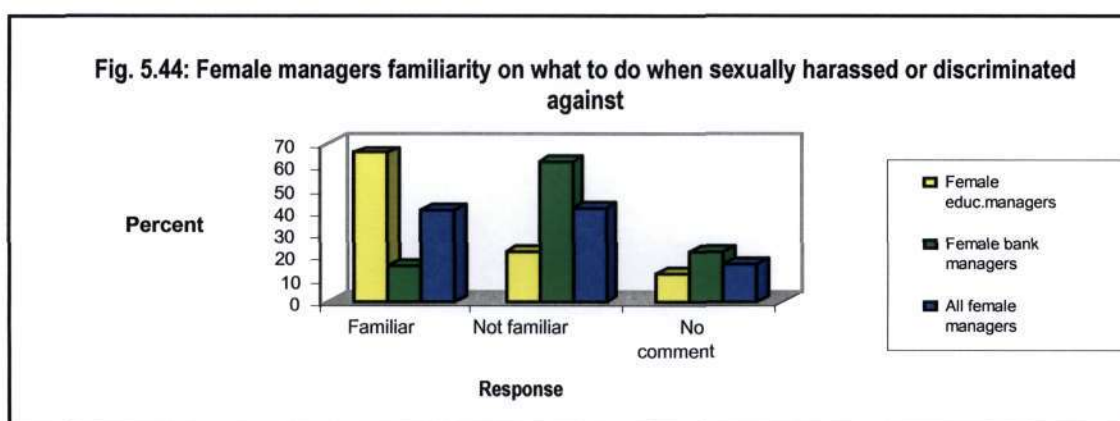
The majority of female education managers (66%) were familiar with what to do when they are sexually harassed or discriminated against. Female bank managers indicated that they did not know what to do in such a situation. When considering responses from both sectors, it was evident that almost equal proportions (40%) were familiar and not familiar with the actions to be taken when confronted with sexual harassment or discrimination in the workplace (Fig.5.44). Those female education managers who were familiar with actions to be taken mentioned two steps that they followed and these were: to approach union officials (22%) and to resolve the matter with the individual concerned (22%) (Table 5.89). Additionally, the majority of bank non-managers (84%) and a minority of education non-managers (4%) stated that the female managers should notify management of sexual harassment or discrimination against them (Table 5.90). Thus, none of the respondents were aware of institutional sexual harassment procedures that they could follow.

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Table 5.89: Female managers knowledge of steps to be taken when sexually harassed or discriminated against (in %)

Response	Education Managers N=50	Bank Managers N=50	Total (N=100)
Approach union officials	22	-	11
Resolve matter with individual	22	-	11
No comment	56	100	78

Table 5.90: Non-managers response to familiarity of female managers on what to do when they are sexually harassed or discriminated against (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
Notify management	4	84	44
Report culprit to union	12	-	6
No comment	84	16	50

During the focus group discussions a few of the respondents shared experiences of discrimination they had encountered. The majority of female participants (both among managers and non-managers) felt that they suffered from wage discrimination. This group also strongly felt that they were discriminated against when it came to opportunities for training and promotion. Some respondents indicated that they experienced differential treatment when it came to fringe benefits such as home loans, medical aid and company cars. Some women also felt that they were differentially targeted for retrenchment.

5.8 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED AS A MANAGER

The managers outlined numerous problems as indicated in Table 5.91 that they experienced. The most important of these in the two sectors that were investigated were:

- Professional jealousy (21.3%)
- Workloads (10%)
- Males and females don't take instructions (8%)
- Dirty jokes/ comments (6%)
- Favouritism (5.3%)

A significant proportion (39.3%) did not respond, especially amongst managers in the education sector (54.7%) (Table 5.91).

Table 5.91: Problems experienced as a manager

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Denial from offender and proving guilt	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Not meeting due dates	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
With females in department – no problems	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Professional jealousy from women	-	34	22.7	-	30	20	21.3
Males and females don't take instructions	-	22	14.7	-	2	1.3	8
Favouritism	-	-	-	20	2	8	5.3
Workload	-	-	-	28	16	20	10
Understanding various cultures	-	-	-	12	6	8	4
Dirty jokes/ comments	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Incompetence	-	-	-	12	4	6.7	3.3
None	-	-	-	-	22	-	-
No response	76	44	54.7	28	22	24	39.3

During the focus group discussion one of the male managers admitted that he found it difficult to evaluate the technical and professional competence of women. He also admitted uneasiness in evaluating females. He raised a concern that if the woman is sexy, attractive or appealing, how can he be sure that he's evaluating her professional and intellectual capabilities rather than being swayed by her physical appearance? Another male participant stated that on what basis can he choose a woman over a man with sufficient certainty that he is willing to withstand expected pressures from other men? Most managers are accustomed to thinking about who is the "best man for the job" rather than who is the best person for the job.

During the focus group discussions, some of the women managers stated that they felt excluded and marginalised by other male managers. This was most acutely felt when the women manager was one among many male managers. The response from one male manager during the discussion indicates that exclusionary consequences can flow from good motives as well as bad. The male manager interviewed indicated that he thought he was helping his female colleague by being sensitive to her family responsibilities and not asking her to do extra work. However, the "extra work" might be just what the female

manager needs to improve her skills and perhaps get a promotion. Thus, the paternalism expressed by her male counterpart may deprive her of the right to decide independently and thereby to learn.

5.9 DIFFERENCES IN MANAGEMENT STYLES AND TYPES OF DIFFERENCES AMONGST MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

According to most male managers in both sectors, 52% and 72% in education and banking respectively, there are no difference in management styles amongst male and female managers (Fig. 5.45). This view was, however, opposite to most female managers in the sectors, 44% in education and 56% in banking, who stated that there were differences. In total, 42.7% indicated that there were differences (Fig. 5.45).

Fig.5.45: Difference in management styles amongst male and female managers
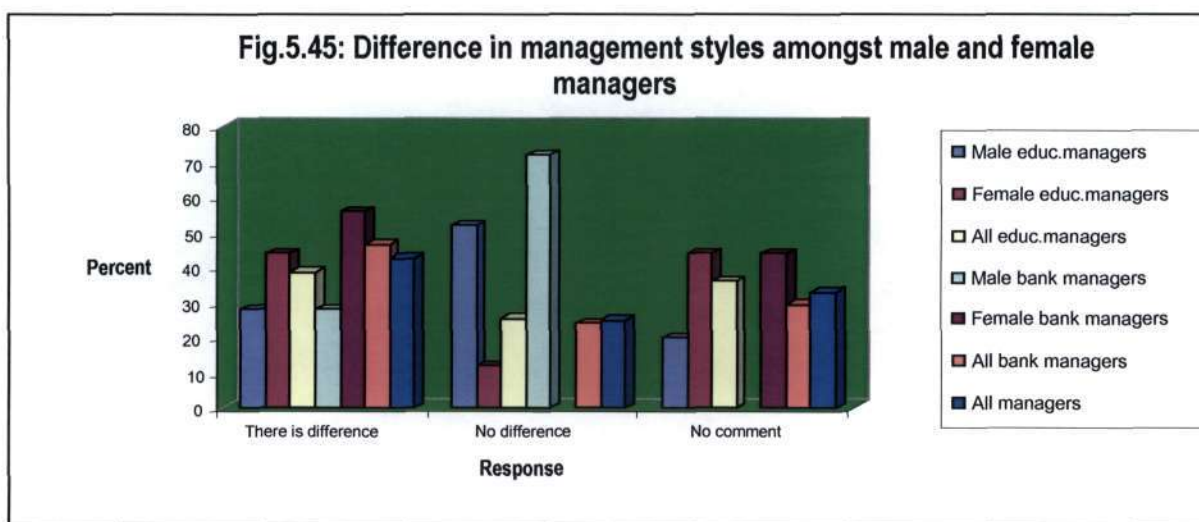
Respondents outlined nine differences and those with significant proportions included the following (Table 5.92):

- Women use consultation (12%)
- Females are more sensitive (8.7%)
- Females are more efficient (7.6%)
- Females treat staff maturely (7.3%)
- Females are much better (6%)

Table 5.92: Managers response to the types of differences in management styles amongst males and females (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Men use participative techniques	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Females are more sensitive	8	22	17.3	-	-	-	8.7
Males are more vigorous	8	32	24	-	-	-	12
Women use consultation	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
Different personalities	-	-	-	16	-	5.3	2.7
Females are less aggressive	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Females are much better	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Females treat staff maturely	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
Females are more efficient	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.6
Not applicable	72	34	46.7	72	-	49.3	48

5.10. GENERAL

5.10.1 Managers' and non-managers' opinions on the characteristics of a good manager

Characteristics outlined by managers are illustrated in Table 5.93 and those which stand out are the following:

- Listens to subordinates and allows participation (10%)
- Impartial/ democratic (19.3%)
- Honesty (18%)

Non-managers also forwarded numerous characteristics and those which were favoured by a significant proportion of respondents included (Table 5.94):

- Being able to communicate and work with others (24%)
- Assertive (14%)
- Honesty (14%)
- Skills/ people knowledge (10%)
- Listen to subordinates and get them to participate (10%)
- Patience/ empathy (10%)

Listening to subordinates, allowing them to participate and honesty seems to be common characteristics forwarded by both managers and non-managers.

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Table 5.93: Managers opinions on the characteristics of a good manager (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Respect	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.4
Assertive	12	10	10.6	-	-	-	5.3
Listens to subordinates and allows participation	12	-	4	16	16	16	10
Impartial/ democratic	24	36	32	20	-	6.6	19.3
Qualified and responsible	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.4
Lead by example	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Developing a 6th sense	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Honesty	8	22	17.4	12	22	18.7	18
Good people skills	8	-	2.7	24	-	8	5.3
Open door policy	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Being able to do the job	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
Delegating without being authoritative	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Not applicable	-	22	14.7	16	22	20	17.3

Table 5.94: Non-managers opinions on the characteristics of a good manager (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Skills/ people knowledge	8	12	10
Assertive	12	16	14
Listen to subordinates and get them to participate	8	12	10
Honesty	12	16	14
Being able to communicate and work with others	16	32	24
Respect	-	12	6
Patience/ empathy	20	-	10
Multicultural management	12	-	6
Being impartial/ democratic	12	-	6

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5.10.2 Opinions on the characteristics of a bad manager

Table 5.95: Managers opinions on the characteristics of a bad manager (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Poor performance	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Authoritarianism	8	64	45.3	-	-	-	22.7
Fraternising	12	12	12	-	-	-	6
Autocratic leader	28	-	9.3	12	-	4	6.7
Irresponsible	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Disrespectful	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Being dictatorial	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Being contradictory	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Cannot communicate	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Being biased	-	-	-	36	-	12	6
Poor leadership skills	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Aggressive	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Favouritism	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Bad attitude	-	-	-	-	16	10.7	5.3
No transparency	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
No response	-	24	16	16	62	46.7	31.3

Numerous responses were obtained from managers on bad characteristics of a manager. There was not much commonality amongst managers in the two sectors. The common response in the two sectors focused on managers being autocratic leaders (6.7%) (Table 5.95). Authoritarianism as a bad characteristic of managers (45.3%) was a predominant response from education managers, mostly amongst females (64%). Managers being biased (12%), having a bad attitude (10.7%) and those with no transparency (14.7%) were the main responses from the banking sector (Table 5.95). Additionally, a large proportion of managers from the banking sector (46.7%), more females than males (16% as compared to 62%) did not respond. There was more commonality amongst non-managers on the characteristics of a bad manager (Table 5.96). The characteristics of a bad manager that received a reasonable proportion of responses included the following:

- Selfishness (24%)
- Cannot make decisions (14%)
- Poor leadership skills (12%)
- Does not accept responsibility (10%)

Being biased/ taking sides (12%) and being dictatorial (16%) were also considered important by education non-managers (Table 5.96).

Table 5.96: Non-managers opinions on the characteristics of a bad manager (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Cannot communicate	4	12	8
Poor leadership skills	8	16	12
Selfishness	4	44	24
Does not accept responsibility	4	16	10
Aggressive	-	12	6
Bad attitude	4	-	2
Favouritism	4	-	2
Poor qualification	4	-	2
Abuse of power	4	-	2
Dictatorial	16	-	2
Automatic leaders	8	-	4
Taking sides/ biased	12	-	6
Cannot make decisions	28	-	14

5.10.3 Person best suited to develop and implement policies aimed at eliminating gender discrimination

Due to the differing management structures in the two sectors, the two top structures cited by education managers (principals and deputy principals) are not present in the banking sector. According to education managers, these persons are best suited to implement policies aimed at eliminating gender discrimination receiving proportions of 46.7% and 41.3% respectively. Amongst the bank managers, upper management and human resources with 45.3% responses each should implement policies. The gender equity officer (26.7%) and gender equity task team (32%) were common to both sectors in terms of policy implementation (Table 5.97).

The categories of responses received were similar amongst non-managers (Table 5.98). Five main categories were the following:

- Human resources (38%)
- Gender equity task team/ commission (22%)
- Gender equity officer (20%)

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- Upper management (14%)

Table 5.97: Managers opinions on who is best suited to develop and implement policies aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in the institution (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Principal/ deputy	92	24	46.7	-	-	-	23.3
Head of dept.	56	34	41.3	-	-	-	20.7
Gender equity officer	64	24	37.3	48	-	16	26.7
Gender equity task team/ commission	-	78	5.2	36	-	12	32
Officials from education department	28	-	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Upper management	-	-	-	68	34	45.3	22.7
Human resources	-	-	-	56	40	45.3	22.7
Middle management	-	-	-	40	56	50.7	38.7

Table 5.98: Non-managers opinions on who is best suited to develop and implement policies aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in institution (in %)

Response	Education Non-Managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Principal/ deputy principal	24	-	12
Head of dept.	12	-	6
Gender equity officer	28	12	20
Gender equity task team/ commission	20	24	22
Officials from education department	16	-	8
Upper management	-	28	14
Human resources	-	76	38

5.10.4 Aspects which are most important in the job situation

Respondents in both management sectors forwarded a long list of aspects which they considered to be most important in the job situation and in most cases this was sector specific (Table 5.99). Areas that were shared by educators and bankers that had a meaningful proportion of responses were: rapport with staff (26%), teaching (18%), developing skills/ empowering (11.3%) and being treated as an individual (8%). In the education sector, also vital was working with children (24%), team approach (24%), helping disadvantaged pupils (20%), getting underachievers to succeed (14.7%),

rewarding (13.3%), fellow staff (10.7%), listening skills (10.7%) and contributing to society (10.7%). On the other hand, bankers considered the following aspects to be important in their job situation: satisfying client needs (33.3%), experience (18.7%), management style (14.7%) and closing a sale (10.7%) (Table 5.99).

Table 5.99: Managers identification of aspects which are most important in a job (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Working with children	24	24	24	-	-	-	27
Working with public	-	-	-	72	38	49.3	24.7
Colleagues	24	30	28	12	-	4	16
Performance of pupils	8	2	4	-	-	-	2
Challenging	20	26	24	12	-	4	14
Producing high quality results	8	10	9.3	-	-	-	4.7
Freedom	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Rewarding	12	14	13.3	-	-	-	6.7
Open door policy	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Position as principal	12	4	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
Model to pupils	16	-	5.3	-	-	-	2.7
Getting underachievers to succeed	8	18	14.7	-	-	-	7.3
Sense of achievement	8	20	16	-	-	-	8
Fellow staff	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Teaching	16	28	24	-	18	12	18
Rapport with staff	12	32	25.3	-	40	26.7	26
Listening skills	12	10	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Team approach	12	30	24	-	-	-	24.7
Helping disadvantaged pupils	8	22	20	-	-	-	10
Developing skills/empowering	8	6	6.7	12	18	16	11.3
Being treated as an individual	-	2	1.3	-	22	14.7	8
Contributing to society	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
Freedom of speech	-	-	-	-	16	10.7	5.3
Extra curricular activities	8	6	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
Coaching	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Experience	-	-	-	12	22	18.7	9.3
Analysing data	-	-	-	24	-	8	4
Closing a sale	-	-	-	32	-	10.7	5.3
People interaction	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Management style	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
Satisfying client needs	-	-	-	36	32	33.3	16.7

For non-managers in both sectors, things that were considered important were: experience (28%), fun/ socialising/ functions (16%), colleagues (18%) and learning new skills/ learning areas (22%). Bank non-managers also cited the following aspects which

to them were important: training (32%), working with the public (36%), and challenging (16%). In the education sector, the non-managers mentioned rapport with staff (36%), company of children (48%) and their position to shape attitudes/ values (32%) as being important (Table 5.100).

Table 5.100: Non-managers identification of aspects that are most important in job, in order of importance (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Training	-	32	16
Challenging	-	16	8
Working with the public	-	36	18
Experience	24	32	28
Fun/ socialising/ functions	16	16	16
Empowering staff	-	12	6
Colleagues	4	32	18
Learning new skills/ learning areas	32	12	22
Rapport with staff	36	-	18
Well taught lesson	4	-	2
Company of children	48	-	24
Position to shape attitudes/ values	32	-	16
Short hours	8	-	4
Performance of children	12	-	6
Holidays	8	-	4
Pace	8	-	4
Knowledge of making a difference	4	-	2

The sources of satisfaction identified by women managers during the interviews and reinforced during the focus group discussions were many and varied. The highest responses were that they felt independent, enjoyed the financial benefits and perks, liked the pleasant work environment in the banking sector and felt a greater sense of job security. Additionally, a sense of personal growth and achievement was highlighted. Some of the managers also stated that they enjoyed that status and recognition their jobs accord. Some women stated that being a manager helped build confidence in other aspects of their lives outside the work sphere.

5.10.5 Aspects which are least important

Only two aspects were cited as being least important amongst managers of both sectors and these were: salary (10.7%) and the long hours (10%). Although the educationalists forwarded numerous areas as being least important, fundraising (22.7%) and no assistance from the DOE (22.7%) stand out (Table 5.101). The main least important aspects for the bank managers was the boys club (12%), paperwork (32%), red tape/ bureaucracy (24%), bickering/ gossip (17.3%) and inflexibility (10.7%) (Table 5.101).

There were only three areas of least importance that were common to non-managers of both sectors and these were: salary (14%), colleagues with an attitude problem (10%) and working on Saturdays/ long hours (10%) (Table 5.102). Paperwork (36%), lack of discipline (32%) and lack of assistance from the DOE (28%) were given priority by non-managers from the education sector. Four aspect of least importance, having equal proportions of 12% each, amongst bank non-managers were: working with coins, disciplinary action, no encouragement and statistics (Table 5.102).

Table 5.101: Managers identification of aspects that are least important in job (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Salary	32	-	10.7	24	-	8	10.7
No resources	32	-	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
No appreciation	24	-	8	-	-	-	4
Poor student attitude	16	-	5.3	-	-	-	2.7
Backbiting	16	-	5.3	-	-	-	2.7
Big class size	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Boys club	-	-	-	-	18	12	6
Shortage of education	12	-	4	-	-	-	2
Record keeping	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
No recognition for perfect attendance	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Lazy colleagues	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Dept. stats	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Pressure	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Defaulters	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Working	8	-	2.7	-	-	-	1.3
Fundraising	-	34	22.7	-	-	-	11.3
Disciplinary measures	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
Long hours	-	24	16	12	-	4	10
Asking parents to pay school fees	-	12	8	-	-	-	4
No assistance from DOE	-	34	22.7	-	-	-	11.3
Certain SGB members	-	12	8	-	-	-	4

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Response							
Paperwork	-	-	-	20	38	32	16
Lack of opportunity	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Red tape/ bureaucracy	-	-	-	40	16	24	27
Colleagues with an attitude problem	-	-	-	24	-	8	4
No encouragement	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.3
Bickering/ gossip	-	-	-	16	18	17.3	8.7
Incompetence	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Ability being questioned	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Responsibility without authority	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Inflexibility	-	-	-	-	16	10.7	5.3
Lack of complexity in client base	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.3

Table 5.102: Non-managers identification of aspects that are least important in job, in order of importance (Multiple Responses) (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Salary	12	16	14
Working with coins	-	12	6
Disciplinary action	-	12	6
Colleagues with an attitude problem	4	16	10
No encouragement	-	12	6
Work on Saturdays/ long hours	4	16	10
Statistics	-	12	6
Fundraising	16	-	8
Stress	4	-	2
Paperwork	36	-	18
Poor parental attitude	4	-	2
Bureaucracy	4	-	2
Paperwork	4	-	2
Being sidetracked	4	-	2
Being told what to do	12	-	6
Power of unions	16	-	8
Marking	16	-	8
Formalities/ routine	4	-	2
Management views	4	-	2
Meetings	8	-	4
Weak pupils	8	-	4
Lack of assistance from DOE	28	-	14
Mobility	4	-	2
Lack of discipline	32	-	8
Record keeping	4	-	2
Extra work done at home	4	-	2

5.10.6 Job security of managers and non-managers

The majority of managers (74%) were secure in their jobs. This was especially so amongst male education managers and all female bank managers. At an individual level, it seems that male bank managers (48%) and female education managers (10%) were not so secure (Fig.5.46). Those managers, especially amongst the male bankers, who were insecure, gave reasons such as applying for another post (2%), problem with age (3.3%) and affirmative action (2.7%) (Table 5.103).

Fig.5.46: Managers security in job
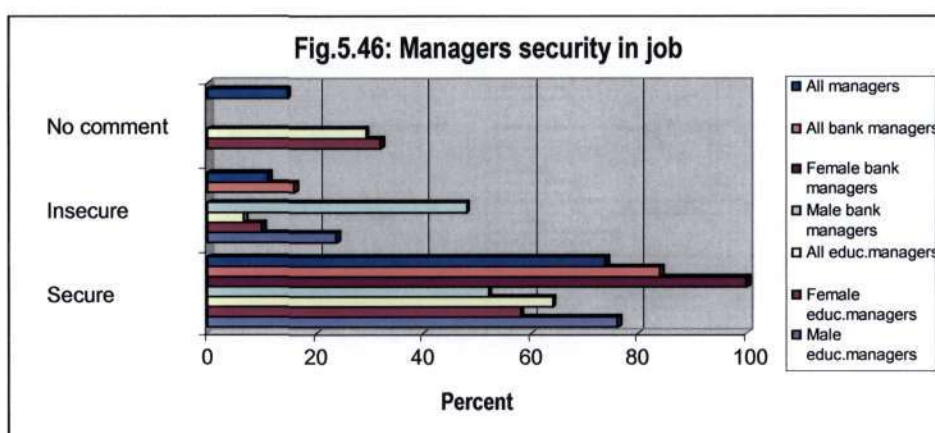
Table 5.103: Managers explanation for being insecure in job (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Applied for post	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Problem with age	-	-	-	20	-	6.7	3.3
Affirmative action	-	-	-	16	-	5.3	2.7
No comment	-	10	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
Not applicable	100	90	93.3	52	100	84	88.7

Sixty-two percent of non-managers were secure in their jobs with the proportion being higher in the banking sector than in the education sector (Fig. 5.47). The main reasons for the minority being insecure in the banking sector were: contract (16%) and pre-application for post (12%). In the education sector insecurity was due to the following main concerns: declared surplus (12%) and non-permanence (8%) (Table 5.104).

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Fig.5.47: Non-managers security in job
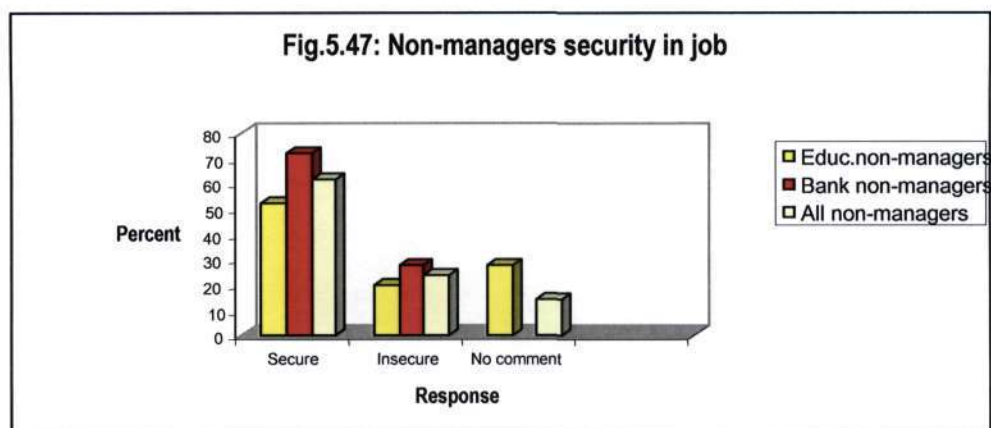
Table 5.104:Non-managers explanation for being insecure in job (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers N=25	Bank Non-managers N=25	All Non-Managers N=50
On contract	-	16	8
Had to re-apply for post	-	12	6
Declared surplus	12	-	6
Pupil teacher ratio	4	-	2
Rationalisation and redeployment	4	-	2
Non-permanence	8	-	4
Little opportunity	4	-	2
Constant	4	-	2
Not applicable	64	72	68

5.10.7 Opinions on future promotions

Generally, over 50% of managers in both sectors were positively inclined towards future promotion prospects. This situation was overwhelming amongst males in the education sector (92%) but not amongst the females in this sector (only 32% were positively inclined). In the banking sector, the majority of both males and females (56% and 62% respectively) had positive opinions on future promotions (Fig.5.48). Reasons forwarded by managers who were negatively inclined towards future promotions focused on union support for certain candidates (17.3%), non-applications for posts (16%) in the education sector, opportunities given to Whites only (10.7%) and positions dominated by White males (10.7%) (Table 5.105).

Fig.5.48: Managers opinions on future promotion
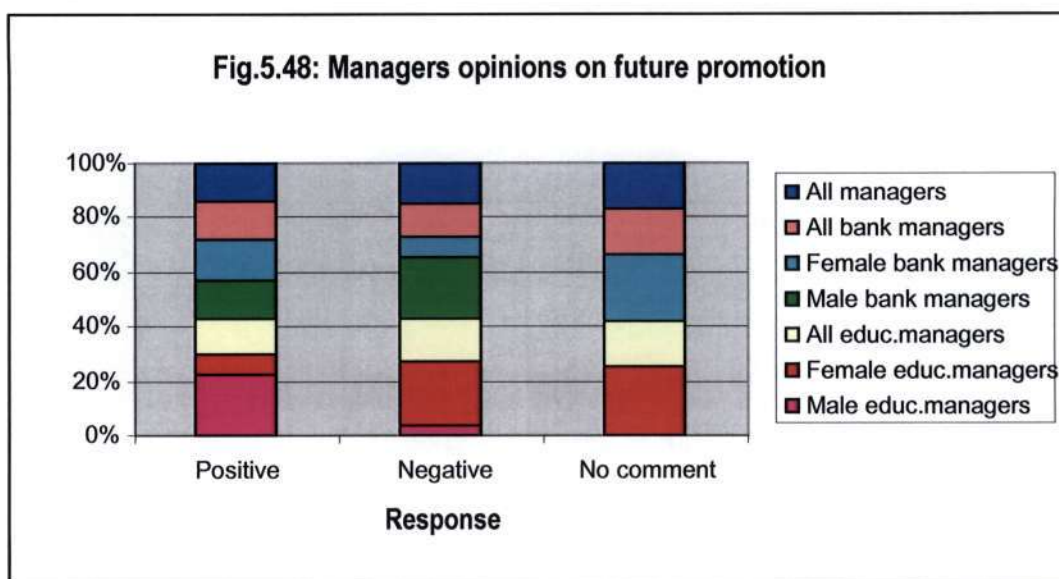
Table 5.105: Managers reason for being negative about future promotions (in %)

Response	Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Unions support certain candidates	8	22	17.3	-	-	-	8.7
Will not apply for another post	-	24	16	-	-	-	8
Opportunity given to whites only	-	-	-	32	-	10.7	5.3
Positions dominated by white males	-	-	-	-	16	10.7	5.3
Few positions in department	-	-	-	12	-	4	2
Not applicable	92	54	66.7	56	84	74.7	70.7

Amongst non-managers, although there was an overall positive response towards future promotions, the proportion was higher in the banking sector (56%) as compared to responses from the education non-managers (48%) (Fig.5.49). Age (being over 50 years) was a determining factor for negative opinions amongst bank non-managers (88%) whilst not wanting promotion (12%) and little or no opportunities for promotion (12%) were the chief reasons cited by respondents from the education sector (Table 5.106).

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Fig.5.49: Non-managers opinions on future promotion
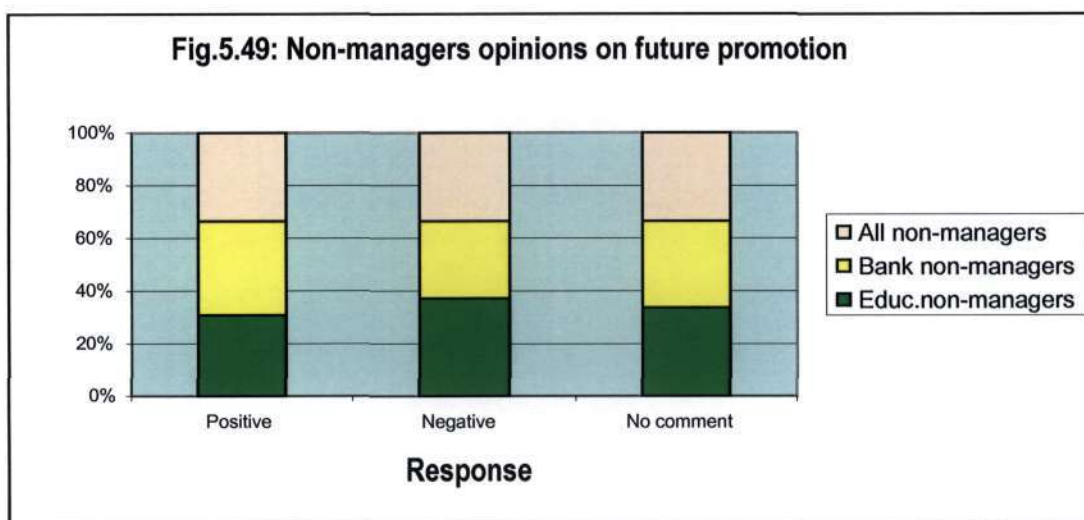
Table 5.106: Non-managers reason for being negative about future promotion (in %)

Response	Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-managers
	N=25	N=25	N=50
Over 50 years	-	88	44
Others have longer service record	8	-	4
No/ little opportunity for advancement	12	-	6
Do not want promotion	12	-	6
Type of people worked with	4	-	2
Lack of drive/ ambition	4	-	2
Affirmative action	4	-	2
Other	4	-	2
Not applicable	52	12	32

5.10.8 Satisfaction with current position

All male education managers and 58% of female managers were satisfied with their current positions. In banking almost an equal proportion of males and female respondents (68% and 64% respectively) stated that they were satisfied (Fig. 5.50).

Non-managers also displayed a high level of satisfaction in both sectors under study. However, the proportion was higher in banking (84%) than in the education sector (60%). Overall, 72% of all non-managers displayed satisfaction with their current positions (Fig. 5.50).

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Fig.5.50: Managers and non-managers satisfaction with current position

Legend:
- Male educ.managers
- Female educ.managers
- All educ.managers
- Male bank managers
- Female bank managers
- All bank managers
- All managers
- Educ.non-managers
- Bank non-managers
- All non-managers
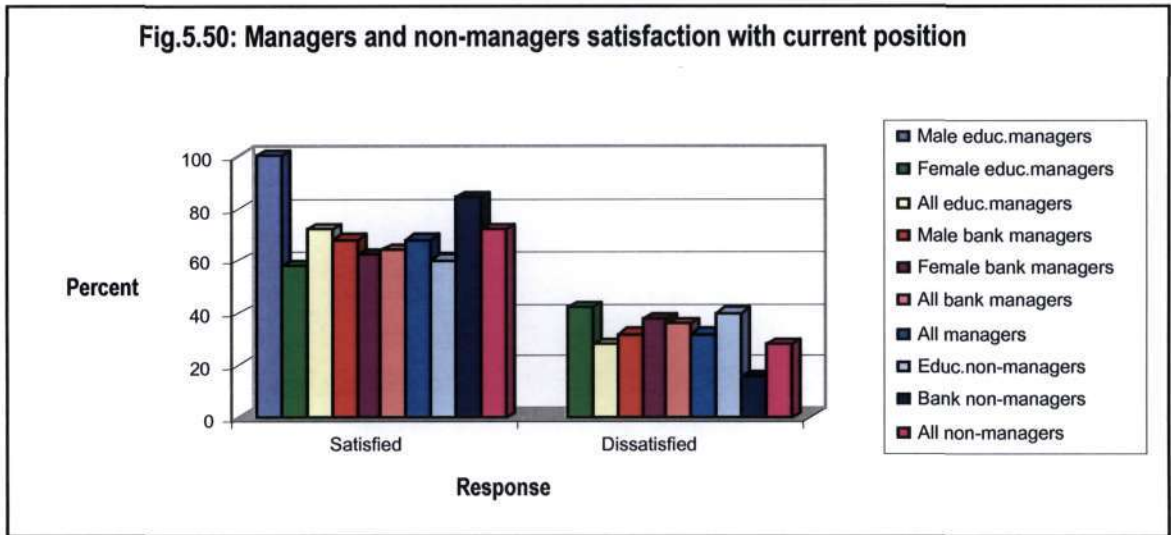
5.10.9 Opinion on recent appointments

Appointment categories were subdivided into six sectors according to gender and race and managers were asked to forward their opinions on appointments made in the last five years. At management level it was evident that White males (23.4%), Indian males (19.3%) and Indian females (20.7%) were the main appointees (Table 5.107). Regarding individual sectors, Indian males (38.7%) and Indian females (41.3%) were favoured in the education sector whilst White males (46.7%), White females (18.6%) and African males (14.6%) were appointed in banking (Table 5.107).

Table 5.107: Managers opinion on type of appointments made in the last five years (in %)

Response		Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
		M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Managerial	African male	-	-	-	-	22	14.6	7.3
	African Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	White male	-	-	-	28	56	46.7	23.4
	White Female	-	-	-	12	22	18.6	9.3
	Indian male	76	20	38.7	-	-	-	19.3
	Indian female	8	58	41.3	-	-	-	20.7
	No response	16	22	20.0	60		20.0	20.0
Supervisory	African male	-	-	-	12	-	4	2.0
	White Female	-	-	-	32	-	10.7	5.3
	Indian male	32	12	18.7	-	-	-	9.3
	Indian female	8	-	2.7	28	60	49.3	26.0
	No response	60	88	78.6	28	40	36	57.4
Administrative	African male	-	-	-	12	-	4.0	2.0
	Indian male	24	12	16	16	44	34.7	25.3
	Indian female	28	10	16	44	16	25.3	20.7
	No response	48	78	68	28	40	36.0	52.0
Secretarial	African male	-	-	-	12	-	4.0	2.0
	African Female	-	-	-	-	22	14.6	7.3
	White Female	-	-	-	36	-	12.0	6.0
	Indian male	8	12	10.7	-	-	-	5.3
	Indian female	36	34	34.7	24	16	18.7	26.7
	Coloured female	-	-	-	-	22	14.7	7.3
	No response	56	54	54.6	28	40	36.0	45.4
Sales	African male	-	-	-	12	-	4.0	2.0
	White male	-	-	-	20	18	18.7	9.3
	Indian male	-	-	-	28	44	38.6	19.4
	Indian female	-	-	-	12	-	4.0	2.0
	No response	-	-	100	28	38	34.7	67.3
Unskilled	African male	-	12	8.0	12	-	4	6.0
	African Female	36	-	12.0	44	44	44	28.0
	White male	20	-	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
	Indian male	-	10	6.7	-	-	-	3.3
	Indian female	20	12	14.6	-	-	-	7.4
	No response	24	66	52.0	44	56	52	52.0

In the supervisory category, a significant response was received for Indian males in education as opposed to Indian females (49.3%) in banking. In general, Indian females received the highest responses (26%) in both sectors (Table 5.107).

The administrative category received highest overall responses for Indian males (25.3%) and females (20.7%). This trend was also true for individual sectors. Additionally, Indian females (26.7%) predominate responses in the secretarial category with small proportions favouring the other race groups (Table 5.107).

The sales category did not apply to the education sector but only to banking. In the latter sector 38.6% of respondents stated that Indian males, followed by White males (18.7%), were appointed. African females were considered by both sectors (28%) as persons mostly employed in the unskilled category (Table 5.107).

Responses from non-managers with regard to appointment of managerial staff focused on two main categories and these were Indian males (24%) and coloured females (18%) (Table 5.108). In the supervisory category, White females (30%) especially in banking (60%) were employed whilst Indian females received most responses in education (28%). The administrative category responses leaned towards Indian males (24%) and Indian females in both sectors and this was also true for the secretarial category (16% and 20% respectively) (Table 5.108). As was mentioned earlier, the sales category did not apply to the education sector and in banking except for the non-appointment of coloureds, all other race groups, with almost equal proportions, were appointed, according to non-managers. African males (16%) and African females (18%) were viewed by non-managers as persons appointed as unskilled workers in the education and banking sectors (Table 5.108).

Table 5.108: Non-managers opinion on type of appointments made in the last five years (in %)

Occupation Categories		Education Non-Managers	Bank Non-Managers	All Non-Managers
		N=25	N=25	N=50
Managerial	African male	8	-	4
	African Female	12	12	12
	White male	-	16	8
	Indian male	36	12	24
	Indian female	12	-	6
	Coloured female	4	32	18
	No response	28	28	28
Supervisory	African male	4	-	2
	White Female	-	60	30
	Indian male	12	16	14
	Indian female	28	-	14
	Coloured female	8	-	4
	No response	48	24	36
Administrative	African male	4	-	2
	African Female	4	-	2
	Indian male	16	32	24
	Indian female	20	32	26
	No response	56	36	46
Secretarial	African male	4	-	2
	African Female	4	-	2
	White Female	-	32	16
	Indian male	16	24	20
	Indian female	24	-	12
	Coloured female	-	16	8
	No response	52	28	40
Sales	African Female	-	16	8
	White male	-	12	6
	White Female	-	16	8
	Indian male	-	16	8
	No response	100	40	70
Unskilled	African male	16	-	8
	African Female	4	32	18
	Indian male	4	-	2
	Indian female	4	-	2
	No response	72	68	70

5.10.10 Opinion on years it would take for full integration

Fifty-percent of managers stated that it would take 5-10 years for the managerial sector to be fully integrated whilst other managers (17.4%) were of the opinion that it would take over 15 years (Table 5.109). The majority responses for the supervisory category (36%) indicated a shorter period of 1-5 years for full integration and almost a similar proportion (32%), within the above mentioned time period, was mentioned for the administrative sector and the secretarial category (41%). For the sales/ retail category, 1-5 years (15.3%) and 5-10 years (16.7%) were favoured for full integration. Moreover, it was stated by most managers (30%) that it would take one to five years to fully integrate the unskilled labour category (Table 5.109).

Table 5.109: Managers response to the number of years it would take to be fully integrated in different occupational categories (in %)

Response		Education Managers			Bank Managers			All Managers
		M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	M (N=25)	F (N=50)	Total (N=75)	Total (N=150)
Managerial	1-5	8	10	9.3	28	-	9.3	9.3
	5-10	24	32	29.3	56	78	70.7	50.0
	11-15	12	-	4.0	-	-	-	2.0
	>15	56	24	34.7	-	-	-	17.4
	No response	-	34	22.7	16	22	20.0	21.3
Supervisory	1-5	8	24	18.7	48	56	53.3	36.0
	5-10	16	12	13.3	-	-	-	6.6
	11-15	8	-	2.7	-	22	14.7	8.7
	>15	36	-	12.0	36	-	12.0	12.0
	No response	32	64	53.3	16	22	20.0	36.7
Administrative	1-5	32	-	10.7	48	56	53.4	32
	5-10	-	12	8.0	-	-	-	4
	>15	36	12	20.0	36	-	12.0	16
	No response	32	76	61.3	16	44	34.6	48
Secretarial	1-5	32	12	18.7	36	78	64	41.3
	5-10	-	12	8.0	12	-	4	6.0
	>15	36	12	20.0	36	-	12	16.0
	No response	32	64	53.3	16	22	20	36.7
Sales/ retail	1-5	-	-	-	24	34	30.7	15.3
	5-10	-	-	-	12	44	33.3	16.7
	>15	-	-	-	36	-	12.0	6.0
	No response	-	-	100	28	22	24.0	62.0
Unskilled	1-5	8	12	10.7	24	62	49.3	30.0
	5-10	8	12	10.7	32	-	10.7	10.7
	11-15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	>15	36	12	20.0	28	-	9.3	14.7
	No response	48	64	58.6	16	38	30.7	44.6

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Table 5.110: Non-managers opinions on the time it would take to be fully integrated in different occupational categories (in %)

Categories		Education Non-managers	Bank Non-managers	All Non-Managers
		N=25	N=25	N=50
Managerial	1-5	36	28	32
	5-10	20	28	24
	11-15	8	-	4
	>15	32	16	24
	No response	4	28	16
Supervisory	1-5	24	56	40
	5-10	12	-	6
	11-15	12	-	6
	>15	28	-	14
	No response	24	44	34
Administrative	1-5	16	40	28
	5-10	8	-	4
	11-15	12	-	6
	>15	36	16	26
	No response	28	44	36
Secretarial	1-5	20	40	30
	5-10	12	-	6
	>15	36	16	28
	No response	32	44	38
Sales/ retail	1-5	-	40	20
	5-10	-	16	8
	No response	100	44	72
Unskilled	1-5	12	28	20
	5-10	4	-	2
	11-15	4	-	2
	>15	48	16	32
	No response	32	56	44

Non-managers were also asked to give their opinions on the time it would take to be fully integrated. For the management category, most non-managers stated that it would take between 1-5 years (32%), 5-10 years (24%) and over 15 years to be fully integrated (Table 5.109). For the supervisory (40%), secretarial (30%), sales/ retail (20%) and unskilled labour category (20%), the period of 1-5 years before full integration were cited by non-managers. In terms of the administrative sector, two time periods were prominent and these were the 1-5 year category (28%) and over 15 years (26%) (Table 5.110).

5.11. CONCLUSION

This research illustrates that the issues pertaining to women in management cannot be neglected or ignored. The concerns raised are prevalent in both the private and public sectors, although differences in perceptions and experiences exist. Both the primary and secondary data analysed in this and previous chapters raise concerns about the persistence of gender stereotypes and the challenges faced by women in management in relation to entering management and being successful as managers. Key issues emanating from the data analysis include:

- limited, inconsistent and ineffective training and empowerment mechanisms to address gender discrimination in a meaningful way;
- gendered power struggles and tensions in the workplace; and
- the multiple roles that women play and concomitant responsibilities they have.

The pertinent findings and concerns related to women in management concerns derived from the data have been highlighted. Broad management and social implications of the results were presented. The next chapter summarises the main findings, forwards recommendations based on the research and provides concluding comments.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

To recount, the key research objectives framing this study relate to: the perceptions of employees (both at management and non-managerial staff levels) in the banking and education sectors towards women in management; the appraisal (from a management perspective) of existing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discriminatory practices within the private and the public sectors; the impact that gender equity practices has on human resource planning, especially at the management level, in the private and public sectors; whether there are adequate training and support programmes in place to assist women managers; and a comparative analysis of women in management issues and concerns in the public (education) and private (banking) sectors. To enable a critical examination of these objectives, primary research was undertaken in case studies of the education (specifically schools) and banking (specifically NedCor) sectors in Durban. The education and banking sectors represented the public and private sectors respectively.

The main purpose of this concluding chapter is to summarise the key research findings as well as forward recommendations. In the light of the literature review, conceptual; framework and research findings presented in the previous chapters, general conclusions about women and management in South Africa are drawn. Case studies are unable to provide definitive answers to questions posed about women and management. However, case studies illustrate, illuminate and in some instances amplify issues and concerns raised in both South African and international contexts pertaining to women and management in the public and private sectors. Thus, for the purposes of this study the data highlights some key issues to be addressed in relation to women in management concerns.

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6.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

Since perceptions and projections tend to frame the central issues as well as influence decisions and policies, the relevance of women in management to the future of organisations are presented below. These are derived from the findings of the literature review and primary research undertaken for this study. The intention is to draw out pertinent issues that address the objectives of the study.

The focus on a comparative perspective was intended to examine the experiences and concerns of women in management in the public and private sectors. By making it comparative and by conducting the primary research in different settings, it was hoped that the findings will be able to lead to the identification of crucial factors, especially patterns and trends, in relation to women in management. Particularly, this study provides a means of gauging the extent, nature and intensity of perceptions among employees in both the public and private sectors in relation to women in management. The main conclusion is that there are no notable and significant differences between women in management in the public and private sectors. This reinforces ILO's (1998) position that the challenges faced by women in management are ongoing and widespread. What is important to note that the location of the glass ceiling varies according to different socio-cultural contexts. The findings in this research emphasise the importance of the societal contexts in examining women's disadvantaged positions in the workforce generally and at management levels specifically. In traditional contexts embedded in high levels of patriarchy, the gender gap in leadership positions and the presence of glass ceiling effects within hierarchies are particularly acute.

Some of the main issues are:

- The impact of women's changing roles and participation in the management arena is an important aspect of organisational development. Evidence suggests that more and more women are entering managerial positions. This is also taking place at upper management levels.
- Women are bound to introduce new ways of managing and leading.

- Women are more willing to be more visible in the workplace and more specifically in leadership positions.

- Women are integrating work and family roles rather than view them as alternatives.

- Legal changes are beginning to support women's rights.

- There is the possibility that women as a group will experience differential levels of change which will be related to the individual's race, class, education and generation status. This implies that not all women will experience the same level of progress or mobility in the workplace.

The distinction between leadership and management is important to consider. As Louis and Miles (1990) illustrate, leaders set the course for an organisation and managers make sure that the course is followed. Leaders make strategic plans while managers design operational system for carrying out these plans. Thus, in the above definitions the terms are both complementary and distinctive. However, in both the banking and the education sector the managers interviewed (both male and female) saw their roles as being leaders and managers. It is also important to underscore that in the banking sector the role of the manager is clearly defined and specified. In the education sector, managers (principles and heads of departments) play multiple roles. For example, in all schools where principals were interviewed, they were members of the School Governing Body, chief executive of the school and classroom teacher. Although these roles are often complementary some teaching principals have obvious difficulty managing the demands of the combined roles.

The responses of this study from both female staff and managers indicate that although women in the workforce generally and women in management specifically continue to face numerous problems at different levels, there is a clear trend among the majority of the respondents to enjoy the benefits and satisfaction of working. They enjoy the recognition, independence and financial rewards linked to having a job. This is supported by the finding that the majority of women indicated that they would retain their jobs even

if they did not need to work for financial reasons.

Despite these positive aspects, the results identify considerable areas relating to the discrimination of women that need attention. The conflict between home and work remains for women, especially for married women and mothers. The finding suggests that female managers (35% of female managers as compared to only 7% of male managers were divorced) experience family instability and dislocation more than male managers do. Thus, the experiences of women managers in relation to familial concerns as illustrated by Gutex et al (1991), Offerman and Armitage (1993) and Pandey et al (1995) are supported. From the responses, it can also be deduced that it is often the respondents' own high standards that contribute to stress and disproportionately spending time on job related matters. Many expressed sentiments that they had "to work harder than men" and "be better than men".

The results indicate that many women aspire for both a meaningful career as well as a family. These findings imply that what is needed is for a more conducive environment for women who wish to raise families as well as advance in their careers. In terms of more concrete examples, there is a need for the provision of child care as well as maternity benefits that do not jeopardise women's chances of opportunities and promotions.

Major problems that women in management experience include:
- Misconceptions: Bio-psychological and socio-economic misconceptions hamper women's movement into management positions. The stereotype of the emotional female is particularly harmful.
- Inhospitable formal and informal structures in the workplace.
- Present recruitment, hiring and promotion policies: Breaking the glass ceiling is a formidable task faced by many women who wish to enter managerial positions.
- Perceived incompatibility between career and family goals.
- Sexual harassment is also a major concern that needs attention.

The results on awareness of institutions' formal opposition to discriminatory practices implies that access to information in terms of policies is concentrated at managerial levels and not adequately disseminated to non-managerial staff. Additionally, the education (public) sector is more aware of legislation regarding racial discrimination than the banking (private) sector. This is understandable given that the public sector is at the forefront of developing and implementing legislation addressing discrimination in the country.

This study supports Dipboye's (1978) findings more than two decades ago that despite contradictory evidence, stereotypes concerning female inadequacy as managers persist and act to distort perceptions of male and female performance and potential. Despite affirmative action policies that promote women entering management positions and the workforce more generally, the organisational climates tend not to support females in leadership positions. This study therefore reiterates Reskin and Ross' (1995: 145) findings that:

> Women's increased access to managerial jobs is beyond dispute, but the sexes' more equitable representation in managerial jobs has not eliminated the significance of gender in the distribution of organisational authority and the monetary rewards that authority traditionally brings. Women managers are concentrated near the bottom of the chains of command; they tend to supervise workers of their own sex, consistent with conventions that women should not supervise men; they were substantially less likely than men to exercise decision-making authority; and their involvement in decision making was largely confined to offering input into decisions that men make.

The results support studies that show that often perceptions about female managers are rooted in gender stereotypes rather than actual performance of women managers (Dipboye, 1978; 1987; Jacobs and Steinberg, 1995; Powell, 1993). There remains general perceptions that women are more emotional than men and women struggle to handle criticism. Women on the other hand felt that often the criticism was unfounded or much

harsher than if it was geared towards a male colleague. They therefore felt that they had to constantly protect themselves.

The findings of this research effort also supports Tougas and Veilleux's (1989) conclusion in the context of the Unites States that both men and women disapprove of preferential treatment based on tokenistic employment or promotion as a means to improve women's circumstances. Nearly all respondents prefer programmes that focus on achieving equality of access through the elimination of systematic and institutional barriers and through the provision of support to target groups.

The results indicate that the attitudes pertaining to the upward mobility of Blacks and women are similar to previous trends in attitude research identified by Human (1991) more than a decade ago. Furthermore, the importance of educational qualifications and experience remain key factors in influencing attitudes. Generally, however, attitudes towards Black and women advancement among Whites and men respectively were negative. It is important to note that many respondents stated that they saw a need for the advancement of previously disadvantaged groups but they felt that current trends and patterns are largely tokenistic in nature.

Educational qualifications reveal important findings. The results indicate that educational qualifications cannot necessarily be used to justify gender discrimination at management levels. It appears that for men (and continues to be the trend for White females) qualifications are not highly regarded when appointing them to managerial levels as the majority of the male managers interviewed retain management positions with lower level qualifications than females. In fact, from the sample, proportionately female managers have better qualifications than male managers. This tends to support research that shows that females have to work harder than men for similar positions (Bhatnagar, 1995; Folbre, 1995; Helgesen, 1996; Jacobs, 1992; Powell, 1993). In essence, double standards seem to be evident.

Respondents expressed positive attitudes towards non-discriminatory organisational and social values. The majority indicated that society should accept women in key managerial and decision-making positions, value their work equally and ensure equal opportunities in the organisation. However, a significant percentage of the respondents did not support affirmative action. There is an apparent contradiction between the respondents general acceptance of accepting past discriminatory practices and having programmes to do just that. This suggests that respondents support the principle of providing equal opportunities but do not support current processes of achieving this applaudable goal.

This study reveals that attitudes varied in accordance with the following demographic patterns:

- Black respondents expressed consistently more liberal views that White respondents in the private sector and African respondents expressed more liberal views than Indian respondents in the public sector.
- Women expressed more liberal views than men.
- Managers expressed more liberal views than non-managers.

It is clear from the study that managers are under considerable pressure to act as change agents in relation to addressing gender inequities in the workforce. If this is role is pertinent for South African organisations in the public and private sectors, then there are interesting strategic implications. Firstly, it is paramount that the basic belief system of management changes. Management can no longer concentrate on the externalities of organisational life but need to play a critical role in creating alternative cultures to the existing dominant orientation. Top management's role, especially in relation to providing the necessary leadership, is of particular importance. Management as change agents is contradictory to the traditional role of managers as being primarily concerned with the internal, technical and short-term aspects of the organisations.

In terms of definitions/ understanding of gender discrimination and sexual harassment, responses indicate that interviewees were generally aware of what gender discrimination and sexual harassment entail. Most respondents intimated that women were generally discriminated against or harassed by men. This position supports some of the power

dimensions of gender discrimination and harassment as illustrated by Dunkel (1994) and Steinberg (1995).

In terms of promotion, slightly less than half of the respondents stated that their banks and schools did not promote personnel on merit alone. These respondents stated that consideration of previously disadvantaged groups (affirmative action and Employment Equity Act) and favouritism was often the basis of recruitment and promotion.

A significant proportion of respondents indicated that they did not know of someone who benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination. The discussion alludes to the problems with the actual implementation of addressing gender discrimination policies and programmes, including the dissemination of information.

It is important to note that a significant proportion of managers, especially male managers, indicated that all personnel were granted equal opportunities. Similar sentiments were expressed by respondents with regard to opportunities to access bursaries and other funding opportunities. Thus, male managers who are generally in the majority and who occupy key decision-making positions do not acknowledge any serious problems pertaining to opportunities in the banks. This raises the concern articulated by Arvery (1997) of whether they will be able to provide the necessary commitment, leadership and vision needed to address gender and other discriminatory practices if they do not recognise them as a problem.

The majority of the managers stated that policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination had not affected them as managers. A significant proportion of respondents also stated that they generally did not attend any programmes, workshops or seminars aimed at women managers or developing future women managers. This indicates that despite the grand legislative framework of affirmative action very little seems to be taking place on the ground in terms of furthering the women in management agenda. Additionally, a major concern is despite this lack of training, that majority of managers interviewed felt comfortable implementing policies and programmes aimed at

eliminating gender discrimination. Furthermore, most stated that they were adequately trained and knowledgeable about gender discrimination in the workplace. Also, they were adequately equipped to handle any sexual harassment or gender discrimination cases as a manager.

While the vast majority of male managers felt that they did not manage differently than women managers, more than half of the women managers indicated that they managed differently from their male counterparts. The main differences highlighted were that women managers are more sensitive to staff concerns and they are better able to motivate staff.

Given the above discussion, the hypothesis formulated and presented in chapter one will be discussed below.

Hypothesis 1: Women managers are not clustered in lower and middle management positions.

The study reveals that generally women occupy lower and middle management positions both in the private and public sectors. Thus, hypothesis 1 is rejected. However, it is important to underscore that this finding supports general studies pertaining to women in management, especially the notion of the glass ceiling effect.

Hypthesis 2: The public sector does not have a more enabling environment for women managers than the private sector.

The findings indicate that there are no notable significant differences in the public and private sectors in relation to having a more enabling environment for women managers. To some extent, the main considerations are the specific contexts (the presence of mentors, implementation of clear policies, training opportunities available, etc.) as well as the types of strategies individuals adopt to enter and function in managerial positions. However, it is important to note that generally more respondents in the public sector were aware of policies and programmes aimed at eliminating past discriminatory practices in South Africa. Given the above, hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Hypothesis 3: The general perceptions of women managers are that they are weaker, less assertive, emotional and inconsistent.

The results show that although perceptions are changing, the attitudes that women managers are weaker, less assertive, emotional and inconsistent persist. This supports the literature that indicates that gender stereotypes are prevalent in the workplace at all levels and across the genders. While hypothesis is accepted, it is important to note that a significant proportion of respondents were resistant to accept gender stereotypes and many saw female managers as being empowering, role models, sensitive, etc.

Hypothesis 4: The current policy and training environments in both the banking and the education sectors do not adequately support the development and advancement of women managers.

Both the sectors under study have State and corporate policies that support the development and advancement of women managers. However, the translation of these policies into practice remains problematic. A significant proportion of the managers and non-managerial staff (especially in the banking sector) were not aware of these policies. Furthermore, many raised concerns pertaining to implementation of policies and programmes. Thus, hypothesis 4 is partially accepted.

Hypothesis 5: Women and men do not have different management styles.

The findings show that some women and men to have different management styles, especially in relation to the way in which they engage with staff. However, clear distinction and identification of management styles did not emerge from this study. To some extent the responses reinforce gender stereotypes in that women managers are perceived to be more sensitive and caring. However, they are also seen by some to be more emotional. Thus, hypothesis 5 can be partially accepted.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Given the above findings, the following recommendations are forwarded to address problems experienced by women in management as well as women entering management positions:

- Recruitment, selection and placement: Organisations should avoid the tokenistic appointment of female managers.

- Training and development: It is imperative that the banking sector develop strategies and training to establish capacity in the management and implementation of policies and programmes aimed at addressing gender discriminatory practices. Specifically, gender sensitive awareness training needs to be implemented in the banking sector. There at least three kinds worth considering:

    - Management awareness of cultural bias and sex-role expectations that prevail in the organisation and society as well as in attitudes of managers at all levels.

    - Women's awareness of their perceptions of themselves in their career development objectives and considering alternatives. For those women who are already aware, the next phase is coping with change in reaching their new objectives, including their part in changing gender expectations they may face and their responses to them.

    - Men's awareness of what it means to them to be involved in many new working relationships with women as colleagues and sometimes as superiors. Changes in women's roles as they move up in managerial expertise will certainly impact on men's roles and responses as managers.

Educational institutions must also be encouraged to respond to the need of training women managers. On the other hand, it is also in the best interest of the banks to develop skills training capacity in-house, specifically geared towards the company's needs and strategic vision. Educational programmes will also help to diffuse tensions and concerns among members of staff, especially that attempts to address gender discrimination does not imply a lowering of standards or the threat

of losing jobs.

- Organisational development: Overall organisation policies which discriminate against female employees in areas such as job design, appraisal, promotion, travel, transfer, leave, disciplinary action and benefits must be analysed and redefined to support affirmative action and equal opportunity imperatives. Organisations must exhibit a willingness to change beliefs, attitudes, values and structures within the organisation as well as support broader societal changes that aim to redress gender imbalances and inequities. Team building, job enrichment, sensitivity training and organisational behaviour modification techniques of organisational development can be used to create a more supportive and reinforcing organisational environment for female leadership. In terms of supporting broader social changes, the banking sector can provide bursaries, training and career development opportunities for females at different levels of schooling.

- Restructure organisational realities in such a way that conflicts between women's work and family roles can be minimised. Provision of child-care facilities is particularly important in this regard.

- Affirmative action teams that reflect the concerns of gender, race and religious differences need to be set up. This should include a steering committee to monitor, assess and ensure that affirmative action programmes are fair and are progressing at a reasonable pace. Also, the committee should be mandated to engage in an assessment of the mechanisms and support structures (training opportunities, access to information and transforming advertising processes) intended to address discriminatory practices.

The literature review and findings from the research identify a range of key enabling factors for promoting women in management. These include:

- Commitment and support from various stakeholders including top management and government agencies;

- Development of legislative frameworks and appropriate policies, programmes and initiatives to translate intent into practice;

- Establishment of support structures and mechanisms at all levels;
- Integrating/ mainstreaming women's issues and concerns into strategic plans;
- Setting of specific achievement targets and goals that can be monitored;
- Appropriate and fair recruitment, selection and promotion procedures;
- Establishing effective training, development and capacity building programmes; and
- Regular systems to monitor and report on the status of women.

Setting of targets is deemed to be particularly important. As UNESCO (2002: 109) states:

> Setting of targets provides the clear and quantifiable objective to be achieved, the motivation to strive as well as the measure against which success or lack of it can be monitored and recorded.

In terms of school managers, it is important to specifically address some key concerns. Managers in schools are expected to undertake a number of management responsibilities in areas such as personnel, finances and property. Most school managers have not been prepared for these management obligations either by their earlier career experience or by their pre-employment or in-service training. Little attention has been paid to the need of school managers to increase their professional understanding of broader concepts of school management and leadership. On the whole managers in schools learn to do what they are required to do on the job and from their peers. Teacher training and successful experience as a teacher are, however, not enough. School managers need to have access to high quality education and training to prepare them for this complex and important role.

In terms of the professional leadership of managers (especially in the education sector), the following issues need to be addressed:

- the availability of high level tertiary courses or qualifications that focus specifically on the leadership and management of the specific sector. Incentives should be available to encourage providers to enter this market. There should also

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be incentives for aspiring managers to gain high level qualifications before they are appointed and to continue to undertake appropriate training and education after appointment;

- the failure of some boards to manage the performance of managers effectively. Boards of Trustees and School Governing Body members need high quality training in the skills necessary for them to perform well as employers and/ or overseers of their professional leaders; and

- the future supply of high performing managers. The high average age of managers, the predominance of men in these leadership roles and the finding of this study that many managers (especially in schools) did not plan to continue in the profession, highlight the need for long term strategic succession planning.

Strengthening gender equity commitment and capacity is critical to developing and retaining female managers. The capacity to correct significant gender disparities in the public and private sectors is closely linked to its ability to systematically integrate gender equity concepts in planning, implementation and monitoring. This will include specific mechanisms and strategies that will strengthen the gender equity commitment of current management and leadership structures as well as enhancing understanding of gender issues and concepts among staff and officials at the different levels.

Improving the gender structure and culture also includes that adoption of affirmative action to promote fairer distribution of male and female managers and in improving attitudes towards women managers and staff. Training and scholarship opportunities to women should be expanded by setting a gender quota or minimum, for example, at least 30% of beneficiaries should be women.

In terms of research, this study demonstrates the need for more detailed research to understand how and why women's advancement to management positions are hindered. Furthermore the following key questions should be critically examined:

- Does the broad definition of managers obscure women's roles and presence in key decision-making positions and processes?

- Does transformation and restructuring (such as processes of rightsizing) eliminate positions that women tend to hold?

- How is the nature of women managers' jobs different?

- How does patriarchy and culture impact on women's roles as managers?

- What are/ will be the impacts of globalisation on women in management?

6.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study clearly illustrates that problems facing women in management are complex and multidimensional. There are numerous factors that contribute to existing trends and explain the poor participation and performance of women in leadership positions. No single strategy or initiative can address the challenges faced by women in management and increase women's presence in leadership positions in both the public and private sectors. It is therefore imperative that issues pertaining to women in management be addressed from a range of perspectives: policy aspects, raising awareness of key considerations, improving skills and competencies of women (especially creating conditions and opportunities for development and capacity building), changing institutional and corporate structures and procedures as well as changing attitudes of men and women towards women in management and leadership positions. In essence, it is necessary to create a more enabling, women-friendly environment.

Despite some of the persistent negative perceptions pertaining to women in management, the results from this study indicate greater acceptance by both men and women to women in management. Furthermore, the general attitudes expressed were that women managers are making a significant contribution in the public and private sectors. One male manager stated that the female managers have brought new blood, experiences, points of view and

insights to the organisations. Additionally, they was a general sentiment that women managers understand the needs and expectations of women clients (who are growing rapidly) much better. They also handle situations in the offices that involve female staff more effectively.

Finally, Arvey (1997) and Cascio (1995) outline that achieving gender (and race) equality is a time consuming, controversial and complicated process. Addressing discriminatory practices such as patriarchy and racism have emerged as one of the most contested debates in post-apartheid South Africa. Despite the multitude of perceptions and positions, it is imperative that programmes aimed at developing those that have been previously disadvantaged be put into place. The focus needs to shift from policies and ensure that actual implementation and changes are taking place.

This study clearly reveals that the issues pertaining to women in management are complex. Women managers in both the public and private sectors have broken the glass ceiling. They exemplify the struggles of women to become managers. However, it is imperative that the critical aspects that continue to deny most women the opportunities for advancement into management be further unpacked and appropriate as well as effective mechanisms be put into place harness women's potentials and aspirations.

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APPENDIX 1

Dear respondent

I am a DBA student at the University of Durban Westville (Student Number: 200200097). My research topic is "Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban". It is for this purpose that this questionnaire has been constructed. I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questionnaires you may contact me or my supervisor (Prof J McCarthy).

My contact details are: (031) 300 5363: O/ (031) 262 3564: H

Yours sincerely

_____

Ms Roshini Bob

QUESTIONNAIRES: FEMALE MANAGERS WITHIN THE BANKING SECTOR
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

NAME OF BANK: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS
1. Position:

General manager	
Product specialist manager	
Human resource manager	
Regional manager	
Branch manager	
Area manager	
Controller manager	
Operations manager	
Other (specify)	

2. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

3. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

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4. Educational level:

Secondary school	
Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

5. Marital status:

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

4. How long have you worked in the Banking sector?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
More than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your bank formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your bank introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

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4. Does your bank recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, What other criteria do they use?

_____

_____

PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your bank have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place in your bank to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
personnel productivity		
personnel morale		
gender relations		
race relations		
Understanding between workers		
tensions and conflicts among workers		
profit margins		
client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

4. Have you personally benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

4.1. If YES, how did you benefit?

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raises false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your bank?

YES	NO

1.2. Is it difficult to manage policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your bank?

YES	NO

1.3. If YES to any of the above, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment from the bank to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

_____

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3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your bank?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your bank?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your bank?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,
5.1.1. How has this been done?

Branch meetings	
Women only meetings at branch level	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Branch managers	
Upper management	
Personnel from human resources	
Staff associations/ unions	
Government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

6. Does your bank specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES to the above, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

6.2. Does your bank use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

ALWAYS	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your bank can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The bank's growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

5. Why are women disproportionately represented in management positions, especially upper management levels?

_____

_____

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6. How can women best enter and succeed at management positions?

_____

_____

7. What sacrifices have you made to become a manager in your bank?

_____

_____

8. At what age did you become a manager?

20-30	
31-40	
41-50	
>51	

9. Did you use any strategies to pursue your ambitions to become a managers?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, state what steps you took.

_____

_____

10.1. What impact to you see your role as a female manager to other employees (especially in lower positions) in your bank?

_____

_____

10.2. What impact to you see your role as a female manager to family members and friends (especially the youth)?

_____

_____

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

1. How has gender discrimination affected you as a manager?

_____

_____

2. How has policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination affected you as a managers?

_____

_____

3. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at women managers or developing future women managers?

YES	NO

3.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

4. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

5. As a women manager, do you feel comfortable implementing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

YES	NO

6. As a women manager, are you sufficiently trained and knowledgeable about gender discrimination at the work place?

YES	NO

7. As a women manager, are you adequately equipped to handle sexual harassment or gender discrimination accusations among your employees?

YES	NO

8. Have you handled any sexual harassment or gender discrimination cases as a manager?

YES	NO

8.1. If YES, were you satisfied with the way in which the matter was resolved?

YES	NO

9. Are you familiar with what you need to do if you are sexually harassed or discriminated against because you are a woman?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, what steps would you take?

_____

_____

10. What type of problems do you experience as a manager? Indicate which problems do you think are compounded because you are a women manager?

_____

_____

11. Do you manage differently than the male managers?

YES	NO

11.1. If YES, how do you manage differently?

_____

_____

GENERAL
1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your bank? (You may select more than one response)

Upper management	
Middle management	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
The human resources department	
Other (specify)	

4. In your opinion, does your bank pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Full maternity/ paternity benefits		
Savings schemes		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____

_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____

_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your bank?

YES	NO

8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____

_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____

_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your bank in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKILL CATEGORY	AFRICANS		WHITES		INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial								
Supervisory								
Administrative								
Secretarial/ clerical								
Sales/ retail								
Unskilled/ menial								

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your bank to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Sales/ retail					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you

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Dear respondent

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Yours sincerely

_____

Ms Roshini Bob

QUESTIONNAIRES: BANK MALE MANAGERS
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

NAME OF BANK: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Position in your bank:

General manager	
Product specialist manager	
Human resource manager	
Regional manager	
Branch manager	
Area manager	
Controller manager	
Operations manager	
Other (specify)	

2. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

3. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

4. Educational level

Secondary school	
Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

5. Marital status

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

4. How long have you worked in your bank?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
more than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your bank formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your bank introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

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4. Does your bank recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, what other criteria do they use?

_____ _____

_____ _____

PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your bank have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place in your bank to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
personnel productivity		
personnel morale		
gender relations		
race relations		
understanding between workers		
tensions and conflicts among workers		
profit margins in your bank		
client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____ _____

_____ _____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____ _____

_____ _____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____ _____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____ _____

4. Do you personally know of someone who benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

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4.1. If YES, how did they benefit?

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raise false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your bank?

YES	NO

1.2. Is it difficult to manage policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your bank?

YES	NO

1.3. If YES to any of the above, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment from your bank to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your bank?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your bank?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your bank?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,
5.1.1. How has this been done?

Branch meetings	
Women only meetings at branch level	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Branch managers	
Upper management	
Personnel from human resources	
Staff associations/ unions	
Government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

6. Does your bank specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES to the above, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

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6.2. Does your bank use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

AL	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your bank can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The bank=s growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

5. Why are women disproportionately represented in management positions, especially upper management levels?

_____

_____

6. How can women best enter and succeed at management positions?

_____

_____

7. What sacrifices have you made to become a manager in your bank?

_____

_____

8. At what age did you become a manager?

20-30	
31-40	
41-50	
>51	

9. Did you use any strategies to pursue your ambitions to become a manager?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, state what steps you took.

_____

_____

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

1. How has policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination affected you as a managers?

_____

_____

2. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at empowering and supporting women managers or developing future women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

3. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

4. As a manager, do you feel comfortable implementing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

YES	NO

5. As a manager, are you sufficiently trained and knowledgeable about gender discrimination at the work place?

YES	NO

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6. As a manager, are you adequately equipped to handle sexual harassment or gender discrimination accusations among your employees?

YES	NO

7. Have you handled any sexual harassment or gender discrimination cases as a manager?

YES	NO

7.1. If YES, were you satisfied with the way in which the matter was resolved?

YES	NO

8. What type of problems do you experience as a manager? Indicate which problems do you think are compounded because you are a male manager?

_____

_____

9. Do you manage differently than the female managers?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, how do you manage differently?

_____

_____

GENERAL

1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your bank? (You may select more than one response)

Upper management	
Middle management	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
The human resources department	
Other (specify)	

4. In your opinion, does your bank pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Savings schemes		
Full maternity/ paternity leave		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____
_____
_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____
_____
_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your bank?

YES	NO

8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____
_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____
_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your bank in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKILL CATEGORY	AFRICANS		WHITES		INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial								
Supervisory								
Administrative								
Secretarial/ clerical								
Sales/ retail								
Unskilled/ menial								

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your bank to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Sales/ retail					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you

Dear respondent

I am a DBA student at the University of Durban Westville (Student Number: 200200097). My research topic is "Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban". It is for this purpose that this questionnaire has been constructed. I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questionnaires you may contact me or my supervisor (Prof J McCarthy).

My contact details are: (031) 300 5363: O/ (031) 262 3564: H

Yours sincerely

_____

Ms Roshini Bob

QUESTIONNAIRES: BANK STAFF/ NON-MANAGERIAL POSITIONS
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

NAME OF BANK: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Position in your bank:

Supervisory	
Administrative	
Secretarial/ Clerical	
Unskilled/ menial	
Other (specify)	

2. Gender:

Female	Male

3. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

4. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

5. Educational level

No formal schooling	
Primary school	
Secondary school	
Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

5. Marital status

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

6. How long have you worked in your bank?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
more than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your bank formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your bank introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

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3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

4. Does your bank recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, what other criteria do they use?

_____

PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your bank have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place in your bank to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Personnel productivity		
Personnel morale		
Gender relations		
Race relations		
Understanding between workers		
Tensions and conflicts among workers		
Profit margins in your bank		
Client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

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4. Have you personally benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

4.1. If YES, how did you benefit?

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raise false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your bank?

YES	NO

1.2. If YES, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment from your bank to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

_____

3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your bank?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your bank?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your bank?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,

5.1.1. How has this been done?

Branch meetings	
Women only meetings at branch level	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Branch managers	
Upper management	
Personnel from human resources	
Staff associations/ unions	
Government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

6. Does your bank specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

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6.2. Does your bank use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

ALW	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your bank can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The bank=s growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

5. Why do you think there are fewer women represented in management positions, especially upper management levels?

_____

_____

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MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

1. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at developing and supporting future women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

3. Are you familiar with what you need to do if you are sexually harassed or discriminated against because of your gender?

YES	NO

3.1. If YES, what steps would you take?

_____

_____

GENERAL

1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your bank? (You may select more than one response)

Upper management	
Middle management	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
The human resources department	
Other (specify)	

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4. In your opinion, does your bank pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Savings schemes		
Full maternity/ paternity leave		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____

_____

_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____

_____

_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your bank?

YES	NO

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8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____

_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____

_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your bank in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKII	AFRICANS		WHITES			INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
		F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial									
Supervisory									
Administrative									
Secretarial/ clerical									
Sales/ retail									
Unskilled/ menial									

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your bank to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Sales/ retail					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____

_____

_____

Thank you

APPENDIX 2

Dear respondent

I am a DBA student at the University of Durban Westville (Student Number: 200200097). My research topic is "Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban". It is for this purpose that this questionnaire has been constructed. I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questions you may contact me or my supervisor (Prof J McCarthy).

My contact details are: (031) 300 5363: O/ (031) 262 3564: H

Yours sincerely

_____
Ms Roshini Bob

<div align="center">

QUESTIONNAIRES: FEMALE MANAGERS WITHIN THE EDUCATION SECTOR
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

</div>

NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Position:

Principal	
Deputy Principal	
Head of Department	
Other (specify)	

2. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

3. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

4. Educational level:

Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

5. Marital status:

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

4. How long have you worked in the education sector?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
more than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your school/ department of education formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your school/ department of education introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

4. Does your school recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, what other criteria do they use?

_____

_____

PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your school/ department of education have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
personnel productivity		
personnel morale		
gender relations		
race relations		
understanding between workers		
tensions and conflicts among workers		
profit margins		
client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

4. Have you personally benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

4.1. If YES, how did you benefit?

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raises false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

1.2. Is it difficult to manage policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

1.3. If YES to any of the above, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

_____

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3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,

5.1.1. How has this been done?

Staff meetings	
Women only meetings at the school	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Principals/ Deputy Principals	
Head of departments	
Circuit inspectors	
Other personnel from the department of education	
Staff associations/ unions	
Other government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

6. Does your school/ department of education specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES to the above, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

6.2. Does your bank use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

ALWAYS	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your school/ department of education can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The school=s growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions)	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

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5. Why are women disproportionately represented in management positions, especially deputy principal and principal posts at school?

_____

_____

6. How can women best enter and succeed in management positions?

_____

_____

7. What sacrifices have you made to become a manager in your school?

_____

_____

8. At what age did you become a manager?

20-30	
31-40	
41-50	
>51	

9. Did you use any strategies to pursue your ambitions to become a managers?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, state what steps you took.

_____

_____

10.1. What impact to you see your role as a female manager to other employees (especially in lower positions) in your school?

_____

_____

10.2. What impact to you see your role as a female manager to family members and friends (especially the youth)?

_____

_____

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

1. How has gender discrimination affected you as a manager?

_____

_____

2. How has policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination affected you as a managers?

_____

_____

3. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at women managers or developing future women managers?

YES	NO

3.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

4. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5. As a women manager, do you feel comfortable implementing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

YES	NO

6. As a women manager, are you sufficiently trained and knowledgeable about gender discrimination at the work place?

YES	NO

7. As a women manager, are you adequately equipped to handle sexual harassment or gender discrimination accusations among your employees?

YES	NO

8. Have you handled any sexual harassment or gender discrimination cases as a manager?

YES	NO

8.1. If YES, were you satisfied with the way in which the matter was resolved?

YES	NO

9. Are you familiar with what you need to do if you are sexually harassed or discriminated against because you are a women?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, what steps would you take?

_____

_____

10. What type of problems do you experience as a manager? Indicate which problems do you think are compounded because you are a women manager?

_____

_____

11. Do you manage differently than the male managers?

YES	NO

11.1. If YES, how do you manage differently?

_____

_____

GENERAL

1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your school/ department of education? (You may select more than one response)

Head of departments	
Principals/ deputy principals	
Officials from the department of education	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
Officials from other government departments	
Other (specify)	

4. In your opinion, does your school/ department of education pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Full maternity/ paternity benefits		
Savings schemes		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____

_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____

_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your bank?

YES	NO

8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____

_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____

_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your school in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKILL CATEGORY	AFRICANS		WHITES		INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial								
Supervisory								
Administrative								
Secretarial/ clerical								
Unskilled/ menial								

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your school to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you

Dear respondent

I am a DBA student at the University of Durban Westville (Student Number: 200200097). My research topic is "Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban". It is for this purpose that this questionnaire has been constructed. I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questions you may contact me or my supervisor (Prof J McCarthy).

My contact details are: (031) 300 5363: O/ (031) 262 3564: H

Yours sincerely

_____

Ms Roshini Bob

QUESTIONNAIRES: EDUCATION MALE MANAGERS
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Position in your school:

Principal	
Deputy principal	
Head of department	
Other (specify)	

2. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

3. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

4. Educational level

Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

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5. Marital status

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

4. How long have you worked in your school/ department of education?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
more than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your school/ department of education formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your school/ department of education introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

4. Does your school/ department of education recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, what other criteria do they use?

_____

_____

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PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your school/ department of education have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
personnel productivity		
personnel morale		
gender relations		
race relations		
understanding between workers		
tensions and conflicts among workers		
profit margins in your bank		
client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

4. Do you personally know of someone who benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

4.1. If YES, how did they benefit?

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raise false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

1.2. Is it difficult to manage policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

1.3. If YES to any of the above, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment from your bank to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

_____

3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,

5.1.1. How has this been done?

Staff meetings	
Women only meetings at school level	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Principals/ deputy principals	
Head of departments	
Circuit inspectors	
Other officials from the department of education	
Staff associations/ unions	
Other government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

6. Does your school/ department of education specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES to the above, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

6.2. Does your bank use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

ALWAYS	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your school/ department of education can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The school=s growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

5. Why are women disproportionately represented in management positions, especially upper management levels?

_____

_____

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6. How can women best enter and succeed at management positions?

_____

_____

7. What sacrifices have you made to become a manager in your school?

_____

_____

8. At what age did you become a manager?

20-30	
31-40	
41-50	
>51	

9. Did you use any strategies to pursue your ambitions to become a manager?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, state what steps you took.

_____

_____

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

1. How has policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination affected you as a managers?

_____

_____

2. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at empowering and supporting women managers or developing future women managers in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

2.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

3. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

4. As a manager, do you feel comfortable implementing policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

YES	NO

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5. As a manager, are you sufficiently trained and knowledgeable about gender discrimination at the work place?

YES	NO

6. As a manager, are you adequately equipped to handle sexual harassment or gender discrimination accusations among your employees?

YES	NO

7. Have you handled any sexual harassment or gender discrimination cases as a manager?

YES	NO

7.1. If YES, were you satisfied with the way in which the matter was resolved?

YES	NO

8. What type of problems do you experience as a manager? Indicate which problems do you think are compounded because you are a male manager?

_____

_____

9. Do you manage differently than the female managers?

YES	NO

9.1. If YES, how do you manage differently?

_____

_____

GENERAL

1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your school/ department of education? (You may select more than one response)

Principal/ deputy principal	
Head of departments	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
Officials from the department of education	
Other (specify)	

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4. In your opinion, does your school/ department of education pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Savings schemes		
Full maternity/ paternity leave		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____
_____
_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____
_____
_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your bank?

YES	NO

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8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____

_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____

_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your school in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKILL CATEGORY	AFRICANS		WHITES		INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial								
Supervisory								
Administrative								
Secretarial/ clerical								
Unskilled/ menial								

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your school to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you

Dear respondent

I am a DBA student at the University of Durban Westville (Student Number: 200200097). My research topic is "Women in Management: A Comparative Study of the Public (Education) and Private (Banking) Sectors in Durban". It is for this purpose that this questionnaire has been constructed. I thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire. If there are any questions you may contact me or my supervisor (Prof J McCarthy).

My contact details are: (031) 300 5363: O/ (031) 262 3564: H

Yours sincerely

_____
Ms Roshini Bob

QUESTIONNAIRES: EDUCATION STAFF/ NON-MANAGERIAL POSITIONS
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL
TICK WHERE APPLICABLE

NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS
1. Position in your school:

Level one/ permanent teacher	
Temporary teacher	
Secretarial/ Clerical	
Unskilled/ menial	
Other (specify)	

2. Gender:

Female	Male

3. Age:

less than 30 years	
31-40	
41-50	
over 51	

4. Race:

African	
Indian	
Coloured	
White	

5. Educational level

No formal schooling	
Primary school	
Secondary school	
Certificates (specify)	
Diplomas (specify)	
Degree (specify)	
Post-graduate degree (specify)	
Other (specify)	

5. Marital status

Married with no children	
Married with children (specify number and age/s)	
Divorced with no children	
Divorced with children (specify number and age/s)	
Single with no children	
Single with children (specify number and age/s)	

6. How long have you worked in your school?

less than 5 years	
6-10	
11-15	
16-20	
more than 21 years	

KNOWLEDGE OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. Is your school/ department of education formally opposed to discriminatory practices on the basis of:

TYPE OF DISCRIMINATION	YES	NO
Race		
Gender		
Sexuality		
Disability		
Other (specify)		

2. To overcome past discriminatory practices against women has your school/ department of education introduced policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination (such as affirmative action or equal opportunities act)?

YES	NO

3.1. In your opinion, what is gender discrimination?

_____

_____

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3.2. In your opinion, what is sexual harassment?

_____

_____

4. Does your school/ department of education recruit and promote personnel on merit alone?

YES	NO

4.1. If NO, what other criteria do they use?

_____

_____

PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

1. Do attempts to address gender inequalities and discrimination in your school/ department of education have a positive or negative impact on (if you have indicated that there are no formal programmes currently in place to address gender discrimination then what do you think the impacts of the implementation of this would be):

	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Personnel productivity		
Personnel morale		
Gender relations		
Race relations		
Understanding between workers		
Tensions and conflicts among workers		
Profit margins in your bank		
Client base and retention		

1.2. If NEGATIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

1.3. If POSITIVE to any of the above, give reasons for your position.

_____

_____

2. Which group of women do you think most benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

2.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

3. Which group of women do you think least benefits from programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination?

_____

3.1. Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

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4. Have you personally benefited from policies/ programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination?

YES	NO

4.1. If YES, how did you benefit?

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, attempts to address gender discrimination are:

	YES	NO
Justified given past discrimination against women		
Exaggerated since women who work and study hard are equally compensated and promoted		
Discrimination against men		
Detrimental to the economy		
Detrimental to the home because more and more children are left without parental guidance		
Bound to raise false expectations among women		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being placed in managerial positions		
Likely to result in poorly qualified women being employed		
Being forced by government		

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMMES ADDRESSING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1.1. Is it difficult to implement policies and programmes challenging gender discrimination in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

1.2. If YES, what are the problems/ constraints?

Resistance from all workers	
Resistance from male workers	
Lack of management skills	
Lack of support from management structures	
Insufficient opportunities for training and skills development	
Lack of funds for effective training and skills development opportunities	
Conflicts among workers	
Top management are male	
Lack of commitment from your bank to implement programmes	
Policies are vague and difficult to understand	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that recruitment and promotion policies are fair in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

2.1. If NO, explain why?

_____

_____

3. Are all personnel, regardless of gender differences, granted equal opportunities in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

4. Do you think that there is equal opportunity to access bursaries and other funding opportunities provided by your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5. Has the details of policies and programmes aimed at ending gender discrimination been communicated to all staff in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

5.1. If YES,

5.1.1. How has this been done?

Staff meetings	
Women only meetings at school	
Newsletters/ Circulars/ Memos	
Notice boards	
Workshops/ seminars: jointly with men	
Workshops/ seminars: women only	
E-mails	
Other (specify)	

5.1.2. If not in written form, who disseminated the information?

Deputy principals/ Principals	
Head of departments	
Circuit inspectors	
Other officials from the department of education	
Staff associations/ unions	
Other government officials	
Other (specify)	

5.2. If NO, why do you think this has been done?

Employees are not interested	
Policies have not been developed completely	
Prefer to quietly implement action against gender discrimination	
Do not want to raise expectations	
Fear of male discontent	
Avoid pressure from other groups	
Other (specify)	

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6. Does your school/ department of education specify when advertising jobs that affirmative action will be considered when filling a post?

YES	NO

6.1. If YES, is this done for all positions or some?

ALL	SOME

6.2. Does your school/ department of education use gender neutral terminology in advertisements to fill vacancies?

ALWAYS	MOSTLY	SOMETIMES	NEVER

WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT: PERCEPTIONS/ ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that having more female managers in your school/ department of education can contribute to:

	YES	NO	IF YES, SPECIFY HOW?
Your personal growth			
Your professional growth			
The school=s growth			

2. Who do you think make better managers?

MALES	FEMALES	NO PREFERENCE

2. If you have chosen MALES OR FEMALES, give a reason/s.

_____

_____

3. What difficulties, in your opinion, do female managers experience? (Can have multiple responses)

Time constraints (usually juggling work and household responsibilities)	
Insufficient personal time	
Are not respected by male employees	
Are not respected by female employees	
Have very few opportunities for upward mobility (promotion to higher managerial positions	
Other (specify)	
None	

4. In your opinion, women generally get managerial positions because they (can select more than one response):

Work hard and deserve the job	
Are affirmative action candidates	
Are more sensitive and understanding	
Are better at team work	
Flirt (or have sexual relationships) with men who are decision makers	
Other (specify)	

5. Why do you think there are fewer women represented in management positions, especially upper management levels?

_____

_____

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS
1. Have you attended any training programmes, workshops, seminars, etc. aimed at developing and supporting future women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

2.1. If YES, which of the following did the training focus on:

Management training	
Women in management issues	
Gender policies and programmes	
Conflict resolution and mediation	
Supervision/ leadership	
Recruitment and promotion aspects	
Other (specify)	

2. Do you think that there are sufficient opportunities to empower and develop women managers in your bank?

YES	NO

3. Are you familiar with what you need to do if you are sexually harassed or discriminated against because of your gender?

YES	NO

3.1. If YES, what steps would you take?

_____

_____

GENERAL
1. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a good manager?

_____

_____

2. What characteristics, in your opinion, contribute to someone being a bad manager?

_____

_____

3. Who do you think are best suited to develop and implement policies and programmes aimed at eliminating gender discrimination in your school/ department of education? (You may select more than one response)

Deputy principal/ principal	
Head of department	
A gender equity officer	
A gender equity task team/ commission	
Officials from the department of education	
Other (specify)	

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4. In your opinion, does your school/ department of education pay sufficient attention to:

	YES	NO
Long-term personnel planning		
Training and development		
Job definitions		
Job specifications		
Performance appraisal systems		
Selection methods		
Promotion systems		
Fringe benefits		
Monetary compensation/ incentives		

5. Which of the following fringe benefits do/ does your organisation provide for you?

TYPE OF BENEFIT	TICK	SPECIFY NATURE OF BENEFIT
Pension		
Medical aid		
Housing subsidy		
Transport subsidy		
Leave with full pay		
Sick leave with full pay		
Life insurance/ funeral coverage		
Relocation assistance		
Child care facilities		
Clothing subsidies (especially for uniforms)		
Annual bonus		
Long service and retirement awards		
Savings schemes		
Full maternity/ paternity leave		
Other (specify)		

6. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you enjoy most about your job?

_____
_____
_____

7. Identify in order of importance three aspects that you like least about your job?

_____
_____
_____

8. Are you secure about your job/ position in your school/ department of education?

YES	NO

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8.1. If NO, explain why you fell insecure?

_____

_____

9. Do you feel that you will be promoted in the future?

YES	NO

9.1. If NO, why do you feel you will not be promoted?

_____

_____

9.2. Are you satisfied with your current position?

YES	NO

10. In your opinion, the majority of new appointments in that last five years in your school in the different skills categories have been (select one group per category):

SKILL CATEGORY	AFRICANS		WHITES		INDIANS		COLOUREDS	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Managerial								
Supervisory								
Administrative								
Secretarial/ clerical								
Unskilled/ menial								

11. How many years do you think that it will take for your school to be fully integrated in terms of gender in the following categories?

	ALREADY INTEGRATED	1-5	5-10	11-15	>15
Managerial					
Supervisory					
Administrative					
Secretarial/ clerical					
Unskilled/ menial					

12. Additional comments

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you

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